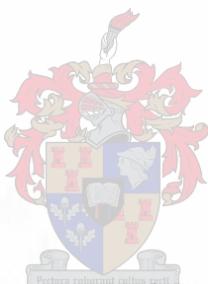


**THE EFFECT OF A MOVEMENT PROGRAMME
ON SELECTED PSYCHOLOGICAL VARIABLES
AMONG ADOLESCENT GIRLS FROM
PREVIOUSLY DISADVANTAGED COMMUNITIES**

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Summary

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the impact of movement programmes, utilising 21 life skills, on the self-esteem and cognitive contribution in achievement goals of adolescent girls. The movement programmes were drawn from a previously developed curriculum, Life Skills Movement, designed for adolescent girls in South Africa, and were implemented in three movement-based intervention groups. The life skill areas included in the intervention were swimming, self-swimming, self-movement, and self-expression.

Declaration

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

Hanrahan (1988) Submission Form for Undergraduates

Author: *[Signature]* Date: *[Signature]* Date: *[Signature]*

Movement *[Signature]* Departmental supervisor *[Signature]* Date

post-tested, using the same cognitive measurement technique, the girls' self-esteem scores increased significantly. The researcher invited the investigator to see if there had been a cognitive transfer of the skills learned in the movement programme from the movement experience to everyday situations.

Following the comparison between the pre- and post-test data of the Cognitive Perception Profile for Children, it was concluded that participation in the movement programme had an overall positive and significant effect on the self-concepts and girls' self-esteem. On analysis of the girls' responses to the Life Skill Questionnaire, it was found that they had been able to utilise all 21 life skills in the various movement components offered in the programme, and that cognitive transfer of the skills had taken place to their everyday environment. Concerning the movement division, the statements revolving around the utilisation of the skills predominantly revolved around

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if the participation in a movement programme, utilising 21 life skill development strategies would make a significant contribution to adolescent girls' self-esteem. The adolescent girls participating in the programme were from a previously disadvantaged community in the Western Cape, South Africa, and considered to be at-risk youth. The movement divisions through which the life skill strategies of the five and one half month programme were presented to the experimental group, were designed by the investigator, and included: modern dance, swimming, self-defence and an individual session of team building.

Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children* was used to measure the six sub-scales of self-competence/esteem of a control group ($n = 8$) and an experimental group ($n = 13$) of girls between ages 13 – 16. The six dimensions of self-esteem measured, included: global self-worth; scholastic competence; social acceptance; athletic competence; physical appearance, and; behavioural conduct. On completion of the movement intervention programme by the experimental group, all the girls ($N = 21$) were post tested, using the same quantitative measurement instrument. The experimental group completed an additional open-ended Life Skill Questionnaire, designed by the investigator, to see if there had been a cognitive transferral of the life skills used in the movement programme from the movement experience to everyday life activities.

Following the comparison between the pre- and post-test data of Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children*, it was concluded that participation in the movement programme had an overall positive and significant affect on the six sub-scales of the girls' self-esteem. On analysis of the girls' responses to the *Life Skill Questionnaire* it was found that they had been able to utilise all 21 life skills in the various movement components offered in the programme, and that cognitive transferral of the skills had taken place to their everyday environment. Concerning the movement division, the statements revolving around the utilisation of the skills predominantly revolved around

the swimming, followed by dance and lastly self-defence. The life skills that were most widely used in their everyday environment were highlighted by the themes of perseverance, commitment and academics.

Die doel was om die meerderheid van die jonge meisies wat deel neem aan die bewegingsprogram, waartydens 21 lewensvaardighede gebruik word, tekslikeleke bydrae tot die uitvoering van die aktiwiteite van die adolescentiese meisies wat aan die program deelgeneem het. Die bewegingsprogram is in die Wes-Kaap Skool- en Komunitetsevaluasie (Wes-Kaap SKE) geïmplementeer. Die bewegingsverordnings waarmee die bewegingsprogram begin het, was 'n neg maandelange program vir die ongevormde en ongeskoolde meisies. Die bewegingsverordnings waarmee die bewegingsprogram oorval, was 'n drievaliger ontwerp en sluit die volgende in: inspanning, vervaardiging en 'n individuele sessie van spanbu.

Harter (1985) se "Self-perception Profile for Children" is 'n kognitiewe meetinstrument wat die self-bevoegheidslagting van 'n kontrolegruppe (n=100) en eksperimentale groep (n=13) van meisies tussen die ouderdomme van 10 - 13 jaar toets. Die self-bevoegheidslagting wat gemaal is, het die volgende temas: self-worth, akademiese bevoegheid, sosiale vervaardiging, afhanklikheid, vervaardiging en gedragsbeheer. Is die uitvoering van die bewegingsprogram in die eksperimentale groep is al die meisies (n=13) geslaag op alle skale van die kwantitatiewe meetinstrument. Die eksperimentale groep behaal ook meer Lewensvaardighedsvalrys voltooi wat daar die moontlikheid hoor in om te bewerkstellig 'n kognitiewe oordrag van die lewensvaardighede wat wat in die bewegingsprogram vanaf die bewegingservaring tot deeglike gebruik is.

Na die vergelyking van die voor- en na-toetsdata van Harter (1985) is "Self-perception Profile for Children" gevind dat deelname aan die bewegingsprogram 'n signifikante positiwe en beduidende effek het op die ses sub-skale van die meisies so uitgevoer. Die analyse van die meisies so terugvoer op die Lewensvaardighedsvalrys het getoon dat nulla instaat was om al die 21 lewensvaardighede in die verskeie bewegingskomponente te gebruik wat in die program aangebied is en nie kognitiewe

Opsomming

Die doel van hierdie studie was om vas te stel of die deelname aan 'n bewegingsprogram, waartydens 21 lewensvaardigheid-ontwikkelingstrategieë gebruik word, beduidende bydrae tot die selfagting van die adolessente meisie sou lewer. Die adolessente meisies wat aan die program deelgeneem het, kom vanuit 'n voorheen-benadeelde gemeenskap in die Wes-Kaap, Suid-Afrika, en word as hoë-risiko jeug beskou. Die bewegingsverdelings waarmee die lewensvaardigheidstrategieë van die vyf en 'n half maandelange program vir die eksperimentele groep aangebied is, is deur die navorser ontwerp en sluit die volgende in: moderne dans, swem, selfverdediging en 'n individuele sessie van spanbou.

Harter (1985) se "*Self-perception Profile for Children*" is gebruik om die ses sub-skale van self-bevoegdheid/agting van 'n kontrolegroep ($n = 8$) en 'n eksperimentele groep ($n = 13$) van meisies tussen die ouderdomme van 13 – 16 te meet. Die ses dimensies van selfagting wat gemeet is, het die volgende ingesluit: globale selfwaardigheid, akademiese bevoegdheid, sosiale aanvaarding, atletiese bevoegdheid, fisiese voorkoms en gedragsbeheer. Na die afhandeling van die bewegings-intervensieprogram deur die eksperimentele groep is al die meisies ($N = 21$) getoets met behulp van dieselfde kwantitatiewe meetinstrument. Die eksperimentele groep het 'n addisionele Lewensvaardigheidsvraelys voltooi, wat deur die navorser ontwerp is om te sien of daar 'n kognitiewe oordrag van die lewensvaardighede was wat in die bewegingsprogram vanaf die bewegingservaring tot daagliks aktiwiteite gebruik is.

Na die vergelyking van die voor- en na-toetsdata van Harter (1985) se "*Self-perception Profile for Children*" is gevind dat deelname aan die bewegingsprogram 'n algehele positiewe en beduidende effek het op die ses sub-skale van die meisies se selfagting. Die analise van die meisies se terugvoer op die Lewensvaardigheidsvraelys het getoon dat hulle instaat was om al die 21 lewensvaardighede in die verskeie bewegingskomponente te gebruik wat in die program aangebied is en dat kognitiewe

oordrag van die vaardighede plaasvind na hul daaglikse omgewing. Wat die bewegingsverdeling betref, het die stellings aangaande die gebruik van die vaardighede hoofsaaklik gehandel oor die swem, gevolg deur dans en laastens selfverdediging. Die lewensvaardighede wat die meeste gebruik is in hul daaglikse omgewing is sterk na vore gebring deur temas soos deursettingsvermoë, verpligting en akademie.



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At-risk youth characteristics

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Risk factors

The school setting

Violence and gang membership

Dysfunctional family life

Homelessness

Fear of choices

Developmental deficits

The Pygmalion theory

Why structured movement programmes for at-risk youth?

Movement programme goals

Resilient youths

Autonomy

Programme structuring

Goal setting

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My parents, brother and friends, for their continued interest, encouragement and support.

Being physically active should be the right of every child. It is important that children have the opportunity to be physically active every day. It is important that children are not penalised for leading an active life. (International Conference on Physical Activity and Health)

It is through exploration of different environments, both natural and man-made environment, that individuals learn about themselves and develop their physical competencies. They receive feedback about their strengths and weaknesses by exposing themselves to a variety of situations. Unfortunately, children from low-risk youth lack opportunity to explore, if it is possible that their environment is too narrowly defined and severely threatened when faced with the unknown (Pettipas, 1978).

Boys are more physically active than girls from infancy through adolescence (Enns, 1986). Additionally, the 1995 Surgeon General's report found that boys

Chapter One

Setting the Problem

To understand the actual and potential contribution of movement activity and sport in the lives of millions of girls, an interdisciplinary perspective is needed (Lough, 1998). Everything possible must be done to have a positive impact on the behaviour choices of the young female population, for the health of future generations may rely on it (Dinger, 2000).

Unfortunately violence against females is deeply ingrained in today's society with them fearing it from a very young age and throughout their lives. The factor of fear surrounding one's physical and psychological safety prevents many women and girls from leading an active life (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993). Research by the *President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports* (Ryan & Olasov, 2000) has documented that young females from ethnic minority and at-risk backgrounds who live with the aforementioned violence and fear, have even fewer opportunities to engage in regular physical activity than their more fortunate female counterparts. Being physically active should be the right of every individual, and not an opportunity to be negotiated carefully every time it is undertaken. Females should not feel penalised for leading an active life (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993).

It is through exploration of different environments, such as the movement environment, that individuals learn about themselves and gain additional social competencies. They receive feedback about their strengths and weaknesses by exposing themselves to a variety of situations. Unfortunately if individuals such as at-risk youth lack opportunity to explore, it is possible that their self-esteem can be too narrowly defined and severely threatened when faced with the possibility of loss (Petitpas, 1978).

Boys are more physically active than girls from infancy through adolescence (Eaton & Enns, 1986). Additionally, the 1996 Surgeon General's report from the *U.S. Department of Health and Human Services* (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000) identified

adolescent females as the least active division of the population. A study by the *American Association of University Women (AAUW)* (Henderson, 1996) found that as girls reach adolescence, their self-esteem declines. Girls with healthy self-esteem have an appropriate sense of their potential, competence, inborn value as individuals, and, the right to be in the world as noted by Orenstein (in Henderson, 1996).

Danish, Petitpas and Hale (1993) reiterated the point that for movement and sports programmes to positively impact on the development of competence during adolescence and beyond, the programmes must be specifically designed for the purpose of enhancing competence. Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw and Freysinger (in Henderson, 1996) state the unfortunate fact that it is an ongoing struggle for educators to teach and provide opportunities for girls and women, such as recreation and movement programmes, to assist them in the quest to become empowered in vital areas of their lives. It is especially worrying that girls may be missing out on the opportunity to participate in movement programmes, for it has been found by many studying self-confidence that it is females who tend to demonstrate less confidence than males (Lirgg & Feltz, 1989; Stewart & Corbin, 1988), and that the greatest effect for remedial movement activities has been with children who initially have low self-concepts (Fox, 1988).

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to determine if the participation in a movement programme, utilising life skill development strategies would make a significant contribution to adolescent girls' self-esteem. The adolescent girls participating in the investigation were from a previously disadvantaged community in the Western Cape, South Africa, and considered to be at-risk youth. At-risk youth are defined as youth living in a negative environment and/ or having a deficit in the skill and values that assist individuals in becoming responsible members of society (Collingwood, 1997). The movement divisions through which the life skill strategies of the five and a half month programme were presented included: modern dance, swimming, self-defence and an individual session of team building. The study measured pre-and post intervention self-esteem scores of the experimental- (participated in the movement

programme) and a control group, who did not participate in the movement programme. This was carried out in order to determine if participation in the programme had the potential to bring about positive changes in any of the six self-esteem dimensions measured with the multidimensional assessment inventory.

The secondary purpose of the study was to research the generalisability of life skills. It was investigated whether or not the girls who had taken part in the programme had utilised the life skills taught to them in the different movement divisions, and if a cognitive transference of these skills had taken place to their everyday environment. To gain insight into skill transferral, the experimental group completed an open-ended questionnaire on life skills, which was then used for qualitative research purposes.

Significance of the study

Self-esteem is often judged to be the single most important measure of psychological well being (Berger & McInman, 1993). Continuous experiences in an individual's life influence the development of self-perceptions. Self-worth arises and changes direction and strength depending on specific interactions with other persons and occurrences. Motor-skill performance is vital for this development (Hurlock, 1972). A grave concern for those studying self-confidence has been that females have been found to generally demonstrate less confidence than their male counterparts in achievement situations (Lirgg & Feltz, 1989; Stewart & Corbin, 1988).

Fox (1988) has suggested that remedial provision of movement programmes may well function as a powerful intervention tool, for research has revealed that the greatest effects for movement activity have often been found with children who initially have had low self-concepts. Stephens (1988) also found in his analysis of four large surveys of the North American population, that physical activity positively impacted on females' moods. At-risk youth could be seen as benefiting greatly from structured movement programmes, for some of the factors that have been isolated in studies that have evaluated patterns of at-risk problem behaviours included: antisocial behaviour, lack of self-esteem, and low self-concept, to mention but a few (Collingwood, 1997). Unfortunately individuals with low self-concepts, such as at-risk youth and girls, can be seen as those being in the greatest need of help. However,

various sports and movement education programmes often neglect them. Regarding the aforementioned, the implications for sport and movement participation seem very strong (Pargman, 1993) with programmes aimed and designed specifically at enabling the development of self-confidence and self-esteem among girls and women from various communities.

Educators and psychologists alike must seize the opportunity to make a difference in the youth of today's lives by guiding them to become responsible and productive individuals (Stiehl, 1993). Today's youths generally have difficulty visualising and planning for their future, as emphasised by Roberts (in Knop, Tannehill & O'Sullivan, 2001). Currently it is more difficult than ever to decipher what skills, knowledge and practices constitute good preparation for adulthood.

In the sports domain, it has been found that it is often not the lack of skill that prevents an athlete from reaching a desired goal, but the inability of the individual to transfer the skill from the sport environment to a non-sporting one. It is important to help individuals recognise and use skills they have acquired through sport in other life areas (Danish et al., 1993). Life skills and sport skills have several similarities and are both learned through demonstration, modelling, and practice (Danish & Hale, 1981). However, research on generalisability of skills has found that skills acquired in one domain are not automatically transferred to other domains (Auerbach, 1986; Meichenbaum & Turk, 1987). Understanding what is needed for skills to be transferred and how individuals learn to do this is an area of research that will therefore become increasingly important for movement educators and psychologists (Danish et al., 1993). Movement and sport programmes on their own will not teach individuals life skills. Programmes that are, however, designed with the specific purpose of teaching participants about life skills can significantly impact the youth by helping them transfer such skills to other domains such as school or home.

Research questions

In an attempt to determine whether or not participation in a movement programme, utilising life skill development strategies would positively influence the development of self-esteem of adolescent girls, the following research question was formulated to guide this study:

1. Will adolescent girls who participate in a movement programme utilising the life skill development intervention strategies experience more substantial gains in self-esteem as compared to adolescent girls who are not taught the skills?

A second research question was formulated to determine whether or not participation in a movement programme utilising life skill development intervention strategies, would effectively bring about the cognitive transferral of the life skills covered during the programme to the everyday life environments with the experimental sample of adolescent girls. The following research question was thus additionally formulated to guide this study:

2. Will adolescent girls who participate in a movement programme utilising life skills development strategies be able to cognitively transfer these skills from a movement experience to everyday life activities?

Methodology

The study followed an experimental design in a field setting, with a control group ($n = 8$) and an experimental group ($n = 13$) of girls between the ages of 13 and 16 from the same high school in a previously disadvantaged community in the Western Cape. The study was conducted in the following manner.

- **Pre-test:** During the first introductory lesson of the movement programme, all the subjects ($n = 21$) completed Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children* which measured the individual's six self-perception dimensions

of self-esteem. The six domains included: athletic competence, perceived physical appearance, social acceptance, behavioural conduct, scholastic competence and, global self-worth. Each of the aforementioned dimensions are regarded as separate sub-scales of self-esteem.

- **Intervention:** The experimental group participated in a five and one-half month movement and life skill programme, offered between two and four times per week. The programme offered various modules consisting of modern dance, swimming, self-defence and team building. The 21 life skill development intervention strategies were repeatedly dealt with during the dance, swimming, self-defence and team building divisions of the intervention programme. The life skills were discussed with the girls during their lesson time in an informal manner. The life skills utilised in the programme were identified and listed by Danish et al. (1993) and his colleagues, Petitpas and Hale as being valuable across settings such as sporting and everyday environments. The life skills utilised by the investigator were initially used in the psycho-educational *Life Development Intervention (LDI)* approach by Danish et al. (1993) focusing on the enhancement of personal competence by teaching life skills, and the *LDI* model of goal setting which focuses on the actions taken to reach some desired end. These life skills have also been used in programmes such as GOAL, which won the *National Mental Health Association's Lela Rowland Prevention Award* and the *SUPER* programme. These two programmes have both been used with at-risk youth and have been found to positively benefit them (Danish & Nellen, 1997).
- **Post-test:** On completion of the programme, the control and experimental group completed a post-programme questionnaire which was identical to the pre-programme questionnaire. The experimental group additionally completed an open-ended *Life Skill Questionnaire*, designed by the investigator. When answering the questionnaire, the girls had to comment on how and if they had utilised the life skills taught in the programme in the various movement divisions (dance, swimming and self-defence) and in their everyday life experiences.

Limitations

The following limitations must be kept in mind when interpreting the results of this study.

1. The conditions under which coaching occurred were not ideally suited for instruction. The hall used for the modern dance division of the programme had to be shared with other extramural activities on a regular basis. There was no swimming pool at the girls' school or in the area where the programme was run, meaning they had to be transported from and to school.
2. Towards the end of the programme there was a violent attack on a gang member on the girls' school property on 23 October 2000 (see Appendix H). This incident may have negatively impacted on the self-esteem scores, for many of the girls who formed both the experimental- and control groups witnessed the brutal attack and were severely traumatised by it. The incident contributed to an overall feeling of personal insecurity at the school. In addition to this the school requested the investigator and girls to change location, for no extramural activities were allowed to take place on school grounds after closing time due to safety reasons. These factors had a negative impact on the continuity of the programme, which could affect the development of skill (competence), a critical factor in the development of self-confidence.
3. The subjects completed the post testing of Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children* questionnaire close to the time of their year-end examinations. The girls were all generally feeling anxious. This may have negatively impacted their self-esteem scores, especially that of the scholastic domain measuring the self-perception of an individual's competency in the scholastic field (Harter, 1985).
4. The girls who participated in this study were from a single ethnic group in a specific geographical location, and were a small sample. This may limit the generalisability of the results.

5. The coaches for the programme were not of the same ethnic background as the participants. This may have produced a climate where the girls were more restrained with their actions and responses than they would have been with coaches from their own group.
6. The subjects were adolescent girls. Adolescence is a period in an individual's life often characterised as that of a turbulent transitional stage into adulthood; therefore their responses on the measures of perceived competence and utilisation of life skills could have been somewhat unstable.

Definitions

The following terms were used in this study according to the following definitions.

Self-esteem and self-concept

Gergen (1971) defined self-esteem as "the degree to which individuals feel positive about themselves" (p. 11) and as "personal judgement of worthiness" (p. 5). The traditional view suggests that self-concept "conventionally refers to all aspects of knowledge concerning who one is, and self-esteem refers more specifically to the evaluation of who one is" (Rhodewalt & Agustsdottir, 1986, p. 48). Self-esteem is thus regarded as the self-concept's evaluative component (Rosenberg, 1979) which is based on individuals' cognitive comparisons of themselves and associated affect (Gergen, 1971; Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976). Several researchers on the other hand have implied that there are no conceptual or empirical differences between self-description and self-evaluation (Shavelson et al., 1976) thus enabling the terms to be used interchangeably.

Life skills

Life skills are physical, behavioural, or cognitive skills that enable individuals to succeed in the environments in which they live. Interpersonal and intrapersonal skills are necessary to be competent. Interpersonal skills involve the ability to communicate with others in various situations, and intrapersonal skills include

physical and mental skills. Both inter- and intrapersonal skills are useful in the sporting domain but are not strictly related to sport; they are life skills (Danish et al., 1993). Life- and sport-skills have several similarities (Danish & Hale, 1981), such skills include: performing under pressure, solving problems, meeting deadlines and challenges, setting goals, communicating, handling success and failure, working as a team in a system, and receiving and processing feedback. Sport can provide a valuable tool for teaching life skills when lessons are learned and transferred. Transference of skills, however, does not occur naturally (Danish & Nellen, 1997).

Conclusion

Self-esteem has been identified as a variable susceptible to psychological benefits gained from regular exercise (Folkins & Sime, 1981; Hughes, 1984). It has been suggested by researchers such as Kelly (in Kivel, 1998) that leisure contexts provide opportunity for self-reflection, growth and the development and enhancement of self-esteem. Organised sport and movement activities provide opportunities for individuals to gain and develop new skills and competencies (Danish, Petipas & Hale, 1990). Heath and McLaughlin (in Kivel, 1998) reiterate that it is important for researchers, and those providing programmes for the youth, to examine and understand the individuals they are targeting within the context in which they live and play. Those instructing the youth of today need to remember that they impart values and beliefs that influence how they see themselves and others. Individuals offering movement programmes need to be aware that they too are part of a larger process of either helping or hampering the identity formation of their participants.

The base of knowledge that exists on youth sport and movement needs to be expanded. A focus that has previously been lacking is that of cultural and ethnic diversity. Previous research, on which the youth sport knowledge base has been founded upon has generally been derived from a relatively small, homogenous sample of North American youth (Brustad, 1993). By expanding movement intervention programme research into places such as South Africa with its rich heritage of ethnic and cultural diversity, the knowledge base can slowly be broadened. Hopefully through the extension of research across continental boundaries, the quality and diversity of movement programmes can be elevated,

encouraging greater and personally beneficial participation for youth across the globe.

In an effort to determine whether girls' self-esteem could be positively impacted and if life skills were transferable from a movement domain to the everyday environment, a life skill development intervention component was conducted. Changes in the six domains of the girls' self-esteem were quantitatively measured and compared to those of a control group. It was hoped to establish a clearer perspective on the psychological impact on youths' participating in movement activity, due to the question having been debated by professionals and non-professionals alike; whether the attitudes, behaviours, values, and skills procured by youth through sport participation positively or negatively contribute to individuals' identity formation (Danish et al., 1993).

The experimental group of girls' utilisation of the life skills dealt with during the course of the movement programme and transference of the skills to their everyday environments, was investigated with the help of an open-ended questionnaire that the girls had completed at the end of the movement intervention programme. A qualitative research method was decided on for the second division of the study, for as Csikszentmihalyi reiterated in his study of adolescents:

If one boy out of a hundred finds a way to get along splendidly with his parents, this is something that hardly warrants mention in a statistical description of what teenagers are like. But this one-in-one-hundred finding can be the most important fact if we wish to understand what adolescence could be like. So ...we are not only concerned with proportions and averages (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1984, xv).

The gap between sport psychologists and movement educators needs to be bridged. They both need to recognise the importance that sport and physical movement has to offer the youth of today, be they at-risk or advantaged individuals. By using a broader set of values, physical activity can be used to positively influence the lives of such individuals (Danish & Nellen, 1997).

Chapter Two

At-Risk Youth

*Better guide well the young
than reclaim them when they are old,
For the voice of true wisdom is calling,
“To rescue the fallen is good, but ‘tis best
To prevent other people from falling.”
Better close up the source of
temptation and crime
Than deliver from dungeon or galley;
Better put a strong fence ‘round
the top of the cliff
Than an ambulance down in the valley.*
(Joseph Malin’s (1936) poem, pp. 273-274,
A Fence or an Ambulance)

In today’s world it seems to be the trend to be less responsible for one’s actions (Morris, 1993). With increasing age the risk that youth’s irresponsible behaviour may lead to instances of crime and violence also increases (Compagnone, 1995).

Becoming an adult is a difficult process under the best of circumstances. For inner city adolescents who are at-risk, the transition period is filled with obstacles. School dropout, criminality, drug abuse, prostitution, and hopelessness often highlight the stories of youth at risk. At the crux of such despair is the belief for many at-risk youth that they have been abandoned by society (Martinek & Hellison, 1998). Many of today’s youth are being brought up in a society that has created a “guidance gap”. Today’s youth are thrust into a more pluralistic society in which fewer traditional institutions provide solid guidance for them (Hellison, 1991).

The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (Knop et al., 2001) announced that daily secondary physical education and increased adolescent involvement in physical activity were the goals of *Healthy People 2010*. Hellison suggests using physical education as a tool to empower students to make responsible decisions within the movement environment as well as events which govern their personal lives, thereby enhancing their total life performance (Hellison, 1987; Morris, 1993).

Discipline as Charles (in Sparks III, 1993) describes, is a process of helping students adjust to their environment and develop acceptable inner controls. Through progressive training, students develop qualities such as self-control, character, orderliness, efficiency, the acceptance of authority, and the willingness to adhere to rules (Sparks III, 1993) which are all found in movement education.

Movement educators must seize the opportunity to make a difference in students' lives and assist them in becoming responsible, productive individuals in today's society. They must however realise that they cannot expect to have their programmes supported if they do not operate in concert with the larger cultural and social context of society (Stiehl, 1993). The inability of secondary physical education programmes to promote avid student participation is perhaps most acute in urban schools and among youths already at risk for academic failure (Martinek, 1997). According to Roberts (in Knop et al., 2001), today's youths generally have difficulty planning for their future because it is more difficult than ever to determine what skills, knowledge and practices constitute good preparation for adulthood. Hamburg (in Knop, Tannehill & O'Sullivan, 2001) states that when adolescents are unsure of themselves and their future and see little hope for a better life, their capacity to make positive and health-enhancing decisions is additionally hampered.

The crumbling of adolescents' family and social support networks also affects their daily decision-making. Youngsters who do not experience a sense of belonging at home, at school, or in their community sometimes search for such a connection in ways that may be self-destructive such as with gang involvement or poorly chosen friendships. In addition to such stresses, urban youths must deal with the limitations embedded in their economically disadvantaged lives. The detrimental impact that poverty has on healthy behaviours may in part provide an explanation for urban adolescents' lack of interest in physical education. If youths do not have the opportunity to practice good nutritional habits, use safe fitness and recreational facilities, or participate in supervised movement activities, they may find it difficult to see in what way physical education is beneficial to them (Collingwood, 1997).

At-risk youth characteristics

Martinek (1997) states that it is clear to him that economic isolation and racism are the main culprits in predisposing youngsters to at-risk conditions and bleak futures. Linked with conditions of poverty is a lack of assistance for at-risk youth to grow socially, cognitively, and emotionally. They have thus become "the underserved" (p. 31) of countries. Reed and Sautter (in Martinek, 1997) state that the *Children's Defence Fund* notes that the United States and South Africa, among the advanced industrialised countries, provide the lowest amount of health and foster care to children. More than 25 percent of children three years and younger live in poverty. Such statistics are alarming when one considers how important toddlerhood is to the overall development of a child, and consequently those poorer children are destined to physical and psychological deficiencies throughout their lives.

At-risk

The term at-risk has many connotations. Many alternate phrases have been applied to this population such as disadvantaged, alienated, problem or troubled youth. At-risk can be seen as a very broad term, but it commonly refers to a focus on the environmental and personal hazards of youth that require attention (Collingwood, 1997). Collingwood (1997) defines at-risk youth as youth that live in a negative environment and/or have a deficit in the skill and values that help individuals become responsible members of society. The aforementioned places such youth at risk for developing serious problem behaviours. Such problem behaviours include substance abuse, delinquency, violence, emotional disturbance, educational, and occupational difficulties. Considering Collingwood's (1997) definition, the term at-risk youth cannot be limited to inner city or minority youth, but applied to a wider segment of adolescents.

Risk factors

Many at-risk youth problems such as poor mental health, substance abuse or delinquency are considered to be one of developmental and life-style problems. Some of the factors that have been isolated in studies that have evaluated patterns of at-risk problem behaviours include: antisocial behaviour, lack of self-esteem, low

self-concept, maladjustment, anxiety, depression, stress, poor school attendance and performance, lack of religiosity, poor parental and peer relationships, early substance abuse, peer and parental substance abuse and sensation seeking.

Risk factors have also been identified as tending to cluster. Clustering can be identified within the apparent link between behavioural, psychological and social problems of youth and their physical fitness and health (Collingwood, 1997). As Hars et al., Jessor, Stoker et al., and Winnail et al. (in Collingwood, 1997) reported, unhealthy behaviours tend to cluster together as do healthy behaviours.

The school setting

According to Hellison (1987), at-risk students are "turned off" by traditional school settings. Many at-risk youth have a particularly difficult time in school and decide that the school culture is not for them. Contributing factors to such a mindset include overcrowded classrooms, purposeless coursework, low teacher expectations and lack of parental involvement. Additionally, students are expected to score well on standardised tests with such tests often being the only measure of a student's work. The result is a discouraged youth culture that is searching for self-identity and purpose. Doing well on standardised tests, following rules and respecting authority are helpful for success for many youngsters. Students who cope well in this type of setting are, however, those who have a relatively good sense of control over their own lives. For an individual that does not fit in, such an approach does not seem to work either in the short or the long term for them. For such individuals good grades, staying out of trouble, conforming to school rules and completing homework are unimportant in their lives. Surviving stressful family circumstances, dealing with teachers and the principal, and not being bullied by others, are of far greater importance (Martinek & Hellison, 1998). Ogbu (in Martinek & Hellison, 1998) states that such youth view academic learning as unimportant and see few benefits in adopting the values and behaviours endorsed by the school culture. Setting goals that focus on academic and social performance is therefore almost impossible.

Instructional methods teachers use often reinforce the socially maladjusted behaviours of at-risk students creating further opportunities for failure. This can be noted in the physical education field where skill development is taught progressively,

with final success experiences depending on previous mastery of movement skills. The problem with at-risk students in such an instant is that they often have experienced very little success initially in learning motor skills. Physical education teachers additionally attempt to build motivation through their inherent belief that children like to play, and generally enjoy activity. Due to their general social alienation, distrust of teachers and educational settings, however, at-risk youths often resist common instructional models (Sparks III, 1993).

In addition to the aforementioned, urban recreational environments are generally left unsupervised and allow adolescents to implement their own often hierarchical rules. Such rules promote unfair competitive strategies so that the strongest, biggest and most skilled youths have complete reign of the playing facility and less able youths are excluded. Such behaviours are incompatible with the essence of physical education, where appropriate and fair opportunities are created so as to encourage all students to participate in meaningful activities. For at-risk students who utilise rules that benefit the strongest, the rules in physical education classes frequently clash with their real life survival rules leading them to additionally question the relevance of such classes (Knop et al., 2001).

Violence and gang membership

Fighting has become a way of life for many urban youth. Demos (in Martinek and Hellison, 1998) states that the value placed on being confrontational is solid and the process of dismantling it takes careful thought and patience. Combative values are for instance fostered through parents or family members who encourage children not to back down when challenged. Such values are taught as a survival skill by insisting that being physically strong and tough decreases ones vulnerability to physical harm. Violence is a common social problem for inner city families with crime rates three to four times higher than those in suburban areas, and the possibility of injury or death being a constant for such families. This is especially true in areas where gangs have a stranglehold over the community. For youth from dysfunctional families, the gang becomes a family ensuring stability and security. Gang membership provides mastery of the streets and a buffer against helplessness and loss of identity (Martinek & Hellison, 1998). Bing's profile (in Martinek & Hellison, 1998) of gang life in South Central Los Angeles portrays fighting and intimidation as a way of life among gang

members, with power and murder as sources of self-worth. Drive-by shootings, gang rape, torture and indifference towards killing, become the existing state of affairs. Trying to convince young gang members that schooling and conformity are a better way is simply not seen as an option to them.

Dysfunctional family life

Taylor's (1994) comprehensive literature review on aggressive resilience in African-American youth links this form of aggressive dispute settlement to the actions of family members. Unfortunately there are families that become dysfunctional due to poverty. Children raised in dysfunctional households frequently experience isolation, physical abuse, parental conflict and alcoholism (Martinek & Hellison, 1998). Taylor (1994) found that children and adolescents of parents who experience economic hardship are more likely to be exposed to power assertive and harsh discipline practices. Parents who use such disciplinary actions generally learned them from their parents. Such behavioural practices are rapidly picked up by children, which in turn affects how they interact with others.

According to Berlin and Davis (in Martinek & Hellison, 1998) children often respond to the stresses of the home environment by emotionally disengaging. This can lead them to spend extended periods of time with friends or in some cases run away from home. Positive interactions with adult figures are dissolved, and value is placed on being independent and self-serving. Wallerstein (in Martinek & Hellison, 1998) found that such at-risk youth put little value on, and steered clear of, guidance from authority figures. Dugan (in Martinek & Hellison, 1998) states that within the school setting such youth are often confrontational and impulsive with peers and teachers. Getting them to become caring and responsive to others is therefore a difficult task for their mentors.

Hopelessness

Bernard (in Martinek & Hellison, 1997) believes that lack of hope has the greatest impact on a persons vulnerability to at-risk conditions. Without hope the drive to alter personal circumstances is diminished. Hopelessness has been related to two main factors, namely the influence of significant others and that of environmental

conditions. Both of the aforementioned factors have a profound impact on a person's perception of control and resilience (Martinek, 1996).

- **Significant others:** Children raised in poverty-stricken environments are exposed to a vast amount of behaviours reflecting hopelessness and indifference. All children, be they at-risk or not, look to adults for guidance and by interacting with adults children mature intellectually and develop their problem-solving capabilities. With at-risk children who have parents or caregivers struggling with their own problems, such questions are unfortunately seldom answered. With children living in poverty, the response of adults to impossible living conditions is viewed daily. Observing such events daily eventually becomes the norm in addition to continuously re-enforcing the modelling effect (Martinek & Hellison, 1997). Research by Rutter (in Martinek & Hellison, 1997) further corroborates the relationship between adult behaviour and that of resilience. Rutter found that children from unharmonious families are more prone to have a low self-concept and little attachment to positive social networks.
- **Environmental conditions:** An additional factor increasing hopelessness is the environmental condition in which children and youth of poverty live with the conflict-fraught condition of neighbourhoods contributing to a helpless condition (Martinek, 1996). When such elements dominate a child's developmental years, their will to change things is significantly sabotaged (Martinek & Hellison, 1997).

Fear of choices

A further barrier that restricts at-risk youth is the fear of making choices (Martinek & Hellison, 1998). Stiehl (1993) believes that at-risk youth are unwilling or afraid to make certain choices because they see little need, or perceive themselves as incapable of making appropriate choices. Such a mindset and feelings of helplessness is the result of repeated failure at school, low expectations and repeated lack of opportunities to make responsible choices (Martinek, 1996).

Developmental deficits

The problems of at-risk youth reflect a developmental deficit. Such youths often lack certain skills or values that should be developed during the adolescent's maturation

period. By providing programmes for at-risk youth several categories of deficits have been identified.

- **Life skills:** At-risk youths seem to lack basic observation, goal setting and planning skills to cope with their world. A term that is often applied to such skills is that of "life skills". Their world can be viewed as one of confusion in which they only react versus being proactive. There are data to support this category of deficits (Collingwood, 1997). The *Texas Youth Council* (Collingwood, 1997) assessed the physical, intellectual and emotional life of youth offenders and that of non-offenders. The study found that imprisoned offenders had fewer life skills than offenders on community probation, and that non-offenders had the highest levels of skills.
- **Values:** Anecdotal feedback from fitness programme leaders (Collingwood, 1996) illustrates that those values consistently lacking are: respect, responsibility and self-discipline. It is not so much the values that are lacking but the behaviours representative of such values.
- **Life style:** Habits can be simply seen as the addition of behaviours either leading toward a health enhancing or health compromising life-style (Collingwood, 1997). Perry and Jessor (in Collingwood, 1997) state that issues of health revolve around four areas, namely that of: physical, psychological, personal health and effectiveness. They noted that individual youth's health areas either cluster around total health enhancement, or health compromising life-styles in all four areas. It also appears that at most levels at-risk youth lead a health compromising life-style.
- **Traits:** The final category is defined as traits that reflect a behavioural predisposition contributing to a health compromising life-style. Common among at-risk youth is: an inability to delay gratification and pursuance of expediency, self-indulgence, passive observation of the environment, an avoidance of challenge, irresponsibility, lack of self-esteem and confidence (Collingwood, 1997).

The Pygmalion theory

Martinek, Crowe, and Rejeski (in Sparks III, 1993) have developed a theory that helps explain the behaviours of at-risk students, labelled the *Pygmalion theory*. The theory suggests that people behave according to a self-fulfilling prophecy; that is a person performs in accordance with the expectations of others. For instance, if an educator's initial reaction to a student is negative due to past biases or experiences, the teacher/student relationship will be weakened, increasing the chance of failure. The *Pygmalion theory*, however, can also be used to develop positive stereotypes of students. If educators expect and develop strategies for positive behaviour, such expectations can be met as with negative ones, and students are encouraged to behave responsibly.

The question can thus be seen as what can be done to effectively address the plight of the poor? There has been a renewed interest by educators and other service professionals to develop programmes that focus on working with at-risk populations. The programmes address issues such as drug abuse, violence, dysfunctional families, school drop out, gang involvement and teen pregnancy, to mention but a few. Unfortunately there is little that such programmes can do to alter the impoverished environment in which such youth live, they can however help develop resilience against conditions of poverty. Providing at-risk youth with the know how of being able to bounce back, could expand their future possibilities despite exposure to urban and rural ruin and crime (Martinek, 1997).

Why structured movement programmes for at-risk youth?

When reviewing various studies the question, surrounding possible mechanisms through which exercise impacts risk factors and problem behaviours, comes to the fore. MacMahon (in Collingwood, 1997) concludes that there are psychological factors such as self-control and self-mastery that can contribute to a more confident approach to life. In addition to the aforementioned he also suggests that there are physiological explanations such as the alterations in neurotransmitters and endorphin levels that could have an impact. Physical activity can also provide relaxation and recreational distraction enabling individuals to be more balanced. Another opinion is

that developing a health enhancing life-style establishes a behaviour pattern into which health-compromising behaviours do not comfortably slot into (Collingwood, 1997).

There is unfortunately little that movement educators can do to alleviate the multiple external challenges that many at-risk youths face such as poverty, high crime neighbourhoods and poor educational opportunities (Miller, Bredemeier & Shields, 1997). However, structured movement programmes that have been applied in a variety of educational, recreational, therapeutic and correctional or substance abuse prevention settings have been shown to positively affect many risk factors for serious problem behaviours of at-risk youth. The risk factors positively affected include: increased self-esteem, well-being, acquisition of life skills like goal-setting and planning, value development, and lowered depression and anxiety. Another aspect that reinforces the value of movement programmes is made known when the process and results of such programmes are compared to other interventions aimed at impacting at-risk youth behaviour. There are many common denominators amongst them (Collingwood, 1997). An example of this is the summary of studies by Hawkins et al., Perry, Romig and Tobler (in Collingwood, 1997) that evaluated the effects of substance abuse and delinquency prevention programmes. The results indicated that the programmes emphasising skill learning, responsibility, accountability for behaviour, goal setting, planning, and alternative life-style activities such as physical activity were those that had the highest success rates. The aforementioned points are the same as those of a structured movement, exercise and fitness programme.

Physical training can be as important as other educational or therapeutic strategies for changing health behaviour and affecting values and psychological functioning. The positive effects of movement programmes arise from the unique qualities of the exercise process, which is not inherent in a traditional classroom learning or counselling set-up (Collingwood, 1997). The movement education field however has unfortunately done little to provide alternative programmes for at-risk populations (Martinek, 1997). Programmes for at-risk youths have according to McLaughlin and Heath (in Martinek & Hellison, 1997) failed, for the policies intended to guide such programmes do not address their needs. At-risk youth are not interested in programmes that:

- cast the blame for inner-city problems onto the youth themselves compared to the current system with its inadequate education and social services, sparse economic opportunities and an unresponsive government.
- focus on rectifying participants deficiencies versus securing and expanding on their strengths.
- simply control deviant behaviours with programme goals largely focusing on keeping participants off the streets, and
- endorse white middle class nuclear family values.

This is unfortunate, for structured movement activities are highly interactive and possess the potential for teaching life values and effective decision-making skills. The multidisciplinary nature of movement education also supplies potential means for cultural, physical, educational and social enrichment (Martinek, 1997).

Perhaps the most important reason why the movement domain is a powerful medium for socio-moral education resides in the easily observable, public nature of participants activities (Miller et al., 1997). The physical domain is a very concrete and honest process, which makes distortion difficult. Faking effort for instance is not easy (Collingwood, 1997). Important aspects of a person's character are apparent, as overt behaviour constantly delivers evidence to inner processes. Weakness and vulnerabilities, physical and psychological, are often painfully obvious as a person practices and performs in public (Miller et al., 1997). A structured physical training process has specific goals with delayed results. These characteristics can be capitalised on for teaching life skills, life-style habits and values (Collingwood, 1997). Sport is additionally perceived as a moral practice grounded in the concepts of fairness and freedom (Miller et al., 1997). Arnold (in Miller et al., 1997) states that to the extent that movement educators teach sport skills they are additionally responsible for helping participants grasp the underlying moral principles involved. Sport without an appreciation for fairness can therefore not be viewed as sport.

An additional reason why movement education classes may be considered advantageous settings for socio-moral education is their affective appeal. The majority of students inclusive of those who have not had positive experiences in school, or are poorly motivated academically, regard movement education as a separate entity from their academic day. The opportunity away from desks and

books, to be socially interactive and physically expressive, encourages different ways of relating interpersonally with peers and teachers (Miller et al., 1997).

Getting at-risk youth solely involved in a movement programme is, however, not the ultimate solution to meeting their needs, for there are many other behavioural needs that need to be addressed. Getting an at-risk youth involved in a systematic movement training programme, however, can serve as a platform to prepare them for more in depth and expansive prevention and treatment programming (Collingwood, 1997).

Movement programme goals

Fostering resilience is the primary goal for most intervention programmes. Martinek and Hellison (1997) have learned that promoting resilience becomes illusive without a clear understanding of all its qualifications. What personal characteristics make individuals vulnerable or resilient, and how can schools and community associations create environments that help develop the qualities to be resilient?

Resilient youths

A resilient child is one who has the ability to bounce back despite exposure to severe risks. Such children beat the odds and demonstrate the self-righting nature of the human condition. They have thus most probably utilised protective factors in themselves, their family, school and community, to dismiss life stressors (Bernard, 1993).

The ability to interact socially with others appears to be a very strong characteristic among resilient children. Responding to others by being flexible, empathetic, caring, communicative, and having a sense of humour are examples of such social qualities that also ensure positive responses from others (Martinek & Hellison, 1997). Studies by Rutter and Chess (in Martinek & Hellison, 1997) have shown that from early childhood, resilient children tend to establish positive relationships with adults and peers. An important social quality separating resilient from vulnerable youths is the ability to negotiate confrontation and challenges from others. In Martinek and

Hellison's (1997) previous work with at-risk youth, they found that many of them settle disputes through verbal and physical confrontation. Bandura's (1990) research on self-efficacy suggests that individuals who can bring about others to trust them create a valuable resource for nurturing self-respect. This assists in establishing and maintaining future social ties.

Having a firm grasp and understanding of the factors that affect resilience can therefore have important implications for movement programme developers and educators. The challenge is to provide activities that promote and cultivate traits associated with resilience (Martinek & Hellison, 1997).

Autonomy

Resilient children have a clear sense of who they are and that they can act independently. They are autonomous (Bernard, 1993). Autonomy is a useful aid when dealing with stressful events. Chess (in Martinek & Hellison, 1997) referred to this process as an adaptive distancing means enabling children to separate themselves from dysfunctional family life. Berlin and Davis's (in Martinek & Hellison, 1997) research on families with alcoholism and mental illness found that resilient children from such families were able to detach themselves enough to maintain outside pursuits and challenges. Yale University researchers Gordon and Song (in Martinek and Hellison, 1997) found in their research that the *Maverick* type of personality is more likely to conquer at-risk conditions than the more conservative and conforming types. An interesting aspect of their findings was that some individuals were able to reject the peer pressure of gangs. They concluded that being goal-directed aided the autonomous loner personality type to separate themselves from other individuals so as to pursue personal achievement. This conclusion was somewhat softened though by emphasising the importance of having a meaningful relationship with a significant other. Gordon and Song emphasise the important role that a significant other plays in modelling, guiding, providing and mentoring those who try to defy the odds against them. Thus it may be helpful for at-risk youth to be autonomous beings; it may, however, not be enough to protect them against the vast sea of problems they face without the support of others. There is nevertheless also a down side to some children and youths becoming autonomous. Intimidation, abusive behaviour, confrontation with authority and the selling of drugs

are a few examples of undesirable behavioural means by which youths have tried to gain mastery/autonomy over their environment.

Martinek and Hellison (1997) believe that physical activity is an excellent medium for achieving the traits associated with autonomy, for social competence, resilience, autonomy, optimism and hope are all potential products of good physical activity programmes.

Programme structuring

The environment of at-risk youth generally is chaotic; therefore a systematic and well-structured programme is vital. When children's deficits are that of control and structure, a movement programme can be a natural medium to assist them in gaining control of and structure in their lives. Lack of self-discipline, responsibility and respect are three values that are collectively held deficits of at-risk youth. This has been observed by movement programme leaders of at-risk youth who have described how they lack the ability to:

- perform self-directed and planned effort toward reaching goals.
- meet obligations and follow rules, and
- show respect for themselves and others.

The behaviours that come to the fore due to the lack of the aforementioned three values are major sources for many class management problems. Control and motivation of at-risk youth can be maintained by a concerted effort to focus on values from the initiation of a programme. When initially meeting with the participants, it is of prime importance to clearly present what will occur throughout the programme. The participants should be given:

- an overview of the objectives and process for the movement programme.
- concrete and specific rules and regulations, and
- positive and negative consequences for not abiding to the expectations.

Collingwood (1997) notes that if the following orientation areas are covered initially, participants are prompted to think about value behaviours.

Several strategies can be utilised during structured movement classes to assist the teaching of values. It is important that a standard class structure and process is created so the students get used to it and know what is expected. Immediate

feedback about correct or incorrect movement execution should be provided during the class. Students' behaviour that is reflective of the desired values such as complying with class directions, controlling emotions and supporting other class mates should also be reinforced during the movement class. Decision-making opportunities can be provided when the group has behaved in the expected manner, and homework tasks given at the end of the class (Collingwood, 1997).

Goal setting

An increasing number of underserved youngsters, especially those in the inner cities, become at risk for school failure. New intervention programmes have focused on enhancing the resilience of at-risk youth by focusing on goal-setting to help overcome poor decision making, increase social competence and become optimistic (Martinek & Hellison, 1998). Collingwood (1997) suggested that physical fitness can serve as a means through which students learn to set goals and develop discipline to achieve them. Additionally, as students move through a structured movement programme and observe positive physical changes, their self-worth often is enhanced.

Optimism and hope in resilient children enables them to set goals, persist, apply alternate solutions to cognitive and social problems, believe that a bright future lies ahead and utilise outside resources for assistance. By contrast a learned helpless child that feels it has little or no control over social and academic outcomes, quickly gives up when faced with challenges or provisional setbacks (Seligman, 1990). Hopeful youths focus their energies on finding solutions to overcome their challenges, and realise that effort and success are inseparably bound together.

Regarding the question if goal setting works, Martinek and Hellison's (1998) experience with at-risk youth is that the answer is in some instances. Goal setting assumes that by creating and achieving goals, individuals gain greater autonomy and control in dealing with day-to-day challenges and setbacks. They have found that goal setting can be helpful for youths who view achievement as a possibility, or believe there will be a reward for reaching a goal. Such youths see a connection between getting good grades or improving behaviour and being successful in school and their community.

Ogbu (in Martinek & Hellison, 1998) states that for at-risk youth who live with crime, drugs, dysfunctional family life and violence, setting traditional goals, however, often becomes a remote and obscure process. This does not necessarily mean that goal setting cannot work with such youth. The social and psychological obstacles that at-risk youth encounter need to be addressed by those working with them. Such obstacles are often products of a culture bounded by poverty and racism. Awareness and understanding of such barriers has important implications in the planning and execution of movement intervention programmes (Martinek & Hellison, 1998).

Goal setting frameworks

Martinek and Hellison (1998) suggest that working with at-risk youth effectively requires that certain principles be considered during the goal setting process. Passion and commitment and to a programme by instructors is of key importance. They state that their most important goal is to hang in there through thick and thin. It is of prime importance not to expect big turnarounds in the students' attitudes and behaviours and regard oneself in the role of "planting seeds," (p. 50) not knowing which if any will take root in the long term. It seems that the only way to survive such work and not burn out is to indulge in the little triumphs, and celebrate the few youths who are able to overcome the barriers. It is important to remember that the creation of trust and caring among at-risk youth in movement education programmes may take several school terms to accomplish (Knop et al., 2001). Cutforth (1997) states that he regularly has grave doubts about the success of his movement programme for at-risk youth and its impact on the needs of its participants. Such uncertainties provoke much introspection. Frustration, surprise, delight and sadness seem to surround such work, with new understandings and insights emerging and the ever-present new possibilities in ways of thinking and working.

It is vital to create a culture in which programme participants can feel comfortable and confident doing some form of goal setting. Creating such an environment is often an uphill battle, for such a climate often conflicts with the school, community and home culture of at-risk youth. A positive atmosphere, supplemented by opportunities for decision-making (giving ownership to the goals being set), makes goal setting a feasible activity. For an alternative culture to be created for at-risk youth their culture, struggles, individuality, opinions and capacity for decision-making needs to be

respected. With honest respect at-risk youth will respond and contribute significantly to the creation of an alternative culture (Martinek & Hellison, 1998).

To assist developing self-responsibility of at-risk youth involves mentoring by the instructor of students as they learn to set achievable goals. Whether the goals are personal short-term or ones requiring a more sustained effort, goal setting assists students in developing self-responsibility and it enhances their resolution to behave in a more socially acceptable fashion. With at-risk students it is of utmost importance that goals are achievable, for they provide opportunities for success experiences and the enhancement of self-worth (Sparks III, 1993).

There also needs to be a personal-social development framework that guides the movement content of the programme (Hellison & Templin, 1991). Hellison and Templin (in Sparks III, 1993) support the *Pygmalion theory* approach in their humanistic model. Rather than focusing on subject matter or content knowledge, they highlight the importance of preserving the dignity of an individual. In their model, participants' self-esteem, self-actualisation, self-understanding, and interpersonal relations are critical elements for individuals to achieve success in school. Hellison's model and approach includes individualised instruction, along with a strong commitment to develop solid, interpersonal relations. Hellison considers positive social growth as a survival skill for at-risk youth. The model stresses the importance of individuals' feelings and the value of long-range outcomes with individuals attempting to understand and accept their own environment through self-examination and open communication. It encourages the search for personal identity to the extent that the culture and each individual's self-awareness allows. This change in behaviour requires that the student build up a personal sense of responsibility as well as good decision-making skills.

Martinek and Hellison (1998) use a five-level personal-social development framework with associated strategies. At-risk youth are taught that respect for the rights and feelings of others is a primary responsibility and prerequisite for participation. Participants are expected to treat peers the same as their mentors treat them. More advanced responsibilities such as self-motivation and self-direction directly involve goal setting. To put these responsibilities into practice strategies involve individual decision making in addition to specific goal setting activities. The framework

emphasises group goals and service to others; namely group welfare and caring about others. The final level involves the choice and follow-up on goals in an atmosphere of respect, and in an activity they enjoy. By following the five-level framework participants learn about their own strengths and weaknesses as group members, helpers and leaders. Such knowledge can be transferred into personal goals for improvement. Overcoming the barriers to goal setting is a formidable task. Barriers need to be met head-on with persistence and commitment by mentors and students. Providing at-risk youth with options for success and respect for their personal values should be at the forefront of the goal setting process.

Martinek and Hellison (1998) have found that it is relatively easy to transform their gyms into places where respect is the norm and participants work toward goals. Transferring these values and skills to the classroom, the home, or the street, however, is a different matter. Martinek and Hellison (1998) reiterate that it is important to remember that their students know much better than the instructors what they can and cannot do, and what they are willing to attempt. They do, however, try and keep the idea of transfer in front of them. This is exactly why the need to sit down with a caring mentor back at school is so vital.

Co-operative learning

An environment that is structured co-operatively tends to promote more empathy than a competitive one (Barnett, Matthews, & Howard, 1979; Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Hellison's (in Miller et al., 1997) approach to movement education with at-risk youth is to gradually shift power from the instructors to the students themselves by teaching them to take on increasing responsibility for themselves and others. Competitive goal structures direct attention on the interests of the self versus that of others which often contributes to distorted communication and hostility. Johnson and Johnson (1989) and Kohn (1986) relate how often with new complex tasks competition tends to increase: anxiety levels, cheating, over organisation of results, maladaptive problem-solving skills and, lowered intrinsic motivation.

Although sport is grounded in competition, movement educators are afforded with the same opportunities to design both competitive and co-operative environments in their

classes. Co-operative activities provide greater opportunities for positive interaction and verbal encouragement (Miller et al., 1997).

Creating trust

Violence or fear of violence in schools and communities can severely hamper adolescent involvement in healthy physical activity. If an activity cannot take place in a controlled environment where adolescents feel physically and psychologically safe, participation is diminished, forcing students to reconsider the relevance of such activity in their lives. Knop et al. (2001) state that when designing movement intervention programmes in which urban at-risk youths will want to participate in, there are a number of curricular and instructional decisions that need to be met. Methods of building trust may vary depending on individual teaching styles and lesson objectives (Sparks III, 1993).

One of the most important ways to entice urban at-risk high school students to voluntary participation in healthy physical movement is to select content and teaching methods that encourage and guide students toward active involvement and success. When designing the movement programme, ways must be found to facilitate empathy between instructor and students, and between the students. Knop, Tannehill and O'Sullivan (2001) helped facilitate the aforementioned by designing a fair and reliable accountability system to help define and structure student behaviour during classes. Firm class rules and constant supervision created an environment that allowed all students to participate without risk of disruption. The strength and impact of class rules were enhanced by using fair methods that allowed students to voice their opinions about the rules and the enforcement thereof. Students need time and justification to trust and respect each other and their teacher. To facilitate such goals, the instructor must hold the students and themselves responsible for continued progress (Knop et al., 2001). Active involvement with students in class is one method of building trust. Allowing students to interact with the instructor during an activity lessens their anxieties, and a comfort level is thus developed with the instructor. Recognising students as individuals and acknowledging their existence also helps form relationships and build trust. By simply learning and remembering the students' names this can be accomplished. All students must be treated equally and offered help and support, regardless of their skill level. It is important to convey

to students that they are important and that their presence is appreciated in the class. By using the aforementioned tools it is possible to help students feel good about themselves and motivate them to want to participate in movement education. Positive reinforcement when students succeed in a task also assists in making them feel good about themselves. Praise rather than criticism strengthens relationships and motivates students to try harder (Sparks III, 1993). Knop (in Knop et al., 2001) states that from the students' viewpoint the instructors genuine concern for them and course content is the basis for building trust and respect.

In school settings where many students are at risk of failure, teaching practices that support the development of trust, respect, and care for and among students are essential for student development in all their subjects. The complexity of making appropriate content decisions is illustrated by Chaney et al. (in Knop et al., 2001) with the work of Mike Sutliff, a teacher-educator at California Polytech State University, and his pre-service students. Sutliff and his students were asked to provide physical education at a local alternative high school for students who had not succeeded in traditional school environments. After several failures at providing a sport-fitness curriculum, the pre-service teachers found that to advance student interest and participation they had to select movement activities that allowed students to develop trust in their peers and teachers. Without such an environment students' participation in physical movement, or interest in it meant little. Such an approach helps make physical education a more meaningful part of students' lives. The results of the intervention programme emphasised that students' trust needs to be earned before instructors can address the issues of fitness and active lifestyles. This may mean that instructors may have to sacrifice initial fitness and engagement goals and create movement and problem-solving activities to enable students to develop trust. To assist students in learning how to gain trust amongst themselves while gaining respect for themselves and their bodies, requires ongoing strategic planning. This may at an initial glance seem to conflict with the *Healthy People 2010* goals for it de-emphasises active participation at moderate-to-vigorous activity levels for 50 percent of class time. If at-risk youths are to reach *Healthy People 2010* goals, however, such work is crucial initially in the process of fostering more long-term involvement in movement activity (Knop et al., 2001).

There are several physical education curricula that have been developed to reflect a focus on trust and have demonstrated comparable positive outcomes to Mike Sutliff's programme outcomes. *Sport for peace* curriculum forwarded by Ennis, Satina, and Solomon (1999) is a sport education model with a particular focus on conflict resolution and good decision making within the sport medium. Carlson and Hastie (1997) illustrated a similar capacity to encourage positive social interaction and co-operative decision making. Hellison's (1995) two curricular strategies, namely the social responsibility model and various versions of adventure education, for at-risk youths in physical education, have also been utilised resulting in similar benefits.

Self-responsibility and decision-making skills

To promote good decision-making skills the educator must develop a sense of trust while allowing students opportunities to make personal decisions (Sparks III, 1993).

Small initial successes for at-risk students are important in the nurturing of decision-making skills. The first decision at-risk students will learn to make is that of just coming to class, therefore it is important for such students to want to be in class. It is thus imperative to create a positive environment during the class and allow students to make contributions, so that in turn they will make the effort to be there. Another strategy is for the instructor to allow planned alternatives and choices within units of instruction. Once at-risk students take on more active leadership roles and make small decisions they gain confidence and are able to participate in more important decisions. By openly discussing the positives and negatives of such decisions, at-risk youth are taught to consider alternatives as well as consequences of their choices.

For at-risk students to act responsibly and make good decisions they need to feel good about themselves. Teachers therefore need to pay close attention to treating students with respect, and praise efforts made towards reaching prescribed goals. At-risk students like other students want to feel good about their efforts. A reward system sometimes helps reinforce acceptable behaviour (Sparks III, 1993). According to Glasser (in Sparks III, 1993), it is important for the teacher to remember that not the reward, but the individual's evaluation of the importance of the reward, that determines behaviour. Teachers therefore need to fully understand their pupils

before deciding on rewards, or they may choose something that is of no value to their students. Punishment often reduces self-worth and breeds failure. A reward system providing incentives will have a far greater chance of success. Positive behaviours need to be reinforced before students are given opportunities to assume greater responsibility.

Other than utilising a reward system, teachers also need to plan ways to develop intrinsic motivation among students. Decreasing their reliance on external motivations such as grades, punishment and rewards can enhance this. Such a task can be a tall order for a movement educator, especially when other subject teachers typically gain students' co-operation through the accountability system directing their classes. Knop et al. (2001) noted that their students demonstrated the greatest change in attitude towards the movement activity once they saw themselves making physical progress. When participants perceive that they are getting better they gain trust and belief in the class and course leader. To elicit changes, however, takes time and therefore short units or a few lessons are not sufficient to bring about the physical improvements that lead to increased confidence in curriculum.

Encouraging participation in outside interests that support in-school activities might also help build decision-making skills. Participating in outside activities provides students with exposure to a less protected environment and can serve as a laboratory to practice self-directed behaviour. However, a support person must be available to mentor students through difficult situations in a less structured environment. By participating in the aforementioned experiences, students develop an awareness of the many decisions they make each day and become more skilled in making them. By developing a sense of community and coming to the realisation that other people have faith in them, at-risk students begin to believe in themselves. At-risk students need to cognitively comprehend that they are capable of meeting the expectations of others satisfactorily.

All students, but especially at-risk students, need to accept responsibility for the decisions they make. Responsibility is a learned process. At-risk students are prone to refusing to acknowledge responsibility by accepting very little ownership in a decision. They regularly search for excuses, blame others, or society in general for a situation they do not like or cannot control. A student who has actively been involved

in establishing the level of acceptable behaviour will have a stronger commitment to meeting the behaviour and in turn it is easier for the teacher to establish student accountability (Sparks III, 1993).

Physical domain skill transference

Miller et al. (1997) concluded from their movement intervention programme that due to learning generally being domain specific much of what is learnt in the playground may not transfer back to the classroom or home. After interviews with their experimental subjects, they found that the learning that took place during the physical education programme did not consistently transfer to other physical activities. Miller et al. (1997), however, stated that they had not addressed the question of learning transfer empirically, nor had they identified transfer of learning as a goal of the programme.

Knop et al. (2001) in opposition to Miller et al. (1997) emphasise that in addition to the curricular and instructional decisions needed for an at-risk youth movement programme to work, a successful programme also illustrates that what students are learning is needed for daily living and is valued by the community. Such cognitive skill transferral can be seen with students who become more confident about their body and ability to participate in physical challenges, and additionally gain the confidence to take on academic or emotional challenges with similar dedication. Students who value and utilise what they learn in physical education are much more likely to see the relevance of physical activity and adopting the practice of healthy behaviours in other aspects of their lives.

There is a far greater role for movement education beyond its potential of enhancing the quality of adolescents' lives. There is the knowledge of how to assist adolescents in making healthy decisions in these times of escalating political and social pressure, and helping to lower youth crime and deviant behaviour (Knop et al., 2001).

Dedication of instructors

According to Coles (in Cutforth, 1997), community work can be difficult and sometimes exhaustingly draining. It is like an adventure plunging an individual into an experience whose outcome is uncertain and unpredictable. When individuals commit themselves in an enduring way to such a practice, their internal motivations are important. Personal service involves a sense of struggle to leave a positive mark on students and schools, and emanates from the commitment to understand, contribute to and reform human affairs. Additionally such work requires a time commitment. To be able to perceive and understand the needs of students, especially in a time of social and cultural change, takes time (Cutforth, 1997).

Cutforth (1997) concludes his article by attempting to answer why he does such work. He feels that it is a combination of academic and personal reasons. His extra curricular movement programme represents his attempt to respond to the social, economic and health problems of urban areas and more importantly, to improve the lives of at-risk youth who have large amounts of unsupervised time available and a need for safe places to go to. Cutforth's experiences portray a continuous struggle to perceive how to live life as a physical educator in higher education, and the emerging awareness of his responsibility that is illustrated by the phrase, "You are what you do, not what you talk" (p138). What is worth doing for Cutforth (1997) is best expressed by his need to embrace a research agenda that recognises instead of ignoring the challenge of building a more just and humane world for at-risk youth.

Conclusion

Adolescence characterises a high-risk period for at-risk individuals to develop a health enhancing or -compromising lifestyle. Many developmental themes influence such lifestyle choices. These include a search for identity, development of a sense of autonomy, a sense of self-control, a sense of accomplishment, and strategies to reduce physical and psychological pain, peer pressure, and stress. The goal of intervention should focus on skills and values that empower youth with a health-

enhancing lifestyle serving as an alternative lifestyle to counter that of a health compromising lifestyle.

There needs to be a focus on the fundamental needs of youth. Fundamental needs and root causes of at-risk youth problems can be seen as the lack of skills and values to be responsible. The degree of behavioural deficits and problems may vary among youth classified as at-risk, and thus requires flexibility when planning programme strategies. The core focus of the issue however is that of individuals being held responsible for their own behaviour regardless of environmental or socio-economic status. The ability to make a difference thus rests on defining how youths can be enabled to acquire skills and values for being responsible. Collingwood (1997) states that a structured physical training programme can assist in providing a solution. Physical training can be used for purposes other than improving fitness areas. It can be utilised to develop positive values and life skills such as goal setting and planning, and have an impact on psychological factors such as the development of self-esteem and well being.

Most people seem to accept and agree that at-risk youth need movement programmes and that getting such youth to participate is of value. Providing a facility or throwing them a ball, or having a curriculum, however, will not meet the needs for these youths. When providing a movement programme for at-risk youth their cognitive, emotional and behavioural deficits as well as their physical capabilities need to be catered for and dealt with. To accomplish the physical fitness or health objectives of a movement programme, behavioural deficits have to be addressed first and foremost. The development of fitness, behavioural, life skills or value objectives necessitates a well-structured, designed and organised programme. To provide an effective movement programme for at-risk youth requires a presenter who leads exercise enthusiastically and “who walks the talk” (p. 82) (Collingwood, 1997).

Miller et al. (1997) concluded from their findings from their movement intervention programme, that such programmes are not exclusively appropriate for at-risk children. Over the past years they witnessed how the intervention benefited at-risk youth, however, they believe that the approach could easily be altered so as to enrich the lives of the social spheres of all children. Their second point was emphasised to remind educators that the label at-risk should not be used to stigmatise or stereotype

a specific group of children. Many of the at-risk youth with whom they worked faced grave challenges in their daily lives. However, they responded, as do all children to mutual respect and educational opportunities.

Life issues associated with poverty and isolation are complex. It would be reckless to disregard the difficulties and historical roots of the poor. Unfortunately there are no quick solutions for undoing decades of indifference toward at-risk groups. Long-term commitment and thoughtful application of the knowledge and expertise already present in movement education, and other fields will be needed. By supporting such a principle the chances for reviving optimism and hope in the underserved will be increased (Martinek, 1997).

Chapter Three

Self-esteem and Self-concept

Defining self-concept and self-esteem

The concept of the self is derived from the interaction of three general categories of factors: individual capabilities, the products an individual's cognitive design in which information about the self emerging from social and physical environments is processed, and the social environment and the information it produces. There are also other factors contributing to perceptions about the self, such as: personal values, evaluation of personal behaviour, and individuals' feelings about the compatibility between their values and behaviour (Pargman, 1993).

Self-esteem and related aspects of perceptions of ability and self-worth have been studied in various contexts, including that of sport and movement activity (Fox & Corbin, 1989; Sonstroem 1984; Sonstroem & Morgan, 1989). Self-esteem may develop and alter due to prolonged experiences, it also influences the choice of motivated behaviours (Biddle, 1993a). Self-esteem is often judged to be the single most important measure of psychological well being. A continuing debate surrounding self-concept research is how best to define the terms of self-concept and self-esteem. If a clear definition of self-concept does not exist, researchers cannot be certain if they are accurately measuring it, let alone enhancing it (Berger & McInman, 1993).

Self-concept is a perception or conscious awareness of the self. It is considered by many to be a central component of an individual's psyche, such as McGuire and Padawer-Singer (1982) who described it as the central concept in a person's conscious life. Nideffer (1979) proposed that self-concept is so important to people for "we all have a strong desire to feel good about ourselves" (p.93). A healthy self-concept is a principal component in psychological well being (Berger & McInman, 1993). Gergen

(1971) defined self-esteem as "the degree to which individuals feel positive about themselves" (p. 11) and as a "personal judgement of worthiness" (p. 5). The traditional view suggests that self-concept "conventionally refers to all aspects of knowledge concerning who one is, and self-esteem refers more specifically to the evaluation of who one is" (Rhodewalt & Agustsdottir, 1986, p. 48). Self-esteem is thus regarded as the evaluative component of self-concept (Rosenberg, 1979) which is based on individuals' cognitive comparisons of themselves and associated affect (Gergen, 1971; Shavelson et al., 1976). Campbell (1990) and Searcy (1988) both supported the interpretation that self-concept focuses on the beliefs that people have about specific characteristics associated with themselves, and that self-esteem relates to the global beliefs and feelings that people have about themselves as people, such as being satisfied with and liking themselves. Several researchers on the other hand have implied that there are no conceptual or empirical differences between self-description and self-evaluation (Shavelson et al., 1976) thereby enabling the terms to be used interchangeably.

Early theoretical formulations proposed unitary constructs of "global self-concept" and "global self-esteem" with their ability to interact and influence behaviour in a wide variety of settings (Allport, 1937). Despite this unitary approach, self-concept was recognised as having a developmental dimension in that age and experience produce increasingly differentiated conceptions of the self (Sonstroem & Morgan, 1989). Self-concept is expected to vary across situations and is modifiable by variable experiences and strategised interventions (Allport, 1943).

Self-concept is an unstable psychological entity composed of many dimensions (Pargman, 1993) and is often regarded as a critical determinant of well being and happiness, especially in children (Horn, 1987; Horn & Hasbrook, 1987; Weiss, 1987). Individuals with healthy and positive self-concepts are confident, assured, and forthright in their interactions with others and have comparatively low levels of anxiety (Brustad, 1988). Current approaches to understanding self-structure emphasise multiple components of the self. These components will have varying importance to individuals; for example individuals may have different perceptions of themselves as professionals, as family members, as leaders or as followers for instance (Sonstroem & Morgan, 1989).

The question continuing to receive attention is whether self-concept is an adaptable state characteristic or a stable trait characteristic. It has been found that individuals tend to seek out consistent and stable self-concepts (Swann, 1985; Swann & Hill, 1982; Swann & Read, 1981) and reject information that would adversely affect their self-concept (Tesser & Campbell, 1983). In opposition to the view that self-concept is a stable entity is the claim that it may be a state characteristic. Several studies have suggested that self-concept can easily be altered (Gergen, 1971; Savin-Williams & Demo, 1983; Turner, 1968) and that it is characterised by situational specificity (Higgins & King, 1981).

There are two models that can explain the stable and adaptable aspects of self-concept. Markus and Kunda (1986), and Markus and Wurf (1987) do not regard self-concept as a single entity, but view it as a space, union, or system of self-conceptions. There are two aspects in self-concept namely: a working self-concept that is adaptable, and a core self-concept that remains fairly stable (Markus & Kunda, 1986). A further model also includes two aspects of self namely: the barometric and the baseline self-concept (Rosenberg, 1986). The barometric self-concept is regarded as being more current, situationaly specific, adaptable and can be compared to the working self-concept. The baseline self-concept on the other hand is more stable and comparable to the core self.

Theorists have increasingly included regard for the body – its function, appearance, or abilities – as a component worthy of inclusion in the multiple domains of self-structure (Coopersmith, 1967; Epstein, 1973). Fitts (in Pargman, 1993) relates how it is generally understood that a well-developed self-concept is formed over the years and does not exist at birth. Continuous experiences in an individual's life influence the development of self-perceptions. Self-worth arises and changes direction and strength depending on specific interactions with other persons and occurrences. Motor-skill performance is vital for this development (Hurlock, 1972). Movement and touch are valuable sources of data that form individual perceptions about the self. By moving and physically communicating with the environment an individual learns a great deal about the various dimensions of the self. The implications for sport and movement participation seem strong (Pargman, 1993) and has lent strength to the investigator's use of different movement domains to positively impact on self-esteem. White (1959) confirms this stating that concepts about

the physical self contribute to an individual's strong overall self-efficacy and personality development and functioning generally. Fox (1988) suggested that remedial provision of movement programmes may well function as a powerful intervention tool, for research has revealed that the greatest effects for movement activity have often been found with children who initially have had low self-concepts. Individuals with low self-concepts are in the greatest need of help, however, various sports and movement education programmes often neglect them.

Epstein (1973) defined four dimensions under global self-esteem to include: general competence, power, normal self-approval, and love worthiness. Competence was subdivided into general, mental, and physical abilities. Each area of competence was proposed to be organised hierarchically, ranging from a general perception of competence in one's abilities to increasingly more task-specific conceptions at the lower end of the continuum (Sonstroem & Morgan, 1989).

The relationship between self-concept and self-esteem is complex. Burnett (1994) found that descriptive and evaluative statements about specific characteristics of the self are closely related and should not automatically be treated as separate constructs. They discovered that differences between the means for the descriptive and evaluative statements of children were largest for physical ability, peer relations, and math ability. Their results indicated that children (elementary school children in grades 3 to 7) liked physical activity more than they were actually good at it, liked playing with their peers more than they reported having lots of friends and being good at making friends, and liked math less even though they reported being good at it. These results could reflect Rosenberg's (1979) position that individuals come to value personal qualities to a greater extent, which they estimate as successful tools in social interactions.

Self-concept refers to both the overall views that individuals have of themselves, as well as how well they function in specific roles or under certain constraints. The recognition of the multiple components of self-concept has led to increased interest in studying "perceived competence" in specific spheres of operation as an indicator of selected aspects of self-esteem (Sonstroem & Morgan, 1989). As recommended by Rosenberg (1979), contemporary self-esteem research examines both global and domain-specific

self-conceptions in an effort to understand how individuals see and value themselves (Marsh, 1987).

Self-efficacy

Self-concept and self-esteem are frequently mentioned in connection with self-efficacy/self-confidence research (Lirgg, 1992). Self-efficacy is conceived as situation-specific evaluation, which can contribute to the dimension of overall self-concept and self-esteem. The self-efficacy theory has been one of the most extensively used concepts to investigate motivational issues in sport and exercise. Originally used to explain the various intervention procedures used for treating anxiety, self-efficacy has been utilised in sport to explain the mediation of achievement behaviours (Roberts, 1993).

Perhaps the most documented and theoretically sound theory of self-confidence is that of Bandura (1977). Bandura used the term self-efficacy to describe individuals' perception of self-confidence or competence they have to successfully perform the behaviour necessary to produce specific outcomes. According to Bandura, self-efficacy is enhanced via: successful performance, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. Of these enhancement factors the most important one for the development of self-efficacy to occur is that of successful performance.

The motivational mechanism of the self-efficacy theory consists of the assessment of an individual's capability to perform at a specific level in an achievement context of value to the individual. Mastery expectations influence a person's performance (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy is not concerned with the ability of individuals as such, but their confidence in what they can do with their competencies (Feltz, 1982; McAuley, 1992). Individuals who have high physical self-efficacy scores feel competent and therefore attempt and persevere in a wider variety of physical activities than those who have low self-efficacy scores (Berger & McInman, 1993). Sport psychologists such as Vealy (1986) therefore have used self-confidence synonymously with self-efficacy.

Research in sport and movement performance has focused on two issues namely: the methods utilised to create self-efficacy, and the relationship of self-efficacy to performance. The research on means to enhance self-efficacy has established that positive participant modelling, vicarious experiences, and other antecedents affect self-efficacy in the predicted direction (Feltz, 1988). Some studies, however, have not shown an enhancement of performance. Studies that examined the relationship of self-efficacy to sport performance have illustrated that a positive performance relationship does exist, nevertheless the relationship is more modest than most reviewers confess (Feltz, 1982 & McAuley, 1985). The general findings suggest that while self-efficacy is a reliable, modest predictor of sport performance, other mechanisms can contribute to achievement behaviours (Bandura, 1986; Feltz, 1988).

Various models of achievement motivation have been designed that include self-confidence as both a mediator and an outcome of performance (Lirgg, 1992). They include *Perceived Competence Theory*, *Self-efficacy Theory*, and *Expectancy-value Theory*.

Harter's perceived competence theory

There are various ways in which researchers have defined and measured self-confidence in sport and movement activity settings which have brought about a series of motivational theories revolving around the perception of competence, or the ability of the participant (Lirgg, 1992; Roberts, 1993). According to the *Perceived Competence Theory*, external reactions in the form of reinforcement/non-reinforcement, approval and disapproval have a powerful influence on perceived competence and control (Lirgg, 1992). Harter (1978) has provided a framework for examining the interactions and influence upon self-concept/esteem, socialisation, developmental factors, and individual differences in children. The work of Harter (1978, 1980, 1985) has particularly been utilised in sport, for the model has a measurement technology that includes a perceived competence sub-scale in the physical domain.

Based on the seminal work of White (1959), Harter with her *Perceived Competence Theory* attempted to explain how individuals feel driven to engage in mastery attempts in

achievement contexts. Perceived competence according to Harter is a multidimensional motive that directs individuals in the cognitive, social, and physical domains. Success and failure in these domains are evaluated by significant others, and the perceived competence and intrinsic pleasure gained from such evaluations are viewed as increasing achievement endeavours when success is achieved. If task mastery is therefore experienced and external reactions are initially positive, an internalised self-reward system will develop. On the opposite side of the scale, a perception of incompetence and displeasure is assumed to lead to an individual becoming anxious and decreasing his/her striving for achievement when failure is realised.

An internalised system means that the importance of external reward reinforcement is reduced. Feelings of perceived competence and control increase with recurring successful experiences. The person becomes motivated to achieve because he/she is seeking feelings of competence which is equated with self-efficacy/self-confidence (Lirgg, 1992). Harter thus confirmed the old adage that believing in oneself in order to realise success is of prime importance to an individual (Harter & Connell, 1984). The link between perceived competence and self-confidence provided support for selecting Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children* as an indicator of self-confidence for this study.

Harter (1978) developed the *Perceived Competence Scale for Children* with her exploration of the then current measures of self-esteem. She then extended and refined her 1978 scale as the *Self-perception Profile for Children* (Harter, 1985). The instrument measures six subscales of self-competence. Global self-worth measures an individual's general like or dislike for themselves; the self-perception of competency is measured by the athletic competence, scholastic competence and social acceptance subscales and; self-adequacy is measured by the physical appearance and behavioural conduct scales. Harter's (1985) instrument is ideal to use, for its multidimensionality reflects contemporary research trends on self-esteem.

Adult influences on academics

The relationship between parental behaviours and children's self-perception characteristics has been a focal point of academic research. Harter's (1978, 1981) theory of competence motivation proposes that parents exercise the principal influence upon children's developing self-perceptions of competence and control. Harter notes how parents shape children's emerging perceptions of self through the type of evaluative feedback that they provide on their child's achievement efforts.

Parsons, Adler and Kaczala (1982) found that children's perceptions of their mathematics ability and perceptions concerning the difficulty and level of effort needed for math were more closely linked to their parents' beliefs about their child's capacity than to the child's own demonstrated level of ability. By receiving consistent and positive feedback for both the product and the process of their mastery efforts, children develop positive perceptions of their personal competence and control over future performance. Such positive self-perceptions contribute to the improvement of self-esteem and intrinsic motivation, and help reduce performance anxiety.

Phillips (1984, 1987) also researched the relationship between parental belief systems and academic self-perceptions of third- and fifth-grade youths. Phillips' research focused on highly competent students ranking in the upper 25 percent of their grade level based on achievement test scores, but who differed in the favourability of their self-perceptions of academic ability. Children with less positive self-perceptions of ability believed that their parents shared their low perceptions and had low expectations for their future achievement levels. The motivational profile of the low perceived-competent children corresponded with the expectations of competence motivation theory, as such individuals expected schoolwork as being more difficult and requiring more effort as compared with the high-perceived competent group.

Motivation

The study of motivation investigates the constructs that stimulate and direct behaviour (Roberts, 1993). Motivation theories are predicated on a set of assumptions about individuals and the factors that energise achievement behaviours; the theories ask why

(Roberts, 1993). Notable examples of theoretical frameworks that have guided sport-specific motivation research include: Atkinson's (1964) value-expectancy theory of achievement motivation, Weiner's (1979, 1985) attribution theory of achievement motivation, Harter's (1978) theory of competence motivation, Locke's (Locke & Latham, 1985) theory of goal setting and task performance, and Bandura's (1977, 1986) theory of self-efficacy.

Motivation encompasses personality factors, social variables, and/or cognitions that are utilised when an individual takes on a task at which he/she is evaluated on, compete with others in, or attempt to reach some standard of excellence. It is assumed that the individual bears responsibility for the outcome and that some level of challenge is innate in the task itself. It is here that the dynamics of the sport context facilitate various motivational dispositions and/or cognitive assessments influencing achievement behaviours. With motivational research it has been hypothesised that the determinants of individual achievement behaviour consist of: approach motives, avoidance motives, expectancies, incentive values of success and failure, and/or cognitive assessments of success and failure (Roberts, 1982, 1984, 1993).

Motivational theories have attempted to explain achievement behaviours such as: behavioural intensity, persistence, and choice of activities and performance (Roberts, 1982, 1993). In the movement field, according to Maehr and Nicholls (in Roberts, 1993), achievement behaviours in children can be observed when they: try harder, concentrate more, persist longer, focus on performing better, choose to practise longer, join, or cease with sporting activities.

Misunderstandings of motivation

Motivation is a central component directing human actions. Motivation research has centred on the issue of: coaches or teachers managing the motivation of others, or the issue of managing self-motivation. Even though the role of motivation in an individual's life is considered an important topic, motivation is not well understood in a variety of settings (Roberts, 1993).

A misunderstanding surrounding motivation is that of what coaches call “positive thinking”, for motivation is not simply positive thinking. Coaches often instruct their students to imagine themselves winning. The argument surrounding such an instruction is that believing that one can win or be successful enhances an individual’s performance to achieve a successful outcome. Evidence exists that positive expectations can assist motivation, however, expectations have to be realistic or they can sabotage motivation (Locke & Latham, 1985). Many instructors in the movement field believe that motivation is an inborn trait. Coaches often falsely assume that if an athlete is low in motivation that this will or cannot be altered and often give up on that particular individual. Motivation is, however, not considered to be an inborn quality but a learned attribute (Roberts, 1982, 1984, 1993).

Sport and mental health

Because exercise can positively impact emotional effects and the fact that some children suffer from emotional problems, the rationale for the therapeutic and preventive effects of exercise from a biological perspective, should also include reference to psychological issues. A psychological key issue facing educators is the development of self-esteem in children, and it seems to have become known as a “buzz word” (Biddle, 1993b, p. 204). Self-esteem is seen as an important issue linked to the mental health of children.

Self-confidence in sport psychology literature has been the subject of much research in recent years. Individuals’ perceptions of their own abilities have often been cited as a mediating construct in achievement strivings and as a psychological factor affecting sport performance (Lirgg, 1991). The constructs of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), perceived competence (Harter, 1982; Nicholls, 1984), sport-confidence (Fox & Corbin, 1989; Vealy, 1986), expectancies (Rotter, 1954), and movement confidence (Griffin & Keough, 1982) have all been suggested as measuring an individual’s perception of his/her abilities. Regardless of how confidence has been operationalised and measured, self-confidence has been shown to be an important variable influencing motor performance (Feltz, 1982, 1988; McAuley, 1985).

Doan and Scherman (1987) analysed the relationship between the personality measures of self-esteem/concept and exercise in non-experimental, quasi-experimental and experimental studies. Of the 11 non-experimental studies on self-concept/esteem, 7 showed a positive effect and 4 no effect. Of the 8 quasi experimental studies, 5 were positive and 3 showed no change, and with the 10 experimental studies, 5 were positive and 5 showed no change. Not one of the studies, however, reported a negative effect for exercise on self-esteem. Such findings verify the reports by McAuley (1994) and Sonstroem (1984) that exercise can positively impact individuals' self-perceptions.

Weiss, McAuley, Ebbeck and Wiese (1990) set out to determine the relationship between self-esteem and attributions for performance in the physical and achievement domains of children. Grade 3-7 children participated in a seven-week university summer sports programme. Subjects that were high in physical self-esteem, as assessed by the *Perceived Competence Scale for Children* (Harter, 1982) were found to make causal attributions for perceived success that were more internal, stable, and personally controllable compared to low self-esteem subjects. Similar results were illustrated regarding social self-esteem. These findings showed how the subjects in Weiss et al.'s study tended to make causal attributions consistent with the way they viewed their abilities.

Roberts, Kleiber and Duda (1981) in their research found that sport participants were stronger in perceived competence as compared to non-participants, as measured by the physical and cognitive competence scales of Harter. The relationship, however, was not strong and whilst other research has supported the aforementioned finding, the relationship is still weak (Ulrich, 1987). Clint (in Clint & Weiss, 1987) also found that former and recreational gymnasts reported stronger levels of perceived physical and social competence than current competitive gymnasts did. A follow-up study on these findings by Clint and Weiss (1987) investigated the relationship between competence perceptions and participatory motives among young gymnasts. The results showed that gymnasts high in perceived physical competence were more motivated by skill development reasons than those with lower perceived physical competence. The gymnasts with higher perceived social competence were also more motivated by affiliation opportunities than those with lower perceived social competence. Clint and

Weiss (1987) maintained that their findings were consistent with the predictions of competence motivation theory since these gymnasts were motivated to demonstrate competence in the areas in which they perceived themselves to possess greater ability.

Although it has been noted that children may take part in sport for reasons other than demonstrating competence (Gould, Feltz, Horn, & Weiss, 1982), ongoing participation in a context where physical competence is placed at a premium may favour those wishing to demonstrate competence as part of their motivational set (Feltz, 1988; Roberts, 1993).

Adult influences on sport

Current theories of youth sport behaviour regard children's self-perception characteristics as critical moderators of their motivational and affective patterns (Harter, 1978, 1981; Nicholls, 1984, 1989). Research in sport and academic areas strengthen these theoretical contentions. It has for instance been found that highly competent children who underestimate their abilities tend to work at an unfittingly low level of challenge (Harter, 1983), and display less initiative and perseverance on achievement tasks (Ames, 1978; Phillips, 1984).

Concerning their sport involvement, children's self-perceptions tend to be greatly influenced by adults. Adults are extensively involved in the youth sport domain and thus supply a great deal of feedback to children about their personal capabilities. Additionally, due to their cognitive-developmental characteristics, children prefer to utilise adult sources of information to assess their abilities in achievement situations (Frieze & Bar-Tal, 1980; Horn & Hasbrook, 1986, 1987). Horn and Hasbrook's (1986; 1987) research revealed that children aged 8-11 years preferred adult sources of feedback concerning their sport competence in comparison to older children and adolescents (12 to 14 years) relying to a greater extent on peer-based social comparison processes. Felson and Reed (1986) found that parental evaluations of upper elementary school children's abilities in sport and academics were strongly linked to children's self-appraisal, even when actual levels of ability were statistically controlled. Scanlan and Lewthwaite (1984) found that young wrestlers who perceived greater

parental and coach satisfaction with their performance, illustrated greater general expectancies for their future wrestling performance. It was also found by Weitzer (in Brustad, 1993) that fourth-grade girls who noted that they had higher levels of parental interest in their sporting endeavours had higher self-perceptions of competence.

Coaches' influences on sport

In agreement with Scanlan and Lethwaite's (1984) study it was found that coaches also take on an important role in shaping children's self-perception characteristics. Greater systematic attention has been devoted to coaches than that of parental influence. A series of studies by Smith, Smoll and Curtis (1978, 1979), Smith, Smoll and Hunt (1977) and Smith, Zane, Smoll and Coppell (1983) found that coaching behaviours significantly influence children's self-perception characteristics, psychosocial and affective experiences in sport. The results of the Smith et al.'s (1978) study showed that relationships existed between coaching behaviours and children's psychological and affective outcomes. Individuals that had low self-esteem profiles seemed to be most affected by behavioural differences among coaches and appeared to benefit the most from being with coaches who were positive when providing feedback to them. Smith et al. (1979) found with their second study, where coaches of Little League baseball players ages 10-15 years did or did not receive pre-season training to help them communicate more effectively with children, that children who played for the trained coaches showed a significant increase in self-esteem and evaluated their coaches more favourably, even though win-loss records were equal between teams with trained and untrained coaches. Horn (1985) also found that the verbal feedback of coaches to young female players significantly related to differences of perceived competence among players.

Gender differences

A general concern of those studying the phenomenon of self-confidence has been the finding that females tend to demonstrate less confidence than males (Lirgg & Feltz, 1989; Stewart & Corbin, 1988). Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) for instance asserted that females demonstrated less confidence than males in all achievement situations. A low

confidence level decreases the likelihood that an individual will choose to participate in activities in a specific area and also leads to a decrease in persistence and effort when confronted with difficulties, thereby limiting opportunities for improved performance (Bandura, 1986; Fennema & Peterson, 1985).

Harter (1978) found that boys had greater intrinsic mastery motivation compared to girls. Girls also required more adult approval, especially when tasks were classed as masculine. In sport settings, for example, significant others would have a powerful effect on girls' perceived competence. Their approval or disapproval of the girls' performance would create this effect.

Physical activity was found in Stephens' (1988) analysis of four large surveys of the North American population to positively impact on females' moods. Stephens concluded that especially with older female subjects, the level of physical activity positively correlated with that of positive mood, overall well-being, and lower depression and anxiety levels.

Data from adults also suggest that individuals with higher physical fitness levels show reduced physiological response to psychosocial stress (Crews & Landers, 1987). In a study in this area on children, Brown and Siegel (1988) investigated the effect of physical activity and life stress on the health of adolescent girls. It was found that illness was linked to life stress but was significantly mediated by physical activity patterns. Girls that were found to live with high levels of life stress, in particular, reported higher incidences of illness, and were significantly lower in their activity levels. The mechanism underlying such an effect are not clear due to aerobic and anaerobic exercise having an equal effect on the results. This ruled out the possibility of an effect due to cardiovascular training and associated neuroendocrine functioning. The other possible mechanisms included the enhancement of mastery and competence perceptions, and the use of exercise as therapy due to individuals being removed from the source of stress.

Streitmatter (1993) suggested that identity development may be more complex for females than for males because females live in a male-dominated society, and because

their developmental processes are closely tied to their sense of connectedness with others as well as their independence and separateness from others. It has been found to be extraordinarily difficult to develop measurement instruments that incorporate both the intimacy and the autonomy aspects of identity development (Shaw, Kleiber & Caldwell, 1995).

Conclusion

Research on Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy and Harter's (1978) competence motivation theory has brought about a great deal of data to support the theory that self-confidence can be developed and maintained by successful experiences (Cox, Qiu & Liu, 1993). Other than regarding self-esteem in its entirety, Fox and Corbin (1989) have suggested that it may be useful to investigate the different sub-domains of self-esteem such as physical self-worth. Sonstroem and Morgan (1989) note that such specific self-perceptions are likely to be more responsive to influence through behavioural interventions.

A diversity of research approaches can assist with the understanding of and different influences of the youth sport experience. In addition to quantitative research, qualitative research methodologies may provide a greater depth of understanding regarding children's and youth perspectives on their sport and movement involvement (Brustad, 1993). Perceived competence, self-efficacy and self-confidence are all somehow associated with feelings that one is capable of mastery and control in a specific environment, and all are somehow involved in the formulation of self-esteem. Self-esteem has been identified as a variable susceptible to psychological benefits gained from regular exercise (Folkins & Sime, 1981; Hughes, 1984). The possible use of physical activity as a medium for the improvement of self-esteem through an improvement in self-confidence is an exciting option for physical educators and coaches. Clearly, an examination of the opportunities offered by experiences in the physical and motor domains is in order.

The current information on youth sport and movement programmes is fairly limited regarding cultural and ethnic diversity. The existing knowledge base in general has been created from a relatively small, homogenous sample of North American youth. By conducting research outside of North America, the available data can be expanded so as to increase and improve sport and movement programmes for participants right across the globe (Brustad, 1993).

Adolescence is a period of significant transition in the life of a child and young person. One of the first transitions in life, namely that of adolescence (Hammen, 1985), is the movement from home to school where a child "is required to adapt and adjust to new social norms and values that are considered acceptable in the educational setting" (Brooks-Gunn & Petersen, 1984). This period of adolescence is also characterized by the cessation of childhood and the beginning of young adulthood (Brooks-Gunn & Petersen, 1984). The onset of puberty has often been considered the beginning of adolescence (Brooks-Gunn & Petersen, 1984); however, the psychological changes associated with this period can begin as early as eight or as late as thirteen years of age (Brooks-Gunn & Petersen, 1993). In today's Western societies, the onset of adolescence is no longer individually determined based on a variety of criteria (Brooks-Gunn & Petersen, 1993). The age at which an individual for example becomes financially independent and assumes financial independence associated with adulthood (Phipps, 2001).

Psychologists traditionally have focused their attention and concern on the problems experienced by what comprises a minority of adolescents (Wagner, 1996). Health professionals who work with adolescents typically know them best through those in the minority who respond negatively to the significant change and challenges associated with teenage years (Wagner, 1996b). Generally regarded as a transitional period characterized with conflict and turmoil and anxiety, adolescence appears to be a period of relatively rapid change that about 80 percent of teenagers seem to cope with without problem (Ostrov & Howard, 1989). According to Eddies et al. (in Wagner, 1996b), a remarkable such magnitude also brings about the opportunity for positive growth. The Committee on Adolescent Development (Wagner, 1996b) stated that adolescence can be viewed as the opportunity "to choose a path toward a productive and fulfilling adult life" (p. 10).

Chapter Four

Adolescence

There is an increased interest and research activity surrounding the second decade of life, namely that of adolescence (Petersen, 1993). Adolescence is a transition period where a child “is required to adapt and adjust childhood behaviours to the adult forms that are considered acceptable in his or her culture” (Dusek, 1991, p. 4). The onset and cessation of adolescence is a difficult time span to pinpoint with regards to the exact age span. The onset of puberty has often been considered the start of adolescence (Brooks-Gunn & Petersen, 1984), however, the psychological changes characteristic of this period can begin as early as eight or as late as thirteen years of age (Crockett & Petersen, 1993). In today’s Western societies, the upper age limit of adolescence is individually determined based on a variety of criteria (Arnett & Taber, 1994), such as the age at which all individuals for example are granted the legal rights of the majority, or assume financial independence associated with adulthood (Papalia & Olds, 1992).

Psychologists traditionally have focused their attention and research on the problems experienced by what comprises a minority of adolescents (Wagner, 1996b). Mental health professionals who work with adolescents, typically have directed their attention to the minority who respond negatively to the significant change and challenges associated with teenage years (Wagner, 1996b). Generally regarded as a transitional period characterised with conflict and turmoil and anxiety, adolescence appears to be a time of relatively rapid change that about 80 percent of teenagers seem to cope well with (Offer, Ostrov & Howard, 1989). According to Eccles et al. (in Wagner, 1996b), a transition of such magnitude also brings about the opportunity for positive growth. The *Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development* (Wagner, 1996b) stated that adolescence can be viewed as the opportunity “to choose a path toward a productive and fulfilling life” (p. 8).

Although adolescence may not always be the period characterised by turmoil and anxiety, Takaniski (in Wagner, 1996b) states that teens today are encountering greater challenges regarding health and safety as compared to those experienced by previous generations. The reports by Silbereisen, Robins and Rutter (in Wagner, 1996b) of teenagers' early experimentation with alcohol and illegal substances, and of gun-related deaths and injuries by Fingerhut, Ingram and Feldman (in Wagner, 1996b), and of contraction of sexually transmitted diseases including AIDS, by Sonenstein, Pleck and Klu (in Wagner, 1996b) could lead to the negative perception that today's adolescents face a hopeless period holding little promise for their future and that of society.

Developmental studies are needed that identify predictors of enhancing the functioning of adolescents. Research in this area requires a positive focus based on identifiable markers of optimal development. Unfortunately, such criteria have in the past remained poorly identified and undefined (Wagner, 1996b).

Biological development during adolescence

The most significant biological feature of adolescence, according to the *Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development* (Wagner, 1996b), is the start of puberty when the rate of physical development is faster than that of any other time except during infancy. Girls begin their pubertal development an average of one and a half to two years earlier than boys do and therefore reach their reproductive maturity and adult height between fifteen and sixteen, versus sixteen to seventeen and a half for boys (Brooks-Gunn & Petersen, 1984). Here there is once again considerable within-group variability, contributing challenges to adolescents' psychosocial development. Wagner (1996b) defines optimal biological development as having an influence on emotional development in terms of self-esteem and self-confidence. Early-maturing boys for instance seem to cope better by being more self-confident and satisfied with their physique, as compared to late-maturing boys (Brack, Orr & Ingersoll, 1988). Early maturing girls on the other hand, may be more susceptible to certain adjustment problems such as with their body image and that of emotional difficulties (Brooks-Gunn, 1988).

Cognitive development during adolescence

Compared to the literature available on the biological development of adolescents, limited attention has been paid to their cognitive development according to Keating (in Wagner, 1996b). Much of the empirical study of cognitive development in young people has been based on the work of Piaget. Inhelder and Piaget (in Wagner, 1996b) described the cognitive side of early adolescence in individuals aged eleven and above, as being the point at which their thinking changes from a concrete to an abstract form.

During adolescence cognitive development also involves a change of orientation relative to time. Kail (in Wagner, 1996b) explains that adolescents are able to process information more rapidly, and this in combination with greater awareness and control of the increased knowledge base according to Keating (in Wagner, 1996b) leads to a more efficient way of thinking compared to that during childhood. Secondly, Lewis (in Wagner, 1996b) states that adolescents' thought processes become more temporally complex as they begin considering long-term implications and possibilities comparative to the immediate focus characteristic of childhood. This has been observed in the ability of adolescents being able to anticipate the consequential risks associated with certain behaviours. In addition, a transition from absolute thinking to one of a more relative perspective occurs. According to the relative perspective, few if any givens exist concerning the political, social or personal realms in which people live (Dusek, 1991).

Adolescents have to use increasingly more adultlike rational reasoning to consider the many issues that are linked to daily decision making (Weithorn & Campbell, 1982). Situations in which a simple choice is involved are experienced less and less as they mature into adults.

Emotional development during adolescence

It is specifically the domain of emotional development, in which existing research on adolescents is principally oriented to the pathological end of the continuum. Emotional problems, however, do not seem to characterise the adolescent years for the majority of adolescents. The relative lack of empirical studies on normal adolescent emotional

development might be due to the belief of professionals, that emotional turmoil is developmentally normal and only warrants serious study when the problems are severe enough to justify clinical intervention (Offer et al., 1989).

When entering adolescence, individuals will have developed the ability to differentiate real life from apparent emotions (Harris, Donnelly, Guz & Pitt-Watson, 1986). They are also able to process and feel two contrasting emotions simultaneously (Harter & Buddin, 1987) and become aware of the situational and the mental side of different emotions. Having moved from concrete to abstract thinking, adolescents are able to process and define their internal emotional states. This contributes to a change in the personal meaning of emotions (Harris, Olthof & Meerum Terwogt, 1981).

Reaching optimal emotional development is, however, restrained in certain instances for the effects of gender on affective expression and the limitations that socialised gender roles can impose on optimal emotional health in adolescents have been well documented (Fassinger, 1996). Wagner (1996b) states that emotional awareness and self-confidence are two desirable outcomes of optimal development. Such concepts may present difficulties for adolescent males and females in today's society. This can be seen for instance in Gilbert's (in Fassinger, 1996) handbook of counselling psychology, who notes how the attention in scholarly literature on the lack of emotional awareness and blunting of affect is promoted by today's masculine gender roles. Regarding females, literature by Betz and Fitzgerald, and Gilbert (in Fassinger, 1996) illustrates how lack of self-confidence is fostered by feminine gender role socialisation. The work of these authors dramatically points out that there is a steady and penetrating decline in self-esteem as girls progress from childhood to adolescence.

As previously commented on, little attention had been given to the study of positive emotions during adolescence. An example of research in this area, is the study on hope that Snyder et al. (1991) conducted. Using their 12-item *Hope Scale*, Snyder and his co-workers identified two related aspects of the emotion of hope. Firstly, the belief in personal ability to achieve goals and secondly the perception of available strategies for attaining such goals. Individuals with greater hope were described as individuals who view their goals as challenges providing the opportunity for success and positive

feelings. These findings parallel those of Clausen (in Wagner, 1996b), whose longitudinal study found that self-confidence was one of three components of adolescent "planful competence" (p. 16). Clausen (in Wagner, 1996b) summed up that self-confidence has a marked influence on the adjustment and overall success of an individual during adulthood.

Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies of positive emotions in adolescent male and females from different socio-economic, racial and ethnic backgrounds need to be undertaken, to determine what positive emotions drive and guide adolescents to become individuals who are able to cope with what lies ahead during their adulthood (Wagner, 1996b).

Social development during adolescence

Adolescence is the time when individuals' social realm increases to include people beyond their family as they pay greater attention to relationships with their peer group. The increased interaction with peers allows adolescents to evaluate their personal view of the world that was developed during childhood.

Conformity to the peer group has often been regarded as a peril of adolescence. Peer pressure during the teenage years can, however, be regarded not only as a negative but also as a positive according to Santrock (in Wagner, 1996b). Yielding to friends' encouragement to participate in potentially self-destructive behaviours, such as unprotected sexual activities and use of illegal substances, can be contrasted with team members' pressure to maintain academic achievement so as to remain active in sporting activities, or friends insisting on a designated driver when a peer has consumed alcoholic beverages (Wagner, 1996b).

Even though parents continue to be a source of support for adolescents, conflict between the two increases and is influenced by the gender factor across the different stages of adolescence. This is seen with an increase in conflict between fathers and daughters, compared to an increase for mothers with their sons and daughters (Steinberg, 1981, 1988). Although confrontations and disagreements occur between

parents and adolescents, the conflicts tend, however, to focus on everyday family matters such as homework and domestic chores, versus more complex issues such as religion, alcohol or illegal drugs (Montemayor, 1982).

Adolescence involves increasing separation from parents as adolescents take on greater responsibility for their everyday decisions and behaviour. Traditional theorists have regularly highlighted the importance of increasing independence from parents during adolescence as a preparation for the autonomous living of adulthood. Gilligan (in Wagner, 1996b) on the other hand challenges the view of "self-sufficiency as the hallmark of maturity" (p. 67). Gilligan feels that a more realistic view of adulthood would be the interdependence that characterises it, and therefore would include a relationship with one's parents.

Regarding social development, the possession of skills to engage in co-operative, trusting interactions and the ability to recognise and comprehend others' perspectives, are among the more important criteria of optimal development in this domain (Wagner, 1996b).

Moral development during adolescence

Bukatko and Daehler (in Wagner, 1996b) describe the moral development of an individual as the method by which he/she is able to comprehend what society finds acceptable or not. Learning the standards of moral behaviour in today's culture can be a confusing and sometimes frustrating experience for adolescents who are confronted with differing criteria from parents, teachers, peers and the media. In his discussion of normal and informal standards, Halpern (in Wagner, 1996b) noted that public, explicit and enforceable norms related to moral choices, such as the laws of society, do not necessarily have as powerful an influence on behaviour as the more subtle factors resulting from social pressures. Halpern states that it is the more informal codes of conduct, those that individuals have internalised through acculturation, that have a far greater impact on individuals regarding the moral decisions they will make concerning their personal behaviour.

Vocational development during adolescence

The importance of the adolescent years was underlined by Vondracek and Lerner (in Wagner, 1996b), who maintained that "the development of a vocational role or career choice is a key antecedent of optimal development beyond adolescence" (p. 602). Concerning vocational development, personal competence and feelings of mastery are of key importance regarding optimal development (Wagner, 1996a). The enhancement of these factors according to Van Slyck and Stern (in Van Slyck, Stern & Zak-Place, 1996) has been found in research where adolescents were exposed to conflict resolution modalities as having increased their self-image in the vocational and educational development domain, and perceived competence as leaders.

Vocational development during adolescence according to Johnson (in Wagner, 1996b) involves more than one answer to a single question posed to them during their final year of high school. Vondracek and Lerner (in Wagner, 1996b) agree that the enhancement of an adolescent's vocational potential needs to consider the individual with his/her unique interests and abilities, and secondly the dynamic social environment that provides the challenges and opportunities for growth.

Adolescents who are members of disadvantaged/at-risk groups encounter additional challenging hurdles on the road to becoming career literate. Career decisions for adolescents are in general embedded within their social context. At-risk youths often may not have immediate access to adults who model stable employment that provides them with a liveable income, as illustrated by Nightingale and Wolverton (in Wagner, 1996b). Harris (in Wagner, 1996b) further states that members of certain groups, such as African Americans, are exposed through the media to a rather limited range of available careers to them with the focus falling on sport. Even securing part-time work during adolescence is difficult for at-risk youth whose parents do not have the resources and social contacts that often assist children from more financially secure parents to attain and move up in the job market. Betz and Fitzgerald, and Fitzgerald, Fassinger and Betz (in Fassinger, 1996) additionally point out that the literature on females reports extensive constraints limiting career options, including socialisation, workplace

discrimination, occupational stereotyping and other cultural forces that block access to financially viable and desirable careers.

Considering the aforementioned hurdles that are faced by females and at-risk adolescents regarding their vocational development, the road to acquiring personal competence and feelings of mastery that are considered by Harris (in Wagner, 1996b) as being two factors of extreme importance regarding the selection of and commitment to a particular career, are even more difficult to acquire. Fassinger (1996) asks if individuals located anywhere other than at the top of such a system can truly rise to the top? She concludes that if we are not willing to apply different standards of optimisation to different groups based on their social location, are we prepared to actively engage in reforming current educational and vocational structures to assist optimal development for all adolescents?

Optimal development

Adolescence is a life stage of dramatic change in various domains, such as the biological, vocational, moral and social spheres. What optimal development in adolescents is comprised of is complicated by the fact that it will be adults and not adolescents who format such decisions, and it is difficult for many, especially those of advancing age, to remember their own adolescent years (Wagner, 1996b). Defining optimal development in this period is further complicated by the significant transition occurring as individuals grow from children into adults. What optimal development in a pre-pubertal twelve year-old is comprised of will differ dramatically from that expected in a more adultlike eighteen year-old. Rogoff (in Wagner, 1996b) states that the development of the young is “multidimensional, rather than aimed at a specific endpoint in a unique and unidirectional course of action” (p. 12).

The focus on optimal development in adolescents does not and should not neglect the serious risk that they are confronted with (Kenny, 1996). As noted by Wagner (1996b), the research on adolescents over the past 20 years dispels notions of this period being

one of normative emotional turmoil. Adolescents are also threatened by easier access to guns and illegal substances, the presence of AIDS, declining occupational opportunities, rising poverty and greater freedom and autonomy due to the absence of adult supervision.

It would thus be inappropriate, or even impossible to identify a specific criterion of optimal development against which all adolescents could be evaluated. Any definition of optimal development should reflect the multidimensional nature of maturation that occurs during adolescence (Wagner, 1996b).

Criteria of optimal development

Possessing the resilience to deal with adverse life stressors is described by Wagner (1996a) as the basis for promoting optimal development. Zimmerman and Arunkumar (in Van Slyck et al., 1996) refer to resilience as a relative term of a person's ability to effectively manage adverse and challenging situations without being debilitated. Resilience as noted by Garmezy (in Van Slyck et al., 1996) is not the avoidance of the negative consequences of stress due to being invulnerable, but as the competence to handle a situation in such a manner that potentially devastating effects are avoided. Resilient individuals are able to begin anew after having faced personal adversity.

Rutter (1995) especially emphasised how an individual can play an active role in enhancing the process of resilience. This is an important point to note, for it suggests opportunities for intervention programmes in which at-risk adolescents can learn to become more resilient and thus become competent individuals via the acquisition of more effective coping strategies (Van Slyck et al., 1996). Masten and Coatsworth (in Van Slyck et al., 1996) described competence as those skills and processes linked with the ability to adapt effectively to the environment.

Coping is regarded as the process with which individuals handle or decrease their stress levels. Effective coping is characterised by flexibility and calculated efforts that cognitively alter the manner in which a stressful occurrence is regarded as, or by behaviourally trying to consider various alternatives for problem-solving purposes

(Jorgensen & Dusek, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1986). According Compas, Worsham and Ey; Ebata and Moos; Stern and Zevon; Tyler; and Willis (in Van Slyck et al., 1996) it has been well established that the acquisition and utilisation of coping strategies involving active problem solving concerning the management of daily life stressors, is linked to better adjustment and greater resilience in adolescents. In addition to the aforementioned, individuals who utilise effective coping strategies are better at extracting help from their social support system which helps maintain their self-esteem and optimism (Jorgensen & Dusek, 1990; Stern, Norman & Zevon, 1991).

Coping responses in daily living can change from situation to situation and even moment to moment. Coping responses are, however, comprised of generalisable, habitual patterns or styles that cut across situations and influence what type of strategy is utilised by an individual when coping with daily situations (Carver & Scheier, 1994; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). The research on adolescents coping and adjustment mechanisms suggest that the development of active problem-solving coping skills are linked to greater resilience and competence; resulting in better adjusted adolescents. Additionally, the research indicates that such skills are associated with adult success (Van Slyck et al., 1996).

The characteristics of coping responses provides those designing intervention programmes for at-risk youth to help increase their ability to effectively manage normative stressors with solid material, for coping can be seen at least in part as a learned response according to Compas et al., Smith, Giddan and Whitner (in Van Slyck et al., 1996).

Conclusion

The promotion of optimal development in adolescents involves assisting them in developing behaviours, such as making decisions that result in physical and psychological health. Crockett and Petersen (1993) note that adolescence is not only a life stage of risk avoidance but also an opportunity for enhancement of a young person's biological development. One aspect of the aforementioned is the pursuit of a healthy lifestyle, including a proper diet and exercise, which enhances individuals' quality of life

during the adolescent period and follows into adulthood. Problem-solving abilities, perceived efficacy, planfulness and aspiration as noted by Garmezy (in Kenny, 1996), can be developed and nurtured through psycho-educational interventions.

When one, however, begins to count individuals who are female, members of various racial and ethnic groups, live with disabilities, in economic disadvantage, or otherwise not belonging to the privileged few, one begins to see that many theories on optimal development functionally marginalise most of the population. Fassinger (1996) raises the question if healthy choices are possible for a large segment of the adolescent population who is limited by oppressive social forces. Limited options for at-risk youth prevents developmental adolescent optimisation. Clearly there are numerous and significant challenges that await those interested in facilitating optimal development of adolescents. There needs to be a conceptual shift according to Kazdin (in Wagner, 1996b) from the current focus on the elimination or reduction of psychopathology, to what personal and interpersonal strengths can help promote optimal functioning in adolescents. If theory is to constructively direct research and practice, the theory needs to be relevant to all of the populations that are to be provided for (Fassinger, 1996).

Adolescence and leisure

The traditional study of adolescence has typically focused on the cognitive, emotional, social, and biological factors that influence their development and identity formation. Adolescence as noted by Takanishi (in Kenny, 1996) is a period of risk and opportunity. Researchers from various disciplines have recently extended their focus to include the central contexts that contribute to an adolescents identity such as: school, family, work, peers and leisure (Kivel, 1998).

School and community organisations

The importance of school for adolescents reaches beyond the academic sphere, especially at the secondary level in which high school has been identified as "the central organising experience in the lives of most adolescents" (p. 34) according to Lee (in

Wagner, 1996a). Second only to public schools in the number and type of developmental services provided to adolescents, are community youth organisations, as stated by Quinn (in Wagner, 1996a). Quinn identified community organisations offering programmes designed to promote health and physical fitness, as having special value for at-risk youth and those raised in single-parent families. The challenge for those implementing intervention programmes is to promote optimal growth despite the presence of greater environmental risks to health and safety (Kenny, 1996).

Leisure

Leisure has been conceptualised along two lines according to Brightbill and Neulinger (in Kivel, 1998). Objective leisure is measured in terms of discretionary time and subjective leisure in terms of an individual's experience and or state of mind. The formation of identity refers to the development of personal and social identity. Personal identity relates to an individual's core characteristics, and social identity to the self in relation to others, group membership and social identification with a group. Leisure in the context of identity formation related to adolescents can be examined from three perspectives. Firstly, leisure contexts provide youngsters with opportunities to integrate their personal and social identity; secondly, it serves as a transition from childhood to adulthood; and thirdly, it provides a space for embedding identities (Kivel, 1998).

Kelly and Kleiber (in Kivel, 1998) state how various studies support the assumption that opportunities to take part in leisure and or leisure contexts provide opportunities for self-reflection and personal growth. Youngsters have different identities and it is thus that Kelly (in Kivel, 1998) points out that it is important "to recognise the variety of leisure interests for youth. They have different social arenas in which to try out their emerging selfhood" (p. 51).

Adolescents who spend their free time participating in structured activities such as sport, hobbies and games, in comparison to free time engaged in watching television or other unstructured leisure activities, have more positive experiences (Csikszentmihalyi, Larson & Prescott, 1977). This suggests that unstructured leisure activities are not always a positive and constructive experience; this is worrying, for the Carnegie Corporation

Report (Kivel, 1998) indicated that adolescents may have as much as 40 percent of unstructured free time available to them. It is therefore important for youth service providers to design programmes that challenge adolescents and match their individual skills with external challenges that require participants to become involved, committed to and engaged in such structured activities. Kleiber, Larson and Csikszentmihalyi (1986) have suggested that leisure contexts are significant, for they provide the youth with opportunities to participate in transitional activities that link childhood play and adult responsibilities.

Kleiber et al., (1986) also have divided leisure behaviours of adolescents into two categories, namely that of relaxed leisure and transitional activities. Relaxed leisure is described as an experience that can restore an individual's energy and spirit, without his/her having to necessarily exert any effort. Transitional activities on the other hand provide individuals with the experience of freedom and intrinsic motivation found in highly organised participation systems. The systems found in transitional activities require discipline and engage the participants in a world of symbols and knowledge foreign to the self. One of the most important characteristics of this category of leisure is that the enjoyment found within it can help lay the foundation for experiencing enjoyment in more compulsory and adult like activities.

Researchers such as Kelly (in Kivel, 1998) have suggested that leisure contexts provide opportunities for self-reflection, growth and the development and enhancement of self-esteem. Organised sport activities provide opportunities for individuals to acquire and develop new skills and competencies (Danish et al., 1990). Theorists have further argued that leisure experiences provide opportunities for adolescents to become intrinsically motivated and influential individuals. Such experiences are critical to ensure the successful transition from adolescence to adulthood, and the smooth transition from the world of play to that of work (Kivel, 1998).

Heath and McLaughlin (in Kivel, 1998) note how important it is for researchers and those providing youth service programmes to examine and understand the youth they are targeting within the context in which they live and play. Inner-city youths have several identities they portray in different areas of their lives such as with their family, in

the neighbourhood, at schools, the streets and local economic realities. When developing youth-based organisations it is important to allow the participants to make decisions about the direction of the organisation; this in turn allows them to be involved, committed, and engaged. All too often youth-serving programmes regard the participants as a problem and try to fix, improve, control or prevent certain behaviour.

Conclusion

An implication for providers of programmes for the youth is that they have multiple identities and live within a variety of contexts, contributing to the development of self. Their worldview and understanding of themselves is developed through their relationships with others and the world, through the contexts of schools, families, peers and friends, and their leisure to mention but a few (Kivel, 1998). When youngsters attend movement programmes, instructors impart values and beliefs that influence how they see themselves and others. Those offering programmes must constantly be aware that they too are part of a larger process of either helping or hampering participants' identity formation. The potential impact one can have on a young person's life means that it is important to continuously examine and critically review how instructors interact with them. This means that they need to be introspective, and question the underlying assumptions about young people, and about the myths and stereotypes that have contributed to what others think and know about today's youth.

Youth-based organisations are time and labour intensive for individuals providing them. They may, however, be one of the most effective ways of recruiting and keeping youngsters in recreation-based programmes. Such organisations seem to be most effective when the adults involved are passionate and charismatic people who are consistent in their support of and feedback to the young people (Heath & McLaughlin, 1993). In summary, working with the youth means that service providers and theorists, need to be conscious of the extent to which what they say and do influences the process of identity formation within the leisure contexts (Kivel, 1998).

Chapter Five

Sport and Recreation for the Adolescent Girl

Orenstein (in Henderson, 1996) describes girls with healthy self-esteem as having: an appropriate sense of their potential, competence, inborn value as individuals and the right to be in the world. Girls begin school with the same aspiration as boys, however, by the time they reach high school their doubts have forced aside these dreams and they become adolescents with reduced expectations of life and themselves. Our culture devalues women and their qualities of nurturing and co-operation. Women are at times afraid to take certain risks and may believe that the approval of others regarding their actions validates their worth. Situations in which women are singled out or ignored may thus contribute to them feeling less confident about their skills in recreational endeavours (Henderson, 1996). Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw and Freysinger (in Henderson, 1996) state the unfortunate fact that it is an ongoing struggle for educators to teach and provide recreational opportunities for girls and women; assisting them in the quest to become empowered in various areas of their lives.

Current health risk behaviours among youths

With adolescents moving toward independence, they may engage in behaviours that will increase their risk of injury and disease (Dinger, 2000). In a review of literature by Stone, McKenzie, Welk and Booth (in Watson, Poczwarcowski & Eisenman, 2000) concerning the effects of physical activity interventions on youths, it was concluded that:

- the majority of adolescents are not regularly physically active.
- girls are less likely to be physically active as compared to boys.
- the role of participation in physical activity decreases steadily with age.

Males and females both take part in high-risk behaviours, however, the prevalence of certain behaviours differs between the sexes (Dinger, 2000). The *Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC)* (Dinger, 2000), and Sundgot-Borgen (1994) reported that in comparison with males, female high school students in the United States were more likely to: engage in suicide-related behaviours, and utilise extreme dieting behaviours with exercise. They were also less likely to: use a condom, consume fruits and vegetables daily, participate in vigorous physical activity, and engage in strengthening exercises.

It is important to understand current health-risk behaviours among youths, for according to the *CDC* (Dinger, 2000), health-related behaviours are formed during childhood, and positive choices must be promoted before detrimental behaviours are experimented with or become habitual.

To understand the actual and potential contribution of physical activity and sport in the lives of millions of girls, an interdisciplinary perspective is needed (Lough, 1998). Everything possible must be done to have a positive impact on the behaviour choices of the young female population, for the health of future generations may rely on it (Dinger, 2000).

The impact of puberty on girls

It is important to understand the impact that growth and development has on adolescent females. As girls reach puberty and begin to develop secondary sex characteristics, their bodies accumulate a higher fat percentage, and their self-esteem begins to decline. Galagan and Mable, and Gill (in Rhea, 1998) have found that consequently adolescent females become more negative about their bodies, concerned with physical beauty and the idealised thin body shape. Girls afflicted with distorted body images and the associated low self-esteem lay the foundation for weight preoccupation and disordered eating. The media influences such behaviours by promoting the thin model as an equal to success, and the use of new and improved diet pills without the utilisation of physical activity (Rhea, 1998). Greif and Ulman (in Rhea, 1998) also reported that adolescent girls spend a lot of time worrying about how other individuals will respond to them.

Although the adolescent female is concerned with her body image, social status or performance, a better understanding of her struggle with such psychological and physical elements can contribute to future participation in sport and physical activity. Female adolescents need to recognise and be made to realise that participants with bodies of different sizes and shapes can be successful, and that their success is not dependent on being thin and small. Physical limitations are only as inhibiting as the individual permits them to be (Rhea, 1998).

Physical activity in women's lives

Over the past few years, researchers have begun to reveal information about women's daily lifestyles. With the help of interviews instead of quantitative figures, a different picture of the quality of daily physical activity of women has come to light (Russell, 1996). British sociologist Rosemary Deem (in Russell, 1996) interviewed women about the place of physical activity in their lives, and found that they typically view recreational activity in five ways. Henderson (in Russell, 1996) lists Deem's five points as:

1. inequality.

Carrington, Chivers and Williams; Henderson, Bialeski, Shaw and Freysinger (in Russell, 1996) have illustrated how gender is a limitation to opportunity and behaviour in daily life, with women having less time and attaching less value to recreational pursuits. Theberge and Birrell (in Russell, 1996) also maintain that many contemporary exercise programmes accentuate weight issues, appearance and sex which embody today's myth of female vulnerability.

2. activity being combined with role obligations.

Many women connect recreational involvement and role obligations – for they view themselves as family members first and then as individuals (Russell, 1996).

3. it occurring at home and in a non-structured manner.

Henderson and Rannells (in Russell, 1996) have found that the home environment is the most common place for women's recreational activities. It is a convenient

location, but unsatisfactory for it is linked to other responsibilities such as household chores or looking after children. Utilising the home for activities, according to Wimbush and Talbot (in Russell, 1996) does not leave women feeling revitalised, and contributes to them feeling socially isolated.

4. it being fragmented.

Deem (in Russell, 1996) illustrates how many women's daily lives are compromised of many different isolated parts. Women's lives are not as structured as men's are, as noted by Henderson et al. (in Russell, 1996); they exercise when the opportunity arises. It was also found that women did not exercise, by Harrington and Dawson (in Russell, 1996) due to: not having enough time, responsibilities, timetable problems, and tiredness.

5. undeserved by them.

One of the most universal conclusions, as noted by Glyptis and Chambers (in Russell, 1996) seems to be that many women do not believe they deserve to take part in physical activity. Women, and society in general view physical activity as a reward for task completion.

Physical activity and health have gained an important niche in the ideal quality of life for individuals. Unfortunately when reviewing the research about the place of movement activity in women's lives, the contrary comes to the fore (Russell, 1996).

Models of female recreational involvement

The concept of "just recreation" (Henderson, 1996, p. 45) may provide a solution to some of the self-esteem problems girls face that evolve into stress and perceived lack of entitlement in adult women. Approaching "just recreation" can be seen from two different approaches according to Fastings (in Henderson, 1996). Firstly, females are treated like males, and secondly, they are treated according to their collective and individual needs and interests. The two approaches can occasionally be interlinked.

Model one

The first approach functions from the male standpoint; that women strive to gain more of what men have always had. An attempt is thus made to remove or compensate for the social obstacles that have prevented women from competing equally with men. This approach assumes that cultural barriers can be removed via rational intervention and that it is an outgrowth of liberal feminism and the equal rights struggle (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1991). The model according to Lenskyi (in Henderson, 1996) has, however, raised questions. Women might not want to change, and choose not to participate in physical activities so as not to have to pay attention to scores, winning, and trophies. Henderson (1996) also asks if recreation would mean that equality would be insisted on even if women were the sole individuals having to adjust, and does activity have to be the same for everyone?

Model two

The second approach arose from women's unwillingness to adopt traditional male values. Supporters of this view suggest that "just recreation" needs to accommodate the different views of women, including those who do not want to have the same experiences as men, and those lacking the skill or desire to compete equally with men. The model focuses on the meaning that women attribute to their recreation involvement and the quality, not quantity of their experiences (Henderson, 1996). The second model is nevertheless not without flaws. The focus on femininity, as noted by Hargreaves (in Henderson, 1996), supports the idea that men and women have two different biological natures that are culturally and historically universal. The opinion that an activity is feminine- or masculine-appropriate binds people to a fixed concept of what is natural; a stereotype that is blind to history and ignores changing feminine and masculine identities. Such an approach can create barriers not only between women and men, but between different groups of women and men. Some men for instance may feel alienated by expectations to participate in sport, whilst some women have achieved success within traditional male settings. It can thus be said that a female perspective may not represent all females any better than the traditional male approach being representative of men.

Participation in recreation as noted by Henderson and Bialeschki (in Henderson, 1996) must be empowering to and inclusive of all individuals. In "just recreation" individuals have the opportunity to become skilled by focusing on the process versus the outcome. The gravity of personal power is achieved by participation and involvement, and not by the history of the sexes or gender expectations.

The fear factor and physical activity

Violence against females is deeply ingrained in today's society with them fearing it from a very young age and throughout their lives. The factor of fear surrounding ones physical and psychological safety prevents many women and girls from leading an active lifestyle (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993). According to Gidden (in Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993), rape is a crime of rage in which opportunity and vulnerability are fundamentals to the act. The low-income bracket of women, among whom those of colour are over-represented, is more likely than are affluent women to be raped.

According to Clawson and Knetsch (in Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993), recreational experience involves at least five phases, namely:

- anticipation,
- travel to,
- the actual activity,
- travel from,
- and recollection.

Fear for personal physical and psychological safety may manifest itself in any of the five phases of a recreational or physical activity experience. Concern for personal safety in activity settings is recognisable by cessation of participation in them and the extensive planning that needs to be undertaken to be safely active, so as to cope with and conquer the fear for personal safety. Fear for a woman's personal physical safety is, however, not always at the forefront, but a fear for her psychological safety may be. This can be observed by women refusing to utilise public swimming areas, or engaging in exercise forms that may place them in a position to experience harassment due to

body image. Avoiding such activities is less stressful than dealing with verbal comments and abuse. The positive experience derived from involvement in, or taking part in recreational activities may be greatly impaired by the psychologically abusive harassment many females are confronted with in such situations (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993).

It is easier to describe fear as a deterrent to leading an active lifestyle for females, than it is to provide and come up with constructive solutions to the problem. It has additionally been found that females do not openly express overt fear, and that it can become such an integral component of being female that they are often oblivious to how it constrains their lifestyles. The invisible fear factor is much harder for the individual and professional to address, than that of a visible constraint.

Some females have learnt how to cope with and have chosen to live an active life in spite of fear. By owning their fear, however, they may have had to limit their options for participation by choosing safe participation options. In addition to owning ones fear a great deal of energy is needed to manage safety issues before a safe, active lifestyle can be enjoyed. Some females utilise aggressive and potentially violent means and actions to ensure their safety by training in self-defence, carrying mace, or even a gun. Such individuals believe that these are the only options that will allow them to participate in some of their favourite activities. Other females choose to ignore fear and participate in whatever activity they enjoy. Such actions are due to the belief that they will never have to face physical or psychological harm when participating in physical activities. Perhaps some females will never have to experience overt fear. Statistics, however, illustrate that safety precautions are necessary especially when engaging in an active lifestyle, alone or with others (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993).

Physical activity differences between girls and boys

On an average school day teachers have approximately six hours to influence the knowledge, skills and attitudes of children in their care. Physical education is the

favourite subject of a large percentage of elementary school children, leaving physical educators to work with highly motivated individuals (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000). Why is it thought that by the time girls reach adolescence a large percentage of them dislike physical-activity and -education (Luke & Sinclair, 1991)? The answer to this question may be linked to girls' perceived efficacy in relation to physical-activity and -education. The concept of competence motivation according to White (in Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000) is referred to as perceived efficacy, perceived ability, perceived competence, self-efficacy and perception of ability. Beveridge and Scruggs (2000) refer to perceived efficacy as a child's confidence in his/her ability to successfully complete a task.

Harter's (in Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000) research on perceived efficacy illustrates how children persist in an activity if they are confident that they will succeed, and cease to participate if they lack the confidence. Lack of successful movement experiences during girls formative years tends to add to their lack of interest in physical education and contribute to sedentary behaviour during adulthood (Luke & Sinclair, 1991; Trudeau, Laurencelle, Tremblay, Rajic & Shepard, 1999). Luke and Sinclair (1991) studied the attitudes of eleventh-grade boys and girls who chose to, or chose not to participate in physical education. The teacher, the learning environment, the syllabus and perceived efficacy were identified as major determinants for positive or negative attitudes. It was found that girls who had decided not to participate made the highest percentage of negative statements concerning their teachers and syllabus.

It is thus vital that elementary physical educators structure physical education classes so that girls can approach them with the confidence needed to succeed. With an increased perceived efficacy toward physical education, the chance is greater that girls will learn useful motor skills and continue participating in physical activity extramurally (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000).

Social influences on physical activity

Boys are more physically active than girls from infancy through adolescence (Eaton & Enns, 1986). Additionally, the 1996 *Surgeon General's Report* from the U.S.

Department of Health and Human Services (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000) identified adolescent females as the least active division of the population.

Throughout infancy, childhood and adolescence, boys and girls are influenced into behaving according to specific social and cultural roles. Boys for instance interact more with their fathers than girls do, and play is more physically vigorous during these interactions (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000). Parental and cultural expectations concerning physical activity and sport participation is additionally often higher for boys than girls, and boys are more likely to receive and respond to parental encouragement regarding participation (Brustad, 1996; Eccles & Harold, 1991; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). Many parents, coaches and teachers still equate a girls participation and talents in sport with being a tomboy. Young females often find it difficult to become fully involved in physical activity programmes due to such factors as lack of opportunity, stereotyping by parents, teachers and coaches, and general lack of awareness of the broad spectrum of social, emotional, cognitive, and physical benefits that participation in physical activity can offer (Ryan & Olausov, 2000). Research by the *President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports* (Ryan & Olausov, 2000) has also documented that young females from ethnic minority and at-risk backgrounds often have even fewer opportunities to engage in regular physical activity.

Boys and girls thus begin their schooling with definite ideas about gender appropriate physical activities, in addition to their physical activity behaviour often reflecting such views (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000).

Environmental settings for physical activity

Environments where boys and girls can personally choose how, and how much they will participate in physical activity enables social and cultural expectation to prosper. This can be noted in freeplay environments such as recess, where boys tend to participate in more physical activity compared to girls (Kraft, 1989; McKenzie et al., 1995; Sallis et al., 1996; Sarkin, McKenzie & Sallis, 1997). The differences in participation rates are not surprising, since both genders view recess differently. Evans (in Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000) found that girls enjoy recess because they can talk with friends, in comparison to

boys who enjoy interacting with friends in game situations. Blatchford, Creeser and Mooney, and Evans (in Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000) also reported that a higher percentage of girls would prefer to remain indoors during recess, whilst more boys enjoy playing outside.

McKenzie et al. (1995), Sarkin et al. (1997), and Stratton (1997) found that when the mode frequency, duration, and intensity of activities are controlled by a teacher, and the lesson is structured so that all participants are equally active, there are no differences in physical activity levels amongst girls and boys. Girls were also found to engage in more physical activity during structured physical education than during unstructured recess, versus boys who engaged in equal amounts in both environments. In the light of the aforementioned studies, the importance of structured movement programmes as equalising agents for activity levels amongst boys and girls is highlighted.

Beveridge, Watson and Scruggs (in Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000) verified the findings of McKenzie et al. (1985). However, closer scrutiny of the fitness and sport-skill segments of a physical education lesson brought gender differences to the fore. Boys were significantly more active during the sport-skill division, but boys and girls engaged in similar levels of activity during the fitness segment. This illustrates that the context of a structured environment also influences physical activity gender differences.

Movement intervention programmes for girls

Educators must consider how recreation can aid social justice. Regarding gender, professionals must ensure that recreation does not devalue girls and women (Henderson, 1996). Participation in physical activities can assist girls, weather the storms of adolescence and eventually lead healthier adult lives.

The vast benefits females can gain from regular physical activity have been well documented. The results of an intervention programme with adolescent at-risk girls centring on health education, physical activities, and mentoring by female university

students at the Holmes Middle School, in Covington Kentucky, resulted in measurable differences. The intervention programme helped the girls attain increased health knowledge, higher self-esteem, better understanding of the role that physical activity plays in an individual's social growth and relationships, increased school attendance and decreased discipline problems at school (Ryan & Olasov, 2000). The *President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports* (Ryan & Olasov, 2000) lists the benefits as: a reduction in obesity, improved mental health, muscular strength, self-esteem and self-confidence, and school performance, increased school attendance and the postponement of sexual activity.

Although according to Grant (in Ryan & Olasov, 2000) girls' participation in school and community-based sport programmes has increased over the past few decades, females still face barriers regarding sport participation (Ryan & Olasov, 2000). The glamorised representation of commercial sports in the mass media often disguises the basic fact that physical activity is a public health resource for millions (Lough, 1998).

Structuring an activity lesson

Educators can significantly affect girls' perceived efficacy regarding their participation in movement environments and their ability to learn and use motor skills. With careful planning of the factors that most affect learning, educators can help female students pursue lifelong participation in physical activity. It is the educator who is the key to the success of an activity lesson, for he or she is in control of the learning environment. The educator designs the lesson, a lesson that can be a successful and enjoyable movement experience contributing to increased perceived efficacy. A lesson can, however, be gender-biased and cater to the already skilled, leading to low self-esteem (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000).

Various authors/researchers gave the following recommendations keeping girls in mind; boys will, however, receive equal benefits from the strategies:

- Girls are often more co-operative, social, creative and mature compared to boys. Co-operative opportunities allowing girls to create games, dances and other activities of interest to them lead to increased physical activity. Girls additionally are successful with, and benefit from peer-teaching situations (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000).
- When grouping pupils, close attention should be given to how this is done. Teachers can create perceptions of success by utilising task difficulty and student ability when grouping, even if this results in same sex groups. Girls and boys often benefit from separate behaviours. Often a vast discrepant range of skill abilities emerges concerning manipulative skills, with many of the girls being placed on the low-skill end of the continuum. In competitive situations with boys, girls with low skill levels soon develop low perceived efficacy, disengage from activity and become efficient observers, even though they are the ones requiring successful practice opportunities the most. Large-group games requiring manipulative skills should also be avoided, for these are activities in which girls have the highest disengagement rates. Thus girls derive greater skill benefits from practising in learning environments where they are successful, even though gender separation may be required (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000).
- Unfortunately educators often focus on a task without offering alternative means of execution. Educators often teach according to what the main stream student is capable of, contributing to skilled students becoming bored and the lesser skilled frustrated (Plimpton, 1987). It is therefore important to gauge success by an individual's progress and not by group comparison (Rhea, 1998). Individuals need to understand that there are different ways to learn skills and take part in activities, and that different skills can be strengths in different situations (Mitten, 1992).
- It is important to ensure that all students have their own equipment and can participate simultaneously. Developmentally appropriate equipment should also be provided. Using equipment of the right size, weight and colour for a specific manipulation task increases students' accuracy and mechanics (Beveridge &

Scruggs, 2000). Perceived efficacy is also influenced by the type of equipment used, as illustrated in a study of basketball shooting performance for nine to twelve year olds (Chase, Ewing, Lirgg & George, 1994). Boys had higher perceived efficacy scores compared to girls with all combinations of equipment, illustrating how important equipment modification can be concerning girls.

- Educators must be careful concerning verbal and non-verbal communication that is not gender neutral, for it can negatively affect students' expectations (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000). Comments regarding weight and appearance should be carefully used. Decisions about weight control of individuals are often made on the basis of appearance versus more objective indicators such as high cholesterol, hypertension, or coronary heart disease (Griffin & Harris, 1996). Educators have to combat such behaviours and influences by reinforcing that proper eating habits and daily physical activity will equal a long and healthy life. Words carrying negative connotations for adolescent females such as perfect, little, petite, fat and diet should be avoided (Rhea, 1998).
- Decision-making skills should be taught to enable students to personally select skills that are of interest and value to them (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000). Motivation according to Parker and Bar-Or (in Rhea, 1998) is the key when designing a movement programme for adolescent girls. To be an active individual is a drive that has to come from within an individual, and not the teacher. A starting point is to develop activities that are fun and rewarding, not painful and humiliating, and by instilling self-motivation long-standing changes can be brought about (Rhea, 1998). Making activities fun is vital for many people's growth, and assists in developing self-esteem (Mitten, 1992).
- By helping students to set realistic goals, Silva and Weinberg (in Rhea, 1998) state that their commitment and confidence to achieve can be increased. By involving the students in the planning and choice of activities one can help assure their willingness to set goals. Involvement contributes to ownership in results (Pemberton & McSwegin, 1989).

- Teachers often emphasise winning and not the joy of participation (Martens, 1996). Activities involving maximum participation leave little time to judge fellow classmates and allows for individual progress (Plimpton, 1987). A model for teaching individuals how to demonstrate caring and responsibility in groups of diverse learners needs to form the core of a curriculum (Beveridge & Scruggs, 2000). Competitive games and relay races should therefore be utilised sparingly (Plimpton, 1987).
- Activities that de-emphasise competition and emphasise individual body changes as they occur produce higher success rates for female adolescents. Educators need to highlight the positives associated with puberty, and that going through puberty is an essential part of life (Rhea, 1998).
- An atmosphere must be created by the educator where individuals feel emotionally and physically safe during different activities (Mitten, 1992). If the idea is accepted that fear for physical and psychological safety is not only an issue for individuals, it may contribute to health, physical educators, recreation and dance professionals assisting females in overcoming their fear of leading active lifestyles. Violence against all individuals must be addressed by considering how females can be better equipped to conquer limitations to an active lifestyle. Statistics and the very real limitations placed upon females' leisure and physical activity, due to the fear that exists, simply cannot be ignored.

Those providing programmes, facilities, or areas for physical activity for females need to acknowledge that fear limits an active lifestyle. Some individuals, especially males who support females involved in physical activity often lack the awareness that females openly and covertly have to address issues concerning their physical and psychological safety. Young girls can be taught how to feel competent when engaging in physical activities by teaching them skills such as self-defence, and others so as to cope with a possible physical or verbal threat during such activities. It is key to help females feel good about themselves and their bodies. Unfortunately self-defence skills will not solve the problem of violence against women; it may however equip them with specific skills should they ever find it necessary to remove themselves from a vulnerable position (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993).

- It was recommended by Ryan and Olasov (2000) that university physical education and recreation departments collaborate with local school districts to develop intervention programmes for adolescent at-risk school girls. It was also shown that the best mentors for such girls are females who can serve as strong role models and that the activities should be ones that physically, mentally and socially challenge the girls, whilst stressing co-operation and decision-making. Similar results were found in a study in Salt Lake City with two middle schools participating in the "U Move with the Starzz" (p. 17) after-school programme, for middle school girls. The results were gathered via focus group sessions and individual interviews with the participants. The programme progressed from non-competitive, low skilled activities to more traditional sports. It was found that the location and teaching staff are of utmost importance to the success of the programme. The fact that non-school personnel planned and conducted the programme acted as a lure to prospective participants and contributed greatly to overall student enjoyment. By utilising the school as the venue for the programme, several typical barriers to participation such as transportation and cost were removed (Watson et al., 2000).

Conclusion

Whether all individuals are approached as equals or it is acknowledge that gender makes a difference, it is important to be clear about the need for movement activity programmes in our communities, and to build the self-esteem of girls and empower women to take control of their lives (Henderson, 1996). Being physically active should be the right of every individual, and not an opportunity to be negotiated carefully every time it is undertaken. Females should not feel penalised for leading an active life (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993).

Chapter Six

Life Skills

Sport and society

Sport ... is a social phenomenon which extends into education, politics, economics, art, the mass media, and even international diplomatic relations.
(Eitzen, 1984; p. 9)

Understanding sport and the attraction and commitment that individuals develop toward it is imperative if we are to understand the essence of such individuals. Freud (in Danish et al., 1993) identified work and love as the two major human impulses. The study of contemporary human behaviour today may additionally include leisure pursuits, especially sports. Sport just as school and work, is an environment emphasising training and performance. Sport on the other hand may provide individuals with an opportunity to understand themselves in a manner that may be more self-affirming than activities in the more constrained circumstances or environments of school and work.

The impact of sport on our society is omnipresent, and culture places a remarkable high value on it. Participation in sport, at some level, is noted by Reppucco (in Danish et al., 1993) as being a major source of entertainment for young and old. The *Institute for Social Research* (Danish et al., 1993) reiterates that only family, school, and television involve children's time more than sport does.

Sport is not only a relevant topic for study due to its importance in society, but as a major influence in the development of individuals' identity and feelings of competence across their life span (Baillie & Danish, 1992; Danish et al., 1990; Kleiber & Kirshnit, 1991). Personal competence is regarded as the ability to do life planning, be self-reliant, and seek the resources of others (Danish, D'Augelly & Ginsberg, 1984). Even before children understand the importance of sport to society, it significantly influences the development of their self-esteem and identity. Whether the attitudes, behaviours,

values, and skills procured by youth through participation in sport have contributed positively or negatively to individuals' identity has, however, been a topic debated by both professionals and non-professionals alike (Danish et al., 1993). The developmental focus of individuals shifts from a need to maintain a sense of industry to a pursuit for personal identity by adolescents (Erickson, 1959). An adolescents' sense of identity, or what they think they can be, is generally a product of past experiences and feedback by significant others. Waterman (1985) defines identity as "a self-definition comprised of those goals, values and beliefs which a person finds personally expressive and to which he or she is unequivocally committed" (p. 6). During the critical period, of acquiring a personal identity, the sport system that may have benefited the child athlete can interfere with opportunities for optimal identity development.

As children progress through their early and middle school years they are introduced to the more formal sport structured environments. The more formal environment consists of more clearly defined rules and criteria for measuring personal competence. With such change, the number of youth dropping out of the sporting domain increases substantially, by as much as 35 percent per annum (Gould, 1987). The high dropout rate can be attributed to sport no longer meeting the needs of many youths. Young individuals participating in sport want to have fun and improve their skills (Gould & Horne, 1984). Winning which has often been cited as an important motive for adults, in contrast is not rated as highly by children as noted by the research of the *Sporting Goods Manufacturers Association* (Danish et al., 1993).

Through the process of exploration, individuals learn more about themselves and gain additional social competencies through interacting with others. Exploration provides feedback about individuals strengths and weaknesses as they test themselves in a variety of situations. Without exploration in a variety of settings it is likely that an individuals self-esteem can be too narrowly defined and exposed to severe threat, in the face of possible loss (Petitpas, 1978).

Teaching life skills through sport

Danish, Petitpas and Hale (in Danish & Nellen, 1997) define sport psychology on a broad context as involving the use of sport to enhance competence and promote human development throughout an individual's life span. Sport psychologists can therefore be seen as being as concerned about life development as that of sport development. Furthermore due to sport attracting such a varied participation level, it fits well within the context of society's concerns with health promotion.

While the strategies and techniques used by sport psychologists for improving sport performance may be valuable, sport is so closely tied to other life domains that its value reaches well beyond sport to other areas of life. Individuals catering for those in the various movement fields such as sport psychologists and physical educators need to embrace a broader set of professional values such as: the development of individual and group competencies, helping individuals reach their potential and, understanding the environment in which individuals and groups function. Such values conform with those emphasised in other psychology areas, especially community and counselling psychology.

Sport psychologists and movement educators need to recognise the importance that sport has to urban youth and how, by utilising a broader set of values, they can use sport to positively influence the lives of such individuals. With the exception of the few that have used sport as a tool to escape their at-risk situation by becoming professional athletes, sport often has become an unrealistic career dream for many at-risk youth and their families. Due to the aforementioned, many criticise the value of sport. What these critics have failed to notice is how sport can provide an environment where life skills can be learned (Danish & Nellen, 1997).

Life skill interventions

The *Life Development Intervention* was designed by Danish and his colleagues to enhance personal competence by teaching life skills (Danish et al., 1993). Trained as a counselling psychologist, Danish focused on working with populations that had goals

related to optimising their performance rather than rectifying problems. Through his experience and that of his colleagues, he realised that the strategies used by sport psychologists were of value to life domains other than that of the sporting one, especially with individuals where sport was a major influence in forming their identities (Danish & Nellen, 1997). The *Life Development Intervention* framework (Danish et al., 1993) is based on a life span human development perspective emphasising continuous growth and change in a person. Growth and change should be examined in their biological, social and psychological domains. Behaviour, development and change should be deliberated over within the prevailing norms and current environment. Due to change being sequential, life stages must be viewed within the framework of what has happened in the past and will happen in the future. Due to the aforementioned, Danish and his colleagues began to use sport as a model to understand how to teach life skills and to promote personal growth.

In adopting such an approach they, however, had to recognise that while sport provides a model for enhancing competence, sport on its own does not enhance competence; the lasting value of the sport experience is found in the application of the principles learned via movement participation to that of other areas. Only a handful of those playing sports will increase the value of those activities by directing them into a career in sport. For the vast majority growing up means further developing their identity, discovering skills and interests outside the sporting domain, and perhaps applying some of the valuable principles learned during sport participation to their adult pursuits. Transferable behaviours and attitudes are what Danish, Nellen and Owens (1996) refer to as life skills.

Life skills

Life skills are physical, behavioural, or cognitive and enable individuals to succeed in the environments in which they live (Danish & Donohue, 1995). As individuals grow older, the number of environments to success increases. Environments differ from individual to individual and therefore the definition of succeeding will differ from individual to individual as well as across environments. Individuals in the same environment are usually not alike due to the life skills they have already mastered, their

additional resources and opportunities, real or perceived. Programmes that teach life skills must thus be sensitive to developmental, environmental, and individual differences and that the life skills required may not be the same for those of different ages, ethnic and/or racial groups, or economic status (Danish & Nellen, 1997).

Life and sport skill similarities

Interpersonal and intrapersonal skills are necessary to be competent. Interpersonal skills involve the ability to communicate with others in various situations and intrapersonal skills include physical and mental skills. Interpersonal and intrapersonal skills are useful in the sport domain but are not strictly related to sports, they are life skills (Danish et al., 1993).

Life skills and sport skills have several similarities and are both learned through demonstration, modelling, and practice (Danish & Hale, 1981). Such skills include: performing under pressure, solving problems, meeting deadlines and challenges, setting goals, communicating, handling success and failure, working as a team in a system, and receiving and processing feedback. Sport can provide a valuable tool for teaching life skills when such lessons are learned and transferred (Danish & Nellen, 1997).

For the sport domain to serve as an effective model for learning life skills, lessons must be designed with this goal in mind. The promotion of competence is not a random result of sport participation, but develops when participants compete against themselves. The competition individuals' face, according to Danish and Nellen (1997), should focus on them maximising their own potential and achieving their goals (Danish, 1995). Sport on its own does not teach life skills, but the sporting experience that is designed so that its participants can transfer what is learned to other domains such as school, home, and/or the workplace will (Danish et al., 1990).

The transference of skills

Transference of skills does not occur naturally (Danish & Nellen, 1997). Research on generalisation of skills indicated that skills secured in one domain do not automatically transfer to others (Auerbach, 1986; Meichenbaum & Turk, 1987). For transference to take place, individuals need to believe that they have skills and qualities that are of value in other settings. Some individuals may lack confidence in their ability to learn new skills and apply them in different settings. Fear of failure or lack in understanding of the new settings, and the unknown may add to their hesitancy (Danish & Nellen, 1997).

In the sport environment it is often not the lack of skills as such of athletes, but the lack of competence to transfer the skill from the sport to non-sport environment that prevents them from reaching a desired goal (Danish et al., 1993). Most young athletes do not realise that many of their sporting skills, or those they have obtained to survive in their neighbourhoods, are transferable to other life areas. Other youths have so much of their personal identity invested in one domain, such as sport, that they possess little motivation to explore different domains. They regard themselves as successful athletes and not successful people. This mentality can rob such individuals of their confidence and prevent them from exploring non-sport roles.

Too often adolescents believe that excelling in sport only requires the use of the physical body, and not physical and psychological skills. Psychological skills routinely utilised as part of sport participation include: planning, setting goals, making decisions, seeking out instruction, and managing arousal levels. Many of these skills are necessary to achieve success in other domains. When young athletes realise that the mental skills they possess are essential to their success in sport, they not only improve their sport performance but also are now in a position to transfer the skills to other areas. However, just knowing that one possesses physical and mental skills is not sufficient. How and in what context the skills were learnt is equally as important. Mental and physical skills can both be acquired through formal instruction, or learned by trial and error.

Transferral of skills is sometimes unsuccessful during the initial attempt. Failure of this nature may be due to lack of information or experience needed to adapt the skill to a new setting (Danish & Nellen, 1997). Knowing what is needed for skill transferral and how individuals learn to transfer them is an area of research that will become increasingly important for physical educators and psychologists (Danish et al., 1993).

Life skill programmes

The GOAL programme

Understanding what is needed for skill transferral, and how it is successfully achieved, is equally critical for sport psychologists and physical educators alike. With the following question in mind, Danish and his colleagues developed their life skills programme, the *Going for the Goal (GOAL)* programme. The GOAL programme won the *National Mental Health Association's Lela Rowland Prevention Award*. The aim of the programme is to teach adolescents a sense of personal control and confidence about their future to enable them to make better decisions and thereby become better citizens. To be successful in life, youths not only need to know what to avoid, but know how to succeed. To help participants succeed, the programme teaches, what to say yes to and not what to say no to (Danish & Nellen, 1997).

A major assumption underlying the development of the GOAL programme is that the future is important to youth. Erickson (1968) believed that the adolescent "identity crisis" drives youth to look ahead to their projected future. For a healthy identity to form, adolescents must integrate their evaluation of their past, present, and future into a well-organised self-concept. For individuals to care enough to learn what they should say yes to necessitates the belief that they have a future worth caring about. Until adolescents feel valued and have opportunities to contribute to society, the response of many such youths regarding their involvement in health and future-compromising behaviours might be: "how come?" Needing to feel valued may be one of the reasons why young individuals choose sport as an avenue for seeking recognition, for the assumption is that by becoming an elite athlete they will accumulate wealth and fame and be idolised by others.

Because of the goal of the programme (what to say yes to), there is little discussion about how to avoid health-compromising behaviours (Danish & Nellen, 1997). Caplan et al.'s (1992) research, and that of others on social competence programmes, has suggested that to alter the course of certain behaviour in specific areas they must specifically be addressed by the intervention. Danish and Nellen (1997) on the other hand relate that their research seems to be coming to a different conclusion. They do, however, recognise that their intervention programme impact may be enhanced when complemented by other interventions that target specific health-compromising behaviours.

The GOAL programme is a 10-hour, 10-session programme taught by well-trained high school to middle school or junior high school students. The programme is generally taught at school but has also been taught extramurally. There are ten themes covered during the sessions, namely: Dare to dream; Setting goals; Making goals reachable; Making a goal ladder; Roadblocks to reaching goals; Overcoming roadblocks; Seeking others' help; Rebounds and rewards; Identifying and building strengths, and; Going for goal. These skills are taught to participants in one-hour, skill-based workshops. Sessions begin with a review of what was previously taught and are followed by a brief skit with the new material. Skits feature the characters "Goal Seeker", "Goal Buster", "Goal Keeper", and "Goal Shooter" with participants assuming these roles. The skits tell a story of a young individual wanting to become a computer programmer. In each workshop, the principle performer faces an obstacle preventing him/her from reaching a goal, and by using the skill taught in the workshop goal attainment becomes more certain. After the performance, the skills are taught and practised. There are approximately two leaders to fifteen participants. Successful high school student leaders providing participants with concrete evidence of what they can become as adolescents. The leaders have grown up in the same neighbourhoods, attended the same school, and confronted similar obstacles as programme participants. Keeping this in mind contributes to the leaders serving as important role models and thereby being in an ideal position to be effective instructors (Danish & Nellen, 1997).

According to Meyer, Burgess and Danish (in Danish & Nellen, 1997) the results of the GOAL programme interventions have shown that participants: learned what the

programme teaches; achieved the goals they set, found it easier than they expected, and thought they had learnt considerably about goal setting; had better school attendance records versus the control group; thought the GOAL programme was fun, useful, important, and would be helpful for their friends; who were male did not report the same increase in health-compromising behaviours such as getting drunk, smoking, and drinking compared to the control group, and; who were male reported a decline in violent and other problem behaviours versus the control group who reported an increase in these behaviours (Meyer, Burgess & Danish, 1996; Meyer & Danish, 1996).

The SUPER programme

The GOAL programme became the predecessor to the development of the SUPER programme (Danish et al., 1996). In the *Sports United to Promote Education and Recreation (SUPER)* programme, well trained, college level student-athletes are trained to teach younger adolescents. For the SUPER intervention programmes it is the *Life-Skills Centre* staff who develop the specific intervention, and train the SUPER student-athlete leaders in 10 – 20 hours how to implement it. Training sessions revolve around how: to speak to groups; to organise a clinic; to teach sport and life skills, including their similarities and differences; to be a good listener; to transfer skills between the different but similar areas, and; to work with groups consisting of peers and adults.

SUPER leaders teach sport skills related to specific sports, coach to improve sport performance, and teach life skills related to sports to their younger peers. Danish and Nellen (1997) believe it is critical to prepare a new generation of leaders from today's tertiary and secondary students. A leader is defined by DePree's (1989) as an individual who assists others in reaching their potential for they possess the life skills needed for success, and hindsight required to utilise them to help others succeed. Leaders help others: identify goals and instil confidence related to their potential; develop and implement a plan to reach their goals, and; share what they have learned.

When leaders instruct, demonstrate, and conduct practices, they focus on how students are participating and not only on how well they are performing and participating. Their observations then get discussed with those whom they have been watching, explaining

what they have learnt by observing them and helping students explore what it means to them. Leaders are expected to spend at least one minute during each session with each individual discussing how they performed aside from the how well.

One of the life skills taught in the *SUPER* programme is what it means to be both competitive and successful in sport and life. Danish and Nellen (1997) believe that competition is best when individuals learn to compete against themselves and their potential. This is emphasised due to them believing that sport today has become a setting in which violence is common due to athletes lacking a realistic benchmark with which to measure their success, resulting in them not developing respect for themselves. If this is and often it is the case, such athletes either do not respect themselves, or have an enlarged sense of their own importance. Such an individual's life becomes a competition against friends and enemies with these interactions closely mirroring today's sporting environment.

Adolescents need to be taught how to alter the nature of how they compete, before they can learn how to win whilst others win. It is vital to learn how to compete against oneself and ones own potential rather than against other people. Possessing such an attitude teaches adolescents to focus on their performance in comparison to that of others. As a result of the shift in individuals competitive mindsets, they see changes in their competence, experience some "life wins," and feel less need for others to fail in order for them to experience success (Danish & Nellen, 1997).

Movement educators' and sport psychologists' roles in teaching life skills

Training in counselling can be of great assistance to life-skill educators. Such training helps educators understand the specific developmental issues being experienced by adolescents, and assist them in designing or restructuring the life skills to be taught. When teaching life skills, listening to and understanding adolescents are of key importance. Effective listening involves not only the understanding of knowing how to

reflect feeling and rewording, but understanding how to give feedback, adopt others perspectives, build empathy, help formulate alternatives, and gain a commitment to action (Danish & Nellen, 1997).

By observing individuals play and listening to them talk, essential information about their typical lifestyle becomes available to those watching. The typical versus maximum performance concept is an important one existing in a number of domains including psychological testing (Danish et al., 1993). Personality tests in general are designed to measure typical performance. Achievement and aptitude tests on the other hand are measures of maximum performance (Anastasi, 1988). On the sport field typical and maximum performances are also measured. How well an athlete plays an important game generally measures maximum performance, and how they play, practise and live measures typical performance. Sport is defined by Danish et al. (1993) as being a time-limited, concrete, personal, and intense experience. Keeping this in mind, it is an ideal environment to assess typical performance that will most likely generalise across a number of life domains. Observing how individuals play, and listening to what they say, may therefore be a valuable, reliable, and valid substitute for the use of psychological tests.

Danish and Nellen (1997) have reiterated that they define the goals in their programmes as task behaviours rather than outcome behaviours. Goals are thus actions undertaken to reach a desired end, and not the end itself. It is imperative that participants set their own goals for if the goal is more important to others, such as the educator, it is highly unlikely that it will be achieved. To elevate the possibility that energy will be invested in goal attainment, it is important to help participants determine that the goal is important to them. And lastly, when goals are identified but not achieved, explanations other than the lack of motivation possess greater validity. Developing some counselling skills will assist life-skill educators effectively implementing such programmes.

Conclusion

Adolescents today are taking more risks with their health, lives, and future than ever before. Individuals involved in at-risk activities usually are involved in more than one of them. Even though there is grave concern about what to do, there are sadly few answers and even fewer efforts to finding a solution.

Although less exciting, the future of any nation is much more dependent on helping their youth reach personal goals, than it is on helping elite sports men, women and youths win gold. Movement educators and sport psychologists are in an ideal position to make a difference with the ball being in their court so to say (Danish & Nellen, 1997).

Movement components of the intervention programme

The three types of movement interventions that were chosen by the investigator consisted of: modern dance, learning how to swim, and self-defence. These three movement forms were offered, in conjunction with life skill development strategies, to the adolescent at-risk girls who participated in the intervention programme. The movement form of modern dance was selected to begin the programme with, for the investigator previously had had positive results and responses from girls of this specific previously disadvantaged community with this form of movement. She had regularly been requested to present dance classes by them, and knew that the dance component would encourage participation in the programme.

It had become evident to the investigator that many of the girls could not swim due to the lack of such facilities in their area, and that they were desperate to become safe and competent in the water. Many of the girls felt that they were missing out on opportunities to interact with other adolescents from different social and economic backgrounds due to them not being able to participate safely when events arose that involved swimming.

Self-defence was chosen due to the seemingly increasing daily reports South Africans are confronted with regarding violent crimes committed against their women and girls across all socio-economic boundaries. The girls participating in this movement programme were especially considered at-risk individuals due to the underserved environment they lived in. Self-defence is a life skill that all women and children across the globe have a fundamental right to be trained in, so as to lessen their chance of becoming victims of violent crimes/acts against them.

Dance: The core of the movement programme

*To every thing there is a season,
and a time to every purpose under the heaven:
A time to be born, and a time to die;
A time to plant, and a time to pluck up that which is planted;
A time to kill, and a time to heal;
A time to break down, and a time to build up;
A time to weep, and a time to laugh;
A time to mourn, and a time to dance...
(Ecclesiastics, 3, verses 1-5)*

Because dance was an important intervention in the project, the nature and role of dance in education will subsequently be discussed.

Beardsley (1982) defines dance as a sequence of motions that are designed primarily for the pleasure given through either rhythm or expressiveness. Dance conveys ideas, stories, emotions, and moods, much like prose and poetry (Hanna, 2001).

Dance has purposeful, intentionally rhythmical, and culturally-influenced sequences of body movements that are selected similarly to the way a person chooses sequences of verbal language. By merging mind and body, dance captivates both dancer and viewer, thereby making it a powerful tool of communication (Hanna, 1983). Contrary to conventional thought dance is not a universal “language”, but that of many languages and dialects. For instance Peter Martins (in Hanna, 2001), director of the New York City Ballet, believes that classical ballet and modern dance are different dialects of the same language. Like a dialect and literary language, dance embodies the human imagination, records our achievements, and

distinguishes us as human beings. By contrast, classical Indian dance, with its extensive system of gestures is an altogether different language (Hanna, 2001).

Misconceptions about dance

The old proverb, "Good dancers have mostly better heels than heads," reveals one of the many general misconceptions about dance (Hanna, 2001). The female body has been the preferred vehicle in dance expression in western concert dance, and has served mainly as an icon of beauty and not as a source of creative energy. Dance is generally regarded as an art form and a profession emphasising the iconographic quality of women's anatomy. Such an outlook denies the reality of the natural process to a woman's maturation such as puberty, maternity and menopause. As educators and humanists it is in our best interest to see that dance progresses beyond superficiality so as to fulfil the function of expressive action (Arkin, 1994). The phrase of movement being classified as a medium of expression has also lent physical educators some comfort when making claims about the creative possibilities inherent in the field. Words are, however, often about as far as they go, with creativity and problem solving being disposed of rather rapidly. After the third or fourth grade, such expressions additionally tend not to form part of the material presented to children during physical education. Expressive movement has bowed to the more acceptable, secure and pedestrian forms of fitness and games. Therefore, movement as a means of expression as a phrase is one without meaning (Kleinman, 1992).

Promoting the body in the educational setting as a site of creative energy, may assist in providing an alternative behavioural model regarding the syndrome of that of denying the body (Arkin, 1994). Movement, however, has for many years been the last field to be paid attention to by teachers and educators. When it is taken note of it is to it is often handled and presented as a series of inconsistent, unrelated and separate bio-mechanical skills, or disconnected, meaningless muddle of games, dances or rhythmical activities. To become aware of individual movement characteristics and ability, to become discriminating about movement and to understand the qualitative dimensions of activity are factors far removed from the agendas of many contemporary educators.

Society tends to distrust the body and considers it as a separate entity apart from the mind that creates vocal and written discourse (Hanna, 2001). Dance needs to be created so as to communicate the lifetime transformation of a woman's body as a source of positive, rather than that of a negative self-image (Arkin, 1994). Goldberg (in Arkin, 1994) states that the female body has expressive capabilities that extend far beyond that of the traditional ballerina image prevalent in dance performance.

Schools measure knowledge in words and numbers (Hanna, 2001). Academics such as Damasio (in Hanna, 2001) are now, however, stressing the "mentality of matter"; the integration of mind and body. Dance cannot be performed mindlessly, it requires many of the same faculties of the brain, as does verbal language. According to Gardner (1993), dance is a form of kinaesthetic intelligence, a kind of thinking enabling one to solve problems through control of bodily motions.

Dance as a language

Dance remains at the basic level of human expression. Movement is our mother tongue and primordial thought. Current knowledge challenges established presumptions about dance held by non-dancers and dancers alike. Dance not only contributes to a healthy lifestyle, but serves as a "language" with which to communicate emotions and ideas (Hanna, 2001).

Hewes (in Hanna, 2001) argued that the body is not mute, and that language is based on the inborn cognitive structure of gesture. It was found among congenitally deaf children who had hearing parents and were not exposed to conventional sign language, that gestures were utilised primarily for communication and that the children could combine them in grammar-like ways (Goldin-Meadow, McNeill & Singleton, 1996; Morford & Goldin-Meadow, 1997). In addition to this, congenitally blind speakers gesture despite their lack of a visual model, even when speaking to a blind listener (Goldin-Meadow & Sandhofer, 1999). Gestures offer insights into a child's thoughts and mental processes by reflecting knowledge that the child possesses, but is not verbalising. With the entire body as the instrument of dance, the potential to communicate beyond mere hand gestures is therefore endless.

Because dance is language-like, it can be seen as a medium for interdisciplinary education. Dance facilitates learning by promoting creativity and by giving concrete, moving expression to abstract concepts. Many students, particularly those at risk of dropping out of school, become hostile towards standardised education that in their minds divides knowledge into unrelated pieces that are removed from real life. Dance education captivates many such students' attention through its immediate engagement of mind and body. By conveying meaning through dance, one can assist in emphasising ethnic, national, and other group identities, which may promote self-esteem and separatism (Hanna, 2001). Daniel (in Hanna, 2001) gives the rumba, a dance originally of poor blacks, as an example. It has become Cuba's national dance with its government hoping that it will bond its nation in a celebration of diversity.

Dance as a means of communication can therefore be viewed as an appropriate medium in which to explore issues of self-esteem and self-knowledge (Arkin, 1994). Virginia Woolf (in Arkin, 1994) spoke:

...what is a woman? I assure you, I do not know. I do not believe that you know. I do not believe that anyone can know until she has expressed herself in all the arts and professions open to human skill. (p. 36)

The ties between dance and sport

Aesthetic and artistry are vital components of the movement experience. Dance immediately springs to mind as an experience that uses and practises movement as a means of expression. Although it is not generally classified in such a manner, the world of the athlete is saturated with movement expression, intention and creation (Kleinman, 1992).

Dance and sport are linked together at the deepest level. They both challenge gravity and endurance, and both stretch the envelope of fundamental human aptitudes in ways that promotes growth and development. Dance and sport are free and separate from the usual and absorb participants intensely. In their purest sense they produce no material profit. Dance and sport both take place within their own boundaries, rules of space, time, energy, and promote the formation of social groupings. Such rudimentary qualities allow participants to learn by experimenting

and interacting with their environment and by challenging the capabilities of the physical body (Geer, 1992).

Increasing attention is paid to style and the aesthetic aspect of athletic performance in more formal ways. Aesthetics and artistry in athletics continue to be diminished dimensions due to the objectivity of and emphasis on the scoreboard. It is, however, by no means secondary to it. Rather than seeking out similarities and encouraging common interests, dance and sport deliberately seem to distance themselves from each other (Kleinman, 1992). A frank but telling example by Rudolph Nureyev is given by Levine (in Kleinman, 1992), where responding to a reporter's comment about his magnificent athletic ability he stated: "I am not an athlete. I am a great artist" (p. 154).

Unfortunately many dancers think of art as something above the grasp of ordinary people. Such attitudes have established a hierarchy in the performance disciplines, resulting in the artificial separation of art from life. Dancers need to acknowledge that artistic kinaesthetic expression is not limited to dance as a singular entity. They need to become aware that art by definition must be an open-ended concept, one that is always in a state of flux and in a mode of continuous discovery and creation. In everyday terms sport is not thought of or spoken about in the aforementioned manner, especially not among the viewers and critiques of today's cultural scene. Casual analysis of the place, function and practice of sport in society, however, reveals its essential nature and affinity to the performing arts. Sport has already achieved such a status among everyday society. Thus a convincing argument can be made that sport can be seen as the "people's art of the twentieth century" (Kleinman, 1992, p. 44).

Just as dancers have set attitudes towards athletes, athletes and coaches are equally ignorant and suspicious of dance. They view dance as something far removed from their concerns; something that even suggests perversity, for the notion persists that the dance field attracts only homosexuals and not heterosexuals (Kleinman, 1992).

Performance at its highest level is spoken of in terms of its spirit, its emotional, expressive qualities and its technical excellence. Movement captivates individual

and shared attention as the potential of the physical instrument is discovered (Geer, 1992). We value performance as an artistic statement, whether it takes on the form of dance or a sports event (Kleinman, 1992). Performance, according Schechner (1988), distributes itself along a continuum from amusement to efficacy, and stems from impulses to make things happen and to entertain. In his study and practice of performance, Geer (1992) has come to the realisation that there are common features connecting the forms of human performance that embrace both dance and sport. All the barriers raised between dance and sport are insignificant compared to the similarities of these forms that depend on the movement of the human body in time and space. Intuitive creation, aesthetic awareness, intensity, desire, motivation, will and intention all demonstrate expression. They have all been viewed as afterthoughts. Such qualities are at the heart of artistic enterprise, whether they appear in sport or dance. Dance and sport redirect physical energy. They promote the formation of bonds between individuals and groups. Both alter movement through exaggeration, stylisation and repetition, thus enhancing their communicative power.

It is time for both dance and sport to go beyond the narrow and superficial outlooks. Greater sensitivity and understanding of the basic principles and values of these movement forms are desperately required. Individuals involved in sport need to become aware of the importance, value and necessity for expression in performance, and in the preparation and execution of their skills; that these aspects are as valuable as points scored. Even though they are generally overlooked, they have a great deal to do with the scoreboard. Greater awareness of such artistic and aesthetic dimensions in sport will result in better performance in many spheres of the game (Kleinman, 1992).

Perhaps, because sport is so popular, because it is to such an extent a part of everyday life, the general public has difficulty in accepting it as a performing art. Sport, however, as the people's art may be perceived as having all of the elevating and redeeming qualities upon which we justify the value of all the arts. When dancers and those participating in sport accept one another as performing artists, efforts at co-operation will increase (Kleinman, 1992). At their deepest level, one most likely never to be laid bare, dance and sport are fascinatingly interwoven, they

are essentially movement art forms, and on such a foundation a tie can be built (Geer, 1992; Kleinman, 1992).

Approaching the dance class

Dancers often experience the body as an area of conflict versus that of a wellspring, as pathological rather than generative, and are fuelled by culturally conditioned ideas about visual appearance and models of feminine perfection (Arkin, 1994). The purpose of dance in education on the other hand aims to assist individuals in gaining a better understanding of the self, and their relationship with the world. Dancing is the discovery of an awareness of the physical and spiritual self. Body awareness and a clear body image development can be amplified through dance experiences. Through body awareness, children begin to develop overall self-control. Body control is the primary form of authority children have over themselves, and the first step towards development of internal control or self-discipline (Stinson, 1990). Dance teaches children to concentrate and focus. It helps develop an awareness of others in the group and teaches them sharing and respect for one another. Dance stimulates cognitive learning by providing experiences in which students learn and retain various concepts. More is retained of what is learnt because the whole body is involved in the learning process. Self-esteem is increased through dance when students participate in activities, which ratify their ideas (Leigh, 1994).

Looking at the body as a process rather than an object of dance choreography and performance may create an environment in which students can examine how their physical and psychological self-images merge (Arkin, 1994). The dance class can be approached according to Van Ummersen (in Arkin, 1994) as a process in which creativity and healing are deeply linked via the body being seen as the source, movement the medium, and its power as transformative. Such a method may be specifically of value to adolescents and young women.

Dance classes in the public school sector

In her review of education literature and the popular press, Stinson (1997) comments that one is constantly confronted with the concerning issue over low achievement

levels among students. It is brought to the fore that far too many students are not motivated to meet even with the existing standards of education. In the September 1995 issue of *Educational Leadership*, the editor Ron Brandt (in Stinson, 1997) opened with a description that Stinson (1997) says is familiar to almost anyone who walks into a typical high-school class in any community. Brandt states that some students see no link between what they regard as important in comparison to what is expected of them by their teachers. This, however, leads to them refusing to participate or even try during lessons. Other students comprehend that they must participate and play the game by going through the motions. This is done with minimal attachment to what they apparently are learning. It is therefore a reasonable question to ask what has/is happening to children, especially as they move through adolescence, to leave so many unmotivated and disconnected.

Differences in gender, ethnic backgrounds, socio-economic status, and religion influence the manner in which dance is taught at the school. The dance educator in the public school system needs to be aware of the population of each school, and develop teaching techniques and approaches appropriate for the culturally diverse mix within the school. Schools need to educate students about the similarities and differences between themselves and people throughout the world. Dance skills can be learned. The internal response to music and dance, which is developed within culture, however, may be more difficult to foster (Willis, 1995a).

The vast majority of creative dance programmes are developed on the movement concepts defined by Rudolf Laban. This approach may be the direct opposite of dance to students who already embrace dance through their culture. Although the Laban dance concepts are helpful in expanding choreography and critique, cultural dance cannot be ignored or patronised. Students need to be encouraged to perform dance that is important to them and to incorporate aesthetic values, whilst expanding their knowledge of dance concepts (Willis, 1995b).

Suzan Moss (2000) expected that teaching dance at the Bronx Community College of the City University of New York, to almost exclusively Latino and African American non-traditional students, would be highly enjoyable due to the students coming from cultural backgrounds in which love and respect for dance is high, according to Hazzard-Gordon, Concepción and, Roscow and Dratch (in Moss, 2000). Moss's first

semester proved to be more difficult than predicted. The students expected to master modern dance immediately and became frustrated and angry, giving up easily and feeling that what was being asked of them was impossible to execute. After receiving anonymous critique from the students, Moss used more Latin and African music while incorporating more Latin social and African dance steps among other things to her class. It is important to remember that there are vast movement possibilities and styles in modern dance. Dancers are able to derive inspiration from many sources to create a movement vocabulary to suit their own expressive needs. Moss's revision of her syllabus validated the assertions by Biehler and Snowman (in Moss, 2000) that a teacher can significantly improve student performance, self-esteem and student teacher interactions, by allowing students to demonstrate specific movement skills from their own cultures.

Dancing is an activity that feels good most of the time for many people who participate in it. Our culture's diminishment of sensory pleasure is one reason that all the arts have been devalued. Simultaneously students who have danced in recreational settings outside of school and value dance because of its "feels-good" quality feel resistant when dancing in educational settings where more is expected, and not all of what it offers they regard as pleasure (Stinson, 1997).

As a dance teacher at a public school, it is also important to remember that only a small percentage of students come to a dance programme from a dance studio environment in which they followed a specific programme of poise, discipline, technique and presentation. Often dance teachers have been professional dancers, or come from dance studio environments. With such histories of intense training focusing on an art form requiring total dedication to, they believe that public school students will think and behave in the same manner. Sometimes it is successful. The majority of students, however, enter the public school dance programme without a sense of movement respect (movement without harm to oneself or others). For students who are from structured backgrounds, freedom or the lack of defined boundaries can become an overpowering factor. Students who come from environments in which physical and psychological abuse is rife, poorly nurtured or unsupervised homes, or gang-orientated surroundings may also be motivated by survival instincts when moving, and not by movement trust (Willis, 1995a).

In the Vancouver School District in which Willis (1995b) teaches, many students experience physical and emotional difficulties. Movement-trust, respect for others and the use of the body and expression of feelings and emotions is often foreign and threatening to many students. It was discovered that a safe environment in which students could develop a sense of freedom to move without fear of physical and emotional harm needed to be established, and activities designed to allow students to work in personal and general space with emphasis on ensuring movement trust and class discussions. Another factor of socio-economic status in the dance class was clothing. It was therefore decided that students were to wear clothing that was safe and permitted freedom of movement, such as comfortable sweat pants, shorts, tennis shoes and a T-shirt.

Grayson and Martin (in Willis, 1995b, p. 18) state that:

By focusing on collaboration and person-ness, teachers can help students become self-sustaining, self-managing, self-regulating, and self-actualising in an atmosphere of excitement, discovery, artistry and achievement. Such a classroom climate nurtures healthy self-concepts.

Gardner (in Stinson, 1997) speaks of the importance of engagement for students in project and work. Additionally, Gardner maintains that the arts can be viewed as good testing grounds for activities requiring engagement. This being due to many members of the educational fraternity not caring much about them, therefore teachers can risk taking chances.

Guidelines for a healthy dance learning environment

An increasing number of children and adolescents do not have a family member who provides the guidance and care that the youths needs to learn and thrive. High school students who were subjects in Stinson's (1993b) research in North Carolina told her that knowing that a teacher really cared was the most significant factor affecting their commitment in class. The caring aspect is reiterated by Kahlich (in Stinson, 1993a) who suggests that today's schools require a complete re-conceptualised vision of teaching by identifying three primary roles, namely those of: facilitator, catalyst for change, and a caring person. The students commented that one way their dance teachers differed from other teachers was that they clearly showed they cared. They also, however, pointed out that some teachers of other subjects cared, but could not show it because most of them had too many students

(in comparison to the 2 to 15 per class in dance), and were required to cover so much more material that the content became more important than the students.

Teachers as caring persons are taken for granted. However, teachers should not only care about students, they also need to care for students. Caring for is more than affect or feeling. Caring means responding and doing something. It takes time to provide care, whether for a child, adolescent, or young adult. Such time is unfortunately not available when too much is taken on (Stinson, 1993b).

Unfortunately due to vast differences in cultural and socio-economic backgrounds of student populations, there is no tried and true method for dance education in public schools. Many approaches to class management exist. Teachers may find it necessary to experiment with several approaches to find what works best for them and their students. There are, however, certain factors to consider in establishing a healthy learning environment and a satisfying experience for teachers and students alike. It is important that dance is taught and experienced from the perspective of respect and understanding. The dance educator who is aware of diversity and the factors that influence the learning environment, can tailor an effective dance programme for such a dance population (Willis, 1995a).

To develop students' artistry, dance teachers must possess the knowledge and skill about what, and how it is to be taught (Overby, 1993). The instructional phase of the dance lesson either contributes to a sense of accomplishment or disappointment for teacher and students. Successful instruction involves teacher and students mutually engaging in the process and culmination of a true dance experience (Werner, Sweeting, Woods & Jones, 1992). One of the effective keys to teaching dance is to find the specific level of difficulty at which the students are challenged, but are not overwhelmed (Moss, 2000). Frustration arises when instruction leads to random fragmentation of the dance so that students cannot perform a complete sequence. Steps and group formations that are developmentally inappropriate add to exercises that are not meaningful to the learner. The class climate should be structured so as to encourage concentration and work-like behaviour with students' communication being focused on the lesson. With beginner egocentric learners, individual work is generally advisable. With group work, it is advantageous to allow students to choose their own partners. Students should be guided through sequences focusing on

awareness of direction, level, pathway, plane and extension. As experience is gained, levels of complexity can be added such as awareness of effort of actions of time, force, space and flow relationships that occur in movement with respect to body parts, individuals and groups (Werner et al., 1992).

To maintain a safe learning environment, dance educators must guide students to make positive behaviour choices that foster respect for another's body, space and ideas. The groundwork for a positive learning environment, such as general rules and boundaries, must be established and discussed with the students during the initial class of a dance course and reinforced in every class. To encourage students to become aware of and take responsibility for their own actions, teachers should discuss how they could harm others physically or emotionally by inappropriate movements in the dance class. In such an atmosphere, movement trust can slowly develop. Such rules help develop people who are responsible for themselves and respect others.

Discipline is a manner of teaching students to claim responsibility for their actions. Students need to be guided, so as to make positive behaviour choices from within clearly defined boundaries (Willis, 1995b). When students are taught new skills, or provided with opportunities of some form of movement activity, an image or idea is often provided of how to correctly perform these tasks to achieve the desired outcome. The experience is, however, incomplete unless students' kinaesthetically listen to their bodies and feel the differences such activities produce internally (Oliver & Garrison, 1996). When responsible behaviour choices are made and students are taught to recognise what is special and unique about themselves, emphasising the importance of understanding how others feel, values of self-esteem, self-worth, self-control and self-confidence are nurtured. By developing the aforementioned, students are taught the necessary coping skills to merge into a larger pluralistic society (Leigh, 1994; Willis, 1995b).

Educators seem to spend very little time encouraging students to think about what an activity feels like (Oliver & Garrison, 1996). It is as if the vocabulary is lacking to communicate the other side of the dance to others. Such a vocabulary includes our inner activities and feelings, as well as our reflections on them. As one becomes aware of the feelings associated with physical activity, one's habits can become more

conscious and hopefully more intelligent (Oliver & Garrison, 1996). This could be observed when the *National Endowment for the Arts* began the *Arts Impact Programme* in 1969, which later became the *Artists in the Schools (AIS) Programme* (Lee, 1993). Lee (1993) found in a school in Salt Lake City, where she was conducting a dance residency, that school attendance increased. When students were tested on concepts explored through dance they scored higher on written and oral tests. Teachers commented that students who were previously hesitant to answer questions and participate in activities gained confidence through positive reinforcement in the dance class, and that this increased self-esteem was transferred into the classroom.

Gardener, co-ordinator of *Project Zero* at the Harvard Graduate School of Education, states that cognitive research validates that students possess different kinds of minds and thus learn, remember, perform and understand in different manners. What is said in the arts often cannot be said in any other fashion. To suppress artistic means of understanding is as much of a wrongdoing as to withhold the understanding of mathematics (Lee, 1993).

Feedback in dance

Feedback motivates students to continue striving towards a goal and illustrates how well they are doing in reaching an established performance goal (Overby, 1993). It is important to remember that assessment of performance in dance is principally qualitative. The aim is not how many sequences or dance steps the students are taught, but how well they can perform them (Werner et al., 1992). Feedback that is known as a process variable, is classed as sensory or augmented.

Sensory feedback provides students with information provided by their own senses; that what is seen, felt, heard and touched. Such information helps correct errors during performance. Augmented feedback is externally presented information. Teachers provide such information about movements that have just been executed, providing students with performance information. Augmented feedback provides information about the success of the movement being executed or just completed and/or what must be done on a following one (Magill, 1993).

Unfortunately there are many complex factors involved in the teaching/learning process. In a dynamic situation such as a dance class for instance, it is not possible to accurately identify all the variables affecting student engagement and consequently control all but one or two, even with an empirical study. By standardising dance instruction so as to control a single variable, the responsiveness of students to an environment essential for good teaching would not be possible (Stinson, 1997).

Goal setting

Goal setting is known as the final process variable. Goal setting is the level of performance on a task that is determined for a person to achieve in the short- or long-term future. It can help motivate and focus students efforts (Magill, 1993). An individual global, whole-body image may be easier to focus on in the earlier stages of learning, versus several simultaneous or successive images or technical instructions (Skinner, Davis, Metcalf & Wheeler, 1979).

Whatever goals the teacher or students are working on, they must be clear and precise, although they may be complex. Positive results must be focused on rather than possible negative occurrences. It is important to focus on the desired behaviours and changes in body parts, on what one is aiming to achieve, opposed to focusing on errors that should be avoided (Hanrahan, 1995). It is vital to be motivated to achieve the best performance possible and to be aware of the need to exert personal maximum effort at all times. Goal setting assists students in the attainment of the aforementioned (Magill, 1993).

Magill (1993) identified seven goal-setting guidelines to assist students and teachers during the dance class:

1. Set goals to enhance skill mastery by focusing on learning to perform skills well as an individual versus with others.
2. Establish objective goals that have a specific number or time frame.
3. Set meaningful goals and ensure students know why a goal is important.
4. Set attainable goals. Goals set too high contribute to weaker performance in comparison to more realistic goals.

5. Set goals according to individual differences to suit the capabilities and personality of students.
6. Set goals on the foundation of previous experiences, such as why performance levels have been reached, in addition to the amount of improvement associated with those performance levels.
7. Set short- and long-term goals. Short-term goals provide immediate feedback about progress, versus long-term goals providing an ultimate goal that becomes the focus of performance and the performance standard on which comparisons can be made for setting and adjusting short-term goals.

With the goal-setting guidelines by Magill (1993) kept in mind, it is important to remember that the design of instruction should be based on the nature of the skill to be learned, the status of the student, and what is known about the learning process. It is in this manner that systematically designed instruction can be produced to suit both specific skill and individual learners (Stallings, 1982).

Conclusion

Focus on the workings of healthy social interactions has become an imperative from within the field of dance education. A review of dance education literature reveals that social skill building is identified as an important contribution of dance to students' general education. How dance accomplishes this, however, is lacking to a great extent (Yoder, 1993). Social skills and attitudes are necessary to cope with contemporary society. Such specific social skills have been identified by the North Carolina department of Public Instruction in their *The Tender Handbook, Arts Education K-12* (Yoder, 1993). They are defined as: a positive attitude toward self and others including those from different cultures; a sense of independence and responsibility for self; an understanding of self and one's culture; respect for the rights of others; willingness to co-operate with others by working towards a common goal, and the ability to understand and; cope with an ever-changing society.

It is important to avoid treating dance education like a medicine that is good for students so as to make dance appear more like other school subjects. The significance of pleasure and enjoyment in dance needs to be acknowledged, and

strategies used to make it more likely for students to experience it as satisfying on both levels. Adolescents who do not know how to execute a specific movement, and therefore fail in the performance of it, rarely find such an experience a pleasant one. Adolescents who are told to improvise a dance without having an idea of how to go about it will be likely not to actively participate in the activity. Strategies that give students the optimum chance for success, if they are to experience pleasure in moving and in knowing, need to be utilised (Stinson, 1997).

Self-defence as a life skill

It is a popular opinion that the state of a nation can be revealed by how it treats its elderly, its women and children. With the daily reports of violent acts committed against women and children it can be seen as crucial that all means are brought into action to protect these targets (Kahn in Oosthuizen, 1999). Sexual assault is considered a serious problem, particularly for the youth (Heyden, Anger, Jackson & Ellner, 1999).

Rape exerts forces of control, power and violence over its victim and affects women all over the world (Smith, no date). The origin of the word rape is from the Latin "rapere", referring to the act of stealing, seizing or carrying away (Horos, in Smith, no date: 2). Rape is described as the act of having sexual relations with another person obtained through physical force, threat or intimidation. Legislation tends to vary among countries regarding its legal definition of rape, however, in general they commonly refer to it as being sexual intercourse against the will of the victim. To date many rapes go unreported because of fear, guilt and shame (Smith, no date). Oosthuizen (1999) reports that over one thousand women were raped each day in South Africa, and that this figure was based on reported cases multiplied by an estimate that only one out of every twelve women report rape.

Mobilising targets by providing them with tools such as non-combative self-defence techniques can play a role in reducing the effect of violent attacks and rape on the youth and adolescent girls (Oosthuizen, 1999). Self-defence training can also contribute to psychological health. Heyden et al. (1999) believe that physical edu-

tors can play a significant role in preventing sexual assault through the promotion of self-defence training.

Physical and psychological effects of rape

Resisting rape is a poorly researched area. While the effects of rape on the victim have been described, and fairly reliable data are available on the prevalence of sexual assault against women, not much research has been done on the use of and effectiveness of various anti-rape strategies (Heyden et al., 1999). In addition to the physical trauma of the rape itself, the physical effects of rape may include pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases. Murphy (in Heyden et al., 1999) estimates that there is disease transmission in 4 to 30 percent of rape.

While the physical effects of rape can be serious, the psychological impact is often much worse and persistent. Symptoms from the psychological devastation listed by Koss (in Heyden et al., 1999) include: difficulties with interpersonal relations; fear of intercourse and intimacy; major depressions; alcohol or drug abuse; anxiety; obsessive-compulsive disorders, and; posttraumatic stress disorder.

The fear of assault also affects women who have not been raped, by preventing many women from engaging in activities such as jogging or attending night classes (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993). The fear of assault in public places therefore can be seen as infringing on women's ability to participate effectively in public life.

Why rape happens

Rape is the use of sexuality to express control; not a means to gain sexual satisfaction. Some men strengthen their masculinity by expressing contempt for women.

Rapist offender: I had to finish it, had to hurry up and get away from it, and having sex itself wasn't enjoyable (Levine & Koenig in Smith, no date: 4).

Such men feel inadequate within themselves as people. The more insecure such a man is the more he inflates the qualities he associates with masculinity such as aggression, brutality and violence. Such men have the inability to regard women as

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human beings, to them they are objects and are there to serve them. Society fuels these views by many men being raised mainly with their mothers serving them, followed by their girlfriends and their wives continuing with behaviours they regard as their duties.

Rapists see themselves as sexual aggressors in all situations. They are ultimately self-centred in their approach to sex. For the rapists pleasure is not of primary importance during the sexual act of rape. Sex is identified with power and is an act fuelled by anger and revenge. Common personality traits for a rapist are: aggression, lack of respect for others and the linking of women to objects. The act of rape is performed purely for self-gratification and the claiming of the prize. The prize being the act of intimacy which he believes the woman guards and the man has to win from her. With the act of rape, the rapist simply believes he is taking the prize without paying for it and getting the best of her. In his mind she has made a false move in the game men and women play and it makes sense for him to take advantage of it.

It is important to remember that there is no typical rapist, nor is there a typical victim. A rapist cannot be picked out from a crowd. He is an everyday man. Physical attributes, dress and occupation do not signal to warn one of their presence. He can for example be a boyfriend, doctor, father, friend, priest, grandfather or teacher. Rape also comes in all forms such as by: blackmail, social pressure, financial pressure, and harassment at work (Smith, no date).

Society and rape

Rape takes place within a society and cannot be treated or analysed apart from the framework of social attitudes and practices in which it is embedded. If rape is a social act it can be eradicated through social change. Society is geared from day one to establish and reinforce specific behaviour roles for boys and girls, especially regarding physical strength. Girls grow up in a society that operates from a male point of view; they are not taught how to resist male intimidation and violence.

Society in general usually sees women as dependent people. Women are made to feel that being weak is being attractive, being helpless as being appealing, and that is

the foundation on which she is accepted into society. Society teaches girls not to play rough, hit back or hurt somebody. Many women have been socialised from an early age on that they are weaker than men, and by believing that they are physically vulnerable, may submit to rape even though they are in fact quite capable of resisting the rape attack.

Society expects boys to be strong and be able to fight back. Conquest and power are feats a male must master so as to play a dominant role. Insecurities within boys, as well as misconceptions regarding sex fuels internal frustration. This anger and hatred is re-directed towards society in an aggressive and violent manner and in turn more directly towards women and perhaps even the lesser male. In this form he is able to express his hatred, power and humiliate others for his inadequacies. Although society contributes towards men turning into rapists, it still does not give them the right to rape, as no person has the right to take a life. Society can help educate people towards a better understanding, acceptance and appreciation of one another (Smith, no date).

Rape patterns

Confidence rape

Confidence rape is viewed as the most common pattern of rape. The rapist goes out of his way to strike up a conversation with the intended victim. The key is the use of verbal persuasion to gain access to the victim compared to that of physical force. The rapist attempts to form some kind of relationship with the victim, so as to be accepted by her. Confidence is the key word to this rape pattern. Once it has been gained it is breached. Communication with the rapist, be it over a period of ten seconds or ten months, is the factor that can contribute to the victim being taken by surprise.

Blitz rape

The blitz rape occurs with no prior warning, and without any previous contact between rapist and victim. The rapist appears unexpectedly, he is not encouraged, and forces himself into the situation. He may wear clothes to disguise himself, or cover the victim's face, and may also carry a weapon. The rapist purposefully looks for someone to take prisoner and abuse. Whatever woman happens to cross his

path first becomes the target. The rape is a fast and furious act and there is minimal communication between rapist and victim. Communication will only irritate the rapist.

Fantasy rape

In this style of rape, the rapist could be observing his victim for weeks whilst fantasising about the rape. Through the act of rape he no longer feels the affliction of the weak, submissive male he sees himself as. His fantasies revolve around a woman who resists him and suddenly gives in to him, realising how much she actually wants him, and them beginning a loving relationship. His dreams revolve around the impossible. In his day-to-day living he is unable to have a normal sex life. Rape is the means by which he can control an intimate situation. Fantasy rapists are rarely violent towards their victim and most probably will apologise to the victim after the assault.

Anger Rape

In some instances it is highly evident that sexuality becomes a means to express and release feelings of extreme anger, discontent, frustration and hatred. The trade mark of anger rape is depicted by excessive brutality. The anger rape pattern follows one of: the victim being beaten; tearing of clothes; throwing to the ground; use of abusive and blasphemous language; repeated rape or forcing the victim to submit to additional degrading acts. This style of rape occurs spontaneously and is not premeditated.

Power rape

With power rape the offender employs whatever force is necessary to be able to rape his victim and control her. The rapist gains access to his victim through verbal threats, intimidation with a weapon, and or physical force so as to force her into a situation where she cannot refuse or resist him. Such control feeds the offender's sense of power, strength and security. The act of power rape counterbalances underlying feelings of inadequacy, vulnerability and helplessness.

Sadistic rape

The sadistic rapist gains satisfaction through sexual abuse of his victim with the eroticism of aggression. The attack is brutal, planned and calculated. The victim is

followed, caught and sometimes even murdered. As the rape proceeds, the rapist's excitement increases as he inflicts increasing pain, and the victim's fear elevates. The acts of control, degradation, pain and destruction fuels the offender's actions and height of excitement.

Date rape

In many cases of assault the victim knows the assailant. Date rape is an example of such a case. The offender uses his relationship with the victim to abuse her trust and illusion of safety with him.

Gang rape

Gang rape involves group participation. The group's actions are violent, brutal and dehumanising towards the victim. Gang rape offenders tend to harbour feelings of inadequacy concerning their social and working environment. The group abides by a specific assault pattern in which the leader of the group usually instigates or begins the act of rape, thereby encouraging by example the other's behaviour.

Many of the aforementioned rape styles overlap or are used in combination. The majority of rapes are, however, carried out in women's homes by men who are known to them (Smith, no date).

The effectiveness of forceful resistance to attempted rape

Crime prevention is the technique of disposal of opportunities for the execution of crime. Regarding self-defence, a great deal depends on the individual's reaction when put in an actual risk situation, however, those who struggle will at least have a specific plan of action by knowing where to hit and kick and how to do so effectively. The defences taught presume serious attacks. Only drastic defences can effectively drive back such attacks. If one fights back one must be prepared to injure the offender. The self-defence techniques are therefore to be treated seriously and not to be utilised for minor social upsets. They are to be used when there is a serious attempt at abuse, physical assault and rape (Oosthuizen, 1999).

In their review of literature, Heyden et al. (1999) came to some surprising conclusions about the effectiveness of traditional anti-rape advice. Women are often advised to use non-aggressive strategies when they find themselves in a situation where the threat of sexual assault exists. Women are sometimes told that fighting back will increase their risk of injury. A woman who does not resist is virtually guaranteed to suffer the emotional and physical injury of the rape itself. Research suggests that this is poor advice. Even when resisters are injured, their injuries are generally much less severe than a completed rape victims would have been (Kleck & Sayles, 1990).

Forceful verbal resistance, including yelling and loud screaming, was more effective than non-forceful verbal resistance. The study by Quinsey and Upfold (in Heyden et al., 1999) was particularly interesting because the data were collected from rapists in maximum security psychiatric hospitals, showing that forceful verbal strategies can be effective even against the violently insane. Running was found to be even more effective in comparison to verbal resistance. In a study by Bart and O'Brien (1985) they indicated that only 15 percent of women who attempted to flee were raped. Kleck and Sayles (in Heyden et al., 1999) reported that forceful physical resistance was an extremely successful strategy. The completed rape rate dropped to between 45 percent and 14 percent when the rapist's attempt was met with violent physical force. A woman who fights back suffers no evident chance of additional injury, but she gains a 55 to 86 percent chance of avoiding rape altogether.

If resistance did not prevent the rape from occurring, it can still yield important benefits. A woman who does not resist may not be viewed sympathetically, nor her trauma be treated as seriously as a victim who fights back. Society so often responds to a rape victim by insinuating that she was looking for it, even though she only opened the door because somebody knocked, or was sleeping in her own bed, in her own home when the rapist broke into her home (Heyden et al., 1999; Smith, no date).

The aforementioned strategies on their own may be very successful, however, combinations such as yelling and fighting, or yelling, fighting and fleeing further increases the chances of avoiding rape (Bart & O'Brien, 1985).

Psychological benefits of self-defence training

From an educational standpoint, one of the most obvious benefits of self-defence training is that it teaches girls and women to use the most effective means to reduce the risk of rape and avoid threats to their physical and psychological well-being. In addition to this, Harding and Nelson (1985) reported that self-defence students become more: confident, analytical, and aware. Concrete advice and skills lead to empowerment, whilst vague warnings and sole dependence on avoidance leads to fear. Fear can be seen as a constrictor to an active and healthy lifestyle. Henderson and Bialeschki (1993) state that the benefits of self-defence training are especially of value due to it contributing to the decrease of fear and apprehension.

Self-defence training has many similarities to martial arts training. A review of literature by Heyden et al. (1999) concludes that increased assertiveness, confidence, self-esteem, relaxation, and concentration, as well as decreased anxiety all result from martial arts training. The aforementioned effects, along with decreased aggression and improved social skills, were apparent in two studies by Fuller (in Heyden et al., 1999) of adolescent boys who were exposed to relatively short courses of self-defence instruction. Concerning girls, a survey by Bourdreau, Folman and Konzak (in Heyden et al., 1999), of over 270 children enrolled in karate classes in Toronto, suggests that whilst boys gain significant benefits from instruction, the positive effects enjoyed by girls exceeded theirs and parental expectations. A universal improvement in self-confidence and self-discipline was illustrated and additionally female students experienced physical and academic improvement about double that of boys.

The role of the educator

Children and teenagers are the age groups most at risk for sexual assault. The impact of rape on youth can be particularly severe, and has been linked with an increased risk of re-victimisation in later life (Gidycz, Hanson & Layman, 1995). It was found that college rape intervention programmes were more effective at preventing initial attacks versus reducing the rate of re-victimisation in women who had previously been sexually abused (Hanson & Gidycz, 1993; Himelein, 1995).

Therefore, by providing the youth with self-defence training, the risk of becoming an initial rape victim decreases drastically and places them in lower-risk categories in their later adult life. Rape prevention programmes generally have stressed discussion and education about rape myths, the prevalence of sexual assault, and sexual assault prevention.

The reluctance of academics to advocate the use of forceful verbal or physical resistance to rape in these programmes may be due to several factors. Perhaps it is because of a limited academic research base surrounding this topic. Studies on the effectiveness of self-defence strategies typically appear in criminology and law-enforcement journals, where health- and physical educators may easily overlook them.

Concerning the question if educators should advocate active resistance to sexual assault; research indicates that vigorous verbal and physical resistance significantly increases the chances that a woman will not be raped. It must, however, be stressed that the choice to resist assault is not the only correct choice, it is a personal decision that can only be made by the victim being attacked. The role of the educator should be that of presenting sufficient information to enable students to make an informed decision (Heyden et al., 1999).

Behaviour in an attack situation

In a situation where one needs to defend oneself it is important to stay as calm as possible. It is important to remember that the surface in the area one will find oneself in will never be as smooth as the area in which techniques were practised in. Therefore, self-defence techniques must be applied precisely and accurately, with power and speed. Success relies on the speed, timing, control and the surprise components of one's counterattack so as to eliminate the initiative from the attacker. One should never feel oneself as being weak. Under no circumstances allow for a position of deliberate weakness, for the offender will never excuse it. Once one has established that one must fight, one has to be prepared to be aggressive, fight until the attacker is incapacitated, unconscious or one has the opportunity to get away from the attacker.

Body movement and positioning is of utmost importance when being attacked. When a self-defence technique is executed, the feet and legs must stand firm to ensure the proper foundation for the counter attack. The concentration of force at the end of the counter-attack must be performed with total commitment and there must be no hesitation. The victim needs to attack and block with conviction, for her life is at stake. The body must be moved as a whole and not in isolated parts so as to achieve maximum force at the end of a move. It should never be assumed that the first response will resolve the situation, therefore one needs to be prepared to continue one's action with continued attack.

It is thus of the utmost importance that the techniques are practised regularly so as to automate the responses. The attacker should never be underestimated for he is extremely powerful, and has the ability to seriously hurt the victim (Oosthuizen, 1999; Smith, no date).

The human body as a weapon in self-defence

The response to an attack involves the examination of alternatives and the decision as to the best course of self-defensive action. The counter-attack may take on the form of a: closed fist chop; chop with the edge of the hand; cupped hands hit over ears; heel of palm to nose; foot, knee, elbow, head, locks, throws, strangleholds, teeth, finger nails and; immobilising holds. The option chosen depends on a variety of circumstances and conditions that are predominant at the time. Of primary importance is the willingness and desire to stop the attacker. It is important to remember that people all have tremendous reserves of potential energy, strength and intellect that they do not attempt to use, or are aware of.

Common items as weapons in self-defence

The assailants attack can take on various forms. In addition to using weapons of varying forms, an unarmed attack can additionally take on various forms such as seizing, striking, holding arms or onto of clothing, choking, hugging, kicking, punching, or tackling. All attacks made with a weapon such as a knife, gun, spade, chain, razor etc. are extremely dangerous situations. It is important for the defendant to remain outside of the weapon's swing radius, and only to get inside of the radius when the weapon can do no great damage, and the offender can be effectively attacked.

The human body as a target

The most vulnerable body areas of the attacker should be targeted. The weakest points of a man are his: eyes, throat and groin in addition to the face, ears, ribs, knees, shins, feet and kidneys. The average male can handle punches to his mid-section, therefore it is not advisable to target the mid-section unless a strong elbow or kicking technique can be applied (Oosthuizen, 1999; Smith, no date).

Conclusion

Sexual assault is a complex phenomenon that has no simple solution, and is a trauma capable of devastating a victim's life in a physical, psychological, social and sexual context. Legal reform, a generational change in attitudes and much else will be required to permanently reduce the statistics of this crime.

Self-defence means as the soft-targets of society, women, can feel confident to stand up for themselves. Self-defence training on its own, however, is not the solution to the problem. Boys and girls should be taught about human relationships that are shared between two people. By educating them to communicate, accept others and nurture the development of the individuals character and talents. Real strength lies within. Girls and boys can develop inner strength that is meaningful and can be shared.

Self-defence training, however, offers a chance to do something significant for students, something that may provide benefits long after most of them have completed secondary or even higher education. Flight, fighting back, and the use of the voice are strategies that will help students avoid the grave long term effects of rape victimisation (Bart & O'Brien, 1985; Heyden et al., 1999; Smith, no date).

Swimming as a life skill

Individuals of all ages who learn how to swim will be helped to find the joy of independence in the water by that of safety. It will broaden the horizons of many

individuals existence, for courage and determination can contribute to greater independence. The sheer exuberance of discarding the physical burden needed for life on land on entering the water, can in itself be a satisfying achievement. Such a sense of personal freedom and achievement can be a considerable moral booster for everyday life.

The swimming component of the intervention programme was based on the *Halliwick Method* (Association of Swimming Therapy, 1992). Work on this approach to swimming instruction initially began in 1949 in London at the Halliwick School, after which the method was named. The *Halliwick Method* continues to be developed to this day. The method is based on the scientific principles of: hydrostatics, hydrodynamics and body mechanics. It is, however, not a static manner of teaching, for it develops as its members evolve their own skills and share their discoveries. The activities which the method teaches include skills such as: feeling at home in the water; breath control; understanding how upthrust and turbulence affect an individual, and how to respond to it; balance; sculling, and; the mastery of basic strokes. The recreational aspect of swimming is kept in the forefront so that classes are fun, practical and constructive. Participants are usually taught as part of a small group led by an instructor/group leader. Group work makes learning more fun.

Guidelines for beginners

Swimming should be fun. It is therefore vital that the initial instruction participants receive at the poolside, from the instructor, is friendly and patient. Such an introduction will provide the foundation on which an individual's confidence can be built. Without such confidence, individuals progress will be slow and they may soon cease attending lessons.

Instructors need to remember that the amount of noise and activity in the pool can be threatening to those who have never swum before. An individual may thus need two or three visits and much encouragement before entering into the pool. A nervous individual will need some assistance to recognise his/her potential ability in the water. It is vital for the instructor to teach safety skills first and foremost so as to ensure that the swimmer feels he/she can trust the support that the water provides, and rely on the instructors assistance. On the opposite side of the scale there are those

individuals who lack an understanding of the danger and depth of water. Strict poolside rules need to be established and enforced so as to protect such pupils from placing themselves and others in grave danger.

Instructors

Instructors who do not communicate, provide incorrect support, or prevent swimmers progress towards independence will not gain their pupils trust and confidence. Such shortcomings will close the door to an area of social and competitive activities that their previous lack of skill in the water prevented them from doing. An instructor must remain with the newcomer, until he/she is assessed as safe and independent in the water.

Instructors need to be proficient enough in their skills to be able to teach by example. It is important that they: understand the mechanics of being in the water; are aware of personal body positions; understand the importance of breath control, and; understand how movement patterns are created and controlled.

Disengagement

Individuals should slowly be encouraged to reduce their reliance on the instructor and become more independent in the water. Whilst no skill can initially be taught without assistance, it is important to remember that no skill can be fully mastered and used if help is constantly at hand. The aim is that of physical and mental disengagement. Even when no help is needed, the swimming instructor should constantly be alert, without the swimmer necessarily being aware of it. A nervous swimmer may initially rely on eye contact for reassurance and security. It is a big step toward disengagement when swimmer and instructor can face the same direction, while maintaining physical contact.

Swimmers should be prevented from becoming too attached to a specific instructor. Activities involving the interaction of other pupils and instructors can assist in preventing this form occurring. Group activities, where swimmers support each other under close supervision, further encourage disengagement. Such interaction encourages independence and responsibility toward others (Association of Swimming Therapy, 1992).

Chapter Seven

Research Methodology

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence that a movement and life skill programme had on the self-esteem of previously disadvantaged, at-risk adolescent girls. It was also ascertained whether the intervention programme had successfully contributed to the girls utilising the life skills in the movement division of the programme and cognitively transferring them to their everyday life activities. The 21 skills that made up the life skill development intervention strategies were taken from Danish et al.'s (1993) listing of valuable life skills across different settings. Included in this chapter is a description of the design of the study, the procedures followed in order to validate the potential of these strategies, and how the data were analysed, and qualitative research interpreted.

Design

The study involved an experimental research design. This consisted of pre-testing of a quantitative nature, of both an experimental and control group, followed by the intervention programme for the experimental group. After the intervention programme was completed, post-testing of both groups using the same criteria took place. The quantitative component of the study investigated possible changes in self-esteem prior to and after the intervention had taken place. In addition to this the experimental group completed an open-ended questionnaire which made up the qualitative component of the research analysis. The qualitative component of the study was utilised to investigate the utilisation of the life skills dealt with during the intervention programme in the experimental subjects' everyday life- and movement experiences.

To investigate changes in self-esteem Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children* was used as the measurement instrument for this study. The motivation for selecting this instrument was that current approaches to understanding self-structure emphasise multiple components of the self (Sonstroem & Morgan, 1989). Self-esteem research examines both global and domain-specific self-conceptions in an effort to ascertain how individuals perceive and value themselves (Marsh, 1987). Harter's (1985) instrument is ideal to use, for it was specifically designed for children and measures six sub-scales of self-competence/esteem. Her instrument with its multidimensional nature therefore reflects contemporary research on self-esteem.

To investigate if the experimental subjects had utilised the life skills taught during the programme in the different movement divisions, (modern dance, swimming and self-defence) and if a cognitive transferral of skills to their everyday environment had taken place, the qualitative approach was decided on. This approach was based on research findings indicating that skills secured in one domain do not automatically transfer to others (Auerbach, 1986; Danish & Nellen, 1997; Meichenbaum & Turk, 1987). For transference to take place, individuals need to become aware that they have skills and qualities that are of value in other settings (Danish & Nellen, 1987). The investigator acknowledges that the girls that took part in the programme may have had different stories to tell if they had completed the *Life Skill Questionnaire* at a different time, as is reported by Stinson (1997) with her personal interpretative research study. The investigator's understanding of the girls' participation in the movement programme and their utilisation of the 21 life skills, therefore can unfortunately only be partial and never complete.

Measurement instruments

Two measurement instruments were used to collect quantitative data and qualitative data. Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children* was used to measure pre- and post-intervention self-esteem scores for the control and experimental groups. This instrument has previously been used in research on sports participation. A second

measurement instrument, designed by the investigator, was used to analyse if there had been a cognitive transferral of the life skills used in the movement programme from the movement experience to everyday life activities.

Self-perception Profile for Children

Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children* is an objective self-report measure designed to assess self-esteem. It is a multidimensional assessment instrument for it includes sub-scales for six self-perception dimensions of self-esteem. Sub-scales were used due to individuals viewing themselves very differently in the six dimensions. The six dimensions consist of: athletic competence, physical appearance, social acceptance, behavioural conduct, scholastic competence, and global self-worth. Each of these dimensions are regarded as separate sub-scales of self-esteem:

- The sub-scale of *athletic competence* measures perceived sporting ability.
- The sub-scale of *perceived physical appearance* measures physical self-descriptions.
- The sub-scale of *social acceptance* measures perceived peer group acceptance.
- The sub-scale of *behavioural conduct* measures perceived sociability.
- The sub-scale of *scholastic competence* measures perceived academic ability.
- The sub-scale of *global self-worth* measures an individual's overall liking of themselves.

The reliability and validity of the *Self-perception Profile for Children* have been demonstrated for the six sub-scales. The average internal consistency reliability scores for the different scales, which were calculated from four samples, and presented by Harter (1985, p. 12) (in Rose, Larkin & Berger, 1997) are:

- Athletic competence, $r = .83$.
- Perceived physical appearance, $r = .80$.
- Social acceptance, $r = .78$.
- Behavioural conduct, $r = .74$.
- Scholastic competence, $r = .82$.
- Global self-worth, $r = .80$.

There are six items per sub-scale presented in the structured-alternative format on the inventory. The selection of an item is completed in two steps. Firstly the respondent chooses between two opposing statements such as, "some girls do very well at all kinds of sports," "other girls do not feel that they are very good when it comes to sport," and then decides which of the two is more like them. Secondly the respondent must decide whether the choice he/she made is "sort of true" or really true" for him/her. An example of an athletic competence item is as follows:

	Really true for me	Sort of true for me			Sort of true for me	Really true for me
1.	π	π	Some girls do very well at all kinds of sports	BUT	Other girls do not feel that they are very good when it comes to sport	π

Depending on the choice made by the respondent, a rating 1 to 4 is ascribed to an item score. 1 reflects the lowest level of perceived competence and 4 the highest level in an area. Summing the scores from the six individual items per sub-domain provides one with the respondent's profile of self-perception within the specific category. For the purpose of this study, the Harter (1985) inventory was translated into Afrikaans, the home language of the girls who participated in this programme (see Appendix A).

Assessment of cognitive transferral of life skills

An open-ended questionnaire was designed by the investigator to assess if there had been a cognitive transferral of the life skills used in the movement programme from the movement experience to everyday life activities. The questionnaire was drawn up using 21 life skills that have been identified by Danish (in Danish et al., 1993), a counselling psychologist working in sport settings, and his colleagues, Petitpas and Hale. These skills are considered as being valuable across settings such as sporting and everyday life environments. The thirteen girls in the experimental group were asked to comment individually on each of the 21 life skills covered during the programme concerning their personal use of such skills during the movement divisions of the programme, and if they

had utilised such a life skill in their everyday life activities. An example of one of the life skill questions is as follows:

- To communicate with others:

Movement programme:

Everyday life activities:

For the purpose of this study, the *Life Skill Questionnaire* was designed in Afrikaans, the home language of the girls who participated in this programme (see Appendix B).

Procedures

The study was conducted during the second half of the year with adolescent girls who were considered at risk due to their geographic location. The following procedures were followed in the implementation of the study.

Subjects

The principal from a secondary school in one of the predominantly “coloured” areas in Stellenbosch, the Western Cape, was approached by the investigator requesting the high-school’s participation in this research project. The investigator had previously built up a rapport with the school through the completion of her Master’s movement intervention project there. A meeting took place in which the details of the study were explained and what positive benefits were hoped to be accomplished by it for its participants. The principal after discussing it with his staff felt that their female students could benefit from the study and arranged for the investigator to meet with the students. It was decided that the programme would start in the first week of their mid-year holidays for the principal felt that there was a severe lack of safe alternatives, other than sitting at home for these girls.

The investigator met with the grade 8 and 9 girls two weeks prior to the winter holidays. The investigator was given 15 minutes before school ended to give a short description of the movement and life skill intervention project. The girls were also informed about the requirements of the research project regarding the times that they would have to be available and that the swimming and self-defence divisions would not be presented at the school, but at the Department of Sport Science of the University of Stellenbosch. The investigator would, however, make arrangements for transportation so as not to lose any possible participants due to transportation difficulties. The details of the pre-and post-intervention testing were also explained. It was made clear to the students that participation in the programme was a voluntary extra mural activity and that they were free to pull out at any time they wanted to.

The interested girls were handed a letter (see Appendix F) to take home to their parents/guardians. The letter contained details of the study and a consent form that had to be signed by the girls' caregivers and returned to the schools secretary before the pre-testing was to take place.

The subjects that volunteered ($N = 21$) were all between the ages of 13 and 16 years. At the beginning of the first introductory class they all completed the pre-test. In this manner the girls would be able to make an informed decision whether they wanted to continue with the movement and life skill programme or not. The experimental group ($n = 13$) consisted of the girls who decided to continue participating after the introductory lesson. The girls who decided that the programme was not for them formed the control group ($n = 8$). They agreed to complete the post-test at the end of the intervention programme.

Pre-testing

All subjects ($N = 21$) completed Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children* on the day of the introductory lesson of the programme, in the first week of the girls' mid-year break. With the help of two external assistants, both whom were familiar with the test and fluent in Afrikaans, the investigator supervised the testing. The testing was conducted in the high school hall at desks, which had been left there from the mid-year

exams. Questions that the girls had about the inventory were answered individually by the investigator or one of the assistants. The completion of Harter's (1985) inventory took the subjects between 30 to 40 minutes, including the time that had been utilised to explain how to properly complete the inventory.

Intervention programme

Movement component

The movement and life skill programme began during the first week of the mid-year school holidays for the experimental group (see Appendix G) and took place over five and a half months. The first division of the movement component of the programme, that of dance, took place 3-4 times a week for the first three weeks of the holiday. The last week of holidays they were given off, for three to four of the girls were unavailable for this period. The dance lessons were all held in the school hall except the last one of the holidays, which was presented at the Department of Sport Science of the University of Stellenbosch. The dance classes during term time were held four times a week with the girls required to attend three of the four lessons. The dance classes were presented by the investigator. Three of the dance classes were, however, taught by an assistant teacher from a Stellenbosch modern dance school (see Appendix I). During the period that dance was presented the girls learnt a floor amalgamation and a dance routine to music they had selected from a variety of choices the investigator had presented to them (see Appendix C). After two months the girls performed a mock dance exam at the Department of Sport Science where two recognised and respected modern dance teachers from Stellenbosch evaluated them (see Appendix I). After completing their exam they were handed their evaluation sheets (see Appendix J) and a certificate from the *Stellenbosch Institute of Sport and Movement Studies* for having completed the first division of the intervention programme by the examiners.

The second division of the movement programme, swimming, took place twice a week in the heated swimming pool at the Department of Sport Science. Transport was arranged by the investigator from and back to the school. The swimming division was presented by an experienced instructor/educator who had previously also worked with at-risk youth. The girls were taught how to be water safe, swim freestyle and backstroke and

rudimentary life saving techniques in 10 lessons (see Appendix E). Out of the 13 girls that took part in the movement component of the intervention programme: 5 possessed no swimming or water safety skills what so ever; 4 had rudimentary swimming skills but were not able to perform deep water skills; 2 possessed average skills, and; 2 were relatively proficient in the water. The investigator assisted with the swimming lessons. After the completion of the swimming division the girls were individually evaluated on various flotation techniques, the freestyle and backstroke kick, freestyle and backstroke, diving and "boat jumping" into deep water. After completing their exam they were handed their evaluation sheets and second certificate.

The third division of the movement programme, self-defence, once again took place at the Department of Sport Science. The workshop was presented by an experienced self-defence instructor/educator in three sessions. The investigator took part and assisted with the workshop. The sessions covered various theoretical aspects of self-defence as well as practical demonstrations and practice of self-defence techniques (see Appendix D). After completing the workshop four more practical sessions were held at the high school so the girls could practise the techniques to ensure smooth and efficient execution of the techniques they had previously been taught. During these four practical sessions a team-building session was held at the Department of Sport Science focusing on various issues surrounding trust and problem-solving issues in a group situation (see Appendix K). At the end of the third division of the movement programme the girls were evaluated on five randomly picked self-defence techniques, which they had to demonstrate with a partner and explain to the examiners. The self-defence instructor and the investigator also asked them a theoretical question. At the end of their exam they were presented with their final evaluation sheets and certificate.

The self-defence division was supposed to complete the movement programme, however, the girls approached the investigator wanting to perform a group dance at the achievers' award evening that was to be held at their high-school. The group dance was taught to the girls and rehearsed at their school for two and a half weeks. Unfortunately the project had to be abandoned due to the school worrying about the investigator's and girls' safety after an attack that had taken place at the school (see Appendix H). The school felt that it was unsafe to use their facilities after school hours with few people

around. The achievers' award evening was also cancelled due to the unsettling violent event that had taken place at the school.

Life skill component

The following 21 life skills were discussed with the subjects who took part in the five and one half month movement programme during lesson time in an informal manner:

- To persevere under pressure
- To be organised
- To meet challenges
- To communicate with others
- To handle both success and failure
- To accept others' values and beliefs
- To be flexible in order to succeed
- To be happy
- To have self-control
- To push yourself to the limit
- To recognise your limitations
- To compete without hatred
- To accept responsibility for your behaviour
- To make a commitment and stick to it
- To accept criticism and feedback in order to learn
- To evaluate yourself
- To make good decisions
- To set and attain goals
- To be able to learn
- To work within a system
- To be self-motivated

(Taken from TABLE 1 from Danish et al., 1993, p. 369)

The life skills were translated into Afrikaans (see Appendix B), the home language of the girls who participated in this programme to prevent confusion due to the language

barrier. These skills were repeatedly dealt with during the dance, swimming and self-defence divisions of the intervention programme.

Research on generalisation of skills indicates that skills acquired in one domain do not automatically transfer to other domains (Auerbach, 1986; Meichenbaum & Turk, 1987). For skills to be transferred across a number of life domains according to Danish et al. (1993) the following factors must be present and were emphasised during the intervention programme:

- Individuals must believe that they have the skills and qualities that are of importance and applicable in other environments. Individuals often do not realise that a vast amount of the skills acquired to perform well in sport are transferable to their everyday activities. It is important to make an individual realise and believe that such life skill qualities are of value, so as to enable transferral.
- Individuals must possess both physical and psychological skills to succeed in a sporting- or non-sporting environment. Individuals need to learn to plan, set goals, make decisions and personally endeavour to find assistance. When individuals consciously are able to recognise that specific mental skills are vital to their success in a sporting environment, they not only improve their physical performance but may transfer such skills to their everyday life activities.
- It is important for an individual to know how and in what framework the physical and mental skills were learned. Life skills can be acquired through formal instruction by naming and explaining their use, demonstrating them and lastly providing opportunities to practise them with continuous feedback (Danish & Hale, 1981). It is important for the individuals to understand how they learnt such a skill and whether they tried to use it in a different framework or environment. To help facilitate this, the life skills were repeatedly presented throughout the dance, swimming and self-defence divisions presented during the programme, to assist subjects in recognising the generalisation of them in the movement field.

- Individuals often lack the confidence in their ability to apply skills in different environments. Such individuals fear that they may not succeed or make fools of themselves in front of others. Most of the thirteen subjects had had minimal to no exposure to the three sporting domains covered during the programme to ensure placement on even footings regarding comparison levels, and to help assist with the application of the skills in new domains under guidance. Domain-specific information can help reduce the unknown and lessen anxiety that may prevent an individual from using a skill.
- Some individuals have so much of their personal identity tied up in their sport that they have little reason or incentive to explore non-sporting roles. Additionally, if they do not think they can be successful in other environments they may avoid exploring other possibilities. Such an outlook can contribute to a limited self-esteem and lack of confidence in their ability to operate successfully in other domains. This factor was not of relevance pertaining to the subjects used for the study, due to them stemming from a non-sporting/movement background. By exposing them to three diverse movement forms, however, it was hoped that by them experiencing success in such diverse fields as individuals it would encourage them to participate in other additional extra curricular activities. Some of the life skill topics handled throughout the programme were more specifically geared towards this angle such as “to meet challenges”, “to communicate with others”, “to take risks” and “to work with people you do not necessarily like”.
- Individuals may have difficulty finding sources of social support to enable them to transfer a skill. Some individuals are under the impression that seeking assistance is a sign of weakness. Different coaches were brought in to present the three movement fields to help eliminate the chances of the subjects becoming accustomed to a single coach as their primary source of support. The subjects were additionally encouraged to personally ask for assistance and not to wait for it, so as to put the responsibility more into their own hands and not that of the coaches. It was hoped that this would assist in the subjects to believe that the seeking of support is a sign of strength and not one of weakness.

- Individuals may have difficulty adjusting to initial failures or setbacks when attempting to transfer a skill to different environments, even though they are valuable in a number of non-sporting environments. By dealing with the life skills in all three movement settings it was hoped that the subjects would learn how to transfer these skills to new domains knowing that it is usually not automatic initially due to them having a lack of information and experience in the new domain necessary to quickly adapt the skills into the new setting.

All the life skills were discussed and covered with the subjects during each of the three movement fields presented during the intervention programme namely: modern dance, swimming and self-defence. The 21 life skills discussed during the intervention programme were mostly aimed at one of the three movement forms being presented at the time. The discussion surrounding life skills and their relevance and application to the subjects' everyday lives was kept to a minimum. This was done so as to see at the end of the programme if a cognitive transferral of the life skills had taken place from the three movement fields presented to the subjects to their everyday lives.

Post-testing

The subjects ($N = 21$) completed the post-test of Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children* three days after the end of the intervention programme. Identical procedures were followed for the post-test as had been used for the pre-test, except that the session was conducted in one of the high school's classrooms. The experimental group ($n = 13$) completed the additional *Life Skill Questionnaire* designed by the investigator in two sessions. The first session took place on the last day of the programme where they were given the first half of the questionnaire (10 questions) to answer. The second half of the questionnaire (11 questions) was answered the day after they had completed Harter's (1985) inventory. This was decided on due to the first half of the questionnaire taking them 45 minutes to complete. It was felt that the answers for the second half would have been laboured or completed hastily otherwise. During the administration of the second measuring instrument, the investigator was not present. The two external assistants supervised the two 45 minute sessions answering

any questions the girls had individually and collecting the written replies as they left the classroom.

Data analysis

The *Self-perception Profile for Children* (Harter, 1985) included six sub-domains of self-esteem, namely: global self-worth, scholastic competence, social acceptance, athletic competence, physical appearance and behavioural conduct. To determine the changes in group mean ratings from pre- to post-test performance on the six self-esteem subscales, separate domain scores were calculated using *Statistica*. A value rating from 1-4 was assigned to an item score, with 1 reflecting the lowest level of perceived competence in an area and 4 reflecting the highest level. Mean scores below 2 are perceived to reflect a low level of perceived competence. Mean scores from about 2-3 reflect an average level of perceived competence, and scores 3 and above reflect a strong level of perceived competence (Hughes, 1984; Wylie, 1989).

After the experimental and control groups' separate dependent-domain scores of self-esteem were calculated with *Statistica*, multivariate analysis was performed on the six dependent variables using *Matlab* 6. To determine whether the changes in the six self-esteem dimension scores between the experimental and control group were statistically significant, a *Two-sample Hotellings T-squared Test* was performed on the data. A *p*-value was calculated for each domain, with a *p*-value lower than 0.05 being considered as the marker that statistically significant change had occurred in the self-esteem dimension scores between the experimental and control group. The data derived from the *Two-sample Hotellings T-squared test* were then used to draw up box plots. The box plots provide a graphic representation of the distribution of the scores obtained between the six self-esteem domains from the control group's pre- and post test and the experimental group's pre- and post test. The box plots were drawn up to accommodate all the outlying scores.

Analysis of responses

An interpretative research design was followed to assess if the utilisation of life skill development intervention strategies had effectively brought about the cognitive transferral of the life skills covered during the programme to everyday life activities of the experimental group of girls. A few typical responses to each of the 21 open-ended questions of the *Life Skill Questionnaire* were presented verbatim in Afrikaans with an English translation following. The responses were followed by discussions of the individual life skills to determine general trends and if cognitive transferral had taken place.

The experimental and control group of girls prior to the intervention were asked the same intervention study. After the completion of a 10-week life skill development intervention programme, both groups were asked the same questions again. The "experimental group of girls" responses regarding their movement experience and how they experienced this movement experience during the programme are presented below. These responses are followed by a discussion. The analysis and discussion below is based on the responses of the two groups. Both groups are based on the intervention's knowledge of the participants' movement and experiences with the girls during the life skill programme.

Analysis of responses - Research Question One

Research question one was designed to determine which life skill development intervention movement programme, utilising the life skill development strategies, would improve the self-esteem of the sample of adolescent girls. Self-esteem is often regarded as the single most important measure of psychological well-being (Borg & McCormick, 1996). Self-concept "conventionally refers to all aspects of knowledge concerning who we are and self-esteem refers more specifically to the evaluation of who one is" (McGillicuddy-De Lisi & Agustsdottir, 1996, p. 48). Several researchers on the other hand have implied that there are no conceptual or empirical differences between self-concept and self-evaluation (Shavelson et al., 1976) thus enabling the terms to be used interchangeably.

Chapter Eight

Results and Discussion

The data pertaining to the two research questions that guided this study are presented in the following sections. The data for research question one are presented in table and graph format, followed by the results of research question two in a documentation of the subjects' responses to the open-ended *Life Skill Questionnaire*. Each table and graph is accompanied by an interpretation of the results. The quantitative data were taken from the experimental and control group of girls prior to the commencement of the movement intervention study. After the experimental group had completed the movement and life skill intervention programme, both groups were re-tested. The documentation of the experimental group of girls' responses regarding their utilisation of the 21 life skills in their movement experience during the programme, and everyday life experiences is also followed by a discussion. The analysis and discussion for research question one and two are both based on the investigator's knowledge of the topic, and the impressions and experiences with the girls during the intervention programme.

Research Question One

Research question one was designed to determine whether participation in the movement programme, utilising the life-skill development strategies would affect the self-esteem of the sample of adolescent girls. Self-esteem is often judged to be the single most important measure of psychological well-being (Berger & McInman, 1993). Self-concept "conventionally refers to all aspects of knowledge concerning who one is, and self-esteem refers more specifically to the evaluation of who one is" (Rhodewalt & Agustsdottir, 1986, p. 48). Several researchers on the other hand have implied that there are no conceptual or empirical differences between self-description and self-evaluation (Shavelson et al., 1976) thus enabling the terms to be used interchangeably.

Self-concept was recognised as having a developmental dimension in that age and experience produce increasingly differentiated conceptions of the self (Sonstroem & Morgan, 1889). Self-esteem/concept is expected to vary across situations and is modifiable by variable experiences and strategised interventions (Allport, 1943). Current approaches to understanding self-structure emphasise multiple components of the self. These components will have varying importance to individuals; for example individuals may have different perceptions of themselves as professionals, as family members, as leaders or as followers for instance (Sonstroem & Morgan, 1989).

Self-worth arises and changes direction and strength depending on specific interactions with other persons and occurrences. Motor-skill performance is vital for this development (Hurlock, 1972). Movement and touch are valuable sources of information that form individual perceptions about the self. By moving and physically communicating with the environment individuals learn a great deal about the various dimensions of the self. The implications of this for sport and movement participation seem very strong (Pargman, 1993).

The research literature on the potential impact on self-esteem by physical activity programmes has been ambiguous. White (1959) has, however, stated that concepts about the physical self contribute to an individual's strong overall self-efficacy and personality development and functioning generally. Concerning self-esteem and the positive impact of movement programmes for at-risk youth – such as the girls who participated in the programme - structured movement programmes that have been applied in a variety of educational, recreational, therapeutic and correctional or substance abuse prevention settings have been shown to positively affect many risk factors for serious problem behaviours of at-risk youth. The risk factors positively affected include: increased self-esteem, well-being, acquisition of life skills like goal-setting and planning, value development, and lowered depression and anxiety (Collingwood, 1997). The research question was formulated as follows:

Will adolescent girls who participate in a movement programme utilising the life skill development intervention strategies experience more substantial gains in self-esteem as compared to adolescent girls who are not taught the skills?

The *Self-perception Profile for Children* (Harter, 1985) included six subdomains of self-esteem, namely: global self-worth, scholastic competence, social acceptance, athletic competence, physical appearance and behavioural conduct. Separate domain scores were calculated using *Statistica* to determine the mean rating for each sub scale. After the separate dependent domain scores of self-esteem were calculated with *Statistica*, multivariate analysis was performed on the six dependent variables using *Matlab 6*. A *Two-sample Hotellings T-squared test* was used to calculate a *p*-value (a *p*-value < .05 is considered to show a statistically significant effect) to determine if changes in scores of the experimental and control group were statistically significant. The data derived from the *Two-sample Hotellings T-squared test* were then used to draw up box plot graphs.

Self-esteem

Global self-worth

The global self-worth scale measures an individual's general like or dislike for him/herself (Harter, 1985).

Table 1

A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of global self-esteem: Statistica

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Post-test mean	SD	Mean Difference
Experimental	13	2.09	0.51	3.29	0.45	1.2
Control	8	2.54	0.43	2.17	0.56	-.37

The girls in the experimental group showed a mean difference improvement (1.2, more than one point on the 4-point scale) on their global self-esteem scores. The control

group on the other hand showed almost no change (a slight drop of -.37). The experimental group's mean of 2.09 for their pre-test, which is considered an average perceived competence score increased to 3.29 with their post-test reflecting a strong level of perceived competence. A positive improvement in the experimental groups global self-esteem scores was therefore observed after they had participated in the movement programme utilising the life skill development intervention strategies.

Table 2

A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of global self-esteem: Matlab 6

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Pre-test Median	Post-test mean	SD	Post-test Median
Experimental	13	12.23	3.04	13	18.82	2.71	21.00
Control	8	14.08	2.60	16	12.42	3.34	12.50

The median for the experimental group for the global self-esteem scores showed a marked improvement from 13 for the pre-test to that of 21 for the post-test. This means that there was an overall improvement of the global self-esteem scores after the girls had participated in the programme. In addition to this, none of the experimental subjects in their post-test selected any of the answers lying in the lower half (between 1-12) of the sum of the question scores.

The median for the control group for the global self-esteem scores, however, dropped from 16 for the pre-test to that of 12.50 for the post test. This illustrates that there was a significant drop in the scholastic self-esteem scores for the control group who had not participated in the movement intervention programme. Concerning the standard deviation (SD) score of the post-tests of the control group, there were two extreme outliers at either end, with one at 8 and the other at 20. If this had not been the case and only the good data had been used, the post-test SD score of 3.34 would have been far lower at 0.82. A lower standard deviation score would have meant that the girls in the control group would have been much more homogenous regarding their competency feelings surrounding their global self-worth.

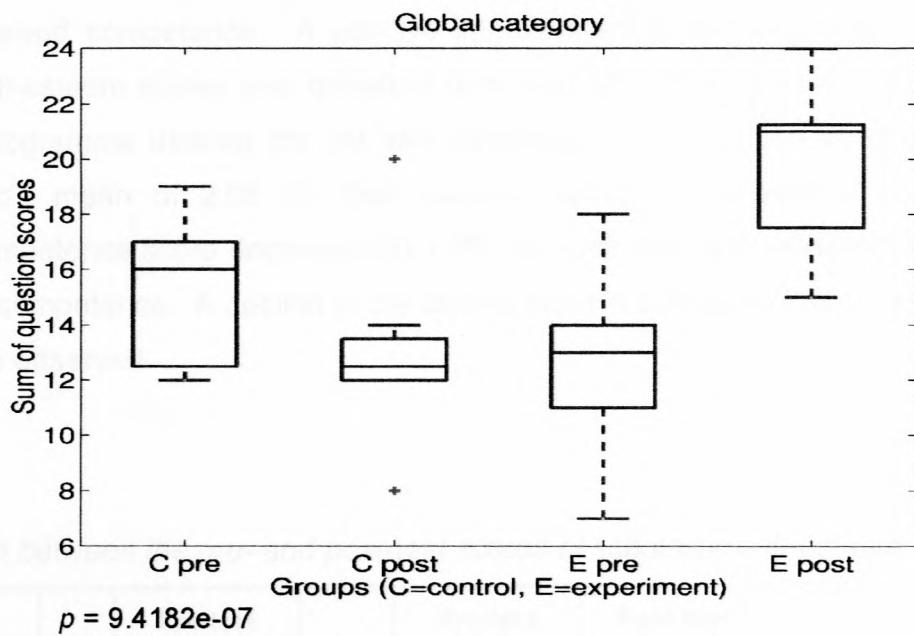


Figure 1 Box Plot of Global Self-esteem

Scholastic competence

The scholastic competence scale measures the self-perception of an individual's competency in the scholastic field (Harter, 1985).

Table 3

A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of scholastic self-esteem: Statistical analysis

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Post-test mean	SD	Mean Difference
Experimental	13	2.30	0.75	3.36	0.43	1.06
Control	8	2.95	0.90	1.96	0.59	-.99

The girls in the experimental group showed a mean difference improvement (1.06, more than one point on the 4-point scale) on their scholastic self-esteem scores. The control group on the other hand showed quite a substantial drop (a drop of -.99). The

experimental group's mean of 2.30 for their pre-test, which is considered an average perceived competence score increased to 3.36 with their post-test reflecting a strong level of perceived competence. A positive improvement in the experimental group's scholastic self-esteem scores was therefore observed after they had participated in the movement programme utilising the life skill development intervention strategies. The control group's mean of 2.95 for their pre-test, which is considered an average perceived competence score decreased to 1.96 with their post-test reflecting a low level of perceived competence. A decline in the control group's scholastic self-esteem scores was therefore observed.

Table 4

A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of scholastic self-esteem: Matlab 6

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Pre-test Median	Post-test mean	SD	Post-test Median
Experimental	13	13.77	4.49	12	20.15	2.58	21.00
Control	8	17.72	5.42	18	11.75	3.54	11.50

The median for the experimental group for the scholastic self-esteem scores showed an improvement from 12 for the pre-test to that of 21 for the post-test. This shows that there was an overall improvement of the scholastic self-esteem scores after the girls had participated in the programme. In addition to this, none of the experimental subjects in their post-test selected any of the answers lying in the lower half (between 1-12 of the sum of question scores) of the sum of the question scores. The standard deviation (SD) of the post-experimental scores (2.58) was also the lowest representing a more homogenous group regarding the positive feelings surrounding their perceptions of competence and their academic ability.

The median for the control group for the scholastic self-esteem scores, however, dropped from 18 for the pre-test to that of 11.5 for the post test. This illustrates that there was a significant drop in the scholastic self-esteem scores for the control group who had not participated in the movement intervention programme.

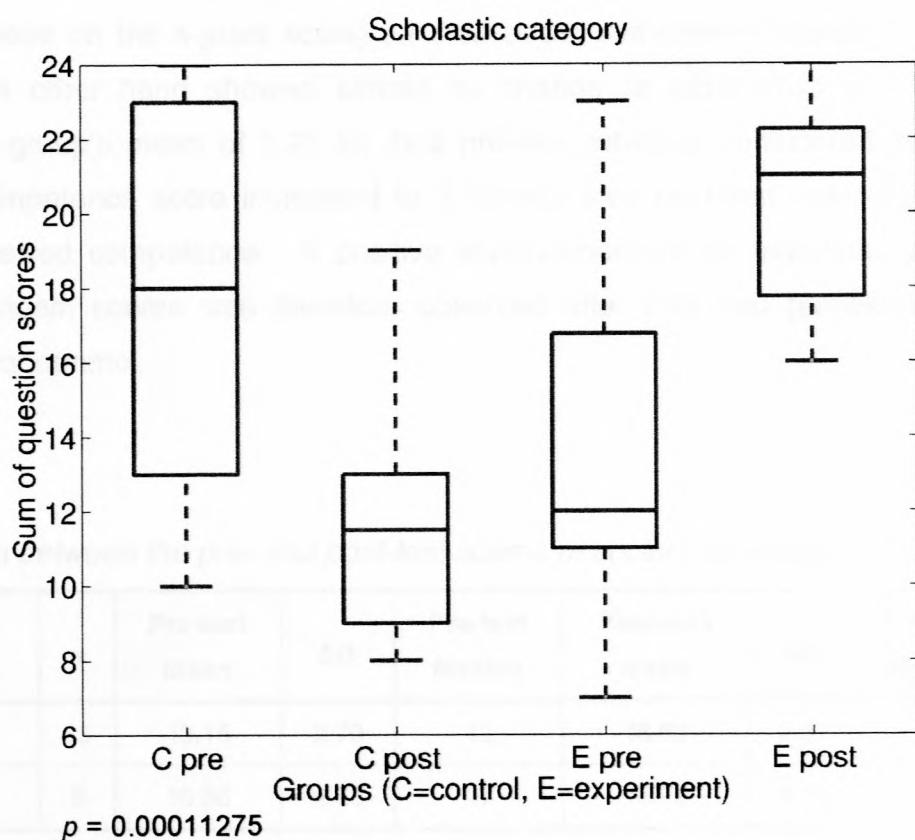


Figure 2 Box plot of Scholastic Self-esteem

Social acceptance

The social acceptance scale measures the self-perception of an individual's competency in his/her social spheres (Harter, 1985).

Table 5

A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of social self-esteem: Statistica

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Post-test mean	SD	Mean Difference
Experimental	13	2.20	0.45	3.12	0.48	0.92
Control	8	2.81	0.80	2.63	0.79	-.18

The girls in the experimental group showed a mean difference improvement (0.92, almost one point on the 4-point scale) on their social self-esteem scores. The control group on the other hand showed almost no change (a slight drop of -.18). The experimental group's mean of 2.20 for their pre-test, which is considered an average perceived competence score increased to 3.12 with their post-test reflecting a strong level of perceived competence. A positive improvement in the experimental group's social self-esteem scores was therefore observed after they had participated in the movement programme.

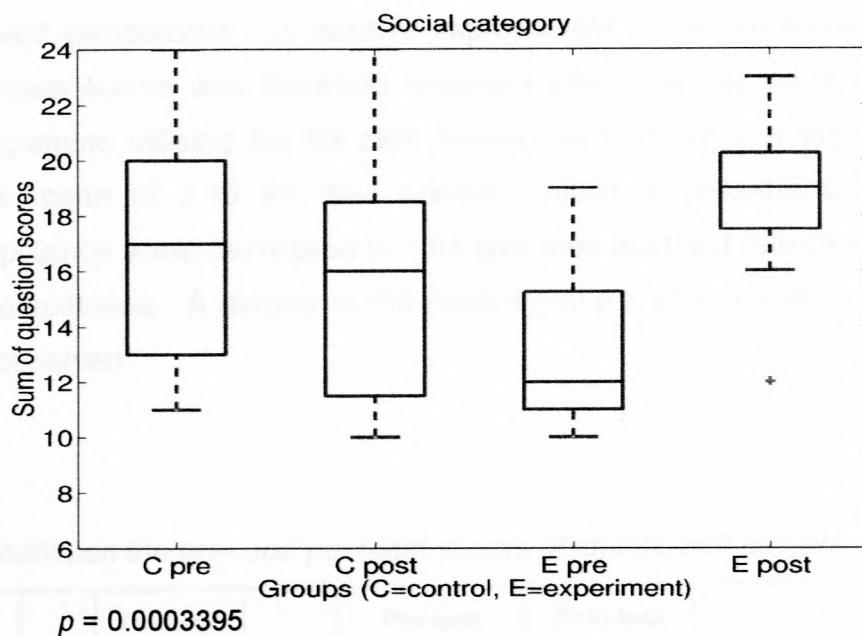
Table 6

A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of social self-esteem: Matlab 6

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Pre-test Median	Post-test mean	SD	Post-test Median
Experimental	13	13.15	2.70	12	18.69	2.87	19
Control	8	16.88	4.55	17	15.75	4.71	16

The median for the experimental group for the social self-esteem scores showed an improvement from 12 for the pre-test to that of 19 for the post-test. This indicates that there was an overall improvement of the social self-esteem scores after the girls had participated in the programme. The increase in the post-test could however have been greater if there had not been an extreme outlier of 12. If the outlier had not been lying on the lower outer fence of the box plot, the standard deviation (SD) would have been smaller (2.14) in comparison to the 2.87 that it resulted in.

The median for the control group for the social self-esteem scores, however, dropped slightly from 17 for the pre-test to that of 16 for the post test. This represents a significant drop in the social self-esteem scores for the control group who had not participated in the movement intervention programme. The standard deviation (SD) score of the control group's post-test was also the highest (4.71) compared to the three other SD scores. This confirms that they were more heterogeneous regarding their feelings of competence surrounding their perceptions of their social acceptability.

*Figure 3 Box plot of Social Self-esteem*

Athletic competence

The athletic competence scale measures the self-perception of an individual's competency in the athletic/movement domain (Harter, 1985).

Table 7

A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of athletic self-esteem: Statistical analysis

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Post-test mean	SD	Mean Difference
Experimental	13	1.74	0.25	3.15	0.41	1.74
Control	8	2.80	0.70	1.83	0.70	-.97

The girls in the experimental group showed a mean difference improvement (1.74, almost two points on the 4-point scale) on their athletic self-esteem scores. The control group on the other hand showed quite a substantial drop (a drop of -.97). The

experimental group's mean of 1.74 for their pre-test, which is considered a low level of perceived competence score increased to 3.15 with their post-test reflecting a strong level of perceived competence. A positive improvement in the experimental group's athletic self-esteem scores was therefore observed after they had participated in the movement programme utilising the life skill development intervention strategies. The control group's mean of 2.80 for their pre-test, which is considered an average perceived competence score decreased to 1.83 with their post-test reflecting a low level of perceived competence. A decline in the control group's athletic self-esteem scores was therefore observed.

Table 8

A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of athletic self-esteem: Matlab 6

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Pre-test Median	Post-test mean	SD	Post-test Median
Experimental	13	10.46	1.51	10.00	18.92	2.47	20.00
Control	8	16.75	4.20	17.50	11.00	4.17	10.50

The median for the experimental group for the athletic self-esteem scores showed a dramatic improvement from 10 for the pre-test to that of 20 for the post-test. This points to an overall improvement of the athletic self-esteem scores after the girls had participated in the programme. In addition to this, all the scores for the post-test lay above the highest score for the pre-test of 13, except one which lay on 13. None of the experimental subjects in their post-test selected any of the answers lying in the lower half (between 1-12) of the sum of the question scores.

The median for the control group for the athletic self-esteem scores, however, dropped from 16.75 for the pre-test to that of 10.50 for the post test. This illustrates that there was a significant drop in the athletic self-esteem scores for the control group who had not participated in the movement intervention programme. All the post-test scores from the control group lay in the lower half (between 1-12) of the sum of the question scores, except one outlier in the upper half at 20. This was a reversal from the pre-test scores

which had all, except one at 8, lain in the upper half (between 12-24) of the sum of the question scores.

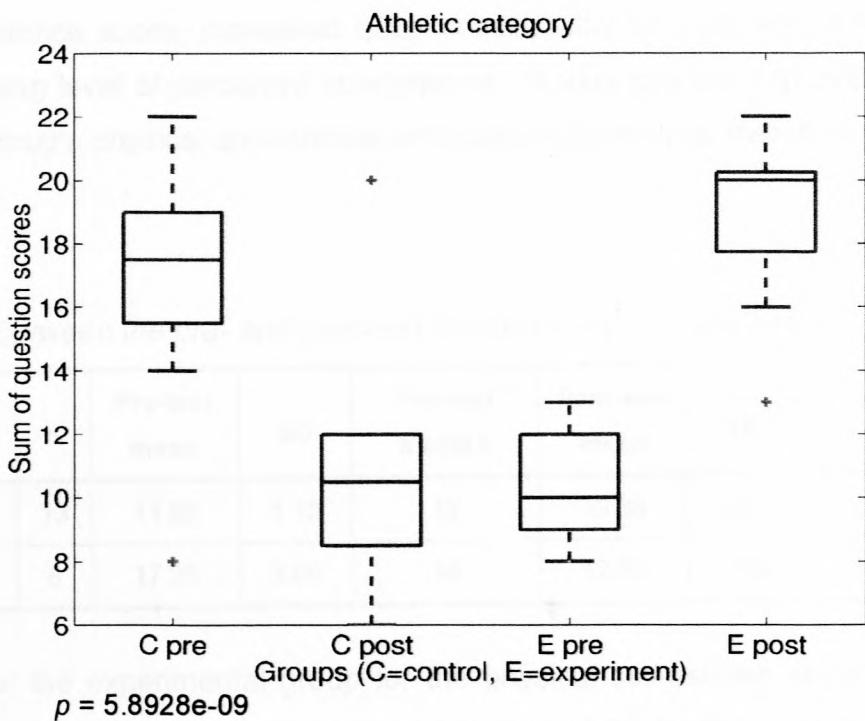


Figure 4 Box Plot of Athletic Self-esteem

Physical appearance

The self-adequacy of an individual is measured by the physical appearance scale (Harter, 1995).

Table 9

A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of physical self-esteem: Statistical

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Post-test mean	SD	Mean Difference
Experimental	13	1.99	0.19	3.23	0.46	1.24
Control	8	2.88	0.44	2.08	0.53	-.80

The girls in the experimental group showed a mean difference improvement (1.24, more than one point on the 4-point scale) on their physical appearance self-esteem scores. The control group on the other hand showed a slight drop (-.80). The experimental groups' mean of 1.99 for their pre-test, which is considered to reflect a low perceived level of competence score, increased quite considerably to 3.23 with their post-test reflecting a strong level of perceived competence. A very positive improvement in the experimental group's physical appearance self-esteem scores was therefore observed.

Table 10

A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of physical self-esteem: Matlab 6

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Pre-test Median	Post-test mean	SD	Post-test Median
Experimental	13	11.92	1.12	12	19.38	2.75	20
Control	8	17.25	2.66	18	12.50	3.16	12

The median for the experimental group for the physical self-esteem scores showed a drastic improvement from 12 for the pre-test to that of 20 for the post-test. In other words, there was an overall improvement of the physical self-esteem scores after the girls had participated in the programme. In addition to this, all the scores for the post-test lay above the highest score for the pre-test of 14, except one which lay on 14. None of the experimental subjects in their post-test selected any of the answers lying in the lower half (between 1-12) of the sum of the question scores.

The median for the control group for the physical self-esteem scores, however, dropped from 18 for the pre-test to that of 12 for the post test. This represents a significant drop in the physical self-esteem scores for the control group. The standard deviation (SD) score of the control group's post-test was also the highest (3.16) compared to the three other SD scores. This confirms that they were more heterogeneous regarding their feelings of competence with regards to their perceptions of their physical appearance when completing the post-test.

The girls in the experimental group showed a mean difference improvement (0.68, more than a half-point on the 4-point scale) on their behavioural self-esteem scores. The mean difference improvement for the behavioural conduct domain was the lowest out of the six domains measured. The control group on the other hand showed almost no change (a slight drop of -.29). The experimental group's mean of 2.55 for their pre-test, which is considered an average perceived competence score, increased to 3.23 with their post-test reflecting a strong level of perceived competence. A positive improvement in the experimental group's behavioural self-esteem scores was therefore observed after they had participated in the movement programme utilising the life skill development intervention strategies.

Table 12

*A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of behavioural self-esteem:
Matlab 6*

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Pre-test Median	Post-test mean	SD	Post-test Median
Experimental	13	14.91	4.82	13	18.54	2.99	20
Control	8	13.96	1.69	15	12.82	3.58	12

The median for the experimental group for the behavioural self-esteem scores showed an improvement from 13 for the pre-test to that of 20 for the post-test. This means that there was an overall improvement of the behavioural self-esteem scores after the girls had participated in the programme. In addition to this, the standard deviation (SD) dropped notably from the pre-test (4.82) to the post-test (2.99). This illustrates that the experimental group of girls were far more homogenous regarding their competency feelings towards their behavioural conduct when they completed the post-test evaluation.

The median for the control group for the behavioural self-esteem scores, however, dropped from 15 for the pre-test to that of 12 for the post test. This illustrates that there was a significant drop in the behavioural self-esteem scores for the control group who had not participated in the movement intervention programme. Concerning the standard

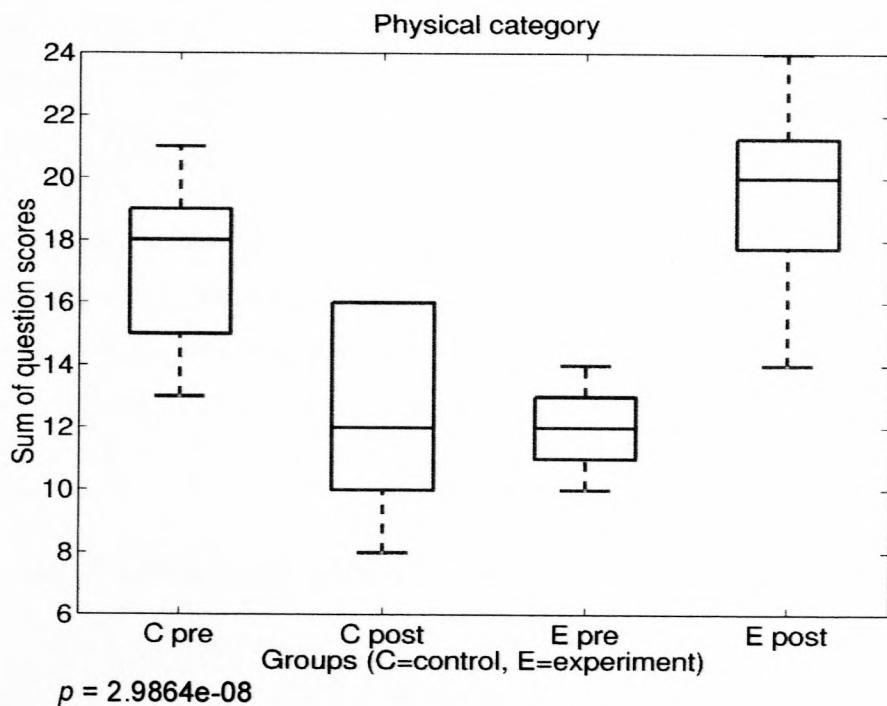


Figure 5 Box Plot of Physical Self-esteem

Behavioural conduct

The self-adequacy of an individual is measured by the behavioural conduct scale (Harter, 1985).

Table 11

A comparison between the pre- and post-test scores of behavioural self-esteem: Statistica

Group	n	Pre-test mean	SD	Post-test mean	SD	Mean Difference
Experimental	13	2.55	0.80	3.23	0.50	0.68
Control	8	2.58	0.28	2.29	0.60	-.29

in Table 13, with a *p*-value lower than 0.05 being considered as the marker that statistically significant change had occurred. In all the six self-esteem dimensions, that were measured, a statistically significant result was recorded. It can therefore be concluded that the positive results for the experimental group's self-esteem measurements after the study had been concluded were statistically significant.

Table 13

Summary of p-values to examine possible statistical significant changes in self-esteem dimension scores between the experimental and control groups

Dimensions of Self-esteem	Changes in scores compared between experimental and control group
	Significance p-value =
Global self-worth	9.4182e – 07
Scholastic competence	0.00011275
Social acceptance	0.0003395
Athletic competence	5.8928e – 09
Physical appearance	2.9864e – 08
Behavioural conduct	0.042337

Conclusion

The answer to research question one is a positive and statistically significant "yes". The self-esteem scores of the experimental group girls who took part in the movement programme utilising the life skill development intervention strategies showed an encouraging overall improvement. Out of the six subdomains of self-esteem investigated with Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children*, the behavioural conduct division improved the least. The girls in the control group who did not participate in the movement programme, however, showed a marked drop in their self-esteem scores over the six subdomains. The drop in the control group scores was

especially noticeable in the scholastic and athletic competence domains. The control group's mean of 2.95, in the scholastic competence domain, which is considered an average perceived competence score, dropped by .99 which is almost one point on the 4-point scale. Their post-test mean of 1.96 reflected a low perception of competence in the scholastic domain. One of the factors that could have negatively contributed to their decline in the scholastic domain is that the post-test was administered to both the control and experimental group close to the time of year-end examinations. It could have been that the girls were generally feeling anxious and they had not benefited as the experimental group had from the life skill training, which amongst other things emphasised planning ahead and setting goals. The control group's mean of 2.80, in the athletic competence domain, which is considered an average perceived competence score, also dropped by .97, to give them a post mean of 1.83. A factor that could have contributed to their lowered feelings of competence in the athletic domain is that there were very few extramural movement activities offered at the girls school. It could also be due to the fact that the girls were adolescents who were going through a turbulent transitional stage in their lives and that they followed the norm for girls. The norm being that a large percentage of girls by the time they reach adolescence dislike physical-activity and –education (Luke & Sinclair, 1991).

A further factor that could have dampened the self-esteem scores was that of the violent attack on a gang member on school property on 23 October 2000 (see Appendix H). Many of the girls who were in the programme and part of the control group witnessed the extremely brutal attack and were highly traumatised by it. The girls in the experimental group may have had better coping skills than those in the control group, for the life skill component of the movement programme emphasised teaching them how to persevere under pressure and be able to communicate with others so as not to bottle up or harbour feelings which could lead to conflict situations and inner turmoil.

A further observation was that the experimental group of girls had overall lower self-esteem ratings than the control group at the beginning of the programme. The movement programme may therefore have had a greater impact on the experimental group than it would have had on the control group, for as Fox (1988) noted; research

has revealed that the greatest effects for movement activities have often been found with children who initially have had low self-concepts.

movement programmes can be effective in bringing about the cognitive transformation of the child's self-concept. This is particularly important if the movement programme is to become part of everyday life activities of the child. One of the barriers to goal attainment has been transfer of skills from one situation to another (Danish et al., 1993). In sporting situations it is often noted that children lack the sufficient ability to transfer the skills they have learned in one situation to another, due to short environment preventing them from making the connection. The lack of generalisation of skills indicates that these skills may not be able to be easily and effectively be transferred to other domains (Danish et al., 1993; Goffin & Goffin, 1987). To understand what is needed for this transfer of skills to occur, research on mechanisms to transfer skills is thus a research area of importance for educators, teachers and psychologists.

With traditional scientific research, the questions being objective, replicable and generalisable and generalisation often arises. Interpretative research recognises that the researcher changes the research setting, notwithstanding this, the researcher tries to be as inclusive as possible. The interpretative researcher has a certain amount of freedom based upon how his/her personal perspective might affect what is seen. This is not to say that in interpretative research it is acknowledged that meaning is not a feature of reality, but rather that it is to be discovered by a thorough researcher, but that it is constantly in the process of being created. Unfortunately it is never complete, no matter how many subjects are observed or interviews conducted with how many individuals. It is also agreed that the subjects may have different stories to tell if interviewed a day, week, or month later and therefore understanding of the "whole picture" (Slinson, 1997) of another's engagement in the movement programme utilising the skill development strategy could only be partial and never otherwise. Domboer (in Slinson, 1997) stated that interpretative research involves questions of meaning rather than truth and was developing a language versus proving or disproving a hypothesis. The research question was formulated as follows:

Research Question Two

Research question two was designed to determine whether participation in the movement programme, utilising life skill development intervention strategies would effectively bring about the cognitive transferral of the life skills covered during the course of the programme to everyday life activities of the sample of adolescent girls. One of the barriers to goal attainment has been singled out as that of a lack of skill (Danish et al., 1993). In sporting situations it is often not the lack of skill, but the insufficient ability of athletes to transfer the skill from a sport environment to a non-sport environment preventing them from reaching the desired goal. Research on the generalisation of skills indicates that skills acquired in one domain can not instinctively be transferred to other domains (Auerbach, 1986; Meichenbaum & Turk, 1987). To understand what is needed for skill transferral and how an individual learns to transfer skills is thus a research area of importance for physical educators and psychologists.

With traditional scientific research, the questions about objectivity, reliability, validity and generalisation often arise. Interpretative research recognises that the presence of a researcher changes the research setting, notwithstanding attempts to be as unobtrusive as possible. The interpretative researcher has a responsibility to reflect upon how his/her personal perspective might affect what is searched for and found. In interpretative research it is acknowledged that meaning is not a fixed entity waiting to be discovered by a thorough researcher, but that it is constantly in the process of being created. Unfortunately it is never complete, no matter how many classes are observed or interviews conducted with how many individuals. It is recognised that subjects may have different stories to tell if interviewed a day, week, or month later and therefore understanding of the "whole picture" (Stinson, 1997) of student engagement in the movement programme utilising life skill development strategies could only be partial and never otherwise. Donmoyer (in Stinson, 1997) stated that interpretative research involves questions of meaning rather than truth and with developing a language versus proving or disproving a hypothesis. The research question was formulated as follows:

Will adolescent girls who participate in a movement programme utilising life skills development strategies be able to cognitively transfer these skills from a movement experience to everyday life activities?

The subjects were asked to comment individually on each of the 21 life skills covered during the programme concerning their personal use of such skills during the movement programme (modern dance, swimming and self-defence), and if they utilised such skills in their everyday life activities. A few typical responses to the open-ended questions of the *Life Skill Questionnaire* (see Appendix B), that the subjects answered after completion of the intervention programme are presented verbatim in Afrikaans with an English translation following:

To persevere under pressure

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of this life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, seven girls referred to the swimming module. Examples of the participants' views were:

"By die swem, maar ek het dit reggekry en ek is bly daaroor want nou weet ek, ek is 'n wenner."

With the swimming, but eventually I managed to get it right and that pleases me, because now I know that I am a winner.

"...want almal het so goed gelyk en ek was nie so goed nie, maar ek het my beste probeer en nogals goed gedoen."

...because everybody looked so good and I did not really (seem to be), but I tried my best and fared rather well.

Seven girls also found the first life skill a predominant component of the dance division. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Wanneer ons dit moes 'afpolish'. Dit is baie druk. Ons het daar uitgekom."

When we had to polish it (dance). That is a lot of pressure, but we got there.

"Ja, somtyds moet jy onder druk presteer. By die dansklas moet ons hard werk in warm en koue dae. Vroeg in dieoggend en smiddae na skool, maar tog het ek dit bereik."

Yes, sometimes you have to perform under pressure. At dancing we have to work hard during hot and cold days, early in the morning and in the afternoon. I still managed to achieve this however.

“...ek het gedink ek sal dit nie reg kry nie maar dit was nogals lekker.”
...I thought I would not succeed, but it actually was rather enjoyable.

Only one reference was made to the self-defence division of the movement programme regarding the first life skill. The example of her view was:

“Ek was onderdruk by die selfdiffensklas...”
I was under pressure during the self-defence class...

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls utilisation of the first life skill during their everyday activities, five of them referred to coping with the pressure of exams. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Noudat die eksamens baie naby is, is ek onder baie druk. ..., maar ek het dit reggekry om my tyd reg te bestuur en ek is nou weer “okay”.”
With the exams rapidly approaching, I find myself under a lot of pressure..., but I have managed to implemented a good time management system and am ‘okay’ again.

“Ja, omdat ek nou eksamens doen, maar ek weet ek gaan presteer omdat ek studeer.”
Yes, because I am currently busy with exams, but I know I will succeed because I study.

“....maar ek het geleer om lank voor die tyd te begin leer.”
...but I have learnt to start learning well ahead of time.

Three girls also mentioned the utilisation of the first life skill at school. Examples of the participants' views were:

“By my skool is ek baie onderdruk, veral by Wiskunde, maar na 'n tyd word dit verstaanbaar.”
At my school I am under a lot of pressure, especially where mathematics is concerned, but with time it becomes understandable.

“...en by die skool, want my ma en my pa verwag baie van my.”
...and at school, because my mother and father expect a lot of me.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made in the movement experience division, a common trend is the difficulty the girls initially had with the movement material, followed by their ultimate success. Stinson (1997) states that adolescents, who do not know how to execute a specific movement, and thus fail in the performance of it, rarely find such an experience a pleasant one and will be likely not to actively

participate in the activity. Strategies that give students the optimum chance for success if they are to experience pleasure in moving and in knowing need to be utilised.

The life skills taught to the girls may therefore have aided them to persist with previously unknown movement fields. Concerning the statements pertaining to the girls' everyday life activities, academics featured predominantly. The girls were two weeks away from writing their end of year exams when completing the *Life Skill Questionnaire*, which may have contributed to this excessive focus. However, all of the girls referred to the presence of the first life skill in their everyday lives. It can therefore be concluded that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place, and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To be organised

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of this life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, eight girls mentioned that they had to plan ahead so that they could fit the programme into their schedule during the holidays and after school. Examples of the participants' views were:

"...elke persoon moet georganiseerd wees om elke tyd die klas te kan bywoon."

...each person has to be organised so as to be able to attend each class.

"...ek moes my klere insit elke aand voor ek gaan slaap en ek was somtyds baie moeg."

...I had to pack my clothes in every night before going to bed, and sometimes I was very tired.

"Ek was georganiseerd toe ek my tyd opgeoffer het om elke sessie van die program by te woon en iets daaruit te leer."

I was organised when I sacrificed my time to be able to attend each session of the programme, so as to be able to learn from them.

"Ek moes vir my ouers gesê het op watter dag ek oefen en wanneer ek sal klaar wees."

I had to tell my parents on which days I was practising and when I would be finished.

Out of all the comments referring to the second life skill, only one girl specifically mentioned one of the movement forms presented during the course, namely dance. The example of her view was:

“Die dans was baie georganiseerd en ons moes reël watter dae ons gaan kom.”

The dancing was very organised and we had to make prior arrangements as to which days specifically we would be attending.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' utilisation of the second life skill during their everyday activities, ten girls referred to this skill as playing a predominant role when it came to their academics and homework, even when mentioning additional aspects such as friends and leisure time. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Dit is baie belangrik om georganiseerd te wees, want ek gaan nooit klaar kry met my akademiese werk as ek nie georganiseerd is nie.”

It is very important to be organised, because I will never finish getting through my academic workload if I am not organised.

“Om te weet wanneer dit tyd is om te speel, wanneer om te leer, wanneer om te rus. Dit wil sê jou tydsbesturing moet georganiseerd wees.”

To know when it is time for play, when to study and when to rest. That means you have to practice effective time management to be organised.

“Ons leer vir eksamens en jy moet tyd hê vir vriende.”

We are all preparing for exams and you must make time for friends as well.

“Ek moet tyd hê vir televisie kyk en tyd hê vir leer en ander dinge.”

I must have time to watch television, and time to study, and other additional things/ activities.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made in the movement experience division, they predominantly focused on organisational matters such as pre-packing the correct clothing for the movement classes and time management issues, even in the one girl's statement that highlighted the dance division of the programme. Concerning the statements pertaining to the girls' everyday life activities, once again academics featured strongly. All the girls referred to the presence of the second life skill in their everyday lives. It can therefore be concluded that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place, and that this skill is

of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage especially in the non-movement field.

To meet challenges

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of the third life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, eight girls mentioned the swimming component. Examples of the participants' views were:

"By die swem, waar ek nie eens kon geduike het nie, het ek dit reg gekry."
With the swimming, despite not even being able to dive initially, I managed to get it right.

"Ek het nie gedink ek sal my swem-evaluering slaag nie, maar ek het moed gehou en dit reggekry."

I did not think that I would pass my swimming evaluation, but I did not lose heart and succeeded in the end.

"...ek was baie bang om te leer swem, maar dit was nogals nie moeilik nie."

...I was very scared about learning how to swim, but it actually was not really that difficult.

Five girls commented on the third life skill as having been a factor present in the entire movement programme, with one girl additionally mentioning the dance division. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Die program was 'n groot uitdaging vir my, want ek het nog nooit aan so iets deelgeneem nie en ek is nie so goed in dans nie."

The programme was a big challenge for me, since I have never participated in anything like it, and I am not really that good at dancing.

"Dit was 'n uitdaging om jou tyd te spandeer met die bewegingsprogram, maar die uitdaging is 'n sukses".

It was a challenge to devote one's time to the programme, but the challenge was a success.

Only one reference was made to the third life skill regarding the self-defence division of the movement programme. The example of her view was:

"...Ek het nooit geweet dat ek die vermoë het om myself te verdedig nie."
...I never knew that I had the ability to defend myself.

Everyday life experiences

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' utilisation of the third life skill during their everyday activities, four girls referred to it in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek kry baie uitdagings, maar dis 'okay', want ek leer om dit te oorkom."
I am being challenged in many ways, but that is okay, because I am learning to cope with it.

"Die lewe is self 'n uitdaging; alles wat jy doen in die lewe is 'n uitdaging."
Life itself is a challenge; everything you do in life is a challenge.

Five girls mentioned the third life skill being of relevance to them by having signed up for extra curricular school activities; namely four girls for the school play and one to resume playing netball again. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek het nooit die selfvertroue gehad om voor baie mense op te tree nie,
maar ek het 'n paar weke geleden aangebied om aan 'n toneelspel deel te neem."

I have never had the self-confidence to perform in front of a large number of people, despite this I volunteered a few weeks ago, to take part in a play.

"...en om weer aan te sluit by die netbal."
...and to rejoin netball training.

One girl mentioned the third life skill in connection with the swimming division of the movement programme in her everyday lifestyle activities. The example of her view was:

"Ek sal nou myself kan uitkry uit die water."
Now I shall now be able to get myself out of the water.

One girl mentioned that she had taken on her homework as a challenge and as a result it improved daily. The example of her view was:

"Elke dag word my skoolwerk beter en beter."
My schoolwork is getting better day by day.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made in the movement experience division, the vast majority commented on the swimming division. Almost all the girls were not water-safe before commencing with the movement programme. Skills such as swimming and self-defence can be viewed, as movement skills needed to enhance the quality

of one's life; essential movement life skills. As Stinson (1997) states, for students to become more engaged in their education and make more life-enhancing choices, it is necessary to rethink what is important and how to convince them that it is important enough for them to learn. Concerning the statements relating to the girls' everyday life activities, they cover a broad base of activities, which the girls associate with the third life skill. The investigator felt that this life skill is of great importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage, for armed with the knowledge that they had the ability to meet challenges, they had gained the confidence to sign up for new activities where they can discover new dimensions of their identity. It can therefore be concluded that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place.

To communicate with others

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of the fourth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, eight girls mentioned the use of the skill in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Ek het met baie mense gekommunikeer wat ek nog nooit mee gepraat het nie. Dit was nogal 'n baie belangrike ding van die program.”

I communicated with many people that I would never have spoken to before. To me that was a very important aspect of the programme.

“...alhoewel ek baie skaam is, nadat ek hulle leer ken het, het ek goed met hulle gekommunikeer.”

...despite being a very shy person, after getting to know them, I was able to communicate very well with them.

Three girls mentioned the fourth skill as playing an important role in the programme for them when it came to communicating with the instructors of the various movement divisions. Examples of the participants' views were:

“..., met my kursusleier....Sy het my altyd 'advice' gegee.”

...with my course leader...She always gave me advice.

“...ek het nooit gedink dat ek met julle sou praat nie.”

I never dreamt that I would talk to you.

“Ek het vir Karin, Adel en Peter ontmoet in my lewe, wat ek nog nooit sou kon aan gedink het nie.”

...I met Karin, Adel and Peter, something I could never have imagined would happen.

Only one girl singled out one of the movement forms, namely dance when it came to the fourth life skill in the movement division. The example of her view was:

“...by die dans, as ek nie geweet het hoe om 'n 'step' te doen nie, dan het ek gevra.”

...with dancing, when I did not know how to do a specific step, I asked for advice.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' use of the fourth life skill during their everyday activities, five girls commented on having difficulties communicating well with the opposite sex. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Ek kommunikeer nie baie goed met ander mense nie, veral dié van die teenoorgestelde geslag. Ek is baie skaam.”

I do not communicate very well with others, especially members of the opposite sex. I am very shy.

“Somtyds kommunikeer ek nie goed nie, maar dit is net met die teenoorgestelde geslag...”

Sometimes I do not communicate well, this however is only with members of the opposite sex...

Eight girls commented on how being put in the position of having to communicate with pupils during the programme with whom they would normally not have any contact with, and one on how she had gained the confidence and courage to ask pertinent questions regarding her future and issues pertaining to various careers.

Examples of the participants' views were:

“...ek het nog nooit so met iemand anders kommunikeer nie, en dit was 'n voorreg om hulle te ontmoet.”

...I have never communicated like this with another person, it was a privilege to meet them.

“Ek het die vertroue gekry om nuwe vriende te maak, en vandag toe ons Paarl toe gegaan het om te luister na die beroepskeuses, het ek baie gevra oor dit wat ek nie verstaan het nie.”

I gained the confidence to make new friends, and on the trip to Paarl for the talk on career choices I felt free to ask a lot of questions about things that I did not understand.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made concerning the movement experience division and the girls' everyday life activities, the majority commented on communicating with people they would not usually have come into contact with, and being pleasantly

surprised by the responses. Noddings (in Stinson, 1997) believes that caring for self and others are areas that are so important that they should be mandatory for all students. Purpel (in Stinson, 1997) also states that if issues of social justice and compassion are important enough in a democratic society they should make them central for all students. The question why people of different backgrounds do not get along may not be a simple one, however, an age-old answer is that people do not trust that which is different from their personal norms. All the girls referred to the presence of the fourth life skill in their everyday lives. It can thus be assumed that a cognitive skill transferal from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage. The investigator regards the skill of communication as being of vital importance to all students, for as McGreevy-Nichols and Scheff (2000) state, through communication they can learn to embrace diversity among people once they begin to understand the value of differences and commonalties.

To handle both success and failure

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of the fifth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, four girls mentioned the use of the skill during the dance division. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Toe ek gedans het, het ek gedink ek sal dit nooit kon doen nie. Ek het dit probeer en ek het dit reggekry."

When I started the dancing I thought that I would never succeed. I tried it and managed to get it right.

"Ek het somtyds gesukkel met die 'steps', maar ek het dit reggekry."

Some times I struggled with the steps, but I managed to get it right.

Five girls mentioned the fifth life skill as playing an important role in the programme during the swimming division. Examples of the participants' views were:

"By die swem het ek gedog ek sal nooit kan beweeg in die water nie."

With the swimming I never thought that I would be able to move in the water.

"By die swem het ek gedog ek gaan nooit weer duik nie, maar het geprobeer en geprobeer."

During swimming I thought I would never dive again and yet I did keep on trying and trying.

Only one girl mentioned the utilisation of the fifth life skill in the self-defence division of the programme. The example of her view was:

“By die ‘self-defence’ het ons baie keer misluk, maar ons het geleer om weer te probeer.”

We failed quite a few times during self-defence, but we learnt not to give up, and to try again.

Five girls commented on having to use the fifth life skill in a general sense throughout the entire programme. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Om sukses te hanteer is nie moeilik nie, maar mislukking is moeilik maar ek het my mislukkings goed hanteer.”

To handle success is not difficult, whereas failure is, but I handled my failures well.

“Ek moes my suksesse baie goed hanteer en “humble” wees.”

I had to handle my success well by being humble.

“Ek het gedink dat ek sal misluk in die hele program; maar ek het dit gemaak en ek is dankbaar daarvoor.”

I thought I would fail the entire programme, but I made it and am very grateful for that.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' utilisation of the fifth life skill during their everyday activities, four girls referred to their schoolwork. Examples of the participants' views were:

“In die Junie-eksamens het ek 2 vakke gedruip, ek het aangehou en toe het dit geslaag.”

I failed two subjects in the June exams, but I kept at it and eventually passed.

“Ek het baie suksesse en mislukkings in my skoolwerk gehad, maar probeer om altyd beter te doen.”

I have had many successes and failures in my schoolwork, but I always try to improve.

Six girls made general reference to the fifth life skill in their everyday activities. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Ek wil altyd probeer om die beste te wees en voel baie teleurgesteld as ek misluk.”

I always want to try to be the best and feel very disappointed when I fail.

"Ek het geleer om dinge aan te pak en te probeer om dinge 'n sukses te maak en ek het."

I have learnt to really tackle some things and try to make a success of things, and now I do just that.

Two girls mentioned boys and one of them extra mural sport regarding the fifth life skill. An example of one of their views was:

"Daar was 'n seun wat ek lief voor was, maar toe moet ek hom laat gaan."
There was a boy that I loved, but I had to let him go.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made in the movement experience division, a common thread can be picked up about the girls having to cope with persevering through the initial stages of learning new movements, up until the end of the movement division. The comments surrounding the fifth life skill are very closely linked to the ones given for the first life skill, "to perform under pressure." Concerning the statements pertaining to the girls' everyday life activities, they ranged from schoolwork to their trials and tribulations with boys. The investigator would like to reiterate that it is important to remember as an educator working with adolescents, that as Stinson (1997) points out, there are many aspects and issues at school that may seem irrelevant to students, as compared to personal crises they are currently dealing with. Failures and success in different domains of a student's life are therefore often regarded and taken to heart in a totally different light by students and educators alike. It is important to remember as an educator to guide and advise students with the knowledge of their perspective and goals versus their own. When reviewing the statements made in the movement experience division, and the girls' everyday life activities all the subjects referred to the presence of the fifth life skill in their everyday lives. It can therefore be concluded that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To accept others' values and beliefs

Movement experience

All thirteen girls' comments referring to the utilisation of this life skill during the movement programme revolved around a general sense of acceptance and respect of others throughout the programme. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Dit is glad nie maklik om met mense wat anders is, oor die weg te kom nie, maar dit is baie makliker as jy vir hulle aanvaar en respekteer.”

Getting along with people who are very different from you is rather difficult, but it is a lot easier when you learn to accept and respect them.

“Elke persoon is uniek en ons almal verskil in een of ander manier, maar ons het almal taamlik goed oor die weg gekom.”

Each person is unique and we all differ from one another in some manner or other, however we still get along quite well with each other.

“Leonike, jy het my geleer om nie lelik met mekaar te kommunikeer nie.”

Leonieke, you taught me not to be nasty when communicating with others.

Everyday life activities

The trend of accepting other people's beliefs and value systems in general once again featured with all thirteen girls' comments regarding the sixth life skill in their everyday lives. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Ek kan nie vir hulle besluit of sê jy moet dit en dat doen nie.”

I cannot decide for others or tell them to do this or that.

“Ek moet elke dag met ander se gelowe en waardes te doen kry. En dit is nogal belangrik om ander te verstaan.”

I will have to deal with other beliefs and values on a daily basis. And it is rather important to have an understanding of others.

“In allerdaagse lewe moet ons ander se oortuigings respekteer, soos byvoorbeeld Moslems, en so meer.”

We have to respect people of their religious convictions, for instance Muslims in our everyday lives.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made in the movement experience division, and the girls' everyday life activities it is immediately evident how closely this life skill is linked to the fourth life skill namely that of “communication with others.” It is through communication that individuals come to understand others value and beliefs and can either accept or reject them. The investigator believes that teaching students to accept others values and beliefs is of utmost importance especially with South Africa's cosmopolitan “Rainbow Nation,” so as to help eradicate unnecessary conflict between individuals of different cultures and ethnicity's. Even though the majority commented in a general sense, compared to specific incidences, all of the girls referred to the presence of the first life skill in their everyday lives. It can therefore be assumed that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals

from such a culture and ethnic heritage. The conscious dealings of the subjects with this life skill during the programme seem to have reinforced how important it is to be open towards others in life.

To be flexible in order to succeed

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of the seventh life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, ten girls mentioned the use of the skill in an overall manner. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Om vir ander te wag sodat ons almal iets saam kan doen; party was stadig maar ons het saamgewerk en dit het geslaag."

To wait for others so we could do something together as a group; some were slow, but we worked together and managed to succeed.

"Ek moes leer om met ander mense in die groep te werk."

I had to learn to work together with others in the group.

"Ek moes baie buigbaar wees om ander tevreden te stel en ook myself gelukkig te maak."

I had to be very flexible to please both others and myself.

Three girls commented on the swimming division regarding the seventh life skill. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Want ons moet leer om aan te pas by ander, soos by swem, dat jy nie net voort kan gaan nie, maar vir ander moet wag."

We have to learn to adapt to others; at swimming for example, we cannot simply go ahead and do our own thing, we have to wait for the others.

"As ek iets wou probeer het soos in die swem moes ek eers wag vir die ander, en dit sit baie 'pressure' op my."

If I wanted to try something for instance during swimming, I first had to wait for the others, and that put a lot of pressure on me.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' utilisation of the seventh life skill during their everyday activities, nine girls described utilising it at home in various fashions. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Soosanneer jy iets wil hê, moet jy ook wag, want daar is miskien nie genoeg geld nie, soos daar vir jou broer of suster was."

For example, when you want something, you may have to wait because there is not enough money like there was for your brother or sister.

"Ek moet buigbaar wees met vriende en familie, want almal is nie dieselfde nie."

I have to be flexible with friends and family, since we are not all the same.

Three girls mentioned utilising the seventh life skill at school and another two in the general sense in their everyday environments. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek moet elke dag buigbaar wees om met ander mense oor die weg te kom."

I have to be flexible every single day so as to get along with others.

"Alhoewel ek nie hou van leer nie, is dit 'n verpligting om te leer."

Although I do not like to study, I am obliged to learn.

"...in die klas, omdat sommige van ons verskil van die ander."

...in class, since some of us differ from the others.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made in the movement experience division, and the girls' everyday life activities it is evident from the broad spectrum of statements made covering swimming, family situations and schoolwork, that they have become aware of the importance of flexibility when dealing with others. In Stinson's (1997) study of adolescents engagement in dance classes so as to gain insight from the students' perspective as to what helps some and not others engage, she found that not every student found the social aspect of the dance class to be a positive factor and that having to work with a fellow student they did not get along with caused them to feel they did not really want to be in the class and led them to not participate actively. In addition, working in groups was sometimes listed as a stressor due to an individual in the group fooling around in contrast with a strong individual who could pull the entire group together.

None of the girls in this study, however, mentioned that the aforementioned factors caused them to want to disengage from the class activities. It was in fact the girls themselves who approached the author to ask if they could learn and perform a group dance at the end of the intervention programme. The movement modules did, however, involve activities that were predominantly performed individually; it was not until the team building module that they exclusively had to work as a group. The gradual introduction of partner work helped the girls slowly become aware of and comfortable with the skill of being flexible. Perhaps by making adolescents

cognitively aware of the flexibility life skill, dropping out from class/courses can be prevented. When reviewing the statements from the girls' everyday life activities it can be concluded that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is important to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To be happy

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of the eighth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, twelve girls mentioned the use of the skill in an overall manner; how it kept them busy, learning new activities and the act of participation without the pressure of winning and losing. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Die bewegingsprogram het my gelukkig gehou, omdat dit nie uit wen en verloor bestaan het nie en omdat almal met mekaar gelag en gepraat het."

The movement programme kept me happy due to it not being about winning or losing and because we chatted and had a good laugh together as a group.

"...dit het my besig gehou en ek het baie geleer."

...it kept me occupied and taught me a lot.

Only one girl highlighted two of the movement components of the programme regarding the eighth life skill, namely dance and self-defence. The example of her view was:

"Ek is gelukkig toe ek die dans kan gedoen het en toe ek die 'selfdiffenc' kon doen."

I was very pleased when I managed to do the dancing, and when I could do the self-defence.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' utilisation of the eighth life skill during their everyday activities, eleven subjects described such a state in a general fashion. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Om gelukkig te wees in die allerdaagse lewe is glad nie so moeilik nie. Ek sê vir myself: "Vandag laat ek niemand my dag omkrap nie."

it is not really that difficult to be happy in everyday life. I tell myself: "Nobody is going to spoil things for me today."

"Ek is baie gelukkiger as ek myself geniet, so ek probeer om alles te geniet wat ek doen."

I am happiest when I enjoy myself, therefore I try to enjoy everything I do.

Two girls referred to their parents and one in particular about external pressure being placed on her and this making her unhappy regarding the eighth life skill. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek is die meeste van die tyd gelukkig, maar soms raak ek so gefrustreerd dat ek in my kamer gaan sit, en hulle almal verwag so baie van my."

Most of the time I am happy, sometimes however I get so frustrated that I have to go and sit in my room, and they all expect so much from me.

"...dat ek iemand in my lewe kan hê wat vir my omgee en lief het, soos my ouers."

...that I have somebody in my life who cares for and loves me like my parents.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made in the movement experience division, and the girls' everyday life activities, it can be seen that they covered a broad spectrum of topics, from gaining satisfaction from mastering the movement divisions, through to taking control and not letting others spoil one's day. It is important to make adolescents consciously delve into what makes them happy in comparison to only focusing on issues they get frustrated about. All of the girls referred to the presence of the eighth life skill in their everyday lives. It can therefore be assumed that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To have self-control

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of the ninth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, all the girls referred to this life skill during the programme in a general sense. The girls commented on it playing a role in their behaviour towards others' activities during the classes; such as coping with failure and taking on responsibility for their actions. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek moet selfbeheer wees, want as ek kwaad is en as iemand net lusteloos is in die klas word ek besserk."

I have to practice self-restraint, because if I am angry and if somebody is apathetic in class I want to go "berserk".

"Ek moet baie keer vir myself beheer het as ek nie iets kon regkry nie, want ek word baie gou hartseer."

I often had to restrain myself when I could not get something right, since I tend to become sad very quickly.

"Ek probeer om deesdae soveel as moontlik my eie besluite te neem, waar moontlik. Ek wil verantwoordelikheid hê vir dit wat ek doen en daardeur leer ek om myself te beheer."

These days I try to make as many of my own decisions as, and if, possible. I want to take responsibility for what I do, and through this I learn to exercise self-control.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' use of the ninth life skill during their everyday activities, six girls described a family situation. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Met my susters moet ek baie keer vir myself beheer, want hulle maak my baie keer kwaad."

I have to exercise restraint where my sisters are concerned, because they tend to regularly make me angry.

"By die huis as my broers hul klere rondgooi en ek maak al agter hulle aan skoon, word ek mal."

It drives me crazy when my brothers throw their clothes all over the house and I have to clean/tidy up behind them.

Five girls described the ninth life skill in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Somtyds wil ek iets verkeerd doen, maar ek het selfbeheer oor myself en weet wat reg en verkeerd is."

Sometimes I want to do something wrong, but I have self-control over myself and know what is right and wrong.

"Somtyds moet ek my lag beheer."

Sometimes I have to curb my laughter.

Two girls mentioned having to have self-control when it came to their friends/class mates' behaviour. An example of one of their views was:

"As Waja so wil baasspeel dan grief dit my."

When Waja tries to be so bossy it grieves me.

Discussion

Working with others who only want to do the fun part of the work, and who leave the rest to others, can be highly frustrating, however, is a reality of life. During the intervention programme the investigator regularly highlighted that there are some things that are done not because they are intrinsically rewarding but due to the reality that each member of a community or family has responsibilities towards others. Adolescents also need to learn that there are long-term goals for which immediate sacrifices are necessary (Stinson, 1997). When reviewing the statements made in the movement division by the girls, they all commented on the impact that an outsider can have on their behaviour, and that it is up to them to maintain control over themselves so as not to allow such external factors to influence their path towards a successful end-goal. Concerning the statements relating to the girls' everyday life activities, the comments ranged from family members and class mates causing them grief and having to contain their response reactions, to knowing what is right and wrong and it being one's own responsibility to choose the right path. It can therefore be concluded that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To push yourself to the limit

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of the tenth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, five girls referred to this skill during the swimming division. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Ek was moeg van daardie kruipslag in die swem, maar ek het deurgedruk en vandag is ek nie spyt nie,”

I was tired with the crawl during swimming, but I persevered and now I do not regret it.

“Partykeer kon ek nie meer swem nie, maar ek het deurgedruk.”

Sometimes I could not swim anymore, but I pushed through.

Two girls referred to the tenth life skill during the dance division. Examples of the participants' views were:

“In die program moet ek baie keer by die dans tot my uiterste druk, want ek het baie gou moeg geraak en warm gekry.”

In the programme I often had to push myself to the limit during dancing because I tired quickly and also got very hot.

"In die dans was ek al doodmoeg dan moet ek maar aanhou tot dit klaar is."

I was often dead tired during dancing, and then I had to keep at it until the end.

Six girls referred to the tenth life skill in a general sense concerning the programme.

Examples of the participants' views were:

"In die einde van 'n sessie moes ek partykeer my self tot die uiterste druk, sodat jy jouself goed van die taak kwyt."

Sometimes I really had to push myself to the limit at the end of a session in order to do the exercise properly.

"Om die onmoontlike te doen en nie die moontlike te doen nie."

Not to do what is possible, rather what is impossible.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the tenth life skill during their everyday activities, seven girls described their schoolwork and the pending exams. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek moet dit nou doen om my studies te doen."

I have to do that now to be successful with my studies.

"By die eksamen moes ek myself tot die uiterste druk, maar in die einde is dit vir die beste."

During the exams I really had to push myself to the limit, but it is for the best in the end.

Five girls mentioned the tenth life skill in a general sense. An examples of one of their views was:

"Ek het dit gedoen en ek het 'n sukses daarvan gemaak."

I persevered and made a success of it.

Two of the girls mentioned the utilisation of the tenth life skill concerning friendships and the well being of their friends. An examples of one of their views was:

"Ek wil graag my vriende regkry en ek gaan deurdruk totdat ek dit regkry."

I want to help my friends on the right path and I will not quit until I have achieved this.

One of the girls unexpectedly wrote that she did not find it worth the effort to push oneself in ones everyday life. The example of her view was:

"Ek het gevoel dit was nie die moeite werd om dit te doen nie."

I found it was not really worth the trouble of doing it.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made in the movement experience division, the majority of the participants related the tenth life skill to a physical component; namely that of persevering even though the exercise made them tired. With regard to the statements about the girls' everyday life activities, they covered a broad spectrum from their studies to being concerned about their friends and persevering at helping them find the right path. It can thus be assumed that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

There was, however, one of the girls who stated clearly that she did not find it worth the trouble of pushing herself in her everyday life. The investigator was to find out through conversations with the girls taking part in the intervention programme, and the girl herself reported that she came from an extremely troubled background and that at the time when the questionnaires were completed the situation had deteriorated considerably. It was an uphill battle at the beginning of the programme to get her to put in an effort, even though she had volunteered and attended every lesson. After the investigator had a long discussion with her, four weeks into the programme, she began to pull her weight and was rewarded by making friends with the others who had found her behaviour disruptive. Even though she learnt the importance of "pushing yourself" in the movement experience, she does not feel that in her everyday life experiences it will benefit her.

The comment "I do not feel like it", is an expression that frustrates many educators working with adolescents. With regard to such a statement, it appears that these students engagement in class has little in common with factors teachers can easily change. This does not suggest that a different teaching strategy or environmental change may contribute to students participating more actively, but that students themselves do not recognise what might be. A contributing factor to such an outlook is that many youngsters from disadvantaged communities lack adult role models in their communities who have achieved economic success and stability through hard work and staying in school. It is therefore understandable when they look around and see how well-educated middle class individuals are still losing their

jobs in massive cutbacks, and that the increase in new jobs still primarily exists within the poorly-paying service sector, that they understandably mistrust assurances that hard work in school is the ticket to a better life (Stinson, 1997).

To recognise your limitations

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of the eleventh life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, ten girls referred to this life skill in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Om te weet dat ander beter as jy is en ek weet dat ek kan beter werk daarvan sodat ek goed kan wees."

To know that others are better at something – and to know that I can work at it so I too can be good at it.

"Ek is so, ek het 'n baie baie 'bad' houding aan die begin gehad."

That is what I am like, I had a very bad attitude initially.

Three girls referred to the eleventh life skill during the dance division, and one during the swimming. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek is nie baie fiks nie en daarom kan ek nie al die dansstappe so goed doen nie, maar ek probeer darem."

I am not very fit and therefore could not manage all of the dance steps, but I do try.

"Ek weet dat ek nie so goed en perfek kan dans of swem nie, maar dan probeer ek maar."

I know that I am not very adept at dancing and swimming, but I still give it a try.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the eleventh life skill during their everyday activities, eleven girls described it in a general sense; especially pertaining to their tempers. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek is baie argumentatief en ek moet dit afleer."

I am very argumentative, and I have to break the habit.

"Ek praat baie terug met mense."

I tend to backchat a lot.

"Ek doen my uiterste om goed te doen in iets wat ek nie goed is nie."

I try my utmost to do well in something that I am not good at.

Two of the girls mentioned school and athletics in coming to terms with their limitations. Examples of the participants' views were:

"In wiskunde is ek 'n bietjie swak, maar tog werk ek daaraan en let op."
I'm not that good at Mathematics, however I still work at it and do pay attention to it.

"Ek herken my beperkings in atletiek, want ek kan glad nie vinnig hardloop nie."
I recognise my limitations where athletics is concerned, because I cannot run fast at all.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made concerning the movement experience division and the girls' everyday life activities, the majority of the statements revolved around not being perfect in a variety of fields, from movement to academics to personality traits that affect interaction with others. Self-knowledge and respect are vital for functioning effectively within group situations. However, intelligent and well-adjusted individuals may not necessarily form efficient working groups without specific guidance and direction (Stinson, 1997). One of the reasons that the intervention programme focused on movement forms that were not group activities but individual, was the hope that the girls would gain self-knowledge and belief in themselves before exposing them to group work. All the girls commented on how they would not let their limitations hinder them from working at the various activities that they related the eleventh life skill to. It can therefore be concluded that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To compete without hatred

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of the twelfth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, eleven girls referred to this life skill in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek moes op my tande byt en my woorde inhou."
I had to grit my teeth and swallow my words.

"Ek het dit wel reggekry om sonder afguns deel te neem."
I did manage to participate without being envious (of the others).

Only two girls referred to the twelfth life skill during the dancing and swimming component of the programme. Examples of their views were:

“Ek het baie keer nie lus gehad om te dans of te swem nie, maar ek het my beste probeer.”

I often did not feel like dancing or swimming, but tried my best.

“Ek het nie van die ‘shoulder roll’ gehou nie, maar ek moes dit gedoen het.”

I really did not enjoy the shoulder roll; still I had to do it.

Everyday life activities

Twelve girls made very general comments concerning the utilisation of the twelfth life skill in their everyday activities. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Wanneer jy iets doen en jy nie lus is daarvoor nie.”

When you have to do something whilst not really being in the mood for it.

“Ek probeer hard, maar soms is dit moeilik.”

I try hard, but sometimes it is really difficult.

One girl referred to school. The example of her view was:

“By die skool moet ek deelneem aan alles wat ek gesê word.”

At school I have to participate in whatever I am told to do.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made in the movement experience division, the comments were limited, and it could therefore be concluded that this twelfth life skill did not play a pertinent role in the movement division of the programme. The statements about the twelfth life skill relating to the girls' everyday life activities were once again vague and general. It thus can be concluded that this life skill did not feature in the situations they found themselves in during their everyday activities, for all except one subject could relate it to a specific incident.

To accept responsibility for your behaviour

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments pertaining to the utilisation of the thirteenth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, thirteen girls referred to this life skill in a general sense, highlighting having to take on responsibility if they had

missed a session and for their own behaviour and shortcomings. Examples of the participants' views were:

"As ek 'n klas gemis het, moet ek by my vriende uitvind wat ons gedoen het."

If I missed a class I was expected to find out from my friends what they had done.

"As jy iets gedoen het en jy sit die skuld op iemand anders."

When one has done something and tries to shift the blame onto another.

One girl highlighted dance under her comment about the thirteenth life skill during the programme. The examples of her view was:

"Om uit te bly by die dans, byvoorbeeld moet jy self iemand vra om vir jou die 'steps' aan te leer."

If you could not attend a dance class it was up to ask a fellow classmate to teach you the steps you had missed.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments relating to the girls' utilisation of the thirteenth life skill during their everyday activities, eleven subjects described it in a general sense.

Examples of the participants' views were:

"Om iets te doen en nie die skuld op iemand anders te sit nie."

To do something and not to blame others for your actions.

"My ma sê dit is my eie verantwoordelikheid om myself op te pas, elke dag, en ek doen dit sover baie mooi."

My mother says I am responsible for taking care of myself on an everyday basis, and I have managed rather well so far.

Five girls mentioned the thirteenth life skill with regards to their school environment.

Examples of the participants' views were:

"Veral as jy sleg in 'n toets gedoen het en jou onderwyser blameer."

Especially when you did badly in a test and try to blame your teacher for it.

"...by die skool as jy uitbly moet jy 'n vriend bel en vra wat was die huis werk."

...if you are absent from school you have to contact a friend to find out what homework you missed.

"Wel, op laerskool was ek gekies as hoofdogter en nou as klasprefek en ek is ook op die leerlingraad - dit net omdat ek verantwoordelikheid geneem het vir my gedrag."

Well, in primary school I was chosen as head girl and now I am a class prefect and serve on the student council – all this due to simply taking responsibility for my actions.

Discussion

The investigator feels that it is important for educators to teach students to accept responsibility for their own behaviour, for it seems to have become the norm of contemporary society to lay the blame on others for personal failure. If individuals learn to accept responsibility they are able to learn from their mistakes and achievements, thereby getting to know and trust themselves better. It is vital for at-risk youth to know their strengths and weaknesses for they have to trust in themselves more than other youths that have the luxury of productive support from significant others.

When reviewing the statements made concerning the movement experience division and the girls' everyday life activities, they ranged from accepting responsibility for oneself by asking a friend to teach one the dance steps missed due to absence, to not blaming a teacher for poor performance on a test when one actually had not studied for it. The thirteenth life skill seems to be closely tied to the ninth one, namely "self-control", where the girls commented on it being their responsibility to choose the right path based on knowing what is right and wrong. It can thus be assumed that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To make a commitment and stick to it

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the utilisation of the fourteenth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, twelve girls referred to the life skill in a general sense highlighting their attendance and completion commitment towards the programme. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek moes by elke klas wees, want dit was my plig om dit te doen."
I had to attend each and every class, because it was my duty.

"Ek het van die begin tot die einde deurgedring."
I kept right on from beginning to end.

"Ek het my beste probeer lewer, wat makliker is as ek dit geniet."
I tried to deliver my best, which is so much easier if I enjoy what I am doing.

Only one girl singled out a movement division concerning the utilisation of the fourteenth life skill, namely dance. The example of her view was:

“Ek het gesê ek gaan dans, toe dans ek.”
I said that I wanted to do dancing, and so I did.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' utilisation of the fourteenth life skill during their everyday activities, seven girls described it as playing a role regarding their academics, at and outside of school. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Ek moet elke dag by die skool wees om 'n goeie “education” te kry.”
To attain a good education I have to attend school every day.

“I committed that I will be a lawyer and I intend to accomplish it.”
I have committed myself to becoming a lawyer, and so I shall.

“Net soos by die Saili - ek het ook die regte keuse daar gemaak en uitgehou.”
Just like with SAILI (additional maths classes presented at the engineering faculty of the University of Stellenbosch) – I also made a good choice and I persevered.

Five girls referred to the fourteenth life skill in a general sense and with activities around the home. Examples of the participants' views were:

“Dat jy nie moet ophou as jy nie meer daarvan hou nie.”
You should not simply quit because you do not like it anymore.

“Ek is toegewyd om die huis skoon te maak, om klasprefek te wees en vir nog baie dinge.”
I am dedicated to tidying the house; to being a class prefect, and for a number of additional things as well.

One girl referred to the skill concerning her extra mural activities. The example of her view was:

“Ek het hard probeer om 'n dansspan (buite) op te maak en ek het dit volbring.”
I tried hard to put together a team for dancing (outside of the programme) and managed to accomplish this.

Discussion

It is important to remember as an educator that learning is only fun for students when they consider what they are learning to be of relevance to them. Stinson (1997) in her study concerning why some adolescents participate actively in dance classes and

others not, found that some of the students from the school, where many did not participate, revealed that they did not value what was being taught. They reiterated that they wanted to learn things that they could use in everyday life. This can be seen especially in the comment made by one of the girls in this movement intervention programme who states that she finds it much easier to commit to an activity if she enjoys what she is doing. All the girls referred to the presence of the fourteenth life skill in their everyday lives. It can therefore be assumed that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To accept criticism and feedback in order to learn

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments pertaining to the utilisation of the fifteenth life skill during the movement program divisions offered, twelve girls referred to this life skill in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Om te doen wat iemand anders vir jou gesê het, en toe jy dit doen was dit goed."

To do what you are told by someone else and when you did it, it was done well.

Two girls highlighted how the researcher taught them to get from one point to the next with conviction. Examples of their views were:

"Ons was baie gesê dat ons moet vinniger stap en ons het daarvan geleer."

We were often told to, pick up the pace, and that definitely taught us something.

"Lio het vir ons gesê om vinniger te stap en nie nonsens te praat nie."
Leo told us not to waste so much time by walking slowly and talking nonsense.

Only one girl referred to the fifteenth life skill in the dance division of the programme. The example of her view was:

"In die dans was daar baie gevalle waar ek moes luister wat Anthea gesê het en moes doen wat sy gesê het en geleer het van my foute."

During dancing there were many occasions where I had to listen to and do as Anthea told me to and I learnt from my mistakes.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' use of the fifteenth life skill during their everyday activities, eleven subjects described it in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"As iemand nie hou van my houding nie gaan ek probeer om dit reg te maak."

If somebody does not like my attitude, I shall try to correct it.

"Partykeer dan voel ek om vir iemand iets te sê, maar dan beheer ek my mond."

Sometimes I feel like making a comment, but then I swallow my words.

One of the girls in particular commented on how she often wants to cry if she is criticised by others. The example of her view was:

"Ek voel soms die tranen in my oë vorm, as mense my uitskel."

Sometimes I feel the tears welling up in my eyes when somebody scolds me.

Two of the girls mentioned the fifteenth life skill relating to their parents. Examples of their views were:

"My pa sê altyd vir my dat ek nie baie duidelik praat nie."

My father always tells me that I do not speak very clearly.

"Alles wat my pa en ma my leer neem ek in en voer dit uit."

I always listen to my mother and father and implement what they teach me.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made concerning the movement experience division, the girls all commented on listening to the feedback given by the instructors of the various movement divisions, and benefiting by taking heed of the advice given. The statements made by the girls relating to the fourth life skill, namely that of "communicating with others," are closely linked to this thirteenth life skill, where subjects related how listening to people they usually would not have had contact with, pleasantly surprised them. Pertaining to the statements surrounding the girls' everyday life activities, none of the subjects failed to refer to the presence of the thirteenth life skill in their everyday lives. It can thus be assumed that a cognitive transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place. One of the statements, however, brings home how difficult it sometimes is for a person to emotionally deal with criticism, where she comments about criticism

sometimes bringing tears to her eyes. It is important to remember as an educator how deeply one's words can affect a pupil and should therefore be carefully chosen.

To evaluate yourself

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments relating to the utilisation of the sixteenth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, five girls referred to this life skill in the dance division. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Partykeer moes ek myself evalueer in die dansklas sodat ek die volgende keer dit reg doen."

On some occasions I had to evaluate myself in the dance class so that I could improve.

"By die program moes ek baie keer myself evalueer om te kyk of ek kan verbeter, veral in die dans."

The programme often required self-evaluation to assess if one could improve, especially with the dancing.

Two of the girls referred to the sixteenth life skill as pertaining to the swimming division. Examples of their views were:

"...en by swem het ek gevoel ek het swak gevaaar en ek het dit probeer meer aandag skenk."

...and during the swimming I felt that I was not performing well and therefore tried to pay more attention to it.

"Soos by swem het ek gedink dat ek nie te goed is nie, maar ek het harder probeer.

Like with the swimming I did not feel that I was doing very well, I tried harder.

One girl referred to the self-defence division of the programme regarding the sixteenth life skill. The example of her view was:

"Ek het nie goed gedoen in my 'selfdifensklasse' nie."
I did not do very well during the self-defence classes.

Seven girls referred to the use of the sixteenth life skill in a general sense during the movement programme. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek het dit nie baie gedoen nie, behalwe as ek misluk het."
I did not do it that often, only when I failed.

“In die program moes ek kyk na myself en kyk of ek alles reg doen.”
I had to keep an eye on myself during the programme and see if I was doing everything correctly.

“In die program het ek my beste probeer.”
I tried my best during the programme.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls’ utilisation of the sixteenth life skill during their everyday activities, five girls described it as playing a role regarding their academics. Examples of the participants’ views were:

“Met my skoolwerk moes ek kyk na myself, sodat ek kan gemotiveerd wees vir die eksamen.”
Schoolwork demanded that I watch myself, otherwise it is difficult to be motivated for the exams.

“Ek dink dat ek meer aandag aan my skoolwerk moet gee.”
I believe I should pay more attention to my schoolwork.

“Evaluering is baie belangrik, daarom evaluateer ek myself nou en dan met skoolwerk, en so meer.”
Self-evaluation is very important, so every now and then I make a point of evaluating my schoolwork, etc.

“As ek nie goed in my skoolwerk gedoen het nie.”
When I did not do very well in my schoolwork.

Eight girls referred to the sixteenth life skill in their daily lives in a general sense. Examples of their views were:

“Ek doen dit baie as alles stil is in my kamer en my gedagtes dwaal.”
I do this often when all is quiet in my room and my mind is wandering.

“Baie keer voel ek dat ek nie 'n situasie goed hanteer het nie, maar dan weet ek wat om in die toekoms te doen.”
I often feel that I did not handle a certain situation very well, but then I usually know how to do it differently in the future.

“...Dit is 'n bietjie swaar vir my.”
...It is a bit difficult for me.

Discussion

When examining the opinions concerning the movement experience division and the girls’ everyday life activities, a close link can be seen between this life skill and the thirteenth one, namely that of “accepting responsibility for ones own behaviour.” It is not possible to take on responsibility for one’s actions unless one is consciously

aware of them and has evaluated them. All of the girls referred to the presence of the fourteenth life skill in their everyday lives even though one stated that it was not always an easy feat. It can therefore be assumed that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To make good decisions

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments pertaining to the utilisation of the seventeenth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, twelve girls referred to this life skill in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek het besluit om goed in die B program te presteer."

I decided that I would do well in the B (swimming) programme.

"Ek het goeie besluite geneem, omdat ek eers gedink het oor wat ek doen."

I made good decisions, because I first thought about what I was doing.

"Dit was 'n goeie besluit van my om deel te neem aan die program, want dit het my baie van myself geleer."

It was a wise decision to participate in the programme, because it taught me a lot about myself.

"By die program moes ek baie besluite neem. Op 'n tyd het ek te veel goed gehad om te doen en ek moes besluit of ek nog wou deelneem."

The programme forced me to make many decisions. At one point I had so much to do and I had to decide whether I still wanted to participate in the programme.

Only one girl singled out one of the movement forms presented during the programme, namely that of dance relating to the seventeenth life skill. The example of her view was:

"Ek het besluit om te dans, ek kon by die 'game shop' gewees het."

I decided to do dancing; I could have been at the game arcade instead.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' utilisation of the seventeenth life skill during their daily activities, seven subjects described it in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"In die alledaagse lewe is dit belangrik om goeie besluite te neem, omdat spyt kom altyd te laat."

It is very important to make good decisions in everyday life, since remorse always comes too late.

"Somtyds neem ek goeie besluite maar somtyds nie."

Sometimes I make good decisions, but sometimes I do not.

Two girls referred to the seventeenth life skill as playing an important role in their decision regarding their choice of academic subjects for the following year. Examples of their views were:

"Dit is nie altyd maklik om die goeie en regte besluite te neem nie. Ek moet nou besluit watter vakke ek vir st.8 gaan neem en dit gaan die res van my lewe beïnvloed."

It is not always easy to make good and the right decisions. I now have to choose my subjects for standard eight and this will have an impact on the rest of my life.

"By die skool moes ek besluit in watter rigting ek wil studeer."

At school I had to choose what direction I would like to study.

Two girls mentioned that their parents played an important role when it came to them making the right decisions. Examples of their views were:

"Ek sukkel altyd om my "mind" op te maak wanneer ek 'n keuse het, maar my ouers gee my goeie leiding."

I always struggle to make up my mind when I have to make a decision, but my parents always offer good guidance.

"...ek vra altyd my ma en pa se kommentaar."

...I always ask my mother and father for their opinion.

One girl referred to her goals in life guiding her to make good decisions. Her view was:

"Ek besluit om my doelwitte reg te kry en ek sal probeer tot ek dit regkry."

I decide to achieve my goals and I shall keep at it until I succeed.

One subject referred to thinking long and hard before she would contemplate getting married. The example of the participants' view was:

"...As ek moet trou sal ek eers goed dink voordat ek sal trou."

...if I have to marry I shall have to think long and hard before I decide to get married.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made concerning the movement experience division and the girls' everyday life activities, they were related to a broad variety of fields, from being aware of not always making good decisions to asking parents for advice when having to make decisions. All the girls referred to the presence of the seventeenth life skill in their everyday lives, even though it is not always easy feat. It can therefore be concluded that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To set and attain goals

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments pertaining to the utilisation of the eighteenth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, twelve girls referred to this life skill in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"In die program het ek vir my sekere doelwitte gestel en my beste probeer om dit te bereik."

I set certain goals for myself in this programme and tried my best to achieve them.

"In die program was dit my doelwit om goed te doen as ons geevalueer word."

My goal in the programme was to do well when we were being evaluated.

"Om goed te doen in die bewegingsprogram was 'n doelwit vir my en tog het ek dit bereik."

To do well in the movement programme was a goal of mine and I actually managed to achieve it.

"Ek moes die klas bywoon. Ek moet ook dit slaag."

I had to attend class. I had to achieve this too.

Two girls mentioned the swimming division in relation to the eighteenth life skill. Examples of their views were:

"Ek het gesê ek gaan my beste lewer by die evaluering van die swem. Alles het baie goed gegaan, behalwe vir die duik, maar ek voel trots op myself."

I said that I would deliver my best during swimming evaluation. Except for the diving, everything went very well and I am very proud of myself.

"Ek het gedink ek gaan dit nie maak by die swem nie, maar het hard gewerk en dit reg gekry."

I did not think I would manage the swimming, but I worked hard and was successful.

Two girls mentioned the eighteenth life skill relating to the dance division of the movement programme. Examples of their views were:

"Ek het belowe om die dans te doen en het my doel bereik."

I promised to do the dancing and reached my goal.

"Ek moes baklei om te dans."

I really had to fight to do the dancing.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' use of the eighteenth life skill during their daily activities, six girls described it pertaining to their academics. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Om my beste te doen in my skoolwerk en ander dinge. Om nie op te gee in wat ek doen nie."

To do my best in my schoolwork and other activities. Not to give up when I cannot do something.

"By die skool was dit dieselfde situasie soos by die program. Ek het besluit dat ek gaan goed doen in my skoolwerk en ek het."

School was a similar situation as to the programme. I resolved myself to doing well academically, and I did.

"Ek het 'n doelwit vir myself om goed te doen op skool en om 'n belangrike persoon te word."

My goal is to do well at school, and to become somebody of importance.

Nine girls referred to the eighteenth life skill in a general sense in their daily activities.

Examples of their views were:

"My doelwit is om my lewe te geniet en alles tot my volle potensiaal te doen..."

My goal is to enjoy life and to do everything to my full potential.

"Om dit te vat net soos 'n mens en om vir dit te waag."

To take it like a "man" and to dare for something.

"Ek hou daarvan om doelwitte te stel en dit te bereik."

I enjoy setting goals and achieving them.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made surrounding the movement experience division and the girls' everyday life activities, there is a strong link between them and those made regarding the third life skill, namely that of "meeting one's challenges." Goals themselves can be seen as challenges. By being taught, as the girls were in the movement intervention programme, to approach one's goals systematically and realistically, the challenge that they confront one with are obtainable. All the girls mentioned the presence of the eighteenth life skill in their everyday lives. It can thus be concluded that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To be able to learn

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments relating to the utilisation of the nineteenth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, eight girls referred to this life skill in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek was baie ywerig om te leer, want dit was baie interessant en genotvol."
I was very keen to learn, because it was very interesting and enjoyable.

"As ons praat in die klas dan leer ons daar uit."
When we talk during the class we learn from it.

"By die program het ek baie geleer. Ek het geleer wat ek nog nooit tevore gedoen het nie."
I learnt a lot from the programme. I learnt things that I have never learnt beforehand.

"Ek kon leer om baie goed te doen, soos swem, 'selfdifence' en dans (moderne). Dat ek dinge kan doen."
I was able to learn to do so many things, like swimming, self-defence, and dancing (modern). That I am able to do things.

Three girls referred to the nineteenth life skill regarding the dance division. Examples of their views were:

"Ek het baie dinge geleer, veral by die dans."
I learnt a lot, especially during dancing.

"Om van Lio die dans te leer, is baie lekker gewees."
To learn the dance from Leo was very enjoyable.

One girl referred to the self-defence division regarding the nineteenth life skill. Her view was:

"Die program het my baie geleer, veral oor selfverdediging. Dit het ook vir my geleer om met verskillende mense te kommunikeer."

This programme taught me a lot, especially about self-defence. It also taught me how to communicate with a variety of people.

One girl referred to the swimming division regarding the nineteenth life skill. The example of her view was:

"In die program het ek goed probeer swem."

In the programme I tried hard to swim properly.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments referring to the girls' utilisation of the nineteenth life skill during their daily activities, seven subjects described it in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Jy kan nooit te veel leer nie, maar om alles te onthou is 'n saak."

You can never learn too much, although remembering it all is quite a task.

"Ek leer elke dag baie dinge en ek dink dis goed om nou en dan dinge te leer."

I learn lots of things on a daily basis and I think it is good to learn something every now and then.

"Ek hou van leer, dit maak 'n mens wyser."

I like to learn, it makes one wiser.

"Ek kan leer om goed te kan kommunikeer en vriende te maak."

I can learn to communicate well and to make friends.

Six girls referred to the nineteenth life skill pertaining to their academics. Examples of their views were:

"By die skool is dit dieselfde, want ek is in 'n nuwe standerd en ek het baie nuwe dinge geleer."

It is the same at school, because I am in a new standard and have learnt many new things.

"In die skool leer ek ook baie en ek geniet dit."

I also learn lots in school and I enjoy it.

Discussion

Students want to learn things that are fun, that they can use in life and that they can relate to (Stinson, 1997). When reviewing the statements made pertaining to the

movement experience division, all the subjects felt that they learnt something through the programme and that it had taught them a variety of skills that they found useful. Concerning the statements surrounding the girls' everyday life activities, there seemed to be a fairly even split between how they learnt things in a general sense, and in an academic manner. The six girls, who purely related the life skill of being able to learn to their school environment, could be seen as having a slightly immature outlook versus a lateral train of thought. Their focus on academics could, however, be linked to the pending final year exam pressure that was to follow in two weeks after completing the questionnaire. None of the subjects, however, failed to refer to the presence of the nineteenth life skill in their everyday lives. It can therefore be concluded that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To work within a system

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments relating to the use of the twentieth life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, twelve girls referred to this life skill in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Ek het altyd probeer om my beste te doen, want almal moet sy beste probeer, sodat die sisteem kan werk."

I always tried to do my best, since everybody has to try and do their best, so that the system can work.

"Daar was reëls waarby ek moes aanpas; dit was moeilik, maar ek verstaan dit nou."

There were rules that I had to adapt to; this was difficult, but now I understand why it was necessary.

"Om binne 'n sisteem te werk, is vir my soos om saam te werk."

To me working within a system is similar to working together.

"...Ons het in elke deel 'n sisteem gehad waarvolgens ons gewerk het."

...Each component of the programme had a certain system according to which we worked.

Only one girl singled out one of the movement forms regarding the twentieth life skill, namely that of dance. The example of her view was:

"...ek het dit geniet, veral by die dans."

...I enjoyed it, especially the dance.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments pertaining to the girls' utilisation of the twentieth life skill during their daily activities, two subjects referred to it in the academic setting. Examples of the participants' views were:

"By die skool werk ek onder sisteemreëls en-regulasies."
At school I am subjected to a system of rules and regulations.

"Nou dat dit eksamen is, moet ek volgens 'n sisteem werk om te leer."
Now that the exams have arrived, I need to work according to a system to be able to learn my work.

Three girls referred to their home and family environment regarding the twentieth life skill. Examples of their views were:

"Om my huissisteem te kan verstaan."
To understand the system at home.

"Om saam met my familie te bly."
To live with my family.

"By die huis probeer ek altyd om gehoorsaam te wees."
I always try to be obedient at home.

Eight girls referred to the twentieth life skill in a general sense. Examples of their views were:

"Om nie verkeerde dinge te praat nie."
To not say the wrong things.

"Om my emosies te hanteer..."
To control my emotions...

Discussion

The life skill of having self-control and working within a system can be seen as related, because to be able to achieve both of them it is necessary to be aware that there are some things that are done not because they are intrinsically rewarding but because each member of a community or family has responsibilities towards others (Stinson, 1997). All the girls referred to the presence of the twentieth life skill in their everyday lives. It can thus be assumed that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

To be self-motivated

Movement experience

Out of the thirteen comments pertaining to the utilisation of the twenty-first life skill during the movement programme divisions offered, twelve girls referred to this life skill in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Om my kant te bring, om te doen wat iemand my sê."
To do my share of the bargain, to do as I am told.

"Dit is belangrik om selfgemotifeerd te wees. Selfmotivering is wat die bewegingsprogram lekker maak."
It is important to be self-motivated. Self-motivation is what makes the movement programme so enjoyable.

"Daar was sommige goed wat ek nie kon doen nie, maar ek het myself gemotiveer en dit reggekry."
There were certain things that I could not manage, but I motivated myself and was able to get it right.

"Leonieke, jou motivering het my baie geïnspireer om met alles wat ek doen my beste te lewer."
Leonieke, your motivation really inspired me to do my best in everything I do.

Only one girl mentioned one of the movement forms relating to the twenty-first life skill namely that of dance. Her view was:

"Ek het myself gemotiveer by die dans, want ek het nooit moderne dans gedoen nie."
I motivated myself during dancing, because I have never done modern dancing before.

Everyday life activities

Out of the thirteen comments relating to the girls' use of the twenty-first life skill during their daily activities, nine girls referred to it in a general sense. Examples of the participants' views were:

"Soms is ek stil in my kamer en dink oor alles wat met my gebeur het en dit motiveer my om goed te doen."
Sometimes I sit quietly in my room and then I ponder about all my life experiences, and this motivates me to do well.

"...Ek soek partykeer hulp om myself te motiveer."
...sometimes I need help to motivating myself.

"...om my eie 'responsibilitye' te neem."
...to take on my own responsibilities.

Four girls referred to their schoolwork concerning the twenty-first life skill. Examples of their views were:

"Soos by die skool is ek ook selfgemotiveerd. As ek moeg word, motiveer ek myself en sê in my gedagtes "Komaan Colleen."

At school I also self-motivated. When I grow tired, I motivate myself and say: "Come on Colleen."

"In my skoolwerk is ek selfgemotiveerd, omdat dit belangrik is."

I am self-motivated where schoolwork is concerned, because it is important.

Discussion

When reviewing the statements made concerning the movement experience division and the girls' everyday life activities, in general they all refer to intrinsic self-motivation in comparison to external motivational factors. Taking the intrinsic motivational factor into consideration, this life skill can be closely linked to the thirteenth, namely that of "accepting responsibility for one's behaviour." All the subjects referred to the presence of the twenty-first life skill in their everyday lives. It can therefore be concluded that a cognitive skill transferral from a movement experience to their everyday life activities took place and that this skill is of importance to individuals from such a culture and ethnic heritage.

Chapter Nine

Conclusions and Recommendations

Adolescence is a life stage of dramatic change in various domains. Establishing what optimal development in adolescence comprises, is complicated by the fact that it will be adults and not adolescents who make such decisions (Wagner, 1996a). For those adults involved with adolescents in the movement and sporting domain and who believe that such activities will positively affect them, the lament by adolescents globally and in South Africa is all too often heard that they do not understand why they have to do certain activities and that they will be of no use to them. The inability of secondary physical education programmes to promote enthusiastic student participation has been noted as being most prominent in urban schools, and among youths already at risk for academic failure (Martinek, 1997). The frustration of movement educators is thus understandable when they are instructed to and want to seize the opportunity to make a difference in their students' lives, and assist them in becoming responsible and productive individuals.

Linked with conditions of poverty is a lack of assistance for at-risk youth to grow socially, cognitively, and emotionally. Reed and Sautter (in Martinek, 1997) state that the *Children's Defence Fund* noted that the United States and South Africa, among the advanced industrialised countries, provided the lowest amount of health and foster care to children. One of the factors that has been identified in studies evaluating patterns of at-risk problem behaviours was that of lack of self-esteem (Collingwood, 1997). Concerning the emotional development of youth; that of girls is especially worrying. Even though society has progressed towards gender equality, girls are often restrained from reaching optimal development, due to the effects of gender on affective expression and the limitations that socialised gender roles can have on optimal emotional health of adolescents (Fassinger, 1996). In addition, as Betz and Fitzgerald; and Gilbert (in Fassinger, 1996) emphasise, there is a steady and penetrating decline in the self-esteem of girls as they move from childhood to adolescence.

Self-confidence in sport psychology literature has been the subject of much research in recent years. An individual's perception of his/her own abilities has often been cited as mediating constructs in achievement strivings, and as a psychological factor affecting athletic performance (Lirgg, 1991). It has been found that exercise can positively impact on an individual's self-perceptions (McAuley, 1994; Sonstroem, 1984). There has, however, been a considerable lack of research of how females' self-confidence is affected by physical activity (Lirgg, 1992), and how coaches can structure their programmes so as to improve female participation and their self-esteem measures (Lirgg & Feltz, 1989). The possible use of participation in physical activity as a medium for the improvement of girls' self-esteem through improvement in self-confidence is an exciting option for movement educators and coaches in South Africa.

For the purpose of this study the investigator designed a movement programme utilising life-skill development strategies. The study was performed to gain insight whether or not a specially designed movement programme could impact on the self-esteem of adolescent girls, from a previously disadvantaged background. A secondary purpose of the study was to research the generalisability of life skills. It was investigated whether the girls who participated in the programme had utilised the life skills taught to them in the different movement divisions (modern dance, swimming and self-defence), and if cognitive transference of these skills had taken place to their everyday environment. The study, which was founded on a body of literature generally derived from sport psychology, sport and physical education, took place specifically within the framework of the competence motivation theory.

Harter's (1985) *Self-perception Profile for Children* was used to measure the self-esteem of an experimental group ($n = 13$) and a control group ($n = 8$) of girls from the same high school between the ages of 13 and 16 years. The girls came from a disadvantaged community in South Africa, in the Western Cape, and were considered to be at-risk youth. The self-esteem of the girls was measured across six sub-domains, namely that of: global self-worth, scholastic competence, social acceptance, athletic competence, physical appearance and behavioural conduct. A five and one-half month movement intervention programme utilising life-skill development strategies was conducted between 2 and 4 times a week for the experimental group members. On completion of

the intervention programme, the experimental and control groups completed the same test that was used to measure pre-intervention self-esteem measures. The experimental group additionally completed an open-ended *Life Skill Questionnaire* designed by the researcher. The statements were used to determine if the girls had utilised the life skills taught during the programme in the different movement divisions and if a cognitive transferral of skills to their everyday environment had taken place.

Components of the Intervention Programme

Dance remains at the basic level of human expression. Current knowledge challenges established assumption held about dance by dancers and non-dancers alike. Dance not only contributes to a healthy lifestyle, but serves as a “language” with which to communicate emotions and ideas. Because dance is language-like, it can be seen as a medium for interdisciplinary education. Many students particularly those at risk of dropping out of school, become hostile toward standardised education, that in their minds divides knowledge into unrelated pieces that are removed from real life. Dance education captivates many such students’ attention through its immediate engagement of mind and body. By conveying meaning through dance, one can assist in emphasising ethnic, national, and other group identities, which may promote self-esteem and separationism (Hanna, 2001).

The sheer exhilaration of discarding the physical burden needed for life on land and entering into the water, can in itself be an immensely satisfying achievement. Finding the joy of safe independence in the water for those individuals, who are learning how to swim, will help broaden the horizon of their existence. For many individuals the courage and determination that is needed when learning how to swim in itself can lead to greater independence (Association of Swimming Therapy, 1992). A healthy sense of personal independence contributes positively to an individual’s sense of perceived competence, which in turn affects self-esteem.

With daily reports of violent acts committed against women and children in South Africa, it can be seen as crucial that all means are brought into action to protect these victims. By providing potential victims with tools such as non-combative self-defence techniques educators can play a role in reducing the effect of violent attacks on our youth/adolescent girls. Self-defence training can also contribute to the psychological health of an individual (Heyden et al., 1999). Self-defence training offers a chance to do something significant for students, something that may provide benefits long after most of them have completed high school (Bart & O' Brien, 1985; Heyden et al., 1999; Smith, no date).

Conclusions

Self-esteem

The data of the *Self-perception Profile for Children* (Harter, 1985) were processed to determine the changes in group mean ratings from pre- to post-test performance on the six self-esteem sub-scales. The data analysis revealed considerable changes in the group mean ratings from pre- to post-test performance on the six self-esteem sub-scales on conclusion of the five and one-half month movement programme utilising life skill development strategies. The six dimensions of self-esteem mean ratings for the experimental group who had participated in the movement intervention programme increased considerably from the pre- to the post-testing. The mean ratings for the control group, who had not participated in the programme, however, dropped considerably as can be observed in Table 13. The experimental group at the start of the programme had two very low mean scores for athletic competence (1.74) and the physical appearance (1.99) sub-domain. Scores of 1 reflect the lowest level of perceived competence in an area. The girls who formed the experimental group may have consciously decided to take part in the programme due to them sensing their low athletic and physical self-confidence. The remaining four subdivision scores all fell between 2 and below 3, reflecting an average level of perceived competence. The highest score recorded was for behavioural conduct with 2.55. The mean rating scores for the control group who did not participate in the programme all fell above that of 2,

indicating that they generally had higher overall self-esteem ratings at the onset of the movement programme.

The self-esteem data recorded with the post testing clearly illustrated that a reversal in strength between the experimental and control group scores had taken place compared to the initial mean testing scores. After the experimental group had taken part in the programme their mean ratings for all six self-esteem dimensions were above 3. They had thus improved from the low and average level of perceived competence to scores of 3, which reflect a strong level of perceived competence. The greatest mean difference improvements out of the six self-esteem dimensions, with more than 1 point on the 4-point rating scale, were those of: global self-worth (1.20), scholastic competence (1.06), athletic competence (1.74) and physical appearance (1.24). For the control group who did not take part in the programme a downward trend could be observed across all six sub-domains of self-esteem measured in the post-test. The control group's mean ratings had dropped from stable to low 2's and even 1's. They had thus fallen from their previous average level of perceived competence over the six dimensions of self-esteem, to that of the average and low level of perceived competence. The greatest declines in the mean difference scores out of the six dimensions, were those of: scholastic competence (-. 99), athletic competence (-. 97) and physical appearance (-. 80). These dimensions of self-esteem are 3 of the 4 areas in which the experimental group of girls illustrated considerable improvements after having taken part in the study.

It must be kept in mind when interpreting the data that the girls who decided to participate in the programme were volunteers. The experimental group of volunteers all initially had lower self-esteem scores than those girls who formed the control group. It has been noted in previous research that children with low self-concepts benefit from remedial movement programmes to a greater extent than those with a healthy self-concept. It may have been that after the experimental subjects had participated in the introductory lesson, which demonstrated what typically could be expected by them, they believed that this was a means for them to positively alter the feelings they had about themselves. Through the actions of volunteering, individuals choose to take on ownership for their personal actions. Ownership tends to reinforce commitment to a task at hand. Making one's own decisions, taking on responsibility for personal actions, and

considering long-term implications and possibilities, compared to immediate gratification, are all characteristics adolescents acquire when they progress from childhood through to adolescence. The act of volunteering, to participate in the movement intervention programme utilising life skill development strategies, would have contributed to the perceived independence of these girls as they progress from childhood through to adulthood. The feeling of personal ownership of independence and the perception that they were competent at it may have had a dramatic impact on their elevated self-esteem.

Table 14

Summary of pre- and post-test scores of self-esteem

Dimensions of Self-esteem	Experimental group		Control Group	
	Pre-test mean	Post-test mean	Pre-test mean	Post test mean
Global self-worth	2.09	3.29	2.54	2.17
Scholastic competence	2.30	3.36	2.95	1.96
Social acceptance	2.20	3.12	2.81	2.63
Athletic competence	1.74	3.15	2.80	1.83
Physical appearance	1.99	3.23	2.88	2.08
Behavioural conduct	2.55	3.23	2.58	2.29

Life skills

The life skill development strategies used for the purpose of this study were derived from life skills that Danish and his colleagues (Danish et al., 1993) had identified as skills of value across different settings. The 21 life skills covered with the girls who took part in the movement intervention study were dealt with in an informal manner during the modern dance, swimming and self-defence components of the programme.

When the girls' responses to the open-ended questionnaire were investigated, it was found that the girls from the experimental group had been able to utilise all 21 life skills in the various movement components offered in the programme and that cognitive transferral of the skills had taken place to their everyday environment. Concerning the movement division, the statements pertaining to the utilisation of the skills predominantly revolved around the swimming, followed by dance and lastly self-defence. The perseverance theme was a noticeable thread which ran through many of the statements, such as:

- *With the swimming, but eventually I managed to get it right and that pleases me, because I know that I am a winner.*
- *In the programme I often had to push myself to the limit during dancing because I tired quickly and also got very hot.*
- *I tried to deliver my best, which is so much easier if I enjoy what I am doing.*

The thread of doubt in the girls' ability initially, followed by a belief in their personal success at the end of the study, was observed in many of the statements:

- *It was a challenge to devote one's time to the programme, but the challenge was a success.*
- *...because everybody looked so good and I did not really (seem to be), but I tried my best and fared rather well.*
- *...I never knew that I had the ability to defend myself.*

By receiving feedback about one's strengths and weaknesses, by exposing oneself to a variety of situations, individuals learn about themselves and gain additional social competencies (Petitpas, 1978). Unfortunately at-risk youth such as the girls who took part in the study do not have the opportunity to get to know themselves better through self-exploration in different environments to those that they are usually accustomed to. It was hoped through the intervention study, which utilised three different types of movement components, that the participants would be able to get to know themselves better in different environments and thereby broaden their self-esteem. It was

heartening at the end of the study to observe the girls' determination in the face of difficulty, for a strong belief in oneself is necessary so as not to negatively impact on the individual's self-esteem when threatened and faced with the possibility of loss (Petitpas, 1978).

Concerning the statements that the girls made about the use of the life skills in their everyday environment, they predominantly revolved around perseverance, commitment and academics. The perseverance and confidence thread which ran through many of the statements, were noted by the girls as follows:

- *I am being challenged in many ways, but that is okay, because I am learning to cope with it.*
- *I gained the confidence to make new friends, and on the trip to Paarl for the talk on career choices I felt free to ask a lot of questions about things that I did not understand.*

Even though the investigator felt that the programme may have been more beneficial for the girls if it had been presented by individuals that were from the same ethnic and cultural background, the above statement and the one to follow indicate that it was beneficial, for at least some of the subjects, to interact with individuals such as those who had presented the programme. By interacting with the coaches from different backgrounds they were shown that it is possible to communicate with others and to be confident when doing so.

- *I communicated with many people that I would never have spoken to before. To me that was a very important aspect of the programme.*
- *I never dreamt that I would talk to you*
- *...with my course leader...She always gave me advice.*

Academics were high on the priority list for the girls in their everyday environment. The scholastic environment may have been focused on more than it would have been on if the *Life Skill Questionnaire* had been completed at an earlier or later stage. The girls

completed the questionnaire a short while before they were about to begin with their final year exams. Some of the statements revolving around academics were as follows:

- *Self-evaluation is very important, so every now and then I make a point of evaluating my schoolwork, etc.*
- *I have had many successes and failures in my schoolwork, but I always try to improve.*
- *I failed two subjects in the June exams, but I kept at it and eventually passed.*

The indication that the life skills included in the movement programme strongly transferred to the girls' academic everyday environment was an encouraging observation. For as Collingwood (1997) has stated, at-risk youth live in a negative environment and/or have a deficit in the skill and values that help them become responsible members of society. This places such youth at risk for developing serious problem behaviours, which include educational and occupational difficulties amongst others. The investigator tended to notice over the course of the study that the girls became more concerned and aware of their futures, and believed that by getting a good education their chances of success in life would be increased compared to others in similar at-risk situations.

Recommendations

1. The environment in which the life-skills coaching took place at the girls' school can be considered to have been fairly unstable. There were regular disturbances in the school hall where the programme was presented, by other extra-mural activities. The disturbances were particularly noticed during the dance division of the movement programme. Being observed by outsiders made the girls self-conscious at first, and it was difficult for the instructors to coax an unrestrained performance out of them. The violent attack that took place on the school property, 23 October 2000 (see Appendix H), which was witnessed by many of the girls who were involved in this study, severely unsettled not only them but the entire school from teachers to

pupils. This incident may have had a negative impact on the self-esteem scores of the girls, especially the control group who had not been exposed to a life skill development programme in which the participants were taught to deal with pressure situations and communicate feelings effectively. In addition to unsettling the girls, the programme was cut short due to the incident at the school. The programme had been extended on request of the experimental group who wanted to perform a group dance, at their achievers award evening, for their parents and peers to witness what they had learnt and were capable of. The school cancelled the evening due to them feeling that it was unsafe to have any activities taking place on the property after school had ended for the day. The investigator was unfortunately unable to shift the performance to another venue due to the outside venue that had additionally been used for the programme being unavailable. The girls were all very disappointed that they could not publicly display their achievements. It would be interesting to note if movement intervention programmes such as the one in the study differ in impact depending on the stability of the environment they are presented in.

2. The girls who took part in the study were all adolescents between the ages of 13 to 16 years of age. Generally, adolescence is regarded as a period characterised by conflict, turmoil and anxiety. It is the time where individuals progress from the role of a child to adult forms of behaviour that are viewed acceptable by their culture. Older significant others such as coaches and parents who would previously have guided a child, play a less significant role, with the adolescent turning to peers for advice and guidance. It would be interesting to ascertain if the effect of the programme would be different, if coaches more or less the age of the girls had been used. Effective programmes, such as GOAL for instance, use well-trained high school to middle school or junior high school students to present the programme.
3. An investigation should be undertaken to determine the effect that coaches from the same cultural and ethnic background as the girls would have. The individuals who presented the various movement components to the experimental girls were all from a different ethnic and cultural background to that of the girls. Individuals from similar backgrounds may be seen as better models, and encourage a greater participation rate from volunteers who initially may feel threatened by strangers. One of the

individuals in her responses in the *Life Skill Questionnaire* for instance mentioned the fact that before the programme she had not thought that she would be able to interact effectively with individuals from different backgrounds.

4. Researchers have documented that it is a well-known fact that there is a steady decline in the self-esteem of adolescent girls as they progress from childhood through to adolescence. It would be interesting to note if specifically designed self-esteem movement intervention programmes would positively impact girls who had not yet reached adolescence, and if such an intervention could restrict the downward trend of self-esteem that is expected to follow in their later years.
5. The experimental group of girls that took part in the study had considerably lower self-esteem scores over the six domains that were measured, compared to the control sample at the initiation of the study. It has been found that remedial movement programmes have the greatest effect on children who initially have low self-concepts. It would be interesting to note in further studies whether such a movement intervention programme, as used in the study, would positively affect adolescent girls with higher self-esteem ratings to the same extent as it did those with lower scores.
6. The post testing of self-esteem, including the utilisation and transference of life skills, was performed on the experimental group of girls extremely close after the end of the programme. An investigation should be undertaken at a later stage, with the same group of girls, to determine the permanence of the positive upward spiral that was noted in their self-esteem after having participated in the movement programme of this study. A later investigation concerning their utilisation of the life skills dealt with in the programme may bring interesting facts to light with regard to how, and if the girls use the skills in different manners than initially reported by them in the study.
7. The study was performed only using adolescent girls that were identified as being at-risk youth. Boys are also susceptible to at-risk conditions. An investigation should be undertaken with adolescent boys from the same ethnic and cultural background who have been identified as being at-risk, to determine if a similar movement

programme as undertaken in the study would positively influence their self-esteem and utilisation of life skills.

8. The sample of adolescent girls used for the study was a relatively small one. An investigation should be undertaken with the same movement programme, in which the subjects are from different disadvantaged ethnic and social backgrounds. The utilisation of larger samples could contribute to the identification of a broader spectrum of adolescent girls' needs and the generalisation of the results to other contexts.
9. An investigation needs to be undertaken to determine if the movement programme used in the study would equally benefit and impact on adolescent girls from more advantaged backgrounds.

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Gebouwde structuur:

Ouderdom:



Hoeveel help ik anderen?

Voorbeeld items:

Mark waarbij jou eigen mening < X in de middel.

Hoeveel help ik anderen
maar niet veel
van mij

Dit is een goede vraag voor mij.
Ja nee
Vast

Anderen vinden
mijn behulpzaamheid
vast niet belangrijk.

Dit is een goede vraag voor mij.
Ja nee
Vast

Anderen vinden
mijn behulpzaamheid
vast niet belangrijk.

Hoeveel help ik anderen
maar niet veel
van mij

Dit is een goede vraag voor mij.
Ja nee
Vast

Anderen vinden
mijn behulpzaamheid
vast niet belangrijk.

Appendix A

Harter's Perceived Competence Scale

Naam:

Geboortedatum:

Ouderdom:

NEEM ASSEBLIEF KENNIS DAT
DIE RESULTATE VAN DIE
VRAELEYS VETROULIK HANTEER
SAL WORD EN DAT JOU
IDENTITEIT ANONIEM SAL BLY

HOE IS EK?

Voorbeeld sinne:

Merk asseblief jou antwoord met 'n **X** in die blokkie.

	<i>Heelte- mal</i>	<i>Half- waar</i>			<i>Half- waar</i>	<i>Heelte- mal</i>
	<i>waar</i>	<i>van</i>			<i>van</i>	<i>waar</i>
	<i>van my</i>	<i>my</i>			<i>my</i>	<i>van my</i>
a)	π	π	Sommige kinders verkies om in hul vryetyd buite te speel	MAAR	Ander kinders verkies om TV te kyk	π π
b)	π	π	Sommige kinders bekommer hulle nooit oor eniglets nie	MAAR	Ander kinders is soms bekommerd oor sekere dinge	π π
1.	π	π	Sommige kinders voel dat hulle baie goed in skoolwerk is	MAAR	Ander kinders wonder of hulle die skoolwerk kan doen	π π

	<i>Heelte-mal waar van my</i>	<i>Half-waar van my</i>			<i>Half-waar van my</i>	<i>Heelte-mal waar van my</i>
13.	π	π	Sommige kinders werk baie stadig in die skool	MAAR	Ander kinders kan hulle skoolwerk vinnig doen	π π
14.	π	π	Sommige kinders wil graag baie meer vriende hê	MAAR	Ander kinders het genoeg vriende	π π
15.	π	π	Sommige kinders dink dat hulle goed sal wees in enige sport al het hulle dit nog nie van te vore probeer nie	MAAR	Ander kinders is bang dat hulle nie goed sal wees in sport wat hulle nog nie probeer het nie	π π
16.	π	π	Sommige kinders wens dat hulle lyf anders was	MAAR	Ander kinders hou self van hulle lyf soos wat dit is	π π
17.	π	π	Sommige kinders gedra hulle gewoonlik soos hulle weet hulle moet	MAAR	Ander kinders gedra hulle nie soos hulle moet nie	π π
18.	π	π	Sommige kinders is gelukkig met hulself	MAAR	Ander kinders is baie keer nie gelukkig met hulself nie	π π
19.	π	π	Sommige kinders vergeet baie keer die goed wat hulle leer	MAAR	Ander kinders kan maklik onthou	π π
20.	π	π	Sommige kinders doen altyd dinge met baie vriende	MAAR	Ander kinders doen gewoonlik dinge alleen	π π
21.	π	π	Sommige kinders voel dat hulle beter in sport as hulle maats is	MAAR	Ander kinders voel nie dat hulle so goed kan speel nie	π π
22.	π	π	Sommige kinders wens hulle het anders gelyk	MAAR	Ander kinders hou van hoe hulle lyk	π π

	<i>Heeltemal waar van my</i>	<i>Halfwaar van my</i>			<i>Halfwaar van my</i>	<i>Heeltemal waar van my</i>
2.	π	π	Vir sommige kinders is dit moeilik om vriende te maak	MAAR	Vir ander kinders is dit maklik om vriende te maak	π π
3.	π	π	Sommige kinders doen baie goed in allerhande soorte sport	MAAR	Ander voel nie dat hulle baie goed in sport is nie	π π
4.	π	π	Sommige kinders is gelukkig met hoe hulle lyk	MAAR	Ander kinders is nie gelukkig met hoe hulle lyk nie	π π
5.	π	π	Sommige kinders hou self nie van die manier waarop hulle hul gedra nie	MAAR	Ander kinders hou gewoonlik van die manier waarop hulle hul gedra	π π
6.	π	π	Sommige kinders is baie keer ongelukkig met hulself	MAAR	Ander kinders is tevreden met hulself	π π
7.	π	π	Sommige kinders voel dat hulle net so slim is soos hulle maats	MAAR	Ander kinders is nie so seker nie en wonder of hulle so slim is	π π
8.	π	π	Sommige kinders het baie vriende	MAAR	Ander kinders het nie baie vriende nie	π π
9.	π	π	Sommige kinders wens hulle kan baie beter wees in sport	MAAR	Ander kinders voel dat hulle goed genoeg is in sport	π π
10.	π	π	Sommige kinders is gelukkig met hulle lengte en gewig	MAAR	Ander kinders wens hulle lengte en gewig was anders	π π
11.	π	π	Sommige kinders doen gewoonlik die regte ding	MAAR	Ander kinders doen dikwels nie die regte ding nie	π π
12.	π	π	Sommige kinders wil graag hê dat hulle lewe anders moet wees	MAAR	Ander kinders hou van hulle lewe net soos dit is	π π

	<i>Heelte-mal waar van my</i>	<i>Half-waar van my</i>			<i>Half-waar van my</i>	<i>Heelte-mal waar van my</i>
33.	π	π	Sommige kinders is nie goed in nuwe speletjies	MAAR	Ander kinders is dadelik goed in nuwe speletjies	π
34.	π	π	Sommige kinders dink dat hulle mooi is	MAAR	Ander kinders dink dat hulle nie baie mooi is nie	π
35.	π	π	Sommige kinders gedra hulself baie goed	MAAR	Vir ander kinders is dit baie keer moeilik om hulself te gedra	π
36.	π	π	Sommige kinders is nie baie gelukkig met die manier waarop hulle dinge doen nie	MAAR	Ander kinders dink self dat die manier waarop hulle dinge doen is goed	π

	<i>Heeltemal waar van my</i>	<i>Halfwaar van my</i>			<i>Halfwaar van my</i>	<i>Heeltemal waar van my</i>
23.	π	π	Sommige kinders kom gewoonlik in die moeilikheid oor die goed wat hulle doen	MAAR	Ander kinders doen gewoonlik nie verkeerde goed nie	π π
24.	π	π	Sommige kinders hou van die soort mens wat hulle is	MAAR	Ander kinders wens baie keer dat hulle anders was	π π
25.	π	π	Sommige kinders doen baie goed in hulle skoolwerk	MAAR	Ander kinders doen nie baie goed in hulle skoolwerk nie	π π
26.	π	π	Sommige kinders wens dat meer kinders van hulle moet hou	MAAR	Ander kinders voel dat meeste kinders klaar van hulle hou	π π
27.	π	π	In speletjies en sport kyk sommige kinders gewoonlik, maar speel nie	MAAR	Ander kinders speel gewoonlik en hoof nie net te kyk nie	π π
28.	π	π	Sommige kinders wens daar was iets aan hulle gesig of hare wat anders was	MAAR	Ander kinders hou van hulle gesigte en hare soos dit is	π π
29.	π	π	Sommige kinders doen goed wat hulle weet hulle moenie	MAAR	Ander kinders doen omrent nooit dinge wat hulle weet hulle moenie	π π
30.	π	π	Sommige kinders is baie gelukkig om te wees soos hulle is	MAAR	Ander kinders wens dat hulle anders was	π π
31.	π	π	Sommige kinders sukkel om antwoorde in die skool uit te dink	MAAR	Ander kinders kan amper altyd antwoorde uitdink	π π
32.	π	π	Sommige kinders is gewild by hulle maats	MAAR	Ander kinders is nie baie gewild nie	π π

Appendix B

Life Skills

Naam: _____

- Om onder druk te presteer

Bewegingsprogram:

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

Bewegingsprogram:

- Om georganiseerd te wees

Bewegingsprogram:

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

Bewegingsprogram:

- Om uitdagings aan te neem

Bewegingsprogram:

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

Bewegingsprogram:

- Om met ander te kommunikeer

Bewegingsprogram:

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om sukses en mislukkings te hanteer

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om ander se waardes en oortuigings te hanteer

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om buigsaam te wees om sodoende te slaag

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om gelukkig te wees

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om jou te verbind tot iets en daarby te hou

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om self-beheer te hê

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om jouself tot die uiterste te druk

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om jou beperkings te herken

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om sonder afguns deel te neem

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om verantwoordelikheid te neem vir jou gedrag

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om toegewyd te wees

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om kritiek en terugvoering te aanvaar en om sodoende te leer

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om jouself te evalueer

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om goeie besluite te neem

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

- Om doelwitte te stel en te bereik

Bewegingsprogram:

Alledaagse lewe:

Appendix C

- Om te kan leer

Bewegingsprogram:

Dance

Alledaagse lewe:

Floor arrangement

The floor arrangement is an example brought randomly from the internet. This arrangement is not necessarily the only one which can be used.

- Om binne 'n sisteem te werk

Bewegingsprogram:

Initial position: Stand upright with back to audience (dancer's back to audience). Turn right to place feet in outside turn position.

Alledaagse lewe:

Initial position: Turn right, feet (R) left (L) front. Arms held at sides.

5-7:

Turn back to back.

8:

Turn to face the front and place feet in outside turn position.
Arms held at sides.

- Om selfmotiverend te wees

Bewegingsprogram:

Initial position: Turn right, feet (R) left (L) front. Arms held at sides.

5-6:

Turn back to back.

7:

Turn back to back.
Arms held at sides.

Alledaagse lewe:

Push off hands taking left side of body.

3-4:

Extend R leg through développé. L leg is held back with knee as close to bottom as possible. Turn back to back. Arms held at sides.

5-6:

Roll upstage to end facing audience. Roll upstage to end with arms held in fifth position. Legs must be held together. Knees kept close together and pointed out.

7-8:

L/R R leg backward into attitude position (point). Roll down to floor. L/R bring L side of body or push up on hands as follows:

1-2:

Rolling upstage, lie flat on back with arms extended to floor. Point with pelvis resting flat on the floor.

3-4:

Back contraction assisted by pushing against floor with back. Bend knees simultaneously keeping knees tight together and point of pointed feet on floor. Drop head down and keep arms extended to prevent it from collapsing.

5-6:

Cross L leg over R in basic sit position. Keep L foot flat on floor and R leg well bent with foot pointed. Arms must be held at sides.

Appendix C

Dance

Floor amalgamation

The floor amalgamation is an exercise taught exclusively on the floor. The floor is utilised to encourage full extension of the body and create awareness of body alignment. In addition to the aforementioned, the pupils are taught fluidity of movement with the restriction of the floor.

- Initial position:** start centre with back to audience (downstage). Place right foot on *demi-point* crossed behind left leg.
- 1-4: Four steps backward, right (R), left (L), R and L. Arms are held in preparatory position.
- 5-7: Three twizzle turns.
- 8: Turn to face the front and place feet in parallel first position.
- 1-2: Bend knees for momentum whilst windmilling arms from right to left. On the upsweep rise to *demi-point* position.
- 3-4: Fall to floor on left side.
End position: lie on left side, L arm extended and R arm lightly supporting body on the floor with fully extended legs.
- 5-6: Curl into foetal position.
- 7-8: Recover returning to end position of beats 3-4.
- 1-2: Push off hands lifting left side of body.
- 3-4: Extend R leg through *développé*. L leg is well bent on floor with L heel as close to bottom as possible. Laterals must be well lifted at all times.
- 5-6: Roll upstage to end facing audience. Roll in extended position with arms held in fifth position. Legs must be well extended with knees kept close together and pointed feet.
- 7-8: Lift R leg backward into *attitude* position placing R *demi-point* on floor. Lie flat on L side of body or push up on hands as for beats 1-2.
- 1-2: Rolling upstage, lie flat on back with arms extended to high "V" position with palms resting flat on the floor.
- 3-4: Back contraction assisted by pushing against floor with hands. Bend knees simultaneously keeping knees tightly together and soles of pointed feet on floor. Drop head backward keeping neck extended to prevent it from collapsing.
- 5-6: Cross L leg over R in basic sit position. Keep L foot flat on floor and R leg well bent with foot pointed. Spine must be kept

- extended at all times. Fingertips are lightly placed on floor at sides of body in low "V" position.
- 7-8: Turn head to look at audience.
- 1-2: Roll upstage to face left diagonal front (LDF) corner ending on hands and knees (doggie position). Abdominals must be contracted to prevent arching during table stretch position.
- 3-4: *Développé* R leg into back arabesque position and incline head to right diagonal front (RDF) corner. Try to keep hips as square as possible. Avoid a sickled foot by lifting toes towards the ceiling.
- 5-6: Bring R leg in a bent position towards left knee to prepare for jazz split. For jazz split place hand, bottom then knee onto floor. End with L leg in backward *attitude* position. L arm is extended to LDF and R hand placed on right side of body on floor. Look at R hand and push chest forward and open to achieve a side back contraction.
- 1-2: Tailspin. Keep knees tightly together and avoid rocking on the bottom.
- 3: Bring L leg to LDF and extend legs in front of body. Hands support body on either side with fingertips lightly resting on floor, the spine is extended to lift well out of waist and eyeline is erect. Forward bend from waist reaching towards toward feet with extended arms and placing forehead on knees.
- & 4: L or R well-controlled shoulder roll with neatly tucked knees.
- 5-6: Turn to face back. Legs are placed in bent second position with feet flat on floor, hip width apart. Place arms behind body for support and lift out of hips to achieve a well-extended spine.
- 7-8: Push up. It is important to keep feet hip width apart and parallel, to push off hands with the pelvis leading the movement. The push up is easier to perform if heels are lifted to *demi-point*. R arm reaches towards ceiling to aid with balance.
- & 1: Hop for impetus bringing L foot to high *passé* next to R knee. Arms are positioned in third position.
- 2-4: Run in semi-circle towards the R ending facing front.
- 5-6: Two drag walks, L and R, and a small hop placing L foot in front of R to third position.
- & 7: *Sissonne* to R.
- 8: Cross L leg over R and unwind turn to face LDF.
- 1-4: Run to LDF.
- 5-6: Ripple upper body with arms sweeping from preparatory position backward ending in fifth position.
- 7: Step backward with L leg.
- 8: *Grand-battement* R leg simultaneously reaching forwards with and sweeping them backward to parallel position next to body.
- 1-2: Two steps backwards, R & L ending with feet in second position ending with arms in third position with L arm in front.

- 3-6: Windmill arms and torso from R to L ending with arms in fourth position with L arm on top and legs in fourth position with R leg in front facing LDF.
- 7-8: Contraction towards LDF with arms in fourth position and left foot placed on the *demi-point*. Knees must be relaxed.
- 1-2: Jazz roll with a controlled fall to the floor to end in a basic sitting position facing the back.
- 3-4:
- 5-8: Push on R hand in the basic sitting position to enable a lifting of the right laterals and side off the floor whilst extending the right leg to the side. Left arm is extended towards the ceiling to achieve a diagonal arm line whilst looking at bottom R hand.
- 1-2: Place both hands on floor and move into a pitch to LDF lifting the R leg into an arabesque pitch.
- 3: Bring body upright with R leg in high *passé* and arms placed in rounded first position. Backwards layout (same principles apply here as with the push up) with arms in second position and flat palms.
- 4: Low trench onto L knee with the chin tucked to the chest.
- 5-6: Slide on bottom facing the LDF with legs extended to the front. Use the pressure of the floor to achieve a strong backward push.
- 7-8: Cartwheel L then R leg whilst facing the back and roll onto stomach to end facing the front. Place hands next to shoulders with elbows tucked in, in preparation for back contraction.
- 1-4: Push on hands to slide body backward with a back contraction.
- 5-8: Own ending to encourage creativity and improvisation.

Dance amalgamation

The dance amalgamation is taught to pupils to enable them to demonstrate the contrast between a slow and fast passage in a dance movement. Through the dance and its varying time frames pupils come to grips with the impact different rhythms have on their movements, and by illustrating their mastery of dance technique by presenting correct placement of the body in space.

Initial position: start centre with feet in parallel first position facing front and arms held in preparatory position. Four steps forward through the music. Hop in high *passé* on L leg with right foot placed at L knee. Run in a semi-circle towards the R with arms held in third position, R arm placed in front of body and palms facing the floor. End facing the front with feet in parallel second position. R foot is placed on the *demi-point* with knee turned in.

- 1-4: Walk forward R, L, R and L with the head turning to the R and L side on counts three and four.
- 5-8: Walk backward R, L, R and open legs to second position *demi-plié* with L leg leading *plié* position.

- 1-2: Rib extension to R and L with arms held in second position and palms facing downwards.
- 3-4: Ribs circle all the way around with the hips remaining in isolation.
- & Hit palms on thighs.
- 5: Rise onto *demi-point* whilst extending knees and taking arms to fifth position with dropped wrists.
- 6: Remaining on rise drop into a knee drop line pushing the arms down the side of the body to behind the bottom with flexed hands and end looking at right hand.
- 7: Step behind L leg with R bending arms at elbows placing the fists in front of the shoulders and keeping the elbows tucked into the waist.
- & Step side with L leg.
- 8: Step forwards with R leg and throw arms into low "V" position with jazz hands.
- 1-2: Touch step with L leg in front, L foot on *demi-point* and a L leg hip isolation. Arms lift to high "V" position with dropped wrists. Step forward on L leg and drop arms to side of body.
- 3-4: Repeat counts 1-2 with a R touch step.
- 5-6: Touch L foot to right diagonal front (RDF) whilst swivelling on right foot. When L foot touches floor on the *demi-point* perform half an outward hiproll with the L hip.
- 7-8: Repeat the above touching the L foot to the left diagonal back (LDB) corner.
- 1-2: Trench forward onto L leg to face the front and place arms in low "V" position with jazz hands. R leg is well bent and the pointed foot is placed with the arch on floor, next to L foot.
- 3: Jump backwards onto R leg and extend L leg to the front with the L foot well flexed.
- & 4: Small jump forward onto L leg and beat R foot on *demi-point* next to L foot. Hands are placed on hips.
- 5&6: Kick ball change with R leg.
- 7: Jump back on R leg to face the L side wall extending L leg in front with a flexed foot. R hand is placed in low "V" jazz hand position slightly in front of body with the palm facing the side of the body.
- & Mini trench forward onto L leg bending the R elbow so that the jazz hand is placed in front of the shoulder.
- 8: Repeat count 7.
- 1&2: Step behind (R), side (L) and front (R) taking arms to low "V" position with jazz hands.
- 3-4: Twizzle turns on the spot to the R with arms bent at elbows, fists at shoulders and elbows tucked into the waist.
- 5&6: Run forward to the R, L to the right front diagonal (RDF) corner. Step onto the R leg and hop with a tuck jump with the L knee slightly higher than the R. Hands are clasped in front of body with extended arms.
- 7: Step forward on L.

- &: Jump up on L leg and with the R leg brush kicking from the back to the front.
- 8: Whilst still elevated *développé* R leg through to the back and land in a long lunge to the RDF. Arms push backward on lunge with flexed hands. Look to the LDF corner with an inclined head.
- 1-2: R leg touches to RDF corner with half an outward hip roll.
- 3-4: R leg touches to LDF corner with half an outward hip roll.
- 5-6: R leg touches to RDB corner with half an outward hip roll.
- 7-8: R leg touches to LDB corner with half an outward hip roll. Arms move through four different levels from a low to a high "V" position with accompanying wrist rolls to the hip rolls.
- 1-2: With relaxed knees face the L sidewall. Feet are in parallel first position on the *demi-point*. Isolate (roll) R shoulder forward.
- 3-4: Unfold shoulder isolation backward with shoulder roll.
- 5-6: Small jump sideways onto L leg to end in basic sitting position.
- 7-8: Tail spin, knees must be kept together as close as possible and the spin ending facing the back to sit with bent legs hip width apart and feet placed flat on the floor. Arms are placed with fingertips resting lightly on the floor behind the legs in a low "V" position.
- 1-2: Rib extension from R to L side.
- 3-4: Full head roll towards the left-hand side initially.
- 5-6: Push up with the pelvis leading and the R arm extended towards the ceiling looking up at R hand.
- 7-8: Lower back to sitting position, keeping legs in second position.
- 1-2: Push up to standing position with arms in second position and palms facing the floor. End facing the R side wall with feet in parallel first position and knees relaxed.
- 3: Wrap R arm across the tummy and L behind the body. Let head follow the direction of the swing and tilt body slightly at the waist towards the right hand side.
- 4: Wrap to the left-hand side.
- 5-8: Own ending to encourage creativity and improvisation.

Appendix D

Self-defence

Introduction

The non-combative self-defence division of the movement programme strived to provide the subjects with background knowledge, to instil confidence in addition to the mental and physical fundamental principles to deal with varying threatening circumstances effectively.

The objectives of the self-defence course that was divided into three sessions aimed at:

- Providing subjects with knowledge on rape, the attacker and attack situations.
- Target areas on perpetrator's bodies.
- Instruction and mastery of self-defence movements to defend themselves.
- Nurturing subjects confidence in their unique capabilities.
- Creating a general awareness and its role in self-defence.

Session one

Session one took place at the department of Sport Science, University of Stellenbosch, as a three-hour theory session presented by a qualified martial arts and self-defence instructor and the investigator. The self-defence topics covered during the session dealt with:

1. Phases of defence:

- Escape
- Evasion
- Retaliation, and
- Flight

2. Awareness and its role in self defence:

- Steer clear of dangerous places or situations.
- Refrain from becoming involved in hostile situations.
- Learn to recognise danger, and move away from it.
- Do not waver to scream for help, and run to the closest secure place.
- Having self-defence skills does not make one invulnerable.
- Many criminals are opportunists.
- Avoid situations that put one at risk of becoming a victim.
- Take care of self and one's possessions.
- Be crime prevention conscious and do not place sole responsibility on the police.
- Refrain from walking alone and taking dark derelict short cuts.
- Stand close to others whilst waiting for a bus.
- Sit as far forward and close possible as to the driver in an empty bus.
- Observe the fellow passengers getting off with you at your arrival destination.
- On suspicion of being followed, quickly enter the closest occupied building or shop and do not hesitate to get assistance.

- Keep doors locked at home at all times.
- Confirm the person whom you are opening the door for is known to you.
- Demand personal and company identification, even for police officers. Ratify companies name from phone book and not the stranger.
- Do not let strangers use your telephone or toilet. Suggest that you yourself will call, and let the stranger wait outside the locked door.
- Lookout for suspect strangers following you or milling around without purpose.
- Refrain from taking a lift with suspect strangers and accepting gifts from them.
- Be cautious of strangers asking for assistance and directions.
- If molested in a lift, press all the buttons exiting as quickly as possible.
- Keep alert and if put at risk, scream if safe to do so and run into a crowded place for help. Do not shout for help when in an isolated place with one's attacker. Nobody will hear one and the assailant may panic and kill one. Scream when one hears people's voices or one can see the headlights of a car.
- If the attacker is armed, do not resist. Try to remain calm and remember distinct features of the perpetrator (Oosthuizen, 1999 & Smith, no date).

3. Why does rape happen?

4. Misconceptions surrounding rape:

- Rape victims are sexy and young.
- Well brought up girls do not get raped.
- Numerous rapes are cases where a flirtatious woman altered her mind.
- Rejected women falsely accuse men of rape.
- Rape is essentially a sexual crime.
- Women encourage rape by dressing and behaving inappropriately.
- I will never become a victim.
- Rapists are "sex-starved" perverts.
- Black men predominately rape white women (Smith, no date).

5. Rape patterns:

- Confidence rape
- Blitz Rape
- Fantasy rape
- Anger Rape
- Power rape
- Sadistic rape
- Date rape
- Gang rape

6. Legal aspects:

- Do not wash self or change clothes.
- Contact police and district surgeon immediately.
- Charges can be laid.
- A civil suit can be put forward.
- Examination by a psychologist.
- Pro-deo defence / legal aid.
- Damaged (claim).
- On-going therapeutic and social support (Smith, no date).

7. The community and its role in self defence

8. Avoidance and its role in self defence

9. Fire arms

Session two

The self-defence instructor predominantly presented session two. The session was begun with a theory component and lasted for approximately an hour.

1. The human body as a weapon in self defence

2. Common items as weapons in self-defence

3. The human body as a target

4. Stages of defence – escape, evasion, retaliation and flight

The second half of session two began with practical demonstrations and the practice of these movements for two hours. The students were encouraged to use their own discretion for the retaliation phase using what they had learned in the first half of the lesson regarding the human body as a target and a weapon in self defence.

5. Methods of attack and counterattack:

- Pulling of hair.
- Holding the neck (stranglehold, front and back, arms pinned and free).
- Attack to the eye.
- Blow to the face or side of head (ear) with the fist, open hand, elbow, knee or foot.
- Head blow (butt).
- Blow to the abdomen, side or back with the fist, open hand, elbow, knee or foot.
- Holding one or both wrists (with one or both hands).
- Elbow and shoulder being held.
- Leg and arm locks.
- Wrist grab (single and double).
- Waist / chest encirclement (front and back, arms pinned and free).

In between each method of being attacked and counterattack situation, a group discussion was held in how to deal with situations such as:

- Animals
- Peeping toms
- Intoxicated people
- Aggression at school
- Witnessing a situation
- Armed attacker
- Stalker

Session two was followed up by a two-hour practice session so that the students could practice and become efficient in all the moves learnt during session two.

Session three

The third session of two and a half-hours followed the same format as session two, but was a little more advanced. The students were taught:

- Throws
- Falling
- Defence on the ground. Never drop to the ground unless you are confident in self-defence ground techniques. If you are knocked down, get up quickly.
- Escape from an advanced rape situation.

Session three was additionally followed up by a one and a half hour practice session held at the Luckhoff high school, Idas Valley to ensure that the students were secure in their mastery of the self-defence movements taught during session two and three.

APPENDIX E

Swimming Instructions

Lesson one

Breath control

Breath control is important for a swimmer to master as an individual can drown if suddenly immersed in water. When introducing breath control to students, it is important to teach them every time they take a breath, face the wall. This will prevent panic in the reduction of breath rate.

- * Blow a ball along water surface
- * Tilt head forward and blow exhalations into water
- * Mouth submerged or partially submerged whilst blowing bubbles
- * Breathing out of nose into water whilst swimming

The mushroom

The pupil assumes a sitting position in the water whilst being supported by the teacher. He/she then tucks chin in and brings knees up to chin. The pupil then starts to blow bubbles whilst keeping the head forward. The teacher blows bubbles in the water so that they blow out air bubbles. The pupil assumes the mushroom position and stays in this once he/she is at ease. Teacher should assist and remind the pupils to remember that the position will be re-assumed.

Buoyancy and upthrust

Most people float in water. Buoyancy enables the body to float, and upthrust means that the water applies to that body.

- * Cross or hands and knees under water,
- * Cut into a bell at the bottom of the shallow end and "pop" up into a mushroom float

Floating on the back

- * Waterline cuts ears in half,
- * Chin tucked on to chest, and eyes look along the body to the toes

Floating on the front

Ensure pupils have mastered breath control before this position is attempted.

Appendix E

Swimming Instructions

Lesson one

Breath control

Breath control is important for it ensures the safety of an individual in the water. When suddenly immersed in water, most individuals breathe in by instinct. Pupils need to be taught to blow every time their face comes near to the water, and must practice this until the reaction is automatic.

- Blow a ball along water surface.
- Tilt head forward and blow indentations into water.
- Mouth submerged or partially submerged whilst blowing out air.
- Breathing out of nose into water whilst humming.

The mushroom

The pupil assumes a sitting position in the water whilst being supported by the instructor. He/she then tucks chin in and brings knees up to chin. The pupil then clasps his/her shins whilst keeping the head forward. The instructor slowly rolls the pupil forward whilst they blow out air bubbles. The pupil assumes the mushroom position without assistance once he/she is at ease when being twisted and turned in all directions, and understands that the position will be reassumed.

Buoyancy and upthrust

Most people float in water. Buoyancy enables the body to float, and upthrust is the force that the water applies to that body.

- Crawl on hands and knees under water.
- Curl into a ball at the bottom of the shallow end and “pop” up into a mushroom float.

Floating on the back

- Waterline cuts ears in half.
- Chin tucked on to chest, and eyes look along the body to the toes.

Floating on the front

Ensure pupils have mastered breath control before this position is attempted.

Lesson two

- Repeat previous activities.
- Pupils sit on the side of the pool with their legs stretched out leaning back whilst kicking quickly up and down. Legs must remain straight but relaxed. Ensure kicks originate from the hips.
- Let them jump in and holding onto the rail jump up and down. Have them sit on the bottom of the pool.
- Have them turn around and walk three steps forward. Let them face you with arms held forward and jump towards the rail.
- Now have them stretch their arms towards the rail, put their face into the water and have their legs come up so that they lie on the water when jumping forward. Explain how they must remain relaxed and loose lying on the water and that it will help support them.
- Repeat the exercise attempting little kicks to assist reaching the rail. Do not place too much emphasise on the correct kicking action; it is more important that they learn to lie on the water relaxed.
- Repeat the exercise with their face in the water looking at the bottom. Review their kicks.

Independence in the water

Encourage self-initiated movement through the water, such as: walking, running, jumping and leaping. This assists in building-up to horizontal propulsion.

Sculling in a back float

The back float is a well-balanced position in which breath control is easy to maintain. The sculling is performed close to the pupil's centre of balance to minimise his/her balance being disturbed too greatly. Scooping hand movements are performed, with the palms facing downward, whilst being moved to and from the body at hip level.

Sculling on front

Only allow pupils to scull, whilst lying on their stomachs if they have achieved sufficient breath control.

Lesson three

- Repeat previous activities.
- Have pupils jump up and down holding onto the rail. Have them go right under.
- Sit on the bottom and blow bubbles.
- Walk out four steps now and return lying in the water, no jump, with quick little kicks. Emphasise that knees are not allowed to bend. Allow the more nervous individuals to take only three steps and jump to assist with glide and kicking.
- Race walk across pool. Pull back the water with alternate hands held beside the body with slightly cupped hands.

Group activities and games

By using the water as a playground, individuals are provided with an enjoyable means to gain confidence and master the principles of water safety. Games help individuals understand: movement; balance; stability; how to change body shape and position, and; correct breathing control.

Group work advantages

- Pupils experiencing difficulties in understanding can copy others.
- Those who excel help others to try harder.
- Pupils low in confidence often try because the others are achieving.
- Tension is less when surrounded by others trying for a similar objective.

Snake

The instructor calls out "snake". Pupils form a human chain and attempt to catch the tail of the "snake" once it is formed. Game construction.

Chest ball

Propel floating objects across water surface by pushing it with the chest. Use in relay form.

Counting fingers

Perform in pairs or as a group. Individuals both crouch down to submerge, and count the number of fingers displayed by the other. Perform the same game as paper, scissors rock game.

Lesson four

There may be some variation in proficiency. Keep less capable pupils within jumping distance from the side of the pool and allow the others to progress further out as long as they kick correctly. Introduce the "duck paddle" which is like "doggy paddle" with the hands under the tummy, not the chin, and face in the water until a breath is required.

- Repeat previous activities.
- Have pupils jump in and sit on the bottom whilst blowing bubbles. Practice blowing through loose lips first making a "brr" sound.
- Whilst holding onto the rail have pupils place their feet against the side, with bent knees positioned between their arms. Ensure their arms are straight, head tilted backwards and ears in water. Stand up straight by tilting the chin towards the chest and push downward with the feet.
- Repeat previous exercise and slowly push away by stretching their legs and letting go their grips so as to lie on the water. Once they are standing again, have them return to the poolside on their tummies with outstretched arms whilst kicking.
- See how long they can lie on their backs after pushing away from the wall.

Catch me if you can

Each pupil is provided with an object that slowly sinks. When it begins to sink he/she submerges and tries to retrieve it. Leave increasing intervals between release and retrieval, until the object is almost on the pool floor.

Jack in the box

"Bob" up and down in the water whilst increasing the range of the movement until completely submerged. Accompany upward movement with a jump and propel as far as possible out of water.

Lesson five

Supply each pupil with a kicking board, regardless of his/her ability. Have pupils hold the board with their hands half way along the sides and straight arms.

- Enter water with a slip dive. Stand at the edge of the pool with toes hooked over edge and bent knees. Have them position heads between arms, looking forward with a slightly rounded back. Push off with legs and start kicking once in the water.
- Have pupils' kick back with their boards held in front of them, straight-arms and faces in the water.
- Slip dive and kick across the breadth of the pool.
- Place boards behind heads, elbows bent whilst holding with both hands. Once pupils heads are on their "pillows" have them push off the side with one foot lying back.
- Kick back with the board in held in front with blowing bubbles.

Place boards at the side of the pool. Walk across the pool, bending forward and reach to scoop the water one hand at a time.

Star fish

Stand with shoulders submerged, and arms forward in a V position. Lift one leg backward, lean forwards to lose balance and move into a glide with legs apart. A star shape in the prone floating position will thereby be achieved.

Stuck in the mud

A catcher is chosen whom when catching other players "freezes" them in a position with their legs apart. A "free" individual who swims underneath his/her legs frees the caught player.

Lesson six

Check pupil's method of holding their boards. Straight arms allow a gap for their faces.

- Blow bubbles and lift faces for air when necessary.
- Enter water with a slip dive and emphasise the leg extension so pupils do not touch the bottom. Kick half way across the pool and return.
- Lie with the boards behind heads, looking up and kick with loose feet.
- Place boards on edge of pool and hold rail with one hand. Stand comfortably away from the side. Bend forward and blow bubbles in the water turning heads away from raised arm for air. Allow them to blow out (exhale) for 3 counts and breath on the fourth always to the same arm.
- Perform kicking on backs with "pillows". Correct over-bent knees and sitting positions.

- Kick with boards held in front. Instruct pupils to look at the side of their arm so as to prevent them from looking up.

Place boards on side of pool. Walk across pool scooping water. Let pupils now take their arms right around out of the water behind them and forward again. Perform this exercise at a water depth ensuring pupils shoulders are under water.

Pair dodging

One pupil chases the other until the instructor shouts, "stop". If the pupil chasing can reach out and touch his/her partner without stepping forward, a point is gained. Reverse roles and continue the game.

Bound at the hip

In pairs, with arms around each other's waist, the pairs on a signal attempt to cross the pool without breaking loose from each other.

See-saw

Partners face each other, with shoulders beneath the water whilst holding hands. One partner extends his/her knees, whilst the other submerges by bending the knees. Bending and stretching of knees is alternated so as to create a "see-saw" effect.

Lesson seven

Allow pupils to decide if they would like to use a board or not.

- Slip dive in and ask them to see how far they can kick across the pool without touching the bottom whilst, keeping their faces in the water.
- Have pupils duck paddle towards you whilst breathing.
- Demonstrate the starting position for entering the pool without a board. Slip dive in without boards, dropping chins as push away from the side. Let them kick across pool whilst breathing.
- Hold the rail in preparation for backstroke. Remind them to kick with the entire leg with floppy feet, a little splash, tummy up and head held back.
- Have pupils exit the pool. First demonstrate, then allow them copy. Bend forward at the waist placing one arm forward and the other behind the body. Pull back with the front arm whilst the other comes over the top from behind reaching forward. Have them copy this motion.
- In the water stand with backs towards the wall. Walk across pool bent forward at the waist using arms like as demonstrated on land. Breath to side on every fourth count. Perform the previous exercise adding legs when "kick" is called.

Twin tag

All partners must remain in contact with each other at all times. The game proceeds as a simple tag game, with one pair chosen to be the chasers trying to tag other couples. Those who are caught become the taggers.

Over and under

Pupils stand in a long row with feet astride. A ball is passed from one pupil to the next, over the head and then between the legs. Form two rows and see who finishes first.

Lesson eight

- Repeat previous activities.
- Now, let pupils put their boards at the side of the pool.
- Slip dive into the water and kick across pool.
Remind pupils that the kick originates from the hips and that the feet must remain relaxed.
- Walk half way across using the arms whilst breathing. Add the kick.
- Revise the kick and let pupils swim as far as possible kicking only. See who gets the furthest.
- Hold onto the rail, push off and kick on backs with legs held close to each other and arms remaining loosely at sides.
- Have pupils demonstrate the freestyle stroke whilst bending forward. Correct mistakes. Remind them of the breathing pattern and of breathing on the same side.
Explain that they have now learnt the entire crawl/freestyle stroke and that they must now assemble it and endeavour to swim across. Do not expect the stroke to be neat at this stage.

Lesson nine

- Repeat previous activities and remind pupils of all the aspects they practised for freestyle. Slip dive in and see if they can swim across properly.
- Facing the rail practice breathing. Ensure full exhalation and quick head turns are performed.
- Climb out and swim another length of crawl. Ensure that the heads are not placed too deep and that the arms are not brought across pupils faces instead of entering in front in line with their noses.
- Get out of the water and stand with hands beside legs, palms facing backward and cupped hands. Turn hands sharply forward and back again. Display how one sculls at the side of ones legs. Once in the water, hold onto the rail and proceed to kicking on backs with the sculling motion.
- Demonstrate backstroke arms, with the little finger leading and entering the water first. Have them copy you whilst standing out the water.

Perform the entire backstroke with arms.

Pair towing

One pupil's stands behind the other with their shoulders at water level. The rear partner places his/her hands on the shoulders of the partner in front of them. The front partner travels forward using his/her arms to assist balance and propulsion.

Partners stand facing each other, with shoulders at water level whilst holding each other with a forearm grip. One pupil walks backward whilst towing the other lying in a horizontal position on their stomach.

Allow pupils to come up with new and imaginative ways to "tow" each other.

Lesson ten

- Repeat previous activities. Most pupils will be swimming now. A few timid ones will still want a board. Give it to them.
- Demonstrate the backstroke arms and have them show you.
- Have pupils swim backstroke. Some may sink when using their arms. Tell them to arch their backs slightly and look at the ceiling. Ensure that the arms pass the ears and are not taken across their faces.
- Have pupils swim freestyle. Correct mistakes.
- Pair up the class. Let the first couple swim half a length of crawl and give each child one correction. Have them swim back to you and let the following couple advance.
- Repeat the previous activity with backstroke.
If the pool has a deep end take those children who can swim a width of crawl and let them do the same starting from the deep end and swimming towards the shallow end.
- Repeat with backstroke.

Have a board race so that the pupils who are nervous do not feel left out.

Carry me!

In groups of three, two outside pupils grasp the middle one under the arms, who tuck his/her knees up with arms holding the shins. They are then carried across the width of the pool. All three pupils receive a turn in being carried.

One against three

Three pupils hold hands to form a circle. A fourth pupil, moves around the circle whilst attempting to "catch" a nominated member of the circle. Positions must be changed frequently. The player wins with the most touches.

Common faults in freestyle	Corrections
Body or limbs held and used stiffly.	Lie in the water as if asleep, and allow it to support individual.
Head held too high or too deep.	Open eyes, watch fingers enter the water. Water at eyebrow level.
Kicking with bent knees and feet high out of the water.	Speed up kicking. Return to glide and kicking exercises.
Kicking too wide and straddled.	Swim as if walking with legs passing each other; together but nice and loose.
Tossing head from side to side.	Get rid of all the air by blowing into the water and breath to one side only.
Arms moving wildly or at sides.	Arms work slower than legs. Reach forward and allow fingers to enter first.
Hitting the water with flat palms.	Do not fight the water; fingers enter first.
Bottom wriggles.	Caused by tension in the buttocks. Lift head a little and make kicks quicker and closer.

Common faults in backstroke	Corrections
Sitting in the water with the bottom "hanging".	Tilt head backwards. Show pupils on land how to push hips forward.
Chin on chest; causes pupil to sink.	Chin up, head back, ears in the water, look at the sky.
Back over-arching, legs dropping.	Lie as if asleep. When kicking make a little splash.
Kicking too deeply with bent knees and little progress through water.	Shallow kicks with entire leg. Flip water upwards with floppy feet and watch the splash.
Too much splash.	Keep legs and feet loose. Flip water upwards.
Arms passing across the face.	Arms go past ears, elbow straight. Turn hand as if waving before entering it into the water.
Crooked progress.	Eyes open. One arm pulls wide; each arm must touch ear on its way over.
Arms wide and entry "splashy".	Arms stay close and touch ears as they pass. Reach back to put little finger into the water as if wanting to take a handful of it.
Jerky or slow progress.	Do not pull too deeply, pull to side and push up past legs.
Legs dropping when arms are correct.	Look down nose to keep your eye on the splash as begin with the arms. Flick upwards with loose feet.

(Howley, 1984; Association of Swimming Therapy, 1992; Cregeen & Noble, 1993).

Appendix F

Letter of Admission

08 Junie 2000

Geagte Ouer,

Ons wil u graag inlig omtrent 'n spesiale gratis bewegingsprogram wat by u dogter se skool aangebied word en wat terselfdertyd gebruik sal word vir my doktorale studies.

Die bewegingsprogram behels moderne dans, swem asook selfverdedigingslesse. Daar word meer as net die leer van sportvaardighede beoog - daar word ook gepoog om doeluitstelling-vermoëens asook sekere lewensvaardighede by die deelnemers tuis te bring.

As student aan die Universiteit van Stellenbosch (Departement Menslike Bewegingskunde) met heelwat ervaring van dans- en bewegingsopvoedingklasse is dit vir my belangrik om ouers se toestemming te verkry ten opsigte van die voltooiing van 'n vraelys en deelname aan die program.

Die vraelys handel oor selfkonsep (hoe mense oor hulself en hul vermoëns voel) en sal bestaan uit drie onderafdelings wat onderskeidelik nie langer as 'n halfuur neem om te voltooи nie. Die vraelys sal voor aanvang van die program voltooи word en weer na afloop daarvan. Ons hoop om die selfvertroue van die deelnemers positief te beïnvloed.

Aangeheg vind u 'n toestemmingsvorm wat al die relevante inligting uiteensit. Ek beklemtoon dat deelname vrywillig is.

Indien u enige verdere navrae het, skakel my asseblief by die volgende telefoonnummer: 082 487 6480.

Vriendelike groete en weer eens, baie dankie vir die geleentheid wat u aan u dogter bied.

LEONIEKE ALEXANDER
(Dept. MBK D-student)

TOESTEMMINGSVORM VIR DEELNAME AAN BEWEGINGSPROGRAM

Die doel van deelname aan die program is duidelik.

Ek neem kennis dat die deelname aan die program vrywillig is en dat resultate gebruik sal word vir doktorsgraaddoeleindes.

Ek neem kennis dat die resultate van die vraelys as vertroulik hanteer sal word en dat identiteit anoniem sal bly.

Ek neem kennis dat ek op enige tydstip, as ouer/voog, verdere verduidelikings van die opsteller van die vraelys en aanbieder van die program mag aanvra nadat dit deur deelnemers voltooi is.

VAN, VOORLETTERS VAN OUER/VOOG:

HANDTEKENING VAN OUER/VOOG:

ADRES EN TELEFOONNOMMER:

Kontaknommer:

Appendix G

Notification of dance times

23 Junie 2000

Geagte Ouer en Leerlinge,

Baie dankie vir u reaksie ten opsigte van die bewegingsprogram wat by u dogter se skool aangebied sal word. Ons wil u graag net daaraan herinner dat die bewegingsprogram **Maandag, 26 Junie om 09:00** sal begin. Sien asseblief die rooster vir die uiteenstelling van die bewegingsprogram gedurende die skoolvakansie.

Die **eerste gedeelte** van die program behels 'n **moderne dansafdeling** wat sal **plaasvind** by die **Luckoff Skoolsaal**. Leerlinge benodig geen spesiale klere of toerusting vir die program nie. Kleredrag moet gemaklik wees.

Ons vra graag dat die leerlinge stiptelik sal wees aangesien die program om 09:00 begin, dus moet hulle alreeds om 08:50 aanmeld.

Indien die leerlinge nie een van die sessies kan bywoon nie, sal dit waardeer word as u my kan kontak, aangesien ek vir hulle gedurende hierdie tydperk verantwoordelik is. Daar word meer as net die leer van sportvaardighede beoog - daar word ook gepoog om doelsettingsvermoëns asook sekere lewensvaardighede by die deelnemers tuis te bring. Die resultate van die program is direk afhanklik van die deelname en teenwoordigheid van elk van die leerlinge, daarom is dit noodsaaklik dat die leerlinge **al** die sessies by woon.

Indien u enige verdere navrae het, skakel my asseblief by die volgende telefoonnummer: 082 487 6480.

Ek sien uit daarna om met u kinders te werk en vir hulle 'n geleentheid te bied om blootstelling aan moderne dans, swem en selfverdediging te ervaar. Aangesien geen vorige ervaring in een van die bewegingsvorme nodig is vir deelname nie, hoop ek om hulle almal daar te sien.

LEONIEKE ALEXANDER
(Dept. MBK D-student)

VAKANSIE ROOSTER

Maandag	26 Junie: 09:00 - 11:00
Dinsdag	26 Junie: 09:00 - 11:00
Woensdag	28 Junie: 09:00 - 11:00
Donderdag	29 Junie: 09:00 - 11:00
Dinsdag	04 Julie: 09:00 - 11:00
Woensdag	05 Julie: 09:00 - 11:00
Donderdag	06 Julie: 09:00 - 11:00
Maandag	10 Julie: 09:00 - 11:00
Dinsdag	11 Julie: 09:00 - 11:00
Woensdag	12 Julie: 09:00 - 11:00

Appendix H

Newspaper Report

Appendix I

Dance Reports

**ELIZABETH BEUKES
SCHOOL OF DANCE
ACVV HALL, MERRIMAN STREET
STELLENBOSCH
TEL: 082 856 3625**

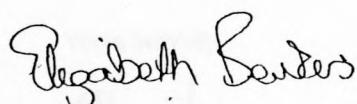
To Whom It May Concern

I have recently had the pleasure of inspecting Leonieke Alexander's students during the month of September 2000 at the Stellenbosch University Sport Science Dance Hall. Fourteen girls aged between 15 & 16 years, performed the various exercises taught to them during a period of 8 weeks.

I was most impressed with the manner in which Leonieke trained these girls. She had managed to, not only teach them technique, but also encouraged them to perform a dance in their own personal style.

It gave me so much pleasure to see young students tackle such an unknown activity with so much diligence, zest and enthusiasm. I can only congratulate their teacher on her outstanding dedication and perseverance. Well done, Leonieke!

Yours faithfully



Elizabeth Beukes
(Teacher & Principle)

**ELIZABETH BEUKES
SCHOOL OF DANCE
ACVV HALL, MERRIMAN STREET
STELLENBOSCH
TEL. 082 733 4551**

To Whom It May Concern

On my first encounter with these fourteen young girls, it was quite obvious that they had never danced before. This was certainly reflected on their attitude. They were inhibited and incredibly self-conscious. When asked to demonstrate what they had learnt in that particular lesson, they all insisted that they needed someone to do it along with them. Their teacher, Leonieke Alexander, mustered an astounding sense of tolerance and sympathy to their feelings. Her constant encouragement and support relayed to her pupils slowly but surely.

On the second occasion in working with these girls, my surprise was obvious. I was greeted with big smiles and a warm welcome as they all wanted to show me their individual styles and adaptations of Leonieke's choreography. An amazing improvement was shown in respect of the dancing standard, technique and most of all the confidence levels of these pupils. Leonieke proved to be an excellent teacher and mentor to these girls. She made them set goals and then gave them the satisfaction of feeling what it was like to achieve them.

When I paid Leoniekes' class my last visit, it was obvious that these girls had emerged into confident young ladies and disciplined dancers. It was a joy for me to see young girls whom, within two months, had become so proud of their work that they were demonstrating. In my mind, Leonieke helped these girls see themselves in a better light. She taught them discipline, dedication and a sense of belonging to a group.

Yours faithfully



Anthea Turck
(Assistant Teacher)

Appendix J

**Modern Dance Evaluation
University of Stellenbosch
Division 1
21 July 2000**

Name:

Floor:

Dance:

Bow:

Additional comments:



INSTITUUT VIR
SPORT- EN
BEWEGINGSTUDIE

INSTITUTE OF
SPORT AND
MOVEMENT STUDIES

UNIVERSITEIT VAN STELLENBOSCH
UNIVERSITY OF STELLENBOSCH

This is to certify that / Hiermee word verklaar dat

Die eerste afdeling van 'n Bewegingsprogramprojek in

Moderne Dans

suksesvol voltooi het by die

Departement Menslike Bewegingskunde, University of Stellenbosch

S. Brown *Alexander*
DIREKTEUR/DIRECTOR KURSUSLEIER/COURSE LEADER

21 Julie 2000

DATUM/DATE



Appendix K

Team Building Report



Wednesday, May 09, 2001

Report Short Team building exercise

The focus of this session was to make the group aware of various issues surrounding group dynamics i.e. "Chiefs" and "Indians". Communication was the core issue.

The group was given an initial trust exercise to break the ice and get them used to interacting with each other at this unusual level.

The second exercise involved a problem solving exercising whereby they had to cross a piece ground using only certain pieces of equipment such as drums and planks. After successful completion of the exercise, they were required to repeat the exercise but certain key individuals who demonstrated leadership during the first trial were "neutralised" by blindfolding. This forced other people to step in to their shoes and take the lead. The added advantage of this is that it allows latent leaders to come to the fore often with positive results on their self esteem.

The third and last exercise was also a problem solving exercise requiring the group to get through an "electric fence". Certain restrictive rules applied. Once again the two obvious leaders were "take out of the loop".

At the end there was a short discussion / debrief on the role of leaders and when to be a "chief" and an "indian". Communication within a group was emphasised. Special reference was made to group aid, supporting and helping each other.

Peter Maree (RD) S.A.

B.Sc. Med. (Hon.) Nutrition & Dietetics
B.(Hon.) Sport Science