

A Multidimensional Sport Attitudes Scale for Multinational Research

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Abstract

A multidimensional sport attitude scale was created to measure important sub-areas in sport beliefs and attitudes across cultures. To test this scale we compared sport beliefs and attitudes in a sample of American college students and faculty with similar populations of German and Austrian respondents and found common, as well as, differing attitudes, determinants of attitudes, and constellations of attitudes. Both populations believe that sport participation builds character, enhances health, should support diversity, and is important to early education. Some differences were that the American sample displayed stronger nationalistic tendencies in sport attitudes, watched sports more, accepted on-field violence in sports competitions more, were more in favor of punishing athletes who take performance enhancing drugs, think young people get pushed too hard in sports competition, viewed sports as a way of preserving cultural traditions, and were more in favor of “counting medals” in the Olympics. However, German speaking respondents more strongly opposed any religious discrimination in sports.

Keywords: International sports culture; Multinational sport attitudes; Fandom; Racism; Nationalism and internationalism; Religious discrimination; Homophobia

Introduction

In the present study a new multidimensional sport attitudes scale is tested in university populations in America and then compared to similar populations in Germany and Austria. It has been often argued that attitudes contain cognitive components (beliefs), affective (evaluative) and behavioral features (Ostrom, 1969). Beliefs were defined as attributions about the properties of things and their causal relationships to other things, whereas attitudes are evaluations of these effects, their properties, or their relationships with other effects. Rokeach (1968) suggested that values are preferences for modes of conduct or end-states (instrumental versus terminal values) and are the foundations of attitudes (Rokeach, 1968). Thus, when my belief that playing sports helps build the character of young people is paired with my value or priority of sustaining a well-functioning society, I may conclude that sports are good for my society (evaluative component of attitude) and I might refuse to drop a youth sports program (behavioral component). In the present case of sport beliefs and attitudes a person may hold that certain drugs enhance athletic performances above and beyond normal practice (belief). The person may also value fairness in competition (value). The resultant attitude would be an opposition to performance enhancing drug taking and the advocacy of sanctions against athletes who use them.

The possible differences and similarities between fan beliefs and attitudes across nations and cultures are not well-studied, nor do we know what factors may lead to differences if there are any. Fort (2000) discusses possible reasons why fans in the North America compared to Europe may differ or may have similar attitudes. They have similar cultural roots; but he argues that, even though North American fans are oriented to their supposed “world championships” and European fans have a more club and international focus, they are both devoted to their local, national, and international teams and, therefore, really shouldn’t differ at all in basic fan attitudes. He suggests that they both may be equally patriotic when it comes to their national teams and international competition. However, they may also differ in some issues such as sports commercialization. For instance, most Canadians (86 %) believe professional athlete’s salaries are excessive, whereas more German-Austrians do not agree (Bibby, 1995; Wann, 2001).

The “group identification” intensity of fans is believed to be universal (Tajfel, 1981). Fans are the epitome of loyal group members and are believed to show all the features of good group membership (emotionality, membership insignia, out-group animosity, etc.). We suspect that fans everywhere are loyal group members who show similar effects of identifying closely with their chosen teams. For instance, sports fans identify themselves with their favorite athlete or team (Gantz, 1981, Gantz & Wenner 1995; Sloan, 1989; Wann, 2001). Therefore fans will experience happiness or unhappiness depending on outcomes of sport events such as “the thrill of victory when the team wins and the agony of defeat when their team loses” (Wann, 2001; Smith, et al., 1996). In like manner Peel and Thomas (1992) have argued that fans everywhere like to see their home teams win, but not in lop-sided games which are less competitive and less stimulating. Sports everywhere may provide excitement and stimulation (eustress) and give ordinary people an opportunity to get out of the grinds and hassles of daily life (Wann, 2001). Funk, et al. (2000) report that loyal fans who attend every home game usually display intense and extreme attitudes, whereas fans who attend less such as two or three matches during the season, have moderate to low intensity attitudes toward their teams (Funk, Haugtvedt, & Howard, 2000). This might be considered a “universal” tendency in fan psychology if the generalization holds up.

A “cultural relativist” position would suggest that there are differences in fan attitudes and values according to such things as the local cultures of fans (collectivistic versus individualistic, masculine versus feminine, materialistic versus spiritual, face-saving versus competitive, etc.). For example, individualistic cultures may allow higher levels of compensation for individual superior athletes (Trompenaars, 1994). Gau and Kim (2011) differentiate western and Asian cultures according to their value systems. These authors claim that Asian cultures center more on the pursuit of knowledge, whereas western cultures center on individual liberty and the enjoyment of life. They propose that sports attitudes, fan associations, and team identification levels are generally weaker in Asian than western cultures. To illustrate this generalization they find that Americans exhibit stronger sport attitudes and team identification than Korean and Taiwanese (Gau & Kim, 2011).

There may be differences between cultures in the perception of the purpose of sports. Stewart and Lacassagne (2005) reported that Moroccans and French differ in their perception of the place of sports in society. For Moroccans sports represent hard work and competitive performance that must be achieved through education, discipline, and training; whereas the French view sports as a pleasure and a part of leisure activities meant to help people relax (Stewart & Lacassagne, 2005).

In many non-western (traditional) societies, sports have been viewed as a harmful distraction from reality and may prevent children from getting an education or earning a living. For example, Frenkiel and Baancel (2008) discovered that Algerian parents prefer that their children look for work, rather than participate in a sport.

Gender also plays an important role in sport attitudes. A number of studies have suggested that males and females differ in motivation to be sports fans (Wann, et al., 2008; Wann, 1995; Schrader et al., 1999). These studies report that males experience more excitement, enjoyment, arousal and self-worth when watching combative sports performances. On the other hand, women are more motivated by opportunities to spend time with the family watching sports and enjoy more non-combative, elegant, and stylistic sports that are esthetic and artistically expressive (Wann, et al., 2008; Wann, 1995).

Additionally, males and females differ in choosing their heroes to follow in life. For instance, young males are thought to make a greater effort to choose their heroes from sports than do girls (Wann, 2001). However, culture also plays a role when identifying exemplar sports heroes (Didillon & Vandewiele, 1985; Wann, 2001). For example, Wann (2001) suggests that one of the purposes of creating “Halls of Fame” is to promote sports heroes in North America. According to the author “Halls of Fame” is a North American phenomenon that both boosts the local economy and keeps memories of past achievements alive for future generations to admire. Sports fan attitudes may also relate to “internal cultural features” such as aggressive versus non-contact sport fan bases, a fan’s social class, the amateur versus professional sport contexts, and the socioeconomic structure of local sports (Wann, 2001). These differences may well generalize to a variety of cultures and await the accumulation of cross-cultural data.

Kenyon and McPherson (1973), taking the relativistic position, have argued that fans are socialized by cultural socialization agents such as family, peers, community, schooling and the mass media to have certain sport attitudes and values. These influences shape behavioral, affective, and cognitive features of sport attitudes. Socialization they suggest affects frequency of early participation and attendance, degree of team loyalty, and depth of knowledge about specific sports.

These authors argue that, because the content of socialization is often different for fans in different nations, there should be differences in attitudes and values regarding sports. For example, fans in competitive “masculine” cultures may differ from fans in Buddhist and “face saving” cultures who may place less emphasis on humiliating the opponent. In Japan, a face-saving and shame based culture, it is considered wrong to “run up the score” on a clearly defeated opponent, a sportsmanship norm not often displayed in American sports.

In like manner (Gau & Kim, 2011) found that their American, Korean, and Taiwan samples differed in ratings of the relative value of academic pursuits, sport, and team identification. Asians placed greater value on academics compared to athletics. In some cultures, sport fans are supportive of their favorite team’s famous athletes’ criminal behavior (bad boys) because they think athletes who break the law are more loyal to their teams (Dietz-Uhler, et al. (2002). On the other hand, in some cultures an athlete’s criminal behavior may shame the team and its fans as in the case of American athletes who have been identified as using performance enhancing drugs and have lied under oath or who have committed crimes such as domestic abuse.

In the present study, we compared samples of American college students and faculty with similar German speaking samples drawn from Germany and Austria in order to test a multi-dimensional sport attitudes scale. The samples included both fans and non-fans and are of course both “western” cultures; and, therefore, may well have similar attitudes towards sport issues. In taking a mixed universal and relativist position we hypothesized that there would be both similarities and differences between these samples in sport attitudes. Americans and Europeans share similar cultural roots, but there may also be differences between them on a variety of issues due to factors that we have discussed.

Method

Participants

Participants were 162 male and 150 female students and instructors at public universities (New York, Texas and Pennsylvania) in the USA and 168 males and 368 females drawn from universities in Austria and Germany in 2012. Seventy percent (70%) of the German speaking participants and 65% of the Americans (USA) respondents were 18 to 30 years old with the rest of the respondents over 30. Some students in the USA (Pennsylvania) sample received course credit for participation but all other respondents were unpaid and unrewarded volunteers.

Research Design, Measures, and Procedure

The present study compared two nominal populations on sport attitudes and was conducted online through a Survey Monkey website. The survey was comprised of demographic questions (respondent country, age, religious affiliation, and gender) and 75 questions from the Multidimensional Sport Attitude Scale (MSAS) developed specifically for this research. It contained attitudes and beliefs related to a variety of sport topical areas such as the respondent’s degree of love for sport as a fan or athlete, the impact of sport on youth development, the behavior of athletes as role models, the respondent’s view of sport as a vehicle for nationalism, issues related to the commercialization of sport, sexism and homophobia, ethnic issues in sport, and aggression in sport on and off the field.

Because the factor structure for the scale is related to the central research questions the analysis of the instrument is contained in the results section. After taking the survey respondents were debriefed on the nature of the survey, were given an opportunity to give their reactions to the survey anonymously, and were given an address where they could request the results of the survey.

Results

The MSAS was analyzed for its factor structure using principle components analysis with varimax rotation for each sample and for the overall sample. The first factor analysis was done on the American sample. Factor 1 explaining 19.8% of the variance was termed “a fan’s love of sport” and included such items as: Without sports my life would be very dull and boring; Playing sports is a big part of my life; My family spends a great deal of time watching sports; and When a big game is played I watch it and anything else is not important. Factor 2 explaining 9% of the variance was termed “character development” and included items such as: Playing sports helps build the character of young people; Playing sports helps someone become stronger and more disciplined; Sports teach young people how to work with others toward a common goal; and Playing sports gets a young person ready for the ups and downs of life.

Factor 3 explaining 5.5% of the variance was termed “sexism sport masculinity and homophobia” and was composed of items such as: A young man who doesn’t like sports can hardly be considered manly; Women have no real interest in sports; Women who play sports often lose their womanliness and femininity; Women should not play men sports such as rugby, boxing, and contact football; I would be uncomfortable playing sports with homosexual athletes; and It disturbs me when gay and lesbian athletes represent my country in a sport competition. Factor 4 explaining 4.6% of the variance was called “ethnic pluralism” and was composed of items such as: Sports in my country help people of different ethnic or racial groups to come closer together; It’s a good thing when our national sports teams have athletes from different ethnic and racial groups; It disturbs me when athletes from a different religion represent my country in a sport competition; I like it when my favorite sports teams have athletes from other countries; It disturbs me when I see athletes from a different race on our national teams; and A national team should have athletes from that nation and not any other nation. Factor 5 explaining 3.1% of the variance was termed “Olympic, national attitude” and was composed of items such as: I like to cheer for our athletes in the Olympics; I like the fact that nations count their medals in the Olympics; I feel proud when our national teams win in international competition; If my team wins in international competition it raises the status of my country; The Olympics should be for the athletes themselves rather than for nations counting medals; When our national teams and athletes win, I feel proud about our nation; and If my team is defeated in international competition it reflects badly on my country.

Factor 6 explaining 2.8% of the variance was termed “media male orientation” and was composed of items such as: Sports in the media are oriented toward the male audience; Women are not an important audience for sports in general; and the media surrounding sports often treat women as sex objects. Factor 7 explaining 2.6% of the variance was called “poor role modeling” and was composed of items such as: Too often professional athletes do not follow the rules when it comes to drugs; Professional sports teach young people the wrong lessons such as how to cheat with drugs; and Athletes are too often poor role models for young people. Factor 8 explaining 2.2% of the variance was termed “sport commercialization” and was composed of items such as: Professional athletes are spoiled with their big salaries; and Sports have become too commercialized requiring big arenas and big salaries. Factor 9 explaining 2% of the variance was termed “sports dangers” and was composed of items such as: Young people get pushed too hard in sports; and, It is disturbing to realize that some athletes are severely injured or die playing sports. The first nine factors explained 50% of the variance.

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the German speaking sample and yielded similar factors to the American sample with some differences. Factor 1 explaining 12.5% of the variance was identical to the American factor termed “a fan’s love of sport” including such items as “When my favorite team wins it puts me in a very good mood.” Factor 2 explaining 8.8% of the variance was termed “an athlete’s beliefs” and included items such as: I think of myself as an athlete; playing sports is a big part of my life; and playing sports is a major part of a healthy lifestyle. Factor 3 explaining 4.8% of the variance was termed “nationalism” and was similar to the American factor called Olympic attitude. Factor 4 explaining 4% of the variance was similar to the American factor called character development. Factor 5 explaining 3.4% of the variance was termed ethnocentrism and was similar to the American factor called ethnic pluralism. Factor 6 explaining 3.1% of the variance was termed sexism and was similar to the American factor. Factor 7 explaining 2.7% of the variance was termed “acceptance of violence” and included the items: People like to see fights break out in sporting contests; and It disturbs me that we often see violence spilling out onto the athletic field. Factors with eigen values greater than 2 in the German speaking sample comprised 40% of the total variance.

Items that behaviorally define the intensity of sport fan devotion to teams or being a fan were used as criteria in multiple regressions using the rest of survey items as predictors in both samples. In the American sample best predictors for “I watch sport events frequently” were: “When my favorite team wins it puts me in a very good mood” (Beta = .318, Mult. R = .649); “My family spends a good deal of time watching sport” (Beta = .327, Mult. R = .753); “I like watching sport events because of the fun and excitement of good competition” (Beta = .328, Mult. R = .787); and “When my favorite team loses it puts me in a bad mood” (Beta = .233, Mult. R = .799).

Best predictors in the American sample for “I spend a great deal of money on things related to being a fan for my sport teams” were: “When my team loses it puts me in a bad mood”(Beta = .473, Mult. R = .601); “I like to see a good fight break out now and then in a sport event” (Beta = .241, Mult. R = .670); “My family spends a great deal of time watching sport events”(Beta = .185, Mult. R = .693); and “Men or boys should not play women’s sports such as water ballet and field hockey” (Beta = .177, Mult. R = .710).

Best predictors for “When a big game is being played I watch it and anything else is not important” were: “When my favorite team loses it puts me in a bad mood” (Beta = .548, Mult. R = .4654); “I like watching sport events because of the fun and excitement of good competition” (Beta = .217, Mult. R = .691); “When playing a sport it is more important to win rather than just do your best” (Beta = .201, Mult. R = .716); and “Sport is a way for young people to preserve our traditions” (Beta = .197, Mult. R = .730). In the German-Austrian sample best predictors for “I watch sport events frequently” were: “I like watching sport because of the fun and excitement of good competition” (Beta = .466, Mult. R = .701); “My family spends a good deal of time watching sport events” (Beta = .239, Mult. R = .742); “My sport heroes are doing what I dreamed of doing” (Beta = .175, Mult. R = .764); and “When my favorite team wins it puts me in a very good mood” (Beta = .169, Mult. R = .778).

Best predictors for “I spend a great deal of money on sport” were: “When my team loses it puts me in a bad mood” (Beta = .245, Mult. R = .417); “Sport heroes are doing what I dreamed of doing” (Beta = .134, Mult. R = .482); “My family spends a great deal of time watching sport events” (Beta = .085, Mult. R = .498); and “It is more important to win rather than just do your best” (Beta = .091, Mult. R = .508). Best predictors for “When a big game is being played I watch it and anything else is not important” were: “I like watching sport events because of the fun and excitement of good competition” (Beta = .268, Mult. R = .536); “When my favorite team loses it puts me in a bad mood” (Beta = .356, Mult. R = .628); “Sport heroes are doing what I dreamed of doing” (Beta = .109, Mult. R = .643); and “Records of athletes who use performance enhancing drugs should be dropped” (Beta = .137, Mult. R = .655).

More detailed analyses for major scale factors

We chose to use chi square analyses of the following major sport attitude factors to determine similarities and differences between the American (USA) and German-Austrian (GE/AT) samples: Love of Sports, Desire to Watch Sports, Prejudice/Ethnocentrism and Racism, Consequences of Sport Participation, Sport and Nationalism, Sexism and Homophobia, Sport Violence and Deviance, Sport and Globalism, Sport in Public School, Sport and Doping, Sport and Media Commercialism, Children and Sports Burn-out.

Table 1: Love of sports

<i>Love of sport</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Chi square (χ²)</i>
Sports heroes are doing what I often dreamed of doing.	USA	18%	34%	33%	15%	χ² (3, N=800)= 23, P<0.001
	GE/AT	50%	26%	17%	7%	
Without sports my life would be very dull and boring.	USA	18%	31%	27%	24%	χ² (3, N=800)= 1.08, p>0.05
	GE/AT	16%	31%	33%	20%	
I think our famous athletes are more admired than our political leaders.	USA	1%	9%	60%	30%	χ² (3, N=715)= 3.14, p >0.05
	GE/AT	3%	8%	50%	39%	
Playing sports is a big part of my life.	USA	13%	27%	27%	33%	χ² (3, N=800)= 5.95, p >0.05
	GE/AT	15%	33%	34%	18%	

SD=strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

Love of sports

Sports heroes are doing what I often dreamed of doing.

Table 1 show that more Americans in our sample than German-Austrians identified themselves with their sport heroes. Almost half of American responses (48%) were agree or strongly agree to the statement “Sports heroes are doing what I often dreamed of doing,” while only 24% of German-Austrians agree or strongly agree with it. On the other hand, 76% of our German-Austrians and 52% of Americans disagree or strongly disagree with the item “Sports heroes are doing what I often dreamed of doing”. A chi square test revealed a significant difference between the two populations (χ² (3, N=800) = 23, p<0.001).

There was gender effect (p<0.05) for Sports heroes are doing what I often dream of doing. More male respondents identified themselves with their favorite athletes than did females. For example, 65% Americans and 43% German-Austrian males responded that they agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that sports heroes are doing what they often dream of doing. Only 30% Americans and 15% German-Austrians females identified themselves with their sports heroes. The interaction of gender and sample and the main effect for sample were insignificant.

Without sports, my life would be very dull and boring.

More than half of the responders in both countries (51% Americans and 53% German-Austrians) agreed or strongly agreed that without sports their life would be dull and boring (see Table 1). There was no significant difference between countries in the perception of excitement and stimulation of sports in their daily lives ($p > 0.05$).

I think our famous athletes are more admired than our political leaders

The overwhelming majority of subjects from both populations believed that famous athletes are more admired than famous politicians. Table 1 shows that 90% Americans and 89% of German-Austrians agreed or strongly agreed that their famous athletes are more admired than their political leaders.

Playing sports is a big part of my life

There was no statistically significant difference between two populations for the item: Playing sports is a big part of my life ($p > 0.05$). Table 1 shows that the majority of both Americans and Germans-Austrians (60% and 52%, respectively) agreed or strongly agreed that playing sports is a big part of their life. However, there was a significant overall gender difference in playing sports ($p < 0.001$). For instance, more males in both the American and German-Austrian samples (71% and 67 respectively) agreed or strongly agreed that playing sports is a bigger part of their life than did American and German-Austrian females (46% and 45% respectively). Males emphasize sport participation more than females in these samples ($p < 0.001$).

Table 2: Desire to watch sports

<i>Desire to follow</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Significance</i>
I could live a happy life without watching sports.	USA DE/AT	25% 12%	31% 16%	24% 29%	20% 43%	$\chi^2=(3, N=799)= 18$, $p < 0.0001$
When my favorite team wins it puts me in a very good mood.	USA DE/AT	8% 25%	13% 26%	50% 39%	30% 10%	$\chi^2=(3, N=790)$ $= 23$, $p < 0.0001$
When my favorite team loses it puts me in a bad mood.	USA DE/AT	11% 37%	47% 47%	36% 14%	6% 2%	$\chi^2= (3, N=734)=26$, $p < 0.0001$
I watch sports frequently.	USA DE/AT	10% 36%	21% 32%	37% 21%	32% 11%	$\chi^2 (3, N=759)= 31$, $p < 0.0001$
My family spends a great deal of time watching sports.	USA DE/AT	11% 27%	27% 42%	47% 27%	15% 5%	$\chi^2 (3, N=758)= 20$, $p < 0.0001$
I spend a great deal of money on things related to being a fan for my sports teams.	USA DE/AT	30% 78%	36% 18%	28% 3%	7% 1%	$\chi^2(3, N=745) = 52$, $p < 0.0001$
I like watching sports because of the fun and excitement of good competition.	USA DE/AT	5% 22%	6% 25%	49% 39%	40% 15%	$\chi^2(3, N=758) = 36$, $p < 0.0001$
When a big game is being played I watch it and anything else is not important.	USA DE/AT	16% 55%	44% 31%	31% 11%	9% 3%	$(\chi^2 3, N=504)= 32$, $p < 0.0001$

SD=strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

Desire to watch sports

In Table 2, we report the differences in desire to follow sports (fandom and spectatorship) between two populations. We found that more Americans answered agree or strongly agree to the following questions compared to the German-Austrians: “I watch sports frequently” (69% vs 32%); My family spends a great deal of time watching sports (62% vs 32%); I like watching sports because of the fun and excitement of good competition (89% vs 54%); When a big game is being played, I watch it and anything else is not important (40% vs 14%); “When my favorite team wins it puts me in a very good mood” (80% vs 49%); When my favorite team wins it puts me in a very bad mood (42% vs 16%); and, “I spend a great deal of money on things related to being a fan for my sports teams” (35% vs 4%).

Gender differences

More than half of the USA sample males (56%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement: “When a big game is played, I watch it and anything else is not important”; whereas, a significant majority (78%) of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with it.

The majority of German-Austrian males and females disagreed or strongly disagreed (79% and 90% respectively) with that statement. There was a statistically significant difference between the samples ($\chi^2 (3, N=504) = 32, p<0.0001$).

Similarly, there was a strong gender effect in the American sample on relating their moods to their favorite teams' winning and losing ($p<0.001$). For instance, more USA males than females agreed or strongly agreed the statements: "When my team loses it puts me in a bad mood (54% vs 26%, respectively); and When my favorite team wins it puts me in a very good mood"(80 vs 49 % respectively). There was no gender effect in the German-Austrian sample for these statements.

Consequences of sport participation

Playing sports helps build the character of young people.

Table 3 shows that there was no significant difference between the American and Germans–Austrian samples regarding how strongly they believe that playing sports helps build the character of young people (91% vs 82%, respectively) and that it contributes to young person's life by teaching necessary life skills, such as cooperation, competition, discipline, and hard works ($p>0.05$). More of the Americans than German-Austrians favored the statements: "Sports help our young people learn to compete against others in our competitive society" (87% vs 69%); and "Playing sports is important because it helps someone become stronger and more disciplined" (93% vs 74%). More Americans (73%) agreed or strongly agreed that sports are important to preserve cultural traditions while the majority of German-Austrians (61%) disagreed or strongly disagreed. The chi square test revealed a significant difference between the samples ($\chi^2 (3, N=800) = 24, p<0.001$).

Table 3: Consequences of sport participation

<i>Sport Socialization and Culture</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Significance</i>
Playing sports helps build the character of young people.	USA	1%	8%	57%	34%	$\chi^2=(3,N=736)$ =1, $p>0.05$
	DE/AT	2%	16%	62%	20%	
Playing sports on a team helps people learn how to cooperate.	USA	1%	3%	53%	43%	$\chi^2=(3, N=736)$ = 1, $p>0.05$
	DE/AT	2%	5%	53%	40%	
Athletes should be good role models for young people.	USA	2%	7%	53%	39%	$\chi^2=(3,N=736)$ = 12, $p>0.05$
	DE/AT	1%	5%	61%	34%	
Sports are a way for our young people to preserve our cultural traditions.	USA	6%	21%	65%	8%	$\chi^2=(3,N=740)$ = 24, $p<0.001$
	DE/AT	18%	43%	36%	3%	
Sports help our young people learn to compete against others in our competitive society.	USA	2%	11%	70%	17%	$\chi^2=(3,N=736)$ = 13, $p<0.001$
	DE/AT	6%	26%	62%	7%	
Athletes are too often poor role models for young people.	USA	15%	51%	27%	7%	$\chi^2=(3,N=736)$ = 14, $p<0.002$
	DE/AT	28%	60%	11%	2%	
Playing sports get a young person ready for the ups and downs of life.	USA	3%	14%	62%	21%	$\chi^2=(3,N=736)$ = 5.78, $p>0.05$
	DE/AT	7%	24%	54%	15%	
Playing sports is important because it helps someone become stronger and more disciplined.	USA	1%	6%	53%	40%	$\chi^2=(3,N=736)$ = 17, $p<0.001$
	DE/AT	5%	22%	52%	22%	

SD=strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

Sexism, sport masculinity, and homophobia

Table 4 characterizes the variance was termed sexism, sport masculinity, and homophobia. We found that a large number of both Americans and German Austrians disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statements such as: young girls and women should not be playing more aggressive sports (88% vs 96%, respectively); A young man who doesn't like sports can hardly be considered manly (78% vs 86% respectively); Playing sports will help a young man become more masculine or manly (60 % vs 61% respectively). Thus, there was no significant difference between Americans and Germans, Austrians ($p<0.05$). However, more American (53%) than German, Austrians (35%) believed (agreed or strongly agreed) that sports are part of male culture from which women are often excluded (see Table 4). Thus, A chi Square test revealed a statistically significant difference between two populations ($\chi^2 (3, N=590) = 8, p<0.05$).

Table4: Sexism, sport masculinity, and homophobia

<i>Sexism and homophobia</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Significance</i>
Young girls and women should not be playing more aggressive sports.	USA DE/AT	40% 63%	48% 33%	12% 2%	1% 2%	χ^2 (3, N=736)= 15, p<0.05
Women should not play men's sports such as rugby, boxing, and contact football.	USA DE/AT	37% 53%	43% 35%	17% 9%	3% 3%	χ^2 (3,N=736)=6, p>0.05
Sports are part of male culture from which women are often excluded.	USA DE/AT	11% 21%	36% 46%	47% 32%	6% 3%	χ^2 =(3, N=590) 8, p<0.05
A young man who doesn't like sports can hardly be considered manly.	USA DE/AT	37% 44%	41% 42%	17% 11%	5% 3%	χ^2 (3, N=799)=2.4, p>0.05
Women have no real interest in most sports.	USA DE/AT	54% 38%	40% 46%	5% 14%	1% 2%	χ^2 (3,N=799)=8, p<0.05
Playing sports will help a young man become more masculine or manly.	USA DE/AT	18% 21%	42% 40%	37% 35%	3% 5%	χ^2 =(3,N=740)=1, p>0.05
I would be uncomfortable playing sports with homosexual athletes.	USA DE/AT	48% 64%	32% 27%	16% 7%	4% 2%	χ^2 (3,N=591)=6, p>0.05
It disturbs me when gay and lesbian athletes represent my country in a sport competition.	USA DE/AT	53% 78%	36% 17%	8% 4%	3% 1%	χ^2 (3,N=590)=13, p<0.05

SD=strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

Our results indicate that both Americans and German-Austrians strongly oppose discrimination based on sexual orientation and tend to reject homophobia in sports. Both samples agreed or strongly agreed with items such as: I would be uncomfortable playing sports with homosexual athletes (80% and 91% respectively); and It disturbs me when gay and lesbian athletes represent my country in a sport competition (89% and 95% respectively). However a chi square test revealed a statistically significant difference (χ^2 (3, N=590) =13, p<0.05) between the country samples for the item "It disturbs me when gay and lesbian athletes represent my country in a sport competition." More German-Austrians (78%) strongly disagreed compared to Americans (53%) with the statement (see Table 4).

There was a strong gender effect on two items. In both populations more female (70% and 71%, respectively) than male (29% and 49%, respectively) strongly disagreed with the statement: "I would be uncomfortable playing sports with homosexual teammate" (χ^2 = (9, N=590) =59.5, p<0.05). Similarly, more females in both samples (68% and 84%, respectively) strongly disagreed with the statement: "It disturbs me when gay and lesbian athletes represent my country in a sport competition" than males (41% and 66% respectively).

Ethnic pluralism; prejudice/ethnocentrism and racism

Prejudice/ethnocentrism and racism

Table 5 shows prejudice/ethnocentrism and racism in sports results. A majority of both Americans and German/Austrians rejected prejudice/ethnocentrism and racism in sports according to our ethnic pluralism subscale. For instance, approximately 80% of Americans and German/Austrians believed (agreed or strongly agreed) that sports unifies different ethnic and racial groups in their countries. Similarly, 94% Americans and 82% of Germans/Austrians agreed or strongly agreed that it is a good thing when their national sports teams have athletes from different ethnic and racial groups.

Although a majority of Americans and Germans/Austrians strongly opposed religious discrimination in sports, a chi square test revealed a statically significant difference between countries (χ^2 (3, N=763) = 9, p<0.05). More Germans/Austrians (70%) than Americans (49%) strongly disagreed with the statement "It disturbs me when athletes from a different religion represent my country in a sport competition" (see Table 5). More Americans (52%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement "A national team should have athletes from that nation and not any other nation" than did Germans/Austrians (30%). There was also a statistically significant difference between the nations for bringing an athlete from different nations to represent their country (χ^2 (3, N=707) = 19, p<0.001)

Table 5: Ethnic pluralism; prejudice/ethnocentrism and racism

<i>Prejudice/Ethnocentrism and Racism</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Significance</i>
Sports in my country help people of different ethnic or racial groups to come closer together.	USA	4%	16%	65%	16%	$\chi^2(3, N=786)=0.158, p>0.5$
	DE/AT	4%	18%	64%	15%	
It's a good thing when our national sports teams have athletes from different ethnic and racial groups.	USA	2%	4%	61%	33%	$\chi^2(3, N=786)=7, p>0.05$
	DE/AT	4%	14%	50%	32%	
It disturbs me when athletes from a different religion represent my country in a sport competition.	USA	49%	44%	6%	1%	$\chi^2(3, N=763)=9, p<0.05$
	DE/AT	70%	26%	4%	1%	
I like it when my favorite sports teams have athletes from other countries.	USA	2%	17%	66%	15%	$\chi^2(3, N=740)=5, p>0.05$
	DE/AT	4%	29%	57%	10%	
It disturbs me when I see athletes from a different race on our national teams.	USA	56%	37%	7%	1%	$\chi^2(3, N=719)=1, p>0.05$
	DE/AT	57%	33%	8%	2%	
A national team should have athletes from that nation and not any other nation.	USA	10%	38%	39%	13%	$\chi^2(3, N=707)=19, p<0.001$
	DE/AT	35%	36%	21%	9%	

SD=strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

Olympic and national attitude

Our Olympic and National Attitude subscale (Table 6) revealed that a similar percentage of both Americans and Germans-Austrians (67% and 69%, respectively) agreed or strongly agreed that winning an international competition raised the status of their countries ($p>0.05$). However, more Americans than Germans/Austrians were in favor of counting medals in the Olympics (73% vs. 52%); felt proud of when their national teams and athletes win (88% vs. 67%); thought it reflects badly on their country if their team is defeated in international competition (21% vs. 14%); and liked to cheer for their athletes in the Olympics (88% vs 55%).

Table 6: Olympic and national attitude

<i>Olympic, National Attitude</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Significance</i>
If my team wins in international competition, it raises the status of my country.	USA	3%	31%	51%	16%	$\chi^2(3, N=758)=4, P>0.05$
	DE/AT	7%	25%	58%	11%	
I like the fact that nations count their medals in Olympic competition.	USA	5%	21%	58%	16%	$\chi^2(3, N=714)=11, p<0.05$
	DE/AT	10%	38%	45%	7%	
The Olympics should be for the athletes themselves rather than for nations counting medals.	USA	12%	44%	35%	9%	$\chi^2(3, N=711)=9, p<0.05$
	DE/AT	6%	30%	46%	18%	
When our national teams and athletes win, I feel proud about our nation.	USA	2%	10%	59%	29%	$\chi^2(3, N=744)=1, p<0.05$
	DE/AT	11%	22%	47%	20%	
If my team is defeated in international competition, it reflects badly on my country.	USA	14%	65%	20%	1%	$\chi^2(3, N=734)=12, p<0.01$
	DE/AT	35%	50%	13%	1%	
I like to cheer for our athletes in the Olympics.	USA	3%	9%	58%	30%	$\chi^2(3, N=716)=21, p<0.001$
	DE/AT	17%	28%	42%	13%	

SD=strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

Media male orientation

Table 7 gives the results of the “media male orientation” items. More Americans in our sample believe sports media are geared toward the male audience and treat women as sex objects. Seventy five percent of Americans agreed or strongly agreed that the media surrounding sports often treats women as sex objects while only forty-five percent of Germans/Austrians agreed or strongly agreed ($\chi^2(3, N=715) = 49, p < 0.001$). Similarly more Americans (85%) than German Austrians (33%) agreed or strongly agreed that sports in the media are oriented toward the male audience ($\chi^2(3, N=715) = 25, p < 0.0001$). However, both samples equally rejected the statement that women are not an important audience for sports ($p > 0.05$).

Table 7: Media male orientation

	Country	SD	D	A	SA	Significance
The media surrounding sports often treat women as sex objects.	USA DE/AT	4% 10%	21% 45%	58% 35%	17% 10%	$\chi^2(3, N=715) = 49, p < 0.001$
Women are not an important audience for sports in general.	USA DE/AT	47% 41%	45% 42%	6% 15%	2% 2%	$\chi^2(3, N=715) = 3, p > 0.05$
Sports in the media are oriented toward the male audience.	USA DE/AT	3% 10%	12% 57%	64% 31%	21% 2%	$\chi^2(3, N=715) = 25, p < 0.0001$

SD=strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

Role modeling and doping

Table 8 gives data showing that there was consensus among Americans and Germans/ Austrians that athletes are good role models for young people. Both samples rejected (strongly disagreed or disagreed) with the statements: “Athletes are too often poor role models for young people” (66% and 88% respectively); and “Professional sports teach young people the wrong lessons such as how to cheat with drugs” (69% and 74% respectively). However, a chi square test revealed a statistically significant difference between the countries for “Athletes are too often poor role models for young people.” ($\chi^2(3, N=761) = 14, p < 0.002$). More Germans/Austrians (88%) than Americans (66%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement.

On the other hand, a majority of both Americans and Germans-Austrians (68% and 71%, respectively) agreed or strongly agreed that too often professional athletes do not follow the rules when it comes to drugs ($p > 0.05$).

Table 8: Poor role modeling and doping

	Country	SDA	D	A	SA	Significance
Athletes are too often poor role models for young people	USA DE/AT	15% 28%	51% 60%	27% 11%	7% 2%	$\chi^2(3, N=761) = 14, p < 0.002$
Professional sports teach young people the wrong lessons such as how to cheat with drugs.	USA DE/AT	16% 20%	53% 54%	26% 22%	5% 4%	$\chi^2(3, N=761) = 0.89, p > 0.05$
Too often professional athletes do not follow the rules when it comes to drugs	USA DE/AT	2% 3%	31% 26%	55% 48%	13% 23%	$\chi^2(3, N=761) = 3.88, p > 0.05$
Records of the athletes who take performance-enhancing drugs should be dropped	USA DE/AT	21% 60%	28% 32%	35% 5%	16% 3%	$\chi^2(3, N=761) = 19, p < 0.0001$

SD=strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

However, more Americans were in favor of punishing athletes who take performance enhancing drugs. More than half of the American participants (51%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement: “Records of athletes who take performance-enhancing drugs should be dropped;” whereas, only 8% of Germans and Austrians agreed or strongly agreed. The difference between two population was statistically significant, $\chi^2(3, N=761) = 19, p < 0.0001$.

Regarding gender differences fifty five percent of American females opposed (disagree or strongly disagree) punishing athletes who take performance enhancing drugs while fifty four percent of American males approved ($p < 0.001$). Conversely, significantly higher numbers of both Germans-Austrians males and females (90% and 92%) were against punishing athletes who take performance enhancing drugs.

Sport commercialization

Our sports commercialization subscale (Table 9) shows that our samples significantly differed on items such as: Professional athletes are spoiled with their big salaries and Sports have become too commercialized requiring big arenas and big salaries ($p < 0.05$). Seventy eight percent of our Americans agreed or strongly agreed that professional athletes are spoiled with their big salaries while Germans/Austrians were equally divided (50% disagreed/strongly disagreed and 50% agreed/strongly agreed). There was a significant difference between the countries ($\chi^2(3, N=709) = 21, p < 0.0001$).

A closer analysis revealed that German/Austrian females significantly differed from the rest of the samples on the item; Professional athletes are spoiled with their big salaries. In the German/Austrian sample, more females (54%) disagreed or strongly disagreed that professional athletes are spoiled with their bigger salaries, than did males (44%). Like German/Austrian males, a majority of both American males and females (78% each) agreed or strongly agreed that professional athletes are spoiled with their big salaries.

Additionally, 78% of Americans versus 41% of Germans/Austrians agreed or strongly agreed that “sports have become too commercialized requiring big arenas and big salaries.” On the other hand, 69% of Germans/Austrians versus 22% of Americans disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement (see Table 9). There was a statically significant difference between country samples ($\chi^2(3, N=709) = 30.66, p < 0.0001$).

Table 9: Sport commercialization

<i>Commercialism</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>SDA</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Significance</i>
Professional athletes are spoiled with their big salaries	USA	3%	19%	45%	33%	$\chi^2(3, N=709)=21, p < 0.0001$
	DE/AT	8%	42%	38%	12%	
Sports have become too commercialized requiring big arenas and big salaries.	USA	3%	19%	50%	28%	$\chi^2(3, N=709)=30.66, p < 0.0001$
	DE/AT	14%	45%	31%	10%	

SD=strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

Sports and children

Table 10 represents the participant attitudes toward sports and children. Countries significantly differed on the belief that children are pushed too hard in sports. For instance, sixty five percent of Americans versus thirty three percent Germans/Austrians agreed or strongly agreed that children are pushed too hard in sports. The majority of Germans/Austrians (67%) opposed (disagreed or strongly disagreed) with that statement ($\chi^2(3, N=735)=24, p < 0.0001$).

A closer analysis revealed that both American males and females strongly believed that children are pushed too hard in sports (62% and 67% respectively). Although more German/Austrian females (39%) compared to males (17%) agreed that young people get pushed too hard in sports competition, the majority of German/Austrian male and female respondents (83% and 60% respectively) rejected the statement.

On the other hand, both Americans and German/Austrians had strong support for the item: Elementary schools should provide sports opportunities so children can learn physical fitness. Ninety two percent (92%) of Americans and ninety seven percent (97%) of German/Austrians agreed or strongly agreed. However, more German/Austrians (73%) strongly agreed that elementary schools should provide sports opportunities so children can learn physical fitness compared to our Americans (43%) ($\chi^2(3, N=735) = 18, p < 0.001$).

Table 10: Sports and children

<i>Sports and children</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Significance</i>
Young people get pushed too hard in sports competition	USA	4%	31%	52%	13%	$\chi^2(3, N=735)=24, p < 0.0001$
	DE/AT	10%	57%	31%	2%	
Elementary schools should provide sports opportunities so children can learn physical fitness	USA	2%	6%	49%	43%	$\chi^2(3, N=735)=18, p < 0.001$
	DE/AT	1%	2%	24%	73%	

SD=strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

Sport and infield violence as deviance

According to Table 11 more Americans in our sample were in favor of seeing on-field fights though they were disturbed to see athletes severely injured or to see violence spilling out onto the athletic field. However, both groups (Americans and Germans/Austrians) rejected the assertion that sport competitions are often associated with violence on and off the field.

There was no significant differences between the countries in their answers for: “It disturbs me that we often see violence spilling out onto the athletic field” and “Sport competition is often associated with violence on and off the field” ($p > 0.05$). Table 11 shows that seventy percent (70%) of our Americans and seventy six percent (76%) of our Germans/Austrians agreed or strongly agreed with aforementioned statement. Similarly, sixty percent (60%) of Americans and sixty percent (63%) of German/Austrians disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement: “Sport competition is often associated with violence on and off the field.” However, more Americans than German/Austrians believed (agreed/strongly agreed) with the statement that people like to see fights break out in sporting contests (73% vs 44%) and liked to see a good fight break out now and then in sports (43% vs 13%) ($\chi^2(3, N=735) = 15, p < 0.001$).

Table 11: Sport and infield violence as deviance

<i>Sport and Infield Violence</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Significance</i>
It disturbs me that we often see violence spilling out onto the athletic field.	USA	4%	26%	46%	24%	$\chi^2(3, N=735) = 2, p > 0.05$
	DE/AT	6%	19%	47%	29%	
People like to see fights break out in sporting contests.	USA	3%	24%	61%	12%	$\chi^2(3, N=735) = 20, p < 0.001$
	DE/AT	15%	41%	38%	6%	
I like to see a good fight break out now and then in a sporting contest.	USA	27%	31%	35%	7%	$\chi^2(3, N=735) = 10, p < 0.05$
	DE/AT	60%	27%	12%	1%	
Sport competition is often associated with violence on and off the field.	USA	8%	52%	36%	4%	$\chi^2(3, N=735) = 1, p > 0.05$
	DE/AT	12%	51%	34%	4%	
It is disturbing to realize that some athletes are severely injured or die playing sports.	USA	3%	15%	58%	25%	$\chi^2(3, N=735) = 18, p < 0.001$
	DE/AT	12%	33%	41%	15%	

SD=strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

A closer analysis of the data revealed that there was a strong gender effect on the answers in both populations. For example, only twenty nine 29% of American females (versus 55% of American males) agreed or strongly agreed that they like to see a good fight break out now and then in a sporting contest. On the other hand, 73% of males and 94% of females in the German and Austrian sample disagreed or strongly disagreed with the desire to see a good fight in sporting contests. A majority of both American males (73%) and females (71%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that people like to see fight in sporting competition, whereas 62% German Austrian females versus 42% of males disagreed or strongly disagreed with it. More German/Austrian males (58%) than females (38%) agreed or strongly agreed that people like to see fights break out in sporting competition ($p < 0.05$).

Discussion

In this study we found potential universal features of sport attitudes in keeping with prior research, but this study gives additional evidence that variations in culture, gender, education, age, and involvement in sports play roles in determining sport attitudes. This generalization is compatible with an earlier longitudinal study (Breivik, 2012) which found that gender, age, education and involvement of sports were important factors in determining social values and attitudes in sport. We found that more male respondents identified themselves with their favorite athletes (sports heroes) than that of females supporting the previous studies. We also report that Americans are more inclined to emulate sports heroes than German-Austrians consistent with previous suggestions that “Halls of Fame” are a North American phenomena” that not only boosts the local economy, but also keeps alive the memories of past achievements for future generations to admire (Didillon & Vandewiele, 1985; Wann, 2001).

According to our results an overwhelming majority of Americans, Germans and Austrians believe that sport teaches lifelong skills and values such as cooperation, competition, discipline, hard work, and character in young people. Functionalists such as Lipsky (1978) and Nixon(1984)have argued that sports represent and promote dominant cultural values such as: good character and morals, obedience to laws and desire to follow the rules, cooperation, friendly competition, personal and group discipline, and the acquisition of life skills that lead to success in a modern capitalist society. It appears that sports are like other components of the cultural system such as religion, family, and that it is an institution that transmits values to participants.

On the other hand, Marxist theory claims that the dominant class uses sport for cultural domination and exploitation. For example, Jarvie, & Maguire (1994)wrote:“Sport is a microcosm of a modern capitalistic society and an integral facet of cultural domination and exploitation.”Similarly, Brohm (1978) claimed that sports are not only the source of profit but also a vehicle to infuse capitalistic values into a society. Coakley (2009) stated that big corporations use sports as a vehicle to create an outpost in peoples' minds such as the view that what is good for the corporations is also good for the country. Once the outpost is created in people’s minds, it is difficult to fight against it (Gramsci, 1987). Societies are quite possibly not consciously aware of the “manipulative capacity” of sport (Brohm, 1978).It is possible that the similarities between our USA, German, and Austrian samples because these countries are modern capitalist societies that promote similar values thorough sport in order to integrate individuals into their values and systems and maintain a functioning society.

Although it may be argued whether or not our respondents represent a general demographic population in the USA, Germany, and Austria, we may cautiously suggest that our results indicate Americans, Germans and Austrians are strongly opposed to discrimination based on racism and sexual orientation in sport and also reject prejudice and ethnocentrism. This is especially encouraging because our results conflict with the suspected rise of anti-immigration sentiments in Europe which perhaps continues to increase. Nevertheless, our respondents in the time period of this study, especially the German and Austrian academics who participated in this study displayed more openness and tolerance toward homosexuals and diverse ethnic groups, and were more welcoming toward pluralism. One caveat here is that 146 Americans out of 312 (versus 444 Germans and Austrians out of 536) answered the questions:“I would be uncomfortable playing sports with homosexual athletes” and “It disturbs me when gay and lesbian athletes represent my country in a sport competition.”

We also found it interesting that more Americans (52%) than Germans and Austrians (30%) were against athletes from any other nation being on their national teams as compared to club teams. Can it be hypothesized that the Americans hold more nationalistic views than Europeans or somehow resist the internationalization of sports as a threat to group identity? On the other hand an increasing number of elite athletes have been changing their nationality to compete for the USA and many European countries such as England, France, Germany, Italy, Russia, and Turkey, etc. This is because today elite athletes are eager to maximize their opportunities to compete at the highest level by changing their nationality possibly because many governments grant top athletes a fast track to citizenship (Houlihan, 2010).

Turkey paid a large sum of money to Bulgaria to allow Naim Suleymanoglu who competed as a Turk in the 1988, 1992 and 1996 Olympics, winning weightlifting gold medals as a featherweight in all three Olympiads, when he defected in 1986. Recently, the Russian fans enthusiastically welcomed a former Korean champion short track speed skater, Ahn Hyun-soo, when he abandoned his national team to represent the Russian Federation under his new name, Viktor Ahn, in the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games. Houlihan (2010) described this as a fragmented identity, which is defined as “split, hybrid, multiple or nested loyalty” as one of the consequences of globalization in sports.

We report that more Americans in our sample than Germans and Austrians were in favor of punishing athletes who take performance enhancing drugs. This was an interesting discrepancy between the two groups because in modern capitalist societies the general attitude toward doping in sports is usually believed to be a zero tolerance. A functional view of sports implies that deviant behaviors such as doping must be suppressed to maintain social order because a dysfunctional element, such as doping, like other deviant behaviors challenges the norms of the system (Jarvie & Maguire, 1994). We found that the majority of Germans and Austrians responders are still sympathetic to the athletes who did doping in the past. This may be because doping by the former German Democratic Republic (GDR) athletes was state mandated (possibly like the revelations of doping by the Russians in recent games).

It is believed by many of their countrymen that many former eastern bloc athletes were manipulated, even pressured to take performance enhancing drugs. Consequently, Germans and Austrians view athletes who take performance-enhancing drugs as victims rather than criminals.

Both our samples did not agree with the notion that sports enhance violence on and off the field and they were disturbed to see violence spill on the field but they did differ in specific ways. Our American sample felt that people are interested in watching fighting in contests but this was less true for women in both samples. European soccer may have fewer occasions of on-field violence compared to American field sports but there is a general disgust with fans creating riots on and off the field. American sports such as ice hockey, baseball, and football do have brawls from time to time between players but fans encroaching on fields are less frequent.

It is concluded that, even with this limited sample, there may, indeed, be sport universals combined with particulars due to cultural variances in values. We are cognizant that our samples do not represent the general populations of the USA, Germany, and Austria. Therefore, we recommend that similar studies in the future should include samples that represent more general populations in terms of education, age, gender, social class and occupation. We also encourage researchers to use our multi-dimensional scale or a shorter version of it available from us.

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