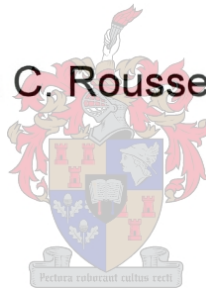


Participation in Competitive Games and the Development of Cooperation among Adolescent Girls

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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 or in part, submitted it to any university for a degree.

Abstract

This study explored the potential of competitive games and cooperative games as means for teaching adolescent girls some of the concepts that support cooperation. Hellison's (1995) levels for teaching responsibility were used as guidelines for selecting specific teaching strategies.

The intervention consisted of a theme-oriented intervention programme presented to two experimental groups. One group (n = 9) participated in a games programme that consisted of competitive activities and the other group (n = 9) participated in a games programme that consisted of cooperative activities. The experimental groups were presented with theme-oriented lessons based on four concepts that support cooperation: sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility. A control group (n = 18) was also identified and used for statistical comparisons. In order to set a context for this study, background information was gathered using a questionnaire to determine how girls from the school (N = 194) felt about competitive games and sports.

Three measurement instruments were used to collect data. The assessment of how the girls at the school felt about competitive games and sport was completed, using Gill & Deeter's (1988) Sport Orientation Questionnaire (SOQ). Pre- and post-testing of the girls in the experimental groups also included the SOQ. Harter's (1985) Self-perception Profile was used to measure perceptions of perceived social acceptance. Soudan and Everett's (1981) 24-item questionnaire was used to determine any changes in how the girls in the experimental groups perceived the benefits of participation in physical activity.

Results of the Sport Orientation Questionnaire for High School Girls (N = 194) indicate that the girls like competitive activities and enjoy competing, but for them, it is more important to set personal goals in competitive games than it is to win. Following the comparison between pre- and post-test data, it was concluded that the theme-oriented competitive games programme had an effect on how the girls feel about participation in games and sports. They became significantly less competitive

in their orientation. No changes were noted in their perceived social acceptance. A significant increase in their perception that participation in sport and physical activity has social benefits as well as benefits in preparing them for a career/job were noted. The theme-oriented cooperative games programme also had a significant effect on how the girls feel about participation in games and sports. The competitive nature and win orientation of the girls participating in the cooperative games programme significantly decreased. No changes were noted in their social acceptance. There was a significant increase in their perception that participation in sport and physical activity has health and fitness benefits. Results on comparing the groups indicate that the perceived athletic competence of the competitive group increased significantly when compared to the cooperative group. No other changes were noted. A theme-oriented approach to teaching children about cooperation in a competitive and/or cooperative environment seems to be an effective strategy.

Abstrak

Hierdie studie het die potensiaal nagevors van kompeterende spele en koöperatiewe spele as maatstaf vir die aanleer van sommige van die konsepte wat samewerking ondersteun. Hellison (1995) se vlakke vir die aanleer van verantwoordelikheid is gebruik as riglyne vir die seleksie van spesifieke onderrigstrategieë.

Die intervensie het bestaan uit 'n tema-geörienteerde intervensieprogram wat aan twee eksperimentele groepe voorgelê is. Een groep (n = 9) het aan 'n speleprogram deelgeneem wat bestaan het uit kompeterende aktiwiteite en die ander groep (n = 9) het aan 'n speleprogram deelgeneem wat uit koöperatiewe aktiwiteite bestaan. Tema-geörienteerde lesse wat op die volgende vier konsepte wat samewerking ondersteun gebaseer is, is aan die eksperimentele groepe voorgelê: sportmanskap, kommunikasie, vertrouwe en verantwoordelikheid. 'n Kontrolegroep (n = 18) is ook geïdentifiseer en gebruik vir statistiese vergelyking. Om 'n konteks vir hierdie studie daar te stel is agtergrondinligting met behulp van 'n vraelys ingesamel om vas te stel hoe meisies van die skool (n = 194) gevoel het oor kompeterende spele en sport.

Drie meetinstrumente is gebruik om data in te samel. Die assessering oor hoe die meisies gevoel het oor kompeterende spele en sport is voltooi deur van Gill & Deeter se (1988) *Sport Orientation Questionnaire* (SOQ) gebruik te maak. Pre- en post-toetsing van die meisies in die eksperimentele groepe is ook in die SOQ ingesluit. Harter (1985) se *Self-perception Profile* is gebruik om die persepsies van waarneembare sosiale aanvaarding te meet. Soudan en Everett (1981) se 24-item vraelys is gebruik om enige veranderinge te bepaal oor hoe die meisies in die eksperimentele groepe die voordele van deelname aan fisieke aktiwiteit ervaar het.

Resultate van die Sportoriëntasie-vraelys vir Hoërskoolmeisies (n = 194) het aangedui dat die meisies kompeterende aktiwiteite en kompetisie geniet, maar dat dit vir hulle belangriker is om persoonlike doelwitte te stel in kompeterende spele as wat

dit is om te wen. Na afloop van die vergelyking tussen pre- en post-toetsdata, is daar bevind dat die tema-geörienteerde kompeterende speleprogram 'n effek gehad het op die meisies se gevoel oor deelname aan spele en sport. Daar was 'n beduidende afname in hul kompeterende oriëntasie. Geen veranderinge is gemerk in hul waarneembare sosiale aanvaarding nie. 'n Beduidende toename is opgemerk in hul persepsie dat deelname aan sport en fisieke aktiwiteit sosiale voordele sowel as voordele vir die voorbereiding van 'n loopbaan/werk inhou. Die tema-geörienteerde koöperatiewe speleprogram het ook 'n beduidende effek gehad op hoe die meisies oor deelname aan spele en sport voel. Die kompeterende aard en wenoriëntasie van die meisies wat aan koöperatiewe speleprogram deelgeneem het, het beduidend afgeneem. Geen veranderinge is in hul sosiale aanvaarding opgemerk nie. Daar was 'n beduidende toename in hul persepsie dat deelname aan sport en fisieke aktiwiteit gesondheids- en fiksheidsvoordele inhou. Resultate wat die groepe vergelyk, dui aan dat die waarneembare atletiese vermoë van die kompeterende groep beduidend toegeneem het in vergelyking met die koöperatiewe groep. Geen ander veranderinge is opgemerk nie. 'n Tema-geörienteerde benadering tot hoe om kinders oor samewerking in 'n kompeterende en/of koöperatiewe omgewing te leer, blyk 'n effektiewe strategie te wees.

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Chapter One

Setting the Problem

In his award-winning book, *No Contest – The Case against Competition*, Alfie Kohn presents his case against including competitive activities in education (Kohn, 1992). He takes the position that modern life has become an endless succession of contests. Western economic systems are based on competition, which has led individuals into a constant struggle to outdo others. In the school setting, the needs and interests of others are seen as obstacles to personal success. For many people, even their leisure time is filled with participation in competitive games. Kohn (1992) argues that competition is destructive and that learning how to cooperate should be a major aim in education. He also takes the position that cooperation is learned in cooperative activities, not competitive activities.

The curriculum in physical education includes competitive games as one means for achieving educational objectives. The stated aims of participation in competitive games include the development of positive traits like discipline, hard work, sense of fair play and the personal and social skills needed to succeed in a competitive society (Hager, 1995). But according to Brown and Grineski (1992), there is evidence that competitive games tend to bring out negative traits and bad behavior such as cheating, name-calling and violence. They found that participation in competitive games does not necessarily give learners the opportunity to improve skills, which in turn leads to failure within the games. The failure encountered in games can actually reduce their self-esteem, confidence and motivation.

Kohn (1992) does acknowledge that there are two different types of competition: structural competition and intentional competition.

- Structural competition refers to how the game is defined. If competition is structural, then there is a win/lose framework. A structurally competitive situation is characterised by mutually exclusive goal attainment: for one

person to reach success, the other person must fail. There are two variations in structural competition. In the more indirect variation, the success of one player rules out or reduces the chances of success of another player. Bowling is an example of indirect competition. In the more direct version, one player must actively cause the other player to lose. Tennis is an example of more direct competition.

- Intentional competition refers to the attitude toward competition held by the players in a competitive game. Intentional competition is internal and has to do with the desire of an individual to win. Different individuals will bring different levels of intentional competition into the same game.

The importance of recognising these two different types of competition is that the educational value of participation in competitive games is associated with internal competition. Although the structure of a game can be changed from competitive to cooperative, it is the way children compete and react to competition that needs to be addressed. For example, a cooperative game can be “made more competitive” by the attitude of the participants.

There is an interest among educators for using cooperative games as a means for affective and social development. In a cooperative game, the whole group works together to reach a common goal. There are no losers and everybody has the opportunity to participate without fear of failure (Marston & Grimm, 1989). Grineski (1996) claims that cooperative activities are powerful means for encouraging positive social behavior, peer support, problem solving and teamwork.

The slogan “competition builds character” has become one of the justifications for promoting competitive games and sport experiences for children. There is evidence that suggests the contrary. Sage (1998) states that competition can be detrimental to moral development. Many people in highly competitive situations do not know what is the “good and the right thing to do” (Stoll & Beller, 1998). Gallahue (1996) is more supportive of participation in competitive games, although he does recognise that these experiences must be carefully supervised. He suggests that by

structuring moral dilemmas, then taking advantage of teachable moments and individual and group discussions, teachers can further the learning of positive social values and behaviours.

The growing child learns values and behaviours appropriate for his/her social group through the process of socialisation. Physical education provides many opportunities for socialisation to take place. Socialisation within physical education includes the development of interpersonal competence, which is defined as the ability to interact effectively with others (Martens, 1975). According to Gallahue (1996), physical education also provides an opportunity to enhance specific components of self-esteem, for example:

- Sense of belonging – Learners want to feel valued and be accepted as part of a group. Cooperation, trust and communication are important aspects to develop group cohesion that leads to a sense of belonging.
- Worthiness – Learners experience a sense of worthiness when they feel that their thoughts, ideas and contributions are worthwhile and valued by the group.
- Uniqueness and individuality – Learners need to recognise and respect personal uniqueness.
- Self-acceptance – Learners need to recognise and accept weaknesses and limitations as well as their strengths and abilities.
- Perceived competence – Self-evaluation of how well a learner accomplishes a given task in comparison with others will reflect their perception of competence.
- Virtue – Learners need to learn to operate with an established moral code that is consistent with the expectation of the culture. Values such as respect, integrity, humility, justice, kindness, compassion, honest, loyalty and patience must be practiced and internalised.

Participation in problem-solving and challenge activities, and cooperative games can increase a sense of belonging, enhance a feeling of worthiness, provide the

opportunity for students to recognise their uniqueness, encourage acceptance of self, increase perceived competence and provide the opportunity for students to practice virtue (Gallahue, 1996).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the potential of competitive games as a means for adolescent girls to achieve selected outcomes associated with cooperation. Sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility were used as themes for designing learning experiences that would contribute to the development of cooperation among a group of adolescent girls participating in competitive games. A cooperative games programme also designed around these four themes was provided to a different group of girls to allow a comparison between the two types of programmes in terms of success in promoting some of the underlying components of cooperation.

Significance of the Study

Physical education teachers are aware that competitive games are a part of Western culture, and that many children are keen to become involved in competition. Social comparison is considered a normal feature of child development. Competitive games are recognised forms of play for both children and adults. Competition seems to touch everyone's life in some way. Learning about competition should be part of the school curriculum. The competitive games and sports that are part of the content of physical education should offer the opportunity for learners to discover how they relate to each other in competitive situations. It is equally important that they learn how to achieve success in competition without engaging in socially destructive behaviours.

Although sport is based on competition, physical educators have the opportunity to create a competitive or cooperative environment in the physical education classroom. A common belief exist that children like and want competitive

games, and would be bored with a cooperative goal structure. Miller, Bredemeier & Shields (1997) found that children enjoy challenging cooperative activities. By changing the goal structure of many traditional competitive activities, learners are allowed the opportunity for more positive interaction, verbal encouragement and helping each other (Miller, Bredemeier & Shields, 1997).

Aspects of both competition and cooperation can be present in competitive games or sport, for example, when working with others in a group (intragroup cooperation) in order to defeat other groups (intergroup competition). This is not to detract from the value of cooperative games, but rather to suggest that competitive games also may have the potential to promote positive affective and social outcomes. It has been suggested that by focusing on "intentional competition," – the attitude toward competition - educators can promote concepts such as sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility in the competitive games environment (Romance, 1984).

If this study can establish the educational potential of a theme-oriented approach to teaching competitive games, then it may be possible for competitive games to retain their place as a means for achieving the outcomes of physical education. It is important to determine if attitudes that support cooperation can be promoted through participation in competitive games, when teachers employ strategies that promote cooperative concepts such as sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility (Yoder, 1993).

Research Questions

In an attempt to define the potential of competitive games as a means for adolescent girls to develop some of the concepts that underlie cooperative behaviour, the following research questions were formulated to guide this study:

1. How do adolescent girls feel about participation in competitive games and sport?

2. What are the effects of participation in a theme-oriented competitive games programme on the following values held by adolescent girls:
 - a) Their feelings about competition in games and sport?
 - b) Their perceived social acceptance?
 - c) Their perceptions about the benefits of participation in physical activities?

3. What are the effects of participation in a theme-oriented cooperative games programme on the following values held by adolescent girls:
 - a) Their feelings about competition in games and sport?
 - b) Their perceived social acceptance?
 - c) Their perceptions about the benefits of participation in physical activities?

4. How do the outcomes of a competitive games programme compare with the outcomes of a cooperative games programme on the following values held by adolescent girls:
 - a) Their feelings about competition in games and sport?
 - b) Their perceived social acceptance?
 - c) Their perceptions about the benefits of participation in physical activities?

The rationale for selecting “feelings about competition,” “social acceptance,” and “perceptions about the benefits of participation in physical activity,” as the values to be measured, is presented in Chapter Three.

Methodology

To answer research question one, a survey of adolescent girls (N = 194) between the ages of 13 – 18 was conducted.

To answer research questions two, three and four, the study followed an experimental design in a field setting, with a Control Group (n = 18), Experimental Group A (n = 9) and Experimental Group B (n = 9). Experimental Group A (n=9) participated in a competitive games programme and Experimental Group B (n=9) participated in a cooperative games programme.

All subjects were girls, 13-18 years of age, from the same high school. The study was conducted in the following manner:

- Gill & Deeter's (1988) Sport Orientation Questionnaire was administered to a random selection of girls between ages 13-18 in the school, who were not involved in either the Control or Experimental Groups. The results of this survey were used to determine how the girls in this particular context generally feel about competition in games and sports.
- Pre-tests were administered to the Control and Experimental Groups. All subjects completed Gill & Deeter's (1988) Sport Orientation Questionnaire and Harter's (1985) Self-perception Profile, which measured their perceived social acceptance. They also completed Soudan and Everett's (1981) questionnaire on the perceived benefits of participation in physical activity.
- Intervention programmes were implemented for the Experimental Groups. Experimental Group A participated in a competitive games programme and Experimental Group B participated in a cooperative games programme. These two programmes took place over a 12-week period, offered once a week. Instruction for both groups followed a theme-oriented approach that focussed on four cooperative concepts (sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility). Each concept was presented over a period of three

lessons. Hellison's (1995) levels for teaching responsibility were used as guidelines for selecting specific teaching strategies.

- Post-tests were administered to the Control and Experimental Groups. The same instruments and testing protocols were followed as for the pre-tests.

Limitations

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

1. The subjects in this study were adolescent girls. It would be inappropriate to generalise results to younger children or to boys.
2. Adolescent girls were chosen as subjects. During this stage of development, affiliation is very important to girls especially. They need to interact with others, there is a need to be evaluated and receive feedback from others and there is a need to gain approval and esteem from others are very strong.
3. At this transitional stage from late childhood to adolescence to adulthood, girls are body conscious, shy and have a lack of self-confidence, therefore their feelings, perceived competence, and attitudes may be somewhat unstable.
4. The girls who participated in the programmes were a small sample. This limits the generalisability of the results.
5. The sports selected for the competitive games intervention programme were all team sports: touch football, basketball, volleyball and softball. Other sports may hold a different potential for teaching concepts about cooperation.

6. Although skill development is given as one of the most important reasons for participation in sport and physical activity, skills were not measured in this study. The specific focus of this study was to develop cooperation among adolescent girls.
7. All the participants in the Experimental Groups were boarders from the same school and lessons could only be given once a week. This limited the number of lessons in the intervention programmes to 12 per group.
8. All the participants were from a girls' high school. It is possible that girls from an all girl school are more competitive and achievement oriented than girls from a co-educational school. This also could influence the generalisability of the results.
9. Only four concepts were used to guide the intervention programmes. It is possible that the use of different concepts as themes for lessons could have a different outcome.

Definitions

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

Cooperative Games

Cooperative games are characterised by mutually compatible goals (Henkel, 1997). The success of one player or team contributes to the success of other players or teams. Rewards are not limited because all participants potentially share the rewards available. Cooperation takes place when all the participants in a team are working together to reach a common goal.

Competitive Games

The object of competition is to defeat one's opponent by outscoring or outperforming them. Competitive games are characterised by mutually exclusive goals, so that the success of one player or team reduces the success of other players or teams (Henkel, 1997). Brown and Grineski (1992) classified competitive games as "zero-sum" activities, in which there is only one winner and one loser, or "negative-sum" activities, which results in one winner and more than one loser. In other words, players strive to gain rewards that are in limited supply. Rewards consist of points, prizes or other recognition.

Conclusion

The effects of competition on the development of positive social attitudes and behaviours are not entirely clear. Critics are convinced that competition is counter-productive to the development of a positive social environment. Supporters of competition see it as a natural dimension of human behaviour and, therefore, something with which each individual must become accustomed.

Physical educators must make use of the opportunity to make a difference in the lives of our youth, show them how to be responsible and be more productive (Stiehl, 1993). Physical educators have an opportunity to teach students to learn, practice and adopt responsible behaviours (Morris, 1993).

The inevitable inclusion of competitive games and sport within the physical education curriculum requires that teachers understand how to shape learning experiences in competitive activities so that positive outcomes can be achieved. Because research has shown that the outcomes of participation in competitive games and sports can be negative, alternative ways of introducing competition and its effects on children's development must be defined. The effectiveness of a theme-oriented approach that focuses on the development of concepts that support cooperation, are explored in this research.

Chapter Two

Review of Literature

One of the most challenging tasks faced by physical education teachers is the delivery of a relevant curriculum to learners (Siedentop, Doutis, Tsangaridou, Ward & Rauschenbach, 1994). The curriculum is defined as the planned sequence of formal instructional experiences, presented by the teachers to whom the responsibility is assigned. The curriculum includes all experiences conducted within the school setting, from formal classroom instruction to school sport. For the curriculum to be meaningful it must be accompanied by action (Jewett, Bain & Ennis, 1995).

Ennis (1992a) reported the expectations for learning identified by the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE) as a guide to assist teachers with curriculum design. NASPE specified five general characteristics of a physically educated person:

1. He/she has learned skills necessary to perform a variety of physical activities.
2. He/she is physically fit.
3. He/she participates regularly in physical activity.
4. He/she understands the benefits from involvement in physical activity.
5. He/she values physical activity and its contributions to a healthy lifestyle.

These general characteristics set the context for more specific outcomes of participation in a physical education programme. A range of decisions about these specific outcomes – referred to as the “curriculum process” - must be made about the curriculum before a programme can be implemented. According to Jewett *et al.* (1995), these decisions include determining the value orientation of the curriculum, the methods of instruction compatible with the orientation selected, the nature of the

content used as a means to achieve the objectives and the characteristics and needs of the specific learners for whom the programme is intended. An approach to the evaluation of the effectiveness of a curriculum must also be identified. Although this research is concerned specifically with the potential of the content of competitive games as a means to promote cooperation, an overview of the curriculum processes follows:

Value Orientations and the Curriculum

Designing a curriculum is based upon a set of beliefs about the role of education in society. Curriculum decision-making can be described within the context of one or more value orientations. Value orientations represent educators' belief system about what content is taught, how it is taught, and to what extent the content is learned. Five different value orientations for the physical education curriculum have been identified by Jewett *et al.* (1995).

1. Disciplinary Mastery

Physical educators that structure lessons based on disciplinary mastery place a strong emphasis on (a) the enhancement of fitness, (b) the mastery of a variety of performance skills and the ability to compete successfully in sport, and (c) health-related fitness (Ennis, Ross & Chen, 1992). Ennis and Chen (1993) associate this value orientation with the following learning outcomes:

- Learners gain proficiency in fundamental movement, sport and fitness activities.
- Learners gain a cognitive understanding of rules and strategies of a variety of activities, as well as the scientific principles of movement that affect performance.
- Learners learn to appreciate participation in physical activity.

The disciplinary mastery value orientation is expressed within the NASPE position that a physically educated person "...demonstrates competence in a variety of manipulative, locomotor and non-locomotor skills" and "...assesses, achieves and maintain physical fitness" (Ennis, 1992b:360).

2. Self-actualisation

When self-actualisation is adopted as the value orientation for physical education, the curriculum is directed toward the individual learners' growth, with special emphasis on the development of self-management abilities. Tasks are selected in which learners are challenged to control social behaviours, to act responsibly towards themselves and towards others and to work effectively on their own or with others. A strong emphasis is placed on increased self-understanding, goal setting and personal decision-making (Jewett *et al.*, 1995). Ennis and Chen (1993) associate this value orientation with the following learning outcomes:

- Learners become increasingly self-directed, responsible and independent.
- Learners gain an understanding of themselves and how they grow and change.
- Learners develop their own unique characteristics and abilities.

The self-actualisation orientation is included within the NASPE definition of a physically educated person as a person who "...understands that physical activity provides the opportunity for enjoyment, self-expression and communication" and "...cherishes the feelings that result from regular participation in physical activity" (Ennis, 1992b:360).

3. Social Reconstruction

Within the curriculum orientation of social reconstruction, learners are encouraged to think of themselves as potential contributors in their society. Goals are selected that relate to the development of interpersonal sensitivity, awareness of others and the development of social group skills (Jewett *et al.*, 1995). Ennis and Chen (1993) associate this value orientation with the following learning outcomes:

- Learners develop an awareness of social needs/concerns/issues.
- Learners acquire the personal interaction and social skills necessary to act as a change agent within and for a group in their society.
- Learners acquire the skills and strategies necessary to create a better environment for all individuals regardless of race, class, gender or physical ability.

The social reconstruction orientation is included within the NASPE description of a physically educated person as one who "...recognizes that participation in physical activity can lead to multi-cultural and international understanding" and "...appreciates the relationship with others that result from participation in physical activity" (Ennis, 1992b:360,361).

4. Learning Process

Within this value orientation, there is a focus on helping participants develop learning strategies. For example, particular attention is given to encouraging learners to examine multiple ways of solving practical "movement problems" instead of watching demonstrations of skills and attempting to copy performance skills (Jewett *et al.*, 1995). Ennis and Chen (1993) associate this value orientation with the following learning outcomes:

- Learners discover their own preferred learning styles in relation to movement, sport and fitness.
- Learners discover how to apply their understanding of movement, sport and fitness to “solve” practical challenges encountered during their participation in physical activities.
- Learners discover how to set goals and approach their own learning and performance improvement in progressions.

The NASPE definition of a physically educated person states that he/she “...has learned how to learn new skills,” “...design safe, personal fitness programmes in accordance with principles of training and conditioning” and “...applies concepts and principles to the development of new skills” (Ennis, 1992b:360).

5. Ecological Integration

This perspective has a future orientation. The individual is seen as an integral component of the ecosphere, responding to the environment and determining the nature of his/her universe (Jewett *et al.*, 1995). It almost appears to be an integration of the previous four orientations. Ennis and Chen (1993) associate this value orientation with the following learning outcomes:

- Learners are encouraged to search for knowledge that is meaningful and interesting to them.
- Learners are encouraged to integrate and balance their own needs and interests within the larger social and natural environment.
- Learners are encouraged to use their knowledge and skills to respond to changes and to determine their own future.

The ecological integration orientation is included within the NASPE definition of a physically educated person. The physically educated person “...understands that wellness involves more than being physically fit” and “...respects the role that regular physical activity plays in the pursuit of life-long health and well-being” (Ennis, 1992b:361).

Recent research about value orientations for the physical education curriculum indicate that any emphasis on only disciplinary mastery as the driving force behind the programme, has been abandoned (Ennis, 1992b; Chen & Ennis, 1996). Teachers more often design programmes to achieve the outcomes associated with several value orientations.

Designing and implementing a curriculum that draws from multiple value orientations can be complicated. It could be possible that a curriculum could achieve none of its stated outcomes simply because the teacher was trying to make physical education “all things to all people.” In an effort to provide some practical support for teachers, Jewett *et al.* (1995) developed five prototype curriculum models that draw from multiple value orientations but still have enough direction to ensure that specific objectives can be set (see Figure 1).

Curriculum Model	Description
Sport Education Model	The purpose of sport education is to educate learners in various sports. The sport education model rests upon the assumption that sport is an important part of culture and plays an important role in the health and vitality of a culture.
Fitness Education Model	The primary goal of fitness education is the development and maintenance of individual fitness. This model includes components of cardio-respiratory function, body composition, flexibility, muscular strength and endurance and how these components are affected by exercise and physical activities.
Movement Analysis Model	The understanding of human movement and the development of skillful motor performance, forms the main content of the physical education curriculum.
Developmental Model	Activities and experiences are designed to enhance the holistic development of the individual learner. This model emphasises the development of self-esteem and self-responsibility.
Personal Meaning Model	This model also focuses on the individual learner, however the learner is viewed in a social context. Attention is given to both individual needs as well as societal needs.

Figure 1

A Summary of Five Generic Curriculum Models (Jewett *et al.*, 1995)

Within this study, the focus was on determining the potential of participation in competitive activities as a means to promote learning about cooperation. This establishes this study as most compatible with the classic value orientations of social reconstruction and ecological integration. In terms of the prototypes for physical education curriculum, this study is positioned within the personal meaning model, although there are clear ties to the developmental model.

From this perspective on physical education, society is regarded as an important source of the curriculum. There are three major assumptions about the relationship between society and the direction of the physical education curriculum that support this value orientation (Jewett *et al.*, 1995):

- That one of the primary functions of the school is to prepare the learner to participate as an adult in society.
- That physical education emphasises interpersonal relations and the dynamics of modifying them to achieve equal opportunity for all.
- That the curriculum for all school programmes should contribute to the reconstruction of social institutions. Learners should be empowered to change those social practices that place limitations on their ability to live to their fullest potential.

If learning to become cooperative is identified as a social priority, then the selection of the models of instruction as well as the content areas of physical education will reflect this commitment.

Methods of Instruction

Physical education typically takes a balanced approach and includes methods of instruction that attend to multiple domains of human development:

- The physical domain focuses on the enhancement of growth of the child and to be healthy. Learners should be encouraged to be fit and keep fit.
- The movement domain involves the development and mastering of motor skills. Learners should be exposed to a variety of movement forms and thus be able to expand their movement experiences and movement vocabulary.
- The cognitive domain involves knowledge, understanding and insight of the different movement concepts in physical education. Learners should gain knowledge about movement performance.
- The affective domain involves two dimensions; learners must learn both to deal with their emotions and to socialise. Learners should be encouraged to develop a healthy value system, learn self-control, have a positive attitude toward physical education and physical activity, and develop healthy interpersonal relationships.

The affective domain is the most difficult domain in which to develop learners. One reason for this is that the possible contributions of physical education to affective development are not clear. Several researchers have tried to achieve affective outcomes through sport and physical education, and have had some success. Because the development of cooperation clearly falls within the affective domain, an examination of the models of instruction associated with that domain will be presented.

The Affective Domain

In the early 1960's, educators made a major effort to define the affective domain for all subject areas in the curriculum (Krathwohl, Bloom & Masia, 1964). The domain was structured into a hierarchical order of different kinds of affective behaviour. The process of internalisation can be described on a continuum of five successive levels. The implication is that affective learning will begin with experiences designed at Level One, and progress through a developmental sequence until – hopefully – Level Five is achieved. The following is an example for teachers to follow a progression in teaching/learning about self-respect:

Level One: Receiving (attending)

The learner must first be made aware of self-respect as a concept. This involves the development of his/her:

- *Awareness* – the individual merely has his/her attention attracted to the concept of self-respect.
- *Willingness to receive* – he/she differentiates between self-respect and similar concepts, such as self-esteem. The learner must also indicate that he/she is willing to give his/her attention to learning about self-respect.
- *Selected attention* – the individual expresses an interest in the development of self-respect.

Level Two: Responding

At this level, the individual actively *responds* to the concept of self-respect. This level can be divided into three sub-levels:

- *Acquiescence in responding* – the individual agrees to act in ways that reflect a social definition of self-respect as given to him/her by the

teacher, i.e. he/she meets social expectations for acting with self-respect.

- *Willingness to respond* – he/she agrees with social definitions of self-respect and will act accordingly, even when “no one is watching.” Treating himself/herself with self-respect has become voluntary.
- *Satisfaction in response* – he/she is emotionally committed to self-respect and intends to behave with self-respect in the future.

Level Three: Valuing

At this level, the learner’s behaviour is sufficiently consistent so that it can be assumed that the learner truly believes in self-respect as a worthwhile criteria for his/her own behaviour. This category can be divided into three sub-categories:

- *Acceptance of a value* – he/she talks about self-respect as a worthwhile characteristic of behaviour.
- *Preference for a value* – the learner is sufficiently committed to the value of self-respect to pursue it, to seek it out and to want it.
- *Commitment* – the learner behaves with self-respect in a variety of circumstances.

Level Four: Internalisation

As the learner internalises the value of self-respect, more than one value can become relevant for a certain situation. It is therefore necessary to *organise* values into a system. This category is divided into two sub-levels:

- *Conceptualisation of a value* – the learner can relate self-respect to values that he/she already holds or to new ones that he/she is coming to hold. For example, the learner can think of self-respect in relation to respect for others.

- *Organisation of a value system* – the learner can bring several different values together and organise them into a relationship in a particular situation. For example, the relationships among self-respect, respect for teammates, respect for opponents and respect for officials could be worked out in a particular situation when playing sport.

Level Five: Characterisation

Finally, the internalisation process reaches a point where the individual can respond to challenging situations with consistency. This level includes the sub-levels of:

- *Generalised set* – he/she acts with self-respect in a variety of situations, not just those associated with sport or physical activity.
- *Characterisation* – the learner has become so committed to self-respect that he/she consistently behaves with self-respect, and is routinely observed by others to be a person who has “self-respect.”

Krathwohl *et al.* (1964) reported that this effort to create a hierarchical taxonomy for writing educational objectives for the affective domain was extraordinarily difficult and they were not satisfied with the result. Achieving objectives within the affective domain is a slow process and progress is usually only visible over a long period of time. This also makes it difficult to evaluate learning in the affective domain.

In a study with South African children, Wiid (1976) listed the following objectives for affective development in physical education: self-control, independence, responsibility, self-exploration, self-expression, confidence, courage, initiative, persistence and the development of a value system. She placed the development of these affective objectives into four levels:

- The first level was concerned with the *acceptance of authority* and *enjoyment*. During this first phase children should be exposed to as many forms of movement as possible and enjoy the activities they participate in.
- The second level involved the development of a value system. Children must learn to see the *beauty in movement* (aesthetic development). If children experience success in their movement and movement tasks, they will develop a *positive attitude* toward physical activity. Through physical activity they are able to *develop a sense of sportsmanship, equal opportunity, learn to help others and to accept help from others, they also learn to respect the game, each other, the officials and their opponents*.
- The third step involved the development of self-concept. Children should explore what they can do, what they are able to do, what they like and don't like and what their limitations are. With all the knowledge they have of themselves, children would be able to adapt because they will have the *courage, confidence, persistence, self-control, discipline*, and are *independent* enough to do so.
- The last level involved decision-making. Children use their *initiative* and *creativity* to make their own decisions in a variety of movement situations.

Gibbons (1989) attempted to design a comprehensive theoretical framework that defined the critical concepts for affective development through participation in sport, dance and exercise. This framework was intended to guide the physical educator in selecting concepts on which to base educational objectives in the affective domain. She specifically targeted the development of two attitudes: an aesthetic attitude toward participation (which addressed values associated with the beauty of human movement) and a moral attitude toward participation (which addressed the values associated with ethical attitudes toward self and others in

movement situations). For the purpose of this study, only her definition of the critical concepts of a moral attitude is presented (see Figure 2).

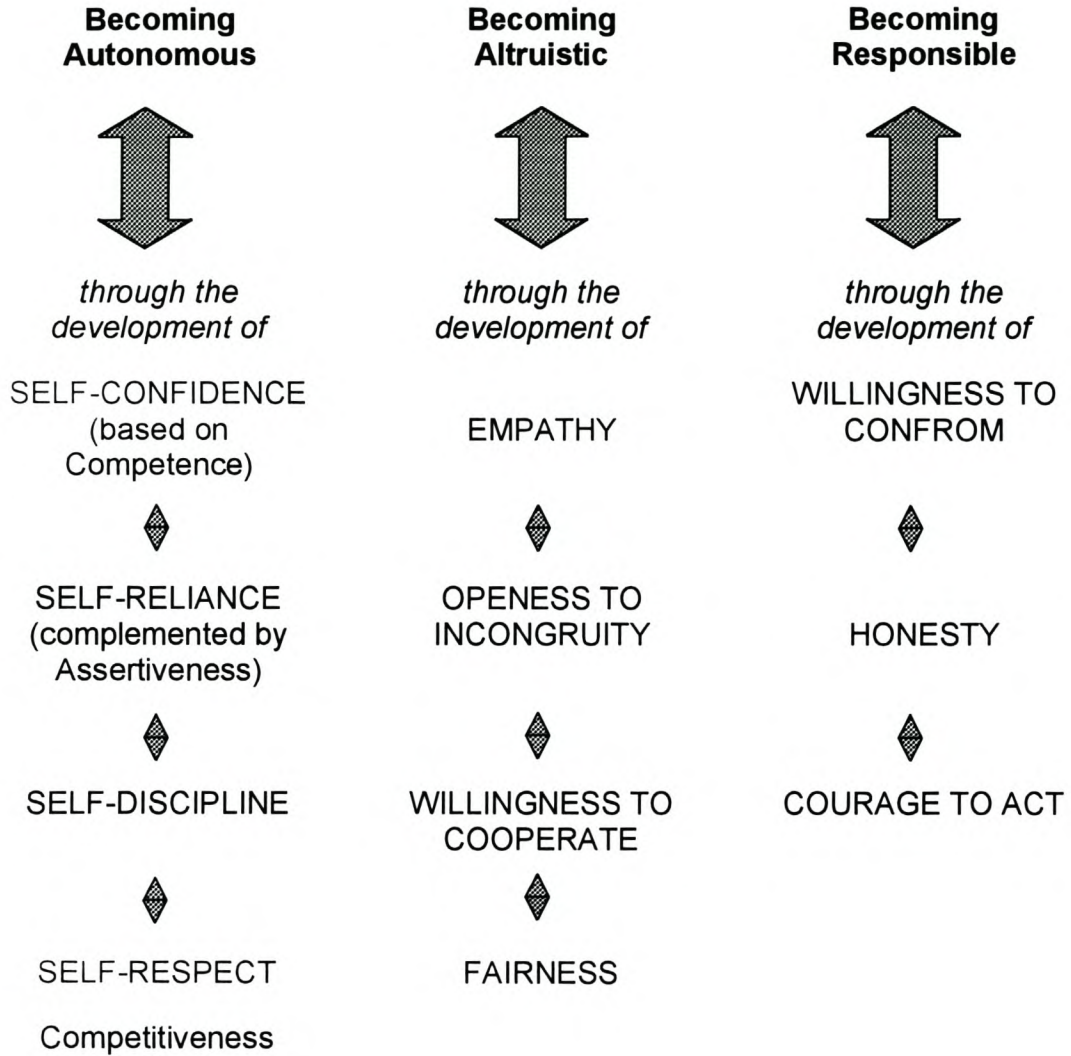


Figure 2

Concepts Related to the Development of a Moral Attitude with the Complementary Objectives of Becoming Autonomous and Altruistic and Responsible (Gibbons, 1989)

A moral attitude is defined as a commitment to use one's conception of right behaviour to govern decision-making and to conform to the standards of right behaviour (Martin & Briggs in Gibbons, 1989). The development of a moral attitude is based upon an individual's development of autonomy, altruism and responsibility. Each of these three concepts of behaviour is further reduced to the development of certain attributes.

Becoming Autonomous

Autonomy is defined as self-determination. Gibbons (1989) proposed that self-determination is an important dimension of moral attitude, and that it is based on the development of four complementary qualities:

- *Self-confidence* – a positive and accurate perception of one's ability to fulfill one's own intentions. Self-confidence is related to one's degree of skillfulness (competence). Competence refers to the individual's actual ability to meet challenges.
- *Self-reliance* – the ability to make a contribution to one's own support and to ask for help when necessary. It includes the characteristic of assertiveness, which refers to defending property or rights or stating wishes and desires directly.
- *Self-discipline* – the ability to control aggression and the ability to control one's actions (self-regulation).
- *Self-respect* – a sense of self-worth and a belief that one has an equal right to fair treatment and available rewards. It is related to the characteristic of competitiveness, which refers to the willingness to strive to gain prize for oneself.

Becoming Altruistic

Altruism may be defined as a concern for people and the placement of their needs on an equal or higher level than one's own. Four attributes are associated with altruism (Gibbons, 1989):

- *Empathy* – the capacity to understand and share other people's feelings.
- *Openness to incongruity* – the ability to show compassion and the ability to demonstrate a sense of humor.
- *Willingness to cooperate* – the ability to engage in a relationship of mutual dependence.
- *Fairness* – the ability to employ the principle of equality (consequences are shared equally) and the principle of equity (consequences are tempered by circumstances).

Becoming Responsible

Responsibility is defined as the willingness to accept accountability for one's actions. Certain attributes are associated with becoming responsible (Gibbons, 1989):

- *Willingness to conform* – an acceptance of the need to adhere to rules and obey authority when appropriate.
- *Honesty* - the commitment to be truthful.
- *Courage to act* – taking action that reflects a balance between autonomy, altruism and responsibility.

This framework by Gibbons (1989) identifies concepts and characteristics that could be targeted when goals and objectives are formulated in physical education. It

provides a structure for content in the affective domain from which ideas can be generated that relate to the potential of affective development in physical education.

The Social Dimension within the Affective Domain

The affective domain has a social dimension where individuals interact with other individuals or in a group. It has been found that involvement in physical activities can foster the development of positive personal-social attributes (Sage, 1986). The proposed benefits of participation in physical education programmes to the social-emotional development include aspects of self-concept (Weiller, 1992). Self-concept includes the attitude that a child has toward himself/herself and also includes how the child thinks others feel about him/her. Pangrazi (1982) included the following in his definition of self-concept: feelings of belonging, competence, self-worth, acceptance of self, acceptance of limits and uniqueness. He also stated that membership in a group and experiencing success within the group can lead to a sense of cohesiveness, enjoyment and satisfaction.

Physical activity settings hold the potential for personal and social benefits. Implementation of programmes to bring about these benefits, however, can be difficult. According to Hellison (1995), some personal and social behaviours, such as helping someone, cooperating with the group or working independently, are relatively easy to identify. There are many other qualities important for personal and social development that are much more difficult to deal with, such as a positive self-concept, a positive attitude towards others, etc.

Hellison (1978) was a pioneer in the development of personal and social benefits through participation in physical education. He proposed an approach to teaching which centers on the holistic development of individuals. This approach places the individuals' self-esteem, self-actualisation, self-understanding, and interpersonal relations as the focus point of the process. Hellison recommended a goal model to guide teachers and coaches in their decision-making about content and how it should be taught:

Help individuals establish their own “self-body-world connection.”

This refers to the search for personal identity, including an understanding of one’s own personal mental processes and an acceptance of one’s own body and how one relates to the world.

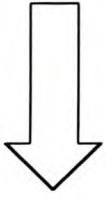
Establish a sense of community.

This refers to developing positive connections with other people - learning to care and share.

Establish an active playful spirit.

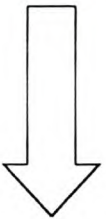
This refers to a non-serious, non-reflective dimension of life that focuses on the moment and on the activity rather than extrinsic motives and preplanned goals.

Hellison (1978) designed a model for teaching physical education based on these goals. The model defined a four-step process where the learner is taken from an initial level where he/she has no awareness of the goals through to a level where he/she has adopted them in a lifestyle (see Figure 3).

Level One No awareness

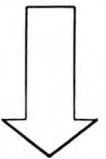
At this level, learners are not aware of others. Their behaviour, which is guided by their own personal needs, can interfere with the rights of others or their own well-being.

Teacher must set down rules of behaviour and enforce those rules strictly.

Level Two Self-body awareness

Level Two focuses on helping the learners make their own self-body-world connections by answering the following four questions.

- 1) "Who am I?" Learners are helped to examine their own unique experiences, perceptions and needs.
- 2) "Who am I supposed to be?" Learners are helped to examine the expectations of peers and significant others and how these influence their feelings and behaviours.
- 3) "Who can I be?" Learners are helped to examine their potential options and limitations.
- 4) "Who do I want to be?" Learners are encouraged to set goals for personal development.

Level Three Self-other awareness

At Level Three, learners are encouraged to develop a sense of community by answering the following two questions:

- 1) "How can others help me?"
- 2) "How can I help others?"

Level Four Integration

At this level, learners are helped to define the balance between their own individual needs and their social needs (to be an effective member in of a community).

Figure 3

Hellison's (1978) Initial Model for Teaching Physical Education to
Achieve Affective Outcomes

Hellison (1985) took this earlier model, revised and extended it specifically to address many of the personal and social problems experienced by youth. He was concerned with the following discipline and motivation problems noted by teachers and coaches:

- The need to improve control in the classroom and on teams.
- The need to help learners to make responsible choices.
- The need to help learners to lead more stable lives. Rapid social change has led to confusion, insecurity and isolation. Personal stability can be achieved by committing one self to personally satisfying activities. Social stability requires the development of cooperation, caring, and helping in both small and large groups.
- The need to counter the ineffectiveness of schools. Better ways must be found for learners to reach success, learners and teacher/coaches must learn to work together to counter the impersonal environment that are present in many schools.

These problems must be met without compromising the other benefits of participation in physical activity (Hellison, 1985). With this in mind, Hellison revised his model to emphasise teaching methods that would help learners learn “responsibility” through participation in physical activity. The fundamental element of this model is “taking personal and social responsibility” (TPSR). He selected two aspects of personal well-being (effort and self-direction) and two aspects related to social well-being (respecting other people rights & feelings and caring for others). He labeled these aspects “developmental levels” and used them to replace the levels in his earlier model (Hellison, 1978) (see Figure 4).

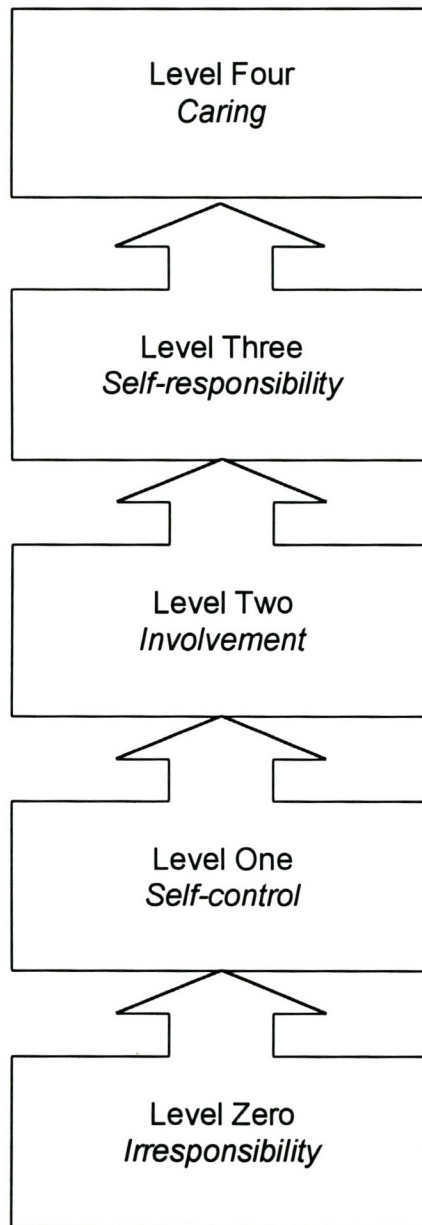


Figure 4

The Developmental Levels for Sequencing Objectives in the Affective Domain (Hellison, 1985)

Hellison's (1985) developmental levels present a progression of attitudes and behaviours. Both attitude and behavior are included because actual behavior does not always reveal what was intended. Each of the levels is built upon the previous one and encompasses all of the lower levels.

Level Zero: Irresponsibility

Learners who are at this level are not motivated to participate in activities and do not show self-discipline. They often make excuses and blame others for their behaviour and deny personal responsibility for their actions. Behaviors include verbal abuse, such as name calling and making fun of other learners; physical abuse, such as pushing someone or starting a fight; intimidation, such as taking someone else's turn, space or equipment; and cheating. At this level, teachers must implement a system of behaviour management.

Level One: Self-control

Self-control refers to the ability and willingness of learners to take control over their actions so that the rights of other learners are not violated. This level represents respect for others feelings. Responsibility for behaviour management is shifted from the teacher to the learner. This level has three components that a learner must master:

- The learner *must not be controlled* by what others say. Learners should be able to control their behavior without constant supervision from the teacher.
- The learner should be able to *resolve conflicts peacefully* with other learners.
- The learner must be willing to *include others* in participation, as well as *participate* himself/herself.

Level Two: Involvement

At this level, learners participate willingly and enthusiastically. They can accept challenges and practice skills. Learners are offered a wide variety of activities that they can engage in on a regular basis. This level also consists of three components that a learner must master.

- The first component is the development of *persistence*. Learners are encouraged to participate in activities, even if they are not immediately successful.
- The second component is a *willingness to try* out new activities and to train and practice motor skills.
- The third component is the understanding that success is related both to achievement and to improvement. *Success must be an internal feeling*, not just an external reward. This means that learners must experience success, and be recognised both for mastery and for effort.

Level Three: Self-responsibility

At level three, learners do not only show respect for others, they are able to participate without direct supervision from a teacher. Learners also display a sense of self-direction (Hellison, 1995). They show sufficient self-discipline to work independently and they can plan and carry out a personal plan.

Level Four: Caring

Caring refers to extending one's sense of responsibility to others. Learners who care are more cooperative, are more interested in reaching mutual goals and are more supportive of each other. At this level, learners are responsive to the well-being of others and act without the expectation of extrinsic rewards.

After 10 years of programme development, Hellison (1995) added an additional level to this model (see Table 1). Level Five is the application of the other four levels outside the physical education programme. Learners need to be able to apply these skills that they have learned outside on the street, at home and at school. Learners must decide whether and in what situations to use the levels. Level Five makes the learners aware of the possibility to transfer these skills that they have learned in a safe environment to the outside world. He also refined the concept of self-control to that of respect, involvement to participation, and self-responsibility to self-direction.

Table 1. The Progression of Hellison's Thinking on Levels of Affective Development in Physical Education.

Levels	Hellison (1978)	Hellison (1985)	Hellison (1995)
Zero		Irresponsibility	Irresponsibility
One	No awareness	Self-Control	Respect
Two	Self-body awareness	Involvement	Participation
Three	Self-other awareness	Self-Responsibility	Self-Direction
Four	Integration of the first three levels	Caring	Caring
Five			Outside the gym

All of these concepts correspond to traditional human values. Hellison's levels help learners to understand their own behaviour, and the behaviour of learners around them (Masser, 1990). These levels can be represented in different ways, renamed or supplemented to meet the needs of different learners in different situations (Hellison, 1995).

The Levels in Action

Hellison (1985) developed five kinds of general instructional strategies to help learners take responsibility for their own well-being and to become sensitive to the well-being of others.

1. **Teacher Talk.** The lesson opens with an awareness talk (Hellison 1995) to enable the learners to understand the levels. The levels can also be posted on the wall or referred to when a certain responsible or uncontrolled behaviour occurs.
2. **Modeling (being).** This refers to the teacher's actions in the presence of the learners. If the teacher wants the learners to learn about self-control, he/she must be in control when interacting with the learners. The teacher can also be actively involved in the classroom, show responsibility by keeping promises and by showing concern for each learner.
3. **Reinforcement.** This is what the teacher can do to strengthen a specific attitude or behaviour of a learner. There are three kinds of reinforcement. The first is verbal and nonverbal feedback from the teacher. Second, an informal award can also be a reinforcement, for example, a star or certificate. Third, a formal reward system can encourage behaviour on a level by giving learners some kind of privilege if they meet certain criteria.
4. **Reflection Time.** This refers to the time that learners spend thinking about how their attitudes and behaviours relate to the levels. This can take place at the end of a lesson by asking learners to record at which levels they operated during the lesson, or what levels were involved during certain incidents that occur during the lesson.
5. **Learner Sharing.** This happens when learners are asked to give opinions about aspects of the programme. This also gives the learners an opportunity to evaluate and suggest modifications to the level system.

In order for learners to progress from one level to the next, strategies must be developed which cause learners to interact with self-control, involvement, self-responsibility and caring on a regular basis. The following examples from Levels One and Two were provided by Hellison (1995):

Level One

Behaviour modification strategies can encourage reluctant learners to experience respecting others, for example:

- The accordion principle – increase or decrease the amount of time for play and discuss with the group the reasons for more or less play time.
- Self-officiating – give learners the opportunity to identify their own errors rather than waiting to be caught by an official.
- Five clean days – if a learner can complete five days in a row at the level, give him/her some kind of reward.
- Time out – learners are asked to sit out and get themselves under control. They can return when they can describe how they should behave.

Level Two

Experiencing Level Two may have to begin by inviting learners who are not very motivated to experience participating, trying and attempting new activities. Participation or involvement can also be encouraged by giving the learners self-paced challenges, which permits them to work at their own rate and level. Different forms of reinforcement can be used.

- Learners can record their scores in a journal. Reading the journal becomes a form of self-reinforcement.

- Surprise awards, such as certificates and t-shirts, can encourage participation.
- “Grandma’s law,” can be followed. This is a strategy where the first half of the lesson is devoted to trying new activities and the second half of the lesson to the learners’ favorite activities.

Research on Affective Development

There is agreement that in order for value development to occur, educators need to design and implement appropriate learning experiences (Wandzilak, Carroll & Ansorge, 1988). Research on affective development in physical education and sport has demonstrated mixed results, which indicates that a great deal of work still needs to be done.

- Romance (1984) studied the effectiveness of a specially designed physical education programme on the moral development of primary school children. He found that special teaching strategies can bring positive changes in children’s levels of moral growth.
- In a similar study, Romance, Weiss and Bockoven (1986) examined the effectiveness of a specially designed physical education programme on the moral development of another group of primary school children. Thirty-two children between ages 10-11 years old participated in an eight-week program. The experimental group was exposed to special teaching strategies that foster moral growth. The control group was not. Results showed that the experimental group improved in the level of moral reasoning about both sport and life situations.
- DeBusk and Hellison (1989) investigated the impact of a self-responsibility model for delinquency-prone youth. Ten 9-11 year old boys participated in a 6-week special physical education programme. The boys became aware of

the self-responsibility concepts and how to incorporate these concepts into their lives. Behavioural changes were also evident.

- Hellison (1990) implemented his model with three different urban at-risk youth groups and found that learners liked the program, learned the skills, learned how to get along with each other and how to work on their own. However, staff interviews revealed that the changes in the learners did not generalise to their behaviour outside of the programme.
- Results of a study done by Gibbons and Ebbeck (1997) support the idea that moral development is not an automatic outcome of physical activities, but rather requires the implementation of specific teaching strategies in order for a positive change to occur.
- Solomon (1997) introduced themes as a way of guiding children to develop a sense of personal responsibility for their actions, to improve communication skills and to increase cooperation and sharing among the learners. The four themes included trust, helping, problem-solving and body awareness. Each theme was introduced over a period of three weeks. The results of this study demonstrated that the children who participated in the programme improved significantly in their reasoning about social skills and these positive behavioral changes were transferred to their behaviour in the classroom.
- In a study completed by Patrick, Ward and Crouch (1998) on the effects of holding learners accountable for social behaviors during volleyball games in primary school physical education, inappropriate social behaviours were reduced and appropriate social behaviours were increased. These changes were attributed to careful planning and teaching. The inappropriate social behaviours included:
 - Physical – pushing, fighting, acts of vandalism, acts of anger.
 - Verbal – ridiculing others, arguing, shouting, and laughing at others' mistakes.

- Gestures – making faces, clapping hands after a poor performance.

Appropriate social behaviours included:

- Physical – high five, pat on the back, handshake.
 - Verbal – “good job”, “good try”, “way to go.”
 - Gestures – thumbs up, clapping hands following a good performance.
- Hugo (2000) studied the relationship between the development of motor skills on the self-concept of at-risk children. She used Hellison’s levels as a framework for a general sports programme. The children participating in the programme showed positive gain in self-concept, but no statistical significant change was noted.
 - Buchanan (2001) examined the implementation of Hellison’s (1995) responsibility model (TPSR) at an instructional sports camp for at-risk youth. She found that not all of the staff members at the camp could use the TPSR model and were not willing to give up control in order to facilitate responsibility. Staff members at the camp varied in the degree of implementation and interpretation of the model. The following recommendations are made when implementing the TPSR model:
 - Learners should have the opportunity to provide input about content and teaching methods.
 - A variety of ways should be used to communicate the model to learners and staff.
 - Teachable moments should be used for facilitating understanding.
 - Opportunities should be provided for feedback and reflection throughout the programme.

- Reference should be made to situations in “real life” where understanding the model can help guide behaviour.

Buchanan (2001) believes the model can be implemented successfully outside the school setting if:

1. The school or agency officially endorses the model.
2. In-depth training about teaching methods is available for teachers.
3. Participants are included in decision-making.
4. There are frequent reflection sessions to provide feedback about the programme. This will support careful planning and teaching.

Although the promotion of socially responsible behaviour is a traditional objective of physical education, on many occasions it is left to chance, or is assumed to develop naturally. Learners must be taught how to work together, how to communicate with each other, how to be a “good sport”, how to “work it out” when there are issues of conflict. Many learners have not been exposed enough to cooperative values (Deline, 1991). Instruction should be provided that specifically allows learners to comprehend, utilise and internalise cooperative concepts, such as sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility.

When affective development is specified in lesson plans instead of being regarded as a by-product of physical education, learners can learn to set goals, evaluate themselves and communicate effectively (Cutforth & Parker, 1996). Physical education can potentially contribute to the overall development of learners, not only in the physical and motor domains, but also in the cognitive, social and affective domains.

The Nature of the Content

Teaching methods interact with teaching content to create learning experiences for learners. Tomme and Wendt (1993) identified cooperative activities in physical education as appropriate content for teaching children to be honest, to respect the rights and feeling of others, to show concern for others and to be self-disciplined.

The Social Structure of Games

The use of games as a medium for learning in the affective domain calls for a discussion of the role of competition in educational programmes. Some professionals and parents believe that competitive games are valuable for preparing children for certain situations in everyday life, while others feel that competition brings out negative social behaviours. Some suggest that competitive games should be replaced by cooperative games which they contend are better for children because they promote inclusion and avoid identifying “winners and losers.” It is difficult to define games as either competitive or cooperative. Games do not only involve a number of players, but also the way in which these players relate to each other. There are three basic relationships among players in games: competitive, cooperative, and individualistic/independent (Marston & Grimm, 1989).

Many games can be described as *competitive activities* - activities in which the object is to defeat one's opponent by outscoring or outperforming them. The competitive goal structure implies that an individual can experience success only if the other individuals are not successful. Players work against other players in attempting to achieve a goal that can only be achieved by one player or a group of players. Goal achievement is mutually exclusive (Grineski, 1996). The development of the physical and motor domain is often associated with participation in competitive activities. However, the need to contribute to social and emotional development is a pressing concern for all educators (Tomme & Wendt, 1993), and there is a need to

determine if the focus of participation in competitive activities can include these additional dimensions.

In the *cooperative goal structure*, an individual can reach success only if his/her partner or group members are successful. If partners do not work together, none of them can be successful. Cooperative activities in physical education can promote the psycho-social aspects of a child's development. Players work together to achieve a goal. All players must make a contribution to goal achievement and are held accountable for their contributions (Grinseki, 1996). Cooperative activities are activities where the success of one player or team is dependent on the success of the other players or teams. This could also describe many aspects of the relationship of players on the same team in some competitive activities. Although purely competitive activities may be found, it is difficult to find competitive activities that do not also depend upon cooperative relationships.

The least common relationship involves *independence* of players where the player works alone without peer interaction in trying to achieve a goal (Grineski, 1996). Within the individualistic goal structure, the individual is not dependent on any one to obtain his/her goal. Success of one player is not related to the success of other players. The player is in charge of his or her own destiny and the progression of the player is not dependent on, or has an effect on other players. For the purpose of this study we will only look at the competitive and cooperative relationships, which exists among children when engaging in physical activities.

Competitive Games

In competitive activities the object is to defeat one's opponent by outscoring or outperforming them. Competitive games are characterised by mutually exclusive goals, so that the success of one player or team reduces the success of other players or teams. Competition may occur between two individuals within a single group, or between two or more groups (Hager, 1995).

Competitive activities (Brown & Grineski, 1992) are activities in which limited rewards are distributed on the basis of how players perform in relation to others. Competitive games are described as "zero-sum" activities, in which there is only one winner and one loser, or "negative-sum" activities, which result in one winner and more than one loser (Brown & Grineski, 1992). In other words, players strive to gain rewards that are in limited supply. Rewards are distributed on the basis of how learners perform in relation to others. Rewards consist of points, prizes or other recognition. This form of competition is called structural competition (Henkel, 1997). Structural competition is defined by winning or losing. This type of competition refers to the degree that the game requires the players to work against each other. It is determined by the rules and procedures of the game and is therefore external to the individual.

Another way to define competition is called intentional competition (Henkel, 1997). Intentional competition is defined by the player's attitude about a game and to what degree players desire to win. This happens within the players thought patterns and is therefore internal to the player. In other words, players can make a game more or less competitive according to their feelings about the importance of winning/losing the game.

Three variations of "intentional competition" were identified by Midura and Glover (1999) to provide models for social interaction in competitive games. In the military model, the opponent is regarded as the enemy. In the reward model, players strives to attain selected goals, including winning the game, raising one's own skill level or striving to achieve a certain level of performance. In contrast to the two previous models of competition, in the partnership model, players view each other as comrades and not enemies. Players are respected and treated as peers. The intention adopted toward competition will surely influence whether or not affective development can be addressed in participation. With the exception of the military model, it appears that social dimensions might be cultivated in either of the other two variations.

Because competitive games are so popular in Western cultures, the nature of games - and specifically competition in games - has received a lot of attention in the past few years. Two definite points of view have emerged, with one side supporting the potential of competitive games as a medium for education and the other side questioning their usefulness.

Supporters of Competition

The following points are made by the supporters of the educational potential of participation in competitive games:

- Competitive games help children to prepare for inevitable competition in many of life's non-sport situations. They will learn to live and work successfully in our competitive society (Henkel, 1997; Hager, 1995; Brown & Grineski, 1992).
- Trying to beat others results in the greatest productivity and achievement. Winning is viewed as the ultimate goal (Henkel, 1997).
- Children prefer to participate in competitive activities more than in alternative activities, thus offering a programme of competitive games will increase participation. Children find competitive activities more challenging and recognise that competitive activities are valued more by peers and adult role models (Henkel, 1997; Brown & Grineski, 1992).
- Sport enhances moral development and builds positive character traits like discipline, hard work, and a sense of fair play (Henkel, 1997; Hager, 1995).
- Competition develops character, promotes sportsmanship, enhances moral development, increases motivation and prepares learners for the "real world" (Brown & Grineski, 1992).
- Successful competitors receive recognition, approval, higher grades, special privileges, and may experience increased self-esteem and confidence,

thereby increasing motivation to future participation in competitive activities (Brown & Grineski, 1992).

Those who Question the Value of Competition

The following points are made by those who question the educational potential of participation in competitive games:

- Competition is a learned behavior. People are not born with a motivation to win or to be competitive. The drive to win comes through training and the influence of one's family and environment. This means that living in a competitive society is not inevitable (Henkel, 1997).
- Competition encourages a number of negative social behaviours, such as aggression and unfair play. As a result, many children have negative experiences while playing competitive games, which can lead to a general dislike for participation in physical activity (Henkel, 1997).
- Competition seems to promote poor behaviour during game play, including, name-calling, cheating and violence (Hager, 1995; Brown & Grineski, 1992).
- The effects of competition on the self-esteem and confidence of children can be very negative. Although failure can be an important life lesson, it is difficult for children who fail on a regular basis to focus on positive results of past game play. These children are less motivated for future game play and may even generalise their low self-esteem and lack of confidence in games to other aspects of their lives (Henkel, 1997; Brown & Grineski, 1992).
- Competition does not encourage the learning of social skills. Because the primary objective of these games is to outscore or outperform the opponent, participation can promote selfish behaviour (Hager, 1995).

Cooperative Games

A cooperative game is characterised by mutually compatible goals for all participants. The success of one player or team is dependent on the success of all the other players or teams (Henkel, 1997). Rewards are not limited because all participants potentially share the rewards available. Within an educational context, cooperative learning becomes the focus of instruction when cooperative games are used as a means.

Dyson (2001) defined five main elements of cooperative learning. Participants in cooperative games have the opportunity to experience each of these elements:

1. Positive interdependence occurs when each member of the group depends on the rest of the group while they work together.
2. Individual accountability occurs when an individual is doing his/her bit of the work.
3. Face-to-face interaction occurs during discussion and positive feedback is given among the group.
4. Interpersonal and small group skills are developed during listening, shared decision making, taking responsibility, learning to give and receive feedback, and learning to encourage each other.
5. Group processing occurs during discussions about how well goals were achieved by the group.

When promoting cooperative learning, four different approaches are offered to teachers (Putman in Dyson, 2001):

- The conceptual approach emphasises all five cooperative learning elements. Content-free forms of cooperative learning are used in a variety of subjects and at different grade levels.
- The structural approach is based on two elements of positive interdependence and individual accountability. Lessons are designed to accomplish cognitive, physical, and social goals within a given teaching situation.
- The curricular approach is grade- and subject specific. The focus is on team rewards, equal opportunity and individual accountability.
- The complex instruction approach focuses on small-group work to enhance social and academic development.

Because cooperation is an integral part of many competitive games, exploring the benefits of working within a cooperative goal structure is important both to those educators who promote competitive games and those who promote only cooperative activities. It is also valuable to examine the teaching strategies recommended when presenting cooperative games.

The Benefits of a Cooperative Goal Structure

The following research on the relationship between cooperative goal structure and social interaction certainly supports the use of cooperative activities as a means within any programme that targets affective development.

- According to Mosston and Ashworth (1986), including cooperative learning the physical educator can improve group interaction, communication skills, individual teacher time with learners, active learning time, classroom behaviour and learner internalisation and application of knowledge.

- Grinseki (1989) studied the effect of the three different goal structures on the social interaction of children and found that cooperative games resulted in more positive behaviours than did competitive games.
- Through cooperative learning learners achieve higher academic performances, gain a greater sense of locus control, improve social relationships and develop better language skills (Dunn & Wilson, 1991).
- Yoder (1993) found that cooperative learning in dance enhances group work, social interaction and learning.
- Cooperative learning is beneficial to learners when the goal is to encourage and maintain social interactions and behaviours like trust, affinity for others, acceptance, helping, sharing, working together, reducing bias and positive attitudes (Grineski, 1996).
- Dyson (2001) investigated experiences with cooperative learning by physical education teacher's and learners of the fifth and sixth grade. Teachers and learners held similar perceptions of the cooperative learning programme. Teachers reported that the programme allowed learners of all ability levels to improve motor skills, develop social skills, work together as a team, help others improve motor skills, and take responsibility for their own learning.

Methods for Presenting Cooperative Games

Grineski, (1996) identified four guidelines for lesson planning to maximise the impact of cooperative learning.

1. Forming of teams – groups should be heterogeneous in gender, race, economic status and ability.
2. Promoting positive interdependence – goal achievement is mutually inclusive – a joint effort, rather than an individual effort must be displayed.

3. Including individual accountability – participants must be held accountable for both learning and helping others.
4. Creating the need for collaborative skills within the game, for example, displaying the following:
 - Listening to others.
 - Resolving conflict.
 - Supporting and encouraging others.
 - Taking turns.
 - Express enjoyment in the success of others.
 - To be able to criticise ideas and not the individual.

Physical activities and competitive games also can be structured so that cooperation is ensured, by changing some elements of the game or activity. Orlick (1982) suggests the following examples of how competitive games can be modified to achieve a more cooperative learning environment:

- All touch - every player must make contact with the ball before the team scores.
- All play – every player plays for an equal amount of time.
- All chosen - help players to choose teams or partners in a humane way.
- All positions – every player has the opportunity to play in all positions in every game.
- All shoot – every player is given the opportunity to score before the team can win.
- All bat – every player has an opportunity to bat the ball.

- Multi-score – a certain number of different players must score for the team to win.
- Point to the passer – the last person to make the pass before scoring is acknowledged.
- No hitting – introduce non-contact rules for all games and activities.
- Remove the armor – move away from the professional sport model.
- Fun for all – every game should be to keep the children smiling inside.

The Competition-Cooperation Link

Children can learn to cooperate and compete within a competitive game structure successfully if participation is guided properly. The problems that arise from competition in games lies not with the activities but in the way the activities are “misused” (Hager, 1995). The problem with competitive activities has to do with structure. Many games are structured in such a way that players do not have the opportunity to learn the skills that they need to be successful in the game. For example, this problem can be addressed by playing in smaller groups and modifying the rules of the game. Players must not be placed into competitive situations if they have not been taught all the skills necessary to play the game or have not yet developed the skills to such a level that they feel comfortable (Petersen, 1992). A “controlled scrimmage” is one technique that could be used to enhance learning while engaging in competitive activities (Metzler, 1990). In a controlled scrimmage, the coach or teacher interrupts the activity in order to make certain points to the players – “teachable moments”.

Competitive games can provide the environment where children learn how to cooperate within a team. They can achieve social development objectives, such as how to treat each other with respect and how to follow rules. Midura and Glover

(1999) list four characteristics of any programme that aims to foster a healthier competitive atmosphere:

1. Participation for everyone.
2. Winning is not everything, rather educate players in the joy of participation and mutual respect for each other.
3. Everyone should experience success.
4. Instruction should focus on skill acquisition and not competition.

From this perspective, competition can be defined as a mutual quest for excellence through meeting challenges (Simon, 1991). Emphasis should be placed on excellence - skill improvement and teamwork, rather than on winning. The importance of presenting one's opponent with a good challenge through fair play and always doing one's best should be emphasised.

The progression in learning within competitive games can be placed on a continuum, starting with participation in relatively non-competitive exploratory situations like fun games and then progressing to modified sport and then moving toward highly competitive situations where winning is the goal. Introducing elements of competition should be a gradual, developmental process. The role of the coach or teacher is to help young players to adopt a healthy attitude and to understand the difference in the relationship between competitive and non-competitive situations. Douge (1998) specifically identified the following social competencies to be mastered at the competitive games:

- How to cope with winning and losing.
- Accepting selection policies.
- Accepting umpire decisions.
- Supporting team-mates when they make errors.

- Supporting team strategies.

Douge (1998) also illustrates the link between cooperation and competition in the behaviour of the coach, who should at all times stress good sportsmanship, fair play, support for team-mates, teamwork, maintaining effort and application of skills and strategies rather than the final score.

The Nature of the Learner

Adolescence is a challenging period of development during which a person is in search of his or her own identity, moving away from childhood and moving toward becoming a responsible adult. Technically, this stage commences at age eleven to thirteen years and ends at age seventeen to twenty-one (Thom, 1990). A lot of changes take place during adolescence, which result in the development of certain needs that have implications for teaching. Physical education can make a meaningful contribution to the personal and social development of adolescents (Pote, 1995).

During adolescence the individual seeks freedom from supervision from adults, they want greater independence, they want to have interpersonal relationships with their peers. They want to move away from the family unit and search for their own identity. Mercier (1992) identified the development of any of the following behaviours as valid objectives for an educational programme for adolescents:

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Displays helpfulness | <input type="checkbox"/> Displays kindness |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Displays courtesy | <input type="checkbox"/> Encourages others |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Responds to ideas | <input type="checkbox"/> Disagrees in a positive way |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Shows appreciation | <input type="checkbox"/> Refers to others by name |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Stays calm | <input type="checkbox"/> Can tolerate personal differences |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Actively listens | <input type="checkbox"/> Can share space |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Compliments others | <input type="checkbox"/> Knows how to ask questions |

Physical Development

As the adolescent's body reaches maturity, a rapid increase in height and weight can be observed (Thom, 1990). Development of primary and secondary sexual characteristics takes place as the adolescent reaches puberty. With the increase in height and weight, muscular strength and endurance also increase. Adipose tissue starts to collect around the hips, thighs, arms, abdomen and chest. They are very self-conscious about their appearance and compare themselves regularly with their peers. This natural tendency to compare themselves with others of their age is one reason why physical educationists are concerned about the use of competitive activities as an educational means.

Cognitive Development

The adolescent's cognitive ability develops quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitative – intellectual tasks are easier, quicker and more effective. Qualitative - there is a change in the type of thought processes and cognitive structure (Thom, 1990). According to Piaget, play is seen as a product of thinking and cognitive structures (Gilmore, 1971). An adolescent is able to think about things that are not linked to concrete objects or reality. Thought patterns become more abstract. Problem solving and decision-making skills should improve with age and experience. An adolescent also has a greater knowledge base and vocabulary, which allows him/her to express ideas more clearly (Pote, 1995). At this stage of development, the adolescent begins to question existing social, political and religious systems and the values and rules that are enforced by their parents and society. The adolescent can become very analytic about himself/herself and he/she tends to be egocentric at this stage. This decreases as socialisation with others increase, and as the adolescent experiences more adult responsibilities.

Moral Development

One of the most important tasks of adolescence is to develop a personal value system. Society has certain rules and values that influence how individuals behave and an adolescent starts to question some of these values and rules. The adolescent needs support to reach cognitive maturity, which will give him/her greater insight about self and the environment. At this stage, the adolescent begins to make independent decisions about right/wrong or good/bad (Weiss, 1986).

Social Development

Not only do adolescents develop physically, cognitively and morally, but they also mature socially. The process of socialisation begins at birth and continues throughout the life cycle, but the “critical years” in which primary and lasting socialisation occurs are from birth through adolescence (Sage, 1986). Socialisation is the process by which persons learn the skills, attitudes, values and behaviours that enable them to practice as members of the society in which they live.

There are two primary agents in the lives of adolescents that influence social development: their families and their peers (Sage, 1986). The family is the most important social structure in their lives. However, as they mature, their social contacts expand beyond their families to their peers. Adolescents must start making their own decisions and taking responsibility for their decisions. Engaging in healthy interpersonal relationships can lead to the development of a positive self-concept. Self-concept is acquired through social experiences and how an individual perceives himself in relation to others.

The school and society also have an influence on the socialisation of an adolescent (Sage, 1986). The school is the place where adolescents spend a large portion of their time. It provides opportunities for social interaction in groups, including opportunities for discussion, cooperation and helping others.

Theoretical Models of Adolescent Development

Gallahue & Ozmun (1995) present the following summaries of how several theories of human development describe adolescent development. This brief sketch is sufficient to provide background for this study.

Erikson

During the period of adolescence, rapid physical growth occurs and the adolescent reaches puberty. At this phase of development acceptance by the peer group is very important. The adolescent develops his/her own identity and becomes capable of participating in society as a responsible individual, making his/her own decisions.

Havighurst

Development for Havighurst is based on the concept that successful experiences in mastering tasks lead to success with later more sophisticated tasks, while unsuccessful experiences can lead to social disapproval. Tasks arise from three sources: physical maturation, pressure from society and from the individual self. Adolescence is, for example, characterised by the following tasks:

- Striving for emotional independence from adults.
- Accepting ones own physical appearance.
- Formulating a system of values and ethics that direct behaviour.

Piaget

According to Piaget development is based on the cognitive process of adaptation. First, the process of assimilation is experienced, where new information is interpreted based on existing cognitive structures. Second, the process of accommodation is experienced where changes in the environment or

the individual takes place when new information is experienced. According to Piaget, the adolescent systematically approaches problem solving. The adolescent can think past the present.

It is apparent from these theoretical perspectives that the adolescent should be ready to deal with a formal approach to the development of affective outcomes – particularly those associated with socialisation. Participation in competitive games can help adolescents in the development of identity. Skill, winning and belonging to a team may have a positive influence on identity, if the experience is managed carefully. To be part of a team can lead to familiarity and friendships with peers, but if a lack of skillfulness prevents participation at least at a recreational level, the adolescent can experience isolation from peers.

Attitudes toward Physical Education, Physical Activity and Sport

The development of positive attitudes toward physical education has been a longstanding goal. Figley (1985) found that learners rated their teachers as the most important determinant of their attitudes toward physical education. She found that the specific content of the curriculum and teacher reinforcement or lack of reinforcement influenced both positive and negative attitudes toward physical education.

Blair (1985) discovered that as learners move from the “free play” of childhood to participating in organised sport, their attitude toward participation changes. An increase in interest in defeating the opponent is noticeable and emphasis on fair play decreases. A change in gender attitudes can also be noticed. Girls become more interested in the value of playing to the best of their ability as well as playing fair. Boys have a tendency toward playing as well as they are able to and to win.

Luke and Sinclair (1991) examined adolescents' attitudes toward school physical education. They found that female adolescents are not as fit as males, fewer females participate in school physical activity programmes, and that females are not encouraged as much as males to participate in physical activities. They identified five factors that influence attitude toward physical education:

1. Curriculum content.
2. Teacher behaviour.
3. Class atmosphere.
4. Learner self-perceptions
5. Facilities.

Curriculum content was identified as the most influential factor in the development of both positive and negative attitudes toward physical education. The importance of programme content was also supported by Figley (1985). Fitness content was identified as contributing to a negative attitude and team sports were given the highest positive support. The class atmosphere within physical education was identified as the second ranked determinant of positive attitudes. Teacher behaviour was the most powerful determinant of negative attitude.

Browne (1992) lists the following reasons why 12-year old girls elect physical activity education:

- Physical education classes were fun.
- They appreciated the break from the classroom.
- They felt it helped to keep them fit.
- They enjoyed learning new skills.
- They liked the sports offered.
- They perceived themselves as being good at physical education.

Those who do not choose physical education gave reasons such as:

- Other subjects were more important for their career plans.

- Physical education classes do not fit into their timetable.
- They believed that they obtained enough exercise out of school.
- The activities in physical education are too competitive.

Browne (1992) also found a decline in the number of girls participating in physical activity as they progressed through adolescence.

Tannehill & Zakrajsek (1993) conducted a survey on boys and girls from different ethnic backgrounds, ranging from ages 11 to 19. One conclusion that they drew was that all of the learners believed that physical education was important to their overall education. More boys than girls identified that their ability to perform in physical education was one reason for liking it. They also found that learners in general like physical education because it is fun and something they enjoy. The authors were concerned when data indicated that fitness and fitness activities were regarded by learners as unimportant and among the most disliked activities.

Tannehill, Romar & O'Sullivan (1994) examined the attitudes of 10th – and 11th grade learners and their parents toward physical education programmes. Learners indicated that teaching of team sport skills should be the most important focus of a physical education programme, followed by how to play team sports and to improve fitness. Boys and girls indicated that they liked physical education because it provided exposure to a variety of activities. The major difference found was that boys indicated they liked physical education because of perceived excellence in the activities. Learners indicated fun and enjoyment and teamwork (this includes being part of a group, belonging, cooperating, sharing and getting along) as the most valued affective outcomes of physical education. Competing against each other was valued as the least important outcome. Skills and activities that the learners indicated as most valued in their physical education programme, included: team sports, fitness activities, individual sport, low level games and adventure/risk activities. Dance and gymnastics were cited as the least valued content of the physical education programme.

Herbert (1997) examined the perceived value of the benefits of participation in competitive sport among adolescents with physical disabilities. She found that the top rated benefits were “keeping in good health and physical condition,” “developing sportsmanship,” “achieving and maintain physical fitness,” “getting regular exercise and “improving self-confidence”.

Van Deventer (1999) completed a research project on physical education and sport in selected Western Cape high schools to determine the reasons why children participate in sport. He found that all race groups (white, colored and black) gave the following personal reasons for participating in sport: health, competition, fitness, to relax, to exercise, to keep the body in shape, for recreation, to look good and to prove themselves.

- Personal reasons for participating in sport for the two genders (boys and girls) are health, competition, fitness, to relax, to exercise, to keep the body in shape, for recreation, to look good and to prove themselves.
- The social reasons for participating in sport are to meet people and to be part of a group.
- He also investigated the attitude of children toward physical education and found that 77% of the total number of children that participated in the research project maintain that they enjoy physical education as a school subject.

Conclusion

Adolescence is a challenging period of development, which brings with it many changes – physical, cognitive, moral and social. During this period of development an adolescent is moving away from being a child and becoming an adult. Although they are moving toward the independence of adulthood, they are not yet ready to face the responsibilities of being an adult.

Hellison (1987) suggested that physical education can provide learners with the opportunity to make responsible decisions and learn to take responsibility for their decisions and actions. Hellison designed a model for teaching children responsibility through the medium of physical education. The four levels of this model takes the learner and making them aware of their actions and the implication thereof to taking responsibility for their own well-being and the well-being of others.

Through Hellison's (1995) levels subjects are encouraged to display a greater awareness and sensitivity towards other people around them, and led them to experience the acceptance of, sharing with and caring for others, all of these behaviours being characteristic of a socially responsible person who is self- and other-oriented and not only self-centered (Pote, 1995).

Compagnone (1995) examined the effect Hellison's model had on the specific behaviours of fifth grade learners. He found that if learners are at level one or higher the one-day, it does not necessarily mean they will remain there. Teachers must verbally reinforce positive behaviour to let learners know that they can achieve higher levels.

Implementing structured physical training programmes to at-risk youth has been showed to increase self-esteem, increase well-being, increase acquisition of life skills, increase value development and lowered depression and anxiety (Collingwood, 1997a). Many studies using Hellison's levels of teaching children responsibility are with at-risk youth. Collingwood (1997b) implied that the principles of working with at-risk youth are generalisable to all youth, because they have the same needs and developmental deficits to overcome.

Adolescence is characterised by a period of heightened social interaction. One of the most important tasks an adolescent has is to develop his or her own value systems through socialisation. Social values can be used as content and social behaviours can be emphasised as the main objective when planning and teaching physical education (Pote, 1995). Deline (1991) lists the following cooperative values: honesty, trust, communication, patience, compromise, concern, teamwork, sharing

sportsmanship and enjoyment, necessary to deal with the complexities of social interaction. For the purpose of this study the author decided on four concepts as themes to teach children to cooperate within a competitive situation. The four concepts include: sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility.

Sportsmanship formed the basis of the programme. Subjects first needed clarity about following rules and accepting the outcome of a game or activity. Hellison's (1993) self-responsibility checklist was introduced to the subjects to make them aware of their behaviour. Communication was introduced as the second theme because in order to successfully participate in group activities, learners need to use listening, verbal communication and physical skills to make group decisions (Halliday, 1999). The willingness to trust physical and emotional safety to others is an important ingredient to build a sense of community, team support, empathy and cooperation (Halliday, 1999). Learners must learn to take responsibility for their own behaviour, which include their actions, inactions and decisions they make (Hedlund, 1990).

For learners to learn about the concept of responsibility, they should be given responsibility. If they are not able to handle it, it becomes a learning experience. Instruction should be provided to specifically allow learners to comprehend, utilise, and internalise values. How can they be expected to work well together or behave cooperatively if they have not been adequately exposed to these values and had these values positively reinforced?

Chapter Three

Methodology

This study explored the potential of competitive games as means for teaching adolescent girls four of the concepts that support cooperation. Sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility were used as themes in lessons that provided the girls with opportunities to discuss and practice these concepts in either a competitive games or cooperative games programme. Included in this chapter is a description of the design of the study, the procedures followed, and how the data were analysed.

Design

This study followed an experimental research design, involving pre- and post-testing of two Experimental Groups and a Control Group (Borg & Gall, 1989). The intervention consisted of a theme-oriented intervention programme presented to the two experimental groups. One group ($n = 9$) participated in a games programme that consisted of competitive activities and the other group ($n = 9$) participated in a games programme that consisted of cooperative activities. The Control Group ($n = 18$) received no treatment. All the participants were from the same school and between the age of 13 and 18. Both Experimental Groups were presented with theme-oriented lessons based on four of the concepts that support cooperation: sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility. In order to set a context for this study, background information was gathered using a questionnaire to determine how girls from the school ($N = 194$) felt about their participation in competitive games and sports.

Measurement Instruments

Three measurement instruments were used to collect data in pre- and post-testing sessions.

- The assessment of how the girls felt about their participation in competitive games and sport was completed using Gill & Deeter's (1988) Sport Orientation Questionnaire (SOQ).
- Harter's (1985) Self-perception Profile was used to measure the girls' perceived social acceptance. This instrument was selected in order to measure any changes in girls' perceptions of themselves as socially competent (Alexander, 1998). Weiss (1987) identified Harter's instrument as particularly useful because it allows the scores on just one dimension of self-perception to be examined. The scores on the other dimensions of self-perception that are included in this instrument are also reported in the next chapter in order to give the reader a complete report of the girls' perceived competence. However, these scores are not discussed.
- Soudan and Everett's (1981) 24-item questionnaire was used to determine any changes in how the girls in the Control and Experimental Groups perceived the benefits of participation in physical activity.

Feelings about Competitive Games and Sport

The Sport Orientation Questionnaire (Gill & Deeter, 1988) is presented as a 25-item Likert scale (see Appendix A) designed to determine how subjects feel about competing in games and sport. A mean score (1 lowest to 5 highest) is calculated on each of three orientations:

a. Competitiveness.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects enjoy competition, like competing against others, and feel that they perform best in competitive situations.

b. Win orientation.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects feel that they have to win in order to be satisfied with their participation, hate to lose and are upset when they lose.

c. Goal orientation.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects feel that achieving the personal goals they set for themselves in competitive situations is more important to them than winning. Performing their best is their criterion for success.

The validity and reliability of this measure has been demonstrated (Barrow, McGee & Tritschler, 1989). Internal consistency coefficients range from 0.70 to 0.95 over the three factors. Test-retest reliability is 0.89 for competitiveness, 0.82 for win orientation and 0.73 for goal orientation.

Perceived Competence

Harter's (1985) Self-perception Profile is an objective self-report measure that was designed to assess subject's self-perception of adequacy across six different domains (see Appendix B). It is considered to be a multidimensional assessment instrument that is often used as an indicator of self-esteem. The six domains are:

a. Perceived social acceptance.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects feel that they are liked by their peers and can easily make friends and have as many friends as they want to.

Perceived social acceptance is the dimension of self-perception that was of particular interest in this study.

b. Perceived sport/athletic competence.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects feel that they are good at sport and do well at new physical activities.

c. Perceived scholastic competence.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects feel that they do well at school, and are as clever as other girls of the same age.

d. Perceived physical appearance.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects feel that they are happy with the way they look, and feel that others think of them as "good looking."

e. Perceived behavioural conduct.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects feel that they are well-behaved and that the way they behave is acceptable.

f. Global self-worth.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects feel that they like the way they lead their lives, they are happy with themselves as a person and that they are happy with the way they do things.

There are six items per sub-scale on the inventory. For each item there is a four-point rating scale, completed in two steps. The first step involves the subject

choosing between two opposing statements such as, “some children would rather play outdoors in their spare time”, while “other children would rather watch TV.” The subject must decide which of the two statements is most like them. The second step involves determining if the choice they made is “sort of true” or “really true” for them. Depending on how the subject responds to the item, a value rating from 1 to 4 is assigned, with 1 reflecting the lowest rating for perceived competence and 4 reflecting the highest rating.

Separate domain scores are calculated by determining the mean rating for each sub-scale. Mean scores from 2 to 3 are considered average, scores above 3 reflect increasingly stronger levels of perceived competence and scores below 2 are perceived to reflect decreasingly lower levels of perceived competence.

The validity and reliability of this measure has been demonstrated. The average of internal consistency reliabilities for the subscales calculated are: scholastic competence, $r = 0.82$; social acceptance, $r = 0.78$; athletic competence, $r = 0.83$; physical appearance, $r = 0.80$; behavioural conduct, $r = 0.74$; and global self-worth, $r = 0.80$ (Rose, Larkin & Berger, 1997)

Perceived Value of Participating in Physical Activity

Soudan & Everett (1981) developed a 24-item questionnaire, the Perceived Value of Participating in Physical Activity. This questionnaire was used to collect data about the perceived benefits of participation in sport and physical activity (see Appendix C). This questionnaire is a self-report questionnaire and subjects were asked to rate how important each potential benefit were in terms of what participation in physical activity really meant to them based on their own personal experience. The potential benefits of participation in physical activity are divided into six categories:

- a. Social benefits.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects perceive participation in physical activity and sport to be important in learning

social skills, making new friends and understanding people. It provides an opportunity to develop good sportsmanship and leadership qualities.

b. Health and fitness benefits.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects perceive participation in physical activity and sport to be important in the development of good health and good physical condition.

c. Psychological benefits.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects perceive participation in physical activity and sport as fun. They think that participation is important because it can improve self-confidence and aid in the development of emotional stability and positive mental qualities.

d. Motor skill/mobility benefits.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects perceive participation in physical activity and sport to be important in learning skills in various sports and enable them to move freely and with control. It provides an opportunity to experience success.

e. Holistic benefits.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects perceive participation in physical activity and sport to be important in learning activities that can be continued outside of school and it helps them to reach their full potential and learn to cope with their shortcomings.

f. Career benefits.

A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects perceive participation in physical activity and sport to be important in preparing them for a job or career.

Each subject rates the importance of each outcome by circling the number on the scale, which indicates their perception of its value, ranging from 1 (not very important) to 5 (very important).

Procedures

This research was conducted in the following sequence.

Selection of Subjects

The investigator approached the principal from a local girls' high school. The school was selected because of its accessibility to the investigator and its language of instruction is English (all of the measurement instruments are in English). A discussion took place, which included an explanation of what the study entailed and the purposes of the research. The principal felt that the study could benefit the pupils and curriculum planning for future physical education, so a meeting was arranged for the investigator to meet with the pupils in the school, ages 13-18.

The research programme was described to the girls and the requirements in terms of participation - if they chose to participate - were specified. The details of the pre- and post-test assessments were also explained. It was clearly stated that the programme was voluntary and that the information on the pre- and post-test would be kept confidential.

A total of 36 girls initially volunteered to participate in the experimental groups. They were all between the age of 13 and 16 years. After completing the pre-test, they attended an introductory lesson held at the school. The subjects could then make a final decision about whether to continue or discontinue their participation in

the project. The subjects who chose not to continue with the programme indicated that they were willing to serve as a Control Group (n=18) and to complete the post-test at the end of the intervention period. This left 18 girls for the two experimental groups. The girls were paired according to age, with one girl assigned to the competitive games group and the other to the cooperative games group.

Pre-testing

A random selection of girls (N = 194) between the ages of 13-18, completed the Sport Orientation Questionnaire (Gill & Deeter, 1988).

One week prior to the start of the intervention programme, all subjects in the Experimental and Control Groups (N = 36) completed Harter's (1985) Self-perception Profile and Soudan & Everett's (1981) Perceived Values of Participation in Sport and Physical Activity. The investigator supervised the completion of the questionnaires at the school. The sessions were conducted at desks in one of the high school's classrooms. Any questions the girls had during the session were answered individually by the investigator. The completion of the questionnaires took the subjects between 45-60 minutes. This includes the time needed to explain how to complete the questionnaires properly.

The Intervention Programme

The motivation for selecting the theme-oriented approach to presenting the games programmes was based on Deline's (1991) position that students do not know how to cooperate with each other because they do not understand cooperation. Instruction is seldom provided which allows students to discuss as well as practise specific concepts that are necessary to deal with the complexities of cooperative behaviour. Because of the time constraints, it was necessary to identify a limited number of concepts to serve as themes for lessons. The following concepts were selected because they are commonly associated with cooperative behaviour: sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility. Deline (1991) identifies trust,

communication and sportsmanship as cooperative concepts which are necessary when learning to successfully cooperate with others.

1. Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship formed the basis of the programme. Subjects first needed clarity about the concept of fair play and how it interacts with being able to abide by the rules and accepting defeat or victory graciously (Deline, 1991). Sportsmanship primarily involves respect - respect for the opponents, for team-mates, for officials, for coaches and for the game (Clifford & Feezell, 1997).

In addition to respect and accepting victory and defeat, Vallerand, Deshaies and Cuerrier (1997) add another two dimensions to the definition of sportsmanship: commitment toward participation and adhering to social conventions (like shaking hands after a game). Gibbons, Ebbeck and Weiss (1995) add still another two dimensions to sportsmanship: a commitment to equal opportunity and self-control. Three lessons were focused on discussing these dimensions of sportsmanship, and finding ways to practice them during game participation.

Deline (1991) indicates that the development of "good sportsmanship" and the teaching of cooperative concepts are fundamental aspects of the curriculum.

2. Communication

Because effective communication is the foundation for managing most team problems (Copeland & Wida, 1996), and all the activities in the games programmes were group activities, it was decided to make "communication" the second theme. Communication skills can be improved through a cooperative learning environment (Mosston & Ashworth, 1986). Three lessons were focussed on understanding the impact of using positive encouragement with their team-mates, rather than put-downs. Avoiding the

formation of cliques was discussed. Praising a peer was a skill that was reinforced. How to accept praise from team-mates also needed to be addressed (Glover & Midura, 1992).

3. Trust

The willingness to trust other people is an important ingredient in cooperation because cooperation relies on interdependence. Being honest and sharing feelings, for example, requires trust between people (Little, 1982). Solomon (1997) found that by using trust as a theme for moral education, social skills among primary school children improved.

According to Rohnke (1984), trust in the games settings includes the following beliefs:

- The equipment and activity are safe.
- The instructor is honest.
- If I try something and fail, my peers will be supportive of my efforts.
- I will not be laughed at or made to appear foolish.
- My ideas and comments will be considered.

Discussions about the theme of trust and ways to create trust in the games environment were the focus of three lessons.

4. Responsibility

An important part of social development and a central value in cooperative relationships is responsibility. To maximise the effectiveness of physical education, it is necessary to concentrate on individual and social responsibility in the affective domain (Hedlund, 1990; Hellison, 1987).

Students must not only take responsibility for their own actions, but also they

must trust others to take responsibility for their actions and decisions (Hellison, 1995). The following behaviours identified by Hellison were presented during the three lessons dealing with this theme:

- Do not make excuses and blame others for your behaviour. Take responsibility for what you do or fail to do.
- Control your behaviour enough so that you do not interfere with other student's right to learn or the teachers right to teach. Do not use verbal abuse, physical abuse, intimidation or manipulation. Do not disrupt the work or play of others.
- Show a willingness to play, accept challenges, practice motor skills and become fit.
- Complete a task or plan your own activities without supervision.
- Cooperate, give support, show concern and help others.

The theme-oriented intervention programmes began one week after completion of the pre-testing. Experimental Group A (n=9) participated in a competitive games programme and Experimental Group B (n=9) participated in a cooperative games programme. The programmes for Experimental Groups A and B took place in one 45-minute lesson per week for 12 weeks. The lessons were presented either in the school hall or outside if weather permitted it.

Subjects participating in Experimental Group A took part in competitive activities that included touch football, basketball, softball and volleyball games. Each of these activities together with a theme was presented over a period of three consecutive lessons. The details of the competitive games programme are presented in Appendix D.

Subjects participating in Experimental Group B took part in cooperative activities that included team building, challenge and problem-solving activities. A theme was presented over a period of three consecutive lessons. The details of the cooperative games programme are presented in Appendix E.

Before the programme commenced the subjects from both Experimental Groups ($n = 18$) and the investigator (who also was the teacher of the programmes for both groups) had a discussion of Hellison's (1995) levels of responsibility. Hellison's (1993) self-responsibility checklist was introduced to the subjects to help them understand the levels and to make them aware of how their behaviour reflects upon the levels (See Appendix F). Care was taken to ensure that all the girls understood these levels and the theme-oriented approach to learning. It was explained to them that the themes would be dealt with in sequences of three lessons each. During the first lesson, the theme would be defined. The following two lessons focused on experiencing the theme and discussing incidents that occur during the lesson. During the last lesson dealing with a theme, the subjects were asked to write down what they have learned about the theme. The themes (sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility) are presented in Appendix G.

Post-testing

All subjects in the Control Group ($n = 18$) and the two Experimental Groups ($n = 18$) completed all three questionnaires one week after the completion of the intervention programme.

Data Analysis

Means and standard deviations were computed for each grade level for the results on the Sport Orientation Questionnaire (Gill & Deeter, 1988). The purpose of this was to describe how girls in general at this particular high school, felt about participation in competitive games and sport.

T-tests were performed to determine pre- to post-test differences within each of the Experimental Groups on the variables measured in the Sport Orientation Questionnaire (Gill & Deeter, 1988), Harter's (1985) Self-perception Profile and Soudan & Everett's (1981) Perceived Value of Participating in Physical Activity.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to determine the difference between Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the potential of participation in a competitive games programme to teach the concepts that support cooperation among adolescent girls. An initial survey was completed to determine how girls at a selected high school, felt about their involvement in competitive games and sports. For those girls who participated in the intervention programmes, pre- to post-intervention changes in the girls' perceived social acceptance and their perceptions of the benefits of participation in physical activity were also measured. Finally, the effects of participation in a competitive games/sports programme were compared to the effects of participation in a cooperative games programme in order to determine if there were any differences between the programmes in terms of changes on the selected variables.

Chapter Four

Results and Discussion

The data gathered to answer the research questions that guided this study are presented in the following sections in table format. Each table is accompanied by an interpretation of the results based on the investigator's knowledge of the subject and experience in working with these girls. Three questionnaires were selected to answer the research questions:

- Gill & Deeter's (1988) Sport Orientation Questionnaire (SOQ) was used to measure how adolescent girls feel about sport and competition.
- Harter's (1985) Self-perception Profile for Children was used to measure the perceived social acceptance of adolescent girls.
- Soudan & Everett's (1981) 24-item questionnaire was used to determine adolescent girls' perceptions of the benefits of participation in sport and physical activity.

A *t*-test was performed on the group mean scores for each of the variables to determine pre- to post-test differences. An analysis (ANOVA) was performed to determine the differences on each of the variables between Experimental Group A (competitive programme intervention), Experimental Group B (cooperative programme intervention) and the Control Group (no intervention).

Research Question One

Research question one was aimed at determining how adolescent girls feel about competition in games and sports. The Sport Orientation Questionnaire, SOQ (Gill & Deeter, 1988) was administered to 194 girls from a local high school, ranging from grade eight to grade eleven. The results are presented in Figure 5.

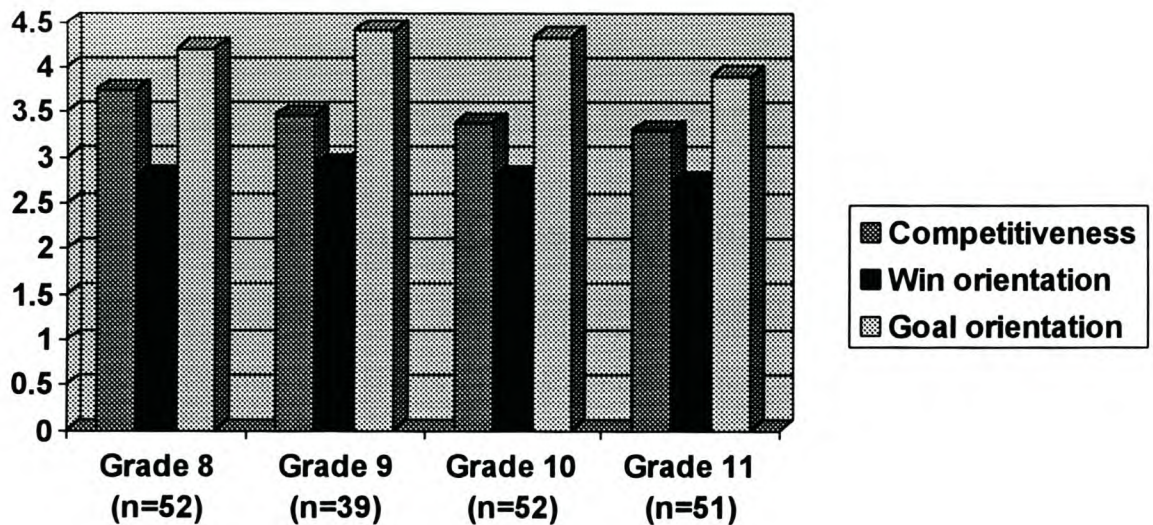


Figure 5

Results of the Sport Orientation Questionnaire for High School Girls (N = 194)

Figure 5 illustrates that the relationship among the three orientations is the same for the girls from all grade/age levels:

- Goal Orientation received the highest rating.
- Competitiveness received the middle rating.
- Win Orientation received the lowest rating.

For these girls, it is more important to reach their personal goals than it is to win. Setting personal goals and trying one's best to reach them, is more important than beating others. The mean scores on the competitiveness sub-scale indicate that these girls do like competitive activities and enjoy competing and working hard to be successful. It appears that they can be satisfied with their participation without winning, as long as they feel they have been competitive in the game/sport and that they have made progress toward reaching personal performance goals.

Goal Orientation

Goal orientation suggests a focus on personal performance standards (Gill, 1993). A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects feel that achieving the personal goals they set for themselves in competitive situations is more important to them than winning. Performing their best is their criterion for success. The means and standard deviations (SD) for each grade level/age group on this sub-scale are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Support for Goal Orientation as a Feeling Experienced in Participation in Competitive Games and Sports among High School Girls (N =194).

Variable	Grade 8 (n = 52) Ages 13-14		Grade 9 (n = 39) Age 15		Grade 10 (n = 52) Age 16		Grade 11 (n = 51) Ages 17-18	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Goal Orientation	4.20	.62	4.14	.76	4.33	.66	3.90	.84

This result is compatible with those of Gill (1993), who reports that studies on gender shows differences on SOQ scores. Males scored higher on competitiveness and win orientation, and females higher on goal orientation. The mean scores of grades 8, 9 and 10 subjects in this study indicate that setting personal goals for themselves in competitive situations is important. The mean score of Grade 11 students indicates that they neither agree nor disagree that it is important to set personal goals for themselves in competitive situations.

Competitiveness

Competitiveness is defined as the desire to enter and strive for success in sport competition (Gill & Deeter, 1988). The items that address competitiveness on this assessment instrument reflect an enjoyment of competition, and a desire to enter and strive for success in competitive sport achievement settings (Gill, 1993). A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects enjoy competition, like competing against others, and feel that they perform best in competitive situations. Table 3 presents a summary of the girls' responses to these items on this sub-scale.

Table 3. Support for Competitiveness as a Feeling Experienced in Participation in Competitive Games and Sports among High School Girls (N = 194).

	Grade 8 (n = 52) Ages 13-14		Grade 9 (n = 39) Age 15		Grade 10 (n = 52) Age 16		Grade 11 (n = 51) Ages 17-18	
Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Competitiveness	3.74	.75	3.47	.78	3.38	.77	3.29	.81

The mean scores for subjects in all the grade/age levels indicate that subjects enjoy competition and like to participate in competitive activities but competition and winning is not the only means of achieving success.

Win Orientation

A win orientation suggests a focus on interpersonal comparison and "beating others" in competition (Gill, 1993). A high score on this sub-scale indicates that subjects feel that they have to win in order to be satisfied with their participation, they hate to lose and are upset when they lose. Table 4 presents a summary of the girls' responses to these items on this sub-scale.

Table 4. Support for Win Orientation as a Feeling Experienced in Participation in Competitive Games and Sports among High School Girls (N = 194).

	Grade 8 (n = 52) Ages 13-14		Grade 9 (n = 39) Age 15		Grade 10 (n = 52) Age 16		Grade 11 (n = 51) Ages 17-18	
Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Win Orientation	2.79	.92	2.93	.86	2.79	.87	2.73	.83

The mean scores for subjects in all the grade/age levels indicate that winning is not everything when one participates in sport. It is more important to perform to the best of their ability. Interestingly, grade 11 students scored the lowest on all three sub-scales. This could be explained by the observation that girls of that age seem not to be very interested in sport or participation in physical activity of any kind.

Research Question Two

Research question two was designed to determine whether or not participation in a theme-oriented competitive activity/games programme (Experimental Group A) could affect (a) how adolescent girls feel about sport and competition, (b) their perceived social acceptance and (c) their perception of the benefits of participation in sport and physical activity. A *t*-test was performed on to determine the pre- to post-test differences. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Pre- to Post-test Changes in Sport Orientation, Perceived Social Acceptance and Perceived Benefits of Participation in Sport and Physical Activity for Girls who Participated in the Competitive Games Programme (Experimental Group A, n=9).

Variable		Pre-test Mean	SD	Post-test Mean	SD	T	p
Sport Orientation	Competitiveness	4.19	0.72	3.85	0.96	2.30	0.05*
	Win Orientation	3.44	0.84	3.21	0.90	1.43	0.19
	Goal Orientation	4.35	0.61	4.22	0.78	1.02	0.34
Perceived Competence	Social Acceptance	2.91	0.69	2.87	0.43	0.21	0.84
	Athletic competence	2.70	0.46	2.85	0.37	-0.87	0.41
	Scholastic competence	2.56	0.86	2.63	0.69	-0.54	0.60
	Physical Appearance	2.08	0.83	1.93	0.38	0.70	0.50
	Behavioural conduct	2.50	0.78	2.50	0.78	0.00	1.00
	General Self-worth	2.44	0.98	2.59	0.65	-0.60	0.57
Perceived Benefits of Participation in Sport and Physical Activity	Social benefits	4.20	0.51	4.54	0.64	-2.98	0.02*
	Health & Fitness benefits	4.36	0.34	4.39	0.35	-0.36	0.73
	Psychological benefits	4.29	0.47	4.24	0.64	0.35	0.74
	Motor Skill/ Mobility benefits	4.37	0.81	4.22	0.94	0.88	0.40
	Holistic benefits	4.00	0.76	4.22	0.82	-1.27	0.24
	Career benefits	2.78	1.30	3.44	1.33	-2.83	0.02*

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

Results show that the theme-oriented competitive activity/games programme had an effect on how the girls feel about participation in games and sports. The scores indicate that they became significantly less competitive in their orientation. For the girls participating in the competitive activity/games programme, it became more important to be together with friends than to simply just win the games. The investigator observed that they appeared to care more and be more considerate to each other as the programme continued. At the beginning of the programme, the girls were very aggressive toward each other in the competitive games.

No changes were noted in their perceived social acceptance.

There were changes in their perceptions about the benefits of participation in physical activity. There was a significant increase in their perception that participation has social benefits as well as benefits in preparing them for a career/job. The girls also expressed an interest in physical education as an option for further study after school.

Research Question Three

Research question three was designed to determine whether or not participation in a theme-oriented cooperative activity/games programme (Experimental Group B) could affect (a) how adolescent girls feel about sport and competition, (b) their perceived social acceptance and (c) their perception of the benefits of participation in sport and physical activity. A *t*-test was performed on the mean scores to determine the pre- to post-test differences. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Pre- to Post-test Changes in Sport Orientation, Perceived Social Acceptance and Perceived Benefits of Participation in Sport and Physical Activity for Girls who received the Cooperative Games Programme (Experimental Group B, n=9).

Variable		Pre-test Mean	SD	Post-test Mean	SD	T	p
Sport Orientation	Competitiveness	3.75	0.96	3.22	0.83	3.11	0.01*
	Win Orientation	2.96	1.16	2.32	1.23	3.39	0.01*
	Goal Orientation	4.06	0.58	3.93	0.67	0.77	0.46
Perceived Competence	Social Acceptance	2.65	0.70	2.65	0.75	0.00	1.00
	Athletic competence	2.48	0.72	2.57	0.79	-0.58	0.58
	Scholastic competence	2.24	0.71	2.55	0.68	-1.23	0.25
	Physical Appearance	2.32	0.79	2.65	0.77	-1.75	0.12
	Behavioural conduct	2.98	0.64	3.07	0.68	-0.86	0.41
	General Self-worth	2.89	0.84	2.96	0.68	-0.76	0.47
Perceived Benefits of Participation in Sport and Physical Activity	Social benefits	4.18	0.64	4.62	0.25	-2.14	0.06
	Health & Fitness benefits	4.11	0.68	4.59	0.32	-2.44	0.04*
	Psychological benefits	4.35	0.38	4.51	0.25	-1.26	0.24
	Motor Skill/ Mobility benefits	4.11	0.80	4.00	0.71	0.35	0.74
	Holistic benefits	4.07	0.52	4.48	0.50	-1.61	0.15
	Career benefits	3.11	1.27	4.11	1.05	-1.55	0.16

* Significant at $p < 0.050$

A significant change took place in how these girls feel about sport and competition. The competitive nature and win orientation of the girls participating in the cooperative activity/games programme changed. The girls that participated in the cooperative activity/games programme became less competitive and winning was not as important to them as was working together in a group. They seemed to enjoy the challenge activities, and were eager to try everything. They became very supportive of their teammates.

Results show that the theme-oriented cooperative activity/games programme had no significance effect on the perceived social acceptance of these girls.

A significant difference was achieved in the way these girls perceived the benefits of participation in sport and physical activity. For the sub-scale health and fitness, a positive and significant difference was found between the pre- and post-test scores. This recognition of the health benefits of participation in physical activity is an important outcome of the cooperative games programme.

It is interesting that only one girl from this cooperative games programme expressed the desire for more “physical” activities.

Results of the Control Group are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Pre- to Post-test Changes in Sport Orientation, Perceived Social Acceptance and Perceived Benefits of Participation in Sport and Physical Activity for Girls who received no Intervention Programme (Control Group, n=18).

Variable		Pre-test Mean	SD	Post-test Mean	SD	T	p
Sport Orientation	Competitiveness	4.10	0.51	3.95	0.69	1.40	0.18
	Win Orientation	3.25	0.84	3.11	0.99	1.11	0.28
	Goal Orientation	4.61	0.30	4.39	0.58	2.12	0.05*
Perceived Competence	Social Acceptance	3.03	0.61	2.97	0.49	0.57	0.58
	Athletic competence	2.91	0.62	2.88	0.58	0.32	0.75
	Scholastic competence	2.83	0.75	2.73	0.77	1.46	0.16
	Physical Appearance	2.04	0.61	2.06	0.64	-0.21	0.84
	Behavioural conduct	2.68	0.58	2.63	0.49	0.82	0.42
	General Self-worth	2.66	0.69	2.79	0.69	-2.03	0.06
Perceived Benefits of Participation in Sport and Physical activity	Social benefits	4.28	0.55	4.33	0.55	-0.32	0.75
	Health & Fitness benefits	4.25	0.60	4.26	0.60	-0.14	0.89
	Psychological benefits	4.20	0.61	4.13	0.58	0.42	0.68
	Motor Skill/ Mobility benefits	4.13	0.78	4.09	0.79	0.18	0.86
	Holistic benefits	4.11	0.72	4.11	0.86	-0.00	1.00
	Career benefits	3.33	1.28	3.22	1.31	0.28	0.79

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

Results indicate that the Control Group showed a significant difference on only one variable: goal orientation. The decrease in the goal orientation among girls in the Control Group could be related to the time of year the questionnaire was completed. It was half-way through the year and their exams had just finished. Perhaps they were a bit weary of goal-directed behaviour. Since they were not involved in any intervention programme, their comments may have reflected more of their general frame of mind rather than their specific orientation toward sport participation.

Research Question Four

Research Questions Four was aimed at the identification of any differences among the three groups in terms of pre- to post-test changes in any of the variables. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on all of the variables to determine if there were any significant differences among Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group, following the delivery of the intervention programmes.

No significant difference was found among Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group on the variable, competitiveness (see Table 8).

Table 8. A Comparison of Post-test Results for Feelings of Competitiveness in Participation in Games and Sports.

Source of Variation: Competitiveness	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	3.30	2	1.65	2.60	0.09
Within Groups (error)	21.00	33	0.64		
Total	24.30	35			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

No significant difference was found among Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group on the variable, win orientation (see Table 9).

Table 9. A Comparison of Post-test Results for a Win Orientation in Participation in Games and Sports.

Source of Variation: Win Orientation	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	4.71	2	2.35	2.20	0.13
Within Groups (error)	35.30	33	1.07		
Total	40.01	35			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

No significant difference was found among Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group on the variable, goal orientation (see Table 10).

Table 10. A Comparison of Post-test Results for a Goal Orientation in Participation in Games and Sports.

Source of Variation: Goal Orientation	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	1.28	2	0.64	1.49	0.24
Within Groups (error)	14.13	33	0.43		
Total	15.41	35			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

No significant difference was found among Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group on the variable, social acceptance (see Table 11).

Table 11. A Comparison of Post-test Results for Perceived Social Acceptance.

Source of Variation: Social Acceptance	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	0.96	2	0.48	1.56	0.23
Within Groups (error)	10.11	33	0.31		
Total	11.07	35			

* Marked differences are significant at $p < 0.05$

A significant difference was found on the variable athletic competence (see Table 12). Sheffe's Confidence Interval (Vincent, 1999) was calculated to determine which group(s) differed from one another. It was found that the difference was between Experimental Group A (competitive intervention programme) and Experimental Group B (cooperative intervention programme). The perceived athletic competence of the competitive group was significantly higher at the end of the programme when compared to the perceived athletic competence of the cooperative group.

Table 12. A Comparison of Post-test Results for Perceived Athletic Competence.

Source of Variation: Athletic Competence	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	2.81	2	1.41	3.61	0.038*
Within Groups (error)	12.85	33	0.39		
Total	15.66	35			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

Because the competitive group was exposed to activities such as touch football, basketball, softball and volleyball, lessons included motor skill practice as well as activities that focused on the affective theme of the lesson. The cooperative group participated in physical activities that focused on team building, challenge and problem-solving skills. This may be why the competitive group experienced a significantly greater positive change in their perceptions of themselves as competent in sport/athletic activities.

No significant difference was found among Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group on the variable, perceived social benefits (see Table 13).

Table 13. A Comparison of Post-test Results for Perceived Social Benefits for Participation in Sport and Physical Activity.

Source of Variation: Social Benefits	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	0.62	2	0.31	1.15	0.33
Within Groups (error)	8.92	33	0.27		
Total	9.54	35			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

No significant difference was found among Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group on the variable, perceived health and fitness benefits (see Table 14).

Table 14. A Comparison of Post-test Results for Perceived Health and Fitness Benefits for Participation in Sport and Physical Activity.

Source of Variation: Health and Fitness Benefits	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.64	2	0.32	1.32	0.28
Within Groups (error)	7.99	33	0.24		
Total	8.63	35			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

No significant difference was found among Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group on the variable, perceived psychological benefits (see Table 15).

Table 15. A Comparison of Post-test Results for Perceived Psychological Benefits for Participation in Sport and Physical Activity.

Source of Variation: Psychological Benefits	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	0.86	2	0.43	1.49	0.24
Within Groups (error)	9.51	33	0.29		
Total	10.37	35			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

No significant difference was found among Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group on the variable, perceived motor skill/mobility benefits (see Table 16).

Table 16. A Comparison of Post-test Results for Perceived Motor Skill/Mobility Benefits for Participation in Sport and Physical Activity.

Source of Variation: Motor Skill/Mobility Benefits	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	0.23	2	0.11	0.17	0.84
Within Groups (error)	21.75	33	0.66		
Total	21.98	35			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

No significant difference was found among Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group on the variable, perceived holistic benefits (see Table 17).

Table 17. A Comparison of Post-test Results for Perceived Holistic Benefits for Participation in Sport and Physical Activity.

Source of Variation: Holistic Benefits	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	0.83	2	0.41	0.69	0.51
Within Groups (error)	19.81	33	0.60		
Total	20.64	35			

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

No significant difference was found among Experimental Group A (competitive), Experimental Group B (cooperative) and the Control Group on the variable, perceived career benefits (see Table 18).

Table 18. A Comparison of Post-test Results for Perceived Career Benefits for Participation in Sport and Physical Activity.

Source of Variation: Career Benefits	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	4.78	2	2.39	1.51	0.24
Within Groups (error)	52.22	33	1.58		
Total	57.00	35			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$

Conclusion

Results of the Sport Orientation Questionnaire for High School Girls (N = 194) indicate that the girls scored highest in their goal orientation. Competitiveness received the middle rating and win orientation received the lowest rating. Although results indicate that these girls do like competitive activities and enjoy competing, it appears to be more important to set personal goals in competitive games than it is to win.

Pre- to post-test differences were found for participants in the theme-oriented competitive games programme. Results show that the competitive games programme had an effect on how the girls feel about participation in games and sports. They became significantly less competitive in their orientation. No changes were noted in their perceived social acceptance. There were changes in their perceptions about the benefits of participation in physical activity. There was a significant increase in their perception that participation in sport and physical activity has social benefits as well as benefits in preparing them for a career/job.

Pre- to post-test differences were found for participants in the theme-oriented cooperative games programme. Results show that the cooperative games programme also had an effect on how the girls feel about participation in games and

sports. The competitive nature and win orientation of the girls participating in the cooperative activity/games programme significantly decreased. No changes were noted in their social acceptance. There was a significant increase in their perception that participation in sport and physical activity has health and fitness benefits.

Between-group differences were noted. Results indicate that the perceived athletic competence of the competitive group increased significantly when compared to the cooperative group. No other changes were noted.

Chapter Five

Conclusions and Recommendations

The focus of this study was to determine the potential of participation in competitive activities as a means to promote learning about cooperation. The motivation for selecting the theme-oriented approach to presenting the games programmes was based on Deline's (1991) position that learners do not know how to cooperate with each other because they do not understand cooperation. Instruction is seldom provided which allows learners to discuss as well as to practice specific cooperative values that are necessary to deal with the complexities of social interaction.

The themes of sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility were used as the specific concepts dealt with in the programme. The lessons provided the girls with opportunities to discuss and practice these concepts in either a competitive games or cooperative games programme. This is compatible with Pote's (1995) conclusion that social values can be used as content and social behaviours can be emphasised as the main objectives when planning and teaching physical education.

Hellison's (1995) model to help learners learn responsibility through participation in physical activity was used as a guideline to implement the concepts. All of these concepts correspond to traditional human values. A discussion of Hellison's levels helped learners to understand their own behaviour, and the behaviour of learners around them (Masser, 1990). Debusk and Hellison's study (1989) found this model an effective vehicle for promoting the social development of delinquency prone-youth. The investigator used Hellison's (1985) general instructional strategies to design learning experiences where learners take responsibility for their own well-being and to become sensitive to the well-being of others. Strategies included: teacher talk, modeling, reinforcement, reflection time and learner sharing. Collingwood (1997a) states

that although these principles were originally designed for working with at-risk youth, they are generalisable to all youth.

Conclusions

Research Question One was aimed at determining how adolescent girls feel about competition in games and sports. Results of the Sport orientation Questionnaire indicate that the relationship among the three orientations is the same for the girls from all grade/age levels. Goal orientation received the highest rating, competitiveness the second highest and win orientation received the lowest rating.

- The findings seem to be normal for adolescent girls. Gill (1993) reports that studies on gender differences show consistent differences on achievement orientations towards sport. Males consistently scored higher on competitiveness and win orientation towards sport. Females scoring just as high and sometimes even higher on the goal orientation sub-scale of the Sport Orientation Questionnaire than males.
- For these girls, it is more important to reach their personal goals than it is to win. Setting personal goals and trying one's best to reach them, is more important than beating others. These findings support findings that females are less competitive than males and seem to focus more on personal goals and standards whereas males focus more on interpersonal comparison and winning (Gill, 1988).
- These results indicate that subjects value achievement and enjoy sport but competition and winning is not the only means of achieving success. These findings are supported by Gill (1988). Gender differences indicate that females are just as likely as males to value achievement but they are less interested in competitive and win-oriented activities.

- Grade 11 learners scored the lowest on all three sub-scales. This could be attributed to the fact that girls of this age seem not to be very interested in sport or participation in physical activity. This is supported by Luke & Sinclair (1991). Female adolescent's activity level decreases with age. These findings also support Van Deventer (1997). He found that South African high school girls do not value participation in sport and physical leisure activities to be important.

Research Question Two was designed to determine whether or not participation in a theme-oriented competitive games programme could affect (a) how adolescent girls feel about sport and competition, (b) their perceived social acceptance and (c) their perception of the benefits of participation in sport and physical activity.

- Results show that the theme-oriented competitive games programme had an effect on how the girls feel about participation in games and sports. The scores indicate that they became significantly less competitive in their orientation. Success in competitive games/activities can be redefined in terms other than winning and players can be helped to work toward alternative goals/ends (Henkel, 1997).
- No changes were noted in their perceived social acceptance. This was disappointing, since it was hoped that experience with group discussions and the decrease in competitiveness in the group, would have led to a significant increase in feelings of social acceptance. Social acceptance is very important at this stage. Adolescent girls are generally very self-conscious and rely heavily on peer support (Browne, 1992).
- Changes in their perceptions about the benefits of participation in physical activity occurred. There was a significant increase in their perception that participation has social benefits as well as benefits in preparing them for a career/job. In a South African study on participation trends in sport and physical leisure activities Van Deventer (1997) found that socialisation is

more important for high school girls than being good at sport. Social values toward physical activity for girls differ from boys. Boys indicate that “being good at sport” are the most important determinant of social status and competence whereas females indicated “physical appearance” as most important determinant of social status (Chase & Dummer, 1992).

Research Question Three was designed to determine whether or not participation in a theme-oriented cooperative games programme could affect (a) how adolescent girls feel about sport and competition, (b) their perceived social acceptance and (c) their perception of the benefits of participation in sport and physical activity.

- A significant change took place in how these girls feel about sport and competition. The competitive nature and win orientation of the girls participating in the cooperative games programme changed. The girls that participated in the cooperative games programme became less competitive and winning was not as important as working together in a group. Participation in physical activity can enhance social and emotional growth and moral development. However, development in the affective domain is not an automatic outcome of physical activity but rather requires careful implementation of specific strategies in order to effect positive changes (Gibbons & Ebbeck, 1997; Gibbons, Ebbeck & Weiss, 1995).
- Results show that the theme-oriented cooperative activity/games programme had no significant influence on the perceived social acceptance of adolescent girls. This was disappointing. Ebbeck and Gibbons (1998) found that participation in a team-building programme had a significant influence on the social acceptance of grade six and seven physical education learners. Halliday (1999) suggests that challenge education activities can have a positive influence on aspects of self-esteem, which includes an increased sense of belonging, enhanced

feelings of worthiness and increased perceived competence. This is supported by Gallahue (1996).

- A significant improvement was achieved in the way these adolescent girls perceived the benefits of participation in sport and physical activity. A significant difference was found between the pre- and post-test scores for the girls' perception that participation can bring health and fitness benefits. This is very encouraging because some research studies have found that learner responses reflect a negative attitude toward fitness and fitness activities (Tannehill & Zakrajsek, 1993).

Research Question Four was designed to determine whether there were any significance differences found among the competitive group, the cooperative group and the control group following the delivery of the intervention programmes. Kohn (1992) acknowledges two types of competition: structural competition, which is defined by the win/lose framework and intentional competition, which is defined by the player's attitude about a game. Structural competition can be decreased by tailoring game elements (Metzler, 1990 & Hager, 1995). Intentional competition can be influenced by emphasising other goals than winning, like having fun, improving skills and making new friends (Henkel, 1997). This study offered girls in the competitive sports programme activities where the intentional type of competition was reduced, but the structural element of competition remained. The girls in the cooperative games programme experienced activities where both the structural and intentional type of competition was reduced.

- No significant differences were found among the groups on the orientations of competitiveness, win and goal orientation. Blair (1985) found that although female participation in sport increased over the past few years, their attitude toward participation has changed very little. She found that female athletes placed more emphasis on playing to the best of

their ability, while male athletes placed more emphasis on defeating the opponent.

- No significant differences were found on the self-perception variable, of social acceptance.
- A significant difference was found on the variable, perceived sport/athletic competence. The perceived athletic competence of the competitive group increased significantly when compared to the cooperative group. Skill development is one of the most important reasons given as motivation for participation in sport and physical activity (Gill, Gross & Huddleston, 1983). This is encouraging to physical educators. This means that it is possible to teach cooperative concepts within a competitive environment without sacrificing skill development objectives.
- No significant differences were found on the perceived benefits of participating in physical activity. No significant differences were found in terms of perceptions of the social benefits, health and fitness benefits, psychological benefits, motor skill/mobility benefits, holistic benefits and career benefits.

Recommendations for Future Research

The following recommendations for future research are made by the author based on results of this research as well as the experience of designing and implementing of the intervention programme that was the central focus of this study.

1. The subjects were adolescent girls. At this transitional stage from late childhood to adolescence to adulthood, girls are body conscious, shy and have a lack of self-confidence. Their feelings, perceived competence, and attitudes may have been somewhat unstable. A longer, more sustained programme could have more productive results.

2. Similar programmes should be presented to both younger and older pupils. It would be interesting to trace developmental changes in learning social values that support cooperation.
3. The sample used for this study was a very small one. Using larger samples comprised of subjects from different backgrounds could contribute to the needs of all girls in the sporting environment and the generalisation of results.
4. All the participants were from a girls' high school. It is possible that girls from an all girl school are more competitive and achievement oriented than girls from a co-educational school. This also could influence the generalisability of the results. Research that address differences in orientation toward competition and sport for girls within co-educational schools needs to be completed.
5. Only four concepts were used to guide the intervention programmes. It would be interesting to see if the use of different concepts as themes for lessons could have a different outcome.
6. Although behaviour changes occurred, additional research should be completed to determine if these alterations are enduring in nature. A follow-up study can be recommended to see whether the implementation of Hellison's levels of responsibility had a lasting effect. More research is also recommended to investigate the transfer possibilities of the levels to areas outside of the physical education class.
7. Research on competition and cooperation among the different ethnic backgrounds in South Africa is needed. One first needs to know how competition and cooperation are defined within a cultural group, before a programme can be implemented that will have an effect on their attitude and behaviour.

Implications

In South Africa today people are faced with the reality of differing value systems, low or inflated self-esteem, incompatible social skills, aggressive or submissive behaviour because of racial prejudice, lack of knowledge, trust and respect regarding worth of other cultures and inexperience in communicating with different cultures (Katzenellenbogen, 1990). Physical education can be offered as a non-threatening environment that can provide opportunities for fun group-related participation that makes a positive contribution to the development of cooperative attitudes and behaviour.

Kohn (1992) argues that competition is destructive and that learning how to cooperate should be a major aim in education. Life has become an endless succession of contests. In the school setting, others are seen as obstacles to personal success and even children's leisure time is filled with participation in competitive games. He also takes the position that cooperation is learned in cooperative activities, not competitive activities. This study has shown that children can cooperate and compete successfully under proper guidance and that competitive games can result in constructive ends when the game environment is carefully monitored. This study has also shown that cooperative concepts can be taught using competitive games as the educational means, and that cooperation is not only the result of participation in cooperative activities. Aspects of both competitive and cooperative social structures can be contained in the same game as indicated by Henkel (1997).

The key element in teaching children about cooperation through competition lies not with the content that is taught but with the means used to teach them. This study has shown that a theme-oriented programme is a good method to teach children about cooperative concepts in competitive activities. Hellison's model of teaching children responsibility provides a good framework for planning and responding to specific incidents that occur during a physical education lesson.

Final Remarks

In the past, studies have focused mostly on addressing many of the personal and social problems experienced by at-risk youth (Collingwood, 1997a; Hellison, 1990; DeBusk & Hellison, 1989). Many of these studies used Hellison's levels of teaching these children about responsibility. For example, Hugo (2000) studied the relationship between the development of motor skills on the self-concept of at-risk children. She used Hellison's levels as a framework for a general sports programme.

Collingwood (1997b) implies that the principles of Hellison's model in working with at-risk youth are generalisable to all youth, because they also have problems to overcome. Teachers and coaches have reported discipline and motivation problems in school that needs to be addressed. There is the need to improve control in the classroom and on teams, the need to help learners to make responsible choices and the need to help learners to lead more stable lives. These problems must be met without compromising the other benefits of participation in physical activity (Hellison, 1985).

The result of this study is therefore very encouraging. Although Hellison's (1995) model was used as a guideline to make the girls aware of their attitude and behaviour, the implementation of a theme-oriented approach seems to be the key to teach children cooperative concepts in a cooperative and a competitive environment.

Children can be encouraged to display a greater awareness and sensitivity towards other people around them, and be a socially responsible person who is self- and other oriented and not only self-centered (Pote, 1995) without compromising skill development. Skill development must remain as one of the most important motivations for including sport and physical activity in the school curriculum. However, multiple educational objectives can be met using sport and physical activity as a means.

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Appendix A

Sport Orientation Questionnaire

Name : _____

Age : _____

Date: _____

Instructions:

The following statements describe reactions to sport situations. We want to know how you usually feel about sports and competition. Read each statement and circle the letter that indicates how much you agree or disagree with each statement on the scale A, B, C, D or E. There are no right or wrong answers; simply answer as you honestly feel.

		Strongly agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	I am a determined competitor.	A	B	C	D	E
2.	Winning is important.	A	B	C	D	E
3.	I am a competitive person.	A	B	C	D	E
4.	I set goals for myself when I compete.	A	B	C	D	E
5.	I try my hardest to win.	A	B	C	D	E
6.	Scoring more points than my opponent is very important to me.	A	B	C	D	E
7.	I look forward to competing.	A	B	C	D	E
8.	I am most competitive when I try to achieve personal goals.	A	B	C	D	E
9.	I enjoy competing against others.	A	B	C	D	E
10.	I hate to lose.	A	B	C	D	E
11.	I thrive on competition.	A	B	C	D	E
12.	I try hardest when I have a specific goal.	A	B	C	D	E
13.	My goal is to be the best athlete possible.	A	B	C	D	E
14.	The only time I am satisfied is when I win.	A	B	C	D	E
15.	I want to be successful in sports.	A	B	C	D	E
16.	Performing to the best of my ability is very important to me.	A	B	C	D	E
17.	I work hard to be successful in sports.	A	B	C	D	E
18.	Losing upsets me.	A	B	C	D	E
19.	The best test of my ability is competing against others.	A	B	C	D	E
20.	Reaching personal performance goals is very important to me.	A	B	C	D	E
21.	I look forward to the opportunity to test my skills in competition.	A	B	C	D	E
22.	I have the most fun when I win.	A	B	C	D	E
23.	I perform my best when I am competing against an opponent.	A	B	C	D	E
24.	The best way to determine my ability is to set a goal and try to reach it.	A	B	C	D	E
25.	I want to be the best every time I compete.	A	B	C	D	E

Appendix B

Harter's Self-perception Profile

Name: _____

Birth date: _____

Age: _____

PLEASE ACCEPT THIS ASSURANCE THAT
ALL THE INFORMATION WILL BE STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. The questions are divided into two sections.
Please answer ALL the questions in BOTH sections.
2. For each question you must SELECT ONE answer.

EXAMPLE

Please draw a cross over your chosen answer

	Really true of me	Sort of true of me	What I am like	Sort of true of me	Really true of me		
A)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls would rather play outdoors in their spare time	BUT	Other girls would rather watch TV.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls never worry about anything	BUT	Other girls sometimes worry about certain things	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Really true of me	Sort of true of me	What I am like		Sort of true of me	Really true of me	
1.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls feel that they are very good at their school work	BUT	Other girls worry about whether they can do the school work assigned to them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls find it hard to make friends	BUT	Other girls find it easy to make friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls do very well at all kinds of sports	BUT	Others don't feel that they are very good when it comes to sport	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls are happy with the way they look	BUT	Other girls are not happy with the way they look	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls do not like the way they behave	BUT	Other girls usually like the way they behave	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls are often unhappy with themselves	BUT	Other girls are pleased with themselves	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls feel they are just as clever as any other girls their age	BUT	Other girls aren't so sure and wonder if they are as clever	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls have a lot of friends	BUT	Other girls don't have very many friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls wish they could be better at sports	BUT	Other girls feel they are good enough at sports	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls are happy with their height and weight	BUT	Other girls wish their height and weight are different	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls usually do the right thing	BUT	Other girls often don't do the right thing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls don't like the way they are leading their life	BUT	Other girls do like the way they are leading their life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Really true of me	Sort of true of me	What I am like		Sort of true of me	Really true of me	
13.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls are slow in finishing their school work	BUT	Other girls can do their school work quickly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls would like to have a lot more friends	BUT	Other girls have as many friends as they want	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls think they could do well at just about any sport they haven't tried before	BUT	Other girls are afraid they might not do well at sports they haven't ever tried	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls wish their body was different	BUT	Other girls like their body the way it is	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls usually act the way they know they are supposed to	BUT	Other girls often don't act the way they are supposed to	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls are happy with themselves as a person	BUT	Other girls are often not happy with themselves	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls often forget what they learn	BUT	Other girls can remember things easily	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls are always doing things with a lot of friends	BUT	Other girls usually do things by themselves	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls feel that they are better than others their age at sports	BUT	Other girls don't feel that they can play as well	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls wish their physical appearance (how they look) was different	BUT	Other girls like their physical appearance the way it is	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls usually get into trouble because of things they do	BUT	Other girls usually don't do things that get them into trouble	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls like the kind of person they are	BUT	Other girls often wish they were someone else	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls do very well at their school work	BUT	Other girls don't do very well at their school work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Really true of me	Sort of true of me	What I am like		Sort of true of me	Really true of me	
26.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls wish that more people their age liked them	BUT	Other girls feel that most people their age do like them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	In games and sports some girls usually watch instead of play	BUT	Other girls usually play rather than watch	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls wish something about their face or hair looked different	BUT	Other girls like their face and hair the way they are	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls do things they know they shouldn't do	BUT	Other girls hardly ever do things they know they shouldn't do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls are very happy being the way they are	BUT	Other girls wish they are different	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls have trouble figuring out answers in school	BUT	Other girls almost always can figure out the answers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls are popular with others their age	BUT	Other girls are not very popular	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls don't do well at new outdoor games	BUT	Other girls are good at new games right away	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls think that they are good looking	BUT	Other girls think that they are not very good looking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls behave themselves very well	BUT	Other girls often find it hard to behave themselves	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some girls are not very happy with the way they do a lot of things	But	Other girls think the way they do things is fine	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix C

Assessment of Perceived Values of Sport Participation

Name: _____

Date: _____

Age: _____

The following are possible outcomes of participation in a physical activity programme. Please rate the importance of each outcome by drawing a circle around a number on the scale provided, from 1 (not important) to 5 (very important).

Participation in a sport can give me the opportunity to:

	Not Important				Very Important
1. Develop the fitness needed to perform ordinary daily activities with skill and without too much effort.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Have fun.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Make new friends.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Get regular exercise.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Understand other people.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Improve self-confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Correct or learn to cope with shortcomings.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Develop the habit of participating in enjoyable physical activities.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Keep in good health and physical condition.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Achieve success.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Develop the ability to move freely and with control.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Prepare for a job.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Understand the mechanics of movement and the effect of exercise on my bodies.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Develop positive mental qualities.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Develop skills in various sports.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Learn activities, which could be continued outside of school.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Develop social skills and learn to co-operate.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Develop emotional stability.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Develop my full potential as a person.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Keep my weight under control.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Develop sportsmanship.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Develop and maintain proper body functions.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Develop leadership ability.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Achieve and maintain physical fitness.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D

Competitive Games Programme

- Competitive activities: Touch Football, Basketball, Softball and Volleyball.
- The themes: Sportsmanship, Communication, Trust and Responsibility.
- Each theme were discussed and experienced over a period of three lessons. Lessons one focused on introducing the theme. Lesson two focused on experiencing the theme and discussing incidents that occurred during the lesson. Lesson three ended with the group members writing down what they learned about the theme.
- Lesson duration: 45-60 minutes.

THEME: SPORTSMANSHIP

Within the competitive game of touch football the following strategies were used to support sportsmanship:

- Shake hands with opponents before the game began
- Shake hands after the game (congratulate team-mates as well as opponents)
- Players themselves were encouraged to call a “touch” (honesty)
- The physical contact aspect of the game gave participants the opportunity to practice skills such as self-control and honesty
- The girls themselves had to show positive encouragement not the teacher

TOUCH FOOTBALL

Lesson One: Ball Handling

Ball Familiarisation

Equipment: Two mini rugby balls, four beacons.

Divide the class in two teams. All the players on a team stand behind a beacon. Players take turns to run to a beacon placed 10 meters ahead and return while throwing the ball to the next player. First team to finish wins.

Catching and Passing

Equipment: Two mini rugby balls.

Divide the class in two teams.

Circle passing: One player stands at the center of the group and passes the ball to the other players. The players turn their side to the center player to receive the ball. After a few rounds they turn their other side to the center. Each person gets a turn to be in the center.

Stationary Line Pass: Players stand side-by-side 2-3 meters apart. The ball is passed along line, and back. Passing should be both left to right and right to left.

Running with the Ball

Equipment: Two mini rugby balls.

Divide the class in two teams.

Moving Line Pass 1: Players run slowly side-by-side 2-3 meters apart. The ball is passed along line, and back. Passing should be both left to right and right to left.

Moving Line Pass 2: Players run slowly side-by-side 2-3 meters apart. The ball is passed along line; the last person to receive the ball runs behind the group and joins the side from where the ball started. The ball should start from the left and the right.

Mini Game

(Coach act as referee, learner's play by the referee)

Equipment: One mini rugby ball.

Divide the class into two teams to play touch. Game starts with a tap in the middle of the playing field and passing the ball sideways or back to team-mates. Players may run with the ball but if touched they should return to the place where they were touched, then tap and pass. A forward pass, drop or loss of ball counts as a touch. Each team will have 6 touches to attempt scoring before the opposition gains possession.

Lesson Two: Effecting a touch

Frozen Tag

Equipment: Color bands, four beacons.

Divide the class in two teams. One team wearing the bands chases the other players. Inside the 4 beacons the other team tries to avoid being touched by the chasers. If a chaser touches a player he/she must freeze and remain frozen until another player crawls between his/her legs.

Team Touch

Equipment: None.

Divide the class into two parallel lines, facing each other. Both lines jog to each other and on a signal try to effect a touch. The player getting the first touch scores a point for his/her team.

Dodging

Equipment: Two mini rugby balls, beacons.

Divide the class in two teams. Set up two lines of 10 markers. Three players stand at each end of the lines. Player one starts with the ball at one end and run zigzag through markers to the other end, handling the ball to the next player. First group to finish wins.

Mini Game

(Pupils call for touch, final say is with coach)

Equipment: One mini rugby.

Divide the class into two teams to play touch. Game starts with a tap in the middle of the playing field and passing the ball sideways or back to team-mates. Players may run with the ball but if touched they should return to the place where they were touched, then tap and pass. A forward pass, drop or loss of ball counts as a touch. Each team will have 6 touches to attempt scoring before the opposition gains possession.

Lesson Three: Scouring a touchdown & Taking a tap

Running against the Ball

Equipment: One mini rugby ball.

Players form a large circle. A ball is passed from one player to the next around the circle. The player next to the first passer runs around the circle in the opposite direction, trying to beat the ball back to his/her place. Change direction of the ball after a few turns.

Tap and Pass

Equipment: Two mini rugby ball, two beacons.

Divide the class into two groups. One player is a few meters to the left in front of the group. The player has a ball. The player with the ball taps it with the foot and passes

to the first runner, who runs around the beacon, passes the ball back to the original player and returns to the end of the line. The beacon is placed 5 meters behind the player with the ball. Each person gets to be out front.

Tap, Pass & Place

Equipment: Four mini rugby balls.

Players work in pairs, starting in two lines. Four balls are placed alternately in front of players. First player runs to ball, taps it, picks it up and passes to partner. Second player places ball on ground in line with original position, then proceeds to ball in front.

Mini Game

(Pupils call their own touch: "I was touched")

Equipment: One mini rugby ball.

Divide the class into two teams to play touch. Game starts with a tap in the middle of the playing field and passing the ball sideways or back to team-mates. Players may run with the ball but if touched they should return to the place where they were touched, then tap and pass. A forward pass, drop or loss of ball counts as a touch. Each team will have 6 touches to attempt scoring before the opposition gains possession.

THEME: COMMUNICATION

Within the competitive game of basketball the following strategies were used to support communication:

- Challenge cards were used
- Positive encouragement had to be given to team-mates
- Team-mates had to praise specific acts of effort
- Participants had to choose different partners for each activity
- Praise/Encouragement had to be heard (such as verbal praising) and seen (such as a pat on the back)

BASKETBALL

Lesson One: Ball Handling/Body Management

Ball Control Skills

Equipment: 1 Basketball per person, if possible.

Finger Tipping – tap ball from left to right hand continuously

Waist Circling – move ball around body at waist level

Knee Circling – move ball around legs at knee level

Figure 8 – move ball between and around legs in the shape of an 8

Drop to catch – hold the ball above the head and drop behind back, try to turn and catch ball.

Running, changing direction

Equipment: None.

Individually – sprint stop on whistle; run then change direction on whistle.

Shadow tag in pairs.

Dribbling

Equipment: Two Basketballs, beacons.

Divide the class into two teams for relay. Dribble from behind a beacon to another beacon, placed 10 meters ahead and back. Dribble slalom through beacons placed 2-3 meters apart from each other in a line.

Mini Game

Equipment: One Basketball.

Divide the class into two teams to play mini basketball. Game starts with a “jump ball” in the center circle; the ball must be tapped to team-mates. Players may move ball by dribbling or passing. Players may dribble the ball once for each step taken and pass after 3 steps to team-mates otherwise a free throw is taken by the opposite team.

Lesson Two: Passing and Receiving

Fox & Hen

Equipment: None

All players (hens) except one (the fox) are joined in a single file, hands on waist. The fox tries to tag the last hen. All hens shuffle around to avoid the fox. When the fox tags the last hen, the hen becomes the fox.

Passing/Receiving

Equipment: Basketball, beacons.

Divide the class into two parallel lines, facing each other.

Double-handed Chest Pass

Double-handed Bounce Pass

Piggy-in-the-middle

Equipment: One basketball between three players.

Divide the class in teams of three. One player in the middle tries to intercept the pass between two end players. End players can move sideways to receive a pass. Center player changes by replacing the end player whose pass was intercepted at 30 sec intervals.

Mini Game

Equipment: One Basketball.

Divide the class into two teams to play mini basketball. Game starts with a "jump ball" in the center circle; the ball must be tapped to team-mates. Players may move ball by dribbling or passing. Players may dribble the ball once for each step taken and pass after 3 steps to team-mates otherwise a free throw is taken by the opposite team.

Lesson Three: Lay-up & Rebound

Speed Passing

Equipment: One basketball between two players, beacons.

Place beacons 5 meters apart in two lines. Place a basketball in the middle of two beacons. Divide the class into pairs. Partners standing across from each other at a beacon. On signal players retrieve ball and attempt as many double-handed chest/bounce passes as they can in 30 sec.

Lay-up

Equipment: One basketball each, if possible

Practice lay-up shot from different positions, each player must try to get the best out of 5 at each position.

Rebound

Equipment: One basketball between three players.

Divide the group in teams of three. Player 1 takes a shot, player 2 blocks out players 3 and rebounds. Rotate after 3 shots.

Mini game

Equipment: One Basketball.

Divide the class into two teams to play mini basketball. Game starts with a “jump ball” in the center circle; the ball must be tapped to team-mates. Players may move ball by dribbling or passing. Players may dribble the ball once for each step taken and pass after 3 steps to team-mates otherwise a free throw is taken by the opposite team.

THEME: TRUST

Within the competitive game of softball the following strategies were used to support trust:

- Risk taking – players themselves had to call runs
- Being honest – players had to call safe/strikes themselves
- Peer support – team-mates must be encouraged and praised
- Peer selecting – players had to choose partners/team and positions

SOFTBALL

Lesson One: Throwing and Catching

Perfect Catch

Equipment: One tennis ball, 4 beacons.

Place 4 beacons in a square of 10 meters in length and 10 meters in width. All players stand in the square and one player “it” in the middle of the square. “It” throws the ball in the air and calls out a name, that player must attempt to catch the ball

before it bounces, throw and call another name. If unsuccessful in catching he must retrieve the ball and call "stop". Other players must freeze, thrower then attempts to hit a player below waist with the ball.

Throwing

Equipment: One tennis ball between two players.

Overarm throwing – increase the distance, include a glove.

Prayer throw – partners kneel on one knee facing each other and bounce the ball with an overarm throw. Increase the distance.

Eggs in a basket

Equipment: Six tennis balls between 3 players, beacons.

Divide the class into teams of three.

Balls are placed 10 meters ahead from players. Player 1 runs to a ball, throws it back to player two, puts the ball next to the beacon and runs to the balls, throw to player 3. Player 3 repeats to player 1. If all the balls are on one side, games can be repeated in reverse.

Mini Game

Equipment: One tennis ball, one bat, 4 bases.

Divide the class into two teams to play softball. Normal rules apply. A batting tee can also be used. Team changes after every three outs.

Lesson Two: Fielding

Dodge-ball Rounders

Equipment: Four markers and one tennis ball.

Divide the class in two teams. As in rounders, but the batter throws a tennis ball into the playing area and run to first base. Fielding team retrieves the ball and attempts to hit runner below waist with the ball. After three outs team changes.

Fielding

Equipment: One tennis ball between two players.

In pairs, 20 of each:

Field ground balls

Field a fly ball

High underarm toss

Astride ball

Equipment: One glove per player, one tennis ball.

Divide the class in two teams. Two teams stand in parallel line two meters apart. In each team, players stand feet apart, feet touching the player's alongside, gloves on. Teams attempt to roll ball between legs of opposite team. Players attempt to stop ball with one or both hands.

Mini Game

Equipment: One tennis ball, one bat, 4 bases.

Divide the class into two teams to play softball. Normal rules apply. A batting tee can also be used. Team changes after every three outs.

Lesson Three: Batting

Base Running

Equipment: Eight beacons

Divide the class into two teams. Place beacons in a diamond shape, as in softball; make two running fields. The first player of each team run around the diamond and tags the next player. Repeat until all have been through twice. First team to finish wins.

Batting Practice

Equipment: One bat, three tennis balls between 3 players.

Divide the class into groups of three. One player feeds, one player batting and one fielder. Six bats each, batter must try and hit ball in a controlled manner to the fielder.

Batting to a target

Equipment: One tennis ball, one bat.

Divide the class into two teams. One team fielding, one team batting. Each batter gets three hits, and scores a point for the team each time the ball is hit to a different fielder.

Mini game

Equipment: One tennis ball, one bat, 4 bases.

Divide the class into two teams to play softball. Normal rules apply. A batting tee can also be used. Team changes after every three outs.

THEME: RESPONSIBILITY

Within the competitive game of volleyball the following strategies were used to support responsibility:

- The responsibility of positions – each player were responsible for their position they were placed in
- The maximum number of plays had to be performed
- Positive encouragement had to be given to team-mates
- They had to display a positive attitude even if they were not winning
- Team spirit – they had to acknowledge each other after a good play

VOLLEYBALL

Lesson One: Set

Elbow tag

Equipment: None.

In pairs. Link an elbow with your partner, outside elbow bent and kept at hip. Divide one pair so that one payer is “it” and the other the “runner”. “It” must try to tag “runner”, who can avoid tag by hooking elbows with free elbow of any pair. The member of the pair who is not hooked by the “runner” becomes the new “runner”.

Set Practice

Equipment: One volleyball between two players.

In pairs:

One player performs an underarm toss to the other player, player only “catch” the ball.

One at a time the player pushes the ball from neutral position and catches it in neutral position. Speed up the arms until ball can be set.

In threes: Player 1 uses a two-hand underarm toss to setter (2) who sets the ball to player 3.

Setting Game

Equipment: One volleyball per three players and volleyball net.

As per last activity, but player three tries to set the ball over the net. Rotate players.

Mini Game

Equipment: One volleyball, volleyball net.

Divide the class into two teams to play mini-volleyball. Court size: 6m x 12m, the net: 2m high. Game starts with an underarm serve from behind the service line. Same rules apply as in volleyball. Scoring: Points are awarded according to how many hits are played before a winning hit is scored. Three hits (max) = 3 points. Two hits = 2 points, one hit (serve) = 1 point. Game is played until 21 or 11 points are scored for younger players, or 31 points.

Lesson Two: Pass

Rescue Relay

Equipment: Beacons placed 10 meters apart, parallel lines

Divide the class into teams of four. Runner 1 runs to the beacon and back to collect runner 2, they join hands and run together to beacon and back to collect runner 3. This continues till every one in the whole group runs around the beacon and back. Relay continues as a "drop off".

Pass Practicing

Equipment: One volleyball between two players, volleyball net.

In pairs:

One player digs the ball continuously to other player.

One player underarm tosses the ball to the partner who digs the ball back.

In threes: Player 1 uses a two-hand underarm toss over the net to digger (2) who passes the ball to setter.

Passing Game

Equipment: One volleyball per three players and volleyball net.

As per last activity, but the first contact is now a dig, then set over the net for another dig. Rotate players.

Mini Game

Equipment: One volleyball, volleyball net.

Divide the class into two teams to play mini-volleyball. Court size: 6m x 12m, the net: 2m high. Game starts with an underarm serve from behind the service line. Same rules apply as in volleyball. Scoring: Points are awarded according to how many hits are played before a winning hit is scored. Three hits (max) = 3 points. Two hits = 2 points, one hit (serve) = 1 point. Game is played until 21 or 11 points are scored for younger players, or 31 points.

Lesson Three: Serve

Wheel Relay

Equipment: One volleyball, beacons.

Teams of three. First runner carries the volleyball and runs around a marked area (10m x 10m) back to second runner. Repeat until all team members have run. A team stands at each of the four corners of the marked area.

Underarm Serve Practice

Equipment: One volleyball per player, if possible.

Individually: Practice serves against a wall

In pairs: Practice serving to each other. Perform 10 serves each.

Serve game

Equipment: One volleyball per four players, volleyball net.

In groups of four: Player 1 serves the ball over the net to digger (2) who passes the ball to setter (3) to player 4 who puts the ball over the net.

Mini game

Equipment: One volleyball, volleyball net.

Divide the class into two teams to play mini-volleyball. Court size: 6m x 12m, the net: 2m high. Game starts with an underarm serve from behind the service line. Same rules apply as in volleyball. Scoring: Points are awarded according to how many hits are played before a winning hit is scored. Three hits (max) = 3 points. Two hits = 2 points, one hit (serve) = 1 point. Game is played until 21 or 11 points are scored for younger players, or 31 points.

Appendix E

Cooperative Programme

- Cooperative activities: team building and problem-solving activities.
- The themes: sportsmanship, communication, trust and responsibility.
- Each theme were discussed and experienced over a period of three lessons. Lessons one focused on introducing the theme. Lesson two focused on experiencing the theme and discussing incidents that occurred during the lessons. Lesson three ended with the group members writing down what they have learned about the theme.
- Lesson duration: 45-60 minutes.

THEME: SPORTSMANSHIP

Within the cooperative games programme specific activities were selected to support sportsmanship:

- Activities that involved honesty
- Activities where success depended on working together
- High five

TEAM BUILDING AND CHALLENGE ACTIVITIES

Lesson One

Stuck in the Mud

Equipment: None.

One person is designated as "it" and chases the other players. If a person is tagged, he/she must freeze and can only be freed if someone crawls through his/her legs.

River Crossing

Equipment: Two scooters, one long rope, two telaquid rings.

All group members start on one side of the river. The river is the area between two lines. Place all the equipment there. All of the group members have to cross the river

without touching the river with any part of their bodies. If any part of a person's body touches the river, that person must start over. All the equipment must also be brought across the river.

The Whole World in Their Hands

Equipment: One large ball (75 cm in diameter or larger).

The ball has to be moved from one end of the playing area to the other end without touching the floor. The ball cannot touch the hands or the arms of any group member. Every member of the team must be in contact with the ball. If a rule is broken the group must start over.

Lesson Two

Tag Game

Equipment: None.

One person is designated as "it" and chases the other players. If a person is tagged, he/she becomes "it".

The Rock

Equipment: Tumbling mat or soft surface and a tire.

All group members must balance on the rock (off the floor) and hold the balance for a slow count of "one-two-three-four-and-five. All group members must be off the floor, but all do not have to touch the rock. Stepping of the rock and touching the floor means that the group must start over.

Alphabet Balance Beam

Equipment: A high balance beam or narrow bench and tumbling mats.

Group members sit on the balance beam in random order. The teacher assigns the group to arrange themselves alphabetically by name. All members must stay on the beam, if a person touches the floor the entire team must return to their original starting position and start over.

Lesson Three

Jumping Machine

Equipment: One long rope.

All group members stand next to the rope. The rope is turned so that it goes over the heads and below the feet of the group. All members must jump at the same time, 10 consecutive jumps must be completed. If a miss occurs the group must start again.

Stepping Stones

Equipment: Nine bases set in a straight line.

Each group member stands on a base with an empty base in the middle of the line. Group members have to change positions as follow:

Starting A B C D – 1 2 3 4, Ending 1 2 3 4 – A B C D.

Only one person is allowed to move to a base at a time, they may not move backward and only one person may be on a base at a time. Group members may move to an empty base directly in front of them or move around another member to an open base. If any one contacts the floor all group members must go back to their original position.

The Wild River

Equipment: Different colour hoops.

The team stands behind a line at the start of the Wild River trail. Everyone in the group must move from one end of the area to the other without going outside any of the hoops. Group members can only use the hoop in certain ways.

Example:

Red hoop – is dangerous, no one can use it.

Yellow hoop – supports two hands, either both from one person or one from each of two people.

Green hoop – supports only one hand and one foot

Blue hoop – there must be two persons in the hoop at all times, except for the first and last person.

Orange hoop – supports only one foot.

Anyone touching the floor outside the hoops or who incorrectly uses a hoop must start over again.

THEME: COMMUNICATION

Within the cooperative games programme specific activities were selected to support communication:

- Activities that encouraged discussion and decision-making
- Blindfolds were used for some activities

- Activities that involved verbal guidance
- Problem-solving activities
- Activities that involved listening

TEAM BUILDING AND CHALLENGE ACTIVITIES

Lesson One

Circle the Hoop

Equipment: Hula-hoop.

The group forms a hand-in-hand circle. Place a hoop between two people. See how quickly they can cause the hoop to travel around the circle without breaking the chain. Another hoop can be added that travel in the opposite direction.

Knots

Equipment: None.

The group forms a circle. Each person extends their right hand and takes hold of someone else's right hand. Each person extends their left hand and takes hold of someone else's left hand, so that each person is holding two different hands. The group must try to untangle themselves without letting go of the hand until a hand-in-hand circle is formed.

The Monster

Equipment: None.

The object is to get the group of seven people across a 20-meter area, using only four anatomical points of simultaneous contact with the ground. A point of contact may be a foot, a hand, a knee etc. All participants must be in direct physical contact with each other as they make the crossing.

Lesson Two

Body English

Equipment: None.

Divide the class into groups of two. Each group gets a turn to try and spell out a word to the other group by using their bodies as letters.

Minefield

Equipment: Beanbags and blindfolds.

Scatter as many beanbags as possible onto an open area. Divide the group into partners. The object of the game is to guide the blindfolded partner through the minefield to the safe side. Verbal directions may only come from the sideline; the caller may not stand next to his/her partner. For each mine that are touched a penalty of 5 seconds are added to the final time.

Punctured Drum

Equipment: A drum, two buckets and water nearby.

The number of holes in the drum varies with the sizes of the group (example: 10 player = 100 fingers = 100 holes). The group must attempt to fill the drum to overflow. Only portions of the participant's anatomies may be used to plug the holes.

Lesson Three

Animal Sounds

Equipment: Blindfolds for each of the participants.

Divide the group into pairs. Each person wears a blindfold. Each pair decides on an animal sound on which they can recognize each other. Split the pairs over an area of 20 meters. They must try and find their partner by calling the animal sound.

All aboard

Equipment: A piece of newspaper.

All members of the group must get onto the piece of newspaper. No body parts (feet or arms) are allowed to touch the area around the newspaper.

Blindfold Soccer

Equipment: One blindfold and soccer ball per pair, beacons.

Divide the group in pairs. Each pair must try and kick a soccer ball from behind a line over a distance of 10 meters into a goal zone. The sighted partner, who may only use verbal directions, guides the partner who is blindfolded. Only the blindfolded partner may make contact with the ball.

THEME: TRUST

Within the cooperative games programme specific activities were selected to support trust:

- Activities that involved risk-taking
- Blindfolds was used in some of the activities
- Activities that involved participation to the maximum
- Activities that involved working together, helping each other
- Activities that involved peer support
- Activities that involved being responsible

TEAM BUILDING AND CHALLENGE ACTIVITIES

Lesson One

Circle Trust

Equipment: None.

Standing shoulder-to-shoulder the participants form a tight circle. The participants assume a good spotting position: legs slightly bent, hands out at chest level, and one foot in front of the other foot. One person stands at the center of the circle, arms crossed over her chest and knees locked. The person in the center closes her eyes and body rigid, falls against the outstretched hands in the circle. The person is then passed gently around or across the circle.

Human Ladder

Equipment: 6-8 wooden rods.

Participants are paired and given a wooden rod to form one "step" of the ladder. Several pairs stand close together with their wooden rods to form a ladder. A climber starts at one end of the ladder and proceed to move from one step to the next. The length of the ladder can be extended and the height of the steps may also vary.

Orientation Walk

Equipment: Blindfolds, obstacle course (includes: steps, down hill, over, under objects etc.).

Every member of the group is blindfolded except for one person whom is to be the leader. The group holds hand and is led through the obstacle course by the leader. Every one is to have a chance to be the group leader.

Lesson Two

Trust Fall

Equipment: A bench.

Each participant gets the opportunity to stand on a stump or bench and fall backward onto the arms of the group. The person falling should keep her arms at the side of their body and keep their body rigid. There are two lines of catchers standing shoulder-to-shoulder facing one another. Arms are extended out and alternated and the palms face upward. Do not grasp hands or wrists. Form a firm, solid landing area.

Blindfold Square

Equipment: Blindfolds, a rope.

In an open area the participants are blindfolded and asked to find a rope that is somewhere in the open area. The team must find the rope and organize themselves into a structure with four equal sides. Any other shape can be used.

The Black Hole

Equipment: One hula-hoop, a rope to suspend the hoop between two fixed poles.

Suspend the hula-hoop between two fixed poles so that the bottom of the hoop is one meter above the floor. One member of the group at a time is lifted and passed through the hoop while keeping his/her body straight. No one is allowed to touch the hoop; all members must pass through the hoop. Team-mates may reach across the black hole to the other side, but may not touch the hole or the floor on the other side. After the first person passes through the hoop there will be persons on both sides.

Lesson Three

Trust Dive

Equipment: A bench.

Each participant gets the opportunity to stand on a stump or bench and dive into the arms of the group. The person falling should keep their body rigid. There are two

lines of catchers standing shoulder-to-shoulder facing one another. Arms are extended out and alternated and the palms face upward. Their bodies are turned halfway to the diver with one foot placed more to the center of the catching line to absorb the momentum of the diver. Do not grasp hands or wrists. Form a firm, solid landing area.

Spot the Runner

Equipment: Blindfold.

One person in the group is blindfolded, standing at one end of a hall, with her back to the wall. Hands should be up and palms out (protection). Ask the participant to walk/jog toward the other end of the hall. The other group members are scattered throughout the hall and must act as spotters. The job of the spotters is to stop the runner before she encounters the wall. The spotters should be as quiet as possible so the runner can find her own way. Each person in the group gets the opportunity to be the runner.

Conveyer belt

Equipment: Tumbling mats for safety.

Team-mates bunch up tightly against each other in a line. The person to be conveyed stands stiffly, arms at the side, with her back to the line. The first person in the line squats down and grasps the lower leg of the person who is to be conveyed. The second person in the line, grasp the waist. On the count of three, with the help of two trainers, the person is lifted and passed hand-to-hand down the line. The last person calls "stop" when the person reaches her. The participants encircle the person with their arms and lower her gently, feet first to the ground. Spotters may follow the conveyed person as he/she passes along the "belt".

THEME: RESPONSIBILITY

Within the cooperative games programme specific activities were selected to support responsibility:

- Activities that involved participating to the maximum
- Activities that involved spotting
- Teamwork
- Activities that involved commitment

TEAM BUILDING AND CHALLENGE ACTIVITIES

Lesson One

Guardians

Equipment: 4 Beacons.

Place the beacons in a square of 10m X 10m. The task is to pass everyone on the group around the beacons and back to the starting point without that person touching the ground. Several people may carry only one person at a time.

Pick & Choose

Equipment: As many tennis balls as possible and three buckets.

From behind a line two people at a time tries to throw the tennis balls into the three buckets placed 5 meters apart, ahead of the thrower. The rest of the team (retrievers) is in the playing field collecting the missed tennis balls and throwing/rolling it back to the throwers. The throwers have two minutes to score as many points as they can. The scoring works as follow: nearest bucket = 3 points, second one = 5 points and the furthest one = 7 points. The retrievers are not allowed behind the throwing line and may not help the balls into the buckets. The throwers may not cross the throwing line. All the scores are added together to get a team score; the team can then try and beat their score.

The Wall

Equipment: A wall high enough to be a challenge, tumbling mats for safety.

The task is for the team to get its entire member over the wall in a given time. Only three persons are allowed on top of the wall at any one time. Both those getting up on the wall and those getting on should be spotted at all times. No one is allowed to jump off the wall.

Lesson Two

Sweet Treat

Equipment: A basketball court or something similar, a bench and marshmallows.

The object of this game is to carry everyone in the group over the length of the court. The person being carried must stand upright on the bench. Several people may carry only one person at a time. Place marshmallows on the basketball ring or anything

high enough so that the person that is being carried must be lifted up on the bench, by the team-mates to reach the sweets.

Electric Fence

Equipment: A cord strung 1 meter high between to poles/trees.

The participants are paced on one side of the “electric fence”. The task is to transport all of the participants from one side to the other without touching the “electric fence”. They are not permitted to go under or around the cord.

Pyramid building

Equipment: Tumbling mats for safety.

The group is asked to plan and construct a pyramid, starting with three, then four, then five members. Until all the participants are part of the pyramid. Spotters can be used for safety. Remember breaking down a pyramid is just as important and a responsible act as constructing a pyramid.

Lesson Three

Everybody Up

Equipment: None.

Ask two people to sit on the ground facing one another so that the bottoms of their feet are placed against each other, knees are bent and hands are tightly grasped. From this sitting position, ask them to pull themselves into a standing position. Try standing up with three people, then four, then five until the entire group eventually makes an attempt.

Great Escape

Equipment: Balance beam.

The group is in a prison camp; all the prisoners must escape over the beam in a given time. Only three people are allowed on the beam at a time. To descend the beam the participant wrap her arms and legs around the beam to swing underneath it (hang like a monkey). They then release the grip of their legs and hang by the arms to be eased down by the other “free prisoners”.

Spider Web

Equipment: A cord strung between two trees or posts.

A spider web is created with the string, with some holes big and other just big enough for a person to pass through with assistance. All members stand on one side of the web and must pass through to the other side. Each hole can only be used once. Participants are not aloud to go over, under or around the web.

Appendix F

Self-Responsibility Checklist

Name: _____

Date: _____

My Self-control:

- I did no name-calling
- If I got mad, I tried to have self-control
- I didn't interrupt when somebody else was talking
- My self-control was not that good today

My Involvement:

- I listened to all directions
- I tried all activities
- I played even when I didn't feel like it

My self-responsibility:

- I followed all of the directions
- I did not blame others
- I was responsible for myself

My Caring:

- I helped someone today
- I said something nice to someone
- I did not help anyone at all

Appendix G

Themes

We cannot expect children to do what is right if we do not teach them. We cannot expect children to become good people unless we attempt to instill good habits in them and help them to develop good character traits like good sportsmanship, communication, trust and being responsible.

THEME: SPORTSMANSHIP

Lesson One: Introduction to Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship involves a kind of wisdom that requires proper insight, right attitudes and good judgment, as well as appropriate conduct.

Sportsmanship involves:

- Fair play
- Abide by the rules
- Accepting defeat or victory graciously
- Respect - respect for the opponents, for team mates, for officials, for coaches and for the game
- Commitment toward participation
- Adhering to social conventions (like shaking hands after a game)
- Equal opportunity
- Self-control

Sportsmanship primarily involves RESPECT - respect for the opponents, for team-mates, for officials, for coaches and for the game.

Why respect opponents?

- Opponents provide opportunity for you to excel.
- Human excellence is worthy of respect.

How can you show respect for opponents?

- Giving your best effort.
- Avoiding displays of disrespect.
- Refraining from gamesmanship (gamesmanship = attempt to gain an psychological edge in a manner that is not prohibited by the rules of the game).
- Celebrating victory respectfully.

- The silver rule – do not do to others what you do not want them to do to you.
- Rituals of respect – post-game handshake.

Why respect team-mates and team?

- A team is a group of individuals who agree to cooperate in order to achieve something as a team.
- As part of a team effort you become capable of more than you are capable of individually.
- The team becomes capable of more than the sum of what the individuals in the team are capable of individually.

How can you show respect for team-mates and team?

- Being truthful about abilities and playing a role.
- Making individual sacrifices and playing a role.
- Emphasising the little things.
- Coaching and intrasquad competition (competition in the team should contribute to team effort).
- Team rules and team unity (team spirit).

Why respect officials?

- Our attitudes and behaviour toward officials should reflect how we feel and understand sport.

How can you show respect for officials?

- The norms of civil discourse – we do not have to agree with decision made by officials, but we should respect their decision.
- The silver rule - do not do to others what you do not want them to do to you.
- The principle of charity - a charitable openness to the possibility of correctness.
- Officials and the level of play.

Why respect the game?

- Encompassing knowledge and appreciation for the game.

How can you show respect for the game?

- Respect for rules.
- Respect for the spirit of competition.
- Respect for the spirit of play.
- Respect for the game's traditions and customs.
- Respect for achievement and excellence.

Lesson Two: Experiencing Sportsmanship

The participants experienced sportsmanship and different incidents that happened were discussed.

Lesson Three: Feedback on Sportsmanship

The participants of the competitive and cooperative programme gave feedback.

Competitive programme feedback	Cooperative programme feedback
Not to get upset if you lose To play fair To play by the rules To work together in a group To be committed To be punctual Always smile To be honest with others	Not to gloat when you win Not to insult others To enjoy sport To work together in a group To respect each other To be kind Always shake hands after a game If you have done something wrong, admit it Wanting to learn Don't cheat, be honest Listen to referee and don't argue To be honest with yourself To give someone else a turn

THEME: COMMUNICATION

Lesson One: Introduction to Communication

To exchange or share feelings, thoughts or information and to be understood

Communication involves:

- Using positive encouragement versus put-downs
- Peer praising
- Accepting praise

Children need to learn to use positive encouragement with their team-mates, rather than put-downs and the formation of cliques, for the purpose of enhancing social interaction skills and sportsmanship. Being able to praise a peer is a skill that needs to be learned and reinforced. Accepting praise from team-mates also needs to be learned.

20 Praise phrases that can be used, can participants add more?

"Good for you"

"You did that very well"

"Terrific"

"Way to go"

"You're getting better every day"

"Good thinking"

“Excellent”
 “You’re doing fine”
 “Well done”
 “Good work”
 “Nice going”
 “Keep it up”
 “That’s great”

“Fantastic”
 “Good try”
 “Keep on trying”
 “That’s better”
 “You’re learning fast”
 “You must have been practicing”

Lesson Two: Experiencing Communication

The participants experienced communication and different incidents that happened were discussed.

Lesson Three: Feedback on Communication

The participants of the competitive and cooperative programme gave feedback.

Competitive programme feedback	Cooperative programme feedback
Should be positive	To understand properly
Can help to motivate a team	To give compliments
Can make a better atmosphere	To encourage team-mates to do better, try again
Help a friend in need	Solve a problem together
Listening	Working together through talking & touching
Put ideas together	
To encourage team-mates	

THEME: TRUST

Lesson One: Introduction to Trust

Trust is the reliance or resting of the mind on the integrity, justice and friendship of other people. The willingness to trust other people is a desirable trait for harmonious existence in our society and a necessity for participation in physical activity.

Trust involves:

- Being honest
- Sharing feelings

Individuals should be able to trust that:

- The equipment and activity are safe
- What the instructor say is honest
- If I try something and fail my peers will be supportive of my efforts
- I will not be laughed at or made to appear foolish
- My ideas and comments will be considered without mockery

An individual will not take a physical or emotional risk if they perceive apathy as part of that risk taking. Trust is gained through patience, thoughtfulness and care can be lost in a second by carelessness and inconsiderate behaviour.

Lesson Two: Experiencing Trust

The participants experienced trust and different incidents that happened were discussed.

Lesson Three: Feedback on Trust

The participants of the competitive and cooperative programme gave feedback.

Competitive programme feedback	Cooperative programme feedback
Being honest Being trustworthy To believe in someone Trust them to make the right decisions	To believe in someone To be capable of what is expected from you or them To have faith in someone Trust them to make the right decisions Being honest Being trustworthy

THEME: RESPONSIBILITY

Lesson One: Introduction to Responsibility

In society today our youth face many personal and social problems that have lead to them being unmotivated. Learners need to take more responsibility for their well-being (personal responsibility) and need to learn to be more sensitive and responsive to the well-being of others (social responsibility).

There are five steps to being a responsible player/participant:

1. **Not to make excuses and blame others for your behaviour (not being irresponsible). Take responsibility for what you do or fail to do.**
2. **To be able to control your behaviour enough so that you do not interfere with other student's right to learn or the teacher's right to teach. Not to use verbal or physical abuse, intimidation, manipulation or disrupting the work or play of others.**
3. **Show a willingness to play, accept challenges, practice motor skills, and be fit.**
4. **Do not always need supervision to complete a task or to plan own activities.**
5. **Are able to cooperate, give support, show concern and help others.**

Lesson Two: Experiencing Responsibility

The participants experienced responsibility and different incidents that happened were discussed.

Lesson Three: Feedback on Responsibility

The participants of the competitive and cooperative programme gave feedback.

Competitive programme feedback	Cooperative programme feedback
No name calling, fighting, pushing or shoving.	To ensure everyone is included
To work together	Learning new things
Willing to work with anyone	To help others
Not to have an attitude	Control temper
To be a good sportsman	Not disrupt class
	Share equipment