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Being a good sport: developing and maintaining positive sport behaviors in youth basketball

Dean L. Taylor
San Jose State University

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**BEING A GOOD SPORT:
DEVELOPING AND MAINTAINING
POSITIVE SPORT BEHAVIORS IN YOUTH BASKETBALL**

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Human Performance

San Jose State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

By

Dean L. Taylor

May, 2002

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APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN PERFORMANCE

Dr. Susan Wilkinson, Ph.D.

Dr. Craig Cisar, Ph.D.

Dr. Barbara Conry, Ph.D.

APPROVED FOR THE UNIVERSITY

Abstract

BEING A GOOD SPORT: DEVELOPING AND MAINTAINING POSITIVE SOCIAL BEHAVIORS IN YOUTH BASKETBALL

By Dean L. Taylor

Studies offer evidence that positive sporting behaviors among youth are declining (Sage, 1998). Altering the decline in sportsmanship requires a new curriculum: one that improves social development through sport.

The purpose of this study was to examine how to diminish, or eliminate, negative sport behaviors while increasing positive sport behaviors during basketball practice. A secondary purpose was to explore the extent to which the positive behaviors learned could be maintained during basketball games and a subsequent season. A multiple baseline across behaviors design was used with Hellison's social development model (1985) on four male athletes ages 10 to 12.

Prior to the study's intervention, all target athletes displayed more negative sporting behaviors than positive sporting behaviors. Hellison's model was successful in decreasing negative sport behaviors and increasing positive sport behaviors during basketball practice. During basketball games and the subsequent season the positive behaviors learned were maintained.

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I am grateful to my family and friends who supported me though this endeavor, thank you. Finally, I would like to thank my wife Katherine who has been my everything throughout this process, I love you.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my parents, Priscilla and David Taylor, who taught me the value of choosing the harder right rather than the easier wrong. I would also like to dedicate this thesis to my wife, Katherine Taylor. Without their love, support, confidence, and patience I would have never been able to accomplish this.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The concept of teaching moral character through physical education received a resurgence of importance after recent studies have shown that positive sporting behaviors have been declining (Sage, 1998). In the position to influence the moral character of young people in their care, coaches must understand the complex moral role that they occupy and appreciate the significance of their own actions and decisions on athletes (Campbell, 1997). Hon and O'Conner (1994) suggest that coaches should make certain that they teach their teams positive sport behaviors and not use a win-at-all-cost mentality when working with athletes.

According to Hon and O'Conner (1994), physical education and athletics are the best areas in which to develop moral character. Children face increasing pressure to win as they move from environments of unstructured play to the more competitive and structured play of youth leagues. Youth sport provides rules that define appropriate behavior, officials to judge the behaviors, and provides a wide range of opportunity to socialize children about appropriate moral behaviors (Hon & O'Conner, 1994). These authors also stated that this opportunity to learn moral behaviors could only be obtained when coaches guide athletes and reinforce appropriate moral behavior. Coaches are influential in determining whether an athlete's sport experiences are positive or negative. Coaches also play a key role in helping athletes to understand that a sport experience is not about winning, but achieving realistic personal goals (Hon & O'Conner, 1994).

Hellison's social development model (1985) has been successfully used in accomplishing this goal.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of the study was to examine:

- 1. Athlete's negative and positive sport behaviors during basketball practice.**
- 2. If the social development model used by the coach during practice increases athlete's perceptions of their own social development.**
- 3. If positive sport behaviors learned through the coach's influence during basketball practice generalizes to competitive basketball games.**
- 4. If positive sport behaviors learned through the coach's influence during basketball practice can be maintained in another sport subsequent to the basketball season.**

Hypotheses

- 1. An athlete's positive sport behaviors will increase during basketball practice.**
- 2. Positive sport behaviors learned during basketball practice will generalize to basketball games.**
- 3. Positive sport behaviors learned during basketball practice will be maintained in other sports subsequent to the basketball season.**

Limitations

The study was limited to:

- 1. Children who were members of the Southwest Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) in Saratoga, California.**
- 2. Children who maintained full program participation for the duration of the study.**
- 3. Children who agreed to participate in another YMCA program in Saratoga, California, subsequent to basketball season.**

Delimitations

The study was delimited to:

- 1. Randomly chosen athletes from the YMCA youth basketball league in Saratoga, California.**
- 2. Male athletes between the ages of 10 and 12 years old.**

Assumptions

- 1. Participants would be motivated to improve their level of positive social behavior.**
- 2. Participants would give their best effort during the study.**
- 3. Participants would remember their positive sport behaviors across basketball practices and would use these recollections to complete their daily level-rating checklist.**
- 4. Participants would be honest in their use of the level-rating checklist.**

Definition of Terms

The following terms were used in the present study:

Athlete Sharing. When athletes share their opinions about some aspect of the basketball program with each other or the coach.

Instruction. When the coach explains Hellison's social development levels, posts them, and refers to them during a teachable moment.

Compassion. A moral character trait that describes moral sensitivity closely related to empathy.

Event Recording. An observational recording procedure in which one records the number of occurrences of a specified target behavior.

Fairness. A moral character trait that involves a sense of respect for others: teammates, opponents, coaches, and referees, as well as respect for the sport itself and the rules.

Integrity. A moral character trait that describes respect for oneself, a belief in one's moral worth and in one's ideal, and a belief that one is capable of bringing to fulfillment one's moral intentions. For example, taking personal responsibility for one's actions.

Modeling. What the coach does in the presence of athletes. The coach's attitude, beliefs, and behavior conveyed to the athletes through examples.

Moral Character. Positive social behaviors composed of four virtues: compassion, fairness, integrity, and sport behaviors [sportsmanship].

Negative Sport Behavior. Inappropriate behavior as defined by the following:

- a) Physical - hitting, pushing, kicking, punching, elbowing, or kneeling any object or person.
- b) Tease - taunting, mocking, putting down, talking trash, laughing, or bragging to another player.
- c) Expressions - slamming the ball down, pouting, stomping feet, making faces, rolling eyes, crying, lying on the ground, pounding arms, having a fit, or intimidating with a fist up to another player.
- d) Complaining – arguing, being mad at teammates, yelling at teammates, being upset after a missed shot, or yelling “dang it” or “come-on.”
- e) Not Respecting the Coach - distracting while the coach is trying to talk, goofing around, talking back, saying put downs directed to the coach, or not paying attention to the coach.

Positive Sport Behavior. Appropriate behavior as defined by the following:

- a) Assistance – helping the coach teach players when the coach asks, getting ready for practice, and giving the coach undivided attention.
- b) Encouragement – any physical encouragement given to another player such as high-fives, thumbs-up, a pat on the back, a pat on the butt, clapping, bash elbows, or a hug.
- c) Explanation – a player that is upset discusses a problem they are having in a calm and rational manner instead of throwing a tantrum.
- d) Feedback – any verbal encouragement given to another player. Complimenting teammates such as, “good shot”, “way to go”, “nice try”, and “nice pass.”

e) Support – helping teammates up after they fall down, assisting teammates without the coach telling them, and trying to improve teammates' skill levels.

Reflection Time. Refers to the time athletes spend thinking about their attitudes and behavior in relation to Hellison's model.

Reinforcement. Any act by the coach that strengthens a level-related attitude or behavior of the individual athlete.

Sporting Behaviors [sportsmanship]. Behaviors related to negative and positive sport behaviors.

Importance of the Study

The decline in positive social development among youth (Sage, 1998) begs a different approach to implementing a curriculum that improves positive social development in sport. The purpose of this study was to diminish or eliminate negative sport behaviors by improving an athlete's positive sport behavior during basketball practice using Hellison's social development model (1985). Hellison suggests that physical education and sport can be used to help athletes learn to make responsible decisions in sport environments so that, as Martens (1993) has argued, young athletes will develop responsibility for the outcomes of their actions. Hellison's social development model is one of only a few models used in today's educational systems that teaches positive moral character and promotes social development through physical education. Hellison's model has the potential to be a valuable tool for coaches. It can be

used in their programs to encourage positive social behavior in athletes while decreasing negative social behavior, making sport a more enjoyable experience for all participants.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter includes a literature review for this study consisting of an overview on moral character education in America, moral character development, and character development in sport and physical education. This chapter also includes a description of the decline of moral character in sport and physical education. The review concludes with literature that promotes moral character development in sports and physical education.

Moral Character Education in America

Moral character education in America can be traced to the colonial period. In 1776, the content of school textbooks focused exclusively on moral and religious information (Mulkey, 1997). Mulkey noted between 1776 and 1825 a transition began from a religiously oriented educational system toward a secular period of education. In 1831, physical educators made a plea for the inclusion of moral character development as one aspect of a quality physical education curriculum (Solomon, 1997). In 1916, William Hutchins, a college president, developed the Children's Morality Code emphasizing the following values: self-control, good health, kindness, truth, sportsmanship, teamwork, self-reliance, duty, reliability, and good workmanship (Mulkey, 1997). Corlett (1996) identified the importance of understanding virtues in a historical context, arguing that since the Enlightenment of the 18th century, traditional philosophical virtues have undergone an extreme transformation.

The concept of courage is an example of one philosophical virtue that has undergone an extreme transformation. For Socrates and Plato, courage was a form of wisdom. For Aristotle, courage was a balance between fear and confidence. Modern moral philosophers believe courage is not a component of moral character, but is a matter of skill in responding to fear. Other components of what constitutes moral character have also undergone similar evolutions.

Since issues related to moral character development have undergone philosophical changes over the years, it became apparent that the American educational system needed to establish a universal program for educators to teach moral character. The Character Education Institute of San Antonio, Texas, developed a program in 1968 called the Character Education Curriculum, (Mulkey, 1997). This curriculum was implemented in more than 60,000 classrooms in the United States. Mulkey (1997) reported that students fought less, engaged in less name calling, were more likely to consider the consequences of their actions, and cooperated better with each other when they were taught under the Character Education Curriculum. These results clearly support the goals and objectives of teaching moral character education to children.

Moral Character Development

Solomon (1997) stated that moral character development refers to the cognitive processes individuals experience as they develop the capacity to reason about moral issues. Compagnone (1995) stated that physical educators must seize the opportunity to make a difference in children's lives and teach them how to be responsible, productive

individuals in today's society. Martens (1993) suggested that when coaches allow children to share in decision making in physical education and sport, children could learn to become increasingly responsible and independent. As children become more responsible, they develop the characteristic of being internally controlled (Martens, 1993).

Hon and O'Conner (1994) suggested physical education and athletics are the best areas to develop moral character. Youth sport, with its rules that define appropriate behavior and officials to judge these behaviors, provides a wide range of opportunity to socialize children about appropriate moral behaviors. This opportunity can only be realized when the coaches who guide athletes through the sport experience model reinforce appropriate moral behavior.

Since the modern educational system is in the position to influence the development of the moral character of young people in their care, coaches must understand their complex, moral role as they work with youth to reach their capacity to reason about moral issues. Coaches should demonstrate ethical behavior and appreciate the significance of their own actions and decisions on athletes' moral character development (Campbell, 1997). Hon and O'Conner (1994) suggested that coaches should make certain that they teach their teams positive sport behaviors and not a win-at-all-cost mentality.

Several studies have discussed the concept of moral character development. Bredemeier defines morality as "a process of balancing one's own needs and interests

with those of others” (Bredemeier, 1985, p.120). Arnold (1999) suggested that moral character implies possessing certain values and beliefs that show a long-term reasoned commitment. Arnold also stated that the concept of moral character encompasses and relates to some of the most fundamental aspects of human life. According to Arnold, moral character involves values and evaluation, personal responsibility, practical reasoning, desires, motives, community living, and shared ideals. The extent to which people can remain true to themselves and act consistently according to independent beliefs and values is a test of one's moral character (Arnold, 1999).

Martinek and Hellison (1998) found certain barriers must be negotiated before any kind of character development can take place. The barriers include school culture, combative values, dysfunctional home life, and a fear of making choices. Although there are always barriers in life, coaches remain in an influential position to teach young people to take the “harder right, instead of the easier wrong” (Docheff, 1998 p. 24).

Moral Character in Sport and Physical Education

It is argued that recent social problems have accelerated the need for scholarly attention to the whole person in physical education (Hellison, 1991). While the development of positive sport behavior [sportsmanship] has traditionally been viewed as one of the major values taught in physical education and sport, it cannot be assured that positive social development will be achieved (Silverman, 1998). The outcome of moral character development is determined by a number of factors including the capacity to reason about moral issues of those that support and influence moral character

development such as coaches, teachers, administrators, parents, booster clubs, and the student body (Docheff, 1998).

Shields and Bredemeier (1995) suggested that sport involves a bracketed morality that legitimizes a temporary, nonserious suspension of the usual moral obligation to equally consider the needs and desires of all persons. Stephens, Bredemeier, and Shields (1997) stated “teams feature a ‘moral atmosphere’ in which moral decisions are made in light of the player’s perception of the behavior norms endorsed for that setting” (Stephens, et al., 1997 p. 385).

Another study by Stephens and Bredemeier (1996) suggested every sport and team develops a unique moral atmosphere within which decisions are made about appropriate behavior in particular situations. Their study suggested the moral atmospheres in various sport settings might be quite distinct. The moral atmosphere common in basketball, for example, may differ from that of swimming clubs, and the prevailing atmosphere of one team may differ from another. In addition, as an athlete moves up and down the competitive ladder from youth sports to professional levels, the moral atmosphere will also differ (Stephens & Bredemeier, 1996).

The moral atmosphere in sport can decrease an athlete’s moral character as well as the team’s moral atmosphere if either is negative. For example, Stephens and Bredemeier (1996) suggested that an athlete’s perception of their team’s moral atmosphere is correlated to temptation and likelihood to play unfairly compared to the type of play associated with the player’s own moral behavior. This study suggested that an athlete with high morals might do something against his or her own moral behavior,

cheating for example, because of the influence of the team's moral atmosphere. Shields and Bredemeier (1995) suggested there is seldom a need for the group to accept responsibility for norm enforcement because that task is typically transferred to officials. This study also emphasizes the importance of the coach's role when influencing the team's moral atmosphere. The coaches can develop the team's moral atmosphere in accordance with their own philosophies.

The coaches are in a position to explain why negative moral atmosphere is unacceptable. A coach can promote a positive moral atmosphere in team meetings when asking the athletes to reflect on what norms they want to guide the team. Shields and Bredemeier (1995) stated that exposure to positive role modeling and direct reinforcement from significant others develops moral character. The authors also suggest that athletes need to develop ego-flexibility, in other words, to balance ego with aggression.

When the athletes observe positive role models and experience reinforcement of appropriate behaviors, they can learn socially approved moral behaviors through participation in sport (Martens, 1993). The author also suggested that through the sport experience, in which rules are frequently tested, athletes can learn not only to obey the rules but understand the reasons for rules and their value to fair play.

The concept of teaching moral character through sport and physical education has received a resurgence of importance after recent studies have shown that positive sporting behaviors have declined (Sage, 1998). However, there is disagreement among physical

educators about the choice of which effective teaching strategies focus on and can affect the moral development of sport participants (Gibbons, Ebbeck, & Weiss, 1995).

Hellison's five-level hierarchy of social development is a notable contribution to the development of teaching strategies that focus on moral character development in sport through which students transition from being irresponsible to having self-control (Hellison, 1985). The hierarchy places five levels of behavior along a continuum from irresponsible behavior (Level 0) to self-responsibility for yourself and teammates (Level 4). When unacceptable behavior (Level 0) occurs, the coach is in a potential situation to explain why the negative behavior is unacceptable. Coaches could ask athletes about the unacceptable behavior and let the athletes provide examples of acceptable behavior that would represent more positive social behavior represented at a higher level on the continuum.

Cutforth and Hellison (1992) found that shifting the responsibility to the athletes to make decisions about their own behavior was an effective way of teaching athletes how to deal with problems they face in a responsible manner. Compagnone (1995) suggested that as an athlete progresses from one level in the hierarchy to the next, the athlete becomes empowered with an identity that allows the athlete to make responsible decisions. Martens (1993) suggested that when athletes perceive that they are the origin of their own behaviors, they take more responsibility for the outcomes of their action.

Gough (1998) suggested that an individual's freedom to choose respectful behavior over disrespectful behavior is severely limited if they have never developed the habit of being civil or courteous to others. Developing moral character and positive

social behaviors requires sustained practice. Gough also found that the ultimate goal of sustained practice is not merely to improve moral character and social behavior, but to improve moral character to the point where it becomes “second nature.” Aristotle captured the essence of moral character as habit. More than less we are what we do repeatedly (Gough, 1998).

Telling athletes to be responsible is one thing, but modeling responsibility is another. When coaches model inappropriate behavior, the athletes may receive mixed signals of what behavior is appropriate and responsible. For example, if a coach shouts obscenities to an official but tells the athletes to respect the officials, the athletes are receiving mixed signals and are more likely to repeat what they have seen, rather than what they been told. Lasley (1997) suggested moral values are "caught, not taught." Once the positive moral values are caught and learned, they must be practiced to form habits.

Decline of Moral Character in Sports and Physical Education

The physical education literature is replete with claims about the contributions of sport and exercise programs toward social development (DeBusk & Hellison, 1989). However, recent research actually suggests that contrary to building moral character and positive social behavior, organized sport for youth may actually be detrimental to moral development (Beller & Stall, 1994; Decker & Lasley, 1995). These studies showed that ninth-grade through twelfth-grade athletes scored lower on moral development tests than their nonathlete peers. In addition, moral-reasoning scores for athletic populations show

a steady decline from the ninth-grade through twelfth-grade, whereas scores for nonathletes tended to increase.

Although moral reasoning scores for athletes have declined, Sage (1998) has suggested that little thought is given to a well-known principle. This principle states that attitudes, values, and beliefs acquired by young athletes will be strongly related to the values, actions, and morality displayed and admired in the social environment in which sport participation takes place. Bredemeier and Shields suggested that “sport may provide a temporary release from the constant demand to coordinate one’s own sense of morality with the interests, needs, and perceptions of other moral beings” (Bredemeier & Shields, 1986, p. 257).

Shields and Bredemeier (1995) suggested that as one moves from general life to sport, there is transformation from moral reasoning to game reasoning. Thus, athletes are not morally required or expected to give equal consideration to opponents’ desires. The authors suggest a greater degree of personal freedom and a lessening of responsibility characterize sport. Athletes that focus on self-interest are praised for their desire to win. Shields and Bredemeier (1995) suggested that the apparent decline in positive sporting behaviors has usually been attributed to an overemphasis on winning. As athletes move from the generally unstructured play of elementary school to the more competitive and structured play of youth sports, there is an increased pressure to win (Bredemeier, 1994). There is often an emphasis on the “anything goes” philosophy in the pursuit of winning. Numerous slogans and philosophies in the sport culture exalt winning that test the character of young athletes. For example, “Winning isn’t everything, it’s the only thing,”

and “Whatever it takes to win” (Sage, 1998) are prime examples contrary to positive moral character social development.

Shields and Bredemeier (1995) also suggested that in many sport settings, decision-making power and moral responsibility are concentrated in the roles of coaches and officials. It is the game officials’ responsibility to seek and enforce fair play by identifying rule violations and determining appropriate penalties for infractions. Although when retribution for injustice is not forthcoming from officials, athletes often attempt to rectify matters themselves and perceive that the official is responsible for the athlete’s own actions. For example if an official does not call a foul when a basketball player receives an elbow by an opposing player, that player will rectify the matter through retaliation and will not accept responsibility for his or her own action, but instead may place the responsibility upon the official. Athletes cannot learn to accept responsibility and become responsible for themselves if they perceive that the officials make all of their decisions for them. Bredemeier and Shields (1986) suggested that few players preferred nonphysical retribution and most of the athletes admitted that the limited opportunities for communication and negotiation in sport encourages physical retribution as an appropriate eye-for-an-eye form of justice.

One of the reasons moral character has been neglected during the last 30 years has been the great tide of secularization that has washed over the country (Weinberger, 1996). Eager to block the teaching or mention of any one moral principle appearing to favor one religion over another religion, coaches do not have an established, agreed-upon curriculum that teaches moral and ethical behavior (Tomme & Wendt, 1993). Another

reason that moral character education programs are losing their luster to teach positive social behaviors is because the culture sends a stronger, counteractive message, "If it feels good, then do it," (Lasley, 1997, p. 654).

Despite these obstacles, a coach can encourage athletes to make ethical decisions. Spencer (1996) gave an important example of encouraging athletes to make an ethical decision while he was coaching his basketball team. Spencer's basketball team won a home game played against a heavily favored team. The heavily favored team, motivated by prejudiced sentiments, destroyed the visitors' locker room before departing. Two weeks later, Spencer's team was scheduled to play against that same heavily favored team, this time at their gymnasium. Spencer's athletic director told his basketball team to leave that locker room in a similar state of disorder. As the coach, Spencer told his players to consider the effects of such behavior on their own integrity. At the conclusion of the game, Spencer's basketball team left their locker room cleaner than they found it. Even though his team did not win the basketball game that evening, Spencer noted they won something of more importance.

Promoting Moral Character Development in Sports and Physical Education

Promoting moral character through sport and physical education has become more of a priority after recent studies have shown that positive sporting behaviors have been declining (Sage, 1998). Gough (1998) suggested that the strength of moral character is doing the right thing rather than a matter of analyzing and resolving dilemmas. Gough suggested that it is more a matter of actually keeping one's cool after a game official

makes a questionable call than a matter of determining whether it is morally proper to act inappropriately to the official. Gough (1998) suggested that an individual's freedom to choose respectful behavior over disrespectful behavior is severely limited if they have never developed the habit of being civil or courteous to others.

Teacher education programs must develop alternative ways to enable teachers to understand their role and anticipate the moral and ethical significance of their practice (Campbell, 1997). Moral agency is not simply an inevitable state resulting from being a teacher; instead, it is a never-ending learning process through good practice. Developing moral character and positive social behaviors requires sustained practice. Hellison suggest using physical education as a medium to empower students to make responsible decisions within the gymnasium as well as events that govern students in their personal lives (Hellison, 1987). Martens (1993) suggested that athletes especially could learn moral behaviors in a context in which the outcome has great significance for them, further enhancing the impact of these lessons on moral development.

Coaches can provide powerful examples of moral character to athletes. Martens (1993) suggested that coaches are tremendously influential in determining if an athlete's sport experiences are positive or negative. Whether or not the experience is positive or negative depends largely on the nature of the experience. It especially depends on the quality of leadership provided by coaches, parents, officials, the behaviors of peers, and the moral character of the athletes involved (Martens, 1993).

Every team develops a unique moral atmosphere, within which decisions are made about appropriate behavior in particular situations (Stephens & Bredemeier, 1996;

Bredemeier, Weiss, Shields, & Copper, 1986). It is the responsibility of the coach to guide the team's moral atmosphere in a positive direction. Shields and Bredemeier (1995) suggest that coaches arrange team meetings when the coach can ask the athletes to reflect on what norms they want to guide the team and discuss their coaching philosophy. The authors also suggest that coaches should set up meetings for parents to discuss the moral dimensions of their coaching philosophy. Parents should be given an opportunity to contribute to the goals of the sport program, and coaches should make clear the dangers of an excessive emphasis on winning.

If the coach's emphasis on winning is so strong that it would permit a star player, who physically assaulted another player a week earlier, to participate in the "big game" to increase their chances of winning, what sort of example would the coach be providing? If the coach allows a player to swear on the basketball court, what sort of example is set for the team on and off the court? People who teach and coach young athletes should acknowledge that moral character development is as important, if not more important, than the game's outcome.

Compagnone (1995) stated that physical educators must seize the opportunity to make a difference in children's lives and teach them how to be responsible, productive individuals in today's society. Cutforth and Hellison (1992) suggested that to help promote an athlete's decision-making skills, coaches should give young athletes as much responsibility as possible. When coaches allow athletes to share in the decision-making in sport, athletes can learn to become increasingly responsible and independent (Martens, 1993).

Physical educators and coaches must recognize the reasons why athletes do not behave as expected. Negative behavior is the result of not being taught how to behave appropriately in that particular situation (Weinberger, 1996). Teachers and coaches should not expect athletes who do not understand the concepts of cooperation, compromise, and communication to work out their disputes in a civil, socially acceptable manner. Instead, educators and coaches should teach young athletes to understand a moral value, use and practice the value, and to develop a positive behavioral repertoire (Weinberger, 1996). Martens (1993) suggested that the key to a positive sport experience is for coaches to help athletes understand that the important thing is not winning the contest, but achieving their own realistic personal goals.

The objective of teaching moral character development to youth is to reach a point where behaving appropriately becomes automatic (Gough, 1998). For the individual who has a strong moral character, behaving appropriately is not just a matter of "I should do the good" but more of "I will do the good." Athletes must be empowered to know that it is not whether you win or lose, but how you play the game that counts. Then, and only then, will athletes with negative moral character be the exception, rather than the norm.

Hellison's model of social development (1985) is one of the models used in today's educational systems to teach positive moral character and promote social development through physical education. Using Hellison's model, young men and women who act in unacceptable ways and display negative social behaviors have a way to improve their interaction with others.

According to Martens (1993), sport provides young athletes with opportunities to interact with other athletes and adults, who can help them, develop interpersonal skills. Sport also provides excellent opportunities for young athletes to develop leadership skills as they work within a team to pursue excellence. In addition, sport can help young athletes develop emotional maturity and psychological skills that will help them reach their full potential.

Chapter 3

METHODS

Physical education teachers who wish to help their athletes develop positive sport behaviors need to implement a curricular model in physical education in which social development and positive sport behavior are the primary goals. The curricular model must provide activities that are designed to achieve positive sport behaviors. The purpose of this study was to use a nationally recognized curriculum model the social development model (Hellison, 1985) to determine if positive sport behavior can be learned in a basketball practice environment at the YMCA and if the effects would be maintained in basketball games and another YMCA sports programs. This chapter discusses the selection and description of the participants, the research setting, the research design, instrumentation, and procedures used to collect and analyze data.

Participants and Research Setting

Four male athletes, ranging from 10 to 12 years of age, participated in this study. The participants were selected from a group of youth basketball athletes at the Southwest YMCA in Saratoga, California. These athletes also agreed to participate in another Southwest YMCA program following the basketball season. Before the study, Southwest YMCA basketball officials rated each athlete that participated in the basketball league, based on the Athlete Behavior Coding Sheet (ABCS). (See Appendix A.) Based on the officials' scores on the ABCS, athletes with a minimum of 10 negative behaviors on the ABCS qualified for this study. From this group of qualified athletes, four subjects were

randomly chosen to participate in the study. Parental approval was required for all subjects (Appendix B).

For this study the basketball season at the Southwest YMCA went from June 2001 through August 2001. Athletes participated in nine basketball practices. Basketball practices were held once a week for 1 hour throughout the basketball season. In addition to the practices, there were nine basketball games. Each game consisted of four, 8-minute quarters with a running clock (the clock does not stop during play unless teams call a timeout). Hellison's social development model was used throughout the basketball season. After the completion of the basketball season, three participants were involved in an additional 1-hour-a-week activity at the Southwest YMCA. The other participant was unable to play another sport subsequent to the basketball season.

The coders randomly chose an athlete to code during the four games during the maintenance period using the ABCS. Participants were observed to determine whether the learned effects of Hellison's social development model in basketball practice were maintained in a subsequent YMCA sports program.

Social Development Model: The Independent Variable

The independent variable for this study was Hellison's social development model (1985). The model is based on five levels of self-responsibility ranging from irresponsibility to caring for others. According to Hellison (1985), the model is well suited for alienated and disruptive youth, as well as young persons in general. Therefore,

this model can be viewed either as a special physical education program for troubled students or as a regular curriculum model for all students.

Hellison's hierarchies of five levels of social development are as follows:

Level 0: Irresponsibility. Level 0 (zero) describes students who are unmotivated and undisciplined; such attitudes and behaviors must be improved if students are to become personally and socially responsible. Students who operate at Level 0 are not motivated to participate in sport and exercise activities; they make excuses and blame others for their behavior, deny personal responsibility for what they do or fail to do, and may feel powerless to change their lives. Their behavior includes discrediting or making fun of other students' involvement as well as interrupting, intimidating, manipulating, and verbally or physically abusing other students and perhaps the physical education teacher.

Level 1: Self-control. Level 1 deals with the need for control by requiring students to control their own behavior, thereby shifting responsibility from external forces to the student. Students at Level 1 may not participate in the day's activity or show much mastery or improvement, but they are able to control their behavior enough so that they don't interfere with other students' right to learn or the teacher's right to teach or coach. And they do this without being prompted by the teacher very much and without constant supervision.

Level 2: Involvement. Level 2 focuses on the need for physical activity in the program and provides one medium for personal stability by giving students experiences in activities that can become a regular part of their lives. Students at Level 2 not only show self-control, but are involved in the subject matter. They willingly, even enthusiastically, play, accept challenges, practice motor skills, and train for fitness under the teacher's supervision.

Level 3: Self-responsibility. Level 3 emphasizes the need for students to learn to take more responsibility for their choices, and for linking these choices to their own identities. Students at Level 3 not only show self control and involvement, but they are also able to work without direct supervision, eventually taking responsibility for their intentions and actions. They can identify their own needs and interests and can begin to plan and execute their own physical education programs.

Level 4: Caring. Level 4 deals with the need for social stability in students' lives by encouraging students to reach out beyond themselves to others—to commit themselves to caring about others. Students at Level 4 are motivated to extend their sense of responsibility by cooperating, giving support, showing concern, and helping. Level 4 rests on the assumption that students must meet some of their own needs before they can reach out very far or very often to others. (Hellison, 1985 p. 6-7)

Positive and Negative Sport Behaviors: The Dependent Variable

Design

The experimental design used in this study was a multiple baseline across behaviors with multiple probes across settings design. The multiple baseline across behaviors design is appropriate for learners exhibiting a multiplicity of behaviors in a variety of educational and clinical settings (Tawney & Gast, 1984). The design effectively evaluates an intervention intended to decelerate the frequency of an inappropriate social behavior (Tawney & Gast, 1984).

Instrumentation

An example of the ABCS can be found in Appendix A. For the purpose of this study, positive sport behaviors were defined as any physical, verbal, or nonverbal positive social interaction related to game play, such as a player giving another player encouragement, support, assistance, feedback, or an explanation.

Negative sport behaviors were defined as any physical, verbal, or nonverbal negative social interaction regarding game play, such as those conveyed through complaining, disrespectful expression, not respecting the coach, or teasing other athletes. For example, negative physical sport behavior was event-recorded when a target athlete hit another player. The coder recorded a mark in the negative physical category representing one occurrence of a negative physical sport behavior shown by the specific

target athlete. While on the other hand, when a target athlete said, "nice shot," the coder recorded one occurrence of a positive verbal sport behavior.

The ABCS used by the coders was divided vertically into three sections that represented the warm-up, drills with instruction, and scrimmage of the YMCA basketball practice. The ABCS coding sheet was also divided in half horizontally, each half represented the positive or negative sport behaviors that were event-recorded.

The basketball games used a different coding sheet from practices. The Game Behavior Coding Sheet (GBCS) (Appendix C) had two sections; one section was used for positive sport behavior categories and the other section was for the negative sport behavior categories. The GBCS was also coded with either "T" for teammate or an "O" for opponent. For example, when a target athlete gave his teammate a "high-five" during a game, the coder recorded a "T" within the positive physical category. In addition, when a target athlete helped up an opponent that fell down, the coder recorded one occurrence of a positive support category with an "O." When an athlete put down an opponent, the coder recorded an "O" within the negative tease category. The targeted athletes' playing time was recorded on the GBCS. The coder crossed out each minute the target athlete played during each quarter of the basketball game on the GBCS.

Procedures

Data on negative and positive sport behaviors was collected based on the guidelines and considerations recommended by Tawney and Gast (1984). Tawney and Gast (1984) recommend that baseline data be collected over a minimum of 3 consecutive

days and that the introduction of the independent variable occurs only after an acceptable stable baseline trend and level has been attained. During the intervention, data was collected on the sport behaviors for four target athletes. The first three Southwest YMCA basketball practices of the season were used for baseline measures in this study. If however, any athlete demonstrated significant negative sport behavior during the first three practice sessions, the intervention would have begun with that target athlete during that practice. A significant negative sport behavior was defined as 10 occurrences in any one negative sport behavior category or 30 total occurrences of any combination of negative sport behavior categories.

After baseline measures were established, the researcher (coach) explained and modeled to the basketball team Hellison's hierarchies of five levels of social development. The coach used Hellison's social development intervention program when athletes demonstrated negative sport behavior. For example, when an athlete's behavior level was zero during a basketball practice the coach used techniques recommended by Hellison in the social development model (1985). The coach used positive sport behavior modeling, reflection time, reinforcement of other behaviors, athlete sharing, and instruction with the athlete that demonstrated low levels of Hellison's hierarchies of five levels of social development. Hellison's model provided athletes with the opportunity to learn how to improve their sport behavior. When an athlete pushed another athlete during basketball practice, the coach stopped practice and reminded the athletes' of the inappropriate behavior. Then the coach described the social development levels to the athletes, explained their current social development level, and explained how to achieve a

higher social development level by providing alternate reactions so they could learn from their behavior. With the coach modeling appropriate behaviors, each athlete was able to watch and learn skills that they would use in sports with someone who provokes them in the future.

On the first day of intervention, the coach modeled all positive behaviors on encouragement, support, explanation, feedback, and assistance described on the ABCS and the GBCS to the athletes.

Each athlete also had a daily Level Rating Checklist (LRC) (Appendix D) to reflect upon their own sport behavior and the level of social development they demonstrated during each basketball practice. During the time the athletes wrote in their LRC, they were also encouraged to reflect upon improving their positive sport behavior level. During basketball practices, the coach's intervention helped the athletes focus on Hellison's hierarchy of five levels of social development. For example, when an athlete yelled at another athlete during basketball practice the coach told the athlete that yelled at his teammate, "remember what you wrote in your LRC yesterday? You wrote that you would try your best to stop yelling at your teammates, so focus on the behavior level you wanted to achieve today and think about what you need to do in order to achieve your goals, as well as what behaviors you should prevent to reach your goal." The coach's intervention was withdrawn during all basketball games and during the maintenance period when athletes were engaged in another YMCA program, subsequent to the basketball season.

Data Collection

Before the study, the researcher observed basketball practices and games at the Southwest YMCA to determine the range of behaviors demonstrated by the athletes. The behaviors observed were considered when developing the ABCS. The data collected from the coders consisted of live coding for the duration of the study. The coders observed their target athletes when basketball practice began. The targeted athletes were not coded while they waited for their practice to begin. For example, if the targeted athlete's basketball practice was scheduled to begin at 4:30 p.m., the coders did not begin coding when the targeted athlete entered the gymnasium at 4:25 p.m. The researcher cued coders to the beginning of each practice by calling to the athletes to "begin practice."

Data was collected through live observations during each practice and game. Each day of the study the coders randomly selected one of the targeted athletes to code. Each coder followed a specific target athlete and event-record every instance of each behavior from all categories included on the ABCS. The coders' event recorded throughout the practice (warm-up, instruction, and drill) and the scrimmage (game during practice session) for the duration of the basketball season. At the conclusion of the warm-up phase of basketball practice, the coders continued to event-record for the drills and instruction phase in the same manner. Lastly, the coders event-recorded their specific target athlete during the last phase of practice, the scrimmage.

To protect the targeted athletes, all data collected by live coders never had an athlete's name on the coding sheet. All targeted athletes were assigned a color to

represent their name. Following this study all collected data will be kept in a locked file cabinet and stored at the researcher's house for a period of 5 years, and then all data shall be shredded and destroyed.

To determine if positive sport behaviors generalize to game conditions, basketball games were event-recorded by coders using the GBCS. All of the basketball games played during the season were coded. While three sections are coded (warm-up, drills and instruction, and scrimmage) during basketball practices, only one section (game) was coded during the basketball games. The basketball game section of the coding sheet was divided into four additional sections, one for each quarter of the basketball game. Each game was played during a nonpractice day.

To examine whether or not generalization of positive sport behaviors to the recreation setting occurs, the four targeted athletes studied during basketball practice were also monitored during the basketball games. The basketball games were selected as the setting because (a) they are played in a restricted area that permits accurate coding, (b) they provide high activity levels, (c) team membership can be changed daily, (d) they permit interactions between both teammates and opponents, and (e) the intensity of a basketball game is increased from basketball practice.

Data collected during live coding sessions were graphed on a daily basis for each target athlete. Tawney and Gast (1984) suggest that educators who are engaged in applied research must be in constant contact with their data if they are to ensure that their students are benefiting from involvement in a research project. At the conclusion of each coding session, the researcher tabulated and graphed the data for each target athlete in

each behavior category. Data was visually inspected and reviewed for changes daily.

The visual analysis of graphic data represents the most frequently used data analysis strategy employed by applied behavior analysts (Tawney & Gast, 1984). According to Tawney and Gast (1984) the visual analysis strategy has several advantages for special educators.

First, the visual analysis approach can be used to evaluate the data of individuals. Second, it is a dynamic process in that the data are collected and analyzed continuously. Third, the visual analysis of graphic data permits a teacher to make data based decisions throughout a program. Fourth, it focuses on the analysis of individual data patterns, thereby facilitating the individualization of instruction. Fifth, the visual analysis of graphic data permits discovery of interesting findings which may not be directly related to the original research question or program objective (Tawney & Gast, 1984, p. 157).

Since the coders were trained using videotape, it was essential that interobserver agreement (IOA) checks be calculated on the data collected by the coders during practice, scrimmage, and game days. IOA procedures served to check the reliability of the observations made by the coders and eliminate or diminish coder bias in the use of the observation instrument. IOAs were determined by the following formula (Van der Mars, 1989):

$$\frac{\text{Agreements}}{\text{Agreements} + \text{Disagreements}} \times 100$$

If an IOA of 85 percent or higher is achieved, data was assumed to be valid and reliable.

In addition to live observation of target athletes, data was also collected on the athletes' perceptions of their level of social development each day. To accomplish this, the LRC was used with all athletes on the basketball team. The LRC is based on

Hellison's hierarchy of five levels of social development. At the conclusion of each basketball practice, each subject was given an LRC to complete. Athletes completed LRCs for the duration of the study. The LRC was used so that each athlete could reflect upon his sport behavior. The researcher/coach used the LRC language to assist athletes in thinking about positive sport behavior during and at the conclusion of the practice.

Data collected to determine generalization and maintenance of sport behavior change was based on live coding only. Athletes did not use the LRC during these time periods. Data from each sport behavior category was tabulated. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each target athlete for each session as well as compiled for the duration of the basketball season. Levels, trends, and slopes were also calculated for each target athlete according to Tawney and Gast (1984).

Chapter 4

DATA ANALYSIS

Results of the data analysis and a visual presentation for each athlete under all experimental conditions are presented in this chapter. The main purpose of this study was to examine a participant's negative and positive social behaviors during basketball practice and to determine if Hellison's social development model (1985), used by the coach during practice, would increase positive sport behavior, decrease negative sport behavior, and increase an athletes' perception of his social development. Another purpose of the study was to determine if the levels of negative and positive sport behaviors acquired during basketball practice generalized to competitive basketball games and be maintained in another sport subsequent to the basketball season.

For the purposes of the analysis, data were reported for each of the four athletes, P-K, G-B, P-M, and O-T, respectively for all conditions including practice, game, and game maintenance. Unfortunately athlete G-B did not play another sport subsequent to the basketball season, therefore no maintenance data is included for that athlete.

Reliability of the Data Recording

Tawney and Gast (1984) provide two referents for the term reliability. One referent deals with what is recorded during the course of a study. The dependent observers checked the accuracy of responses for each athlete during each quarter of the basketball game. During baseline measure the observers and investigator agreed on 111

negative and positive sport behavior responses from the total of 115 responses. There was a 96 percent interobserver agreement.

Every 3 weeks throughout the study observers and the investigator tested the reliability of the data. Among the total of 106 responses of negative and positive sport behaviors counted during this time, there was agreement with 101 of the behaviors. There was a 95 percent interobserver during the intervention (practice and game) periods.

Results of the Data Analysis

Figure 1 visually displays the negative and positive sport behavior during practice sessions for P-K, a 10-year-old boy. P-K demonstrated a slight upward trend in negative sport behavior measured during practice baseline. The mean negative sport behavior during baseline practice was 10.0 with a range from 8.0 to 13.0. The mean numbers of negative sport behavior during intervention practice periods were noticeably lower with a mean of 4.6 with a range from 2.0 to 9.0. The last 4 days (absent 1 day) of practice during the intervention were clearly different from the first 4 days of practice during the intervention with a mean in the last 4 days of practice of 3.5 negative sport behavior compared to the first 4 days of practice with a mean of 9.75 negative sport behavior.

P-K demonstrated a slight upward trend in positive sport behavior measured during the practice baseline. The mean number of positive sport behaviors during practice baseline was 4.33 with a range from 3.0 to 6.0, whereas during the practice intervention period the mean was noticeably higher at 8.2 with a range from 5.0 to 11.0. The last 4 practice days (absent 1 day) of the intervention were clearly different from the

Figure 1. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors and perception of sport behaviors by P-K during practice.

previous 4 practice days with a mean in the last 4 days of 9.66 compared to the mean in the first 4 practice days of 5.0. The intervention was successful in increasing positive sport behavior and decreasing negative sport behavior during practice.

P-K evaluated his sport behavior at the conclusion of each practice throughout the season. P-K's evaluation of his sport behavior during practice shifted in a positive direction after the implementation of the coach's intervention. His evaluation of his own sport behavior shifted from a Level 3 (responsible/care for myself) to a Level 4 (responsible/care for my teammates) from the early stages of the study to the later stages of the study.

Figure 2 visually displays the negative and positive sport behavior P-K demonstrated during game sessions. P-K demonstrated a downward trend in negative sport behavior during game baseline measures. He demonstrated an upward trend in positive sport behavior during game baseline measures. Although, both trends were in the direction of their expected intervention effect, the mean negative sport behavior number during baseline games was 9.66 with a range from 8.0 to 11.0, whereas the mean negative sport behavior during the game intervention was noticeable lower with a mean of 6.4 with a range from 4.0 to 8.0. The last 4 days (absent 1 day) of the intervention during games were clearly different from the first 4 days of games with a mean negative sport behavior in the last 4 games of 6.25 compared to the first 4 games with a mean of 9.0.

The mean number of positive sport behavior during game baseline was 3.0 with a range from 2.0 to 4.0, whereas during intervention, the mean game sport behavior

Figure 2. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors and perception of sport by P-K during games.

number was noticeably higher with a mean of 6.4 with a range from 3.0 to 11.0. The last 4 days (absent 1 day) of the intervention during games were clearly different from the previous 4 days of games during intervention with the mean number in the last 4 days of games during intervention of 7.0 positive sport behaviors compared to a mean number in the first 4 days of games intervention of 3.25.

The intervention was successful in increasing positive sport behavior and decreasing negative sport behavior during games. However, the expectations of game play may have also had an effect on negative and positive sport behavior, because during the game athletes had to “follow the rules” or be called for a foul. The differences in the decreases of negative sport behavior may have been influenced by the threat of being called for a foul.

P-K evaluated his own sport behavior at the conclusion of each game throughout the season. Changes in P-K’s sport behavior shifted in a positive direction with regard to the coach’s intervention. P-K’s evaluation of his sport behavior shifted from a Level 3 (responsible/care for myself) to a Level 4 (responsible/care for my teammates) from the early stages of the study to the later stages of the study.

Figure 3 shows all data collected for P-K (practice, game, and maintenance) throughout the study. With the exception of 1 day during the maintenance period, data suggests that P-K maintained and slightly increased positive sport behavior during post-season play. However, unfortunately, negative sport behavior also increased. During post-season play, P-K reverted to using negative sport behavior during post-season games. The mean positive sport behavior number during maintenance was 9.0 with a

Figure 3. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors by P-K during practice, games, and maintenance.

range from 6.0 to 11.0. Interestingly, P-K's worst positive sport behavior day was also a day in which he did not perform to his capabilities. His self-image and lack of confidence in his ability to play that day may have had an influence on his personal choice not to use positive sport behavior to the extent previously demonstrated.

The mean number of negative sport behavior during maintenance was 5.75 with a range from 4.0 to 9.0. P-K's negative sport behavior increased during maintenance after two games of post-season basketball. There is evidence to suggest that the increase of negative sport behavior may be in part due to the effects of the type of team he played on during post-season maintenance. This phenomenon relates to the research that suggests that the moral atmosphere of a group may persuade a single person to his own belief and behavior to conform to the group. Stephens and Bredemeier, 1996; and Bredemeier, Weiss, Shields, and Copper, 1986, suggested that every team develops a unique moral atmosphere, within which decisions are made about appropriate behavior in particular situations.

Figure 4 visually displays the negative and positive sport behavior for G-B, an 11-year-old boy during practice sessions. G-B demonstrated a downward trend in negative sport behavior during practice baseline measures. The mean negative sport behavior number was 22.0 with a range from 19.0 to 26.0 during practice baseline, whereas the mean during intervention practice periods were lower with a mean of 18.0 with a range from 16.0 to 21.0. The last 4 days of the practice intervention period were clearly different from the first 4 days of practice with a mean in the last 4 practice days of 17.5 compared to the first 4 days of practice with a mean of 21.75.

Figure 4. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors and perception of sport behaviors by G-B during practice.

G-B demonstrated a fairly stable trend in positive sport behaviors during practice baseline measures. The mean number of positive sport behavior during practice baseline was 6.66 with a range from 6.0 to 7.0, whereas during the practice intervention period, the mean was noticeably higher with a mean of 12.0 with a range from 11.0 to 14.0. The last 4 days of the practice intervention period were clearly different from the previous 4 practice days with a mean in the last 4 practice days of 12.5 compared to the mean in the first 4 practice days of 7.75. The intervention was successful in increasing positive sport behavior and decreasing negative sport behavior during practice.

G-B evaluated his own behavior at the conclusion of each practice throughout the season concerning his own sport behavior. Changes in G-B's sport behavior during practice shifted in a positive direction with regard to the implementation of the coach's intervention. G-B's evaluation of his sport behavior shifted from a Level 3 (responsible/care for myself) to a Level 4 (responsible/care for my teammate) from the early stages of the study to the later stages of the study.

Figure 5 visually displays the negative and positive sport behavior for G-B during game sessions. G-B demonstrated a downward trend in negative sport behavior during game baseline measures. The mean number of negative sport behavior was 18.66 with a range from 17.0 to 21.0 during baseline, whereas the mean during game intervention periods was slightly lower with a mean of 17.5 with a range from 16.0 to 21.0. The last 4 game days during the intervention were slightly different from the first 4 game days with a mean negative sport behavior in the last 4 game days of 17.5 compared to the first 4 game days with a mean negative sport behavior of 18.25.

Figure 5. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors and perception of sport by G-B during games.

G-B demonstrated a fairly stable trend of positive sport behaviors during game baseline measures. The mean number of positive sport behavior during game baseline was 5.0 with a range from 4.0 to 6.0, whereas during game intervention the mean positive sport behavior was noticeably higher with a mean of 10.33 with a range from 7.0 to 14.0. The last 4 game days of the intervention were clearly different from the previous 4 game days with a positive sport behavior mean in the last 4 game days of 12.5 compared to a positive sport behavior mean during the first 4 game days of 7.75. During games, the coach's intervention was successful in increasing positive sport behavior but did little to affect change in G-B's negative sport behavior.

G-B evaluated his own sport behavior at the conclusion of each game throughout the season. G-B's perception of his own sport behavior did not change dramatically during the study and was not consistent with regard to the coach's intervention. His evaluation of his own sport behavior varied between a Level 3 to a Level 4 throughout the study. Interestingly, although anecdotal evidence suggests that G-B could talk with the coach about his own sport behavior and recognized that he needed improvements, he was not able to acknowledge this in his evaluation of his own sport behavior.

Figure 6 shows all data for G-B, however there is no maintenance data because athlete G-B did not play another sport following basketball at the YMCA.

Figure 7 visually displays the negative and positive sport behavior for P-M, a 10-year-old boy during practice sessions. P-M demonstrated an upward trend in negative sport behavior during practice baseline measures. He also demonstrated an upward trend in positive sport behaviors during practice baseline measures.

Figure 6. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors by G-B during practice and games.

Figure 7. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors and perception of sport behaviors by P-M during practice.

The mean number of positive sport behavior during practice baseline was 8.0 with a range from 7.0 to 9.0, whereas during intervention, the mean number of positive sport behavior was slightly higher with a mean of 9.2 with a range from 9.0 to 10.0. The last 4 days (absent 1 day) of the practice intervention period were only slightly different from the previous 4 practice days with a mean number of positive sport behavior in the last 4 practice days of 9.33 compared to the mean number of positive sport behavior in the first 4 practice days of 8.25. During practice, it appears that the intervention was not as successful as was designed by the researcher in increasing positive sport behavior. However, with regard to decreasing negative sport behavior, the intervention seemed to be more powerful by substantially and abruptly decreasing negative sport behavior.

P-M evaluated his own sport behavior at the conclusion of each practice throughout the season. P-M's perception of his sport behavior did not shift during practice until the very last practice day of the season.

Figure 8 visually displays the negative and positive sport behavior for P-M during game sessions. P-M demonstrated a slight downward trend in negative sport behavior during game baseline measures. The mean number of negative sport behaviors was 12.0 with a range from 11.0 to 13.0 during game baseline, whereas the mean during game intervention was noticeable lower with a mean of 7.5 with a range from 5.0 to 9.0. The last 4 game days of the intervention were clearly different from the first 4 game days with a mean number of negative sport behavior in the last 4 game days of 7.5 compared to the first 4 game days with a mean number of negative sport behaviors of 11.0.

Figure 8. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors and perception of sport by P-M during games.

P-M demonstrated a slight downward trend in positive sport behavior during game baseline measures. The mean number of positive sport behaviors during game baseline was 4.66 with a range from 4.0 to 5.0, whereas during game intervention, the mean number of positive sport behaviors was noticeably and abruptly higher with a mean of 10.33 with a range from 8.0 to 12.0. The last 4 game days of the intervention were clearly different from the previous 4 game days with a mean number of positive sport behaviors in the last 4 game days of 11.0 compared to the mean number of positive sport behaviors in the first 4 game days of 5.5. During games, it appears that the intervention was successful in increasing positive sport behavior and decreasing negative sport behavior.

P-M evaluated his own sport behavior at the conclusion of each game throughout the season. With the exception of the last game, P-M's perception of his own sport behavior shifted in a positive direction. His evaluation of his own sport behavior went from a Level 3 during the early stages of the study to a Level 4 during the later stages of the study. The last day of the season P-M did not view himself as being responsible or taking care of his teammates or himself.

Figure 9 shows all data for P-M (practice, game, and maintenance). The maintenance data suggest that there was no stability in positive sport behaviors for P-M during the post-season even though his mean number of positive sport behavior exceeded all other athletes in the study. P-M's mean positive sport behavior during maintenance was 14.0, which was 3.5 responses higher than the mean number of positive sport behaviors P-M had with the games during intervention. P-M's number of negative sport

Figure 9. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors by P-M during practice, games, and maintenance.

behavior during maintenance was 7.25, and there was a visual trend in the direction of the intervention. Of interest to note, P-M played on the same team as O-T during the maintenance basketball season. P-M had the support of another teammate who had experienced the intervention, which may have strengthened his positive sport behavior and kept his negative sport behavior at the level during the intervention period. Again, this phenomenon relates to the research that suggests that the moral atmosphere of a group may persuade a single person with his own belief and behavior to conform to the group. The basketball team of P-M and O-T may have had an increased moral atmosphere on their team compared to P-K's team.

Figure 10 visually displays the negative and positive sport behavior for O-T, a 10-year-old boy during practice sessions. O-T's negative sport behavior was inconsistent during practice baseline measures. The mean number of negative sport behavior was 15.66 with a range from 14.0 to 17.0 during practice baseline, whereas the mean number of negative sport behaviors during the practice intervention period was noticeable lower with a mean of 9.6 with a range from 6.0 to 14.0. The last 4 practice days of the intervention were clearly different from the first 4 practice days with a mean number of negative sport behaviors in the last 4 practice days of 9.0 compared to the first 4 practice days with a mean number of negative sport behaviors of 14.75.

O-T demonstrated a slight downward trend in positive sport behaviors during practice baseline measures. The mean number of positive sport behaviors during practice baseline was 9.33 with a range from 8.0 to 10.0, whereas during practice intervention the mean number of positive sport behaviors was noticeably higher with a mean of 13.6 with

Figure 10. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors and perception of sport behaviors by O-T during practice.

a range from 12.0 to 15.0. The last 4 practice days of the intervention were clearly different from the previous 4 practice days with a mean number of positive sport behaviors in the last 4 practice days of 14.0 compared to the mean number of positive sport behaviors in the first 4 practice days of 10.0. The intervention was successful in increasing positive sport behaviors and decreasing negative sport behavior during practice.

O-T evaluated his own behavior at the conclusion of each practice throughout the season. Changes in O-T's perception of his own sport behavior were in a positive direction with regard to the intervention. His evaluation of his own sport behavior went from a Level 3 (responsible/care for myself) to a Level 4 (responsible/care for my teammates) from the first day of the study to the remaining days of the study.

Figure 11 visually displays the negative and positive sport behavior for O-T during game sessions. O-T's negative sport behaviors during game baseline measures were inconsistent. The mean number of negative sport behaviors during games was 13.0 with a range from 10.0 to 15.0 during baseline, whereas the mean negative sport behaviors during the game intervention period was noticeably and abruptly lower with a mean negative sport behaviors of 7.16 with a range from 5.0 to 9.0. The last 4 days of the game intervention period were clearly different from the first 4 game days with a mean number of negative sport behavior in the last 4 game days of 7.25 compared to the first 4 game days with a mean number of negative sport behavior of 11.75.

O-T's positive sport behaviors during game baseline measures were inconsistent. The mean number of positive sport behaviors during game baseline was 6.33 with a range

Figure 11. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors and perception of sport by O-T during games.

from 5.0 to 8.0, whereas during game intervention, the mean positive sport behaviors were noticeably higher with a mean of 9.0 with a range from 7.0 to 11.0. The last 4 days of the game intervention were different from the previous 4 game days with the mean number of positive sport behavior in the last 4 game days of 9.0 compared to the mean number of positive sport behavior in the first 4 game days of 7.5. Even though on the fourth day of games, O-T was extremely positive, there was a definite and gradual improvement in his display of positive sport behaviors over the duration of the season. The intervention was successful in increasing positive sport behavior and dramatically and abruptly decreasing negative sport behavior during games.

As with all the other athletes, O-T evaluated his own sport behavior at the conclusion of each game throughout the season. Like G-B, O-T's perception of his own game sport behavior did not change dramatically during the study and was not consistent over time with regard to the coach's intervention. However, O-T did evaluate his own sport behavior at the highest level (Level 4 responsible/care for my teammates) at the conclusion of the study.

Figure 12 shows all data for O-T (practice, game, and maintenance). The maintenance data suggests that although there was a continued downward trend for negative sport behavior during the maintenance period, the last game day was very unusual for O-T. Even though his team won the last game, O-T's performance was substandard compared to his other performances, which may have influenced the dramatic increase in negative sport behavior during the last game. During the maintenance data, O-T's mean number of positive sport behavior was 13.5. The mean

Figure 12. Mean number of positive and negative sport behaviors by O-T during practice, games, and maintenance.

number of negative sport behavior during maintenance was 7.5. As mentioned earlier, O-T played on the same team as P-M during the maintenance basketball season. O-T had the support of another teammate who had experienced the intervention, which may have strengthened his positive sport behavior and kept his negative sport behavior near the level during the intervention period. Again this phenomenon relates to the research that suggests that the moral atmosphere of a group may persuade a single person with his own belief and behavior to conform to the group. The basketball team of O-T and P-M may have had an increased moral atmosphere on their team compared to P-K's team.

In summary, it appears that the intervention was successful in decreasing all athletes' negative sport behavior during practice. Only one participant did not improve the level of positive sport behavior displayed during practice. The intervention showed increased positive sport behavior for the remaining three participants during practice.

During games, the intervention was successful in decreasing three participants' negative sport behaviors, while the fourth participant maintained baseline measures. The intervention was successful in increasing the positive sport behaviors for all participants during games.

Maintenance data for one participant was not collected because he did not participate in another sport. The intervention was successful with increasing positive sport behaviors during maintenance with the remaining three participants. Interestingly, two participants increased their game positive sport behavior threefold, while the other participant more than doubled his game positive sport behavior. The intervention was successful with two participants who decreased their negative sport behavior. However,

the one participant slightly increased his negative sport behavior, although the increase did not reach his baseline measures.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is devoted to the summary, conclusions, and recommendations for this study. The purpose of the present study was to determine the effects of a coach's intervention using Hellison's social development model (1985) to decrease negative sport behavior and increase positive sport behavior during practice, games, and a subsequent sport season (maintenance). Provided is an interpretation of the results and recommendations for others who may want to conduct a similar study using a similar methodology.

In summary, the intervention was successful in decreasing all athletes' negative sport behavior during practice. The intervention was successful with three participants by increasing their level of positive sport behavior during practice. The remaining participant did not increase his positive sport behavior during practice.

During games, the coach's intervention was successful in increasing the positive sport behaviors for all participants. The coach's intervention was successful in decreasing three participants' negative sport behaviors, but not with the fourth participant who demonstrated similar negative sport behaviors during the game baseline condition.

During the maintenance period, no data was available for one participant because he did not participate in another sport. The intervention was successful with increasing positive sport behaviors with the remaining three participants during the maintenance period. Two participants increased positive sport behavior threefold as compared to game baseline measures, while the other participant more than doubled his positive sport

behavior as compared to game baseline measures. As for negative sport behavior, the results are not as impressive. The intervention was successful with two participants who decreased their negative sport behavior. However, one participant slightly increased his negative sport behavior, although the increase did not reach his baseline measures.

Coaches' have a direct influence on their athletes' positive and negative sport behaviors. Given this influence and the results of this and other studies like it, coaches should be trained in the implementation of Hellison's social development model (1985). This model could be implemented at the beginning of any sport season regardless of age and could be maintained throughout that sport to increase positive sport behaviors and decrease negative sport behaviors.

Conclusions

The following conclusions can be made based on the results of the present study:

1. Coaches can influence the positive sport behaviors of athletes they coach.
2. Hellison's social development model decreased athletes' negative sport behaviors during practice.
3. Hellison's social development model increased athletes' positive sport behaviors during practice.
4. Hellison's social development model used during practice can decrease athletes' negative sport behaviors during games.
5. Hellison's social development model used during practice can increase athletes' positive sport behaviors during games.

6. Positive sport behavior acquired in one sport season can be maintained in another sport season.
7. Negative sport behavior reduced in one sport season can be maintained in a subsequent season.

Recommendations for Future Research

For future research, the following recommendations can be made based on the results of the present study:

1. The need to replicate this study using participants with varied age groups.
2. To conduct studies that includes both male and female athletes.
3. To conduct studies that examine the effectiveness of the model with different sports.
4. To consider collecting continuous time data for each athlete for specific sport behaviors.
5. To conduct future studies with the coders close to the team's bench during games to improve the coder's abilities to listen to the target athlete while they are not playing in the game.
6. To conduct studies with participants with varied socioeconomic backgrounds.
7. To survey parents' attitudes, reactions, and observations of their child's sport behavior outside the study.
8. To revise Hellison's level rating chart to provide more information from players concerning their perceptions of their sport behavior.

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APPENDIX A
Athlete Behavior Coding Sheet

PHYSICAL Hit, push, punch, kick, any object or person.				
ENCOURAGEMENT pat on back, high five, thumbs up, clap				
EXPRESSION Pout, make faces, cry roll eyes, stomp feet				
EXPLANATION Discuss the problem Calm and rational				
NOT RESPECTING THE COACH				
ASSISTANCE Help the coach, pay attention to the coach				
TOTALS Positive				
TOTALS Negative				

Observer: _____ Time Started: _____ Time Ended: _____ Date: _____

Examples and Definitions of Coding Sheet

PHYSICAL	Hitting, pushing, punching, kicking, any object or player. Examples: Player kicking a ball, kicking the wall, punching a wall, slaps the wall out of anger. Hit, push, kick, punch, slap, elbow, headbutt, another teammate in anger.
ENCOURAGEMENT	Bash elbows, high-fives, thumbs-up, fist-to-fist, clap, to another player, pat a teammate on the back. Examples: Giving another player a high-five after that player made a good shot in basketball. Clapping for a teammate after a good play. Any physical encouragement given by a player to another teammate.
EXPRESSION	Have a fit, pout, stomp feet, make faces, roll eyes, lay on the ground, cross their arms. Whine, cry, pounding arms, making a fist, intimidating another teammate. Examples: Player who throws a tantrum, player who raises a fist to another player trying to intimidate them, player who pouts or whines because they don't get their way.
EXPLANATION	Discuss a problem they are having. Explain their feeling in a calm and rational matter. Examples: when a player is upset instead of throwing a fit, they calmly explain why they are upset to a teammate or coach. Explain instead of intimidate.
NOT RESPECTING THE COACH	Talking back, not paying attention, being a distraction while the coach is trying to teach, will not listen to the coach, yells at coach, mad at the coach, sticks out their tongue, makes faces. Examples: When a player is mad at the coach, goofs-off during practice, ignores the coach, tells the coach their stupid, dumb, mean, not fair.
ASSISTANCE	Helping the coach teach players a technique, help coach get ready for practice, pay attention. Examples: when a player helps the coach when the coach asks to help a teammate learn a move or play, listening to the coach and doing what the coach is asking for, giving the coach their undivided attention.

APPENDIX B
Parent Consent Form

Dear _____:

My name is Dean Taylor and I am a graduate student at San Jose State University. I am conducting a study as part of my thesis for my Masters Degree in Human Performance. The focus of my study is to investigate the effect that participating in a sport activity may have on a child's social development. I hope to obtain information regarding how young athletes might learn responsibility and independence through participation in physical education, specifically during basketball practice.

As one of the YMCA basketball coaches for this season, I will ensure the children will receive coaching on positive social behavior during the basketball season including compassion, fairness, integrity, and good sportsmanship. Trained observers will chart positive and negative behaviors during basketball practices and games. In addition, during another sport following basketball, i.e., football or soccer I will also chart negative and positive social behavior to determine if the effects learned in basketball practice can be maintained. These observers will not interact with the children and I will collect all information from the coders each day.

If you agree to your child's participation, he will be asked to fill out a Level Rating Chart during each basketball practice for the duration of the basketball season. I estimate that it will take about five minutes to complete. I have attached a copy of the Level Rating Chart for you to review.

Initials _____

There will be no risks or discomforts to the children participating during data collection. Furthermore, it is my hope that your son will benefit from this study. This study seeks to improve good sportsmanship and improve the positive sport behaviors while decreasing the negative ones. The results of the study may be published but no information that could identify your child will be included. Each child will be assigned a number that only I will know. All data collection sheets will be stored in a locked cabinet and the key will be destroyed at the completion of this study. The children will receive no compensation for their participation.

Consent is given voluntarily. Whether you and your child agree to participate in the study or not, it will in no way affect the treatment of each player or their basketball season experience. You or your child may refuse to participate in the study or in any part of the study and are free to withdraw at any time without prejudice to the subject's relations with San Jose State University or any other participating institutions.

I am available to answer any questions you may have about this study. Please call me any time at (650) 855-9836 or my graduate advisor at San Jose State University, Dr. Susan Wilkinson at (408) 924-3034. Questions about research, subjects' rights, or research-related injury may be presented to Nabil Ibrahim, Ph.D. Associate Vice President for Graduate Studies and Research, at (408) 924-2480. You will be given a copy of this form to keep.

Initials_____

The signature of a parent or guardian on this document below indicates that this document has been read and you have given your approval for your child or ward to participate in this study.

_____	_____	_____
Name of Child or Ward	Parent or Guardian's Signature	Date
_____	(_____)_____	
Relationship to Child	Phone Number	
_____	_____	_____
Full Mailing Address	Investigator's Signature	Date

APPENDIX C
Game Behavior Coding Sheet

PHYSICAL Hit, push, punch, kick, any object or person.					
ENCOURAGEMENT pat on back, high five, thumbs up, clap					
EXPRESSION Pout, make faces, cry roll eyes, stomp feet					
EXPLANATION Discuss the problem Calm and rational					
NOT RESPECTING THE COACH					
ASSISTANCE Help the coach, pay attention to the coach					

Use (T) as a symbol for Teammate, and use (O) as a symbol for an Opponent

Observer: _____ Time Started: _____ Time Ended: _____

Amount of playing time in minutes by the athlete for each quarter.

1st Quarter = 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

2nd Quarter = 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

3rd Quarter = 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

4th Quarter = 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

Examples and Definitions of Coding Sheet

PHYSICAL	Hitting, pushing, punching, kicking, any object or player. Examples: Player kicking a ball, kicking the wall, punching a wall, slap the wall out of anger. Hit, push, kick, punch, slap, elbow, headbutt, another teammate in anger.
ENCOURAGEMENT	Bash elbows, high-fives, thumbs-up, fist-to-fist, clap, to another player, pat a teammate on the back. Examples: Giving another player a high-five after that player made a good shot in basketball. Clapping for a teammate after a good play. Any physical encouragement given by a player to another teammate.
EXPRESSION	Have a fit, pout, stomp feet, make faces, roll eyes, lay on the ground, cross their arms whine, cry, pounding arms, making a fist, intimidating another teammate. Examples: Player who throws a tantrum, player who raises a fist to another player trying to intimidate them, player who pouts or whines because they don't get their way.
EXPLANATION	Discuss a problem they are having. Explain their feeling in a calm and rational matter. Examples: when a player is upset instead of throwing a fit, they calmly explain why they are upset to a teammate or coach. Explain instead of intimidate.
NOT RESPECTING THE COACH	Talking back, not paying attention, being a distraction while the coach is trying to teach, will not listen to the coach, yells at coach, mad at the coach, sticks out their tongue, makes faces. Examples: When a player is mad at the coach, goofs-off during practice, ignores the coach, tells the coach their stupid, dumb, mean, not fair.
ASSISTANCE	Helping the coach teach players a technique, help coach get ready for practice, pay attention. Examples: when a player helps the coach when the coach asks to help a teammate learn a move or play, listening to the coach and doing what the coach is asking for, giving the coach their undivided attention.

APPENDIX D

Level Rating Checklist

Name: _____

Date: _____

Practice	Level	Comments

FIRST Warm-ups

SECOND Drills & Instruction

THIRD Scrimmage & Game

Definition of Levels

Level 0 = I have little or no self-control and I goof around because I don't care.

I did not play today, I put down other teammates, I made excuses for my behavior and blamed others for my behaviors, I did not listen to coach and bothered my teammates, I hit, tease, call names to my teammates or coach, I do not care about my behavior, I am out of control and I goof-off.

Level 1 = I am under control, I don't goof around but I don't try to practice basketball.

I did not play today and I was not ready to practice today, I did not bother my teammates and I was not a distraction in practice but I just did what I wanted to and I did not try to be my best today even though I was under control.

Level 2 = I am under control, I try to practice hard but the coach has to remind me to.

I get distracted and the coach has to tell me to stay on track during practice, I am under control and I try hard when the coach tells me to. I try not to yell, hit, get mad, or tease my teammates but I sometimes do a little, I practice my best but the coach has to remind me sometimes.

Level 3 = I am responsible for myself without coach telling me to, I care about myself.

I work hard at practice without the coach telling me to and I almost never yell, hit, get mad, and tease my teammates, I practice my best without the coach reminding me to, I am responsible for my own actions and I behave my best because I care about my behavior.

Level 4 = I am responsible for myself and I care about myself and my teammates

I am very responsible for my own actions and I behave my best because I care about my behavior, I also care about my teammates and I try my best to help them become more responsible. I involve my teammates in basketball practice and I am not selfish and care about my teammates. I care about my behavior and I care about my teammates behavior.