



A SCRUTINY ON THE MORAL DECISION-MAKING ATTITUDES OF THE YOUTH SPORTSPEOPLE IN COMBAT BRANCHES

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Abstract:

The objective of this study is to scrutinize the changes in the moral decision-making attitudes of the youth sportspeople in the branches of box, wrestling, karate, kickboxing, judo, and taekwondo. The population of the study is constituted by the youth sportspeople in Turkey and the sample group consists of 257 male and 135 female, totally 392, sportspeople doing sports in the youth setups of box, wrestling, karate, kickboxing, judo, and taekwondo in the province of Osmaniye. In acquiring the data, for demographic properties, a personal information form and, for moral decision-making attitudes, "Moral Decision-making Attitudes Scale in Youth Sports" developed by Lee, Whitehead, and Ntoumanis (2007) and adapted to the Turkish culture and examined its test reliability by Gürpınar (2014a) were used. In our study where the level of significance was determined as 0,05, homogeneity and variances of the data were determined by conducting a descriptive statistics operation; Kruskal Wallis, Man Whitney U tests were used in determining the changes between groups; and Tamhane's T2 test was utilized to determine the source of the difference. In our study, no change in the moral decision-making attitudes of the youth sportspeople in combat branches in line with the factor of period of doing sports was observed, while it was determined that the factors of age, gender, branch, and parental education level are effective in the moral decision-making attitudes of sportspeople and that such effects cause statistically significant alterations ($p < 0.05$).

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1. Introduction

Morality is a structure that contains concepts like rights, responsibilities, and wisdoms. The words like good or bad, right or wrong, and fair or unfair are shaped according to the moral structure (Arnnop et al., 2012; Ayala, 2010). Moral task is the compliance of a person with rules for himself/herself first and then for the counterparties (Sezen, 2003). The third meaning of morality in Turkish is “ethic” (Tepe, 1998). Ethics is perceived as the manner of distinguishing between right or wrong as the whole of the standards and principles that steer behaviors in all walks of life (Kaya, 2012). Sports ethics covers the duties and responsibilities of the supporters of a branch of sports, which play a significant part in the improvement of sports in general, and their performance of such duties and responsibilities in line with the universal values such as honesty, justice, openness, impartialness, and respect (Dolaşır, Tuncel, and Büyüköztürk, 2009)

Even though sports is a comprehensive contest performed to reach what is faster, stronger, and higher and at the same time, it is a game, race, and entertainment conducted through the universal principles and rules (Yetim, 2005). Sports entertain people and make them spend good time and there is the reality that it directs a person through his/her own will by means of the sportive obligations. Morality in sports starts at this point. Morality in sports is not the set of rules added to sports from outside; they are based on sports. Hence, the wisdoms acquired by means of morality in sports, which we refer to as the sportive wisdoms, stem from the phenomenon of sports (Öngel, 1997). According to Erdemli (2016), a sport is a special life and special morality. A sport is for humans; deterioration of morality in sports is not the deterioration of the sportive event but that of the person performing it. These two concepts have become integrated with each other; if you exclude one, the other will no longer be there (Erdemli, 2008). A sport is at the same time an instrument of moral development (Romance et al, 1986; Shields and Bredemeier, 1995).

A sport is divided into two as the individual sports and team sports. Individual sports are the sort of sports that can be performed personally and that usually bring contestants face to face one-by-one in general. A team sport is the general name of the sportive activity carried out as a team with multiple sportspeople (Kurtiç, 2006). In our country, the branches, with which the tendency toward combat sports is considered to be much, and which require individual combat are karate, judo, and taekwondo. In these branches, a sportsperson confronts an opponent and fights with him/her (Kayapınar et al., 2016). We can add box, wrestling, and kickboxing, whose audience

and participants are many, to such individual branches. Such fields of sports are considered by many parents as physical activities, discipline, and martial arts of self-defense for their children (Zetaruk et al., 2000).

The very first rules that sportspeople, just like any individual of a society, must obey in performing their professions, are the rules of morality. It will be in the manner of complying with the rules in sportive combats; being prudent in the case of both winning and losing; having the consciousness that a sportive event is a game, that it is performed for the sake of the sport itself, and that winning or losing has secondary importance; and behaving accordingly. Thus, sportive activities and sports education must endeavor to ensure not only the culmination of the psycho-motor movements of sportspeople but also their training toward contesting by adhering to moral values (Tanrıverdi, 2012). Sports education that starts at an early age ensures that success develops in line with the essence of sports. This way, a young one will work out knowing himself/herself and his/her limits and strength as well as what to do to improve them and render them competent and he/she will not overlook morality in sports for the sake of sportive success (Erdemli, 1996). As a sport is an area where moral development can take place, we can construct our character morally if we dedicate ourselves to sports (Austin, 2010).

3. Material and Methods

3.1. The Model of the Study

In this study, casual comparative study model was used.

3.2. The Study Group

The population of the study is constituted by the youth sportspeople in Turkey and the sample group consists of 257 male and 135 female, totally 392, sportspeople doing sports in the youth setups of box, wrestling, karate, kickboxing, judo, and taekwondo in the province of Osmaniye. In the selection of the study group, appropriate method of sampling was used and questionnaires were applied to sportspeople by way of their coaches.

3.3. Data Collection Tool

In the study, a questionnaire consisting of two sections has been used to collect data. In the first section, questions regarding the demographic properties (age, gender, family education status) of sportspeople are available. In the second section, the "Moral Decision-making Attitudes Scale in Youth Sports" developed by Lee, Whitehead, and

Ntoumanis (2007) was used to measure the moral decision-making attitudes of sportspeople. The adaptation of the scale to the Turkish culture and examination of its test reliability were conducted by Gürpınar (2014a). The scale is a five-level Likert-type scale with 9 articles and 3 sub-dimensions, scored between I strongly disagree (1) and I strongly agree (5). The sub-dimensions of the scale are constituted by adoption of cheating (articles 1, 5, 8), adoption of contest loving (articles 2, 4, 6), and maintaining fair victory (articles 3, 7, 9). 6 of the articles oriented to measure the moral decision-making attitudes have negative (1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8) and 3 have positive (3, 7, 9) meanings. In scoring positive articles, "I strongly agree" is scored with "5" and "I strongly disagree" is scored with "1." In scoring negative articles, "I strongly agree" is scored with "1" and "I strongly disagree" is scored with "5." Articles numbered 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, and 8 are coded reversely. The high points received from the scale means that the moral decision-making attitudes of the sportspeople students are more positive and the low ones mean that they are negative.

3.4. Data Analysis

In the analysis of the data used in the study, SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Scientists for Windows Release 16. 0) program was used. The level of significance was evaluated upon 0,05. Homogeneousness and variances of the data were determined by conducting a descriptive statistics operation; Kruskal Wallis, Man Whitney U tests were used in determining the changes between groups; and Tamhane's T2 test was utilized to determine the source of the difference.

4. Results and Discussion

The moral decision-making attitudes of the youth sportspeople in the combat branches, such as box, wrestling, karate, kickboxing, judo, and taekwondo were examined in terms of various variables in this study.

It is a reality that the things acquired by children and young ones interested in combat branches thanks to sports branches provide them with significant advantages compared with their peers. In terms of this reality, it is considered that the energies of the individuals in the developmental age must be converted into positive energy in appropriate channels by accurate timing. At this stage, sports morality comes into play. Minds and bodies kneaded with sports morality are a highly important acquisition for the future generations. In view of the possibility that the persons who lack sports morality can use their energy in negative things, the importance of the morality level in combat branches will be apparent.

In consideration of the fact that combat branches are performed individually and competition takes place against tens of people in a contest, it is a generally accepted view that placement in such branches is highly difficult. In addition, it is thought that in an environment in which the individual branches are performed one-on-one without the help of teammates, contrary to the team branches, sportspeople might try anything in order to win and that the fact that the mistakes made can be tolerated by the other members of the team while there is no such condition in combat branches creates the environments where the sportive moral rules can be violated.

Ability to obtain the efficiency expected from sports is possible through keeping up with the sports morality and its philosophical principles and rules that have reached the present times from the past. We can ensure it only through instilling the principles of sports and olympism to our children from early ages (Erdemli, 2002). Age is an important factor in the development of moral attributes. Understanding of morality of a young person will not be the same as that of a child or a mature person. From early childhood toward adulthood, there is a development stage regarding what is right or wrong and noticing what it means to be a good person (Clouse, 2000).

In our study, in terms of the age factor, no statistically significant difference was observed in the adoption of cheating and adoption of contest loving sub-dimensions while it was determined that in the adoption of cheating sub-dimension, 11-13 age group sportspeople averages were higher than the categories of 14-16 and 17-19 age groups. In the maintaining fair victory sub-dimension, the 11-13 age group sportspeople averages ($4, 30 \pm 0, 78$) were found to be higher than the 17-19 age group averages ($3, 91 \pm 1, 05$) and such change was determined to be statistically significant as well ($p < 0, 05$; Table 1).

Moral attitude levels differentiate according to age (Avcı, 2010). Kaye and Ward (2010) express that the points of violating rules, which is adoption of cheating, were found higher in the sportspeople in the adults category (2, 20) than the sportspeople in the minors category (1, 93). Lee et al., (2007) specified that in the sportspeople in the 14-16 age group, adoption of cheating and contest loving were significantly more than the sportspeople in 11-13 age group. According to the result of the study of Tsai and Fung (2005), tendency of the people with older ages toward being sportspeople is lower than that of the younger ones. Gürpınar and Kurşun determined that (2013) sportspeople with younger ages have lower sportpersonship scores. As it is seen, there are findings regarding moral attitude and behavior in the age variable dimension within the literature. It is considered that in the differences, the factors like social impacts, local culture, family and coach training style, and desire for succeeding are effective. In view of the findings of our study, determination of the adoption of cheating point averages of

sportspeople in younger age group makes us think that they were not sufficiently mature in a moral sense because of their lower ages. A response program that promotes moral reasoning for high school students by means of physical education was developed by Mouratidou et al (2007a) and a six-week moral development program, which was custom-made for them, was applied. A moral judgment test was applied prior and subsequent to training. It was determined at the end of the training that in the moral decision-making attitudes of students, there was a positive development. It is considered that the moral knowledge and experiences of our children and young ones taking part in sportive activities will increase also depending on the calendar age by means of accurate planning and moral education-training method. The most important point that must be remembered is that the sportive success targets affect the moral attitudes of sportspeople positively or negatively (Gonçalves et al., 2010).

Each sports branch has its own rules and unique characteristics. According to the findings obtained for the moral attitudes in the variable of branches of the combat sportspeople, there is no statistically significant difference in the adoption of cheating sub-dimension as per the branches of the sportspeople ($p > 0.05$), and, in the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension, the averages of the sportspeople in the taekwondo branch ($3,47 \pm 0,96$) were found higher than the averages of the sportspeople in the kickboxing branch ($3,00 \pm 0,97$) and such change was determined statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). In the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension, the point averages of the sportspeople in the taekwondo branch was higher than the point averages of the sportspeople in the wrestling, box, judo, and kickboxing branches, while they were lower than those of the sportspeople in the karate branch. The highest point average in the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension belonged to the sportspeople in the karate branch and the lowest point average took place in the sportspeople in the box branch. In the maintaining fair victory sub-dimension, the karate sportspeople averages ($4,97 \pm 0,10$) were found to be higher than the other branch averages and such change was also determined statistically significant ($p < 0.05$; Table 2).

Combat branches can be the sports with contact. Gürpınar (2014) informs that the moral decision-making attitudes of the sportspeople students differed significantly according to the variable of the type of the sports, that the sportspeople performing sports without contact adopted cheating and contest loving less than the sportspeople performing sports with contact, and that they maintained fair winning more. Mouratidou et al (2007b) specify in their study regarding the sportspeople in the tennis, football, and handball branches that physical contact has a very important impact in the moral judgments of sportspeople, that the moral development scores of the sportspeople in the branches with low physical contact were higher, that the sports with

high physical contact levels are related with lower moral levels, and that the moral judgments of sportspeople vary according to the type of sports, the level of competition, and the level of participating in the sportive activities in a regular manner. In a study conducted by Gürpınar and Kurşun (2013), they determined that the sport personship points of basketball players were higher than and different from those of the football players significantly in the respect for rules and management sub-dimension. Professional football players consider the violation of rules as normal behaviors in higher proportions than amateur football players. They consider sports person like behaviors that do not comply with morality as smart tactics (Sezen, 2003). The results of the study of Lee et al (2007) show that the acceptance of cheating and contest loving is significantly more in the team sportspeople than individual sportspeople. Ramazanoğlu et al (2002) inform that people involved with taekwondo have lesser tendency of aggressiveness compared with football players. Tsai and Fung (2005) state that basketball players attach less importance to sports personship than volleyball players. In the point averages of the study performed by Ponseti et al (2012) in Spain, the ratio of adoption of cheating is significantly higher in basketball (2, 67) and handball players (2, 78) than football players (2, 25). In their study where they scrutinized the moral decision-making attitudes of the sportspeople in athletics and wrestling, Altın and Özşarı (2017) determined no statistical difference in the adoption of cheating and maintaining fair victory sub-dimensions depending on branch factor but they ascertained that in the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension, the sportspeople averages of the sportspeople involved with the wrestling branch were lower than the sportspeople involved with the athletics branch and that such change was statistically significant as well.

In the studies performed within the literature, different findings have been reached depending on the branch factor. It is considered that on the stage of evaluating the moral attitudes of sportspeople, evaluations must be performed without distinguishing them merely like with/without contact or personal -team sports, in the sports branches, but by considering unique characteristics of the branches as well as the factors like the culture where the sportspeople are trained, etc.

In the moral attitude behaviors of combat sportspeople, no statistically significant difference was observed in the moral decision-making attitude sub-dimensions depending on the sports personship period factor ($p>0,05$; Table 3). The adoption of cheating point averages of the individuals with 1-2-year sports personship past are higher than the sportspeople with 3-4 and 7-year sports personship past. Depending on the period of sports personship factor, an intermittent decline in the point averages for adoption of cheating and an intermittent increase in the point

averages for maintaining contest loving and fair victory were observed. According to the findings of Gürpınar (2014b), the moral decision-making attitudes of the students doing sports differ according to the sports personship variable to a significant extent. The points received by the students doing sports from the adoption of cheating sub-dimension and adoption of contest loving sub-dimension exhibited significant difference in favor of inexperienced sportspeople. In a study regarding the sportspeople in the kickboxing field, a result that aggressiveness reduces as long as the number of the years of doing sports increases was obtained (Tekin et al, 2011). Gümüş et al (2014) determined in their study on the wrestling and muay-thai sportspeople that the points of aggressiveness of the individuals with 1-3 years of background are higher than those of the sportspeople with 6-7 years of background in the sport.

It is considered that an increase will take place in the moral maturity level of the individuals taking part in sportive activities as long as their past of doing sports increases. In the declaration at the end of the "Education through Sports" forum held in 2002, the fact that sports must remain as a tool that educates all people and that a sportive activity applied within the limits of the rules of ethics and fair play would enhance morality and physical strength was highlighted (Özbey and Güzel, 2009). Participation of children in regular physical activity has been related with cognitive processes, superior academic success, and aerobic suitability at higher level (Chaddock et al, 2012).

Parental education level has been determined to be effective on the social adaptation and skills of children (Sarı, 2007). Participation in sports in the childhood ages in terms of the education level of families is in parallel with the dimension of knowledge and consciousness of parents about physical activity and sportive activities (Dinç et al, 2011).

According to the findings of our study, in the mother education level factor, no statistical difference was observed in the adoption of cheating and maintaining fair victory dimensions, while it was found higher in the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension than postgraduate education level averages ($3,98 \pm 0,71$), primary education averages ($3,26 \pm 1,02$), and secondary education averages ($3,20 \pm 0,88$) and such change was determined to be statistically significant ($p < 0,05$; Table 4). In the maintaining fair victory dimension, in the father education level factor, no statistical difference was observed while primary education level averages ($4,45 \pm 0,81$) were found higher than the university averages ($4,32 \pm 0,74$) in the adoption of cheating sub-dimension, and such change was determined to be statistically significant ($p < 0,05$). When it comes to the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension, the secondary education level averages ($3,12 \pm 0,96$) were found lower than the university graduate

averages (3, 66 ± 0, 91) and such change was determined to be statistically significant ($p < 0.05$; Table 5).

Parental education levels are deemed one of the important factors in the moral decision-making attitudes of sportspeople. According to Demirtaş (2001), low education levels of mothers affect the self-care skills of children negatively. It is possible to state that the parental education level is effective in the social adaptation and social skills of children; that, when the relations between mothers and children are positive, the moral knowledge and understanding of children, and their moral behaviors accordingly, develop positively; and that the attitudes of the father are effective on the understandings of children about social rules (Özyürek and Şahin, 2015). Parental attitudes are one of the most important factors that affect the moral maturity levels of people (Ishak et al., 2012; Şengün, 2013). As highlighted in the literature, as long as the level of education increases, the level of participating in physical activity would increase (Arabacı, 2010). Considering that the initial foundations of morality of the students doing sports are laid within the family, high importance of the parental education level will be perceived better. Sportspeople are taught to reflect the moral education received in their family to the fields of sports together with the discipline brought along by their branches.

In view of the findings obtained regarding the moral attitude behaviors of combat sportspeople among the gender groups, the average of the females (4. 40 ± 0, 76) within the adoption of cheating sub-dimension was found higher than males (4. 23 ± 0, 87). In the maintaining fair victory sub-dimension, the point averages of males (4. 22 ± 0, 88) are higher than the females (4. 18 ± 0, 85); however, no statistically significant difference was found in terms of adoption of cheating and maintaining fair victory points ($p > 0.05$), while the point average of female sportspeople (3, 63 ± 0, 90) was found higher than the male sportspeople's point average (3, 08 ± 0, 97) in the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension and statistically significant difference was determined ($p < 0.05$; Table 6).

According to the result of their study on the male and female basketball players, Ponseti et al (2016) inform that there are similarities in the acknowledgment of cheating dimension in both genders but the acknowledgment of cheating points of the females are higher than those of the males. Kavussanu and Roberts (2001) comment in view of the results of their study conducted on the college basketball players on the fact that in attaining their success targets, male sportspeople exhibit behaviors that do not comply with morality and sportpersonship at lower levels than female sportspeople. Tucker and Parks (2001) inform that the aggressive behavior points of females are lower than males. It is shown in the study conducted by Gürpınar (2014b), moral decision-making

attitudes of males exhibit a significant difference according to the gender variable. It was observed that the points of the sportspeople students they received from the sub-dimensions of adoption of cheating, adoption of contest loving, and maintaining fair victory presented a significant difference in favor of females. It was determined that females adopted cheating and contest loving to a lesser extent and that they maintained fair victory more than males. Sezer et al (2015) inform that the students doing sports and taking part in sportive activities exhibit significant differences in terms of avoiding inappropriate behaviors. According to the study, the point averages of the females were determined to be higher than the point averages of males. Tsai and Fung (2005) provide that male players attach less importance to sportsmanship than female players. Akandere et al (2009) specify that the moral judgment levels of the female students doing sports are higher than those of the males. According to the findings presented by Lee et al (2007), the level of moral decision-making attitudes of male sportspeople was higher than females. [Mouratidou](#) (2016) informs that gender of players does not have a significant impact on moral decisions.

The different results of the studies conducted in the field of sports demonstrate that it is difficult to reach a definite judgment in the gender variable in the case of moral decision-making of sportspeople. A question might come to mind at this point: "Are these results unique only to the field of sports?" According to the results of the study on the moral decision-making attitudes in view of the gender variable within the field of social sciences, attended by university students, the moral maturity point averages of the female students were found higher than the point averages of males (Kaya and Aydın, 2011). Cesur and Küyel (2010) determined at the end of their study examining the moral judgments of university students that the moral evaluation levels of the young ones do not differ according to gender. Şengün (2008) states that in his study on high school students, moral maturity point averages of female students were higher than male ones. Aydın (2011) showed that the level of moral judgment does not present a significant difference in terms of gender. In the study where the moral maturity levels of prospective teachers were examined, gender variable did not create a significant difference on the moral maturity level (Çekin, 2013).

In view of the results of the studies conducted within the field of social sciences, it appears that reaching a definitive judgment in the gender variable in moral decision-making is difficult. In sports, it is difficult to develop an equally-accepted definition of moral behavior; definitions vary in line with functionalizing, construal of moral behavior, origin of participants, and their viewpoint (Lucidi et al., 2017). In general, various demographic properties and the perceptions regarding sports must be taken into account when interpreting the morality profile of people ([Mouratidou](#), 2016).

5. Conclusion

As a result, it is possible to reach a conclusion that in the moral decision-making attitudes of the youth sportspeople within the combat branches, such as box, wrestling, karate, kickboxing, judo, and taekwondo, the factor of the period of acting as a sports person is not significantly effective, while the factors of age, branch, parental education level, and gender are significantly important in sportspeople's moral decision-making attitudes. It is considered that the variability of the sports branches, competition, desire of winning, fear of losing, and, most importantly, the moral structure of sportspeople can be effective in their decision-making attitudes. It must be remembered that when training youth sportspeople physically in line with their branches, their cultural education must not be neglected and that it is necessary to instill to sportspeople by the families in particular and then the trainers that losing or winning is in the nature of sports and honorable losing is superior to a dishonorable victory. Construction of individual and social moral structure on accurate foundations is an indispensable fact for a sensitive generation with conscience.

The findings obtained through this study are of course limited with the sampling properties of participants, the conditions upbringing of them, and their socio-cultural characteristics. We think that, despite the limitations, the results obtained will provide significant contributions to the sports scientists, trainers, parents, and sports executives and that similar studies will contribute to the development and maturity of a moral structure.

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Figures and Tables

Table 1: Moral Decision-making Attitudes of Sportspeople depending on the Age Factor

Age Group	n	Adoption of cheating		Chi-Squ.	A. Sig.	Adoption of contest loving		Chi-Squ.	A. Sig.	Maintaining fair victory		Chi-Squ.	A. Sig.
		x	ss			x	ss			x	ss		
11-13 Ages	210	4,35	0,81	1,715	0,424	3,35	0,91	1,666	0,435	4,30	0,78 ^a	6,951	,031*
14-16 Ages	114	4,20	0,89			3,20	1,08			4,22	0,86		
17-19 Ages	68	4,31	0,77			3,29	1,01			3,91	1,05 ^b		
Total	392	4,30	0,83			3,30	0,98			4,21	0,86		

*, ab = Significant difference between groups.

As can be seen in Table 1, in terms of the age factor, no statistically significant difference was observed in the adoption of cheating and adoption of contest loving sub-dimensions while it was determined that in the maintaining fair victory sub-dimension, the 11-13 age group sportspeople averages (4,30 ± 0,78) were found to be higher than the 17-19 age group averages (3,91 ± 1,05) and such change was determined to be statistically significant as well (p<0,05).

Table 2: Moral Decision-making Attitudes of Sportspeople According to the Branch Factor

Branch	n	Adoption of cheating		Chi-Squ.	A. Sig.	Adoption of contest loving		Chi-Squ.	A. Sig.	Maintaining fair victory		Chi-Squ.	A. Sig.
		x	ss			x	ss			x	ss		
Wrestling	65	4,45	0,78	7,085	0,214	3,14	0,96	19,375	,002	4,30	0,92	28,814	,000*
Taekwondo	170	4,25	0,84			3,47	0,96 ^a			4,09	0,93		
Box	21	4,03	1,13			2,89	0,98			3,86	1,04		
Karate	19	4,58	0,61			3,65	0,83			4,97	0,10 ^a		
Judo	50	4,24	0,88			3,37	1,00			4,27	0,69		
Kickboxing	67	4,33	0,73			3,00	0,97 ^b			4,26	0,66		

*, ab = Significant difference between groups

As it would be understood from Table 2, according to the findings obtained, there is no statistically significant difference in the adoption of cheating sub-dimension as per the branches of the sportspeople (p>0,05), and, in the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension, the averages of the sportspeople in the taekwondo branch (3,47 ± 0,96) were found higher than the averages of the sportspeople in the kickboxing branch (3,00 ± 0,97) and such change was determined statistically significant (p<0,05). In the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension, the point averages of the sportspeople in the taekwondo branch was higher than the point averages of the sportspeople in the wrestling, box, judo, and kickboxing branches, while they were lower than those of the sportspeople in the karate branch. The highest point average in the adoption of contest

loving sub-dimension belonged to the sportspeople in the karate branch and the lowest point average took place in the sportspeople in the box branch. In the maintaining fair victory sub-dimension, the karate sportspeople averages ($4,97 \pm 0,10$) were found to be higher than the other branch averages and such change was also determined statistically significant ($p < 0,05$).

Table 3: Moral Decision-making Attitudes of Sportspeople according to the Period of being Sportspeople Factor

Period of being Sportspeople	n	Adoption of cheating		Chi-Square	Asymp. Sig.	Adoption of contest loving		Chi-Square	Asymp. Sig.	Maintaining fair victory		Chi-Square	Asymp. Sig.
		x	ss			x	ss			x	ss		
1 - 2 Years	224	4,34	0,82	2,901	0,407	3,34	0,93	1,727	0,631	4,30	0,80	6,343	0,096
3 - 4 Years	101	4,20	0,87			3,22	1,05			4,06	0,89		
5 - 6 Years	40	4,36	0,72			3,22	1,07			4,08	0,91		
7 Years and above	27	4,20	0,87			3,41	1,01			4,16	1,12		

As seen in Table 3, in the moral attitude behaviors of sportspeople, no statistically significant difference was observed in the entire moral decision-making attitude sub-dimensions depending on the sports personship period factor ($p > 0,05$).

Table 4: Moral Decision-making Attitudes of Sportspeople according to the Mother's Education Level Factor

Mother education level	n	Adoption of cheating		Chi-Square	p	Adoption of contest loving		Chi-Square	p	Maintaining fair victory		Chi-Square	Asymp. Sig.
		x	ss			x	ss			x	ss		
Primary Education	175	4,26	0,87	2,972	,396	3,26	1,02	12,647	,005*	4,20	0,87	3,073	,380
Secondary Education	152	4,29	0,80			3,20	0,88			4,25	0,87		
University	48	4,37	0,83			3,53	1,10			4,14	0,83		
Postgraduate	17	4,63	0,55			3,98	0,71 ^a			4,02	0,89		

^a, ^{ab} = Significant difference between groups

As seen in Table 4, in the mother education level factor, no statistical difference was observed in the adoption of cheating and maintaining fair victory dimensions, while it was found higher in the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension than postgraduate education level averages ($3,98 \pm 0,71$), primary education averages ($3,26 \pm 1,02$), and secondary education averages ($3,20 \pm 0,88$) and such change was determined to be statistically significant ($p < 0,05$).

Table 5: Moral Decision-making Attitudes of Sportspeople according to the
Father's Education Level Factor

Father's education level	n	Adoption of cheating		Chi-Square	Asymp. Sig.	Adoption of contest loving		Chi-Square	Asymp. Sig.	Maintaining fair victory		Chi-Square	Asymp. Sig.
		x	ss			x	ss			x	ss		
Primary education	107	4,45	0,81 ^a	11,302	,010*	3,37	0,99	11,356	,010*	4,27	0,87	1,488	,685
Secondary education	174	4,17	0,87			3,12	0,96 ^a			4,21	0,86		
University	81	4,32	0,74 ^b			3,46	0,97			4,16	0,87		
Postgraduate	30	4,47	0,80			3,66	0,91 ^b			4,10	0,89		

*, ab = Significant difference between groups.

In Table 5, in the maintaining fair victory dimension, in the father education level factor, no statistical difference was observed while primary education level averages (4,45 ± 0,81) were found higher than the university averages (4,32 ± 0,74) in the adoption of cheating sub-dimension, and such change was determined to be statistically significant (p<0.05). When it comes to the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension, the secondary education level averages (3,12 ± 0,96) were found lower than the university graduate averages (3,66 ± 0,91) and such change was determined to be statistically significant (p<0.05).

Table 6: Moral Decision-making Attitudes of Sportspeople according to the Gender Factor

Gender	n	Adoption of cheating		Z	A. Sig.	Adoption of contest loving		Z	A. Sig.	Maintaining fair victory		Z	A. Sig.
		x	ss			x	ss			x	ss		
Female	155	4,40	0,76	-1,82	0,069	3,63	,90 ^a	-5,404	,000*	4,18	0,85	-0,513	0,608
Male	237	4,23	0,87			3,08	,97 ^b			4,22	0,88		

As seen in Table 6, no statistically significant difference was found in terms of adoption of cheating and maintaining fair victory points (p>0,05), while the point average of female sportspeople was calculated as 3,63 ± 0,90 and that of the male sportspeople as 3,08 ± 0,97 in the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension and statistically significant difference was determined between the females and males in the adoption of contest loving sub-dimension (p<0.05).

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