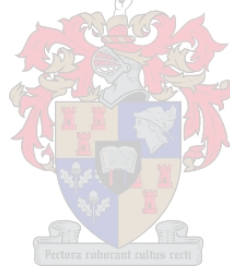


MOTOR COMPETENCE AND GOAL SETTING IN RUGBY

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Study leader: Prof. ES Bressan

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Declaration

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part, submitted it to any university for a degree.

Signature

Date

Abstract

The study explored the potential of rugby as a developmental experience, not only in terms of the motor skills that lead to competence in rugby, but also in terms of learning more about the life-skill of goal setting. A 10 session pre-season programme entitled “More than Rugby” was designed and implemented in order to determine whether combining skill instruction with activities specifically designed to increase an understanding of goal setting had an impact on either the development of rugby competence or understanding about goal setting and perceptions of its use.

A repeated measures experimental design was followed, with two groups of high school rugby players from similar sporting backgrounds involved: An experimental group who received pre-season rugby training as well as an intervention programme dealing with goal setting, and a control group who received only the pre-season rugby training, but no special goal setting activities. Both groups were pre tested and post tested on their rugby competence (through an individual rugby skill test circuit) and their understanding of goal setting. The self reported use of goal setting perceptions, the relationship between goals and performance and the effects of goals on players was measured by means of a questionnaire (adapted GSI).

The results revealed a significant improvement in the quality of rugby skills of the experimental group, but no significant improvement was found in the quality of the rugby skills of the control group. Both groups showed improvement in the speed at which rugby skills were performed, but in neither case was the improvement significant. The understanding of goal setting and the knowledge of setting goals did not improve significantly for either group.

It can be concluded that the inclusion of life skills content and activities, such as goal setting in rugby development programmes will not detract from skill development outcomes. Although it can be noted that the greater improvement in skill levels was achieved by the group who received goal setting, more research is recommended to explain the positive link between life skills development and sport skills development.

OPSOMMING

Die studie het die moontlikheid van rugby as 'n ontwikkelingservaring ondersoek, beide in terme van motoriese vaardigheid wat lei tot bevoegdheid in rugby, sowel as in terme daarvan om meer oor doelwitstelling as lewensvaardigheid te leer. 'n Tien-sessie voor-seisoense program, genaamd "More than Rugby", is ontwerp en geïmplementeer om te bepaal of die kombinerende van vaardighedsinoefening met aktiwiteite wat spesifiek daarop gerig is om die verstaan van doelwitstelling te verhoog, 'n impak het op die ontwikkeling van rugby bevoegdheid, of op die verstaan van doelwitstelling en die persepsie van die gebruik daarvan.

'n Herhaalde toets eksperimentele ontwerp is gevolg, met hoërskool rugbyspelers van twee skole van min of meer dieselfde sportagtergrond wat betrokke was. 'n Eksperimentele groep het voor-seisoense rugbyvaardigheidsoefening, sowel as 'n intervensie program gerig op doelwitstelling, ontvang, terwyl die kontrole groep slegs die voor-seisoense rugbyvaardigheidsoefening ontvang het, maar geen spesiale doelstellings aktiwiteite nie. Beide groepe het 'n voor- sowel as 'n na-toets ondergaan om hul rugbybevoegdheid (met behulp van individuele rugbyvaardigheidstoets), en hul kennis van doelwitstelling te bepaal. Die self erkende verstaan oor doelwitpersepsies, die verwantskap tussen doelwitte en prestasies, asook die effek van doelwitte op spelers, in bepaal met behulp 'n aangepaste doelstellingsvraelys (die GSI).

Die resultate toon 'n beduidende verbetering in die kwaliteit van die rugbyvaardighede van die eksperimentele groep, maar geen beduidende verbetering is gevind in die kwaliteit van rugbyvaardighede van die kontrole groep nie. Beide groepe het verbetering getoon in die spoed waarteen rugbyvaardighede uitgevoer is, maar in nie een van die gevalle was die verbetering beduidend nie. Die verstaan van doelwitstelling asook die verstaan van doelwitstelling het nie in een van die groepe 'n beduidende verbetering getoon nie.

Daar kan op grond hiervan aangevoer word dat 'n lewensvaardighedsprogram gedoen kan word as deel van 'n rugbyvaardighedsontwikkelingsprogram. Alhoewel daar nie met sekerheid gesê kan word dat die verbetering in rugbyvaardighedsvlakke weens die invloed van die doelwitgebaseerde lewensvaardighedsprogram is nie, wys die resultate dat die onderrig van doelwitstelling nie 'n nadelige uitwerking op die rugby vaardighedsontwikkeling van die individue het nie.

Dedication

To Sybil, Stefan and Tiaan

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Chapter One

Setting the Problem

The mental skills training programmes offered to aspiring and elite athletes often include strategies designed to help them cope with the demands of competition, promote self-confidence and assist them with self-control Vealey (1994). However, most of these programmes are aimed specifically at sport performance enhancement and are not specifically concerned with the holistic development of participants. Orlick (1986) recommended that a more holistic developmental approach be taken when working with children and adolescents, including strategies to improve self-direction.

Petlichkoff (2004) associated self-direction with the learning of self-regulation strategies. She found that:

There appears to be a connection between acquiring psychological skills typically designed to improve sport performance and teaching children and adolescents how to become self-regulated learners.
(p. 279)

Self-regulation was described by Zimmerman (1990) as a process in which individuals gain control over how they think and act as they attempt to achieve their goals. Kirschenbaum (1984) defined self-regulation as the process by which people manage their own goal-directed behaviour.

The value of learning self-regulation strategies as part of a holistic development programme rests in their contribution to adaptability. Self-regulated learners can adapt to different situations and decide on optimal strategies for approaching the challenges presented by various environmental circumstances (Petlichkoff, 2004). The key self-regulation strategies identified by Gould and Chung (2004) are:

1. Self-monitoring (observing and examining one's own behaviour).
2. Self-talk
3. Imagery
4. Goal setting (attaining a specific standard of proficiency in a task).

Goal setting is one of the most popular motivational techniques for enhancing performance and productivity in business, education and sport (Weinberg, Burton, Yukelson, & Weigand, 2000). O' Conner (n.d.) contended that people with goals tend to out-perform those without goals. He also said that the goals we set guide our behaviour and make it purposeful. Burton (2001) confirmed the power of goal setting as a self-regulation strategy, finding that research can:

...confirm that goal setting is both a highly consistent and effective performance-enhancement strategy that works almost universally for most people, for a wide variety of tasks, and across many diverse settings. (p. 499)

It is known that people tend to invest more time and effort to achieve those goals that are important to them. Goals also reflect the purposes underlying people's actions in achievement settings (Duda & Hall, 2001). Two goal orientations are identified within Achievement Goal Theory: ego-orientation and task-orientation (Weiss, 1995).

- Ego-goal orientation tends to define success in terms of outperforming others and demonstrating superior ability to others. He/she is someone who seeks to maximize the display of high ability, while at the same time trying to minimize the display of low ability (Nicholls & Dweck, cited by Weiss, 1995).
- Task-goal orientation is concerned with mastering a task, personal improvement or learning something new (Duda & Hall, 2001). When focusing on task goals, individuals are more likely to develop and employ effective

strategies to improve their performance by planning, monitoring and regulating their efforts, referred to as self-mastery.

Burton (2001) recommended that children and adolescents be encouraged to adopt a task-goal orientation, since it is more conducive to lifelong learning. According to Zimmerman and Kitsantas (1996), both children and adolescents can learn to use goal setting to self-regulate their behaviour. They contended that developmentally appropriate goal-setting strategies were critical to self-regulation. Danish and Nellen (1997) were emphatic in their support of helping children and youth to learn goal setting strategies. They stated:

The future of our country is much more dependent on helping our youth reach their goals than it is on helping elite athletes win gold.
(p. 103)

Burton (2001) advocated that all athletes should learn about the process of goal setting. If the Williams and Reilly (2000) position that talent development implies that players are provided with a suitable learning environment so that they can have the opportunity to realize their potential is accepted, then learning about goal setting should be part of every talent development programme.

The South African Rugby Union's Broad-Based Transformation Process and Charter (Basson, 2006) appears to have recognised the need for a holistic approach to sport development programmes. In addition to highlighting skills development as one of the focus areas, the question was asked:

What kind of world do we want to help create for tomorrow's child?
The youth of our country who are the leaders of tomorrow, are in desperate need of guidance in an ever-changing society, a society that demands a lot of them, even at an early stage of their lives. (no page)

A rugby development programme aimed at the development of self-regulation skills such as goal setting, is a programme aimed to empower participants to help them to fulfill their potential as people as well as rugby players. As Weinberg and Gould (2003) concluded:

The problem is not getting people to identify goals; it is getting people to set the right kind of goals – ones that provide direction and enhance motivation. People need goals that help them stick to and achieve their goals. Most people do not need to be convinced that goals are important; they need instruction on setting effective goals and designing a program to achieve them. (p. 330)

Significance of the Study

This study attempted to present a version of such a rugby development programme in which learning about task-oriented goal setting is promoted.

The value of linking sport to a personal development programme has been discussed by Collingwood (1997), whose research demonstrated that a structured physical fitness programme had a positive effect on many factors contributing to the problems of at-risk youth, such as self esteem. His programme also facilitated the acquisition of life skills, such as goal setting.

Danish and Nellen (1997) proposed that life skills can be taught through sport. He noted that life skills and sport skills are both learned through demonstration, modeling and practice and that sport can become a valuable vehicle when these lessons are learned and transferred. He concluded, “When knowing one’s self becomes as important as proving one’s self, sport becomes an essential element in personal growth and development” (p. 103). If the presented study can identify one approach to helping adolescents learn about goal setting while they were working on the development of their rugby skills, it is possible that coaches and sport administrators can be convinced to expand the focus of their sport development programmes to include aspects of life skills education. The critical issue was whether the inclusion of learning about goal setting has a negative impact, no impact or a positive impact on rugby skill development.

If using sport to teach life skills is not the answer, nothing is. However, reaching adolescents where they are and want to be (on the playgrounds and gymnasiums), is more than just a great idea. (Danish and Nellen, 1997, p. 111)

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine whether the inclusion of activities and discussions about goal setting in a rugby skill development programme, would have any impact on either the rugby skills or the understanding of goal setting among u/16 players from historically disadvantaged communities. This study made use of rugby as a developmental experience, developing not only rugby playing skills and ability, but also developing the self-regulation strategy of goal setting.

It is the point of view of this study that rugby creates a suitable environment to teach life skills, such as goal setting. Taking something that youth love and know - such as rugby - and combining it with learning experiences about something that can be of value to their lives - can be a powerful tool to assist players to not only raise their rugby performance standards, but also to grow as individuals. If this is not done, great opportunities to help youth realise their full potential may be lost. Perhaps a sequence should be adopted where the first step is the development of sporting talent in a holistic way, before identifying and selecting individuals for rugby-intense development squads. Once the basics of life skills and rugby skills have been learned, advanced talent development could be done for the elite few, focusing on preparing players for competition at the high performance level.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses guided this study:

1. There will be no improvement in the technical quality of the rugby skills of subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme.
2. There will be no improvement in the speed of performance of rugby skills of subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme.

3. There will be no changes in the understanding of goal setting of subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme, specifically:
 - 3a. There will be no changes in perceptions about goal setting among subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme.
 - 3b. There will be no changes in understanding the relationship between goals and performance among subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme.
 - 3c. There will be no changes in understanding the effects of goals on players among subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme.

Methodology

This study followed a repeated measures experimental design. Two groups of high school rugby players from similar sporting backgrounds and similar socio-economic backgrounds were involved: an experimental group who received a pre-season rugby training as well as an intervention programme dealing with goal setting, and a control group who received only the pre-season rugby training, but no special goal setting activities. Both groups were pre-tested and post-tested on their rugby competence and their understanding of goal setting.

An analysis of variance was applied to determine whether there were any significant differences in the pre-test and post-test performances of the subjects between and within groups. The statistical package Statistica 8.0 was used.

Limitations

The following limitations may have had an impact on one or more aspects of the study and should be considered when drawing generalisations from the results.

1. This study only measured three aspects of an understanding of goal setting, and used a Western based instrument.

A questionnaire was used to measure understanding of goal setting. It had to be translated into Afrikaans from English, which can be a source of error. According to the principals of the schools, several of the subjects had poor language ability that may have resulted in their not being able to fully understand the written statements. Upon observation it seemed to the investigator that quite a number of the participants did not possess a high quality of either reading or writing skills.

Only understanding about goal setting was measured. Measuring the impact of a life skill such as goal setting is more desirable, but difficult because the value of the skill for the individual may only be seen over time. It is almost impossible to determine whether or not individuals have adopted the life skill and applied it to their everyday life. A change in short-term behaviour and attitude is one way to determine the effect of a life skills education programme, but one has to guard against the change in behaviour being only due to the desire to please someone like the coach or other role player.

2. Goal orientation of subjects not assessed.

No attempt was made to determine whether the subjects were more task goal oriented or more ego goal oriented. While it is not known whether this would have influenced the impact of the programme, goal orientation is a relatively stable personal quality (Petlichkoff, 2004), and

the intervention programme in this study was focused on promoting a task goal oriented approach. If this approach was not compatible with the disposition of the subjects, the impact of the programme could have been impaired.

3. The duration of intervention programme was restricted.

A five-week intervention period is very short when one wants to determine the effects of a skills development programme. This applies for both rugby skills and life skills. The “More Than Rugby” programme was structured for this period mainly because it had to be a pre-season program, and fit in before league games commenced.

4. The coaches/presenters of the intervention programme were not the regular coaches of any of the players.

Because the coaches/presenters were new to all the subjects, it is possible that communication between them was not optimal, or that the subjects regarded the coaching sessions as an incidental part of their pre-season training. This could have reduced the amount of effort they put into their participation.

Definitions

The following terms were defined in the following way for use in this research.

Life Skills

Defining life skills is not easy, because the so-called life skills seem to include skills, values, attitudes and knowledge from a broad spectrum. Within the scope of this study, the following definitions are used:

Danish and Nellen (1997) defined life skills as “Those skills that enable us to succeed in environments in which we live”. (p.102)

Weinberg and Gould (2003) noted that some sport psychologists have argued that the mental skills that are learned on the sport field are actually life skills, which usually transfer to enhance one's everyday life.

Goal

Many definitions of what a goal is can be found in literature. The following are consistent with the use in this study:

An aim, objective, target or dream...a goal is a particular standard of performance that is usually to be attained within a specified time limit. (McKenzie & Hodge, 2000, p. 25)

Burton, Naylor and Holiday (2001) stated that every goal consists of two basic components: direction (a focus for behaviour) and the amount or quality (the minimal standard of performance to be attained) of the product. They defined goals as cognitive mechanisms that describe what an individual is trying to accomplish: An aim or objective.

Chapter Two

Review of Literature

Motivation – whether in sport or in life – is related to goal setting and goal achievement (Locke & Latham, 1985). In sport, the coach must have goals, the individual athletes must have goals and, if applicable, the team must have goals. Weinberg and Gould (2003) reviewed research by psychologists who have studied goal setting as a motivational technique for several decades and found that most of them concluded that goal setting works and works extremely well. This was found to be true in organizational as well as in sporting contexts. The following sections will provide a description of goal setting, the process of goal setting, sport and goal setting, and goal setting as a life skill.

Goal Setting

Goal setting is a technique used to enhance performance and direct or even change behaviour if necessary. According to Weinberg (2004), goal setting theory is based on the premise that the conscious goals an individual sets while trying to perform a task actually regulate his/her performance. He described the formulation of goals and the subsequent evaluation of performance as a process that included comparisons to both internal and external standards and expectations.

Burton *et al.* (2001) stated that goals are cognitive mechanisms that describe what an individual is trying to accomplish (i.e. an aim or objective). He suggested that every goal be defined in terms of its two basic components:

1. The direction provided by the goal (the identification of what the individual is trying to accomplish).

2. The quality or the quantity in goal achievement that specifies the minimal standard of performance needed in order to be successful.

Types of Goals

Weinberg (2004) differentiated between three types of goals relevant to sport: process goals, performance goals, and outcome goals. Each type of goal provides a different focus for evaluating achievement:

1. Process goals are concerned with how an individual performs a certain skill. These goals tend to be useful during practice or training.
2. Performance goals specify a level of achievement against a measurable standard, rather than against competition. The performance of other players or competitors does not affect the achievement of the goal, which is entirely dependent on the individual performer.
3. Outcome goals focus on end result of a competition and are primarily concerned with winning and losing. This means that the player is not in total control of achieving the goal and therefore achieving these goals depends not only on your own efforts but on the ability and play of your opponent.

Weinberg and Gould (2003) concluded that it is important that athletes set process, performance and outcome goals because all three types play an important role in directing behavioural change. According to them, the key was knowing when to focus on each type of goal and not to place all one's attention on one particular type of goal.

McKenzie and Hodge (2000) stated that performance goals encourage players to focus on what must be done in order to win, rather than simply on the outcome of winning. In describing the progress in attitude of New Zealand's World Cup Rugby Champions, Captain David Kirk was quoted:

“Winning was not the most important thing anymore. Winning wasn’t the point. Playing the best rugby was the point and winning was the by-product. The distinction is real.” (McKenzie & Hodge, 2000, p. 26)

Kyllo and Landers (1995) explained that while outcome goals can facilitate short-term motivation, both performance and outcome goals are important during competition because they guide necessary adjustments during an event. Process and performance goals are particularly useful during practice where they become the basis for feedback that results in restructuring practice activities.

Burton *et al.* (2001) suggested that during the skill acquisition and skill mastery phases of the learning process, performance goals are effective as criteria for evaluating performance and setting new challenges for performers. He also indicated that outcome goals should be more effective in helping performers maintain focus and effort once skills have been successfully automated, than they are for performers at the beginning and intermediate levels.

Rushall (1991) mentioned a different dimension to the types of goals in his recommendation that goal setting be restricted to “self-control” goals, which are goals related to performance over which the athlete has control. This type of goal appears to be similar to process and performance goals. He provided the following rationale:

With goals that rely on the ability of an athlete to control what they do, training and competing become contests between the athlete and stable predefined goals. This leads to athletes developing a mastery orientation and having clear purposes behind training and competition. (p. 171)

Goal Setting Styles

Burton and Naylor (2002) explained that different athletes may have different ways of looking at goal setting based on perceptions of ability and goal orientations. They described two styles: performance goal orientation and outcome goal orientation. Athletes who have a performance orientation style assume they have the ability to learn and believe that if they put in sufficient

effort, they will ultimately succeed. Interestingly, their belief that they can achieve with effort appears to be unaffected by their perceptions of their ability. In other words, whether they see themselves as talented or not, they still believe they can achieve through effort. This means, for example, that both high and low skilled performers will relate to the goal-setting process in a similar way. They are more intrinsically motivated. Process and performance goals are most meaningful to athletes with this style.

Athletes who have an outcome goal orientation style compare themselves to others and define success in goal achievement in relation to winning or performing better than others (Burton & Naylor, 2002). Performance improvement is secondary compared to the primary outcome of favorable social comparison. There are two variations of outcome goal orientation:

1. Success-oriented goal-setting style.

Because these individuals tend to operate in environments where they are successful, they tend to perceive their abilities to be good or high (Burton & Naylor, 2002). Moderate goal difficulty is probably most effective for these performers since they tend to attribute losing to factors outside their control.

2. Failure-oriented goal-setting style.

These individuals tend to view their abilities as fixed (Burton & Naylor, 2002). Because they determine goal achievement in terms of social comparison, they are often quite nervous going into a competition, for example, because they have no confidence that they will be able to respond if their opponent is "better" than they are. When they are successful, they often attribute that success to luck. They then tend to set easy goals that are already achievable, or extremely high goals that are out of their reach (which give them an excuse for failure). If goal setting has any impact on the motivation of performers with this

orientation, it will be a negative one since the process asks them to seek improvement through investing effort to meet challenges – something they do not believe they are capable of doing.

How Goal Setting Works

According to Locke and Latham (1990), setting goals has been shown to have a positive impact on human performance in the following four ways:

1. Goals can help direct action by focusing attention on the achievement of specific tasks.
2. Goals can help increase effort and intensity invested in achievement.
3. Goals can help encourage persistence in the face of failure or adversity to initially achieve success.
4. Goals can help promote the development of new tasks or problem solving strategies.

Singer, Hausenblas and Janelle (2001) stated that directing action, increasing effort/intensity and the encouragement of persistence, all be regarded as the short-term motivational function of goals. They described the development of new strategies as a more indirect, long-term process that may be necessary when striving toward complex goals or when one is confronted by sustained failure or adversity.

The Process of Goal Setting

A systematic process for implementing a goal-setting programme in sport was advocated by Weinberg and Gould (2003). They recommended that the process be conceived in three stages:

1. The Preparation and Planning Stage (called the instructor-leader preparation stage by Weinberg and Gould (1995).

This stage includes the assessment of abilities and the subsequent identification areas that need improvement.

- Each individual athlete's potential, commitment and his/her opportunities for practice must be assessed before goals can be set because these factors will have a critical impact on the success of any programme.
- Assessment should be comprehensive, recognizing that goals may be set in diverse areas such as individual skills, team strategies and tactics as well as psychological skills.
- Goals will not be effective unless they are tied to specific and realistic strategies to achieve them, which mean that the goals must be attainable and the strategies must be practical and meaningful to the athletes. The identification of a long-term goal, with short-term goals seen as markers of progress, has been found to be a successful approach.

2. The Education and Acquisition Stage.

Athletes should be provided with the opportunity to learn about goal setting so that they can participate fully in the process.

- Formal and informal meetings can be held with both individual athletes and when applicable, the team.
- Defining one goal at a time and identifying realistic strategies to achieve that goal is recommended, especially for newcomers to goal setting.

3. The Implementation and Goal Evaluation Stage.

The coach and the players should work together to follow through on the strategies for goal achievement and in the assessment of the success of the process.

- It is important to identify and agree upon how goal achievement will be measured.
- Feedback is essential during the process of striving for a goal. Although time-consuming, evaluation along the way supports progress toward goal achievement.
- Athletes will need support and encouragement to persist. Coaches can be supportive by showing enthusiasm about the goal setting process and an interest in each athlete's progress toward his/her goal.
- Plan time to re-assess goals. Because goal setting is a personal process, it may be necessary to re-set goals during the process. This may entail making goals more or less challenging, changing the focus of a goal, or even identifying an entirely new goal.

Locke and Latham (1985) questioned whether the performance of sport and exercise participants who are already highly motivated, will be impacted by supplementary motivation from setting goals. Weinberg (2004) warned against assuming that there will be a positive relationship between goals and behaviour. He listed a number of factors (e.g., the individual's ability to attain the goal) that will influence effective goal setting. He concluded that effective goals can only be set for and by specific individuals taking into account their individual characteristics and specific circumstances.

Characteristics of Effective Goals

Gould (1993) compared goal setting to a road map, with the final destination being the long-term goal. Short-term goals represent logical stops along the way, and the goal achievement strategies (e.g. training methods) represent the choice of the route. In addition to metaphors, the use of acronyms to describe systematic approaches to goal setting also appears in the literature. One of the commonly used acronyms is SMART (Smith cited in Weinberg & Gould, 2003) which describes the characteristics of a viable goal as:

- Specific.

Specific goals that are challenging are the most effective for changing performance. The goal should be a detailed description of the desired outcome.

- Measurable.

Goals should be stated in measurable terms. Numerical outcomes are the clearest way to measure achievement.

- Aadjustable.

Although a goal is set in formal terms, it may be necessary either to adapt the goal and/or to adapt the strategies used to achieve the goal to the realities of the situation. This means that there must be continuous thought about progress toward the goal in order to determine if it is necessary to modify either the goal, the practice schedule and/or the target dates for achievement.

- Realistic.

Although the goal must be challenging, it must also be realistic. Goals that are either too difficult or too easy do not have the same positive impact on motivation that appropriately challenging goals have.

- Time-referenced.

Realistic target dates for assessing goal achievement should be set. It is very important that each goal has a deadline.

Shaw, Gorely and Corban (2005) referred to another widely used acronym, SCAMP (specific, challenging, acceptable, measurable and personal), when describing characteristics of effective goals. Smith (cited in Weinberg & Gould, 2003) concluded that after you have set your SMART goals, you should determine an outline strategy of training methods to achieve them. Weinberg and Gould (2003) stated that the correct application of the principles mentioned in the section above provided a foundation for designing a goal-setting programme.

Principles of Goal Setting

Weinberg (2004) emphasized the distinction between the “science” and the “art” of setting goals. He stated that researchers provide practitioners with scientific information about goal setting, including the identification of principles that can be applied in real-world situations. However, he associated the ability to adapt those principles to the individual circumstances in a specific situation as a kind of art to be mastered by practitioners. This means that coaches need to know the principles of goal setting, as well as have the ability to adjust the application of those principles to their teams and to individual athletes in order to maximize the potential of goal setting to facilitate performance success.

Weinberg (2004) recommended the following as the basic guidelines for goal setting in sport. It is a list that is similar to the lists found in many resources that describe goal setting:

- Set specific goals.

Goals should be identified through a needs assessment that forms part of the designing of an educational or sport performance programme.

- Design short-term goals leading to long-term goals.

Short-term goals are critical to success in achieving long-term goals since they provide feedback about progress, which may contribute to adjusting either goals or the strategy for achieving goals (Weinberg, Bruya & Jackson, 1985).

- Set challenging but realistic goals.

Orlick (1986) discovered that high performance athletes benefit from setting three different levels of challenge for their long-term goals. The ultimate or “dream goal” that athletes can only achieve when performing at the top of their game; “a realistic goal” set at moderate difficulty level that should be attainable through hard work and effort, and “a self acceptance goal” set at the lowest level of performance that athletes can attain and still feel that they have been somewhat successful.

- Record goals

Experts advise to write goals down on paper as well as place the goals where they will be visible (e.g. on walls, bulletin boards) (Weinberg, 1996).

- Use a combination of process, performance and outcome goals.

It is especially important to set performance goals (a focus on specific individual performance improvements) rather than only process or outcomes goals (Weinberg, 1996).

- Set both individual and team goals (when applicable).

In team sports, individual goals are important for developing responsibility but they must be set in the context of team goals (Weinberg, 1996).

- Set goals for practice sessions.

The goal difficulty for practice sessions must be challenging enough to push players beyond their comfort zone. If long-term goals are to be reached, short-term goals must be set and reached in practice sessions (Locke & Latham, 1985).

- Develop systematic plans to reach goals.

Goals will only be effective if a systematic plan is developed that can guide goal attainment. Strategies for goal achievement are the actual activities that the athlete engages in to enable him/her to progress toward the goal (Weinberg, 1996).

- Consider the participant's personality

Goal setting is effective only if individuals are committed to the goal. Specific, difficult yet attainable goals lead to goal commitment, along with factors such as the authority of the individual assigning the goal, peer influences, competition, and incentives and rewards (Locke & Latham, 1985).

- Provide and encourage social support.

By reinforcing goal achievement, the behaviours leading to that achievement will be reinforced. Motivation to set and reach new goals should also be enhanced, which means that the goal setting process will be used again.

- Evaluate progress and achievement of goals.

Evaluation of progress is critical for adapting goals and strategies if necessary. Obstacles such as personal, social and situational factors can have a negative impact on progress toward a goal unless there is a coping or adapting response to them.

Locke and Latham (1985) emphasized that goal setting only works if there is timely feedback about progress in relation to the goal. Feedback, which is based on some kind of measurement, is crucial for goal setting to be effective. They stated that goal setting has motivational properties because individuals are motivated by the discrepancy between their goal or desired end state and their current status. Feedback is valuable to the goal setting process because it provides specific information about the size of the discrepancy, which allows individuals to either persist or to re-formulate goals. Locke and Latham (1990) identified evaluation as the most critical step in the process. Evaluation is the basis for feedback that tells the individual where he/she is in relation to the goal to be achieved.

Goal Setting in Sport

A goal in sport was defined as a desired level of proficiency or a standard in performance (Petitpas, Champagne, Chartrand, Dandis & Murphy, 1997). Locke and Latham (1985) identified goal setting as a technique that they believed could be used to increase both skill and confidence of athletes in competitive sports. A study by Weinberg *et al.* (2000) on Olympic athletes gave an interesting insight into the importance of goal setting in high performance sport, when it was found that despite the fact that these were Olympic athletes, winning was not as important to them as was improving their performance.

Locke and Latham (1985) proposed that the goal setting principles supported in industry likely apply to athletic settings. They argued that athletes gain motivational and performance advantages by setting difficult and specific goals, as well as the setting of short-term goals in conjunction with long term goals. They cautioned that if coaches and athletes think that merely making mention of goals, or setting vague goals with no feedback, will improve performance, they will not reap the benefits of the goal-setting process. Using goals in sport, especially outcomes goals, should be a well defined concept.

Characteristics of Goals in Sport

Burton (2001) identified the following six characteristics of goals that have been found to be effective in sport:

1. Focus.

Goals must be focused, either on process, on performance or on outcome. Process goals refer to qualitative improvements in form, technique and strategy, while performance goals refer solely to improving (e.g. number of points scored), and outcome goals refer specifically to winning or losing.

Difficult goals prompt greater effort and persistence than easy goals. As individuals reach the upper limits of their ability, goal difficulty will have to be carefully considered. Also, individuals who lack confidence may need to experience relatively quick success at achieving less challenging goals.

2. Specificity.

A specific goal is more effective than a general goal because it allows the performer to assess the discrepancy between his/her current status and the desired status. This certainty contributes to consistency in practice attempts since the final goal has specific attributes.

3. Valence (value).

Goal setting has been found to be particularly effective when focused on new skills or on difficult skills, because the performer recognizes the importance of achieving the goal if his/her performance is to improve. The performer must see the goal as important.

4. Proximity.

Long-term goals enhance performance most effectively when short-term goals are used to guide development and to indicate progress along the way. Because short-term goals are “nearer” to the performer’s current status, they can be achieved more quickly, which contributes to motivation to continue striving toward the more distant long-term goal.

5. Collectivity.

Group goals can enhance performance as effectively as individual goals. Group goals are necessary when the activity is a group/team sport, rather than an individual one. Individual goals in team situations can support the achievement of group goals.

Relationship of Goals to Performance

Danish, Taylor, Hodge and Heke (n.d.) identified that one of the advantages of using sport examples to signify goal accomplishment was that the goals in sport are typically tangible, relatively short-term and usually measurable. These characteristics of goals in sport allow sport to provide individuals with clear opportunities to see the value in goal setting and to experience success in setting and achieving goals.

Weinberg (2004) provided the following observations about the use of goal setting in sport:

- Performance is enhanced when goals are moderately difficult.
- Goal setting provides athletes with direction and focus that will result in motivation if those athletes are committed to their goals and accept them.
- Goals plus feedback produce better performance than goals alone.

- Time pressures, stress, tiredness, academic pressures and social relationships negatively affect goal achievement.
- Achievement of both short-term and long-term goals provides reinforcement (and motivation).
- Goal setting is most effective for athletes using multiple goal strategies in order to perform.

Kyllo and Landers (1995) focused on the importance of knowing the difference between challenging goals and unrealistic goals. They made the point that goal setting will not affect the performance positively if the individual does not have the ability to master the task being performed. This is supported by the view of Weinberg and Gould (2003) who noted that goal setting is an extremely powerful technique for enhancing performance, as long as the process is implemented correctly.

Setting goals is known to be easier than achieving them. The most common problems that hinder athletes from achieving the goals they have set were identified by Petitpas *et al.* (1997) as:

- Lack of knowledge.

The athlete may have set an inappropriate goal because he/she has an incomplete understanding of the sport or the amount of time and effort needed to achieve a goal.

- Lack of skill.

The athlete may not have an accurate perception of his/her physical, motor and/or mental skills, and as a result set a goal that is far beyond his/her capabilities at the time.

- Lack of self-confidence.

The athlete may not have the belief that he/she is capable of achieving the goal that has been set. This doubt will hinder the amount of effort and persistence brought to working toward the goal.

- Lack of social support.

An athlete will need encouragement and other forms of support in order to achieve a goal. If support is not available from family and friends, for example, it is much more difficult to sustain effort toward goal achievement.

Weinberg (1996) limited his presentation of the problems that hinder the effective use of the goal setting process in sport to the following:

- Failure to monitor goal progress and readjust goals (insufficient feedback).
- Failure to recognize individual differences (athletes have different styles, e.g. performance goal oriented or outcome goal oriented).
- Failure to set specific, measurable goals (goals are often too general).
- Setting too many goals (failure to set priorities).

Participation in the Goal Setting Process

Goal setting seems to be more effective at improving performance in sport when an individual is allowed to set his/her own goals, or at least participate in setting the goals (Weinberg & Weigand, 1993). They stated that athletes prefer to set their own goals and may reject goals assigned to them in favour of those they set by themselves. Kyllö and Landers (1995) suggested that because athletes are achievement oriented, they set goals naturally, even if they are not

fully aware of those goals. These “free set goals” will vary by content, specificity and difficulty according to the individual’s aspirations.

Locke and Latham (1985) recognized the importance of the aspirations of the individual. They were of the opinion that success in goal achievement does not bring lasting satisfaction, and that goals must be based on the capabilities and long-term aspirations of the particular individuals involved. Kyllö and Landers (1995) proposed that setting personally meaningful goals is critical to the successful application of goal setting.

The involvement of the participant in the goal setting process does not mean that guidance is not needed. Weinberg and Gould (2003) found that people tend to set either subjective goals (e.g., having fun) that are only statements of a general emotional state, or objective goals (e.g., scoring a certain number of points or attaining a specific standard) in the short-term. Without guidance, it is often difficult for an individual to set a progression of short-term goals that will lead them to long-term success in an achievement domain that is important to them.

Goal Setting as an Intervention

Different variations of goal setting have been used for many years by sportspersons in order to improve their performance. Burton (1989) reported the results of a field study investigating the effectiveness of goal setting over the course of a season for members of a university swimming team. He found that swimmers who effectively applied goal-setting strategies achieved greater performance improvements than those who were less effective in their application of goal setting strategies.

A number of studies have been completed that use goal setting as an intervention technique to enhance motivation and performance in sport and physical activity settings. Shaw *et al.* (2005) described the story of American swimmer John Nabor, who provides one of the best-known examples of applied goal setting. In 1972, Nabor set winning the Olympic 400-meter backstroke gold

medal in 1976 as his long-term goal. His time in 1972 was about four seconds slower than the predicted goal medal time, so he set himself the goal of being four seconds faster by the time of the 1976 Olympics. He broke his long-term goal down into short-term goals of one second faster each year, which was further broken down to .08 seconds per month and 0.02 seconds per week. His approach was successful, and he won the gold medal in 1976.

The effectiveness of different types of goals may vary according to sport situation, level of expertise and characteristics of individual performers. Weinberg *et al.* (2000) investigated the approach of Olympic athletes to find out what kinds of goals they considered to be the most effective. They reported that performance goals that related to improving the athletes' own personal performance were more helpful for achieving improvement for these athletes than the goal of winning. These results are inconsistent with an earlier study by Weinberg, Sticher, Richardson and Jackson (1994), which tested the effect of a goal-setting programme with a university lacrosse team. Players were assigned to either an outcome goal-setting group or a do-your-best group. The results revealed no statistically significant differences between the groups in terms of performance improvement.

Specificity in goal setting appears to be an important consideration, although it may be related to task complexity. Anderson, Crowell, Doman and Howard (1998) conducted a study aimed at increasing the rate of legal body checking (hit rate) by a university ice hockey team through the application of goal setting strategies. They found that setting goals specifically dealing with hit rate did indeed produce increases in hit rate. Burton's (1989) study of college students enrolled in an 8-week basketball course compared the improvements of those who set specific goals with those who set general goals for skill improvement. Results showed that setting specific goals enhanced performance for low-complexity tasks better than for high-complexity tasks.

The process of including players in the identification of goals was the focus of a study by Ward and Carnes (2002). They investigated the impact of self-set goals during practice and games. Five football players were selected who had been identified by their coach as consistently poor in their execution of certain target skills during both practices and game play. Following an intervention programme in which the players were taught how to set goals related to these target skills, the players achieved improvements during game play. Their initial (pretest) success in target skill execution was 60% to 80% of their opportunities. Posttest results indicated an increase in success rate to 90% to 100% of their opportunities. Of course, it is not just the setting of goals that leads to improvement. Setting clear goals must be followed by a commitment to do the work necessary to achieve those goals (McKenzie & Hodge, 2000).

Goal Setting in Rugby

McKenzie and Hodge (2000) explained in detail their position that goal setting was a critical aspect of rugby skill development. They identified goals as the starting point for rugby training and put forth the following reasons for supporting the use of goal setting in rugby:

- Goal setting helps players and coaches manage the time available for training because goals entail the recognition of specific priorities.
- Goal setting includes the identification of strengths and weaknesses, which helps focus practice sessions.
- Appropriate goal setting develops and maintains optimal levels of self-confidence, anxiety and stress, since the goals should be challenging, but not overwhelming.
- Achieving goals is evidence of improvements in either training or game play. This success helps to maintain motivation.

McKenzie and Hodge (2000) also identified the following specific areas in which they suggested goals should be set:

- Physical goals (health and fitness).
- Technical goals (the execution of the skills of each position).
- Tactical goals (progressive understanding of tactics and strategies)
- Psychological goals (mental skills/self-management skills).

One practical example of how McKenzie and Hodge (2000) suggested players become accustomed to goal setting was through the use of goal achievement worksheets (see Table 1). The worksheet involves self-monitoring although some players may need guidance from a coach.

Table 1

Example of a goal achievement worksheet (McKenzie & Hodge, 2000, p.29)

Skill/area needing improvement:	Tackling performance.
Specific goal:	I will successfully make at least 70% of my attempted tackles during games.
Goal achievement strategy:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. After training on Tuesday, I will complete 15 min. of tackling practice with a teammate, using tackling bags. 2. I will practice 10 min. of tackling imagery each day, making sure that I imagine making tackles from the side and from behind.
Target date/evaluation:	<p>18 May. Write down game statistics.</p> <p>Then, set goal to achieve a 75% tackle rate by 15 June.</p>

McKenzie and Hodge (2000) stated that use of techniques like this worksheet would assist players to learn about the benefits of goal setting for the following reasons:

- It forces players to make a specific statement of their performance goal and to set a target date for goal achievement.
- It gives players the opportunity to think about the positive impact of achieving the goal as well as the negative consequences of not achieving the goal.
- It has players describe their strategy for achieving their goal.
- It encourages players to think about obstacles that may make achieving their goals difficult, which should lead to listing strategies for overcoming these obstacles.
- Players will have the opportunity to think about the validity of the excuses they make to explain why they are not achieving their specific goals.
- Players will be challenged to think whether or not it is worth the time, effort and commitment to reach their goals. It could be that they find that the goals they have chosen are not as important to them as they originally thought.

Mellalieu, Hanton and O'Brian (2006) looked at the effects of goal setting on rugby performance and found that goal setting was effective for enhancing task specific on-field behaviours in rugby union. They set goals for improving five performance behaviours of five players. Twenty rugby matches for these players were video taped over the course of one season. The first 10 games provided the baseline data. The frequency of each targeted behaviour was calculated using a notation system. The mid-season break was utilized for the

intervention programme, and the 10 games in the second half of the season used as the posttest. Their intervention programme consisted of three steps:

1. Goal determination.

Each player indicated one aspect of his performance that could be targeted for improvement and then set a performance goal for that behaviour. The behaviours selected for goal setting by the players were: ball carries per game, increase in number of tackles made/decrease in number of tackles missed, successful kicks and turnovers.

2. Goal setting.

Based on the mean values for each participant's performance for the first 10 games, each participant was counselled about the process of goal setting and provided with the knowledge of how to set a target for improvement for the second 10 games.

3. Goal reviewing.

During the second half of the season, one of the investigators met individually with each player 48 hours before every match and reviewed the details of his specific performance goal.

The results of the study of Mellalieu *et al.* (2006) showed a desired change in behaviour for all participants in performance of the targeted behaviours. The investigators acknowledged that there was no way that the playing conditions, the opposition, or a variety of other external factors could be controlled during this research. However, they were convinced that goal setting was related to specific performance improvements, since similar improvements were not noted in those behaviours not selected.

The Relative Effectiveness of Goal Setting in Sport

It has been suggested that the physical and mental challenges of improving task and job performance in industry have a lot in common with the challenges of improved performance in sport (Locke & Latham, 1985).

Regarding the critical aspect of generating goal commitment in the process of goal setting, they listed the following methods drawn from the business literature and applied to sport:

1. Explain the reason for each goal (e.g., why a specific increase in strength is needed) in relation to performance improvement.
2. Be supportive of the performer's efforts to achieve the goal. A positive relationship between the coach and the performer will facilitate commitment.
3. Participation in goal setting may not be as critical as participation in determining the strategies that will be implemented. Find ways for performers to have input and some control over the process of how they will strive for a goal.
4. Ensure that training sessions focus on progress toward goal achievement. This commitment by the coach will impact on the commitment of the performers.
5. Selection of performers may be necessary. Because ability can be a limiting factor in goal achievement in sport, it is possible that some performers will have to be dropped from a programme if they are not able to achieve specific goals. This process can result in greater commitment among those who have been selected to continue.
6. Rewards and recognition for effort, progress and achievement will enhance commitment.

Despite the logic of the transfer of principles and methods from business environments to sport, the use of goal setting as a strategy for performance improvement has been more successful in non-sport settings than in sport-settings (Burton *et al.*, 2001). This difference in effectiveness was attributed to the following factors by Weinberg and Weigand (1993):

- As athletes become more skilful, they are operating closer to their performance potential. Locke and Latham (1990) presented evidence that as an individual approaches the limits of his/her ability, goal setting may become less effective because ability factors restrict the amount of improvement that can be achieved.
- The sport environment is a complex and often unpredictable one. Burton (cited in Weinberg & Wiegand, 1993) noted the large number of complex individual and team skills needed in most sports, all of which can impact on individual's achievement of his/her goals. Locke and Latham (1985) identified the key difference between goal setting in individual versus team sports as the need for coordination and cooperation in team sport situations. In order to motivate cooperation, they suggested the identification of team goals, although very little research has been conducted on the effectiveness of team goal setting and its relationship to individual goal setting.
- The issue of individual differences may be underrated. Locke and Latham (1990) indicated that individual differences, especially self-efficacy, have a significant impact on how individuals respond to goal setting, particularly for complex tasks.

Burton (2001) mentioned that a competitive goal setting model (CGS) has been developed that accounts for different goal setting styles among athletes, a personal variable that is a combination of the individual athlete's goal orientation and level of perceived ability.

- Failure to employ appropriate goal implementation strategies. Goal setting is only the first step in the process. Some coaches and athletes may have an incomplete idea about how to design and then follow specific strategies for goal achievement.

Despite these problems, Weinberg and Weigand (1993) stated that goal setting is a robust phenomenon that can have a significant and practical impact on sport performance improvement. They were also convinced that a systematic goal-setting programme would be more effective than simply pursuing spontaneously set goals.

Goal Setting as a Life Skill

Danish and Nellen (1997) defined life skills as “Those skills that enable us to succeed in environments in which we live”. (p. 102) They specified that life skills could be either behavioral skills (e.g., communicating effectively), cognitive skills (e.g., making effective decisions), interpersonal skills (e.g., being assertive) or personal skills (e.g., setting goals). Collingwood (1997) attributed some of the core problems of at-risk youth to their deficits in certain skills. He contended that at-risk youth often lack the basic observation, goal setting and planning skills needed to deal effectively with their world. He stated that a term that is often applied to these skills is “life skills.”

Goal setting can be identified as one of the life skills that have been found to be important both in life and for improvement in sport performance. The skill of setting goals was described by Collingwood (1997) as an important life skill for youth to master. Danish *et al.* (n.d.) stated that because goals in sport are typically tangible, short-term and easily measured, using sport to highlight the relationship between goal setting and goal accomplishment gives individuals better opportunities to see the value in the process and to experience success in setting and achieving goals. They concluded that if sport is to be an attractive activity for youth, it must be organized in such a manner that each individual is

able to reach his or her personal goals and derive satisfaction from doing so, as one of the common reasons why the youth participate in sport is to improve their skills.

Life Skills and Sport

Weinberg and Gould (2003) noted that some sport psychologists believe that the mental skills that are learned on the sport field are also life skills, which under the right circumstances, can transfer to everyday life. Certainly, improving sport-specific skills is not sufficient for improving performance in sport. According to Goudas, Dermitzaki, Leondari and Danish (n.d.), the additional skills needed for success in the sport domain are often called “sport psychology” skills. However, many of them are referred to as life skills in non-sport domains. If both sport-specific skills and sport psychology (including life skills) are not taught, sport performance improvement will suffer.

Papachariris, Goudas, Danish and Theodorakis (2005) were convinced that individuals, who participate in programmes that integrate the learning of sport and life skills, can improve both their sport skills and their understanding and use of life skills. Danish and Nellen (1997) stated that it is not sport as such that teaches life skills, but that it is participation in a sport experience that is designed so that its participants think about how they can transfer what is learned in sport to other domains such as school, home and/or the work place. It was their position that sport is closely tied to other life domains and that the value of participation can extend to other life areas.

Danish *et al.* (n.d.) stated that participation in sports provides children and adolescents with a medium in which to learn values and skills that will help prepare them for the rest of their lives. When reflecting about the lives of adolescents and the risks they encounter in day-to-day living, Danish and Nellen (1997) identified sport participation as a medium in which individuals are given the opportunity to set and work toward their personal goals, and that this experience can have a profound impact on personal development. They came

to the following conclusion about the relationship between learning life skills in general and in sport:

There is a lot of concern about what to do but few answers and even fewer efforts to find a solution. If using sport to teach life skills is not the answer, nothing is...reaching adolescents where they are and want to be (on the playgrounds and gymnasiums), is more than just a great idea. (p. 111)

Collingwood (1997) found that participation in formally structured physical fitness programmes reduced the impact of risk factors for serious behavioural problems among at-risk youth (youth who live in a negative environment and/or lack the skills and values that help them become responsible members of society). Martinek (n.d.) supported this view by saying that sport participation creates opportunities for holistic development as participants are challenged cognitively, socially, and physically.

Danish and Nellen (1997) concluded that for sport to serve as an effective model for learning life skills, the sport participation must be structured with the intention of teaching life skills. He suggested that promoting competence in sport performance is best encouraged when players compete against themselves – more specifically, when they focus on maximizing their potential and achieving their goals.

Sport and Life Skill Programmes

Danish and Nellen (1997) reported on the projects of the Virginia Commonwealth University Life Skills Centre that used sport as medium for promoting personal growth. They maintained that the educational and developmental value of sport participation was in its potential to teach youth to apply the principles of life skills learned through sport to other areas of their lives.

Goudas *et al.* (n.d.) reported that when life skill training is appropriately embedded in sport development, the learning of life skills is not achieved at the expense of learning sport skills and improving fitness. They were convinced that

students could improve their performance by applying the life skills they are taught to their sport, thus achieving both an improvement in understanding and use of life skills, and in sport performance. Danish and Nellen (1997) provided the following considerations for coaches who consider coaching for both life skill development and sport skill development:

- The process needs to be intentional and the participants need to be aware of the objectives of the programme.
- Because sport participation as such does not teach life skills, learning experiences must be specifically structured in such a way that participants have the opportunity to think about the life skill and be able to discuss how it might be transferred to other domains.
- Role players (players, coaches and mentors) need to agree on the life skills to be explored and to discuss how they can use these skills in their sport development as well as in other life areas.

The GOAL (Going for the Goal, 2006) programme and the SUPER (Sport United to Promote Education and Recreation, 2006) programme are two examples of programmes that have been implemented linking sport involvement with life skills education (see Table 2). Both programmes originated from the work of Steven Danish. Because they were used as resources for the programme implemented in this study, they are briefly described in the following sections.

The GOAL Programme

The GOAL programme was designed to teach adolescents a sense of personal control and self-confidence about their future. These outcomes were intended to support their ability to make better decisions (both on and off the field) and ultimately become better citizens (Danish & Nellen, 1997). According to these authors, the focus of the Goal programme is on teaching the individuals “what to say yes to”, as opposed to “just say no.” Goal setting is one of the key

strategies included in this programme in order to contribute to the development of a sense of self-control.

Table 2

A summary of the key concepts in the GOAL and the SUPER programmes (2007 www.vcu.edu/life)

Key Concepts in the GOAL Programme	Key Concepts in the SUPER Programme
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Dare to dream. 2. Setting goals. 3. Making your goals reachable. 4. Making a goal ladder. 5. Road blocks to reaching goals. 6. Overcoming roadblocks. 7. Seeking help from others. 8. Rebounds and rewards. 9. Identifying and developing your strengths. 10. Going for your goal. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Developing a team. 2. Dare to dream. 3. Setting goals 4. Making your goal reachable. 5. Making a goal ladder. 6. Identifying and overcoming. 7. Roadblocks to reaching goals. 8. Seeking help from others. 9. Using positive self-talk. 10. Learning to relax. 11. Managing emotions. 12. Developing a healthy lifestyle. 13. Appreciating differences. 14. Having confidence and courage. 15. Learning to focus on your personal performance. 16. Identifying and building on your strengths. 17. Goal setting for life.

O'Hearn and Gatz (2002) evaluated a school-based intervention of the GOAL programme designed to teach life skills to at-risk urban adolescents. It was their position that the GOAL programme can be distinguished from other social competence promotion programs because it includes life skills that go beyond a student's interactions with his/her peers. The specific programme was focused on setting positive, reachable goals; on anticipating and responding to

barriers to goal attainment; the use of social support; and building on one's strengths. The results demonstrated gains in knowledge of the life skills being taught and improvement in problem-solving skills.

Papachariris et al. (2005) conducted a study on the application of the GOAL that reported significant increases on participants' knowledge about life skills and perception of their competence to achieve the goals they have set.

The SUPER Programme

Another sports-based life skill programme, the SUPER programme, was developed as a refinement of the GOAL programme. The purpose of the SUPER programme is for participants to realize the following outcomes (Danish & Nellen (1997) :

- An understanding that physical and mental skills are important for sport and for life.
- A recognition that it is important to set and attain goals in sport.
- A recognition that it is important to set and attain goals in life.
- A realization that roadblocks to goals can be overcome.

According to Danish and Nellen (1997), the SUPER programme makes use of modeling where peers teach other peers. Peer leaders are trained before the implementation of the programme. Weinberg and Gould (2003) described the SUPER programme as a sport-based life skill intervention designed to teach sport and life skills to adolescents. Participants are taught a variety of skills to improve their sport performance as well as selected life skills. Participants are then asked to apply the life skills to their sport development. They are also involved in activities that encourage them to think about applications in non-sport settings, for example, by recognizing situations both in and out of sport that would benefit from the application of the selected life skills. Goal setting is one of

those life skills. In addition to goal setting, the SUPER programme includes communicating, working in a team and handling both success and failure as some examples of skills learned in sport that could transfer to other aspects of life.

Papachariris *et al.* (2005) conducted research on the SUPER programme.

- In one study, their results showed that young volleyball and soccer athletes who participated in the programme performed better in sport skills and showed an enhanced knowledge and improved confidence in applying life skills compared to athletes in the control group.
- In another study, they found significant changes on social responsibility, emotional intelligence, goal knowledge and social interest, as a result of implementing an abbreviated version of the SUPER programme.
- In a third study focused on the development of physical fitness, students who received the SUPER programme demonstrated enhanced knowledge about life skills and higher self-beliefs for personal goal setting.

From their review of research, Papachariris *et al.* (2005) concluded that when life skills training is appropriately embedded in a sport or fitness experience, the life skills learned are not at the expense of learning sport skills and developing fitness. They maintained that students who participate in such programmes actually experience greater improvements in their sport and fitness by applying the life skills they are taught, when compared to control groups who do not receive life skills education.

Conclusion

Goal setting appears to be a viable method or tool for helping many individuals to focus their hard work and training in order to improve their performance. The process of goal setting must be systematic in guiding

individuals to set effective goals, because merely setting goals in sport or any other context will not necessarily improve performance. By making sure the process is understood and key goal setting principles are applied, the coach can promote setting goals that will enable individuals to assess their current situation and determine what needs to be done in order to be successful and reach their full potential. McKenzie and Hodge (2000) reminded the enthusiasts of goal setting that the setting of goals is only one step in the improvement of performance. They noted that it is the focused effort and persistence in striving to achieve the goal that enables the individual to achieve improvement and/or success.

Sport is attractive as a context for many youth and the goal setting process can be clearly explained and implemented in sport. This makes sport programmes a likely place for youth to learn more about goal setting. Both the GOAL and SUPER programmes are prime examples of such opportunities (Danish & Nellen, 1997). It is the focus of this study to implement a modification of these two programmes with rugby players from historically disadvantaged communities in order to determine whether their understanding of goal setting can be improved as well as their actual rugby skills. The next chapter presents a description of the research methodology adopted to determine the impact of the intervention programme.

Chapter Three

Methodology

This study explored the potential of rugby as a developmental experience, not only in terms of the motor skills that lead to competence in rugby, but also in terms of learning more about the life-skill of goal setting. A 10-session pre-season programme entitled “More than Rugby” was designed and implemented in order to determine whether combining skill instruction with activities specifically designed to increase an understanding of goal setting had an impact on either the development of rugby competence or understanding about goal setting. The following chapter describes the methodology followed in this research.

Design

This study followed a repeated measures experimental design. Two groups of high school rugby players from more or less similar sporting backgrounds and similar socio-economic backgrounds were involved: an experimental group who received a pre-season rugby training programme as well as an intervention programme dealing with goal setting, and a control group who received only the pre-season rugby training, but no special goal setting activities. Both groups were pre-tested and post-tested on their rugby competence and their knowledge of goal setting (see Table 3).

Procedures

The following procedures were followed in the completion of this study.

Selection of Measurement Instruments

Measurement instruments were needed to pre-test and post-test rugby competence levels and understanding of goal setting.

Table 3

Outline of the research design

Pre-test	Intervention	Post-test
Group 1: Experimental Group		
Briefing. Test 5 rugby skills in circuit test. Test knowledge of goal setting (GSI). Closure.	More than Rugby programme 10 sessions, running for 5 weeks (practices twice a week). Coaching of core skills. Share concepts about Goal setting (included in every session).	Briefing. Test 5 rugby skills in circuit test. Test knowledge of goal setting (GSI). Closure.
Group 2: Control Group		
Briefing. Test 5 rugby skills in circuit test. Test knowledge of goal setting (GSI). Closure.	<u>Rugby portion only</u> of More than Rugby programme 10 sessions, running for 5 weeks (practices twice a week). Coaching of core skills.	Briefing. Test 5 rugby skills in circuit test. Test knowledge of goal setting (GSI). Closure.

Measurement of Rugby Competence

Ten core rugby skills for u/16 rugby players were selected after consultation with some respected high school rugby coaches in the Western Cape. From these ten core skills, five skills that were representative from the ten core skills, was chosen and a test battery consisting of five rugby skills was designed to pre- and post-test the rugby competence of each subject. Because movement competence involves the ability to adapt and adjust skill performance, the skills chosen were not position-specific, and they were performed individually in a

continuous circuit so that skill performance was not influenced in any way by other players. The skills were:

1. Side step.
2. Passing accuracy.
3. Ball presentation in contact.
4. Tackling.
5. Kicking for accuracy.

The rugby test circuit was set up in a 75m x 20m area (see Appendix A). On the signal "Go!" the subject ran to Station One. After completion of that task, he moved to the next station immediately, and so forth. An observer also ticked off the skills as they were completed at each station, and he also indicated whether they were done correctly. All skills were done to the left and to the right hand side.

A quantitative score for speed of skill execution was the total time taken for completion of the circuit, recorded using a stopwatch. (See Appendix B.) However, in order to gain insight into each subject's technical proficiency, the performance of each player was also recorded on digital videotape by an independent observer. A qualitative score to indicate skill was calculated from this videotape after conclusion of the testing session. Two rugby coaches with substantial experience in high school rugby met in a quiet room and watched the recording of each subject's performance at each station. They first completed an individual rating for each subject's performance. The rating was on a scale from one to five points (one point for poor execution; two points for average execution; three points for good execution; four points for very good execution; and five points for excellent execution). The coaches then shared their rating of a subject. If they disagreed on the rating, they discussed their perceptions until consensus was achieved. The total technical proficiency score for each subject

for each of the five skills was then calculated. A sample of the rating form used by the coaches is presented in Appendix C.

Measurement of Goal Setting

The Goal Setting Inventory (GSI) developed by Fisdell and Rushall (1992) was selected to measure understanding of goal setting. The GSI evaluates the factors involved in the process of establishing and using goals by athletes in specific sporting environments. It has undergone a variety of revisions and in its current form, consists of 98 items. The inventory is accompanied by standardised testing instructions and an answer sheet. According to its authors, the GSI is valid for athletes of 15 years and older. A sport psychologist was consulted as well, but no other valid instrument for measuring goal setting could be found. The GSI contains questions that deal with goals, goal setting, goal evaluation and goal achievements, organised into eight subscales:

1. Goal perceptions.
2. Goal setting interaction with the coach.
3. Effects of goals on the athlete.
4. Goal setting actions.
5. Factors which affect setting of goals.
6. Relationship of goals to performance.
7. Other factors related to goal setting.
8. Types of goals.

Following consultation with a research Sport Psychologist, three subscales were selected from GSI (Fisdell & Rushall, 1992) for use in this study:

Subscale One: Goal perceptions.

Subscale Two: Relationship of goals to performance.

Subscale Three: Effects of goals on players.

Malete (2004) is of the opinion that it is difficult to apply a Western measurement instrument, for instance a questionnaire in a African context. Not all questions or statements will make sense to them when in their own context, while respondents may also struggle to express themselves in answering the questionnaire.

These sub-scales were used to measure the subjects' understanding of goal setting. The investigator translated the sub-scales into Afrikaans (the home language of the participants). An example of the inventory is provided in Appendix D (Afrikaans) and Appendix E (English).

Development of an Intervention Programme

Hughes (1990) found that goal setting techniques could be learned and developed over a surprisingly short period of time (within 7-10 days). The investigator in the present study designed a holistic programme entitled "More than Rugby" (MTR) as an attempt to integrate rugby skill development with learning about goal setting. Each of 10 practice sessions for the experimental group had three coaching focus points:

1. Guided practice of the specific rugby skill identified for the session.
2. Multiple opportunities for individuals to improve their application of the skill during game-like situations.
3. Activities providing opportunities to learn about a goal setting concept.

The programme for the control group focused only on points one and two (above). Ten core individual rugby skills for u/16 players were identified with input given by three established coaches in the Western Cape. Ten goal setting concepts were selected from the GOAL programme and the SUPER programme

as developed by Danish for inclusion in the intervention programme for the experimental group.

- GOAL is a school-based intervention that teaches life skills to at-risk urban adolescents, and is designed to teach adolescents a sense of personal control and confidence about their future so that they can make better decisions (both on and off the field) and ultimately become better citizens. The programme focuses on setting positive, reachable goals; anticipating and responding to barriers to goal attainment; using social support; and building on one's strengths.
- The SUPER programme is a sport-based life skill intervention designed to teach sport and life skills to adolescents. Participants are taught a variety of skills to improve their athletic performance, some physical and some mental. They are then asked to recognise situations both in and out of sport that require these skills and apply the skills in sport and non-sport settings.

An outline of the 10 session MTR programme is provided in Table 4

Table 4

Outline of the 10-session rugby development programme.

Session	Rugby competence focus (both experimental & control groups)	Goal setting content (experimental group only)
1	Normal Wrist pass to left and right	1. Dare to dream.
2	Torpedo/spin pass for accuracy	2. Setting goals.
3	Side step	3. Making your goals reachable.
4	Passing before contact (Draw your man)	4. Making a goal ladder.
5	Off load in contact Retention pass	5. Road blocks to reaching goals.
6	Ball presentation in contact	6. Overcoming roadblocks.
7	Ruck and maul skills	7. Seeking help from others.
8	Tackle from the side or behind	8. Rebounds and rewards.
9	Front on defense (technique)	9. Identifying and developing your strength.
10	Kick for accuracy and distance	10. Going for your goal.

Selection of Subjects

The subjects represented a sample of convenience. Following a presentation of the aims and content of the MTR pre-season programme to the principals from two schools where the students come from similar socio-economic backgrounds, the principals from both high schools indicated that they would like their u/16 players to participate in the project. The principal in one high school indicated that he was willing for the players in his school to serve as the control group in the study. This meant that his players would receive the rugby development portion of the programme, but not the goal setting activities. An example of the letter of permission for involvement in this research is included

in Appendix F (Parents) and Appendix G (School Principal). A letter securing the use of the Sport Fields is presented in Appendix H.

The investigator held a meeting at each of the respective schools with all the u/16 players who indicated that they wanted to play rugby in the up-coming year. The basic outline and purpose of the programme was communicated to the players. Volunteers were asked to submit their names if they were willing to participate in the study. A group of 33 u/16 players volunteered to be in the experimental group. A group of 19 u/16 players volunteered to participate in the control group.

Pre-test

A pre-test session for rugby competence and a second session for administration of the GSI (Fisdell & Rushall, 1992) were scheduled at the experimental group school. The same procedures were followed at the control group school six days later.

All of the subjects were gathered at the test area. The skill circuit was demonstrated once by one of the assistant coaches, but no coaching or emphasizing of coaching points took place. Subjects were asked if there were any questions about what they were supposed to do. No questions were asked.

Every subject was given a player's code number on the master score sheet. One by one their code number was called, and they were given the opportunity to complete the skill in the circuit as quickly and correctly as possible. The time to complete the circuit was taken with a stopwatch by the investigator and recorded next to the subject's code number. An observer ticked off the skills as they were completed and indicated whether they were done correctly. An administrative assistant made a digital video recording of each subject's performance for analysis later.

The understanding of goal setting in sport by the players was measured in the first week of the programme by asking the participants to fill in the adapted GSI (Fisdell & Rushall, 1992) questionnaires during break in a classroom at the school. Basic instructions were given as to how the questionnaire should be filled in. Each participant was given enough time to fill in the questionnaire. No consultation with fellow players was allowed, although a supervisor was present to clarify anything that was uncertain. The respondents took a maximum of twenty five minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Intervention Programme

Separate practice sessions (on different days) took place twice a week for each group at the local municipal fields, and participation lasted 60 minutes each session. The focus of each session was presented previously in Table 4. Prior to the beginning of each session, the players were given sandwiches and the attendance register was completed.

After a brief warm-up, the rugby skill for the day was explained and technique development was emphasised. The subjects were taken through 4-5 drills and in most instances; mini-games were played at the end of the session. A sample lesson plan and the certificate of completion are presented in Appendix I.

For the experimental group, 10 minutes were taken during each session to teach/ share the specific goal setting concept for the day. Every player was given a written hand-out explaining the goal setting concept for the day, and some practical applications of the specific concept to improvement in rugby were discussed.

Six college students enrolled in a coaching certificate course assisted with individualised coaching for both groups. These coaches were supervised by the head coach, who was familiar with both the rugby and the goal setting focus for each session. Once a week, all six assistant coaches attended an education

session with the head coach, during which the rugby and goal setting skills for the next week were discussed, along with ideas and explanations for implementation as well as drills to be used during the upcoming week.

Post-test

The same test battery was used as a post-test after the completion of the programme. The same procedure was followed. Individual rugby skills (using the same test battery) as well as understanding of goal setting (by means of the GSI questionnaire) were re-tested after the completion of the 10-session intervention programme.

Data Analysis

A repeated measures analysis of variance was applied to determine whether there were any significant differences in the pre-test and post-test performances for movement competence in rugby (technical skill proficiency as well as speed of skill) of the subjects. A Tukey HSD test was also done to determine where the difference was.

A repeated measures analysis of variance was also applied to determine whether there were any significant differences in understanding of goal setting (i.e., perception about goal setting, relationship between goals and performance and affects of goals on players). Because of the multiple comparisons based on multiple items on each of the sub scales, a Bonferonni adjustment was done as well.

The Stuart Maxwell Chi Square test was also conducted to determine the individual p value for each of the 34 questions making up the adapted GSI questionnaire. A significant difference was only found for one of the questions, question 2.15 that stated: "Sport goals are important to me."

The statistical package Statistica 8.0 was used for the analysis of the data.

In terms of the assessment of rugby skills performance, scores of technical proficiency and scores of speed of performance were analysed separately. In terms of assessment of knowledge of goal setting, the scores for each of the subscales of the GSI were analysed separately.

Summary

This study focused on exploring the potential of the MTR programme on the development of competence in rugby and understanding of goal setting among u/16 rugby players. An experimental and control group pre-test post-test design was used. The players from the experimental group took part in a 5-week, 10-session rugby development programme that included activities designed to teach them about goal setting. The players from the control group were only taught the rugby skills, without goal setting skills being presented. After the completion of the programme, the rugby skill level and knowledge about goal setting of both groups were tested. The results of the data gathered are presented in Chapter Four.

Chapter Four

Results and Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a significant improvement in the rugby skills and the understanding of goal setting of players who participated in a five-week intervention period. This intervention combined learning about goal setting and developing rugby skills in a programme called the “More than rugby” programme.

A total of 52 u/16 rugby players from two similar schools (33 in the experimental group and 19 in the control group) volunteered to participate in this study. Complete data were gathered and reported from a total of 26 subjects (see Table 5). Both the experimental and the control groups were pre-tested and post-tested on rugby skills as well as their understanding of goal setting. The practice sessions for the experimental group consisted of rugby skills coaching plus presentations about goal setting as a life skill. The control group received the same rugby skills activities in their practice sessions, but did not have any presentations about goal setting.

Table 5

Descriptive data for the subjects participating in the study

Group	Subjects who started the programme	Subjects who completed the programme
Group 1 MTR (experimental)	33	16
Group 2 Control	19	10

Hypothesis One

There will be no improvement in the technical quality of the rugby skills of subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme.

The videotape recording of each subject's performance of the sequence of skill test stations were analysed and then rated independently by two expert coaches. Each subject could receive a maximum of 5 points per skill for each of the five skills performed from each expert coach. This means there was the possibility to earn 25 points from each coach, or a total score on technical proficiency of 50. Figure 1 presents the results of the comparison of the pre-test and post-test performance of the experimental group. And the control groups respectively. A significant improvement in the technical performance of the subjects in the experimental group was achieved, while no significant improvement in the technical performance of the subjects in the control group was achieved.

Hypothesis One is rejected. The results showed a significant improvement in the technical quality of the performance of the subjects in the experimental group.

It is encouraging that a five-week skill development intervention programme resulted in an improvement in rugby skills for both groups. Although the skill improvement achieved by both groups was significant, the experimental group was not as technically skillful (16.88) as the control group (21.10) on the pre-test. This made a significant improvement more achievable to the experimental group. What is interesting is that their post-test performance (25.63) surpassed that of the control group (23.70). It can be concluded that the MTR intervention programme was very effective for them in terms of rugby skill development. This will encourage coaches who want to include life skills education - such as learning about goal setting – into their sport coaching programme. It appears that introducing additional goal setting content into practice sessions may have promoted the development rate of sport skills.

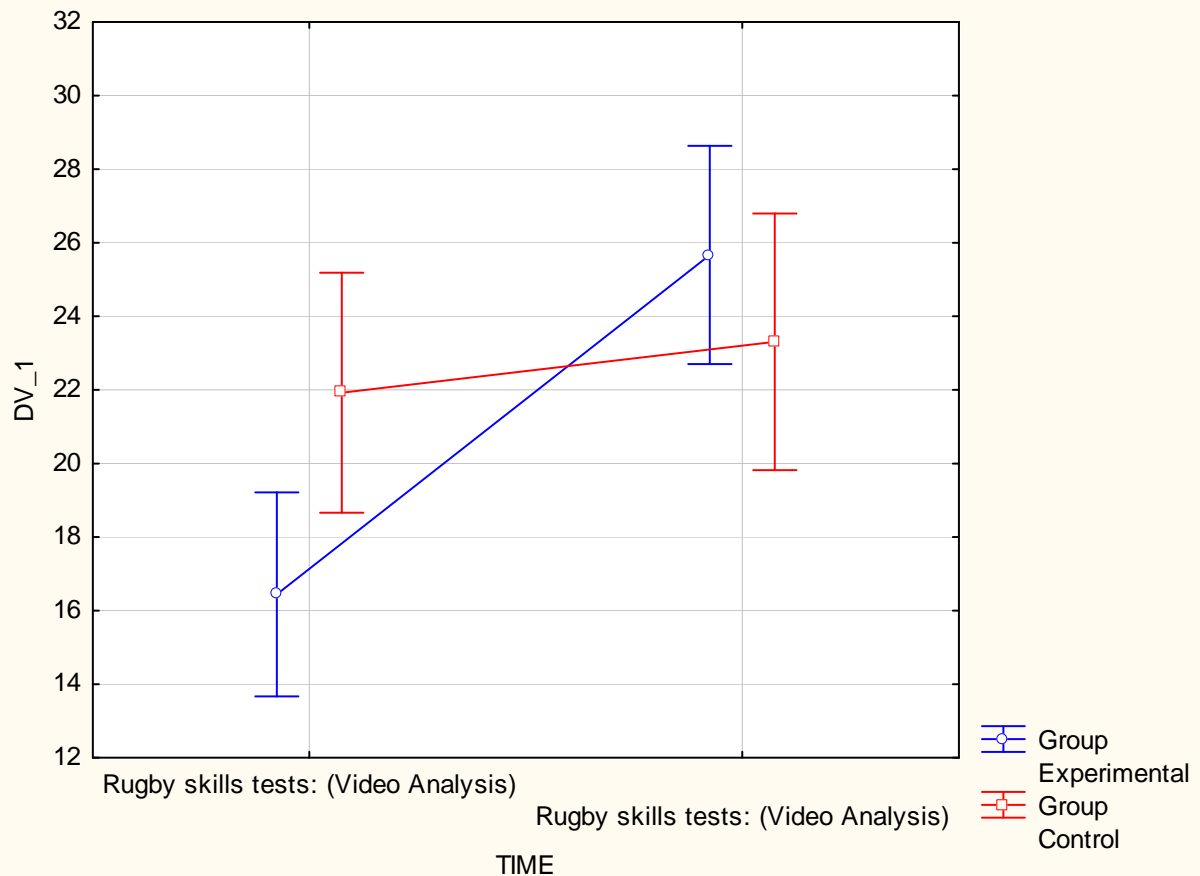


Figure 1

Results of participation in a five-week rugby skill development programme for (Experimental Group 1) and (Control Group 2) on technical quality of performance. ($p = 0.000$)

Hypothesis Two

There will be no improvement in the speed of performance of rugby skills of subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme.

No significant improvements were achieved in the speed of performance of rugby skills for subjects in either the experimental or the control groups (see Figure 2).

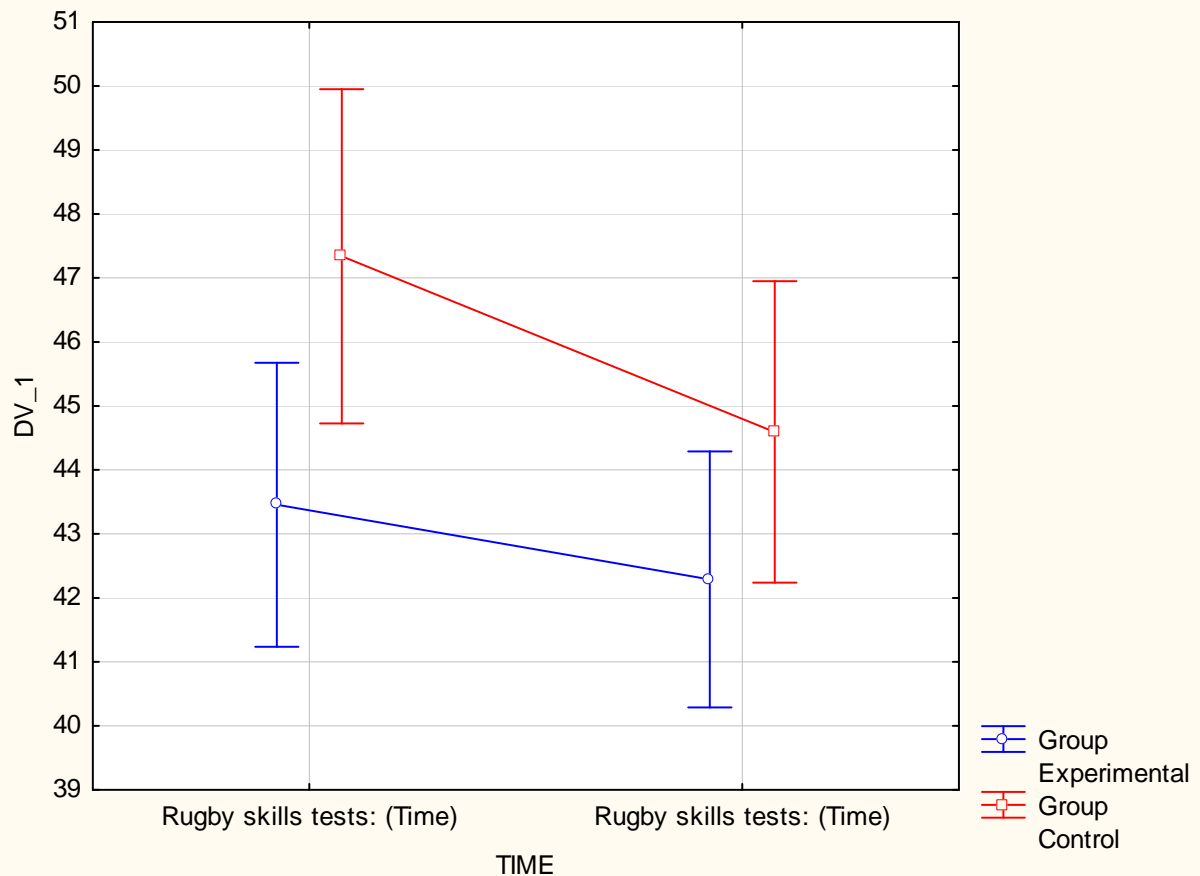


Figure 2

Results of participation in a five-week MTR skill development programme (Group 1) and (Group 2) on speed of performance. ($p= 0.263$)

Hypothesis Two is not rejected. Speed in skill performance was not affected significantly by participation in the five-week intervention programme for the subjects in either group. When making use of time to measure the proficiency of skills, it should be remembered that some subjects sacrifice technical quality of skill performance in order to improve on their time. For example, the experimental group improved by 1.22 seconds in their time and 7.75 points in their skill rating, while the control group improved by 3.46 seconds in their time and only 2.60 points in their skill rating. It can be noted that although both groups performed the sequence of stations faster on the post-test, their improvements were not significant.

Although the differences in speed of performance were not significant, the improvement in speed could be either the result of skill improvement or it could be a learning effect where the players from both groups were able to go through the stations more quickly because they were more familiar with the test.

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis Three was generally phrased as “There will be no changes in the understanding of goal setting of subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme.” The data were analysed according to three specific hypotheses, each of which corresponded to one of the subscales of the Goal Setting Inventory (GSI) (Fisdell & Rushall, 1992).

Perceptions about Goal Setting

- 3a. There will be no changes in perceptions about goal setting among subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme.

Perceptions about goal setting included the subjects’ understanding of uses and the value of goal setting as a self-management strategy. The results of this subscale are reported in Figure 3.

The hypothesis is not rejected. Neither the MTR group nor the control group displayed significant changes in their perceptions about goal setting following their participation in the five-week intervention programme.

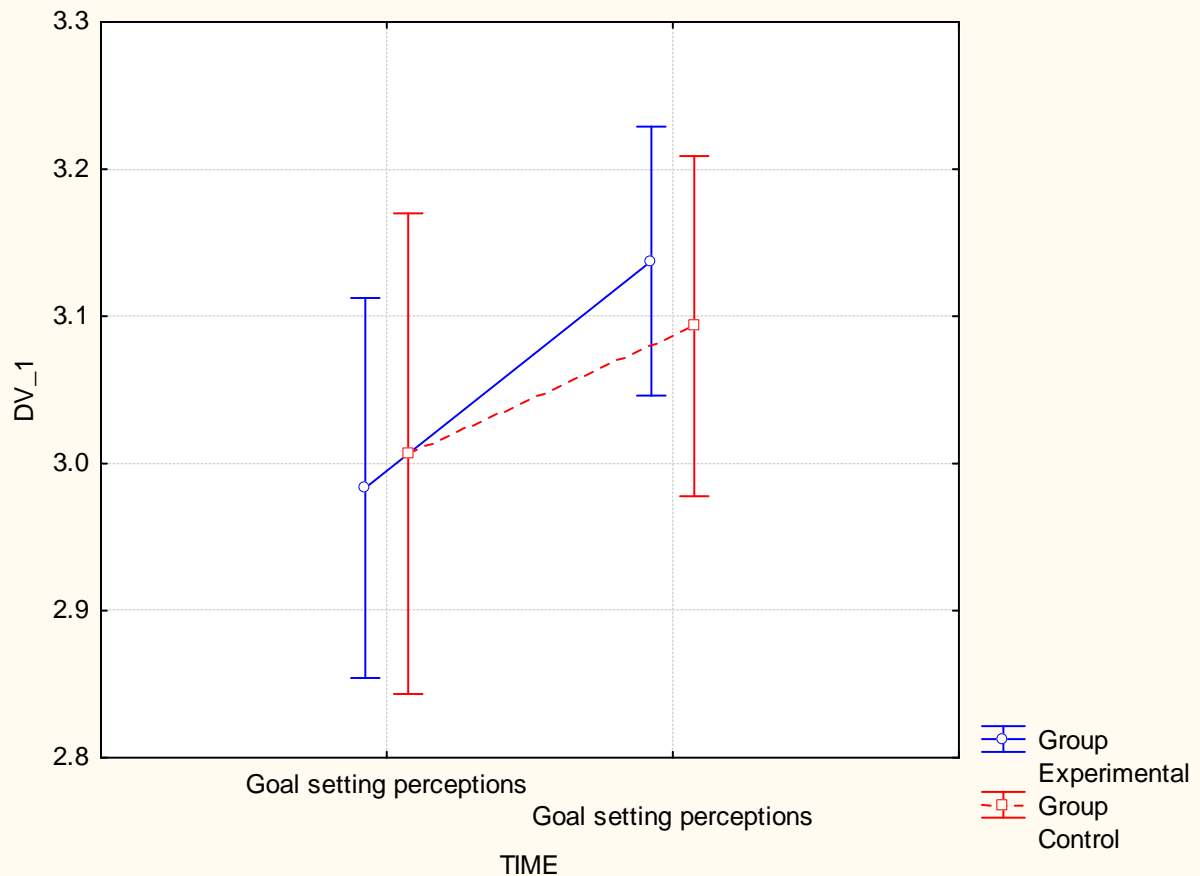


Figure 3

Results of participation in a five-week MTR skill development programme (Group 1) and (Group 2) on perceptions about goal setting. ($p = 0.436$)

Relationship between Goals and Performance

- 3b. There will be no changes in understanding the relationship between goals and performance among subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme.

Perceptions about the relationship between goals and performance focused on the subjects' understanding of the importance of setting goals on goal achievement. The results of this subscale are reported in Figure 4.

The hypothesis is not rejected. Neither the MTR group nor the control group displayed significant changes in their perceptions about the relationship between goals and performance following their participation in the five-week intervention programme.

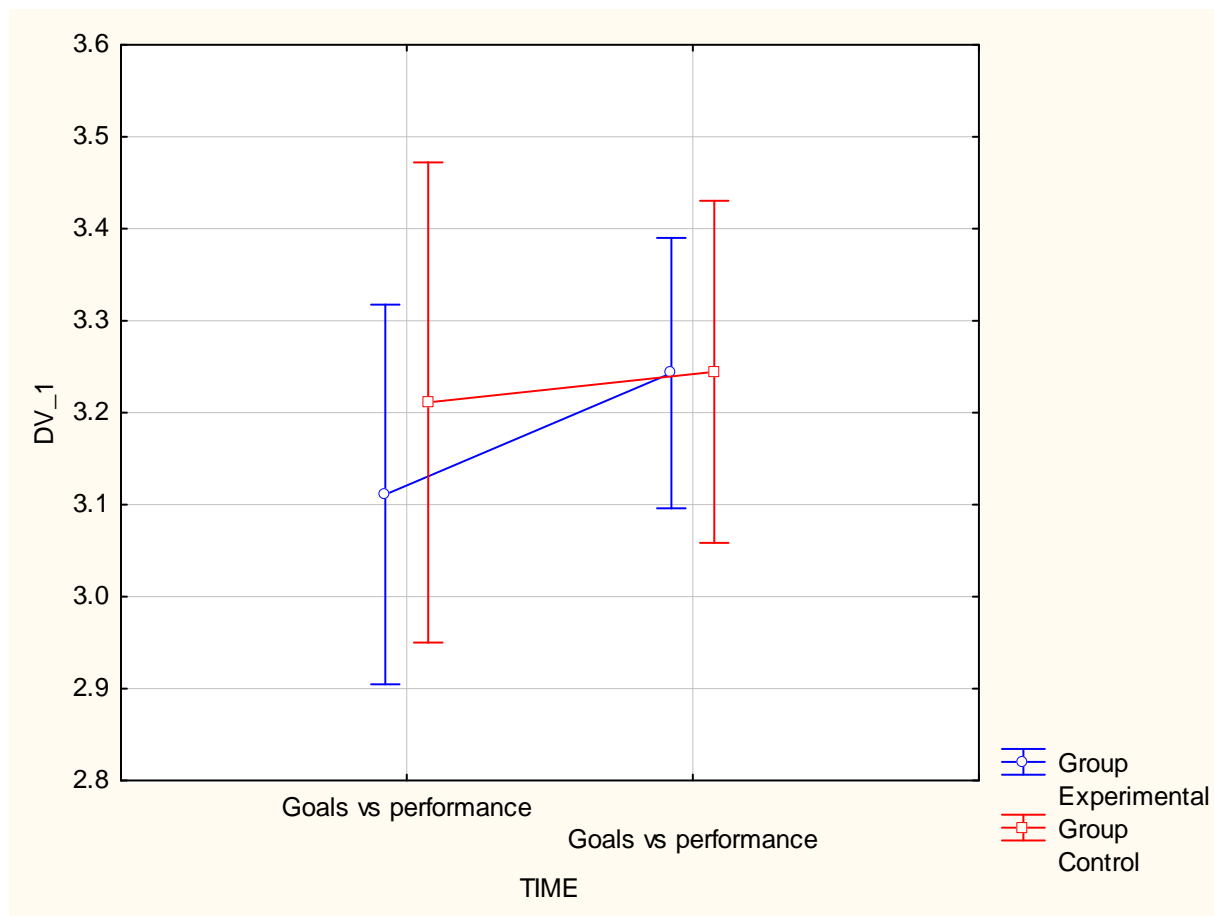


Figure 4

Results of participation in a five-week MTR skill development programme (Group 1) and (Group 2) on the relationship between goals and performance. ($p=0.400$)

Effects of Goals

- 3c. There will no changes in understanding the effects of goals on players among subjects who participate in a five-week intervention programme.

Perceptions about the effects of goals focused on the subjects' understanding of the usefulness of setting goals and goal achievement. The results of this subscale are reported in Figure 5.

The hypothesis is not rejected. Neither the MTR group nor the control group displayed significant changes in their perceptions about the effects of goals following their participation in the five-week intervention programme.

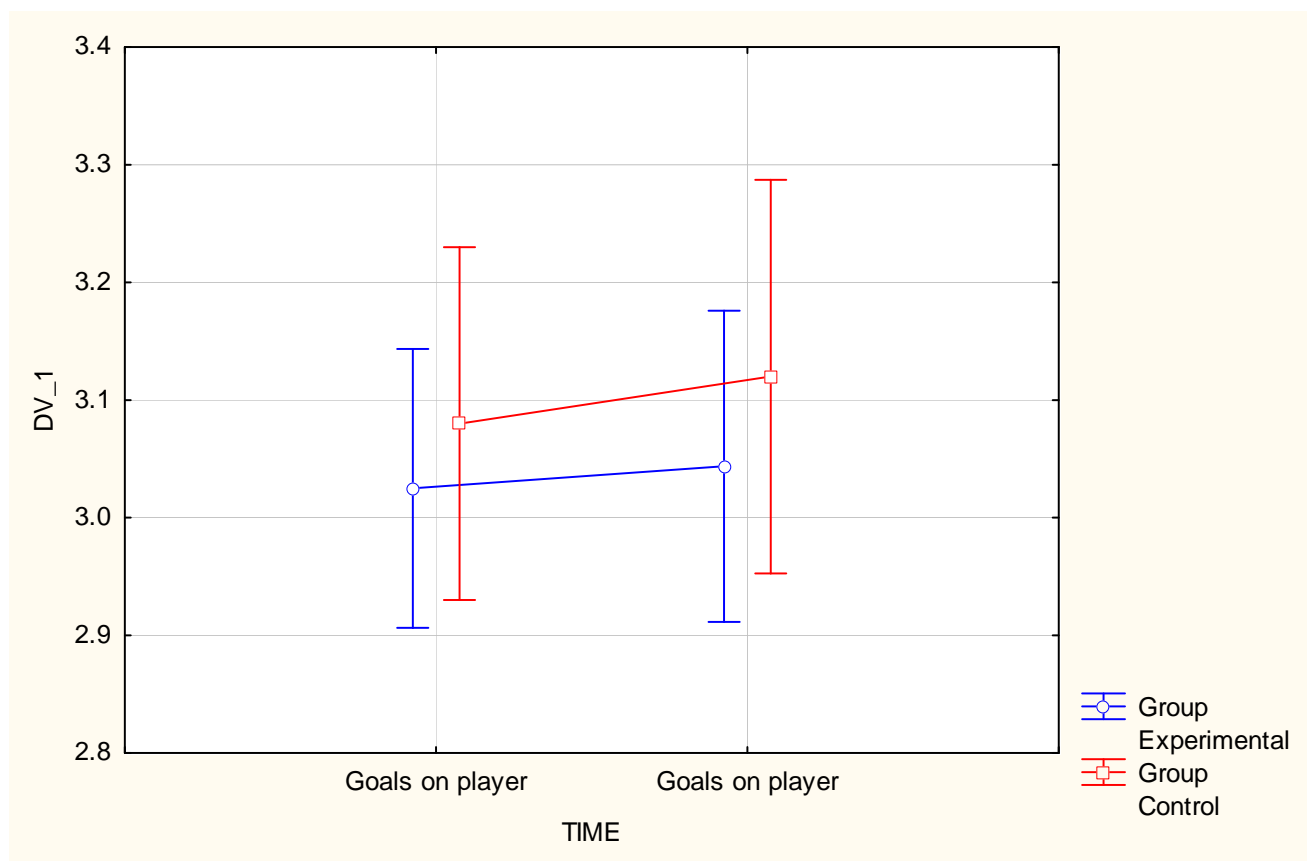


Figure 5

Results of participation in a five-week MTR skill development programme (Group 1) on the effects of goals on players. ($p= 0.868$)

Discussion

Although the assessment of subjects' understanding of goal setting was based on information from only three subscales, it might be expected that a goal setting intervention would have had an effect on at least one of the aspects of goal setting for subjects in the MTR programme. However, no significant changes in any of the dimensions of understanding goal setting were found after participation in that special programme. It was expected that the control group would achieve no significant changes in their understanding of goal setting since they received no intervention that addressed any aspect of goal setting.

The lack of any significant changes in the understanding of goal setting could be attributed to three different sources:

1. The measurement instrument.

It can be argued that the full GSI (Fisdell & Rushall, 1992) should have been used and that the selection of only three subscales made the focus of the assessment too narrow. It can be that there were changes in the understanding of goal setting by the subjects in the MTR programme, but that the instrument was not comprehensive enough to detect them. However, the full GSI consists of eight subscales and 96 items, which was determined by both the investigator and an experienced sport psychologist, to be too long and inappropriate for the adolescent boys who participated in this study.

It can also be said that filling out a questionnaire is not the optimal way to measure understanding of goal setting, and that reports about changes in the behaviour of participants are more accurate. However, behaviour is also very difficult to measure, as it may only become evident after a long period whether individuals are applying the goal setting strategies they have learned to either their sport or their life.

2. The intervention programme.

The focus of the goal setting portions of the MTR practice sessions was not specifically on learning more about goal setting. The focus was on how goal setting can be applied in rugby, with only a secondary link to goal setting as a life skill. It could be that more time should have been formally devoted to learning about goal setting as a set of strategies and as a life skill. In other words, perhaps the subjects in the MTR group received the information about life skills as information from their coach - cannot comprehend about how they could improve their rugby. They may not have thought that goal setting could be transferred to many aspects of life, since this was not emphasised during their practice sessions.

It could also be that the goal setting activities and discussions in the MTR programme were not very effective, and that they did not contribute to a greater understanding of goal setting among the subjects.

3. The specific subjects.

The participants in this study were all adolescent males from historically disadvantaged backgrounds. They were interested in rugby, which is why they joined their school rugby team. They may have chosen not to pay too much attention to the goal setting activities and discussions in the MTR programme.

The only significant change that was achieved by subjects in this study was in the technical quality of the skill performance of the experimental group. Both groups received very similar rugby skill development activities. Both groups were also faster in their post-test performance, but these improvements were not significant. Their improvement in technical proficiency could be attributed to three different sources:

1. Pre-test technical proficiency scores.

It should be kept in mind that any programme aimed at skill development should increase participants' skill levels over time. Not only should technical proficiency improve, but speed in skill execution should improve. This was the case for both of the groups in this study. Both groups improved in both proficiency and speed. However, the significant improvement in technical proficiency by the MTR group must be put in the context of their pre-test scores, which were lower than those of the control group. It would be expected that coaching could contribute more quickly to the skills of players who are at a lower level than those at a higher level. Since the programme was only five weeks long, it would be more difficult for a coach to have an impact on the skills of a more skillful group (i.e., the control group) Magill (2003).

A plateau in skill development can also be reached and it is possible that the subjects in the control group were in a period where their skills were resistant to change, while the subjects in the MTR group were "ready" for change. Although a "performance plateau" and "readiness" for skill improvement are familiar concepts in motor learning, the investigator in this study did not consider the skill level of the subjects in this study to be very high. This may be due partly to the fact that most of the players who participated in this study had not received a high standard of coaching thus far in their playing careers.

2. Goal setting did help.

It is possible that the activities and discussions about applying goal setting to rugby, did contribute to the skill development of the subjects in the MTR group. A significant improvement was achieved in the technical proficiency of the group who participated in the MTR programme. This programme included activities and discussions each practice session that focused on goal setting as part of rugby development as well as

continuously mentioning that goal setting was a life skill. It is possible that by raising an understanding of how goal setting could be applied to rugby, the subjects were able to use goal setting strategies to improve their rugby performance. In other words, it is possible that their understanding of goal setting may not have changed significantly, but their ability to apply goal setting strategies to their rugby development may have improved and consequently, the technical aspects of their skill performance improved.

3. Goal setting was a kind of special attention from the coach.

For subjects in the MTR programme, the special activities and discussions about goal setting might have been perceived as confidence by the coach in their ability to improve. By giving these players the opportunity to learn how to apply goal setting strategies to their rugby, they may have thought that the coach regarded them as promising young players. This could have created a positive attitude toward learning and even encouraged self-belief among the subjects. Such a positive attitude could have contributed to their skill improvement. If this were the case, then the content of the goal setting experiences would not be considered a contributor to skill improvement, but rather the contributor would be the subjects' perception that the coach regarded them as promising young players.

Summary

Some skill improvement should occur as an outcome of any skill development programme. This was the case in this study, where the experimental group improved significantly in their technical proficiency, whilst the technical proficiency of the control group did improve, but not significantly. Improvement in speed was not significant for either group. While it is not surprising that a rugby skill development programme would be successful in

promoting skill improvement, the substantial improvement in the MTR group is consistent with the results of Papachariris *et al.* (2005) that showed that young volleyball and soccer players who participated in the SUPER programme performed better in sport skills.

Understanding goal setting did not improve significantly for subjects in the MTR group. These results are inconsistent with those of Papachariris *et al.* (2005) who found that a programme aimed at the improvement of goal setting knowledge could be successful. They conducted a study on the application of the GOAL programme and reported significant increases on participants' knowledge about life skills and perception of their competence to achieve the goals they had set. In their review of the SUPER programme, they found that subjects in the intervention group had an enhanced knowledge and improved confidence in applying life skills compared to athletes in the control group.

It is possible that the goal setting activities and discussions provided during the MTR programme may have encouraged participants to apply goal setting strategies to their rugby, which in turn may have helped them achieve a significant improvement in their skills. Although this is speculation, it is in agreement with Papachariris *et al.*, (2005) who were convinced that individuals who participate in programmes that integrate the learning of sport and life skills can improve both their sport skills and their understanding and use of life skills. Locke and Latham (1985) specifically identified goal setting as a technique they believed could be used to increase both skill and confidence of athletes in competitive sports. It was their position that sport creates opportunities to not only facilitate the physical development of the individual, but can also be used as a laboratory for the learning of life skills.

The findings of this study strengthen the argument that the teaching of life skills (in this case, goal setting) might not be detrimental to the development of sport skills, and that life skills education can be incorporated into sport practice sessions. While it is true that time is taken from skill practice when the coach

discusses life skills with players, the results of this study show that the reduction in motor skill practice time did not have a negative effect on skill development. In fact, the opposite was true, and the group who spent some of their practice time on goal setting instead of sport skills improved more than the group who spent all their practice time on rugby skills development.

Chapter Five

Conclusion and Recommendations

The purpose of the study was to determine whether the inclusion of activities and discussions about goal setting in a rugby skill development programme, would have any impact on either the rugby skills or the understanding of goal setting among u/16 players from historically disadvantaged communities.

Conclusions

The results of this study showed a significant improvement in the technical quality of the performance of the players who took part in the MTR programme. The players who participated only in the rugby development programme also showed improvements in their skill proficiency, but it was not significant. Neither group demonstrated any significant improvements in either their speed of performance or their understanding of goal setting. The following conclusions can be drawn from these results.

Goal Setting and Rugby

Did the goal setting activities and discussions help improve the rugby skills of the players in the MTR programme? The only significant change that was achieved by subjects in this study was in the technical quality of their skill performance. It was noted, however, that the MTR groups achieved a much greater improvement. It is possible that because the MTR programme focused on raising an understanding of how goal setting could be applied to rugby that the subjects were able to use goal setting strategies to improve their rugby performance. Because this study did not assess whether or not the subjects actually applied any goal setting strategies to their rugby, it is not possible to be

certain that they did. However, it does highlight how important it is to consider how knowledge about goal setting can be transferred into application.

Teaching/Coaching for Transfer

Transfer of knowledge can be looked at in several ways. For example, did the MTR goal setting discussions and activities transfer to the application of goal setting for rugby skills development? Although an understanding of goal setting did not improve significantly for subjects from either group, it is possible that the goal setting activities and discussions provided during the “More than Rugby” programme may have encouraged participants to apply goal setting strategies to their rugby, which in turn may have helped them achieve the greater improvement in their skills.

Will the learning of a life skill such as goal setting in rugby, transfer to the application of goal setting in life? Rugby creates an achievement-oriented environment that offers many opportunities to discuss the application of life skills such as goal setting. However, within this study, the focus of the goal setting portions of the MTR programme was not specifically on learning more about goal setting. It was on how goal setting can be applied in rugby, with some brief mention of how goal setting could be applied to life in general.

The transfer of any life skill taught through sport might be more effective if presented as part of a structured and holistic development programme that is coordinated to present several critical life skills and explore applications to life as well as sport. The MTR programme was limited to rugby practice sessions only, so the issue of transferability to life may have been beyond the impact of the MTR activities and discussions.

Goal Setting, Sport and Life

Locke and Latham (1985) described goal setting as a technique that can increase both the skill and confidence of athletes in competitive sports. Coaches

and athletes have used the setting of goals in sport for many years in order to improve performance and enhance motivation. A recent analysis showed that goal setting led to performance enhancement in 78% of sport and exercise research studies, with moderate to strong effects (Singer *et al.*, 2001).

There is also support for the conclusion that values and life skills can be taught through sport, when the life skills training is embedded in the sport experience and learning life skills is an intentional process. Petitpas, Van Raalte, Cornelius and Presbrey (2004) stated that adolescents place a high value on sport participation and that sport provides them with a valued place within a structured peer-involved activity. Adolf Olgi, Special Adviser on Sport for Development and Peace to the UN Secretary-General (<http://www.toolkitsportdevelopment.org>, 2007) commented on the value of sport:

With sport, children and young adults have the opportunity to make mistakes and learn the worth of essential values that will help them throughout their lives. Sport is more than just entertainment and fun. Sport teaches lessons of social behaviour and integration, it builds character, it helps with self-knowledge and respect for others. Through sport, young people can actively prepare themselves for their professional life.(no page)

Danish *et al.* (n.d.) took the position that goal setting is an important life skill that can be taught through sport. They stated that if sport is to be an attractive activity for youth, it must be organised in such a manner that each individual is able to derive satisfaction from reaching her/his personal goals.

Summary

The findings of this study strengthen the argument that the teaching of life skills is not detrimental to the development of sport skills, and that life skills education can be incorporated into sport practice sessions without detracting from skill development. While it is true that time is taken from skill practice when the coach discusses life skill with players, the results of this study show that the reduction in motor skill practice time did not have a negative effect on skill

development. In fact, the opposite was true, and the group who spent some of their practice time on life skills instead of sport skills improved more than the group who spent all their practice time on rugby skills development.

Recommendations for Future Programmes

This study adds to the literature on sport development as well as life skills education. Sport development should be seen as a long term process, where youth are not only provided with preparation for competition to help them achieve their sporting potential, but opportunities are also created for youth to develop in all spheres of their lives. This holistic approach to sport development would have to take into account:

- Their socio-economic circumstances.
- Their current situation (level of technical and tactical proficiency).
- Their potential in the sport (talent and morphological aspects).

The sport of rugby can be used as a developmental experience. The nature of sport lends itself to competition, and players, especially adolescents, can be challenged in different areas of their lives. If their rugby is important to them and they value participation in rugby – then they will be attracted to the programme. In that positive environment, other skills of value, such as life skills, can be incorporated. Players are met where they are as players and as people, and their needs, both on and off the field, must be met if they are to achieve their full potential. Players can be nurtured and their development can be influenced by significant others, such as their rugby coaches.

By making the rugby experience an intentional life skills learning experience, the individuals learn through their involvement in rugby. This study has demonstrated that there need be no loss of skill development with the inclusion of life skills educational activities in practice sessions. In fact, if attention is paid to how the life skill can be applied to rugby; there might even be a positive impact

on skill development. Development programmes should be seen as the “Learning to Train” stage of the Long Term Athlete Development model (Balyi 1990). This stage is an essential phase in the overall development of players. The holistic approach would have as an outcome that players were able to take the lessons learned through sport and apply them to their lives.

Finding and Nurturing Talent

Baily (n.d.) supported the holistic approach to talent development. He was critical of the talent development process that entails a model where individuals are identified on certain criteria (mainly physical) and drafted into selected development squads. He was of the opinion that a more inclusive approach to resolving the following problems would be more effective:

- The problem of performance.

Almost all talent identification processes rely on current performance of the individual as the basis of their criteria for selection. Baily (n.d.) warns that this approach can easily overlook a talented individual who is not performing well. It is known that performance in childhood is often a poor indicator of later success in sport. For example, children who have had little opportunity to practise or who seldom get to work with proper equipment will not be in a position to perform to the best of their ability.

Baily (n.d.) also suggests that one should not remove potentially talented young people from the system, even if they are underachieving. He favoured a system where as many children as possible are kept involved in sport for as long as possible. This commitment to inclusion would make these talent development programmes good opportunities to incorporate life skills education into their curriculum.

- The problem of participation.

Individuals who are not chosen for the “next higher” level of team or training squad may lose motivation to participate in that sport. This emphasizes the value of including life skills such as goal setting. Goal setting is one of the most successful ways for individuals to self-regulate their improvement in sport (Lock & Latham, 1985). A player who has been dropped from a squad can learn to set goals that may allow him/her to get back into a programme or to change sports and be successful in another programme.

Sustainability of Sport Development Programmes

A critical challenge for sport development in South Africa is the sustainability of sport development programmes. It was found during this study that 48 players started the programme as part of the experimental group, but only 16 finished the programme. There were 20 players who joined the programme half-way through, some of whom finished the programme while others only attended one or two sessions. The control group fared no better, with 26 players starting the programme and only 10 attending all the practice sessions. One can only speculate on the possible reasons for this. The reasons for the drop out rate may include the following:

- A loss of interest or lack of commitment (motivation was reported by the principals as a major problem at their schools).
- Socio-economic problems (some of the participants may have got an opportunity for part-time work)
- Academic pressure (which could also be poor time management).

For each group, a school teacher agreed to act as a liaison person between the investigator and the participants. Although the contact persons at the respective schools should have helped with communication, they did not

show much interest and attended few coaching sessions. This is an area of major concern and highlights the fact the apart from appropriate facilities and equipment, the shortage of passionate educated coaches and teachers is one of the biggest threats to a sustainable sport development programme.

A Holistic Sport Development Model

It is the recommendation of the investigator that a holistic sport development model be designed for and implemented in South Africa. The following areas are critical performance areas for a sustainable holistic development model:

- Technical and physical skill development.

A primary focus of sport development programmes should be technical skill development.

- The social value of sport participation.

Petitpas *et al.* (2004) suggested a positive “gang” scenario that should be created through sport participation. Individuals need to belong somewhere, and are open to the influence of their peer group. It is possible to create a positive peer group in sport.

- Life skills education.

Self-regulation is central to controlling one’s own goal-directed behaviour. Life skills contribute to an individual’s ability to self-regulate. The following life skills have been identified as important (<http://www.talentmatters.org>):

Taking personal responsibility for your own actions.

Developing problem solving skills.

Dealing with setbacks and peer pressure.

Setting and achieving goals.

Maintaining health and fitness.

Making contributions towards one's community

Developing leadership skills.

Developing positive interpersonal relationships.

- Community involvement.

Individuals who are taken out of their environment and drafted into development squads, often struggle to adapt socially to their new environment. It may be better to keep individuals in familiar surroundings if resources can be delivered at the community level. The community can play a major role in supporting talented individuals, who can serve as an inspiration to school and local club sport.

- Sustainability.

The whole hearted involvement of the community in a development program, is crucial to ensure the sustainability of the programme. Communities in need of development (both socio-economic and sport development), often look to outside role players and funding to sustain their programmes. Whilst obtaining sufficient funds will always be a challenge for these communities, getting the communities to take ownership of the development of their own players and children, will more likely than not, result in the long term sustainability of sport development . Assistance from outside the communities, will aid the programmes, and not be the life line of such development programmes.

- Coaches.

The role of passionate coaches who pay attention to the holistic development of the individual (social, emotional and intellectual) cannot be over-emphasised. The coach who only focuses on sport skill development wastes an opportunity to develop his/her players through sport and thus add value to their lives. This has implications for coaching education. For example, while goal setting is an easy concept to understand, learning about its application requires thought and planning. If a coach is to teach goal setting, he/she must be knowledgeable about the principles of goal setting and how to apply them effectively (Crust, n.d).

The holistic development of individuals through sport does not happen by chance. It must be an intentional process that helps players realise that the self-regulation skills they learn in practice count not only on the field, but also in life. The aim of a sports-based life skills education programme should be to develop a balanced individual. The More than Rugby programme implemented in this study was an attempt to reach toward this aim by exposing young players to one of the basic life skills – goal setting – in the context of rugby.

Recommendations for Future Research

The implementation and results of the study lead to the following recommendations about possible directions for future research:

- The valid and reliable assessment of goal setting as a life skill requires attention. In this study, assessment was limited to an understanding of goal setting. Not only could this assessment be improved, but attention is also needed in the development of assessment tools to measure the application of goal setting strategies to sport, and the transfer of goal setting strategies to life. An assessment tool for the developing world is

needed, as most assessment tools originate in the Western world and are compiled by researchers from a Western background.

- Research is needed to describe the kinds of coaching behaviours that support life skills education through sport. The coach in this study did nothing in particular other than include goal setting activities into the rugby practice sessions. One can look into the characteristics and attitudes that a coach should display in order to teach life skills as part of the sport experience. How to train coaches to teach life skills like setting goals could be one direction for this research.
- More research on the implementation of the various versions of the GOAL and SUPER models which can serve as further examples of sports-based life skills education programmes. Of special concern is the length of such programmes, since the 10-session programme in this study was not entirely effective.
- Research to determine which life skills are most compatible with learning through sport.

Concluding Remarks

It has been emphasised in this study that life skills training could and should be included as part of skill development programmes in sport for children and youth. As the results of the study have shown, including life skills as part of sport training sessions will not be detrimental to skill development. As a matter of fact, in this study it appears to have added value to the sessions and resulted in substantial gains in technical proficiency in skill performance.

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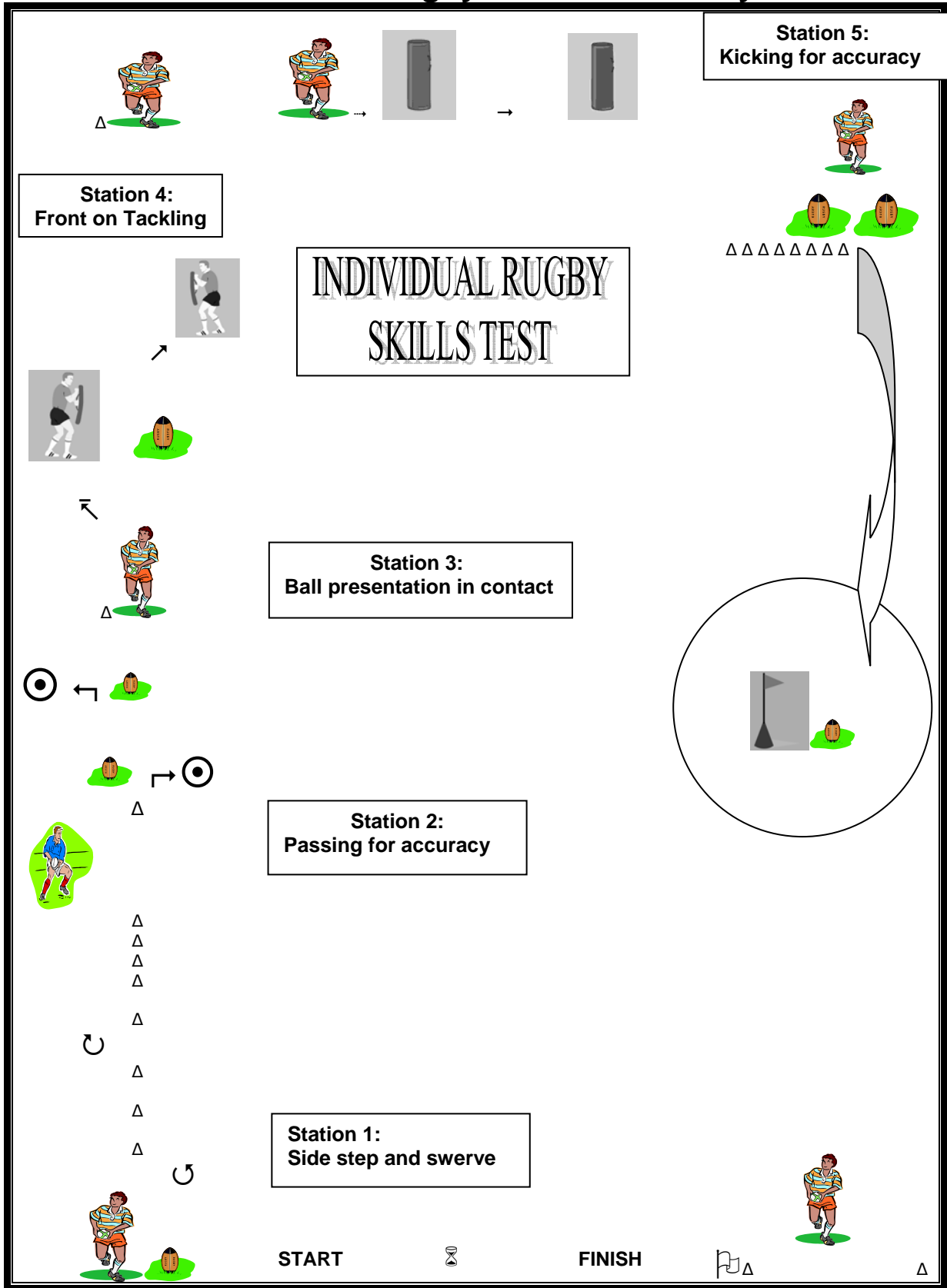
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




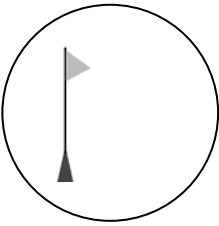


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Appendix A Individual rugby skills test battery



Key to symbols:

Test circuit: 75m x 20m Surface : Grass covering of rugby field	
	Rugby player [1,2,3,4,5]
	Rugby ball [1,2,3,4,5]
	Cone [1,2,3,4,5]
	Target for passing accuracy (1m diameter, 1,2m from ground and 6m from centre line) [2:Passing accuracy]
	Passing for accuracy (to left and right hand side)
	Running direction
	Flight of kick [5: kicking for distance and accuracy]
	Contact shield [3:Ball presentation in contact]
	Tackle bag [4: Front on tackling]
	Target area (5m x 5m) [5:Kicking for distance and accuracy -30m from kicker]
	Timing device (stop watch) for measuring players' time
	Start and finish line

Individual rugby skills test battery

Skills to be assessed:

1. Running skill: Side step
2. Handling skill: Passing accuracy (torpedo pass)
3. Ball retention skill: Pick up, make contact and present ball
4. Defensive skill: Front on defense
5. Kicking drill: Kicking for accuracy (punt kick)

Station 1: Side step and swerve

Test procedure:

- Line up 8 cones one behind the other.
- The first three cones will be placed 3m apart.
- Cones 4 to 8 will be placed 1m apart.
- The player must side step cone no 1 to the left with the ball in hand
- The player must side step cone no 2 to the right with the ball in hand
- The player must swerve through the cones from 3 to 8 with the ball in hand, starting from any preferred side. (Keep ball in both hands.)

Observation:

Player scores 1 point for successful side step and one point for successful swerve (indicated on check list)

Video Analysis:

Capture performance of every player by video taping skills in skills battery performed:
 Players ranked by independent observer in groups of 1-5 based on level of performance.
 Group 1 - below average, 2 - average, 3 good and 4 –very good and 5 –excellent

Execution points:

Move to left and step to right

Controlled speed

Small step, then big step away

Launch mock attack

Ball in both hands

Taking into account speed, accuracy and proficiency of each player's performance

Station 2: Passing accuracy

Test procedure:

- Pressure passing against time.
- The target (left and right) is 1 m in diameter and 1,2 m high, placed in ground, 6 m from centre (running line)
- Player runs with ball in a straight line and passes the ball through left target in the run (6 m away) by means of torpedo pass. Player times pass and passes backwards.
- Player picks up ball on ground, and continues to run in straight line.
- Player runs with ball in a straight line and passes the ball through right target in the run (6 m away) by means of torpedo pass. Ball must be passed backwards.

Observation:

Player scores 1 point for successful pass to left side through target and one point for successful pass to right through target (indicated on check list)

Video Analysis:

Capture performance of every player by video taping skills in skills battery performed:

Players ranked by independent observer in groups of 1-5 based on level of performance.

Group 1 - below average, 2 - average, 3 good and 4 –good and 5 –excellent

Execution points:

Grip (pinkies together)

Ball in two hands

Work with wrists, cocked

Follow through with fingers

Turn shoulders, tummy forward

Taking into account speed, accuracy and proficiency of each players performance

Station 3: Ball presentation in contact

Test Procedure:

- Player picks up rugby ball from the ground at pace. Drive into a contact shield 4m away making contact with right shoulder as low and aggressively as possible (Shield held by an instructor)

- He drives for one yard, and spins out of contact, running in the same direction from which he came.
- Drives into a contact shield 6m away making contact with left shoulder as low and aggressively as possible (Shield held by an instructor)
- He drives for two yards, and then goes to ground.
- When going to ground, player needs to present ball in safe and correct manner by placing ball back on ground.
- Focus on leg drive on contact.
-

Observation:

Player scores 1 point for successful drive and spin out with right shoulder and 1 point for drive in with left shoulder and placing of ball (indicated on check list)

Video Analysis:

Capture performance of every player by video taping skills in skills battery performed: Players ranked by independent observer in groups of 1-5 based on level of performance. Group 1 - below average, 2 - average, 3 good and 4 –very good and 5 –excellent

Execution focus points

Body position on making contact

Carry ball in correct arm

Protect ball

Making ball available

Taking into account speed, accuracy and proficiency of each player's performance

Station 4: Front on Defense

Test Procedure:

- The player runs and tackles the stationary tackle bag 5m away (with left shoulder.)
- He gets to his feet and runs and tackles the other stationary tackle bag 7m away (with right shoulder.)

Observation:

Player scores 1 point for successful tackle with left shoulder and one point for successful tackle with right shoulder (indicated on check list)

Video Analysis:

Capture performance of every player by video taping skills in skills battery performed: Players ranked by independent observer in groups of 1-5 based on level of performance. Group 1 - below average, 2 - average, 3 good and 4 –very good and 5 –excellent

Taking into account speed, accuracy and proficiency of each player's performance
Pay attention to execution and safety of tackle.

Execution points:

- Point of impact
- Head behind attacker
- Hit with shoulder
- Hands lower than shoulder
- Leg drive

Station 5: Kicking for accuracy (punt kick)**Test procedure:**

- Player picks up ball from ground and kicks ball with punt kick with left foot from behind marked line.
- He attempts to kick ball into target area at 25 m away and 5m x 5m without ball bouncing. Point is only scored if ball bounces in target.
- Sequence repeated with right foot

Observation:

Player scores 1 point for successful kick landing in target area with first bounce with left foot and 1 point scored for successful kick landing in target area with first bounce with right foot (indicated on check list)

Video Analysis:

Capture performance of every player by video taping skills in skills battery performed:

Players ranked by independent observer in groups of 1-5 based on level of performance. Group 1 - below average, 2 - average, 3 good and 4 –very good and 5 –excellent

Execution points:

Ball held at 45° in hand

Eyes on ball

Hips towards ball

Strike just under knee height

Follow through

Direction of finish important

Time measured in seconds for completion of whole skills test battery; from crossing starting line to crossing finishing line. (Circuit measurements: 50m x 25m).

Appendix B

Telkaart: MTR rugbyvaardigheidstoets battery:

Elke speler voltooi die baan so vinnig en akkuraat as moontlik. Die tyd wat dit neem om al vyf die stasies te voltooi word geneem met 'n stophorlosie. Die punte behaal by elke stasie tot 'n maksimum van 10 punte word dan bereken. (Twee punte kan by elk van die 5 stasies behaal word.)

Naam en van:		Spelerskode:	
Jare formele afrigting ontvang:		Posisie:	
Skool:		Datum:	
Tellinghouer:		Handtekening:	

Telkaart:

Stasie:	Links	Regs	Totaal:
1. Systap en swenk (*beide voete)	(Systap)	(Swenk)	
2. Aangee akkuraatheid op 5m (regs en links)			
3. Indryf en plaas van bal (regter skouer, "spin" en linker skouer bal plaas)			
4. Verdediging van voor (regter skouer en linker skouer)			
5. Skop uit hand vir akkuraatheid (regter en linker voet)			
Groot totaal:			
Tyd:			

Elke speler moet die baan voltooi. Vaardighede moet na links en na regs uitgevoer word.) Tyd word bereken wanneer speler oor eindstreep (soos aangedui) hardloop.

Opmerking:

Appendix C

MTR Independent Observer score sheet
Performance profile: Rugby skill test battery

Name of player:		Player code:	
School:		Date:	
		Position:	
Observer:		Signature:	

Players ranked by independent observer in groups of 1-5 based on level of performance. Group 1 being below average, 2 being average, 3 being good, 4 being very good and 5 being excellent.

Station/skill:	1- below standard	2- average	3 – good	4 – very good	5- excellent
1. Side step					
2. Passing accuracy					
3. Ball presentation in contact					
4. Front on Defense					
5. Kicking for accuracy					

Comments: _____

Appendix D

DOELWITSTELLING INVENTARIS VIR SPORT

Goal setting inventory for sports (GSI)

Jorge G. Fisdell, M.A. & Brent S. Rushall, Ph.D

Naam en van van speler:	
Geboorte datum:	
Skool:	
Spelerskode:	

Hierdie vraelys bevat vrae wat handel oor **doelwitte, doelwitstelling, doelwit – evaluasie en doelwit prestasies.**

Die antwoorde wat jy gee sal aandui tot watter mate jy van doelwitstelling gebruik maak in jou sport.

Dit mag wees dat jy glad nie van doelwitstelling gebruik maak nie, miskien het jy nog nooit blootstelling aan doelwitstelling gekry nie, of jy dink dalk dit sal jou nie help nie. Al sou jy glad nie van doelwitstelling gebruik maak in jou sport nie, moet jy nog steeds al die vrae beantwoord en aandui indien die vraag “nie van toepassing” is op jou nie.

Dit is noodsaaklik dat jy elke vraag so eerlik as moontlik beantwoord. Verkeerde of onakkurate antwoorde sal lei tot die verkeerde metodes wat gebruik sal word om jou te help om optimaal te presteer in jou sport.

Gee slegs een antwoord vir elke vraag. Dui jou antwoord vir ‘n spesifieke vraag aan deur ‘n kruis te trek oor die antwoord wat jy kies. Bv,

Ek ondersteun die Stormers rugbyspan:

a. waar	b. onseker	c. onwaar
---------	------------	-----------

WAT IS DOELWITTE?

Doelwitte is dit wat ‘n individu of span probeer bereik in hul sport

Dit is dinge of aktiviteite waarna gestreef word (wat jy wil hê) tydens oefening en kompetisie

Doelwitte beïnvloed sport gedrag (hoe jy optree)

Doelwitte dien ook as standaarde waarteen prestasie geevalueer kan word (jy kan meet hoe goed is jy.)

1. ALGEMEEN

Ek is gereed om elke vraag so akkuraat as moontlik te beantwoord.

a. waar	b. onseker	c. onwaar
---------	------------	-----------

Ek verstaan hoe my prestasie in sport gemeet word.

a. waar	b. onseker	c. onwaar
---------	------------	-----------

2. DOELWIT PERSEPSIES

Hierdie reeks vrae toets jou **siening, die gebruik van, asook die effek daarvan om doelwitte te stel.**

✚ Indien jy geen doelwitte in jou sport het nie, en ook nog nooit van tevore doelwitte gestel het nie, sal die meeste antwoorde op die vrae hieronder d) nie van toepassing op my nie. Neem egter nog steeds jou tyd om elke vraag individueel te beantwoord.

Daar is tye in my sport wanneer ek geen doelwitte het nie.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Ek het spesifieke doelwitte waarna ek mik in my sport.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie
----------	------------	----------	------------------------------

Die doelwitte wat ek het in my sport is uitdagend maar nie te moeilik nie.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie
----------	------------	----------	------------------------------

Ek het teikendatums vir die bereiking van doelwitte in my sport.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Wanneer daar meer as een doelwit is wat ek wil bereik, weet ek wat die voorkeur volgorde is waarin hulle aangepak moet word.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Wanneer ek my doelwitte bereik, word ek beloon of kry ek erkenning op een of ander wyse.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Om doelwitte te hê maak my sport meer genotvol.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie
----------	------------	----------	------------------------------

Ek voel dat my doelwitte te veel druk op my sit.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie
----------	------------	----------	------------------------------

My doelwitte is veels te moeilik.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte
----------	------------	----------	--------------------------

			nie
--	--	--	-----

Die doelwitte wat ek het vir my sport is in konflik met my persoonlike waardes.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Sommige doelwitte wat ek het in my sport is nie spesifiek genoeg vir my om te verstaan hoe ek hulle kan bereik nie.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie
----------	------------	----------	------------------------------

Wanneer ander mense vir my doelwitte stel, word dit gebruik om my te help.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Span doelwitte maak dat ek harder probeer.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Ander mense verstaan my doelwitte omdat ek dit goed aan hulle verduidelik.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Sport doelwitte is belangrik vir my.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie
----------	------------	----------	------------------------------

3. DIE VERWANTSKAP TUSSEN DOELWITTE EN PRESTASIE

Hierdie afdeling evalueer die **verwantskap wat doelwitte, die stel van doelwitte en doelwitstelling evaluering het op die atleet se prestasie**. Antwoord wat op jou van toepassing is.

3.1 Ek slaag nie daarin om my doelwitte te bereik nie.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

3.2 My prestasie word aangehelp deur die doelwitte wat ek vir myself gestel het.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie
----------	------------	----------	------------------------------

3.3 Voordat ek 'n vaardigheid of taak probeer tydens 'n oefening, stel ek 'n doelwit oor hoe dit gedoen behoort te word.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

3.4 Wanneer ek 'n goeie kans het om my doelwitte te bereik, presteer ek goed.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie
----------	------------	----------	------------------------------

3.5 As ek nie 'n goeie kans het om my doelwitte te bereik nie, is ek nie in staat om na die beste van my vermoë te presteer nie.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

3.6 Wanneer ek onseker is oor die bereiking van 'n doelwit, probeer ek harder

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie
----------	------------	----------	------------------------------

3.7 Hoe moeiliker die doelwit, hoe harder probeer ek.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

3.8 Nadat ek nie daarin geslaag het om my doelwitte te bereik in kompetisie nie, is die vlak van intensiteit wat ek insit met my volgende oefen sessie:

a. werk harder	b. tussen in, of	c. verlaag	d. ek gee op
----------------	------------------	------------	--------------

3.9 Ek is bereid om vir 'n paar jaar te werk om spesifieke doelwitte in my sport te bereik.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

4. DIE EFFEK VAN DOELWITTE OP DIE SPELER

Hierdie afdeling lys die reaksie wat spelers toon t.o.v **doelwitstelling, doelwitte en doelwit evaluasies**. Antwoord dit wat op jou van toepassing is.

Om doelwitte te hê maak my sport meer interessant.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Ek voel trots daarop wanneer ek my doelwitte bereik.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

My spanmaats en ek kompeteer om te sien wie kan hulle doelwitte bereik in kompetisies.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie
----------	------------	----------	------------------------------

Wanneer ek nie daarin slaag om my doelwitte te bereik nie, is ek teleurgesteld.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Ek voel dat ek ander mense teleurstel (b.v. die afrigter en ouers) indien ek nie my doelwitte bereik nie.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Hoe meer doelwitte ek bereik, hoe meer selfversekerd word ek.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie.
----------	------------	----------	-------------------------------

Hoe meer kere ek nie daarin slaag om my doelwitte te bereik nie, hoe minder glo ek dat ek in staat sal wees te presteer en om verdere doelwitte te bereik.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Hoe meer kere ek misluk in die bereiking van my doelwitte, hoe meer wil ek hulle standaard verlaag.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Indien ek my doelwitte bereik, hoe meer wil ek hulle moeilikheidsgraad verhoog.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. ek stel nie doelwitte nie
----------	------------	----------	------------------------------

Dit pla my as mense weet wat my doelwitte is.

a. altyd	b. somtyds	c. nooit	d. nie van toepassing op my nie
----------	------------	----------	---------------------------------

Maak asseblief seker dat jy alle vrae beantwoord het.

Appendix E

GOAL-SETTING INVENTORY FOR SPORTS

Fisdell, J. G. & Rushall, B.S. (1992) *An assessment tool for goal-setting in sporting environments*. Unpublished master's thesis, San Diego State University, San Diego, California.

An assessment tool that **evaluates the factors involved in the process of establishing and using goals by athletes in specific sporting environments** was constructed according to rigorous scientific standards. The test is capable of providing information to coaches about individual and groups of athletes. **Responses to questions will reflect; (a) consistent, (b) inconsistent, and (c) the absence of behaviors related to the goal-setting processes.**

The information gained from this test is analyzed by a computer. The analysis results are then used to **indicate to the coach the best procedures that can be used for coaching and handling the athlete who has completed the inventory.**

This inventory contains questions that deal with **goals, goal-setting, goal- evaluation, and goal-achievements**. The answers that you give will be used to indicate to your coach what the best way to coach you is.

This evaluation is **appropriate only for athletes who believe they have goals in their sport**. If you believe that you have no goals then discuss with your coach the reason for your being asked to take the test. –Probably have not been introduced to goal setting and the benefits thereof for your sport and life in general.

It is necessary that you answer each question as truthfully as possible. False or inaccurate answers will cause the inventory results to suggest improper coaching techniques. Take your time in answering each item so that you can answer what is true for you.

Provide only one answer to each question. Answer every question unless you are specifically directed not to in the booklet. Do not mark the question booklet but put your answers on the answer sheet that is supplied.

WHAT ARE GOALS?

- Goals are what an individual or team tries to accomplish in their sport.
- They are the objects or aims of the activities of training and competing.
- Goals influence sport behaviors.
- They serve as standards against which performance is evaluated.

1. GENERAL

1.1 I am ready to answer each question as truthfully as possible.

a. true	b. uncertain	c. false	
---------	--------------	----------	--

1.2 I understand how my performance is measured in my sport.

a. true	b. uncertain	c. false	
---------	--------------	----------	--

2. GOAL-PERCEPTIONS

This series of questions asks how **you view the values, uses, and effects of having goals.**

* When you don't have goals in your sport and you have never set goals before, most of the answers to the questions below will probably be d) not applicable. Take time however, to answer every question individually, though.

2.1 There are times in my sport when I do not have any goals.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.2 I have specific goals to aim for in my sport.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.3 The goals that I have in my sport are challenging but not too difficult.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.4 I have deadlines for accomplishing goals in my sport.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.5 When more than one goal is to be achieved, I know the order of preference in which they should be attempted.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.6 Upon reaching my goals I am rewarded/ recognized in some way.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.7 Having goals makes my sport more enjoyable.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.8 I feel that my goals pressure me too much.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.9 My goals are much too difficult.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.10 The goals that I have for my sport conflict with my personal values.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.11 Some goals that I have for my sport are not specific enough for me to understand how I can achieve them.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.12 When others set goals for me these goals are used to help me.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.13 Team goals make me try harder.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.14 Other people understand my goals because of the way I explain them.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

2.15 Sport goals are important to me.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

3. THE EFFECTS OF GOALS ON THE ATHLETE

This section lists the **reactions that athletes have about goal-setting, goals, and goal-evaluations**. Answer as these apply to you.

3.1 Having goals makes my sport more interesting.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

3.2 I feel proud when I achieve my goals.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

3.3 My teammates and I compete to see who can achieve their goals in contests.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

3.4 When I fail to achieve my goals I am disappointed.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

3.5 I feel that I disappoint other people (e.g., coach, parents, etc.) if I do not achieve my goals.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

3.6 The more goals that I achieve, the more confident I become.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

3.7 The more times that I do not reach my goals, the less confident I am of being able to perform and achieve further goals.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

3.8 The more times that I fail to achieve my goals, the more I want to lower them.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

3.9 As I achieve my goals, the more I want to increase their difficulty.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

3.10 If people know what my goals are it bothers me.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

4. RELATIONSHIP OF GOALS TO PERFORMANCE

This section evaluates the **relationship that goals, goal-setting, and goal-evaluation have to an athlete's performance**. Answer as they apply to you.

4.1 I fail to achieve my goals.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

4.2 My performance is helped by the goals that have been established for me.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

4.3 Before attempting a skill or task in training, I set a goal for what should be done.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

4.4 When I have a good chance of achieving goals, I perform well.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

4.5 When I have a poor chance of achieving goals, I am not able to perform my best.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

4.6 When I am uncertain about achieving a goal, I try harder.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

4.7 The more difficult the goal, the harder I try.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

4.8 After failing to achieve my goals in a competition, the level of effort that I put into my next training session is:

a. harder	b. in between	c. reduced	d. give up
-----------	---------------	------------	------------

4.9 I am prepared to train for many years to achieve specific goals in my sport.

a. always	b. sometimes	c. never	d. not applicable
-----------	--------------	----------	-------------------

Appendix F

Letter of consent parents/ Toestemmings brief van ouers

30 Januarie 2007

Geagte Ouers/Voogde:

Aangaande: Rugbyontwikkelingsprogram,

Ek is tans besig met my meesters graad in Sportwetenskap aan die Universiteit van Stellenbosch en as deel van my studies gaan ek 'n na-skoolse sportontwikkelingsprogram loods. Ek wil graag u kind uitnooi om aan hierdie program deel te neem.

Met hierdie program wil ek spesifiek twee doelwitte bereik:

- Die verbetering van u kind se rugbyvaardighede
- Die verbetering van u kind se verstaan en gebruik van doelwitstelling as lewensvaardigheid

Hierdie program sal oor 'n periode van 7 weke geskied (10 lesse) en sal twee keer per week op 'n Maandag en op 'n Woensdag aangebied word. Omdat hierdie program deel vorm van my studies, moet ek ook u toestemming kry sodat ek u kind se rugby- en doelstellingsvaardighede kan toets. Die doel hiermee is om te kyk of die deelnemers wel teen die einde van die program verbeter het of nie. U kind sal aan die begin en aan die einde van die program getoets word. Alle oefensessies sal plaasvind by die Skool sportgronde.

Die uiteensetting van die program is as volg:

Dag:	Datum:	Tyd:	Aktiwiteit:
Maandag	5 Februarie 2007	14:30 -16:00	Toetsing A
Woensdag	7 Februarie 2007	14:30 -16:00	Toetsing B
Maandag	12 Februarie 2007	14:30 –15:30	Sessie 1
Woensdag	14 Februarie 2007	14:30 –15:30	Sessie 2
Maandag	19 Februarie 2007	14:30 –15:30	Sessie 3
Woensdag	21 Februarie 2007	14:30 –15:30	Sessie 4
Maandag	26 Februarie 2007	14:30 –15:30	Sessie 5
Woensdag	28 Februarie 2007	14:30 –15:30	Sessie 6
Maandag	5 Maart 2007	14:30 –15:30	Sessie 7
Woensdag	7 Maart 2007	14:30 –15:30	Sessie 8
Maandag	12 Maart 2007	14:30 –15:30	Sessie 9
Woensdag	14 Maart 2007	14:30 –15:30	Sessie 10
Maandag	19 Maart 2007	14:30 –15:30	Sessie 11
Maandag	26 Maart 2007	14:30 -16:00	Toetsing A

Lees asseblief die aangehegte toestemmingsvorm deur wat u kind se regte verduidelik. Ek wil graag net beklemtoon dat deelname aan die program nie-verplichtend is nie. Voltooi asseblief die afskeurstrokie en stuur dit so gou moontlik terug na die skool.

By voorbaat dank. Indien u enige navrae het kontak my gerus by (021)887-3027 (w) of by 082 874 3995.

Groete

Dr.L.Bressan
(Studieleier)

Hendré Smit

Vul asseblief in en besorg terug teen 5 Februarie 2007.

TOESTEMMINGSVORM VIR DEELNAME AAN 'N NA-SKOOLOSE SPORT PROGRAM

- Die doel van deelname aan die program is vir my duidelik
- Ek neem kennis daarvan dat deelname aan die program vrywillig is, en dat die resultate gebruik sal word vir Meestersgraad doeleindes
- Ek neem kennis dat resultate van die studie as vertroulik hanteer sal word en dat die identiteit van die deelnemers te alle tye anoniem sal bly
- Ek neem kennis dat ek op enige tydstip, as ouer of voog verdere verduidelikings van die studie mag aanvra

VAN EN VOORLETTERS VAN
OUER/VOOG: _____

NAAM VAN
LEERLING: _____

HANDTEKENING VAN
OUER/VOOG: _____

ADRES VAN OUER/VOOG: _____

KONTAKNOMMER: HUIS: _____
WERK: _____

Appendix G

24 Januarie 2007

Geagte Mnr.:

Aangaande: Rugbyontwikkelingsprogram

By voorbaat dank vir u ondersteuning van die “More than rugby” rugby en lewensvaardigheidsontwikkelingsprogram en die gepaardgaande beskikbaarstelling van u skool en leerlinge vir die program.

Na aanleiding van ons vroeëre gesprek die volgende:
Soos u weet vorm die voor seisoense rugby vaardigheidsprogram deel van my Meestersgraad studie in Sport Wetenskap aan die Universiteit van Stellenbosch.

Hierdie na-skoolse sportontwikkelingsprogram sal gekoördineer word deur myself en die sportbestuurder, met verdere hulp wat verleen word deur Sport studente van Boland Kollege se Stellenbosch kampus.

Met hierdie program wil ek graag die volgende bereik:

- Die verbetering van die leerlinge se rugbyvaardighede
- Die verbetering van die leerlinge se verstaan en gebruik van doelwitstelling as lewensvaardigheid
- Ek sal ook graag wil sien dat die aanleer van doelwitstelling as tegniek die leerlinge instaat stel om hul prestasie op die sportveld, sowel as in die klaskamer te verbeter.

Die program sal vir 7 weke duur (vanaf 5 Februarie 2007 tot en met 22 Maart 2007). Oefeninge word elke Maandag en Woensdag aangebied vanaf 14:30 – 15:30 en alle oefensessies sal aangebied word by die Skool sportgronde.

Nogmaals baie dankie vir u ondersteuning en die geleentheid aan die leerlinge om deel te wees van die program. Ek wil glo dat die program tot verryking van elke individu en tot voordeel van die skool sal wees.

Indien u enge navrae het kontak my gerus by (021)887-3027 (w) of by 082 874 3995.

Groete

Hendré Smit

Dr.L.Bressan
(Studieleier)

Appendix H

3 Februarie 2007

Die voorsitter: Skool Sportraad

Aangaande:Rugbyontwikkelingsprogram,

Ek is tans besig met my meesters graad in Sportwetenskap aan die Universiteit van Stellenbosch en as deel van my studies loods ek 'n na-skoolse rugby ontwikkelingsprogram by Skool Sekondêr.

Met hierdie program wil ek spesifiek twee doelwitte bereik:

- Die verbetering van die spelers se rugbyvaardighede
- Die verbetering van die spelers se verstaan en gebruik van doelwitstelling as lewensvaardigheid

Die program sal oor 'n periode van 7 weke geskied (10 lesse) en sal twee keer per week op 'n Maandag en op 'n Woensdag vanaf 14:30 – 15:30 aangebied word. Ek vra hiermee toestemming dat ek vir hierdie doel kan gebruik maak van die Skool sportgronde. Ek het reeds telefonies met die sportraadvertegenwoordiger gepraat en tussentydse toestemming is verleen om gebruik te maak van die velde.

Oefeninge word met die skool gekoördineer en die sportbestuurder tree as spanbestuurder van die o/16 rugbyspan namens Skool Sekondêr op as gesamentlike koördineerder van die projek.

By voorbaat dank vir u gunstige oorweging. Indien u enige navrae het kontak my gerus by (021)887-3027 (w) of by 082 874 3995.

Groete

Dr.L.Bressan
(Studieleier)

Hendré Smit

Appendix I

Sample lesson: The “More than rugby” life skill program:

Practice session 1

Time frame for coaching session 1:

14:00 - 14:05	Arrival and welcoming
14:05 - 14:15	Sandwiches for players
14:15 – 14:20	Explain rugby and goal setting drill for the session, divide players into groups
14:20 – 14:30	Drill 1 – Stationary passing grid
14:30 - 14:40	Drill 2 – pressure passing
14:40 – 14:50	Drill 3 –Group passing
14:50 – 15:00	Water break. Players sit down and goal setting skill for the day explained to players. Coach facilitates discussion of goal setting skill for the day
15:00- 15:10	Mini game : Touch rugby
15:10 - 15:15	Conclusion, both rugby and goal setting skills main points revised

Rugby skills: Normal Wrist pass to left and right (handling)

Description:	Coaching Points:	Drills:
Pressure passing against time. Receiver runs between two players in grid and receives from A and passes to B, measured against time. [30m x 10]	Grip (pinkies together) Ball in two hands Work with wrists, cocked Follow through with fingers Turn shoulders	Stationary passing grid Pressure passing Passing to left and right Group passing Kiwi cross

NORMAL WRIST PASS (TO LEFT AND RIGHT)

1. Stationary passing grid.

Players form up in groups of 8-10 in rectangle. Every player stands at cone. Ball received from left and passed to right. Player stands in stationary position when passing and follows ball to next cone. Drills repeated with ball received from right and passed to tight side.

2. Pressure Pass

- Groups A and B should be between 10 and 15m apart from facing each other.
- The individual players of group A and B stand between 5 and 10m apart.

- Each player of group C runs/jogs down between Groups A and B receiving passes From A and Passing to the players in group B. The C player carries on up on the line to the end.
- With the ball now on the Group B side the C player receives from B and passes to A.
- You can also arrange the drill so that 2 Group C players are running together down the middle.

3. Passing to the Left or Right

- 2 or 4 rugby balls needed
- 1st player in group B and D run to the middle with the ball and pass to their right to team mates in teams A or C. They carry on and join the end of the opposing teams. Catchers C and A then run out to the middle and pass to their right and so on.
- The skill can be done with the ball passed to the left.
- 4 balls can be used with each player at each cone running out to the middle and passing to the next player in line.

4. Group Passing

- Players line up in 3 groups –A , B and C – 20 meters apart.
- Group A starts with the ball and runs toward group B making as many passes as possible along the way.
- When they reach group B the ball is given to Group B who make as many passes as possible while running to group C.
- Group C receives the ball and run back towards group A.
- Incorporate specific passes

5. Grid Practices

- See basic set up pattern
- Players line up at the corners of the grid
- Each player comes to the front of the line and he runs across the grid and passes the ball to the first player opposite him
- Use any appropriate passing or handling method

6. MINI GAME:

- Play game of touch rugby: Coaches and players all involved(equal sides). Focus on execution of wrist pass to left and to right and communication.

Goal setting life skill lesson (Afrikaans)

1. Waag dit om te droom: Jou toekoms is in jou hande

Reik na die sterre, selfs al bereik jy dit nie, sal jy nog steeds tussen die wolke land.

Inleiding:

Drome is dit wat jy wil hê vir jouself. Jy kan baie verskillende drome hê. Dink aan party van die drome wat jy het vir die toekoms. Dink aan jou BESTE moontlike toekoms – daardie dinge wat jy die graagste wil hê moet gebeur. Onthou dan.... Alles is moontlik!

“The sky is the limit – Breyton Paulse is ‘n voorbeeld van iemand wat sy drome nagejaag, en dit verwesenlik het.

Uitkomst:

- Die belangrikheid daarvan om drome te hê vir die toekoms.
- Identifiseer skool/loopbaan drome en sport (rugby) drome waarna julle streef vir die volgende 10 jaar, sowel as vir die 10 weke van die program.
- Die portuurgroep leiers deel sommige van hul eie drome.

Toepassing:

Kom ons speel ‘n speletjie: “As ek enige iets kon doen of kon wees.... Wat sou dit wees?

M.a.w. Wat wil jy uit die lewe hê?

Wat is jou droom vir 2007?

En vir jou lewe?

“The indispensable first step of getting the things you want out of life is this: decide what you want.”
Ben Stein

MY LOOPBAAN

- Waarmee is ek goed?
- Waarin stel ek belang?
- Wat sal ek graag wil doen in my loopbaan oor 10 jaar?

MY STOKPERDJIES

- Waarvan hou ek in my sport?
- Van watter ander sport of aktiviteite hou ek?
- Wat sal ek graag wil doen in my sport oor 10 jaar?

Appendix J

"More than rugby"

"Moenie by gister stilstaan, of net na môre reik nie, maar leef vandag tot jou volle potensiaal!"

Hiermee word verklaar dat:

Die 10 modules van die "More than rugby" program se rugby- en lewensvaardigheids program deurloop het in
 Februarie en Maart 2007
 te
 Stellenbosch

Koördineerder

Afrigter



"The future of our country is much more dependent on helping our youth reach their goals than it is on helping elite athletes win gold."