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**An Examination of an Implementation of the
'Responsibility Model' in a New Zealand Secondary
School Physical Education Programme.**

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requirements for the degree of
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Abstract

This study examined a six-month implementation of the Responsibility Model (RM) in a New Zealand secondary school. Four classes were involved in the study, two classes were taught a programme based on the RM and two classes were taught using a traditional pedagogical approach to physical education. All four classes were taught by the same teacher. A mixed methodological approach was used combining case study and quasi-experimental research. Data were collected through interviews, observations, analysis of detention patterns, and regular student self-assessments.

The implementation was successful in developing positive, supportive and well-behaved classes in physical education. The majority of students developed a greater understanding of personal and social responsibility and became more personally and socially responsible in class. The students were not found to be disadvantaged in meeting the physical education curriculum goals and students in the RM classes were found to be more engaged in their class work than the equivalent students in the control classes. If the true measure of success, however, is that students are able to take what is learnt in physical education and apply it in other contexts, then this implementation was less successful. For the vast majority of students the teaching and learning about personal and social responsibility was firmly associated with physical education and they generally showed little understanding of the potential for the transfer of learning to other contexts. It is possible that a longer implementation and a more consistent reinforcement of the concept of transfer would lead to students developing greater understanding of the models potential application in other areas of their lives.

This study has implications for teachers who are considering introducing the RM into their teaching. It provides insights into the realities of implementing the RM into the specific context of secondary school physical education programmes. It also challenges the assumptions that teachers may have that the introduction of the RM is a relatively unproblematic process and identifies a number of areas of potential difficulty. The study concludes with recommendations for teachers contemplating introducing the RM into their practice.

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have been particularly motivated by your belief in the need to work in the “swamp of practice”. It is a lesson that many university researchers could learn from.

Dedication

I am dedicating this thesis to my father Jim and my sister Denise, both of whom have passed away. To Dad I am sorry you are not here to enjoy the moment but you will be in my thoughts. Denise, who should have been here to see the completion of the journey, it is times like these that remind us all of how great the loss is.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Sport, physical activity and physical education have long been considered suitable contexts for the development of positive social and moral development. This role is often described, in the context of sport and physical activity, as the development of “character”. The expectation that participation in healthy physical activity will help in the development of “good character” has a long and consistent history that can be traced back to Plato. Plato described this relationship as one in which “physical activity in its many forms develops, or facilitates the development of citizenship; that constellation of virtues that makes up one’s character, and /or the moral behaviour that guides one’s behaviour in the material world” (Estes, 2003, p. 14).

The belief in the power of sport and physical activity to develop character has endured, with contemporary writers continuing to champion physical activity-based programmes as a potential means of both developing good character and of helping alleviate society’s problems (Collingwood, 1997; Siedentop, 1991; Tinning, 1993). However, while accepting this potential, writers generally consider that these outcomes will not necessarily occur simply through the process of participation in physical activity. To be successful, programmes must clearly identify positive social development as a major priority and be carefully structured to maximise the possibility that this will happen (Salter, 1999; Shields & Bredemeier, 2001; Tinning, 1993).

This study concerns the Responsibility Model, (hereafter termed the “RM”) a pedagogical approach to teaching physical education that aims to achieve positive social and moral development (Hellison, 1985, 1996, 2003a). In particular, the RM seeks to use sport and physical education as the context in which to teach participants to become more personally and socially responsible. The study examines the implementation of the model in a New Zealand secondary school physical education programme. The examination occurs within a framework of previous research on the RM in community settings and is designed to address a number of the limitations

identified in the research literature on the model and to meet the interests of practicing teachers by researching in their practice.

The RM has been developed by Dr. Don Hellison, a Chicago-based professor of education, with an extensive background working with adolescents perceived to be underserved and at risk. Hellison is considered to be an influential academic in physical education and is widely published (e.g., Hellison, 1987; Hellison & Walsh, 2002; Hellison & Martinek, 2006). His publications include a number of well received texts (e.g., Hellison et al., 2000; Hellison, 2003) in addition to the supervision of post-graduate research (D. Hellison, personal communication, March, 2007). His influence on physical education pedagogy is consistently acknowledged by writers of physical education and sport pedagogy (e.g., Graham, 1992; Kirk, Macdonald, & O'Sullivan, 2006; Link, 1993; Siedentop, 1991; Tinning, Macdonald, Wright, & Hickey, 2001). Hellison has also received numerous awards for his work including the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance (AAHPERD) Presidential Citation (2000), the National Association of Physical Education in Higher Education Scholar Award (1998) and the International Olympic Committee President's Prize (1995). An example of Hellison's esteem is his identification as one of the four most influential modern day pedagogical pioneers in physical education (Metzler, 2007). Metzler in describing Hellison's contribution commented that:

Don Hellison has for three decades tirelessly espoused the idea that physical education should go beyond bats and balls and lead youngsters to learning outcomes that occur at the intersection of the personal/affective and social domains—a veritable frontier that few of us in KPE [Kinesiology Physical Education] dare to go as teachers. (p. 293)

Hellison's belief that physical education and sport are powerful contexts for teaching students important values about taking responsibility for themselves and others has driven his work and research for over three decades. The development and implementation of the RM has been the primary focus of Hellison's work during this time. The majority of this work has occurred in what he has described as the

“swamp of practice”¹ (Hellison, 2000), developing and refining a model of teaching/coaching that was originally referred to as Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility (TPSR) and is now generally referred to as the Responsibility Model.

Much of Hellison’s RM work has been in non-compulsory programmes located within out-of-school clubs or in specially constituted classes for students with behaviour problems. In recent years the model has begun to be implemented into compulsory physical education programmes within schools, where it has gained some practical credibility as an acceptable pedagogical approach for the teaching of physical education.

Background to this Study

In 2001, Hellison was invited to visit New Zealand by Physical Education New Zealand (PENZ) to introduce the Responsibility Model to New Zealand physical educators. During that visit he ran a number of well-attended regional workshops and presented a keynote presentation at the national physical education conference. The visit proved to be a catalyst that led to a number of physical education teachers introducing the RM into their own professional practice. The extent to which the model has been implemented into New Zealand schools is not clear, as no empirical research has been completed to establish this. Anecdotal evidence would suggest, however, that there are a sizable number of teachers implementing aspects of the RM into their programmes. A 2004 workshop run in New Zealand by Hellison, for example, attracted 25 teachers, the majority of whom were using the model to some degree in their teaching. The frequent observation of charts displaying the RM’s “levels of responsibility” in school gymnasias throughout New Zealand would suggest that the model has a growing presence within physical education teaching programmes. Discussions with the coordinators of the physical education pre-service programmes at the four major universities within New Zealand have established that all teach the RM as a model for teaching physical education. Official acknowledgement of the RM has also occurred with the publication of a level-one

¹ The “swamp of practice” is a term extensively used by Hellison to describe the realities of teaching and researching in practice. While the term is associated with Hellison it originated from Lortie-reference unknown.

exemplar for a National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA)² achievement standard based on the RM (Ministry of Education, 2004).

The release of the recent document “The New Zealand Curriculum - Draft for consultation” (Ministry of Education, 2006) adds weight to the belief that the RM has the potential to emerge as an important pedagogical model for the teaching of physical education in this country. The document identifies five key competencies that include managing self, relating to others, and participating in and contributing to local national and international communities, with these in effect being fundamental to the RM. The draft document also presents an essence statement that outlines the learning to be achieved within each area of learning. The statement for the Health and Physical Education Learning Area includes the following:

Through learning and by accepting challenges in health-related movement contexts, students reflect on the nature of well-being and how to promote it. As they develop resilience and a sense of personal and social responsibility, they are increasingly able to take responsibility for themselves and contribute to the well-being of those around them, their communities, environments, and society. (p. 16)

The RM seems to be in close alignment with both the underlying philosophy of the New Zealand Curriculum and the specific area of Health and Physical Education. The relationship between the RM and the New Zealand Curriculum will be discussed in detail in Chapter Three.

The literature around physical education and sport pedagogy has also influenced this study. In considering these fields it becomes clear that there are a number of issues of importance for this particular study. Three specific areas that will be discussed are the concern for more research in the practical application of curriculum; the issue of student voice in research in physical education; and the developing belief that for

² National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA). Students are assessed in senior secondary schools against a series of achievement standards specific to curriculum areas. These achievement standards are recorded for individual students and entered onto their National Certificate of Educational Achievement. Exemplars are published examples of units of work which are considered to successfully meet the requirements of achievement standards.

many students physical education has become increasingly irrelevant and inconsequential. Aligned with the loss of relevance of physical education is the issue of increased student disengagement with the curriculum and discussion on ways to reverse this trend.

The movement away from research directly applicable to teaching and learning has been lamented by a number of writers. Macdonald et al. (2002), for example, in their discussion on contemporary research in physical education, stated their concern when they wrote that "... in physical education pedagogy research today ... we desperately need to find ways to instruct children, prepare teachers, and assess physical education programmes in schools, while many [researchers] in the pedagogical research community pursue quite different interests" (p. 137).

A similar viewpoint (Lawson, 2007) has been offered in response to the inadequacies identified in a review of the research on physical education/sport pedagogy:

There is an abundant literature on the academic discipline, its benefits, and its controversies with no apparent end in sight... A review of this literature, starting with the advocacy-oriented proposals of the 1960s ... yields several important findings.

First *research on the core curriculum is conspicuous by its absence* [Italics in original]. This oversight, or neglect, is surprising, alarming and potentially dangerous. The escalating movement in higher education towards results-oriented accountability frameworks... recommends a comprehensive research agenda focused on teaching-learning processes and outcomes. (p. 222)

In an article examining the need to develop a strong knowledge base in physical education (Ward & Doutsis, 1999) the observation was made that "despite significant progress in the field of sport pedagogy, there are few studies that have reported on the implementation and evaluation of curriculum in physical education" (p. 393). The reasons for the lack of research in what could be considered to be the very core business of physical education are difficult to identify although perhaps the

difficulties of working in the “swamp of practice” may be a disincentive for many researchers.

The issue of student voices is also one that has received some attention in the physical education and sport pedagogy literature. For many writers the lack of research in this area is a concern (Cothran & Ennis, 1999; Dyson, 2006; Metzler, 2007). Dyson (2006) described the situation as one in which:

If aliens from another world landed on planet earth and consulted the professional literature to learn about our education system, it would be quite possible for them to overlook the perspectives of students in the entire process. Ironically the two groups most intimately involved in the day-to-day function of education, teachers and students have rarely been asked their thoughts by researchers. (p. 326)

Despite Dyson’s (2006) judgement on this matter, students voices have been heard in a number of research studies in physical education (Burrows & Wright, 2004; Ennis, 1997; Lineham, 2004) and certainly in research on the RM (Cutforth, 1997; Hellison, 2003b; Martinek, Schilling, & Johnson, 1999). The results of this feedback have at times been disappointing for those who believe in the educative value of physical education (Tinning & Fitzclarence, 1992). In one study of 36 secondary school students (Carlson, 1998) it was found that, irrespective of differences in physical ability or enjoyment of the subject, all 36 students felt that physical education was not a real subject. Reasons identified for this status included the inability to identify anything that was learnt in physical education and the lack of tangible benefits from participating. Another study of 16 students (Cothran & Ennis, 1999) found that teachers were not explicit in conveying their goals and, partially as a result of this, students believed the curriculum was not relevant. An important conclusion was that engagement in the curriculum was more likely when students understood and believed in the subject matter. The belief that many students find physical education largely inconsequential has been widely reported (Carlson, 1995; Carlson, 1998; Cothran & Ennis, 1999; Ennis, 1997) along with the finding that many students do not engage with the curriculum within schools (Laker, 2000).

There has been some discussion on the dangers of ignoring disengaged students and on ways to make physical education more relevant for disinterested students. Ennis (1997) believed that disengaged youth offered a warning about continuing to teach physical education in traditional ways, and that failure to address this problem would lead to, among other things, a continuing erosion of the status of physical education. For Ennis a potential answer for reconnecting these students lay in new pedagogies based on social constructivism. There have been a number of studies examining students' experiences with these models. Dyson (2006) reported that "generally students report having positive experiences in adventure educational settings, in sport education units and in cooperative learning" (p. 336). While Dyson made no comment on the Responsibility Model, research on this model has also tended to suggest that students find it a positive experience (e.g., Martinek, Schilling, & Johnson, 1999; Wright, White, & Gaebler-Spira, 2004).

For some writers a potential element in reengaging students with their schooling is the establishment of good positive relationships. In New Zealand Bishop's work in the Kotahitanga programme (Bishop, Berryman, Powell, & Teddy, 2007) has shown positive results for reengaging Maori youth with the school curriculum. Central to this programme is the development of positive relationships between teachers and students. In a US study Kulinna and Garrahy (2003) interviewed 182 students about what makes an effective or ineffective class manager. Along with techniques such as establishing rules early in the year, these students identified the importance of teachers establishing good relationships with them as central to being an effective manager. Students also identified that "teachers who genuinely cared for and respected their students' needs and wishes were the best managers" (p.440).

Burrows (2004) offered the suggestion that engaging students in conversations about what they wanted to learn may well be a positive start in getting students reengaged in physical education:

Research on young people's attitudes to, and engagement in, physical education points to the productiveness of this strategy [conversing with students]. Studies

show, for instance, that children and young people are more than capable of discussing the relevance of current offerings to their lives and of articulating their likes and dislikes, and their vision for a physical education that is responsive to their everyday engagement with physical culture in the world outside schools. (p. 113)

The value of involving students in discussions on curriculum matters was shown in one study involving a year nine physical education class (Glasby & Macdonald, 2004). Allowing students to negotiate their curriculum for the unit resulted in activities that were not originally considered for the class being offered. During the unit students demonstrated a high level of engagement including 100% attendance and participation.

Potential Significance of this Study

The potential for the RM to contribute to the intended outcomes of the New Zealand Curriculum has been identified. There has been little research completed, however, to establish the realities of what occurs when the RM is introduced into compulsory school physical education programmes in New Zealand or elsewhere. Previous research has been focused on at-risk students in community and after school settings, which has been the area of emphasis for Hellison and the majority of other researchers (Compagnone, 1995; Cutforth, 1997; Hellison, 1990b; Martinek & Hellison, 1997a). The reality is that, despite a lack of empirical support, the RM seems to be becoming accepted into school practice as an appropriate pedagogical approach for the teaching of physical education. This prompts the necessity for research to be completed in this context.

The review of the research literature on the RM (see Chapter Four) establishes that there are a number of areas where research is presently either limited or non-existent.

These are:

1. The RM in school physical education programmes.
Despite the reality that physical education teachers in schools seem to be using the model there has been little research on the RM when it is implemented with standard physical education classes. The context of a school, with compulsory attendance and requirements to meet curriculum outcomes, is distinctly different to that of out-of-school or community-based programmes. It cannot, therefore, be assumed that the outcomes previously identified will be replicated when the RM is introduced into a school physical education programme.
2. The absence of research on the RM in New Zealand.
The majority of implementation work and research studies on the RM have been completed in the USA. While there are many similarities between the USA and New Zealand there are also distinct cultural differences. There is no research that examines the RM when it is taught in a New Zealand context.
3. Implementing the RM with students who are not considered to be underserved.
The majority of research has been completed on programmes with students who are considered to be at-risk or underserved. The identification of such students is based on factors such as: inner city living, issues of poverty, and in many cases, referrals from youth justice programmes. There has been only limited research examining the impact of the model on students who are not in these categories.
4. The RM when taught by practicing physical education teachers.
The majority of research on the RM has been undertaken on programmes run by university lecturers, often supported by university students, who come into centres to run programmes. If the RM is to be considered a viable pedagogical model for schools, it must be established that it is effective when implemented by practising physical education teachers.

5. A lack of methodological breadth.

The research to date on the RM has predominantly involved descriptive case studies. While there are a number of strengths in the case study approach, there is an opportunity to gain a wider understanding of the potential of the model through the use of other research methodologies based on alternative epistemological paradigms.

This present study is concerned with the implementation of the RM in secondary school physical education classes. It is based in a New Zealand school and examines the potential of the model when taught by a physical education member of staff within her regular physical education class work. The research design used is a mixed methods approach involving both case study and quasi-experimental methods. This combination gives the opportunity to examine the RM in practice, while offering a comparison to other classes taught physical education by the same teacher but without the RM. As such, the study provides an opportunity to examine the viability of the RM as a pedagogical approach for the teaching of physical education in New Zealand and other contexts.

To increase the relevance of this examination for practising teachers of physical education it was considered necessary to be cognisant of matters of specific interest to them. Two such matters seem to be the potential impact of the model on student engagement in the subject knowledge of physical education and on their classroom and related behaviour. These interests are consistent with reasons that teacher participants in Mrugala's (2003) US research gave for implementing the RM into their practice.

Research Questions

Based on the above considerations, the following research questions were identified.

1. What understandings of personal and social responsibility are developed by students taught physical education in a programme based on the Responsibility Model?

2. What are students' experiences of physical education in a programme based on the RM?
 - (a) What is the impact on students':
 - (i) level of engagement with the physical education curriculum?
 - (ii) behaviour in physical education classes?
 - (iii) behaviour in other classes?
 - (b) In what ways do the experiences of students in the RM classes and those in classes taught using a traditional pedagogy differ in these three areas?
3. How is the implementation of the RM experienced by the teacher, and in what ways does this experience relate to previous research findings?
4. To what degree are the reported outcomes achieved by the RM in community and out-of-school programmes replicated when the model is implemented in a secondary school physical education programme?

Organisation of Chapters

This study is organised into eight chapters. This introductory chapter backgrounds the study and introduces the research questions. Chapter Two examines the relationship between sport and physical education and social and moral development. The second section of this chapter considers moral development theory and concludes with a discussion of a number of influential moral development theorists. The third chapter examines the Responsibility Model, a pedagogical approach to the teaching of physical education that is at the centre of this study. The chapter firstly comments on the process of development and then describes the model in detail. This is followed by an examination of the model and its relationship to learning theory. The chapter then considers the RM in relation to the expectations of the Health and Physical Education in the New Zealand Curriculum document (Ministry of Education, 1999). The chapter concludes with a discussion on traditional pedagogical approaches to the teaching of physical education. Chapter Four presents an in-depth examination of the research literature on the RM to date. This examination includes a critique of previous research and of the predominant methodological approaches used by the researchers. The chapter details the common themes that have emerged from the literature and then concludes with a discussion on the critique offered on the

RM. The methodology chosen for this study and the procedures for conducting the research are detailed in Chapter Five. This chapter also includes a discussion on the underpinning philosophy of the research based on the conceptual framework developed by Crotty (1998). The chapter includes a discussion on the processes used to authenticate the pedagogical approach used in this study and concludes with comment on the contextual limitations for the research. In Chapter Six the results for this study are presented in relation to five Learning Outcomes. This chapter concludes with the presentation of data supporting the authentic implementation of the RM and the establishment of a clear pedagogical differentiation between the RM classes and the comparison classes. Chapter Seven discusses the results in relation to the four research questions and to the findings of previous research on the RM. The study concludes with Chapter Eight which: examines the significance of the findings, addresses limitations of the research, considers future research, and concludes with ten recommendations for physical education teachers considering implementing the research into their professional practice.

CHAPTER TWO

Sport, Physical Education and Social and Moral Development

Introduction

The acceptance of physical education³ as having a legitimate place in the broader area of education has been based partly on its potential for influencing moral and social development. The role of developing good character and of socialising students into becoming good citizens is one that has been regularly allocated to physical education and it is a role that has a long and consistent history (Pitter & Andrews, 1997). This chapter firstly examines the relationship from both a historical and contemporary viewpoint. Having explored the expectations around physical education and moral development the chapter then examines the theoretical framework underpinning the concept of moral development. In Chapter seven the Responsibility Model will be considered in relation to moral development theory.

Physical Education and Moral Development

When considering physical education and moral development, the use of the word “character” should be noted. Traditionally the word has been used when discussing moral behaviour in the sport or physical education context. “Character” and “morality” have been considered to be interchangeable terms by some writers (Sage, 1998; Stoll & Beller, 1998) while others differentiate, placing character within the overall concept of moral development (Soloman, 1997). Hodge (1989), saw the relationship as one in which “moral reasoning was regarded as the central element of character” (p. 190). For the purposes of this study, “character” will be considered to be interchangeable with “morality” unless specifically noted otherwise.

The belief in the need for good character and citizenship is based on the necessity of having a sufficient level of conformity to allow society to function effectively.

³ While the term “physical education” is a more recent development, physical activity has been considered an integral part of the process of education from the earliest times. Many different terms have been used to describe these programmes including military drill, physical drill, physical training, fitness and sport and games. For the purposes of this study “physical education” will be used as a generic term to include all processes that use physical activity and movement for educational purposes.

Society generally requires its citizens to be able to live and work together in reasonable harmony and many see sport and physical education as having a role in achieving this: “society wants young people who know right from wrong, who behave in a moral way, and who support a moral code that enables large numbers of people to live effectively together” (Laker, 2000, p. 89). While many see a role for sport and physical education in achieving citizenship goals, there is also criticism that the generally conservative approach taken by physical education teachers and coaches has led sport and physical education to become a means of preserving the hegemonic power of the state (Laker, 2000).

History demonstrates the consistency of the belief in the need to develop citizenship and offers a number of examples of the deliberate selection of sport and physical activities as a means of socialising citizens. Ancient Greece contained two contrasting education systems that deliberately used physical activities and games for this purpose. While the intentions were essentially the same, the different conceptualisation of what a good citizen was lead to distinctly different programmes and outcomes (Redman, 1988).

Sparta, as a military city-state, needed citizens in superb physical condition, always ready and able to meet the demands and hardships of warfare. Spartan society valued aggression, bravery and a willingness to accept authority and conformity (Estes, 2003). In order to achieve these qualities Sparta developed an education system based on extreme physical activity and competition. Injuries, and even death, were considered an acceptable price to pay in producing the warrior citizens required by the city. While the outcomes that the system was designed to reach could perhaps be questioned, the effectiveness with which they achieved them could not (Estes, 2003; Laker, 2000).

The city-state of Athens demonstrated a similar belief in the importance of games and physical activity in the education of their citizens. For Athenians, however, education was intended to produce citizens who, while fit for military duties, were fully rounded individuals (Laker, 2000). Like Sparta, Athens sought to use physical

education as a vehicle to develop the values and attitudes that were important to its society. Laker (2000), in his discussion on the history of physical education, summarised the differences between the two education systems thus:

The content of physical education was similar in both city-states, with boxing, running, wrestling, javelin, discus and ball games forming a major part of the programme. In both city-states to be unfit was unacceptable. In Athens to be unfit was a sign of poor education. In Sparta it would have been viewed as socially irresponsible. (p. 7)

A further example of physical activity being used as a deliberate means of cultural socialisation, was the introduction of sport and games such as cricket and rugby football into the English public school system (Redman, 1988). These games were introduced by headmasters who saw the moral, social and cultural potentials of team games for modifying the often unruly and undisciplined behaviour of many of the boys (Estes, 2003; Laker, 2000). The value given to these games was illustrated by a Royal Commission into public schools that reported that, “the cricket and football fields are not merely places of exercise or amusement; they help to form some of the most valuable social qualities and manly virtues and they hold like the classroom ... a distinct and important place in Public School education” (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995, p. 176). The belief that sport developed favourable character traits became unshakable in Britain, illustrated by the often heard statement that “the Battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton” (Meller, 1977; Sage, 1998).

During the middle of the nineteenth century, a belief developed in the Christian Church that there was a strong association between the body and the spirit. This led to the concept of “Muscular Christianity” where the body was seen as an instrument of God and good health and physical conditioning were regarded as a means of allowing Christians to meet the demands of godly behaviour (Coakley, 1998). These beliefs led to such initiatives as the Young Men’s Christian Association (YMCA), which was established in 1844 in London as an antidote to the vices evident in that city (Redman, 1988). The Church saw the provision of physical activity and sport as

an important adjunct to its normal role and believed that they served a myriad of purposes:

It could obviously be argued that physical exercise was vital for those brought up in the unnatural conditions of an urban environment and destined to spend much of their life in sedentary occupations, and that a healthy body and a sense of well-being were legitimate objectives for any Christian. Further, sport absorbed energies and thoughts which idleness might otherwise lead astray to evil outlets, and finally team games and innocent competition were ideal methods of social training in codes of desirable social conduct. (Meller, 1977, p. 46)

The beliefs surrounding the potential of sport and games to positively influence moral and social development were also held by many involved in physical education. As far back as 1887, Dr. Edward Hitchcock, when addressing the newly formed American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education, commented:

Body and heart and soul must go hand in hand. 'What God has joined together, let no man put asunder.' Let the thought be eminent and predominant with us that the highest aim of our special work is to develop the most perfect man and women in body, soul and spirit. (Millar & Jarman, 1988, p. 74)

These beliefs were reiterated (Park, 1983) when the American Academy of Physical Education issued a position statement on physical education that included the statement:

Because of the opportunities to teach ethical values and to influence moral behaviour of students through sport and games, it is thought that physical educators might well place an increased emphasis on the problems of ethical judgements and morally responsible behaviour in sport. (p. 53)

Contemporary writers in physical education continue to champion the field as a potential context for social and moral development (e.g., Prusak, Treasure, Darst, & Pangrazi, 2004; Stiehl, 1993; Tinning, 1993). For many, the content of physical

education offers specific opportunities not available in other curriculum areas. Daryl Siedentop (1991), when discussing the potential of physical education, wrote:

Team sport require that individuals play roles, and these roles require the blending of individual assertiveness and team play. The equipment and space in physical education almost always needs to be shared, often in ways that are potentially distracting and disruptive. These situations present teachers with opportunities to promote responsible behaviour. (p. 160)

Hellison (personal communication, 2000) used the example of conflict resolution to illustrate his belief in the power of the physical education context for social development. He observed that, in teaching conflict resolution, teachers will often get students to talk about how conflicts develop and may even set up role plays on how to resolve them. This approach is considered limited by Hellison because he believes that there is no substitute for the experience of resolving real conflict. By the nature of the activity involved, the gym offers conflict and the opportunity to practise resolution. For him, it is the reality of the situation that allows the real learning to occur.

Participation in team sport and physical education is an emotional experience for many students. Competition, conflict, despair and elation all impact on students while offering them opportunities to examine their responses and behaviours. The potential for learning about values and developing social skills is increased by the emotional and real life impact of the activities students are involved in.

The relationship between sport and physical education and the development of good character is not, however, as simple as some would appear to believe. The assumption that involvement in sport and physical education will automatically lead to positive social and moral development has been challenged (Greendorfer, 1987; Hodge, 1989; Morris, 1993; Salter, 1999; Shields & Bredemeier, 2003; Tinning, 1993; Tinning, 1995). Buchanan (2001), for example, wrote of the relationship between sport and positive social development:

while the assumption that participation in sport has a positive impact on affective development is widely held, physical educators and others who work with youth cannot assume that participation in and of itself will enhance the affective development of their charges. (p. 155)

In one study, Shield and Bredemeier (2003) investigated the levels of moral reasoning of 50 students including male and female basketball players and non-athletes at the collegiate and high school levels in the United States. They reported two findings of note. The first was that the non-athletes showed a more mature level of moral reasoning in both everyday life and sport-specific scenarios than did the athletes. The second finding was that, “moral reasoning about the sport dilemmas [presented] was significantly below that of the reasoning about the standard [everyday life] dilemmas for all students interviewed” (p. 2). This finding would suggest that both athletes and non-athletes consider sport to be “set apart” from real life. Shield and Bredemeier discussed this finding in more detail, saying:

it is a commonplace experience in the world of sport to alter the way one typically thinks and feels about moral issues ... the reality is that many actions that may be seen as totally illegitimate in everyday life - such as inflicting pain on another human being may be accepted and even embraced as a routine part of some sport. (p. 3)

While the research was limited in the number of subjects interviewed and made no attempt to establish cause and effect, the findings offer support to the belief that participation in sport in itself does not necessarily lead to positive moral development.

The acceptance of sport as a morally separate context raises further doubts about claims that position sport as a natural catalyst for moral development. Rather, it offers support to those who consider that while sport has the potential to encourage positive social and moral development it depends on whether the sporting experience is specifically designed to achieve such outcomes and what the individual takes from the experience. Shields and Bredemeier (2001) concluded that, while:

Sport builds character is the cultural adage ... we believe that sport does no such thing. At least not automatically. If sport is to be of any positive benefit, from a moral standpoint, then deliberate effort and planning needs to occur. (p. 5)

Greendorfer (1987), in her summary of research on the ability of physical education to teach positive affective outcomes, concluded that the findings were inconclusive and could offer neither strong support nor strong rebuttal.

Other writers go further and consider that, in fact, participation in physical education and sport can result in negative social development (Hartman, 2003; Hodge, Sherburn, & Dugdale, 1999; Tinning, 1993). Laker (2000), when commenting on this possibility, acknowledged “that participation in sport and physical activity has the potential for detrimental, as well as desirable, personal development” (p. 83). Hartman (2003) regarded sport as a double-edged sword that can be misused as easily as it can be used productively, while Greendorfer (1987) commented that, “despite the popular belief that sport fosters good sportsmanship, builds character, and promotes moral and social development, several studies suggest that sport may be related to less, rather than greater demonstrations of such behaviour” (p. 61).

The potential for participation in physical education to lead to negative moral development has also been acknowledged by a number of writers (e.g., Laker, 2000; Siedentop, 1991; Soloman, 1997). Tinning (1993) was very clear regarding this negative potential in his discussion on learning in physical education saying that:

Physical educators often make claims about the capacity of physical education to influence students’ social cognitive and emotional, as well as physical development. Often our rhetoric assumes that this will happen automatically as students engage in physical activity and particularly team games. However, this is not the case. Students are just as likely to learn the values of competition, winning at the expense of others through cheating, aggressive play, valuing individual stardom rather than collaboration and so on. They may also learn that team games are a place where other students can take the opportunity to

visit violence upon them, that they are useless at physical education in comparison to others in class, or that they hate physical activity because it is a source of humiliation, of physical discomfort or simply boring. (p. 142)

While views about the outcomes that result from participation in sport and physical education may differ, most writers agree that the interest that sport holds for many can be used as a means of gaining commitment to programmes that then address more important social development issues. Larry Hawkins (2003), who has run sport orientated programmes for inner city youth for many years, refers to this power as “the hook”. He wrote that:

Sport is the way I reach out to people, parents and children alike. It is the hook, the carrot, the delivery system we use to attract the attention of kids and turn them into serious committed students. Without sport, or something of equivalent interest I would have no way of talking to kids, no way of communicating with them and convincing them of the value of education and the hard work and overwhelming commitment it involves. (p. 124)

A number of different factors influence whether physical education classes will have a positive, neutral or negative impact on moral development. One of the most important of these is simply whether it is an overt expectation of the programme. In his article on character development in sport, Lidor (1998) offered a concise summation of the position held by most:

It is impossible to conduct a regular physical education programme and assume that a character development process occurs by itself. This is probably the basic instructional mistake of many educators. They would like to develop character through game activities; however they do not create a suitable learning activity for this to occur. (p. 95)

As the above discussion illustrates, despite the long held belief that sport and physical education play a role in positive moral and social development, the relationship is neither simple nor automatic. It appears unlikely that positive outcomes will be realised simply through participation. It is more likely that such

outcomes will be realised only through carefully constructed experiences designed to take advantage of the possibilities provided. Coakley, (1998) in a discussion on whether sport offered a cure for deviant behaviour, identified the elements that she believed were necessary for sport to be successful in this objective. She concluded that it required participation in sporting activities that included a clearly expressed emphasis on: “(1) a philosophy of non-violence, (2) respect for self and others, (3) the importance of fitness and control over self, (4) confidence in physical skills and, (5) a sense of responsibility” (p. 164).

It should be acknowledged that some writers have signalled disquiet at the very concept that physical education should be used as a means of developing morality (Loland, 2006; Ross, 2004). This disquiet is often based around a belief that moral values are constructed and to a degree transitory. Loland (2006), in his discussion on the place of moral development in physical education, commented that this role should not be accepted uncritically:

I am not rejecting the possibility of justifying PE with references to socialization and moral development. On the contrary, as I intend to argue later, such references are key elements in an integrated justification of PE, However, the moralist justification gets it wrong. The uncritical instrumental use of PE to serve whatever morality a person, a group, or society takes for granted is ethically unacceptable. (p. 63)

Ross (2004) offered a clear personal view on his perception of the role of physical education in the socialisation of students. “I am suspicious - no I am downright scared – of curriculum documents that prescribe some form of social improvement as part of their aims, objectives, achievements objectives or learning outcomes” (p. 22).

The idea that physical education and sport has a role to play in socialisation and moral development appears to be generally accepted. When considering whether sport and physical education have the *capacity* to influence moral development, however, it is important that this consideration include an understanding of the well-

established theoretical framework on moral development. This theoretical framework has been developed by a number of writers over an extended period of time.

Moral Development Theory

The RM is concerned with the development of personal and social responsibility: concepts situated within the overall construct of morality. In general, morality can be considered to be concerned with thoughts, feelings and behaviours related to standards of right and wrong. Hodge (1989) in describing morality drew on the social psychology literature which he considered:

generally defines morality in terms of the individual developing an ethical concern for equality, fairness and justice in human relations (e.g. Kolberg, 1976), and also developing an ethic of responsibility and care for others' physical and psychological welfare (e.g. Haan, Aerts, & Cooper, 1985).

Issues such as fairness, rights and responsibility are also included and consideration is given to how people should conduct themselves in their interactions and relationships with others (Santrock, 2003).

Responsibility has usually been conceptualised in a way that includes reference to the separate but interrelated elements of personal and social responsibility. Stiehl (1993), for example, defined responsibility as, "taking care of ourselves, others, and our surroundings. Becoming personally responsible means being able to say I matter; I am valuable and worthwhile; I can be trusted to be accountable for my language and actions" (p. 40). Being socially responsible means communicating with others in a manner that ennobles them, while being responsible for one's surroundings means, "becoming conscious of the varied contexts in which we function; respecting property and taking care of equipment" (Stiehl, 1993, p. 41).

Within this definition, Stiehl believed, lay the potential for tension between being responsible for self and for others. He described this tension as, "the incessant conflict between two fundamental but contradictory senses: a sense of self (self-interest signifying self-realisation not hedonism or self-glorification) and a sense of self-lessness (altruism)" (p. 39).

Others, however, see no such conflict and incorporate both aspects into their definition of responsibility. Lickona (1991) described responsibility, as “incorporating both healthy personal development and caring interpersonal relationships. It includes taking care of self and others, fulfilling our obligations, contributing to our communities, alleviating suffering, and building a better world” (p. 44).

When defining responsibility in relation to at-risk youth Williamson and Georgiadis (1992) made a clear differentiation between self-responsibility and social responsibility, saying:

Self-responsibility is conceptualised as providing at-risk youths with the opportunity to take charge of their lives, learn to control their emotions, and promote self-development in an environment where the odds are against them. Social responsibility means developing a sensitivity to the rights of others - to promote the ethic of caring. (p. 14)

These definitions all require a commitment to self along with a commitment to moving beyond self to help and benefit others. This belief, that responsibility includes a valuing of self, is important. An individual who takes responsibility for others but not for their own well-being is not considered to be truly responsible.

The motivations underpinning students’ choices to behave responsibly are also important. Many writers (e.g., Hellison, 1996; Lickona, 1991; Morris, 1993; Schrader, 1990; Stiehl, 1993) believe that responsibility must be intrinsically motivated and be a positive response to a personal choice. Parker and Hellison (2001), when commenting on the importance of students’ learning to behave responsibly for intrinsic reasons, wrote:

Although teachers often focus on student behaviour, and with good reason, the definition of responsibility should be expanded to include attitudes and values. Unless responsibility is internalised as part of a student’s belief and value

system, it is much less likely to be transferred to settings beyond the gym. (p. 25)

Moral Development Theorists

In seeking to explain how people develop an understanding of morality, or what is morally right or wrong, theorists have, in the main, generally aligned themselves with one of two major philosophical paradigms. These are commonly referred to as the social learning approach and the structural development approach (Salkind, 2000; Shields & Bredemeier, 2001), approaches that are differentiated by, among other things, the role that cognitive interaction is believed to play in moral development.

The *social learning approach* considers that moral reasoning develops predominantly through the social interactions that occur as an integral part of an individual's development. This process has three major elements: (a) watching what others do and do not do, (b) perceiving reinforcements and penalties provided for one's behaviours, and (c) exhibiting behaviours in an effort to fit in with one's peers or comparison groups (Lidor, 1998). An example of this process in practice, in a sporting context, would be the situation where a player observes a team mate receiving positive reinforcement from the coach and other players for deliberately breaking the rules to win a game. If, as a result of these observations, the player breaks the rules in future games, receives positive reinforcement for their actions and perceives that this behaviour helps them be accepted by the team, then they have learned that this is an acceptable way to act.

For a social learning theorist a, "person is moral to the degree that he or she has learned to be" (Shields & Bredemeier, 2001, p. 586) and this morality is constructed by the society or cultural groups that supplies the learning. These beliefs lead to an understanding that there is no such thing as universal moral principles and that all moral learning is relative to the specific social context. Social learning theorists focus more on moral behaviour than on thoughts. For them, "what happens in the mind is fundamentally unknowable; only observable behaviour can be subjected to scientific observation" (Shields & Bredemeier, 2001, p. 586).

A *structural development* approach to the development of moral reasoning places greater emphasis on the cognitive processes that lead to a reorganising of thoughts and behaviours. This approach focuses more on moral thought than on action and is interested in the reasoning that is used to support moral beliefs. Structural developmentalists believe that the structures that underlie reasoning are able to be influenced and changed and it is this process of change that leads to moral development. Solomon (1997) explained that it was the challenges to what is believed that stimulates this reorganisation: “Hence cues in the external environment create a temporary cognitive disequilibrium and subsequently enhance the cognitive process [sic] influence moral development” (p. 34).

Moral development theorists have offered a number of theoretical models in an attempt to explain how moral development occurs. Influential among them was Piaget (1932), whose theory of moral development helped build an initial understanding of the process. Piaget developed his theory by observing children extensively and by interviewing them about ethical issues (Piaget, 1932). As a result of this exploration, he concluded that children think about morality in two distinct stages. The first stage, heteronomous morality, typically occurs at four to seven years of age and is a stage in which a child perceives rules and justice as unchanging and outside his or her control. “The child accepts from the adult a certain number of commands to which it must submit, whatever the circumstances may be. Right is what conforms with these demands; wrong is what fails to do so” wrote (Piaget, 1932. p. 335). Autonomous morality, the second stage, was considered to occur typically when the child becomes aware that rules and laws are created by people and that, in judging an action, one needed to consider the intention of the action as well as the consequences.

Lawrence Kohlberg built on Piaget’s work in developing what has been described by some as one of the most elaborate theories of moral development (Buchanan, 2001). Kohlberg (1984) believed that moral development was based primarily on moral reasoning and developed in a series of three stages, described as three levels of

reasoning - preconventional, conventional and postconventional (Hersh, Miller, & Feilding, 1980).

Preconventional reasoning shows similarities to Piaget's heteronomous stage and is concerned with external control through rewards and punishment. At this level, moral decision-making is based around the avoidance of punishment and a belief in the power of authority. *Conventional reasoning* is an intermediate level during which behaviour is impacted by both internal and external influences. During this stage, individuals value trust, caring and loyalty to others as a basis of moral judgements. There is a need to be a good person in both their own eyes and the eyes of others and a desire to maintain rules and authority that support good behaviour. At this level of reasoning, laws are generally upheld, except in extreme cases where to do so would conflict with other fixed social duties. *Postconventional reasoning* is a level at which morality is completely internalised and no longer based on other people's or societal standards. During this stage, awareness develops that individuals hold a variety of values and opinions and that these are constructed. There is also a belief, however, that some values and rights must be upheld in any society regardless of the majority opinion. A belief in the validity of universal moral principles is developed along with a personal commitment to upholding them.

For Kohlberg, progress is achieved in a series of steps through the levels of reasoning. This progress occurs as a result of cognitive engagement with issues of morality. His conceptualisation of moral development as a hierarchical process was challenged, however, by the argument that, "the moral responses in a given individual may vary contextually at any age" (Noddings, 1992, p. 22).

Kohlberg's emphasis on cognition as the basis of moral development has also been challenged by writers as lacking the essential element of caring (Buchanan, 2001; Noddings, 1992). A caring orientation, "implies that moral development occurs through a more nurturing approach rooted in interpersonal relations and defines responsibility as responding to others' needs" (Buchanan, 2001, p. 156). The conceptualisation of morality as being based on a caring orientation challenges the

traditional idea of universal moral truth. The context of the situation, the relationships between people and the need to care lead to a rejection of the belief that some truths are applicable in all situations.

An alternative approach to moral education has been developed by Noddings (1992). Her approach builds on the notion of caring as a basis for moral development. This approach identifies four key components as necessary for moral education to be successful: modelling, dialogue, practise and confirmation.

Modelling implies that the ethic of care should be reflected in the actions of the teacher. This modelling of care is important in that it demonstrates caring in action and, perhaps more importantly, reflects that the capacity to care may be dependent on adequate experience of being cared for.

Dialogue or discussion should work towards understanding and tolerance, particularly in the domain of relationships. Dialogue, as described by Noddings, is an open-ended conversation with neither party knowing at the outset what the outcome will be. It allows all involved to develop understanding while developing the personal connections that allow caring relationships to be maintained.

Practise is the opportunity to practise making moral decisions. Moral understanding is shaped in part by experiences and, therefore, “if we want people to approach moral life prepared to care, we need to provide opportunities for them to gain the skills in care giving” (Noddings, 1992, p. 28).

The final component of moral education, from this perspective of caring, is *confirmation*. Confirmation is the positive reinforcement of moral action when it occurs. For confirmation to be successful, motive as well as action must be considered. It is also something that cannot occur by formula: “Confirmation cannot be described in terms of strategies; it is a loving act founded on a relation of some depth” (Noddings, 1992, p. 24).

Nucci's (1997) work, which is closely aligned with the structural development philosophy, offers another distinct theory of moral development. Nucci (1987) when discussing moral development, chose to differentiate between morality and what he described as social convention. For him, morality is centred on a set of universal concerns for justice, fairness and human welfare that, "stem from factors intrinsic to actions: consequences such as harm to others, violations of rights, or effects on general welfare" (p. 87). Social convention, or what is socially "proper," was contrasted to morality by being described as shared, but arbitrary, behaviours that have developed over time to help maintain the smooth functioning of society. While conventions will differ between social groups, Nucci considered that the universal principles concerned with morality would be consistent across all social contexts. This concept of moral consistency, or "structural wholeness," (Nucci, 1987) is discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

In discussing moral development, Nucci (1987) identified five key educational practices that he believed needed to be present in moral education if teachers were to successfully engage in moral education that was neither indoctrinating nor relativistic.

1. Moral education should focus on issues of justice, fairness and human welfare.
2. Effective moral education programmes are integrated within the curriculum, rather than treated separately as a special program or unit.
3. Moral discussion promotes moral development when the students use "transactive" discussion patterns, are at somewhat different moral levels, and are free to disagree about the best solution to a moral dilemma.
4. Cooperative goal structures promote both moral and academic growth.
5. Firm, fair, and flexible classroom management practices and rules contribute to students' moral growth. Teachers should respond to the harmful or unjust consequences of moral transgressions, rather than to broken rules or unfulfilled social expectations. (Nucci, 1997, pp. 1-3)

These practices illustrate Nucci's belief in the structural development paradigm with its emphasis on cognitive processes that lead to a reorganising of patterns of thoughts and behaviours.

While there is some disagreement on how morality is learned, theorists have been consistent in identifying two factors that are catalysts in the process. The first is the identification of adolescence as a time when changes in moral beliefs are more likely to occur (Miller & Jarman, 1988; Nucci, 1997; Oser, 1990). Santrock (2003) identified it clearly as a time where what has been accepted previously becomes challenged:

Adolescents come to recognise that their set of beliefs is but one of many and that there is considerable debate about what is right and what is wrong. Many adolescents and youth start to question their former beliefs and, in the process, develop their own moral system. (p. 382)

The second factor identified is the importance of the peer group in mediating change, with the peer group helping individuals develop social understanding and challenging them to look at their moral beliefs. It is in the peer group, where power and status are of similar levels, that disagreements can be negotiated, with give and take, until they are eventually settled (Noddings, 1992; Schrader, 1990). Nucci (1987) also emphasised the importance of the peer group when making a comparison between the relative impact of teachers and peers in advancing the moral judgement of children. He wrote that teacher statements offered less in aiding moral development than student statements because teacher statements seemed, "far less relevant to changes in moral reasoning than statements by peers" (p. 91). Power, Higgins and Kohlberg (1989), in a similar vein, when describing the power of the peer group, commented that the behaviour of students was not, "primarily in the hands of teachers or school administrators, but in the hands of the dominating peer groups that set up the particular social climates in these schools" (p. 37).

The interest in achieving moral development has led to the contemplation of the role of moral education in schools. A number of questions arise, however, when considering both the appropriateness and effectiveness of this matter.

1. Is moral education a justified purpose for education?
2. If it is considered so, does it bring about the desired outcomes?
3. How transferable is moral learning from one context to another?
4. Why do people choose to act in ways that are not moral at times?

The question of whether moral development is a justified purpose for education is important. Kohlberg (1984) commented that it is not acceptable to jump from an understanding of a moral-stage sequence to the philosophical conclusion that attaining a higher stage should be the aim of moral education. The belief that moral development should play a part in education, however, has been generally supported by a wide range of writers (Hersh, Paolitto, & Reimer, 1979; Noddings, 2002; Power, 1989). Whether the inclusion of moral education in schools will actually achieve moral development is, however, less certain. Santrock (2003), having reviewed the research literature, believed that it was possible saying, "In sum, moral thought can be moved to a higher level through exposure to models or discussion that are more advanced than the adolescent's [current] level" (p. 384).

There has been some examination of moral development within the specific contexts of physical education classrooms. One study, (Gibbons, Ebbeck, & Weiss, 1995) involving three classes over seven months, had two classes receiving a moral education curriculum, one for all subjects and a second for physical education only. When these two classes were compared to a third class who received no structured moral education, it was found that students in the classes receiving the curriculum had higher levels of moral reasoning than those in the comparison class. Two other studies (Miller, Bredemeier, & Shields, 1997; Soloman, 1997) looked at physical education based moral development programmes. Both studies showed improvement in moral reasoning among students at the completion of their programmes. No

comment was made, however, on whether this impacted on students' moral behaviour.

The question of whether moral learning that has been achieved in one context will be then applied in another is of some importance within the context of this study. The intention of moral education is that structured experiences can help students develop an understanding of morality and that this understanding will, in turn, lead to positive moral behaviour that will be exhibited in a range of contexts. The idea of a consistent and transferable morality has been described as "structural wholeness" (Kohlberg, 1984) an attribute that led to moral reasoning remaining by and large consistent across a range of contexts. More recently, however, this concept has been challenged and many believe that moral reasoning is more context specific than originally postulated (Santrock, 2003; Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). In one classic investigation of context specific morality, 11,000 children were given the opportunity to lie, steal and cheat in a variety of situations. Close observation of their behaviour showed that while some were more inclined to lie, steal and cheat than others, most showed inconsistent behaviour. The researchers concluded that a completely honest or completely dishonest child was hard to find (Hartshorne & May, 1938). This inconsistency in moral action raises serious questions as to whether development in one context will necessarily transfer to others (Shields & Bredemeier, 2003), a key outcome embedded within the RM.

When considering the transferability of outcomes learned in physical education, there have been mixed results from the research on the issue. One study (Giebink & McKenzie, 1984) looked at the transferability of sportsmanship (sic) learned in a softball-based programme into other contexts. This research found that, while the students displayed improved sportsmanship (sic) by the end of the softball programme, this new behaviour did not seem to be evident in other contexts. Other studies (Mercier, 1992; Sharpe, Brown & Crider 1995), however, suggest that transfer, in fact, does occur. Laker (2000), drawing on research on the matter, has no doubts about the positive contribution that physical education can make or the potential for transferability of this learning in physical education into other contexts:

To a large degree, the argument that physical education contributes to overall personal and social development has already been won. It is known that this achievement can carry over into benefits for the community and society, and this has huge ramifications for the subject, its place and importance in the curriculum, and the emphasis placed on its teaching in schools. (p. 79)

One aspect of the debate on the development of moral reasoning has been consideration of the relationship between moral thought and moral action or behaviour (Noddings, 2002; Santrock, 2003). At a practical level, there appears to be little value in having individuals capable of demonstrating a high level of moral reasoning if they then proceed to cheat, steal and generally behave in immoral ways. Kohlberg (1984), when discussing the process of taking action on morality based decisions, identified two distinct stages. The first, 'deontic judgement', can be simply stated as a decision on whether "this is right or wrong". The second, the 'responsibility judgement', is a decision on whether to act on the first (Oser, 1990). Power et al. (1989) described the relationship of the stages simply, saying that, "a deontic judgement is a first-order judgement of the moral rightness of a particular action, whereas a responsibility judgement is a second order judgement of the will to act in accord with what one thinks is right" (p. 273). One of the influences, identified by Shields and Bredemeier (2001), on whether a person will act in accordance with the deontic judgement was what they described as "quasi-obligations." Quasi-obligations were justifications that could, "be used to avoid a judgement of responsibility that parallels their deontic choice" (p. 588). In their discussion, they identified "team loyalty" as an example of a quasi-obligation that might influence team members in a sporting situation to act in ways contrary to their moral beliefs.

The need to focus on moral actions is a consideration for many involved in moral education. Stoll and Beller (1998) commented on the relationship between thought and action when discussing the reality of teaching moral education:

Those who work in the area of active moral education are well aware that objective analysis of reasoning does not translate into moral behaviour ... moral

education is the process of planting a seed, and hopefully this seed has rich and fertile soil [in which] to grow. (p. 22)

Kohlberg's initial concentration on moral thought rather than action led to some criticism from those involved in moral education. Kohlberg acknowledged these criticisms as having some legitimacy in the introduction to a later text on his work, (Oser, 1990):

Continuing work in the schools led me to a view closer to that of most of my critics, however, that moral education must deal directly with action and not just with reasoning, with real-life situations and not just with hypothetical ones. (p. xii)

The identification of the need for moral action to be situated in real life situations is mirrored by a number of writers (Chu, 1995; Glasser, 1998; Hartshorne & May, 1938). Hersh (1980) combined comment on this need for real life contexts and the power of the peer group when he wrote, "students need to interact with one another on projects that are of real concern to them ... Mental structures are not merely products of society; they develop as a result of the interaction of the child and the world" (p. 22).

The strong movement towards using real life concrete situations as the basis for discussion, rather than hypothetical dilemmas, led to the development of democratic schooling, or the "just community" approach based on Kohlberg's philosophy. Oser (1990) wrote of this approach:

We must also establish the conditions needed for such development in the real life context of schools. This focus on concrete situations provides a means for coping with the problem of what has been called 'the psychologists' fallacy'. Moreover ... there is a better equilibrium to the relationship between moral judgement and moral action. (p. 83)

Nucci (2006) fully agreed with the power of fully integrating moral education into the real life context of schools. He claimed that:

Moral education should be integrated within the curriculum and not take the form of a special program or unit. A program that is simply inserted into the curriculum carries with it an inherent artificiality and discontinuity that renders such interventions incompatible with the general aims of teachers and students. The life of such programmes is generally brief. (p. 71)

The area of emotional intelligence (EQ) fits closely with that of moral development. Gibbs (1995) described emotional intelligence as:

understanding one's feelings, empathy for the feelings of others and the regulation of emotion in a way that enhances living ... the most visible emotional skills, the ones we recognise most readily, are "people skills" like empathy, graciousness, the ability to read a social situation. (p. 48)

The definition of EQ shows a close association with the commonly understood concepts of good moral behaviour or good character. The concept of EQ was originally developed from the observation that IQ seemed to have a limited relationship to success. The question asked was, if intelligence as we traditionally understand it is not a major factor in success, what are the qualities that determine who succeeds? The answer was a high level of emotional intelligence, the qualities that can be described as character (Gibbs, 1995).

While the original stimulus for interest in emotional intelligence was about encouraging success, developing emotional intelligence is as much about improving society and people's relationships. Whatever the motivation, the debate on emotional intelligence has led to interest in the idea that its development is a legitimate role of the educational system. Doty (2001), in her book on fostering emotional intelligence, wrote:

But in light of the societal problems just described, we are beginning to realize that we must incorporate programs that enable our students to learn to cope, to understand their own value, gain empathy for others, and manage and control their emotions. (p. 4)

For others (e.g., Liff, 2003), emotions profoundly affect the way, and what, we learn. While Liff's conclusion on the place of emotions and relationships specifically concerned education at college level, they are as equally applicable to other levels of education:

The good news is that emotional competency can be nurtured and learned throughout life. Postsecondary education ... is best when imbued with the awareness of the social and emotional factors that interface student behaviour and learning. Through this awareness and sensitivity we can ... support our students' development and, ultimately facilitate their academic success. (p. 34)

There has been some research that indicates that ability measures of emotional intelligence appear to predict prosocial behaviour and the absence of negative behaviour among adolescents and young adults (Salovey & Sluyter, 1997). If emotional intelligence does play a part in these important areas, then this would offer support for the belief that there is a justifiable reason for including the development of EQ into education programmes.

The effects of educational initiatives intended to improve levels of emotional intelligence are not clear cut, however. McCrae (1997), in discussing the possibility wrote that the, "traits from all five factors (of emotional intelligence) are strongly influenced by genes and are extraordinarily persistent in adulthood" (p.166). Other writers (Doty, 2001; Liff, 2003) believe that emotional intelligence can be influenced by educational means. Doty, for example, feels that the school:

offers the ideal conditions to foster appropriate responses to the student's emotions [and that] an abundance of research demonstrates that the implementation of emotional literacy classes truly does increase student coping skills as well as academic achievement. (p. 5)

Another well-known educational theorist, whose beliefs on what is important in education are aligned with those of moral educationalists, is William Glasser. While Glasser's emphasis has been on creating academic outcomes, his understanding of

the need for caring and quality relationships in schools parallels many of the theorists discussed already in this Chapter. Glasser believes that the external control, punitive management culture predominant in many schools has the direct effect of turning students away from quality learning. For him (Glasser, 1998b), success occurs in education when the management style leads to the students feeling that they have an element of control in their learning. He acknowledges, however, that this is not the predominant culture in many schools where:

The get tough, coercive boss approach is the main way in which schools deal with problem students ... boss managers are not comfortable with the idea of giving up the control that they believe is inherent in their traditional approach. (p. 29)

A number of problems arise, however, when the teacher maintains control using this traditional management pattern:

The development of a struggle for power between students and teachers leading to a cycle where the student learns less and resists more; the teacher coerces more and teaches less and ...the adversarial relationship that is established by this approach leads to low quality work and lack of engagement by the students. (p. 29)

The alternative management system favoured by Glasser is based on student empowerment where students acknowledge problems that arise and take shared responsibility with the teacher for developing a suitable solution (Glasser, 1998).

For Glasser, the importance of developing a caring relationship between the teacher and the students is essential for the successful teacher. For teachers, showing that they really care is of the greatest importance and vital to the success of the relationship. Glasser (1998) identifies caring and hard work as the essence of successful teaching, “students will do things for a teacher that they care for that they would not consider doing for a teacher they did not care for” (p. 45).

The following chapter will examine the Responsibility Model (RM). The chapter will give a detailed overview of the model and place the model in context with learning theory and more traditional physical education pedagogy.

CHAPTER THREE

The Responsibility Model

Introduction

This chapter examines the Responsibility Model, a pedagogical approach to the teaching of physical education that is at the centre of this study. The chapter firstly comments on the process of development and then describes the model in detail. This is followed by an examination of the model and its relationship to learning theory. As this study was implemented into a New Zealand secondary school it is necessary to consider the RM in relation to the expectations of the Health and Physical Education in the New Zealand Curriculum Document (Ministry of Education, 1999). After consideration of this relationship, the chapter concludes with a discussion on traditional pedagogical approaches to the teaching of physical education.

The Responsibility Model

The Responsibility Model (Hellison, 2003b; Hellison & Martinek, 2006) is a pedagogical model, developed with the explicit intention of teaching students to become more personally and socially responsible. The RM originally used sport as the major context, believing it had a level of interest for students that would help keep them engaged in the programme. During its initial development, the RM was implemented predominantly in clubs run in community centres, outside of normal school hours. More recently, the RM has been introduced into compulsory school physical education programmes where it has gained support as a worthwhile pedagogical approach for the teaching of physical education.

The RM was originally developed by Hellison, in response to his perception that physical activity programmes needed to be more relevant if they were to meet the true needs of an underserved youth. The model developed through practice with initial ideas being continually modified in response to the realities of experience. Hellison and Walsh (2002, p. 292) described the evolution of the model in the following way:

Back in 1970, in a gloomy high school physical education gym in a low income area of Portland, Oregon, an attempt at alternative youth programme exploration began, based on one person's convictions and steered by some rudimentary self-reflection. Within three years, replete with detours and dead ends, an early version of the personal-social responsibility programme model emerged. Now some 32 years later (and counting), the RM development continues.

In 'Goals and Strategies for Teaching Physical Education' (1985), Hellison spoke of the problems that had developed in schools as a result of the rapid changes occurring in society. He identified three major needs that he believed needed to be met by schools and school programmes. These were the need:

1. for teachers to gain and maintain control over the behaviour of students in their classes;
2. to help students develop their decision-making skills; and
3. for students to live more stable lives. (p. 8)

In relation to the first of these, Hellison believed that teachers need to gain control of students' behaviour because even a small number of "out of control" students has a negative impact on staff, students and the teaching-learning process. Such consequences, he believed, occurred when students were out of control or disruptive and demanding excessive amounts of a teacher's time and energy.

In relation to the second major need, he considered that students were often criticised for poor decision-making. He saw them, however, as receiving less and less guidance in making responsible decisions at the very time that they were faced with a greater number of choices than ever before. He considered that students, therefore, needed to be given both the opportunity to learn about and the opportunity to practice the skills of decision-making.

The third need he identified was to help students lead more stable lives. He argued that rapid social changes and related trends had led to an increase in confusion,

insecurity, isolation and alienation. He saw schools as having the opportunity to offer students a stable environment: an environment that, for many, was the only stability available in their often chaotic lives.

Hellison (1985) believed that schools needed to address these concerns while being more effective in finding ways for students to become more successful. “Schools must develop a clear mission, while still ensuring that neither participation nor learning in the subject matter of physical education is effected” (p. 9).

As a consequence of these beliefs, Hellison developed an approach to teaching/coaching that was initially described as “Taking Personal and Social Responsibility” (TPSR). This title has now been superseded and the approach is more commonly referred to as the “Responsibility Model”. Hellison has published extensively on the RM; (e.g., Hellison et al., 2000; Hellison, 1985;) and the description of the model that follows has been primarily based on these writings.

Integral to the RM are two structures. The first of these is a series of five goals, often referred to as Levels of Responsibility - most commonly observed via posters displayed in gymnasias or classrooms. The second is a five stage teaching structure that is used to develop lessons based on the RM. Underpinning these two structures are four themes that are the essence of the model and which should be present in all lessons.

Goals (Levels of Responsibility) of the Model

The five major goals/levels have been derived from the more generic purpose of teaching students to take responsibility for their own development and well-being and for contributing to the well-being of others (Hellison, 2003b). These goals/levels are:

1. Respect.
2. Participation and effort.
3. Self-direction.
4. Caring.

5. Transfer outside the gym.

The first three goals are concerned with students taking personal responsibility for their own behaviour, the fourth with developing students' understanding of their responsibilities to others as members of a group, while the final goal is associated with students taking the lessons learned/ goals achieved in physical education into other contexts.

As indicated, the five goals are generally conceptualised and referred to as "Levels of Responsibility" (see Table 4.1). Presenting the goals in this way has the advantage of simplicity, allowing students to conceptualise them as a cumulative progression from levels one to five. This helps students to understand the relationship between the levels and to self-evaluate and establish personal progressions.

There are, however, disadvantages with the notion of levels, including the fact that teachers sometimes use them to label students, while they also often ignore Level five, (Transfer outside the gym) which cannot be observed within physical education class time (Hellison, 2003). There are also difficulties with the concept of cumulative levels as students' behaviour will often range across a variety of levels during a lesson, which makes the allocation of a single level of behaviour for that lesson inappropriate. The difficulties associated with conceptualising the levels as a series of behaviours to be achieved in a sequence, culminating in students transferring learning to other contexts, has led to some teachers regarding all levels as being independent of each other. For these teachers, the levels are seen as independent goals, each with its own learning opportunities for students, which may or may not occur in a particular sequence.

The realities of poor student behaviour subsequently led Hellison to introduce a sixth level – Level 0: Irresponsibility (Hellison, 2003b). Unlike the other five levels, Level 0 does not relate to a desired goal but is an acknowledgement that some students will behave in an irresponsible manner that relates to none of the five targeted goals/levels.

Table 4.1 Levels of Responsibility

Level 0: Irresponsibility	Students working at Level 0 behave in a manner that negatively impacts on the learning of other students and the general environment of the class. At this level students are unmotivated and undisciplined. They do not participate willingly in class activities, deny personal responsibility for what they do or fail to do, and may feel powerless to change their lives. They lack sufficient self-control to prevent their behaviour impacting negatively on other students in the class and on the teacher.
Level 1: Respect	The issue of respect is introduced early into the programme because it is difficult for a group to function successfully if any of the members feel at risk. This level of responsibility deals with respect for the rights and feelings of others, and the need for students to take control of their own behaviour. This process shifts the responsibility for personal behaviour from an external authority to the student. Students working at Level 1 may not fully participate or show improvement in the subject matter of the class, but their self-control allows other students to learn and the teacher to teach. Self-control is important in that loss of control can have damaging effects for the student and others in the class. This control extends to including everyone in activities and to solving conflicts peacefully. These actions help to protect the rights and feelings of everyone in the class, and allow all to have a more positive learning experience.
Level 2: Participation and Effort	At this level the students' responsibility is to work on their personal motivation and to make the effort to participate fully in learning activities. This includes the responsibility to make an effort when the going gets tough. Students participate under the general supervision of the teacher.
Level 3: Self-direction	The third level requires students to demonstrate that they can take some responsibility for their own learning. This includes the ability to set their own goals, to work independently and without direct supervision towards achieving these goals, and to have the courage to make choices that may not be popular with peers. They can identify their own needs and

	interests and can begin to plan and execute their own physical education programmes.
Level 4: Caring	An advanced responsibility at this level is to help others by genuinely caring about and being sensitive and responsive to them, and by assuming leadership roles that will contribute to the group's welfare. Like self-direction, helping others (caring) is a choice students must decide whether to make.
Level 5: Outside the Gym	The most difficult level of responsibility is to implement the first four levels of responsibilities in other settings such as school, playground, home or street. If students are able to successfully implement responsible behaviour in the classroom they have a responsibility to both practise these behaviours in other contexts and to act as a good role model to others.

(Hellison et al., 2000)

Teaching Structure

While not intended to be formulaic, the RM has a five-stage structure intended to aid teachers in creating a teaching/learning environment suitable for the model. The intention of the teaching structure is to ensure that students are involved in decision-making and negotiation within the lesson and that they are given opportunities to experience taking responsibility. The five stages are:

1. Counselling time either at the start of or towards the end of the lesson.
2. An “awareness talk” to open the session.
3. The physical activity session itself.
4. Group meeting near the end of the class.
5. Individual reflection time to finish the classes.

Counselling time is concerned with providing an opportunity for the teacher to have individual conversations with students during the class. These conversations can occur at a number of levels, from simply establishing a personal relationship to the

discussion of problems that have arisen in class or at home. This counselling time is considered important and should be allocated time in most lessons.

An awareness talk is completed at the start of each session to refocus students onto the concept of responsibility, the goals/levels of the model and their own personal responsibilities (Hellison, 2003b). This process may involve a brief talk at the start of the session, or drawing students' attention to posters of the Levels of Responsibility displayed in the gym. A common method is to ask students to indicate the level of responsibility they intend working at for the session. This process can be as simple as the student physically touching the selected level poster as they enter the gym - a process referred to as "touching in" - or indicating the selected level to the teacher after the awareness talk. While this particular segment of the lesson is dedicated to focusing students' attention onto the concept of responsibility, every opportunity that presents itself to reinforce the message should be taken. These opportunities will occur both during and outside of the lesson time.

The physical activity segment is where the teacher addresses the subject curriculum while carefully integrating the requirements of the RM. The degree to which students will gain opportunities to experience taking personal and social responsibility will be strongly influenced by the pedagogical approaches selected by the teacher within the physical activity stage of the lesson. The teacher must select pedagogical approaches that allow students the opportunity to learn the subject content, while simultaneously giving them the opportunity to experience taking responsibility in a number of contexts. There is a wide range of teaching methodologies available to enable teachers to design specific learning experiences that will achieve these twin goals. Co-operative learning activities, Sport Education and a number of the styles from Mosston's Spectrum of Teaching Styles can be utilised for this purpose (Goldberger, 1991). The use of reciprocal teaching, for example (Mosston & Ashworth, 2002), places students in situations that allow them to make an effort, to show self-direction and to demonstrate care for others.

The important point is that whatever approach is chosen it should offer the students the opportunity to progress towards meeting the goals of the RM. The teacher's role in the physical activity segment of the lesson is crucial if a successful implementation of the RM is to occur. It is not sufficient to simply display the levels and to discuss the concepts with the students; there must also be a commitment to support the intent of the model with the appropriate pedagogy. At a simple level it is believed that students cannot learn to be responsible unless they are given the experience of being responsible.

Group meeting time is held near the end of the lesson and gives students, as a group, an opportunity to discuss events that have occurred in class. Problems that may have arisen during the lesson are addressed, with the intention of developing strategies to prevent them arising again in the future. This is also a time for teachers to highlight critical incidents that they have observed. Examples of behaviour that illustrate any of the levels are used as an effective way to instigate discussion. Group meeting time is also an appropriate opportunity to discuss application of the levels in contexts outside of the physical education classroom.

The group meeting is also designed to give students practice at group decision-making. These decisions are often based around such issues as conflict resolution or addressing problems that have arisen in the course of the lesson. This gives students a voice in the running of the class and an opportunity to reflect on the programme and their place in it. As Hellison (personal communication, 2002) commented, adolescents are often criticised for making poor decisions but are seldom given the opportunity to practise the skill of making decisions where there are real consequences. It is during the group meeting time that these opportunities often occur.

Reflection time is set aside at the completion of each lesson for students to individually reflect on their behaviour during that session. At this time, students are asked to indicate to the teacher how they felt they worked during the lesson. This indication can occur in a number of ways, from simple thumbs up or down to the

touching of the appropriate level poster on the way out. Reflection time can also be an opportunity for the one-to-one conversations that are valuable in reinforcing the goals of the model.

Themes

Intertwined throughout the structure, and integral to any authentic implementation of the RM, are a number of strong philosophical beliefs or convictions about teaching and learning. These beliefs are conceptualised by Hellison (2003a) as four themes - Integration, Transfer, Empowerment and Teacher-Student Relationships. These four themes are considered to be essential elements of the RM and, as such, they need to be fully integrated into any implementation of the model. To follow the structure without an underlying commitment to the themes is likely to lead to a superficial application that lacks the essential heart of the model. The first theme concerns the need for an obvious *integration* of the levels and strategies of the RM into the physical activity part of the lesson. It is considered imperative that learning about personal and social responsibility is seen by participants as an integral part of the lesson, rather than being an extra to the “real lesson”. Successful integration can be both a challenge and an opportunity. The ability to achieve integration requires philosophical commitment, pedagogical skill and a competent level of content knowledge in regard to both the RM and the physical education curriculum.

The second theme is concerned with the *transfer of learning* about responsibility to contexts outside of the physical education classroom. Hellison (2003a), in explaining his commitment to this particular theme, wrote:

I realised that transfer is really the ultimate point of teaching kids to take personal and social responsibility ... all along my sense of purpose, my vision, my passion, has been to help kids live better lives ... their lives don't end when they leave the gym. (p. 19)

The effective transfer of learning from physical education to other contexts is not seen as automatic and needs to be carefully planned for, and taught, by the teacher. The teacher needs to provide opportunities that stimulate students to consider

applying learning that has occurred in physical education to other contexts. During group discussions, for example, students can be asked about their levels of responsibility in other classes or at home.

The *empowerment of students* refers to the transfer of control and power from the teacher to the students. This transfer does not refer to an abdication of responsibility by the teacher but to a process that moves the teacher to a less central role. Pivotal to this process is the transfer of some responsibility and decision-making to the students. This is not an easy process for many teachers, especially those more comfortable with the teacher-dominated pedagogy often associated with sport and physical education. It is considered important, however, that students have the opportunity not only to make decisions but also to experience the consequences of their decision-making. For this to occur, students must be given responsibility. How quickly and to what degree this occurs is dependent on a variety of factors. Within a class, there will be students at differing levels of readiness to make decisions and to take responsibility. It is important that a range of opportunities be offered to students within the classroom to facilitate the gradual shift of responsibility from the programme leader to the programme participants.

The fourth theme, *teacher/student relationships*, concerns the need for teachers to establish positive and respectful relationships with their students. For this to occur, teachers must recognise and respect the individuality, strengths, opinions and capacity for decision-making of each programme participant (Hellison, 2003a; Hellison & Walsh, 2002). The importance of establishing relationships has been identified as a pivotal element in establishing an effective teaching/learning environment (Martinek, Hellison, & Walsh, 2004; Siedentop, 1994). Martinek et al. (2004) emphasised this importance when they commented that “During our combined 65 years of working with youth and teachers, we have found one constant that determines our success and failure: the power of relationships (p.401). The development of respectful positive relationships helps legitimise the teaching and learning associated with the RM. It would appear incongruent, for example, to have an antagonistic and aggressive teacher attempting to teach the values underpinning

the RM. Shields and Bredemeier (1995) clearly stated their position on the need for congruence in their discussion on promoting moral character through physical activity:

How instructors teach is probably just as important as what they teach. It is crucial that the methods of teaching not contradict the content of what is taught. If, for example, the instructor verbally affirms the importance of autonomous moral action but used autocratic methods, constructive moral education is unlikely. (p. 212)

The structure developed for the RM is considered to offer a framework within which teachers can develop their own versions of the model, to suit their own contexts and personal teaching philosophies. The degree of adherence to the framework that is necessary for it to remain under the umbrella of the RM is an important question. At which point does variation stop being a demonstration of the flexibility of the RM and become something different? Hellison et al. (2000) addressed this issue when he emphasised the importance of the underlying philosophy along with the need to take a flexible approach to implementation:

Although the notion of using a model sometimes conjures up some rigid recipe to which we must adhere, we use the term model as ... having a theoretical-philosophical focus and a body of supporting evidence, as well as actually being in practice, not just some college professor's brainstorm. That theoretical-philosophical focus is, in a sense, a spirit a "way of being" rather than a rigid formula, and leaders need to own and adapt it to fit their settings, students and style. Posting the responsibility levels on a gym wall does not necessarily mean that the spirit of the model is being practised in this gym. (p. 44)

In any description of the RM, reference should be made to this "way of being" as a way of teaching and relating to students, to demonstrate that the teacher understands the model's intentions at a fundamental level. While not easily measured, in an objective sense, it could be identified in a teacher by any observer with a deep

understanding of the model. This “way of being” is in fact considered more important than an adherence to the structures previously described.

The Responsibility Model and Learning Theory

The RM is an approach to coaching and teaching that was developed from practice, a process involving “self-reflection ... detours and dead ends” (Hellison & Walsh, 2002, p. 292) rather than as a practical application of theory. The RM as it has developed, however, shows an alignment with a number of established theories of learning. It can be situated within constructivist learning theory, situated learning, a humanistic approach to teaching and learning and student-centred learning

A major influence on the development of physical education pedagogy has been *constructivist theory*. There has been some movement evident among physical education teachers away from the traditional transmission model of teaching towards pedagogical approaches that have been influenced by learning theories situated under the umbrella of constructivism (Siedentop, 2002; Tinning, 1995). The following section will examine constructivist learning theory through the work of Piaget, Vygotsky, Lave and Wegner.

Piaget’s approach to learning (1932), which considers that knowledge is not transmitted directly from a person with knowledge to the learner but is actively learned by the learner through a process of self discovery, has been described as personal constructivism (McInerney & McInerney, 1997). Understanding occurs through a process of assimilation where new experiences are viewed and understood in relation to previous experiences (McCarthy & Schwart, 2000). This student-centred, individualistic approach, however, does not address the importance of socio-cultural influences that act as mediators of learning.

Vygotsky built on Piaget’s work with his development of social constructivist theory focusing on the relationship between the learner and social domains (Wertsch, 1990). He believed that learning occurs through interaction with the environment rather than simply as an individualistic process. For Vygotsky, interaction with others was a

crucial element in learning, with meaning being co-constructed by students through the social interactions, language and culture of their total learning environment (Ussher & Gibbes, 2002). During this process, teachers and significant others assume co-operative roles in guiding the learning experiences. This view of learning moves away from the Piagetian belief that, “children learn best when they self discover, to a position that advocates collaborative enquiry through which individuals appropriate information in terms of their own understanding of, and involvement in, the activity” (McInerney & McInerney, 1997, p. 5). For learning to be meaningful and ongoing, Vygotsky believed that social interaction needs to be continual and involve an active role for the learner.

An important feature of Vygotsky’s theory (Ussher & Gibbes, 2002) was his placement of learning into a cultural context. The interaction between people that occurs within a specific culture means that the learning that occurs is situated in that culture. Understanding, therefore, develops in a way that has meaning to the particular culture concerned. This process involves the evolution of the cultural group as a result of the collective activity of its members along with the development of the individual within the group (McInerney & McInerney, 1997).

Three common features have been identified in constructivist learning theory (Kirk, Burgess-Limerick, Kiss, Lahey, & Penny, 1999), (i) that it is an active process, (ii) that it is developmental, and (iii) that it is multi-dimensional. Constructivist learning theory claims that learning is an active process during which learners attempt to make sense of tasks in two ways: (i) as it relates to the environmental context, and (ii) as it relates to what they already know or can do. Motivation and readiness to learn are also taken into account.

Learning is also considered to be developmental because how a person learns changes as learning progresses. A beginner will learn in a different way to an expert. Motor learning theory offers an example of developmental learning in its progressions for the learning of motor skills (Schmidt & Wrisbery, 2004). The learner will start at the cognitive stage, move to the practice stage and eventually

reach the autonomous stage. It is only at this final stage, where physical skill repetition becomes automatic, that the performer is able to direct full attention to environmental cues. Maturation will also have an impact on learning. “This ongoing process of growth, development and maturation across the lifespan means that learning is never constant” (Kirk, et al., 1999, p. 11).

The third feature of constructivist approaches is that learning is multi-dimensional. A person will typically learn a number of things at any one time. When learning a simple pass in rugby, for instance, the student may also be learning something about acceptable gender roles in society as they relate to sport. They may be learning about teacher expectations, their own personal interest in learning new skills and their interest in physical exertion. During the interaction involved in the activity, they may also discover, for example, that the quiet boy has a great sense of humour and that their best friend does not like them being better than they are at something.

The constructivist paradigm in which interaction with others is considered a crucial element in learning (McInerney & McInerney, 1997) would appear to be closely related with the reality of the RM in both theory and practice. It is an association that has been noted by a number of writers (e.g., Laker, 2000; McInerney & McInerney, 1997; Ussher & Gibbes, 2002). The three common features identified by Kirk, et al., (1999) in constructivist learning - that it is an active process, developmental and multi-dimensional - are all visible in the RM. Participants in RM based programmes are actively involved in making sense of their learning as it relates to both what they already know and the environmental context in which they are participating. The way that participants learn in the model is developmental. As they gain experience and success in the model the opportunities change and participants find themselves in situations requiring different skills. A participant who is initially striving to meet the goal of respect, for example, is learning basic self-control in a situation that includes a level of teacher monitoring and supervision. As they gain experience and begin to take responsibility for others, they need to develop self-motivation and be empathetic to the needs of other students. This requires that the participants learn in different ways. The RM is also multi-dimensional in the learning that occurs. The model

attempts to achieve the twin goals of learning associated with the traditional outcomes from physical activity programmes and the goals related to personal and social responsibility. The close interaction with peers also ensures that there is ample opportunity for learning to occur at numerous and varied levels.

Lave and Wenger's (1991) work on *situated learning* extended Vygotsky's work by emphasising the importance of learning occurring in meaningful social contexts. For them, the key focus is the relationship between learning and the social situations in which it occurred: "Learning is located squarely in the processes of coparticipation, not in the heads of individuals" (p. 13). Rather than asking what kinds of cognitive processes and conceptual structures are involved, they ask what kinds of social engagements provide the proper context for learning to take place:

Learning is a way of being in the social world, not a way of coming to know about it. Learners, like observers more generally, are engaged both in the contexts of their learning, and in the broader social world within which these contexts are produced. Without this engagement, there is no learning, and where this engagement is sustained, learning will occur. (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 24)

For Lave and Wenger, learning is a social practice in which a person, "shapes their identity and their relationship with others and their society through learning the ways of behaving, values, knowledge, that is, the social practices, of their occupation (their community of practice)" (Tinning, 1993, p. 146). A community of practice (COP) has been described in a variety of ways. Lave and Wenger considered it as a set of relations among, "persons, activities, and world, over time and with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice. A COP provides the interpretive support necessary to make sense of its heritage" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 98). An alternative description considered that communities of practice are concerned with groups who share ways of behaving, values, knowledge and social practices and situated learning is concerned with learning the social practices that allow full participation in a COP (Tinning, 1993). Learners inevitably participate in communities of practitioners and that requires a new learner to master the knowledge

and practices that will allow them to become full participants in the sociocultural practices of the community

Learning, when viewed as situated activity, has a process called “legitimate peripheral participation” as a central defining characteristic (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Legitimate peripheral participation provides:

a way to speak about activities, identities, artefacts, and communities of knowledge and practice. It concerns the process by which newcomers become part of a community of practice. A person’s intentions to learn are engaged and the meaning of the learning is configured through the process of becoming a full participant in a sociocultural practice. (p. 29)

Situated learning requires the full engagement of the learner in all that is happening. It is concerned with a way of being in the social world, not a way of coming to know about it (Daniels, 2001). The relationship between cognitive understanding and the experiences that are occurring is tightly interwoven. Within the school situation, these interrelationships are often not fully acknowledged or incorporated into the teaching and learning process. For Lave and Wegner (1991) “conventional theories of learning do not offer a means for grasping (the importance of) their interrelations” (p. 55). The complexities of the learning environment are sometimes ignored in teaching with the concentration on the transmission of knowledge or, in the case of physical education, the teaching of motor skills becoming the only measure of success. The theory of situated learning emphasises comprehensive understanding involving the whole person rather than the simple receiving of a body of factual knowledge or the learning of isolated motor skills.

Lave and Wenger’s (1991) conceptualisation of communities of practice (COP) offers the potential to place the RM in the paradigm of situated learning. Kirk (1998) considers that one of the major problems with contemporary physical education is the incongruence between the learning in school physical education and the community of practices for which students are theoretically being prepared to participate in. He identifies a limited number of models that are attempting to prepare

students for participation including Hellison's Responsibility Model which he considers "is another new form of physical education that attempts to reproduce the community of self-regulating citizens (COP) by providing young people with the opportunities to be accountable for their actions using sport as the medium" (p. 382).

Kirk's comment that the RM is preparing students to participate in the COP of self-regulating students raises the interesting question of the implications when the learning from the RM is incongruent with the COPs in which students are expected to participate in. There is an underlying assumption that the COPs for which the RM is preparing students are more "acceptable" than others. It should be acknowledged, however, that, while the values promoted by the RM are accepted by many as positive and something to be aspired to, they are but one set of constructed values available to participants in our communities. The set of values promoted by the RM, therefore, have the potential to be disadvantageous for some students participating in COP's where caring for others, for example, may be seen as weakness and lead to negative consequences. In many business COPs, a value system that places caring for others as a major priority could well result in disadvantage and, in some street-based COP's caring could have potentially dire results for students who attempt to live these values.

The RM has consistently been identified as a model of teaching and learning that is associated with the humanistic paradigm (Hellison, 2000; Laker, 2000; Stillwell & Willgoose. C., 2006). There are generally considered to be two major aspects to humanistic education. The first is concerned with the teaching of the subject matter in a more human way and the second is the educating of the non-intellectual or affective aspects of the student "that is, developing persons who understand themselves, who understand others, and who can relate to others (Patterson, 1975, p. x). An alternative view (Loland, 2006) considered that " the key premise [of the humanist tradition] is that human beings are meaning-searching and meaning-constructing beings with the potential of becoming free and responsible moral agents" (p,65). For Loland physical education's movement orientation offers a concrete context in which to discover the answer to:

existential questions such as ...who am I? What can I do? Who are we? and What can we achieve together?”

According to the humanist argument, thematization of existential questions constitutes the very core of an all round liberal argument into free and responsible moral agents. Various school subjects do this in various ways ... PE has its own particular role as an exploration of our possibilities and limitations of embodiment and movement. (pp. 65-66)

The ideas expressed by both Patterson and Loland resonate with those associated with the RM. Proponents of the model would support the idea that they were attempting to educate in a more human way and that they were concerned with the affective domain. They would also agree with Loland's comments about meaning making and the development of “free and responsible moral agents”. At the centre of the RM is an exploration of self and the place of others and these existential questions are addressed in a variety of ways and in a variety of contexts.

Sherrill (1993) when discussing the relationship between humanism and teaching children with disabilities, described it [humanism] as an education philosophy that “pertains to helping persons become fully human (i.e., to realize and develop their human potential) ... and as an approach to education that emphasises self-concept, relationships with others, intrinsic motivation, and personal responsibility” (p. 128). This description would not be out of place if used to describe the intent of the RM.

The importance of good relationships has been consistently commented on by writers discussing humanism (Loland, 2006; Read, 1975; Sherrill, 1993). This has been mirrored by writers concerned with the RM (e.g., Cutford, 2000; Martinek, 2000; Hellison, 2003b; Parker and Curford, 2000) who have consistently identified positive and respectful relationships as being an essential underpinning for achieving success in the goals of the model. The importance given to this area can be seen in the identification of successful student-staff relationships as one of the four underpinning themes of the RM.

Patterson (1975) also emphasised relationships when describing the humanistic teacher as being one:

... who through establishing a personal relationship frees the student to learn. Learning can only take place in the student, and the teacher can only create conditions for learning. The atmosphere created by a good interpersonal relationship is the major condition for learning. (p. 98)

Patterson (1973) identified three major characteristics or conditions that when present identified the humanistic teacher. These characteristics were described as authenticity or genuineness, respect and empathetic understanding. By *authenticity* Patterson was referring to congruence between what the teacher was attempting to teach and their real self, their beliefs attitudes and values. Where this honesty does not exist, the likelihood of students learning what the teacher is intending is markedly reduced. The second characteristic *respect* involves a genuine respecting of students for who they are. This does not mean an unrealistic sanitising of the character of students but an acceptance of the worth of individuals including their imperfections and problems. A humanistic teacher may dislike some of the behaviours of some students but this does not equate to a dislike of the person themselves. The third characteristic *empathetic understanding* concerns the ability of the teacher to place themselves in the student's place and understand the issue from their perspective. What are the students' feelings, their perspective on what is happening? This kind of understanding is considered rare in education and has the potential to impact substantially on the relationships developed between teacher and students.

It is interesting to compare the concept of the humanistic teacher with the questionnaire developed by Hellison (2003) for teachers contemplating implementing the RM into their practice (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was intended to help teachers identify if their personal beliefs and philosophies were suited for teaching using the RM. The questions are concerned with such attributes as the ability to relate well to children and the valuing of them as individuals. It can be seen clearly by the questions selected, that the values and attitudes considered

suitable for teaching with the RM align closely to the values and attitudes associated with the humanistic paradigm. Central to the humanistic philosophy is a concern with the developing of relationships and a community of learning which is centred on the learner (Read, 1975). The questions included in the questionnaire have been selected to help identify teachers who are willing to establish this type of classroom culture.

Stillwell and Willgoose (2006) in their discussion on curriculum models commented that:

This (humanistic) model ... focuses on what the student should be rather than on what they should know ... emphasis is placed on [1] emotional concepts, including self-esteem, self-actualization, and self-understanding; and [2] social concepts, including cooperation, interpersonal relations and tolerance (p.58).

The development of a supportive emotional atmosphere in the classroom and the fostering of adequate emotional development is seen as being a legitimate and desirable goal of education within the humanistic tradition. It is acceptable to foster adequate emotional development and the goals of humanistic education include the development of good attitudes and feelings:

We need not only men [sic] who can think, but men who can feel, and who can act not only on the basis of intellect but of feeling as well. We need men who understand other men, who accept and respect others, as well as themselves, and who are responsible. (Patterson, 1973, p.21)

Along with the acceptance of goals related to emotional concepts is an acknowledgement of the legitimacy of social development as being an appropriate outcome for education. (Read, 1975). Humanistic education considers a major goal for education is the development of people who can successfully live together as fully functioning human beings (Patterson, 1973). In order for this to happen more successfully the goals include the development of empathy, conflict resolution skills and a range of interpersonal skills.

The degree of congruence between the RM and the humanism is not surprising considering that Hellison's philosophical alignment with humanism has been long standing. This interest is illustrated by the publication of his first book, *Humanistic Physical Education* (1973), early in his academic career. As discussed above the model displays a number of features that clearly illustrate the influence that humanism has had on the development of the RM.

This section of the study has considered the relationship between the RM and humanism. In Chapter seven this relationship will be examined further with particular reference to the RM as it was observed in practice in this study.

The RM is also firmly associated with student centred learning and is a model that seeks to place the student in the centre of the teaching learning process. The model's philosophical underpinnings are based on an assumption of the ability of students to take responsibility for their own learning. This commitment is illustrated by the establishment of self-directed learning as a major goal of the model and the identification of student empowerment, the transferring of power from the teacher to the students, as one of the four essential themes. (Hellison, 2003b).

The next section of this chapter looks at the RM and its relationship to the New Zealand Health and Physical Education Curriculum. This is important as the study is situated in the a New Zealand school physical education programme and, as such, needs to show alignment with the required physical education curriculum.

Relationship of the Responsibility Model to the New Zealand Health and Physical Education Curriculum

The New Zealand Curriculum Framework (Ministry of Education, 1993) was established with the intention of setting out "the foundation policy for learning and assessment in schools" (p. 3). This was a pivotal document that clearly articulated the educational direction that New Zealand was to follow. The intentions of the document were made clear in the framework:

[The Curriculum Framework] establishes the principles that give direction to all teaching and learning. It identifies the essential learning areas and skills, and defines the national achievement aims and objectives for all students in terms that are understandable to them, their parents and the wider community, as well as to teachers ... we need a learning environment which enables all our students to obtain high standards and develop appropriate personal qualities. (p. 1)

The Curriculum Framework identified seven essential learning areas, including Health and Physical Education. Underpinning the seven learning areas were “eight groupings of essential skills to be developed by all students across the whole curriculum throughout their years of schooling” (p. 17). These eight groupings were:

- Communication skills
- Numeracy skills
- Information skills
- Problem-solving skills
- Self-management and Competitive skills
- Social and Co-operative skills
- Physical skills
- Work and Study skills

A number of the essential skills have a direct association with the objectives of the RM (see Table 4.2).

Note, for example, Hellison’s (2003a) discussion on Level three of the RM: Level III⁴ self-direction, is intended to help students ... learn to take more responsibility for their well-being ... Level III also involves working towards an understanding of one’s needs, not just interests. Setting goals and self-standards and developing one’s uniqueness are aspects of this process ... even though most kids are oriented to the present, learning to choose and stay with activities that meet both long-and short-term interests and needs in some balance is one of the marks of mature self-direction. (p. 32)

⁴ Hellison uses Roman numerals on some occasions when identifying the different goals/levels.

These comments clearly align themselves with the essential skills of self-management and competitive skills. The RM also offers a number of objectives congruent with the development of social and cooperative skills, which is illustrated in Hellison's (2003) discussion of the outcomes associated with Level four behaviours:

Mature Level IV students possess the interpersonal skills of sensitivity and responsiveness, act out of caring and compassion for others, contribute to their community, and do so without expectations of extrinsic rewards. Working at Level IV ... requires the inter-personal skills of listening and responding without being judgemental or dogmatic, helping without being arrogant, helping only if the other person wants help, not becoming a rescuer, and learning to help others resolve differences peacefully and democratically. Students at Level IV need to recognise that others have needs and feelings just as they do, and they must learn to see and feel things from the viewpoint of others. (p. 33)

The Health and Physical Education curriculum is structured around four strands, four underlying concepts and seven key areas of learning. The four strands are:

- Strand A Personal Health and Physical Development
- Strand B Movement Concepts and Motor Skills
- Strand C Relationships with other People
- Strand D Healthy Communities and Environments

The RM would seem to have the potential to contribute to the achievement objectives associated with all four strands but it relates particularly strongly with Strand C - relationships with other people - in which, "students develop understandings, skills, and attitudes that enhance interactions and relationships with others" (Ministry of Education, 1999, p. 14). The achievement objectives are more specific outcomes linked to the key areas of learning. The achievement objectives are presented in eight progressive levels which are designed to meet the needs of students from year 1 to year 13.

Table 4.2 Essential Skills from the New Zealand Curriculum Framework that directly relate to the goals of the Responsibility Model

Essential Skills	
Self- Management and Competitive Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - achieve self-discipline and take responsibility for their own actions and decisions - take increasing responsibility for their own health and safety
Social and Co-operative Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - develop good relationships with others and work in co-operative ways to achieve common goals - take responsibility as a member of a group for jointly decided actions and decisions - acknowledge individual differences and demonstrate respect for the rights of all people - develop a sense of responsibility for the well-being of others and for the environment - participate effectively as responsible citizens in a democratic society

(Ministry of Education, 1999)

When examining specific achievement objectives at level five and six (appropriate levels for year nine and ten students) a number can be identified that could be met through implementing the RM. In level five, Strand C, two achievement objectives related to relationships (5C1) and interpersonal skills (5C3) are concerned with developing students' abilities to make good choices for themselves. The second achievement objective (5C2) is also relevant in its requirement that students demonstrate attitudes and values relating to difference. The examples given of difference include bullying, harassment and difference in relation to physical activity and sport choice. All three of these achievement outcomes can be met through the implementation of the RM within a school physical education department.

A similar situation is noted at level 6. All three achievement objectives situated in Strand C can be met specifically through implementing the RM. The first (6C1) identifies that students will demonstrate an understanding of how individuals and groups affect relationships by influencing people's behaviour, beliefs, decisions, and sense of self-worth. The second achievement objective (6C2) concerns students recognising their own and other people's rights and responsibilities to avoid or minimise risks in social situations and the third (6C3) is concerned with planning and demonstrating interpersonal skills to respond to challenging situations appropriately. The goal of self-directed learning in the RM is closely associated with achievement objective (6A2) regular physical activity. In this achievement objective students are asked to choose, implement, and maintain an appropriate physical activity programme that enhances their well-being. As in level five, the expectation that implementing the RM will not impact on meeting the more traditionally orientated curriculum goals means that other achievement objectives will still be achieved.

The four underlying concepts at the heart of this learning area are: hauora/well-being, attitudes and values, the socio-cultural perspective and health promotion. The RM similarly appears well-suited to contribute to aiding the learning associated with all four concepts. There is a particularly strong relationship between the RM and objectives related to attitudes and values, described in the document as, "a positive, responsible attitude on the part of students to their own well-being; respect, care and concern for other people and the environment; and a sense of social justice" (Ministry of Education, 1999, p. 14).

In 2006, the New Zealand Ministry of Education released a draft consultation document on a revised national curriculum. This document was the result of a comprehensive review of the current curriculum involving teachers and representatives of other interest groups throughout the country. This review found, "the existing curriculum was well-founded but that it needed to be revised with changing needs and priorities in mind" (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 3). A major change signalled in the document was the restructuring of the eight essential skills groupings to five key competencies, which were defined as "the capabilities people

need in order to live, learn, and contribute as active members of their communities” (p. 8). The five competencies are identified as:

Managing self, which involves self-motivation, a “can-do” attitude and the ability to establish personal goals, make plans, and set high standards for oneself.

Relating to others, which involves interacting effectively with a diverse range of people in a variety of contexts. This competency includes the ability to listen actively, recognise different points of view, negotiate, and share ideas.

Participating and contributing concerns participating actively in local, national, and global communities ... the competency includes a capacity to respond appropriately as a group member, to make connections to others, and to create opportunities for including people in group activities.

Thinking is about using creative, critical, meta-cognitive and reflective processes to make sense of and question information, experiences, and ideas.

Using language, symbols, and texts is about working with and making meaning of the codes in which knowledge is expressed. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 11)

These key competencies are expected to be addressed for all students in all curriculum areas, including health and physical education.

It is apparent that the 2006 discussion document remained committed to the learning outcomes related to personal and social development identified in the 1999 New Zealand Curriculum Framework. It could be argued, in fact, that restructuring these outcomes as key competences has given them greater emphasis than they had in the previous document. The first three competencies of managing self, relating to others, and participating and contributing, seem to be aligned with the RM in a similar way to the essential skills.

In the draft consultation document for Health and Physical Education (Ministry of Education, 2006) the authors described why students should study in the Health and Physical Education area:

Through learning and by accepting challenges in health-related and movement contexts, students reflect on the nature of well-being and how to promote it. As they develop resilience and a sense of personal and social responsibility, they are increasingly able to take responsibility for themselves and contribute to the well-being of those around them, their communities, environments, and society. (p. 16)

This statement clearly aligns the RM with a major emphasis of the Health and Physical curriculum - that of developing personal and social responsibility and the ability of students to contribute to the well-being of others (Martinek et al., 1999).

The Health and Physical Education curriculum is derived from the Curriculum Framework and the philosophy, structures and objectives of both documents are very much aligned to the principles of the RM, and, in a sense, provide a strong justification for the RM being considered a desirable pedagogical approach to meeting the stated curriculum objectives. The continued identification of outcomes related to personal and social development in the 2006 consultation document adds further strength to this belief.

It should be acknowledged that the Health and Physical Education Curriculum, as it is conceptualised' is a contested document. There is a strong belief among a number of physical education teachers that the direction the curriculum has taken has attacked the very foundations of physical education (Culpan, 2000). For many, the essence of physical education is movement and fitness and to shift away from these areas towards curriculum outcomes aligned with, for example, the RM, is seen as devaluing core beliefs. Culpan (2000) considered this disagreement in terms of what he referred to as the "dreaded curriculum", meaning the dread that teachers hold for curriculum that is incongruent with their valued beliefs:

For the technocratic physical educator, the 'dreaded curriculum' does not provide enough time for students to be engaged in fitness and skill development and also engage themselves in processes requiring reflection, critique and the establishment of personal and social meaning. They argue that to clutter

movement experiences with sophisticated cognitive thinking is to constrain physical education and limit the physical, and in so doing devalue the subject. (p. 26)

The legitimacy of physical education playing a role outside of fitness and activity has also been challenged by educationalists outside of physical education. In response to the draft Health and Physical Education document, the Education Forum, a conservative group of school principals generally considered to be aligned with business interests, submitted a 111 page critique. The Forum argued strongly that the aim of the curriculum should be to maintain Health and Physical Education's "particular and respected place in the curriculum" (p. 95). The essence of this "place" was in the key learning areas of Food and Nutrition, Physical Activity and Outdoor Education. The Forum also argued for the removal of Strand C, "relationships with other people", considering this to be outside of the brief for Health and Physical Education (Educational Forum, 1998).

Traditional teaching pedagogy

At this point it is important to offer a comparison to the RM by discussing more traditional approaches to the teaching of physical education. In this study (discussed in full in chapter five, methodology) two comparison classes were taught physical education based on what is described as "traditional" physical education pedagogy. There are difficulties, however, in clearly defining what would be considered traditional physical education pedagogy. These difficulties include the varying pedagogical approaches available for the teaching of physical education and the differing philosophies held by physical education teachers. To give full consideration to 'traditional' physical education pedagogy it is necessary to examine key elements central to its development.

Historically a major influence on physical education has been its close relationship with the military. Estes, (2003) in his discussion on the history of physical education, emphasised this influence when he commented that "all cultures have a militaristic bent that requires some form of physical education" (p. 9). The use of physical

games and activities as a means of preparing citizens for war has been common practice for many centuries. There is acknowledgement, for example, that the poi, while offering opportunities for recreation and enjoyment among Maori within Aotearoa /New Zealand, also served the purpose of developing and improving manual dexterity important for using weapons such as the mere and taiaha⁵. In a similar way, archery competitions of old honed the skills of bowmen and martial arts developed in numerous eastern societies as a means of preparing for combat. Redmond (1988), in discussing the historical background of physical education, summarised the impact of the military, stating:

There has been an enduring military factor in the modern world's concept of fitness, which may be regretted for its motive or justification, but which must be recognised for its significance. Even the age of push-button warfare still needs its fitness-inducing equivalents to the ancient Greeks' race-in-armor and spear-throwing contests. (p. 24)

In many countries, structured physical activity was introduced into schools with the intention of ensuring that boys would be fit enough to serve in the military if required. For example, the inclusion of physical training (PT), or physical drill as it was also known, in British and Commonwealth schools during the early part of the last century, was driven by the experiences of the Boer and First World Wars, where large numbers of war-time recruits were judged to be unfit for service.

The emphasis on physical training, particularly when implemented by instructors straight from the military, ensured that teacher-directed, command-style instruction was established as the pedagogical norm in many countries. Metzler (2000) described the "the physical education method" in the USA as involving:

a direct and formal approach that called for teachers to closely follow accepted procedures and which gave students a limited role in the operation of classes. Essentially, the teacher gave direction and the students followed them. Most activities regardless of context and grade level were instructed by this singular approach. (p. xxiii)

⁵ Mere and Taiaha: Traditional Maori weapons

In New Zealand, this relationship was firmly cemented in 1877 by the Education Act, which made specific provision for PT to be included into the school day. This requirement led to Education Boards appointing drill sergeants to take physical drill, initially for boys only, in public schools. Physical drill involved an instructor, often ex-army, at the front of a group, leading students through a series of specific exercises combining demonstration with shouted instruction (Stothart, 2000).

The direct influence of the military on the content of physical education slowly receded with the introduction of a more liberal curriculum. “Drill” was gradually removed from the curriculum and Dano-Swedish gymnastics, also known as callisthenics, became an important aspect of physical training programmes. However, while containing a wider range of movement opportunities, callisthenics shared a similar pedagogical philosophy to physical drill. The teacher remained very much centre stage with students concerned with replicating correct forms of movement. As with drill there was limited scope for student input or cognitive involvement (Stothart, 2000).

In New Zealand, it was not until 1950 that the notion was acknowledged that physical training was too restrictive a concept and physical training was replaced by a physical education syllabus. Through the 1950s, games and sport gradually began to replace drill and callisthenics as the content of physical education. While the content was undergoing change, the predominant pedagogy used by teachers in New Zealand remained largely teacher directed (Stothart, 1994).

There have been a number of changes made in physical education curriculum. These changes, however, do not seem to have brought about a substantial movement away from traditional teacher-centred pedagogy. Kirk (1999), in discussing the realities of change in practice, found that, while changed curriculum expectations gave teachers the opportunity to introduce new pedagogical approaches to their teaching:

the old militaristic or command style of teaching remained influential in certain important respects. Information still flowed in one direction only, from the

teacher to the student. It was the student's job to follow the teacher's instructions as closely as possible. Learning was thought to have occurred when the student could reproduce the skills in a form that closely resembled the teacher's instructions and demonstrations. (p. 4)

This reality would lead Tinning to write that the teacher directed, teacher in full control, teacher as the ring master model has dominated physical education (Tinning, 1995). He and his colleagues expanded on this theme in a subsequent article (Tinning, Macdonald, Wright, & Hickey, 2001) when they stated that, in Australia at the time, "Most would consider that the predominant pedagogy relied on a transmission model of teaching where the teacher is assumed to be the authority who transmits information and skill to those who are less expert" (p. 50). For many teachers of physical education, the teacher remains the expert and the "empty bucket" analogy is commonly used to describe the teaching learning equation (Kirk et al., 1999).

Salter (1999) found a similar situation in contemporary New Zealand physical education, where:

Teachers tend to be comfortable using direct instructional approaches, and transmitting information and skills of content areas in which they feel competent. Within New Zealand physical education the dominant pedagogy is clearly what Tinning (1991) describes as performance pedagogy, which is founded on how to teach physical education to improve (movement) efficiency ... thus neglecting the potential of providing transformative rather than replicative physical education programmes. (p. 12)

Teachers in New Zealand have been strongly encouraged by physical education academics and the Ministry of Education to move away from the traditional methodologies and to use a range of more student-centred teaching methods. They have been encouraged, for example, to look at issues of pedagogy, including power sharing, when addressing concerns with teaching Māori students (Salter, 2000).

The 1987 Physical Education Curriculum document (Department of Education, 1987) was quite forthright in its expectations that teachers should embrace alternatives. It stated that:

Physical education by its nature demands that a variety of teaching methods and strategies be employed. Many different methods of teaching, either direct or indirect, have been shown to be successful and teachers should not limit themselves to one approach. (p. 6)

The Draft Health and Physical Education in the National Curriculum Document (Ministry of Education, 1997) was even more specific in its requirements. In discussing teaching approaches it stated that:

While quality programmes in this curriculum can be developed around different teaching approaches, quality teaching will always involve teachers in:

- Using a wide range of student centred learning processes characterised by interactive and co-operative learning strategies.
- Being flexible in their choice of learning activities and contexts to ensure relevance for learners. (p. 24)

While there has been considerable encouragement, and in fact an expectation, that teachers will move away from traditional ways of teaching this generally does not seem to have happened. For many, the traditional teacher-directed pedagogy has remained the norm. It seems to offer security in an often potentially insecure teaching environment and gives professional credibility with peers.

One non-teacher-centred approach to teaching that has gained a high profile within New Zealand physical education is Sport Education. a pedagogical model developed by Daryl Siedentop (Siedentop, 1994) from The Ohio State University. Siedentop believed that the traditional ways of teaching sport in physical education were largely inconsequential and ineffective. He felt that students were not given the opportunity to experience the multiple levels of learning and enjoyment that were in many ways the justification used for including sport into the physical education curriculum. Siedentop identified three primary goals for junior sport programmes: the educative

goal, a public health goal, and the elite development goal. Of these, it is the educative goal that he considered should be most highly valued (Kirk, 2002).

In *Sport Education: A Retrospective*, Siedentop (2002) described the role of Sport Education as being:

To help students become competent, literate, and enthusiastic sportpersons. I mean competent in the sense that they are knowledgeable games players. I mean literate in the sense that they understand and value sport, and can distinguish between good and bad sport practices. I mean enthusiastic in the sense that they participate and behave in ways that preserve, protect, and enhance sport cultures. These purposes have a strong cultural emphasis; Sport Education has always been defined as a process through which sport cultures might grow and prosper as humanizing influences in the lives of nations and their citizens. (p. 409)

A further insight into Siedentop's purpose can be seen in the following comments cited by Kirk (2002):

Sport Education not only develops skills and strategic knowledge required by players but also the social and ethical capabilities of players. As young people are socialized into a sport, they learn to defer gratification, to submit themselves to regimens of practice, to accept the authority of the rules, and to appreciate the rituals and traditions of a sport. (p. 407)

Of note in the practical application of Sport Education in the classroom is the devolution of many of the roles of the teacher to the students. An integral aspect of Sport Education is the requirement that students take responsibility for such key roles as team selectors, coach and captain. Students are also expected to fulfil obligations for refereeing, duty, recording results and a range of other responsibilities associated with a sporting competition. These roles and duties, when associated with the long period of time allocated to each Sport Education season, place a high level of expectation on the students.

Sport Education is a pedagogical approach to teaching physical education that has gained both credibility and acceptance among many physical education teachers. The successful integration of this model into professional practice has added impetus to the call for physical education to move away from its traditional ways of teaching and to take on board pedagogical approaches based on the constructivist paradigm.

While the success of the Sport Education model (Siedentop, 1994), may not have exactly opened the floodgates, it has, however, released some new pedagogical 'water' into physical educational classrooms. Tinning (1995) identified the potential for this outcome when he wrote that, "one of the most exciting things about Sport Education ... is that it has put issues of pedagogy back on the agenda of physical education. Sport Education is very much about pedagogy" (p. 20).

Physical education then has been traditionally associated with a strong teacher-centred, transmissive pedagogical philosophy. This predominant pedagogy has been firmly established and seems resistant to change. The historical association with the military, with its strict discipline and adherence to prescribed exercises as practised by "drill instructors", has influenced the degree to which direct or command-style teaching is practiced in physical education today. The pragmatic requirement of teaching physical education, often away from the structured classroom situation, has also impacted on the way teachers choose to teach. The need to manage large numbers of students in safety and comfort has encouraged teachers to maintain a teacher-centred approach to teaching. That this approach has seemingly been successful in practice has further encouraged its continuance. Teachers have also been influenced by a culture that equates strong control with successful teaching and any appearance of loss of control as a sign of a lack of teaching ability (Buchanan, 2001).

The influence of constructivist theory has had some effect on physical education pedagogy with the introduction of a number of models of teaching based on its perspectives and principles. The success and acceptance of the Sport Education model, in particular, has enabled teachers to achieve a glimpse of other ways of

teaching, and this has increased the possibility of other models, including the RM, being accepted into practice.

While there have been a number of consistent historical influences on the development of physical education pedagogy, the way in which individual physical education teachers choose to teach differs, depending on a number of factors. These include their professional preparation, the culture of the schools they are teaching in, their personal philosophical beliefs and their experiences of teaching.

The use of the word ‘traditional’ in this study is not intended to indicate one particular way of teaching, or to suggest that it is traditional in the sense that all physical education teachers teach this way. Rather it is an acknowledgement that teachers use a number of pedagogical approaches in physical education and that these differ from the way that RM classes are taught. For many teachers of physical education, traditional teaching could perhaps best be described as ‘eclectic pragmatism’; an approach that used various combinations of student and teacher-centred teaching in whatever ways they think will best meet their goals.

In making a comparison between classes taught using different pedagogies it is important to be confident that a clear differentiation was maintained throughout the study. Details of the means used to ensure that a clear differentiation in teaching pedagogy was maintained between the RM and comparison classes are included in Chapter Six.

The following chapter is a review of the research literature on the Responsibility Model.

CHAPTER FOUR

Literature Review of Research on the Responsibility Model

While the development of this model has appeared to answer the question “what’s worth doing” for a number of teachers and youth workers, the companion question “Is it working?” has raised some concerns in the academic community. For example, scholars such as Shields and Bredemeier (1995) and Newton and her associates (Newton, Sanberg and Watson, 2001) have lamented the lack of evidence to support RM’s claims. Practitioners, on the other hand, appear to be more concerned with whether the model makes more sense than what they are currently doing, and whether they can implement it. (Hellison, 2002, p.294)

This chapter offers an overview of research completed on the Responsibility Model. As part of this overview the chapter identifies a number of major themes that have emerged from the research. The chapter considers the strengths and weaknesses of the research methodologies used in this research and concludes with a discussion of criticism offered to the model.

The Responsibility Model was initially developed as a physical activity programme designed to meet the needs of underserved youth (Burrows & Wright, 2004). The initial model has evolved in response to a constant re-examination of the philosophical underpinnings combined with the pragmatic realities of practice. This development has generally been driven by practitioners whose primary concern has been to bring about positive outcomes for the participants in the programmes, rather than any concern to establish strong research support. This emphasis has resulted in less research being undertaken to date than perhaps might have been expected. The model has, however, received some research scrutiny (Balderson & Sharpe, 2005; Fraser-Thomas, Cote, & Deakin, 2005; Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006) although this is predominately from researchers intimately involved with the teaching and practical implementation of the RM programmes. While the research remains limited, both in the number of studies completed and in the breadth of methodologies used, there has been a steady increase in research interest over recent

years (Hammond-Diedrich & Walsh, 2006; Hellison, 1993; Hellison & Walsh, 2002; Wright, White, & Gaebler-Spira, 2004)

During the initial stages of the RM development, teaching and research on the model generally occurred in community-based, out-of-school programmes involving voluntary membership (Georgiadis, 1992; Lifka, 1990; Martinek, Mclaughlin, & Schilling, 1999). The model has more recently been introduced into schools where it has acquired a reputation among some teachers as a viable and effective way to teach physical education. Research on the model in the physical education context has been limited, and the reputation it has acquired is based essentially on observation and word of mouth. The emergence of new approaches to teaching in this way is reasonably common, with the legitimisation process often being referred to as “teacher tested” (Siedentop, 2000).

While acknowledging the reality of the “teacher tested” status of the model, the limited research support to date has prompted concerns about the validity of claims of the model’s success (Newton, Sanderg, & Watson, 2001). These concerns are not limited to the RM, however. Hartman (2003), in his examination of research on sport and recreation programmes, in what he described as the “social problems industry”, found that what research had been completed tended to be, “descriptive, mainly single programme based evaluations conducted primarily for the purposes of funding and development”. He concluded from the research that, while there was no indication that these programmes did not work, “we do not have the empirical, social or scientific evidence to say with certainty that they do” (p. 119).

Research interest on the RM has been building over recent years, an increase illustrated by the growing number of studies completed on the model in practice. Hellison and Walsh (2002), in a review of the RM-related research, identified 26 empirical studies that looked at the impact of the RM on underserved and/or at-risk children. This review of research indicated that the number of studies being completed was increasing steadily, as shown below.

1970s:	1 study
1980s:	2 studies
1990-1995:	6 studies
1996-1999:	11 studies
2000-2001:	6 studies

The 26 studies reviewed predominantly involved evaluations of programmes that were implemented in real life situations. Schoenfeld (1999) believes that this is an acceptable process in terms of educational research:

Sometimes you have to build something to see if it will work... and then you have to study the hell out of it ... this kind of approach does not represent a weak alternative to conducting controlled experiments but a different option altogether. (p. 12)

Of the 26 studies identified, six were published articles in theory or research-based peer reviewed journals, seven were published in practice-based peer-reviewed journals and three were published in peer-reviewed books or as chapters in books. Included with the peer-reviewed studies were a number of unpublished theses and dissertations. This lack of peer-reviewed research has led to some criticism of claims made about the success of the model (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). Proponents of the model, however, have expressed frustration at these criticisms of the lack of “gold standard” research (Hellison, 1996; Martinek, 1997; Martinek, 2000). Hellison (2002) questioned the whole process of “academic rigour”, which he saw as serving a gate-keeping role for the publication of research. He considered that this role was potentially limiting of important research that could not be easily confined to the traditional requirements of methodological design. He and a colleague commented, for example, in their review of literature (Hellison & Walsh, 2002) on the reasons for including a number of studies that had not gone through the process of peer review: “These so called less rigorous studies have been included for a variety of reasons, the most important being that what passes for rigor may in fact restrict important evidence and alternative research designs” (p. 152).

The vast majority of the research on the RM has been descriptive in nature, with case studies being a particularly popular approach, (e.g., Buchanan, 2001; Cheffers, 1997; Compagnone, 1995; Georgiadis, 1992; Martinek et al., 1999). The predominance of this approach has prompted some reservations. It should be acknowledged that a number of these reservations seem influenced by beliefs held about the limitations of case study research. Researchers of the RM have generally rejected such concerns. The research on this model falls mainly into either the pragmatic or interpretivist categories because for many programme evaluators the “postpositivist approach simply does not transfer well to real world contexts” (Hellison & Walsh 2002, p.296). For these researchers, emphasising the principle of strict objectivity or separating the researcher from the real world context, increases the risk of their missing the essence or what is of most importance in the model (Hellison & Walsh, 2002).

Hellison (2000), in his chapter on evaluating programmes, argues for the importance of researchers being closely connected with the programmes they are evaluating:

The authors in this book [Youth Development and Physical Activity] not only plan programs, but actually work with kids that attend them. This places them in a good position to know what, who and when to evaluate. It also puts us closer to information derived from evaluation ... outside evaluators are often unfamiliar with the social and economic constraints of the programs' settings, the various dispositions of the kids in the program and personal values of the individuals running the program. If we truly want the evaluation strategy and the findings to relate to what we do with our kids, then we must be involved with the development, delivery, and application of the evaluation program. (p. 214)

Irrespective of the “methodological glasses” through which the research on the RM is viewed, the reality is that people intimately involved with the teaching programmes have been undertaking much of the research. A case study with its collection of data from multiple sources arguably offers the opportunity to provide a thorough and in-depth understanding of a complex situation. It is research, however,

where the “ultimate value of the insight offered is reliant on the insight, sensitivity and integrity of the researcher” (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1985, p. 452). It is the researcher whose interpretation of the data gives it meaning. This raises questions about the potential for bias and selective interpretation of results. Proponents of the RM, however, argue that this criticism is generally unfounded, believing that the results obtained from a number of different contexts both supports the integrity of the research processes and the effectiveness of the model (Martinek & Hellison, 1997).

While acknowledging this view, an alternative viewpoint would consider that the concentration of research using descriptive case studies has raised the need for the RM to be examined through a wider range of methodologies. This is not to challenge the veracity of the epistemologies underpinning the previous research or to suggest that there is a “best way” of verifying the worth of the RM. Rather it is an acknowledgment that alternative approaches to examining the RM in practice offer different viewpoints that have the potential to strengthen our understandings of the RM in practice.

Research on the model using control or comparison groups is one area that is notably limited. For example, only one quasi-experimental study (Cummings, 1997), an unpublished doctoral thesis, was included in Hellison and Walsh’s (2002) review of the research on the RM. No other research on the RM, using either quasi or true experimental research methodologies, has been found. It does need to be acknowledged that much of the research on the model has been completed with underserved youth and that this contextual reality places limits on the potential to use more traditional quasi-experimental or experimental research methodologies.

Martinek (2000), when discussing the use of control or comparison groups with underserved youth, commented:

Although this strategy seems sound from a pure research perspective there are two problems with it. The first is an ethical concern: what happens to the kids on the waiting list? Are they ignored or put on hold just for the sake of research? The second concern relates to the more practical issues regarding group

comparisons. It is extremely difficult (if not impossible) to determine a “true control” group in this type of work. Although poverty, racism, and societal indifference are common denominators among underserved youth, each youngster brings into a program circumstances and daily experiences unique in severity and scope. (p. 224)

Martinek (2000) also argues that the practical requirements of the RM place it in a situation where more traditional evaluation would be both inappropriate and ineffective. In discussing how evaluation should be shaped, he wrote:

... we must account for many complex factors when examining programs for underserved youth. Creativity enables us to attend to the multiple roles, values, and situations inherent in youth work. Consequently, there is no best way to design or conduct a programme evaluation. (p. 213)

One study (Balderson & Sharpe, 2005) used a multiple treatment experimental approach to investigate the effects of personal accountability and personal responsibility instruction on a number of selected behaviours in four classes of fourth and fifth grade students. While not based on the RM, the study had a number of similarities in the intent, including the improvement of social behaviour and student conflict resolution. The authors were confident that their research had shown that “empowering students to take leadership roles ... [was] a potentially effective way to reduce undesirable social behaviour and increase desirable social practices” (p. 82). The researchers were also confident that the use of an experimental approach to the research was both appropriate and effective. They considered that the positive results obtained from their approach was important “given the criticisms from the behavioural tradition within the quantitative science perspective that much of the educational treatment work emanating from a qualitative paradigm suffers from measurement challenges and a lack of empirical substantiations with regard to treatment implementation” (p. 82).

Generally, researchers on the RM argue that the context of their work, the students they are working with, and the realities of their practice mean that the research

methodologies used to date are the most suitable and appropriate (Hellison, 2003b; Martinek, 2000; Parker & Hellison, 2001). They do acknowledge, however, that there are limitations with this approach, including that the lack of sufficient controls in the majority of the research completed does not “permit generalisations to populations” (Hellison & Walsh, 2002, p. 297).

While there appears little likelihood of a true consensus being reached on the “best way” to research programmes such as the RM, perhaps a sensible and pragmatic answer is the stance taken by Hellison and Walsh (2002) in their review of literature. After recognising the predominance of case studies in research on the RM, and arguing the legitimacy of this methodology, they address the interest in more traditional research approaches: “Despite these advantages (from case study research) the interest in post-positivist programme evaluations among many funders and policy makers suggest that future RM studies should include a more equitable balance of research designs” (p. 301).

Emerging Themes

What then has been found in the research on the RM to date? An examination of the research has identified a number of themes. These include changes in student behaviours related to the goals of the RM (Hellison & Martinek, 2006; Hellison & Walsh, 2002; Martinek, 2000) the impact of the model on students’ classroom behaviour and issues related to classroom management and control (Buchanan, 2001; Mrugala, 2002); teachers’ uncertainty of success in achieving these goals (Cutforth, 1997; Georgiadis, 1992); empowerment of students (Martinek et al., 1999; Stiehl, 1993); the transfer of learning to other contexts (Cummings, 1997; Kallusky, 2000; Martinek et al., 1999); Attitudes of other Teachers to the Responsibility Model (Georgiadis, 1992; Hellison et al., 2000; Mercier, 1992); the impact of teaching the RM on teachers and the difficulties they have faced when implementing it (Buchanan, 2001; Mrugala, 2002); student voices about what they think of the programmes and what they have learned from them (Lifka, 1990); Affective Domain (Kirk, Macdonald, & O'Sullivan, 2006; Rink, 1998; Tinning, 1993) and an

examination of the RM when integrated with the Sport Education model (Hastie & Buchanan, 2000).

Changes in Participants' Behaviour Related to the Goals of the RM

A number of studies (Hellison & Martinek, 2006; Lifka, 1990; Martinek et al., 1999; Parker & Cutforth, 2000; Wright et al., 2004) have attempted to establish whether students participating in programmes based on the RM have *exhibited changes in behaviours related to the Model's goals*. The results from these studies would offer general support for the belief that participation in programmes implementing the RM can lead to improvement in such areas as self-control, effort, self-direction and helping others (Hellison & Martinek, 2006; Martinek, 2000). In Hellison and Walsh's (2002) literature review of research on the RM, of the 26 studies reviewed nine were identified as offering strong support for improved self-control, six for improved effort and five for helping others. Another group of studies was identified as reporting similar improvements but the results were only supported by weaker evidence. In this second group, four studies supported improvement in self-control, two improvement in effort, two improvement in helping others and six improved self-direction.

It should be noted that while positive outcomes were reported in a number of studies this was by no means the case in all of them. A number of the studies did not report improvements in what could be reasonably described as core outcomes for the RM. Improvement in self-control, for instance, was not reported in three of the 19 studies that examined the impact of the RM on programme participant's improvement in programme goals. From the same 19 studies no improvement in effort was reported in eleven. While insufficient methodological detail of the studies was offered to allow definitive judgement to be made on the results, it is a potential area of concern regarding many of the claims made about what can be expected from the Model.

Management and Control

In reviewing the relevant research, it quickly becomes apparent that the impact of the model on *students' classroom behaviour and issues related to classroom*

management and control were important considerations for many of those implementing the model (Buchanan, 2001; Cutforth, 1997, 2000). For teachers, this is a pragmatic concern, with few likely to consider pedagogical approaches that may lead to a lessening of classroom control. It is doubtful that even the teachers most strongly committed to the goals of the RM would consider implementation of the model if this was to lead to any immediate or long-term deterioration in their classroom cultures through increased problems with management issues.

The impact of the RM on student behaviour is aligned with changes associated with the four goals as identified in the previous section of this chapter. While changes may occur in individuals as they begin, for example, to improve self-control and management the discussion in this section is concerned with changes that occur within the whole group.

The relationship between the RM and classroom control and discipline is paradoxical in many ways. While teachers are naturally concerned with the need to maintain control in their classrooms, the essence of the RM calls for teachers to transfer power and a degree of control to the students. For many teachers, both the anticipation and the process of giving up a level of control is unsettling (Buchanan, 2001).

While some teachers are initially attracted to the RM by their interest in developing responsibility in their students, for others it is often a search for an effective way of managing students that first led them to the RM. A survey of 52 teachers who were using the RM in schools (Mrugala, 2002) found, “some changes [to the model] seemed suggestive of teachers wanting to use RM more as a tool for discipline, or as a device to simplify grading” (p. 133). One teacher quoted in that research stated:

Yes, I use it also as a behaviour management tool in which classes receive a star on the board for demonstrating levels as a whole. A silver star for outstanding and caring levels, blue for responsibility level, green for involved, red for irresponsible. Each star is worth points and at the end of the week teams with the most points are announced as leaders and teams to be proud of. (p. 133)

What effect then does the implementation of the RM seem to have on student behaviour? The review of the research literature suggests that generally the implementation of the RM had a positive effect (e.g., Cutford, 2000; Georgiadis, 1992; Hellison, 1990b; Martinek & Hellison, 1997). A number of researchers commented on a positive change in the “feel” of the group and a perceived reduction in management problems (Hellison, 1988; Hellison et al., 2000; Schilling, 2001; Stiehl, 2000). One project (Compagnone, 1995) measured student behaviour using ALT-PE⁶ (Siedentop, 1991) and found that the two boys observed increased their amount of time on task during the activity segments of the physical education lessons. The short duration of the intervention and the small proportion of the lesson observed were, however, limitations in this study. A number of writers have also offered anecdotal evidence of positive behaviour changes in students and classes (Martinek, 1997; Stiehl, 2000; Wuest, 1999).

While there is evidence of improvement in behaviour, the realities of practice mean that teachers need to ensure that the behaviour of students is such that all students are physically and psychologically safe. This requirement can be threatened by the need to create an environment that provides opportunities for students to learn personal and social skills. The balance between the two needs can be difficult to achieve. Many teachers felt that their need to control students’ behaviour impacted on their ability to teach in ways that would allow students to gain the maximum benefits in personal and social development (Cutforth, 2000; Hellison et al., 2000; Martinek et al., 1999). Cutforth (1997) reported at the end of his first year working with an after school programme in Denver:

As the year progressed, it become clear that the large class size coupled with the challenging behaviour of several students was creating a conflict between my personal and social responsibility goals and my classroom management strategies ... throughout the first year of the programme my journal provided evidence that management issues were causing me to abandon my preferred

⁶ Academic Learning Time-Physical Education. ALT-PE is an observational system used by researchers to analyse the different behaviours of students within the physical education classroom.

flexible and informal teaching style, hindering the overall effectiveness of the programme. (p. 133)

Management issues also had a detrimental effect on the experiences of some students in this programme:

My inability to deal effectively with some of the more difficult students meant that, on occasions, they verbally abused other students. Therefore, some programme members did not always experience a psychologically safe environment and thus were not regular attendees. (Cutforth, 1997. p. 134)

Georgiadis (1992) was also worried about the effects on students of the aggressive environment present during the initial sessions of his programme. He worked consistently to develop in the students an understanding that, “respecting each other and controlling emotions were necessary, because constant fighting and name calling created a hostile, unpleasant environment for both teaching and learning” (p. 15). He was pleased to find that, “by the end of the eight week project verbal and physical abuse was virtually non existent” (p. 16).

Teachers’ uncertainty of success

Establishing whether, in fact, change had occurred has caused some difficulties both because of the inherent problems in measuring progress towards personal and social goals and the small degree in changes of behaviour often observed. *Teachers’ uncertainty of success* was a common occurrence even among the most experienced practitioners (Georgiadis, 1992; Hellison, 1990). Cutforth (1997) when reflecting on his three years of work with underserved elementary school students, said, “often I have real doubts about the success of the programme and its impact on the needs of the students, and these uncertainties provoke much self-questioning” (p. 139). Hellison (1998) when reflecting on the outcomes of a three month martial arts programme for court referred high school students, made comments that mirror many others:

What to make of all this? They did spar and learn to control their intensity. They did become more involved in an activity. And they did follow up on their commitments more than they had in the past. However, these changes, and others like them seem miniscule in comparison to the awareness Level guidelines (to be controlled, involved, responsible, caring individuals) and I wondered from time to time if I was making any difference at all. (p. 28)

Often success has been measured in small incidents that demonstrate change. In the same programme, for court-referred boys, a series of volleyball games was arranged with university staff:

By the fourth game, which was scheduled at the end of the program, the boys shook hands with their opponents after losing their match for the first time without the staff telling or encouraging them to do it. This incident may not seem like much ... but changes like these are the only kind I usually see. (Hellison, 1988, p. 21)

While acknowledging that the changes can often seem miniscule, a more optimistic perspective on the perceived lack of progress was offered in a discussion on the small improvements in retention rates recorded at an apprentice teacher basketball club:

Although the retention data in this study can be disheartening for those who do not have experience in truly underserved communities, these data in fact reflect considerable staying power for many of the participants ... they reflect major life changes, especially among students selected for participation based on their discipline problems in school and in a neighbourhood where the high school graduation rate is well under fifty percent and violence and drug trafficking are epidemics. (Hellison & Wright, 2003, p. 379)

The initial stage in students' learning to be responsible may well be the development of a cognitive understanding of the goals of the Model. These goals are conceptualised in most programmes as levels and it is intended that students develop an awareness of their meaning. This does not, of course, mean that students will

necessarily behave in ways indicative of the level of their understanding. A six-week project examining the effect of the RM on the specific behaviours of four targeted male students (Compagnone, 1995) showed an increased awareness of the concepts of personal responsibility and in language associated with the model. This awareness did not lead to an observable change in behaviour: “they were able to tell each other to have self control but not exhibit any themselves” (p. 61). That said, the limited time of six weeks for this intervention may well have impacted on the lack of behavioural change.

Georgiadis (1992), in a study of an eight week after school programme, found that, “students initially were able to verbalise the values and their importance, but struggled to live them in practice” (p. 16). Hastie’s (2000) analysis of participants in a programme combining sport education and the RM found that, “these boys reached the stages of awareness and reflection respecting the goal levels ... on the preseason test they achieved a 100% standard on knowledge of the goal levels” (p. 320). In an attempt to establish whether this cognitive understanding transferred to an understanding of their behaviour in practice, students were asked to make a self-assessment of their behaviour. These self-assessments were then cross-checked with assessments made by independent observers. It was found that, “in nearly all cases our perceptions matched the student’s choice on the post lesson reflection sheet” (p. 321). Again, while the students understood the levels and could identify correctly the levels associated with their behaviour, this did not necessarily mean they behaved at the higher levels.

Student Empowerment

The process of progressively shifting responsibility and control from the teacher to the students is central to the philosophy of the RM (Martinek, 1999). For students to learn about responsibility, they need the opportunity to experience situations in which they have been given the power to be responsible. The ability to shift power towards the students in a meaningful way is dependent, however, on the teachers having an underlying belief that students have strengths that give them the capacity to make good decisions, to be responsible and to be successful (Bulger & Townsend,

2001; Hellison et al., 2000). The process of shifting power from the teacher to the student requires the teacher to be willing and able to share power with the students in a genuine way. Two programmes based in the Greensboro and Chicago public school systems illustrate clearly the willingness of teachers to emphasize the empowerment of students (Martinek et al., 2006): "... empowerment becomes the heart and soul of these clubs. It plants the seeds of confidence for future leadership roles" (p.144).

To entrust students with power to make decisions, and more importantly to make mistakes, has not been an easy process for many teachers (Cutforth, 1997).

Buchanan's (2001) research into the implementation of the RM in a sport camp for at-risk students, found that a number of the instructors seemed unwilling to let go of the control necessary to empower the youngsters. This was despite the fact that the camp administration accepted the goals of the RM as being appropriate and staff received some in-service training and resources to support their implementation of the programme. While posters of the levels were displayed prominently, the degree of actual engagement with the RM was limited for most staff. Many "did not see past the levels as a management program to the potential of the model for self-awareness and well-being" (p. 163). For a number, issues of control were paramount and acted as barriers to implementation. Some staff, "despite the fact that they had provided their own interpretation of the levels, and despite their apparent acceptance of the concepts of the model seemed unable or unwilling to relinquish enough control to enable responsibility to develop" (p. 164). The perceived need for control was the paramount consideration for most of the instructors at the camp with the result that:

The levels were associated more with behaviour than performance, and little attention was given to individual growth and improvement or caring for others. A fundamental aspect of TPSR [taking personal and social responsibility] is that youngsters demonstrate self-control. The young participants in this study were more than capable of that but were given infrequent opportunities to take responsibility for and control their own behaviour. (p.165)

The vital importance of allowing students to be responsible, and the difficulties associated with allowing this to occur, was emphasised by Wright et al. (2004) when discussing the RM and its potential for implementation with students with disabilities.

For a student to take on responsibilities and feel empowered in an adapted physical activity program, instructors must be willing to relinquish some of their control and share some of their power. This subtle but yet critical shift in thinking may be the largest obstacle to successful implementation (p. 85).

Closely related to the process of power shifting is the process of giving students the opportunity to make decisions. An underpinning belief of the RM is that students should be placed into positions that encourage them to make decisions individually and as a group (Hellison & Martinek, 2006; Martinek et al., 2006). This allows students practice at decision-making and at accepting the consequences of their decisions in a reasonably controlled and secure environment. A number of writers have supported the educational worth of developing student decision-making ability (Alderman, Beighle, & Pangrazi, 2006; Carter & Kucharewski, 2005; Solmon, 2003). Bulger and Townsend (2001), for example, in an article on promoting responsible decision-making in physical education, wrote that, “physical education professionals should employ instructional methodologies that facilitate the development of these higher order cognitive skills” (p. 19). This concept was tested in one study (Prusak, Treasure, Darst, & Pangrazi, 2004) that looked at the effects of offering choices to groups of adolescent girls in physical education. A total of 1,110 girls in 42 classes was randomly assigned to either “no choice” or “choice” groups. The results of the study showed that the choice groups showed significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation, needed less external control and were less amotivated. The researchers concluded that:

student motivation in the physical education setting can be increased by including a variety of activities and then allowing students to choose which best suits them. It supports a thoughtfully designed curriculum that allows choice while at the same time holding students to high levels of accountability. (p. 27)

Decision-making is an area that has been examined in programmes based on the RM. One after-school basketball programme based in Gabrini Green, a housing project in inner city Chicago, was designed to encourage students to develop the ability to make responsible decisions (Williamson & Georgiadis, 1992). Students were encouraged to make decisions about the class structure and the extent to which they wanted to participate. While the initial response to this responsibility from the students was negative, careful structuring of the programme saw students steadily increasing their decision-making throughout the programme. In another after-school basketball programme (Hellison, 1993), students were gradually introduced to the concept of students calling time-outs during games. While the time-outs were called by teaching staff at first, “eventually the students are encouraged to call them and to handle the problems without any help from the staff” (p. 67). A number of students were found to develop confidence in making the decision to call time-outs for a variety of reasons, including addressing issues such as abusive behaviour.

A key concept in the RM is to allow students to take responsibility for aspects of their programmes. A common finding among the researchers has been the often surprising ability of students to meet this challenge successfully. In an inner-city basketball programme (Williamson & Georgiadis, 1992), students were taught how to perform appropriate stretches and then took turns to lead the group in their warm-ups. The majority of students were also able to take responsibility for their own learning in a number of ways, including skills practise and by designing practice stations.

In another study that explored the impact of the RM on a martial arts programme for students with diplegic cerebral palsy (Wright et al., 2004), students were encouraged to take on various responsibilities. All students, for example, were asked to take warm-up activities and to practise and then lead the class in practising individual skills. Despite the range of disabilities and the relative youth of some students (four to thirteen years of age), the researchers reported that “all [students] eagerly took on the leadership role” (p.75).

Transfer of Learning to other Contexts

A crucial measure of success for the RM is its ability to ensure that what participants learn about being responsible in the context of the programme is *transferred to other contexts*. A criticism of many of the programmes that attempt to work in the area of developing personal growth is that there is no evidence of change in behaviour once the context has changed (Hellison et al., 2000). One-shot deals (Stiehl, 2000) where students are involved with programmes for short periods of time seem to have little lasting effect. Court-referred students, for example, who completed a series of ropes courses (McBribe, cited in Steihl, 2000), demonstrated changed behaviour during the time they were involved in the programmes but none showed a change in behaviour at their group home.

For programmes to be considered successful they need to demonstrate that they have the capability to effect change outside the particular context in which they are situated. This transfer of learning is not necessarily a natural one but one that needs to be carefully planned and taught. It is important that students develop both an awareness of the values of the skills being taught and an understanding of their usefulness and importance in other contexts. This is a central concept for the GOAL and SUPER programmes, programmes that, while not specifically based on the RM, are developed with the intention of teaching life skills through sport. These programmes are based on the premise that teaching for transferability of learning is necessary if programmes are to have a lasting effect. The teachers or leaders in these programmes have an important role to play in this development: (Danish & Nellen, 1997):

Teaching leaders need to help their younger peers understand that they possess valuable, transferable skills. If the participant is unwilling to take a risk and try to apply the skill in another setting, the teacher may teach the youth how to take the necessary risk. The leaders also may provide the social support necessary to help them transfer a skill. (p. 110)

While teachers can teach specifically towards transfer, the degree to which this occurs may be influenced by other factors: “The process of internalising an

understanding of responsibility into a student's belief and value system may well be a key factor in their ability to transfer understanding to other contexts" (Parker & Hellison, 2001, p. 25). The personal values of students have also been identified as barriers to the successful transfer of learning related to responsibility to other contexts (Hellison & Martinek, 2006) "devaluing the school experience, possessing combative values, and feeling helpless in meeting teacher expectations were frequently mentioned in the mentor journals" (p. 619).

The results of research attempting to establish the degree to which learning from participation in the RM is transferred to contexts outside "the gym" is mixed. Research on "Project Effort", a sport and mentoring programme designed to foster personal and social responsibility, looked at the transfer of values (Martinek et al., 1999). The researchers were interested in looking at the behaviour of students in the club and how it compared with their behaviour in other classrooms. A portfolio was maintained for all students in the club. This portfolio contained information and comments from the directors, teachers and the students themselves. The portfolios were analysed and coded and a matrix of behaviours developed. Behaviours in the club and other classrooms were then compared. The data showed that the students improved in task persistence and respect for others in the gym context. It did not, however, show that this transferred into other classrooms where, "goal setting was a persistent problem for the kids. Likewise, incidences of self-control, respect, and caring for others were not as high in the classroom as in the gym" (p. 223).

This research also looked at teacher reprimands, office referrals and grade point average. Data were collected over four, nine-week grading periods spread evenly throughout the year. The researchers were interested to find if participation in Project Effort impacted on student behaviour in the home classrooms. Over the year, a slight improvement occurred in the average grade point average for students in the programme. Teacher reprimands decreased substantially with students in the programme reducing the number of reprimands they received from 40 in the first nine-week period to 10 in the last. This contrasted with the average number of

reprimands for the class as a whole which reduced from 41 to 28. A small reduction also occurred in office referrals, reducing from 11 to nine.

One study looked at a before-school basketball coaching and an apprentice teaching programme (Hellison & Wright, 2003). The principal of the school hosting the club believed strongly that values and behaviours learned at the club were transferred into the school context. She offered a strong endorsement for the transferability of the learning when she stated, “despite the fact that the club only serves about 15 kids at a time in a school of 600 ... club members’ positive leadership in school had changed the culture of the school” (p. 371).

In the same programme, 43 end-of-year evaluations were completed between 1993 and 2000. All evaluations asked, “Has the club improved you as a person or helped with anything other than basketball”? Of the 43 responses, 38 were in the affirmative and, of these, five gave specific examples of improvements outside the gym that participants attributed directly to the programme. Twenty evaluations between 1999 and 2001 asked students, using a three point Likert scale, to rate whether they were responsible in a variety of ways within the programme and out of it. When asked about being responsible in class, 88 responses said they were doing a “great job” 40 indicated “okay” and 12 felt that they “needed work”. Students’ responses to whether they were being responsible outside of the programme showed a different distribution:

Fifty of the responses indicated that students felt that they were doing a ‘great job’ ... Fifty-four of the responses indicated that participants thought they were doing ‘okay’ ... thirty-six responses indicated that participants felt they ‘needed work’ in this area. (p. 376)

One research project (Cummings, 1997) was interested in finding out if there was a link between attending a RM programme and future performance at school. Cummings compared a non-participant group with a group of former club members. Quantitative analysis was then completed on both groups of students for dropout rates, grade retention (repeating a class) and absenteeism during the next year at

school. It was found that no student who had completed the basketball programme had dropped out of school, while 34% of the non-participant group had done so. No significant difference was found, however, between the two groups in absenteeism or grade retention. While a strong relationship was identified between being a programme member and staying at school, no attempt was made to attribute a cause-and-effect relationship.

In one programme (Hammond-Diedrich & Walsh, 2006), a deliberate attempt was made to develop transfer by selecting students from four RM based programmes and placing them in leadership roles teaching groups of younger students at a university sponsored programme. A variety of data sources were used to investigate the programme, including formal interviews, lesson observations and field notes. Overall, participants reported enjoying the programme and the leadership opportunities it supplied. Each of the leaders made mention of the transferral of their learning in the RM programmes to their roles in the leadership programme. A number of the leaders also commented in their interviews on the positive impact the programme had had outside of the gym context. These included reference to situations at home and at school where they believed they had developed greater empathy with the frustrations involved in parenting and teaching.

The ability of the RM to promote learning that is transferable to other contexts is a crucial justification for the importance and relevance of the model. If it can be shown that social behaviour learned in one context will be displayed in others, this will have far reaching social implications. It is, therefore, of interest to note, that in Hellison and Walsh's (2002) review of research on the RM they identified 11 studies that specifically investigated the effectiveness of the RM on transferring RM related goals to other contexts. All of these studies identified that some degree of transfer of learning had occurred although three studies also identified that no transfer had occurred in specific areas that were being examined.

One study (Sharpe, Brown, & Crider, 1995) evaluated an elementary physical education programme that, while not based on the RM, had a strong emphasis on the

development of positive social skills. The study evaluated the impact of the programme on student behaviour in physical education classes and in their regular classrooms. The researchers found that, in the physical education classroom, students spent more time actively engaged and less time off task. They also reported an increase in student leadership and independent conflict resolution behaviours. The researchers reported that similar changes were observed in the regular classroom. They concluded that there was a, “functional relationship between the social curriculum (in PE) and student behaviour in the regular classrooms” (p. 412). As Sharpe (1995) commented these results provide:

impetus for further studies of interventions that are designed specifically to reduce the incidence of socially relevant problems such as violence in our schools and of the contributions classroom teachers can make not only to the development of effective instruction but to the development of socially skilled members of society. (p. 414)

While this study was not directly aligned with the RM, the results offer support for the general premise that transfer of learning can occur from activity-based social interventions, which in turn can lead to a change in behaviours in other situations.

Attitudes of other Teachers to the Responsibility Model

The attitudes of other teachers towards teachers implementing the RM can be an important factor in helping or hindering the implementation. Teachers who are willing to share power with their students can face criticism for their perceived lack of control and are often judged both by students and peers as competent or incompetent, based on a perception of their ability to control their classes.

Buchanan (2001) found, in her research on the implementation of the RM in a sport camp, that, “Instructors who kept their charges under control were perceived by other staff to be more effective. Those who always seemed to be in the process of attempting control were negatively perceived by their peers” (p. 163). One female teacher, who attempted some aspects of the RM, was criticised by other staff as being too “touchy feely in dealing with the children and not being firm enough in her

discipline”, while another male Instructor, who made no attempt to implement the RM in any meaningful way, “was perceived as very good because of his reputation as being able to control unruly groups” (p. 163).

A number of studies (Georgiadis, 1992; Hellison et al., 2000; Mercier, 1992) have commented on the reactions of teachers on the periphery of the implementation. The reactions varied, depending on the teacher and the context, but many were initially sceptical about the perceived lack of discipline or control in these programmes; a scepticism that placed pressure on the teachers running the programmes (Cutforth, 1997; Martinek, 1997).

Sceptical peers can perhaps be won over by time and results. Cutforth (1997) found in his programme that, after the first year, teachers had noticed little change in the students attending the after-school sport programme. During the second year, however, he began to receive some affirmation from the staff on the value of the programme. At a school council meeting, criticism was offered on the programme by a parent who felt resources would be better spent on literacy. The principal responded with a strong public endorsement of the programme and its value to the students who participated. In a basketball programme run in a residential boys’ home in Chicago, a similar pattern was displayed (Georgiadis, 1990). After some difficulties in the initial stages, a successful programme was developed based on the RM. Positive feedback on the programme was reported from other staff:

Both the recreational therapist and one of the home’s counsellors remarked to me on separate occasions that my players were talking about self-control and respect in the home and that they seemed to be improving their self-control around the house. (p. 43)

A small number of teachers on the periphery of a programme for elementary and middle school students in North Carolina made positive comments about the impact of Project Effort on improving their students’ work efforts and behaviour. One fourth grade teacher, for example, discussed changes she had observed that she believed were due to involvement in the programme:

Taneka really likes Project Effort. Her work was sporadic at the beginning of the year. She liked to get on her classmates both verbally and physically. Lately she has gotten away from that. She seems happier with herself. I think the afternoon activities has something to do with it. She is always talking about how much fun Project Effort is. I think it is really working for her. (Martinek, 1999. p. 64)

While the feedback from other teachers does not involve large numbers of it is important to note that the impact of the model was sufficient for them to actively offer support for its value.

Impact of Teaching with the Responsibility Model on Teachers

The processes integral to teaching based on the RM, including a shifting of power to students, has the potential to impact on the teachers involved at a number of levels. The initial reasons for teachers deciding to implement the RM appear to vary. While for some the decision may be driven by the belief in the need for a more humanistic classroom, for others it is more a concern for classroom control. Despite these different motivations, implementing the model seems to have an impact on the teachers and the way they teach (Hellison, 2003b; Martinek, 2000) This impact appears to involve more than a simple change in the way that lessons are structured or delivered. Mrugala (2003) researched 52 teachers who were using the RM in schools. Many of these had initially implemented the model as a possible answer to classroom control issues. He found that a large majority (more than seventy percent) reported changes in the way they related to students, which they attributed to the experiences of working with the RM. Most practitioners emphasised that working with the RM had:

... led them to modify their educational practices, including student treatment and grading, physical activity instruction, and lesson structuring. Others mentioned a shift in their teaching of life skills and values, specifically citing changes they made to how they taught responsibility, personal accountability, and the encouragement of team spirit. Many teachers described RM as having made an impact on how they empowered their students; they reported a

tangible increase in their level of patience and understanding when dealing with them. (Mrugala, 2003. p. 129)

Student Voices

As identified in Chapter One, students' voices have often not been sought in research in physical education and sport pedagogy. A common approach in research on the Responsibility Model, however, has been to seek the voices of the students participating in the programmes, to find out what they thought about the programmes and to discover what they have learned. This has occurred in the vast majority of studies and has involved a variety of methods including individual and group interviews, journals and end-of-programme tests. The intention of this examination has been to gain an understanding of the students' experiences and to give an insight into the impact of the programmes. A common finding in these studies has been the inconsistency of learning reported by the participants. Many have reported learning associated with the goals of the RM while others made no comment about goals related to the RM but identified learning related to the specific curriculum content (Cutforth & Parker, 1996; Williamson & Georgiadis, 1992).

Cutforth (1997), for example, evaluated his after-school programme using students' self reports and end-of-year interviews to gain an idea of what the programme had meant for the students. The results showed some variation with some of the students' comments showing that they believed they had learned the explicit values expressed in the levels of responsibilities. One wrote that, "the programme taught me to control my temper and now I don't lose it so much". Another student commented "I learned to have faith in myself". For other students, however, the interviews indicated little engagement with the goals of the RM with them giving answers such as, "I learned to play volleyball" or "I got fitter" (p. 133).

Research on an after-school programme for Hispanic children collected qualitative data so that the teacher could, "attempt to learn something about the impact of my program on the kids" (p. 41). In his discussion, (Lifka, 1990) identified that the most

powerful information on the impact came from the students' journals and interviews. One student wrote in their journal that:

This programme is trying to help us look at life another way, trying to help us express our feelings, trying to help us understand what the world is about ... The programme teach us to go to high school and not drop out ... to try and get good grades. (p. 41)

Another student wrote of their changing attitude to their parents and the struggles they had in bringing a family to the US:

Ever since I came over here [to the programme] when my parents tell me to do this I do it without complaining. It's like I know what my parents go through. I didn't care before right, and then I started thinking, man they have a lot of responsibilities. (p. 42)

Much can be learned from the comments of participants, particularly when, placed into the context of their lives and aligned with the experiences and attitudes they typically bring to the programme. Geoff was a participant in an eight-week after-school basketball programme for inner-city youth in Chicago (Williamson & Georgiadis, 1992). He lived without a father in one of the most dangerous buildings in the area. He was hyperactive, constantly in trouble at school and was always fighting and arguing. In his journal, he wrote:

I feel that the people who was here did good. Even though me and Patricia got into a little argument [I] know that everything is just fine because we [have just started] to stop arguing and play basketball. I think we accomplished a lot of stuff like we could not have if we hadn't worked together as a team. (p. 17)

In one in-school programme (Kallusky, 2000), students were asked to comment on their experiences after a year of being taught physical education in a programme based on the RM. This programme was established with a special group of 32 students who were placed in the class because they, "were considered the most disruptive of Metro's [Los Angeles High School] 3,200 students" (p. 91). Students' comments were predominantly positive with many making favourable comparisons

to other classes. “This class is cool ... This class is like better you know, cuz you get choices in what you want to do you know ... This is my favourite class” (p. 111). The opportunity to make choices was appreciated by many of the students “you let us do our own stuff ... take our responsibilities ... I felt like an adult ... more mature (p. 111). One student, when asked what he had learned gave a simple, “nothing”, another illustration of the different experiences and learning that occur for different students within a programme.

While many commented on the positive environment and their enjoyment of class, others specifically identified learning closely aligned to the outcomes related to personal and social responsibility. One student commented on what he had learned from the class:

All kinds of sport I never knew before, how to work in a team control myself ... About how we shouldn't be cussing at our team mates if they do something wrong. At first I was like no, we can't do that cuz if you're doing something wrong on the team you have to be yelled at or something. That's all I knew before, but now I think of it you shouldn't be talking to team mates like that, well cussing them out. You should just tell them. Next time get it you know. (p. 112)

Similar sentiments were expressed by students at the conclusion of a before-school basketball club (Hellison & Wright, 2003). One commented, “This programme helped me to be a better role model and a better tempered person”. Another student wrote “The everyday attitude that I carry isn't as mean and negative as it used to be three or four years ago. So the programme has helped a lot” (p. 377).

Affective Domain

Teachers who are implementing the RM need to be cognisant of the importance of the *affective domain*. This domain is increasingly being recognised as an important influence on the experiences of students in educational contexts. It is increasingly evident that enjoyment, fun and positive relationships establish the grounding for quality learning (Rink, 1998; Tinning, 1993). A consistent outcome from the

research on the RM has been an acknowledgement of the necessity to carefully plan and teach for affective outcomes. As Hellison (1987) pointed out, when discussing the need for careful planning for social outcomes, “the affective domain has been additionally burdened by the long standing assumption that affective [or psycho-social] benefits are the automatic result of instruction in the other domains [of physical education]” (p.41). Cutforth offered a similar view when discussing the use of journals to measure his students’ reaction to the affective aspects of the programme, “students must have the opportunity to work on affective goals if they are to write about the experience in their journals” (Cutforth & Parker, 1996, p. 22).

An interest in finding the motivation for participants’ long term commitment to an extended physical activity programme, based on the RM, led to an exploration of the importance of the affective domain (Schilling, 2001). Parents/caregivers and the directors of the programme were interviewed along with the students. The research methodology included focus group interviews and a follow-up card sorting exercise in an attempt to establish the importance of the various reasons given for participation.

Schilling (2001) found that the major considerations in keeping the programme attractive and the participants, therefore, committed, were the types of activities, the degree of fun and the relationships among participants. A secondary group of reasons included developing close relationships with staff members and being given responsibility and leadership opportunities. While this study concluded that the “results revealed that providing opportunities for participants to enjoy themselves in extended day programmes is critical to their [students] continued program involvement” (p. 261), Schilling also emphasised that programmes that aim simply to maintain attendance and emphasise enjoyable activities do not necessarily provide support for youth development (p. 262).

Responsibility Model and Sport Education Combination

Within physical education, one prominent pedagogical model that would appear to be a natural partner to the RM is Sport Education (Siedentop, 1994). There are a

number of aspects in Sport Education that suggest that the two models could be complementary, the most obvious of these being the requirement that students take on a number of responsibilities as an integral part of the programme (discussed in Chapter three). It is perhaps not surprising then that consideration had been given to merging the two models in physical education (Tinning et al., 2001). While there has been some mention in the literature of the possibility (Hellison, 1995) to date, there appears to be a limited examination of this potential pedagogical combination.

One study (Hastie & Buchanan, 2000) examined a 26 lesson season in a programme that combined Sport Education and the RM. The goal of the research was to “examine the extent to which the teaching of personal and social responsibility could form a coalition with the Sport Education model” (p. 25). Data collection involved a combination of independent observations, daily debriefs and interviews with students.

A number of interesting outcomes emerged from this study. One example of a potential area of tension emerged when the use of referees became an issue within the programme. One of the underlying premises of the RM is that the programme will help participants become more personally responsible, an aspect of which is the development of internal discipline. One of the key aspects of the Sport Education model, however, is that it attempts to teach students to accept external discipline. Which emphasis takes precedence? Should the referees be removed to allow students the opportunity to develop the self-discipline needed to play competitive games without referees? This possibility offers a number of potential situations that are ripe for supplying the dilemmas so useful in allowing students to address issues of personal and social responsibility. Alternatively, should the programme remain true to a basic premise of the Sport Education model, which involves students taking the role of officials in the refereeing of games? In the Hastie and Buchanan study, a compromise was reached that allowed students to choose between having a teacher-referee or playing without a referee. The result was that, in the majority of games, the students chose to have no referees involved: “Of the 18 scrimmages played following

the introduction of the contract, only 5 were played with a teacher referee” (Hastie & Buchanan, 2000, p. 34).

Hastie and Buchanan found that, in situations when the essence of one model was dissipated by the philosophical requirements of the other, it became obvious that an equal partnership was not possible. These tensions lead to the development of a hybrid model that contained elements of both. This was not though a simple matter of equal sharing throughout the programme:

The relative contribution of Sport Education and TPSR [teaching personal and social responsibility] changed, depending on the stage of the season. That is, through either the necessity to remain true to the spirit of Sport Education or the need to attend to individuals’ behaviours and the levels of involvement, opportunities for personal empowerment took a front or back seat. (Hastie & Buchanan, 2000, p. 35)

The practical implications of merging the two models, along with the philosophical beliefs that the organisers brought to the programme, meant that:

To summarize the experience, then, it could be stated that using the goal levels served to improve the performance of the players in the responsibility aspects of Sport Education. This is a more accurate description than the alternative of Sport Education being used selectively to introduce the key phases of TPSR. This is not completely surprising, as Sport Education is a curriculum and instructional model at the centre of which is sport, whereas the individual is central to TPSR. (Hastie & Buchanan, 2000. p. 35)

It is apparent that there is a range of ways in which the RM is implemented in practice. A merging with Sport Education is one such option, albeit one that brings its own tensions. There is flexibility in the way that the model can be implemented, a reality that Hellison (2000) readily acknowledges:

Practitioners are encouraged to devise their own strategies if these would better meet the needs of their students. However the responsibility model is implemented, it must be viewed as a way of teaching or, as Nick Forsberg of

the University of Regina put it, a “way of being” rather than, for example, a classroom-management approach. (p. 5)

While flexibility is encouraged, Hellison also makes the point that there is a strong underlying philosophy that needs to be adhered to. The simple use of the “props” associated with the model, for example, without the philosophical underpinning means that in reality the RM is not being implemented. The need to maintain the essence of the RM suggests that merging the RM with Sport Education, or other instructional models, may be more problematic than first appears. The implications of such mergers are discussed in more detail in Chapter Eight.

Critique of the Responsibility Model

In chapter three the RM was discussed in relation to the New Zealand health and physical education curriculum. In that discussion the point was made that the movement away from the traditional view, that physical education is concerned with the developing of sporting competence, increasing activity levels, movement and motor skills, has received criticism from some physical educators and from others in the community. While these criticisms of physical education’s emerging stance are philosophical rather than pedagogical, their underpinning beliefs offer criticism, by default, of models such as the RM, which attempt to achieve non-traditional learning outcomes.

There has also been some criticism expressed about the humanistic paradigm which the RM is closely associated. Loland (2006) specifically addresses this point in his discussion on the justification for physical education within education:

However, the humanistic justification is exposed to criticism as well. One key critique points to its idealism. PE is a human, historical and socio-cultural construction. As social scientists keenly point out, the norms and values of PE usually reflect the predominant morality of the time. Even if there are strong experiential qualities in PE, they are not phenomenologically pure but shaped by socialisation. (p. 66)

Despite these more general criticisms, there has been little criticism specifically of the RM. This would seem a little surprising and may be due, in part, to the iconic stature Hellison seems to hold within the field of physical education. A second possibility is the perceived “goodness” of what the RM is attempting to achieve, a perception that may offer some protection from criticism.

Shields and Bredemeier (1995), however, are two writers who have offered considered criticism of the model. They believe that the model is heavily concentrated on “self” with insufficient emphasis being placed on the learner as a social being. They suggest that further group goals relating to such areas as cooperation and mutual assistance could be included in the model. For them:

the organisation of the levels communicates a view of the human person as more fundamentally egocentric than sociocentric, more prone to eruptions of uncontrolled destructive impulses than prone to shared experiences of cooperation, interdependency, and mutual regard. Perhaps these assumptions are useful in working with at-risk youths, but they may easily become self-fulfilling prophecies. (p. 208)

Shield and Bredemeier (1995) also have doubts about the way that the goals are presented as developmental levels: as a series of progressive stages to be climbed as the students advance morally. Hellison (2000) has responded to such criticisms commenting that “I abandoned the use of cumulative levels within a few years ... As I dug deeper into each of the levels and began to appreciate their nuances, it seemed best to treat each separately” (Hellison, 2000, p. 29). His position, however, seems equivocal in that he understands that the reality of practice for many teachers and leaders is different and he offers support for their position in his writings “Taking on the five levels at once is asking a lot of students. One way to address this issue is to present the responsibilities as a loose progressions of levels ... Such a teaching-learning progression can help the teacher plan each lesson as well as individualise the programme” (Hellison, 2000, p. 40).

Shields and Bredemeier (1995) consider that the intentions are largely irrelevant and that what occurs in practice is most important. Because the levels are considered to be, and taught as, cumulative by many teachers, they believe that conceptualising the levels “as simultaneously operating components of responsible behaviour” (p. 208), rather than as a “quasi-developmental progression” (p. 207), would strengthen the model. They observe that students can be working at a range of levels over any period of time: “It may be that a person is caring (Level IV), self-directed (Level III), and involved (Level II), but she loses her temper (Level I) on one day and fails in a different component on another day” (p. 209). They further suggest that, if it was necessary to have the levels presented as a cumulative levels, they could, in fact, be arranged in any number of ways; for example, caring (Level IV) being placed between respect (Level I) and effort (Level II). It is perhaps important again to restate that this criticism is offered to the realities of the RM in practice rather than to the RM in theory.

An examination of the research on the RM has established that the research to date has been predominately descriptive case studies. The researcher was cognisant of the range of arguments on this matter (discussed previously) including that of a number of researchers who consider that the methodologies used are both appropriate and reliable. It was decided, however, in this present study, to use a mixed methods approach to take advantage of the positive attributes of case study design while offering an alternative “lens’ by which to examine the RM in practice.

The following chapter further addresses issues of methodology and details the methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

Research Methodology

This chapter describes the research design for this study. The first section addresses the aim of the study and reintroduces the research questions. This section is followed by a discussion on the philosophical underpinnings of the research, including comment on matters of epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology and methods. The chapter then comments on processes used to authenticate the implementation of the RM and to differentiate between the RM classes and the comparison classes. The chapter concludes with comment on the contextual limitations of the study.

The review of research literature on the RM identified that the model had generally received a limited amount of research interest to date. The review also identified a number of specific areas that had received little or no interest. These included the RM when implemented in normal classes within school physical education programmes; the impact of the model when implemented by classroom teachers rather than visiting researchers/teachers; the impact of the model on students who are not perceived to be underserved or at risk; and the model in practice outside of the USA. An examination of the range of methodologies typically used in research on the model also established that there was a predominance of descriptive case study research and a lack of research utilising other methodologies.

This research was designed to address a number of these limitations. The study was situated in a normal physical education programme with the classes being taught by a full time member of the physical education staff. Within the classes were students, from a range of backgrounds and lifestyles. These included students who could be considered to be potentially at risk and students who came from privileged backgrounds. In response to the previously limited range of methods used to examine the RM in practice, this study utilised a mixed methods methodology involving a combination of case study and quasi-experimental methods.

The deliberate situating of the study in a busy secondary physical education programme was an acknowledgement of the importance of research in physical education being relevant to teachers and students. The belief in the importance of situating research in the real world of schools and teaching has been supported by a number of physical education academics (Lawson, 2007; Macdonald et al., 2002). These writers believe that the physical education research fraternity has moved away from this important area and that there needs to be re-examination of priorities leading to a greater concentration of research in practice. This issue is discussed more fully in Chapter One.

This study involves a mixed methodology combining two different research methods. There is, firstly, an examination of two classes being taught physical education based on the RM using a case study approach. The lack of research on the RM when implemented in normal secondary school physical education programmes (detailed in Chapter Three) makes this examination both relevant and of interest to the teaching fraternity. Of equal importance to teachers is an interest in gaining some indication of whether the outcomes obtained in this study are likely to be replicated if they were to introduce the RM into their own professional practice. While the descriptive case study offers an insight into what has happened in a number of individual contexts there is little acceptance that the findings can, to use a positivist term, be generalised to other similar contexts (Salkind, 2000; Sparkes, 1992; Wellington, 2000). This issue of external validity (or transferability) will be examined in greater detail later in this chapter.

In an attempt to move towards considering the issue of generalisation or transferability, a quasi-experimental approach was included in the study with the introduction of two comparison classes. All four classes were taught by the same teacher and received the same research scrutiny. The comparison classes, however, were taught physical education without any aspect of the RM. Details of how this differentiation was monitored is included in Chapter Six. The researcher acknowledges at this point that there is debate around the mixing of methodologies

from different epistemologies, or research perspectives, and this issue is also discussed later in this chapter under mixed methods.

The introduction of comparison classes occurred because of the belief that experiences and outcomes observed in the RM classes could be more strongly attributed to being taught with the RM if similar patterns were not observed in the two comparison classes. This attribution would be strengthened further if the outcomes reported from the RM classes were consistent with those previously reported from research on the RM in other contexts. It is for these reasons that question four is included in the research questions.

Research questions:

This study was designed to answer the following questions:

1. What understandings of personal and social responsibility are developed by students taught physical education in a programme based on the Responsibility Model?
2. What are students' experiences of physical education in a programme based on the RM?
 - (a) What is the impact on students':
 - (i) level of engagement with the physical education curriculum?
 - (ii) behaviour in physical education classes?
 - (iii) behaviour in other classes?
 - (b) In what ways do the experiences of students in the RM classes and those in classes taught using a traditional pedagogy differ in these three areas?
3. How is the implementation of the RM experienced by the teacher, and in what ways does this experience relate to previous research findings?
4. To what degree are the reported outcomes achieved by the RM in community and out-of-school programmes replicated when the model is implemented in a secondary school physical education programme?

Research philosophy

The discussion on the philosophical influences on methods and methodology in this study will be based around Crotty's (1998) conceptualisation of the research process as involving four elements: methods, methodology, theoretical perspective and epistemology. While Crotty's conceptualisation is used as the underpinning structure it is acknowledged that this is but one of many alternative structures and ways of understanding that could have been chosen.

Epistemology

For Crotty (1998), *epistemology* is "concerned with providing a philosophical grounding for deciding what kinds of knowledge are possible and how we can ensure that they are both adequate and legitimate" (p. 8). The predominant epistemology that informs this study is that of constructionism which has been defined as "the view that all knowledge, and, therefore, all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context" (Crotty, 1998, p. 42). Meaning, then, is not discovered but, rather, constructed. It is clear that different people may, therefore, gain a different meaning even from the same phenomenon and what constructivism "drives home unambiguously is that there is no true or valid interpretation" (Crotty, 1998, p. 47). This does not suggest that all interpretations are of no use, some can be very useful and valuable. What cannot be claimed, however, is that any particular interpretation is the correct or valid one.

The introduction of comparison classes for control purposes could suggest that there is an alignment with objectivism and the belief that a careful scientific approach will lead to the obtainment of objective truth. However, the epistemology could be more accurately described as predominately, or consistently constructionist (Crotty, 1998), which is described as putting:

All understandings, scientific and non scientific alike, on the very same footing. They are all constructions. None is objective or absolute or truly generalisable. Scientific knowledge is just a particular form of constructed knowledge designed

to serve particular purposes – and yes it serves them quite well. Constructionists may indeed make use of quantitative methods but their constructionism makes a difference ... well for a start it makes a big difference for the truth claims proffered on its behalf. (p. 16)

Theoretical Perspective

A second element identified is that of theoretical *perspective*. For Crotty this relates to the philosophical stance that lies behind the chosen methodology. It is “a statement of the assumptions brought to the research task and reflected in the methodology” (p. 7). In this study the predominant theoretical perspective is identified as interpretivism, an approach that “looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world” (Crotty 1998, p.67). Within a teaching context this has been described (Pope, 2006) as the “process of making meaning (how does the teacher establish meaning about teaching) [which] becomes the focus of investigation” (p. 22). Wellington (2000) described the intent of interpretive research as being to “explore perspectives and shared meanings and to develop insights into situations” (p. 16). Macdonald et al. (2002), in their discussion of interpretive research in physical education, identified two key questions to be asked, “What is happening here and what do these events mean to the people engaged in them” (p.138). While looking for meaning, interpretive researchers also understand and support the notion of multiple truths; for them truth is seen as a social construction and is linked to the experiences and understandings of the participants (Crotty, 1998; Macdonald et al., 2002; Pope, 2004).

The intention in this study to gain a greater understanding of what occurs when the RM is implemented in a secondary school physical education programme led to the introduction of two comparison classes which, while taught by the same teacher were not exposed to the RM. The addition of these classes introduced a second theoretical perspective aligned with post-positivism, This perspective is associated with comparison leading to interpretation but does not suggest the certainty associated with positivism and objectivism that essentially informs it. A post-positivist stance recognises scientific methods of research but tempers the certainty of their findings

with an understanding that research outcomes are neither totally objective nor certain (Crotty, 1998). The two theoretical perspectives identified are contrasting but work together in a complementary manner adding strength to conclusions that might arise from the study.

Methodology

The *methodology* chosen for this study is that of mixed methods. Methodology is considered by Crotty to be a description of the “strategy or plan of action” (p. 7). The use of mixed methods in the social and behavioural sciences has become more commonplace. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) in the introductory chapter of the Handbook of Mixed Methods in social and behavioural research, described the development of the mixed methods approach as “the third methodological movement” (p.5) as distinct from quantitative and qualitative approaches to research. In discussing the relationship between mixed methods and qualitative and quantitative research the authors emphasised their belief that mixed method studies are typically more complex and advanced than a simple combination of approaches.

The often quoted description of mixed method research is that from Cresswell et al. (2003), who stated that:

mixed methods study involves the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study, in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, and involves the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research. (p. 212)

One concern that has been expressed in relation to mixed method research is the acceptability of mixing methods derived from different epistemological paradigms (or theoretical perspectives) (Scott, 1996). While a matter of debate among some academics, the reality is that researchers have used these combinations on a regular basis. In one study, all empirical research (n =46) published in the British Educational Research Journal over three years (1997-1999) were reviewed and examined for their epistemological underpinnings. The conclusion drawn was that

“ in this sample, research practice is as likely to commonly blend or mix features of different paradigmatic traditions as it is to use features from only one tradition” (Greene & Caracelli, 2003, p. 106).

One example of a successful mixed methods approach, using methods from different epistemological paradigms, was presented by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) in their discussion on suitable ways of researching change in schools. The researchers in the study were interested in examining the changes that occurred with the introduction of a change agent (a distinguished educator) into a set of middle schools in the US. The research design chosen involved a quasi-experimental approach quantitatively examining measures of effective teaching at four schools, two that were receiving input from the educator and the two that were not. “Simultaneously to gathering the quantitative data, she (the researcher) conducted case studies in each of the schools (all four) using qualitative techniques such as observations, interviews, and document analysis” (p. 15). The authors believed that the mixed method design led to a depth of insight that could not have occurred if the research had been conducted using methods developed exclusively from one epistemological stance.

The issue of combining methods from different epistemological paradigms has received attention in research literature with, for example, a full chapter in the *Handbook of Mixed Methods* (2003) being dedicated to the debate (Greene & Caracelli, 2003). Proponents of mixed methods research generally consider that the use of different methods, derived from different epistemologies, within a research design is acceptable, as it offers opportunity for greater insights and responsiveness to the demands of the research. (Creswell, Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2002; Green & Caracelli, 2003; Morse, 2003). Greene and Caracelli (2003) in their work on making paradigmatic sense (of mixed methods research) commented that:

The commensurability or compatibility of different paradigms has also been intensely debated , as has the requisite bonding of philosophy to methodology and therefore to various methods ... we agree with many that paradigms are indeed social constructions, historically and culturally embedded discourse practices, and therefore neither inviolate or unchanging ... we reject both the

continued search for the one best paradigm and the assumed incommensurability of different paradigms as relics of a past era. We are committed to the acceptance of difference and the acceptance of multiple diverse perspectives. The complexity and pluralism of our contemporary world demands such a commitment. (p. 94)

Greene and Caracelli (2003) acknowledged in their discussion the role that epistemology can play in the development of methods. They considered, however, that the epistemology – methods link was not as critically important as many feel and that “what matters most is responsiveness to the demands of the inquiry context” (p. 96). Other writers go further than this, dismissing the epistemology-methods link altogether as being of little real importance. For these writers a pragmatic approach that uses whatever methods best suit the question at hand is the crucial factor. “Pragmatic researchers consider the research questions to be more important than either the method they use or the paradigm that underlies the method. We refer to this as the dictatorship of the research question” (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003, p. 21).

Based on the arguments just explained it was decided in this study to use a mixed method research design combining case study and quasi-experimental methods. The research involved four classes, all of whom were taught by the same teacher. Two classes, one each from years nine and ten, were taught physical education in a programme based on the RM. Two other classes, one also from year nine and one from year ten, acted as comparison classes. These comparison classes continued to receive the normal physical education programme, which was taught using traditional physical education pedagogy. All of the classes were established prior to the commencement of the study.

Comparison classes	9CO and 10CO
RM classes	9RM and 10RM

In mixed methods research, two obvious factors that distinguish between designs are the sequence in which data are collected (concurrent or sequential) and the priority assigned to one orientation or the other (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). In this study

data were collected concurrently throughout the period of the implementation. The study primarily involved the collection of qualitative data with some support from quantitative data (see Table 5.1). The priority for this design is, therefore, considered to qualitative more than quantitative.

Methods

Research *methods* are described by Crotty as the “concrete techniques or procedures we ... use. The activities we engage in so as to gather and analyse our data” (p. 6). Data were collected from a number of sources in this study. Table 5.1 presents the overall research plan for data collection. The key data sources were teacher and student interviews, class observations, student reflection sheets, student goal setting sheets and a list of student detentions.

Table 5.1 Research plan: Data collection

Data source	Teacher interviews	Student interviews	Class observations	Student reflection sheet	Student goal setting sheets	List of student detentions
Coverage	Teacher of all four classes (Sarah)	Samples from all four classes	All four classes	All students from all four classes	All students from all four classes	All students from all four classes
Timing	Regular interviews before and throughout the implementation	Interviews August, October, December	Throughout implementation	Completed at end of implementation	Completed twice during implementation	Collected daily throughout the implementation

Data sources

Interviews

All interviews in the study were semi-structured, an approach to conducting interviews supported in the research literature (e.g., Ary et al., 1985; Merriam, 1998; Thomas & Nelson, 1990). Semi-structured interviewing involves an interviewer establishing a general interview structure by deciding in advance what ground is to be covered and what main questions are to be responded to. This leaves the detailed

structure to be worked out during the interview (Drever, 1995). In practice “the interview is guided by a list of questions or issues to be explored and neither the exact wording nor the order of the questions is decided ahead of time” (Merriam, 1998, p. 74).

While the sequence of asking questions is not highly prescribed (Gillham, 2000), it is important that the questions be “ordered in a manner that displays some sort of logic (chronological, thematic) so that one question could be seen to be following on from the previous one” (p. 41). The questions in this study consisted of a series of open-ended questions that generally followed an established sequence. The interview process included flexibility to allow the interview to follow lines of enquiry generated by the interview itself.

All interviews followed the four stage structure suggested by Gilliam (2000, p. 37)

- the introductory phase,
- the opening development of the interview,
- the central core of the interview,
- bringing the interview to a close, both socially and in terms of content.

For the students, the introductory phase involved relaxing the participants and making them feel comfortable in what, for some, may have been an uncomfortable setting. The open development phase was used to focus students on the task at hand. During this stage, participants were reminded of the intent of the research study in general terms and the role that they played in it. The central core of the interview was the substantive section during which questions relating to the research study were asked. The final phase was important in that it reaffirmed the value of participants’ contributions and left them in a positive frame for future interviews.

Teacher Interviews

The teacher was interviewed eight times in total. These interviews ranged in length from twenty minutes to an hour and all were allowed to continue until they reached their natural conclusion. Two interviews occurred before the implementation during

the planning stage. During the implementation phase, Sarah was interviewed monthly until the final month (December) when two final interviews were completed. All interviews with the teacher were semi-structured and followed the four-stage format previously described. The interviews were situated either in the physical education office or, if that was problematic (for example noise from other classes), in a quiet corner of the staffroom. All interviews were tape recorded on a small audio-tape machine placed carefully to ensure that both the interviewer and the teacher could be heard clearly when the tape was replayed. The tape recording machine was tested at the start of each interview to ensure that it was functioning correctly. The questions were pre-organised and listed on a piece of paper placed on the table in plain view (see Appendix D).

Student Interviews

The teacher, using purposeful sampling, selected twenty-four students, six from each of the four classes. Purposeful sampling is a process where the researcher is guided in the recruitment of individuals by the particular research questions and by key characteristics that are considered relevant to the research (Bloor, Frankland, Thomas, & Robson, 2001). Within the classification of purposeful sampling lies an approach identified as maximal variation (Seidman, 1998). In this approach to sampling the range of people selected should show maximum variation, while still being “fair to the larger population ... maximum variation sampling provides the most effective base strategy for selecting participants for interview studies” (p. 45).

In line with the principle of maximum variation students were selected by the teacher in accordance with her perception of their attitude to, and behaviour in, physical education and the school generally. Six students were selected from each of the four classes. Two of the selected students struggled to behave in class and were often in trouble at school; two were selected as representing average students; the final two students were selected as students with positive attitudes who behaved well in class and around the school. All selected students were interviewed on three occasions. The first interviews occurred in August three weeks into the model’s implementation. The second interviews occurred in October and the final interviews

occurred towards the end of the programme in December. Students were interviewed in groups of four. This meant that, on occasions, members of two comparison or two RM classes were interviewed together. At no stage were students from the RM classes and comparison classes interviewed in the same group.

All interviews were situated in a warm, quiet room in the school administration building. The participants sat in comfortable chairs around a small table which had the tape recorder placed in the middle. As with the teacher, all interviews were recorded on a small visible audio-tape machine which was tested at the start of each session to ensure it was functioning correctly. Guide questions were developed prior to each set of interviews (Appendix E).

Class Observations

All four physical education classes were observed by the researcher on a regular basis. The decision for the researcher, to take a role as a non-participant observer, was made due to a lack of previous research having been completed with regular teachers of physical education teaching the RM. The majority of previous studies have involved experts coming into schools and clubs and being heavily, if not exclusively, involved in the teaching. Such intimate involvement offers a number of advantages (see Chapter Four) including the opportunity to establish close relationships with participants. This study wished, however, to examine the realities of the RM being implemented by a regular physical education teacher within their normal teaching practice. It was, therefore, felt that the distancing of the researcher from the day-to-day teaching had the potential offer a more authentic examination of the model in this context.

One of the major drawbacks in using observation in research is the potential impact of the presence of the researcher in an otherwise natural setting. It is possible that the presence of an observer will bring about outcomes that differ from those that would have occurred without the observer being present (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1985). Two procedures have been suggested to help suppress reactivity to the observer. The first is to have the observer present in the setting for a long enough period of time

that the participants no longer consider them a novelty and the second is for the observer to be as unobtrusive as possible (Thomas & Nelson, 1990).

The researcher/observer in this research attempted to follow the two recommendations as closely as possible. During the initial months of the implementation, the four classes were observed regularly in an attempt to familiarise the classes with the observer's presence. Subsequently, all four classes were observed on a regular basis-a pattern that continued throughout the implementation period (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Number of observations per class per month

	July	August	September	October	November	December	Total
9CO	2	3	1	2	2	1	11
9RM	2	3	1	2	2	1	11
10CO	3	4	1	2	2	1	13
10RM	2	3	2	2	3	2	14

The researcher/observer followed the second recommendation by ensuring that his position was physically removed from the classroom activity as far as was practicable. A position was selected that allowed a clear view of the activity while still allowing him to readily hear classroom interactions. This was a relatively simple process when the classes were being taught in the gymnasium. The researcher/observer sat either on the bleachers at the side of the gymnasium or, on occasions when it was difficult to hear the discussions, on a chair closer to the groups. When the classes moved outside the process became more difficult. The very nature of physical education meant that on occasions the physical spread of the class made it impossible to follow all teacher/student and student/student interactions. During outside lessons a position was taken within hearing distance of all class discussions. When the class was spread over an area the researcher followed

“the action” attempting to observe and listen to the classroom interactions as much as possible.

While attempts were made to maintain some distance between the researcher/observer and the students, it needs to be acknowledged that, inevitably, a casual relationship developed between them. This was particularly so with students who were interviewed as part of the study. On occasions, students would approach the researcher and initiate conversations on a range of topics. The response was always to chat briefly in a friendly manner and to ease out of the conversation without in any way upsetting the students.

During observations, notes were written by hand into a notebook. The researcher was interested in two main areas. The first was to monitor that classes either followed an authentic implementation of the RM or, in the case of the comparison classes, maintained a distinct separation from the model. This part of the observation involved identifying the degree to which the appropriate five stage lesson format was being followed by the RM classes and the degree to which the four themes identified by Hellison, as integral to any authentic implementation of the RM, were present. Conversely for the non RM classes, the observations were intended to monitor that the same lesson format was not introduced to these classes and to record the degree to which the four themes were absent in these classes (for full details of these process and results see Chapter Six).

The second area of concern was to observe and make notes on what was occurring in the classrooms. This included a general note on the number of students without gear (PE clothing), the content of the lesson and comment on the pedagogy chosen by the teacher. The intention of this part of the observation was to establish a feel for what was happening in the classes and to identify key incidents that occurred before, during or after the physical education lesson (see Appendix F). No attempt was made to systematically establish specific baseline behaviours and to record changes throughout the implementation. A key incident was considered to be an incident that occurred that could be related to the teaching/learning associated with the RM. If,

for instance, a student behaved in a caring manner for a classmate then a description of the incident and the responses of the students involved was noted. It was also recorded whether the incident was mentioned in the group discussion and/or the student appeared aware of it during the individual reflection.

An example of a key incident being recorded occurred in 10RM where a very able student had control of the ball during a soccer match. Instead of scoring, as he could easily have done, he called up one of the non-involved girls and passed the ball to her to allow her to shoot. This resulted in a goal followed by over-the-top displays of celebrations by the girl and her friends. Celebrations included a face-down slide along the ground, and an extended dance with the corner post. Immediately the class became good humoured and positive and the girl and her friends became heavily involved in the action for the next few minutes. The observation notes recorded this event and that in the group discussion the incident was mentioned by another boy as “level four” behaviour. The boy at the centre of the action appeared pleased with the attention in a shy, quiet way. In a similar manner any comments related to the RM or personal and social responsibilities made by the students were noted.

Reflection Sheet

At the completion of the study, all students were asked to complete a final reflection sheet (see Appendices G and H). The reflection sheets asked all students to reflect and comment on the learning that had occurred for them in physical education over the last six months and to identify what they considered the physical education classes were attempting to achieve. Students in the four classes were also asked to comment on their behaviour. Students in the RM classes were asked:

Did the programme impact on the way you think about your behaviour either in class or out of it?

Students in the comparison classes were asked a slightly different question:

Has your behaviour in physical education improved over the last six months?
If so why do you think this is?

All reflection sheets were distributed and collected at the start of a physical education period by the teacher. Students were supplied with pens and given as much time as they needed to fill in the forms. Students were asked to sit quietly on the benches in the gymnasium while completing the forms. Once they had completed filling in the form, students were asked to remain sitting until all members of the class had completed the process.

Goal Setting Sheet

All members of the four classes completed a goal-setting sheet twice during the implementation. The first occurred in July near the start of the programme and the second was late in September. Students in all four classes were asked to set three goals that they would like to achieve in the next unit of work in physical education (see Appendices I and J). The procedures used for completing the reflection sheets were also used for the goal-setting sheets.

Detentions

All teachers in the school concerned are required to complete and submit a summary sheet to the year group dean when they issue detentions. This summary details the names of students receiving detentions, their form classes and the reason for the detentions. These details are entered onto the administration office computer where an ongoing record is kept detailing every detention issued throughout the year. The researcher was supplied with a computer-generated list identifying students; their form class, a list of the detentions they had received, the dates they were issued and a short reason for each detention (see Appendix K). Students from the RM and Comparison classes were then identified from that list for analysis of detention patterns.

Data Analysis

Interviews

All interviews were audio taped. The tapes were transcribed by an experienced typist and returned to the researcher in electronic format and as hard copy (Appendix L). The transcripts were then analysed and data were entered using the Nudi*st software.

The researcher had attended two workshops on the use of Nudi*st including a full-day workshop with Lyn Richards, one of the two key designers of the software. During this day, several hours of one-to-one tuition was used to discuss the study and the most suitable way to maximise the software's potential. The combination of these opportunities and the undertaking of self-regulated tutorials meant that the Nudi*st programme was used with sufficient expertise.

The analysis of data required the construction of categories in which to assign substantive comments (Gillham, 2000). The development of these categories occurred in this study in two stages. The first occurred early in the data analysis with the establishment of the eight major headings.

1. Speakers,
2. Classes,
3. Processes,
4. Attitudes,
5. Model in Practice,
6. Expectations,
7. Time of interviews,
8. Free nodes,

These initial headings were developed from a combination of discussion with experienced researchers, the initial analysis of data and assumed areas of interest. The establishment of the headings was a response to a pragmatic need for a starting framework that could scaffold subsequent categories as they evolved from the data analysis during the second stage. The second stage involved the identification of eighty-four additional nodes developed during the process data analysis. This process of developing categories from the data is the most common approach used by researchers attempting to develop understanding (Merriam, 1998). It is acknowledged that both the selection of categories and the interpretation of the text can be influenced by the theoretical orientation held by the researcher. In this study the researcher has acknowledged his humanistic orientation and this conceptual

framework influenced the meaning attributed to the data and the subsequent selection of the nodes. As the nodes were identified they were placed in an appropriate position in relation to the initial framework.

Figure 5.1 offers, as an example, details of the organisation of nodes that developed from one major node (processes). Full details of all eighty-four codes and their organisational structure are presented in Appendix M.

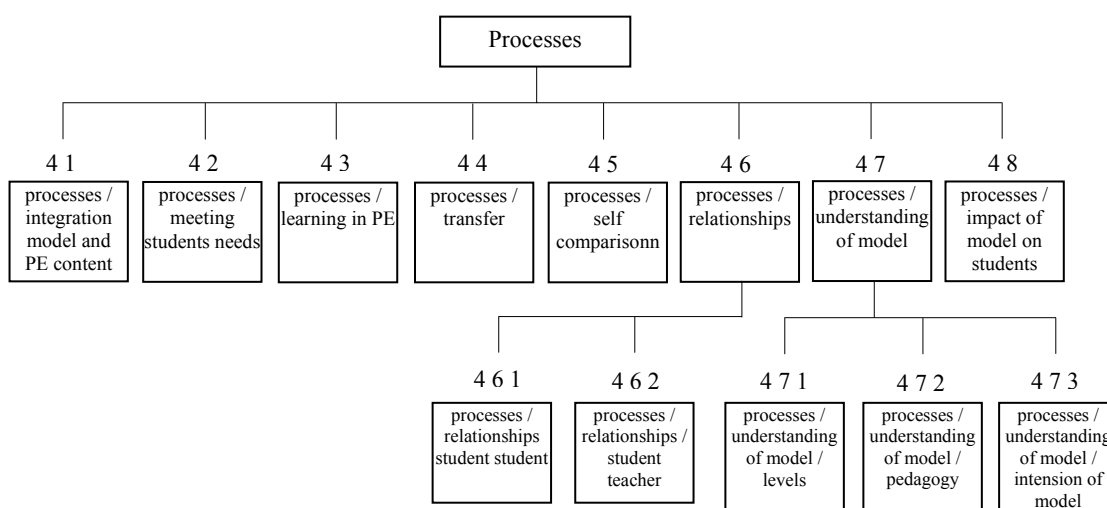


Figure 5.1 Organisational structure for sub-nodes derived from the key processes node

During the coding of interview transcripts, a multi-node approach was used. This meant that a unit of data could be placed in more than one node. Comment from a student that their relationship with the teacher had improved could, for example, be placed in both the ‘teacher-student relationship’ node and also the ‘impact of the model on students’ node.

Class Observations

Written notes were kept of all class observations (see Appendix F). These notes were used to authenticate the implementation of the RM and to establish that a clear pedagogical differentiation between the RM classes and the comparison classes had occurred. Descriptions of key incidents recorded during the observations were used to help with developing understanding of the processes occurring and to add emphasis to points of discussion in the results chapter of this study.

Detentions

Individual student's names were supplied with a list of the detentions they had received by month. This list was analysed to establish patterns in the numbers of class detentions for all four classes. Of special interest were trends indicating changes in the number of detentions received by the classes. The data from the treatment classes were compared to the equivalent comparison classes to offer a contrast between class behaviours as reflected through this means.

Reflection Sheets

The reflection sheets completed at the conclusion of the study asked three questions. The first two questions were concerned with establishing what students considered the physical education programme had been attempting to teach and what they had learned from the programme. These comments were analysed and placed into categories that were developed from the data. The third question concerned students' perceptions of their behaviour in physical education. A similar process was carried out for this question.

Goal Setting Sheet

Students completed the goal setting sheets twice during the study. They were asked to identify three personal goals for the next physical education unit of work. The goals were analysed and then classified into categories. The categories were developed from the data.

Participants

School

This study was implemented in the Physical Education Department of a decile six⁷ New Zealand rural township-based secondary school. The school was selected because the teacher at the centre of the study, who was interested in using the RM method, taught there as a full time member of staff. The school roll consisted of 493 students of whom 53% were female and 47% were male. The ethnic composition of the school was at the time of the study, 77% New Zealand European/ Pākehā, 22% Māori and 1% Asian.

Classes

Four classes, two from Year-9 and two from Year-10, were selected for the study. One each of the Year-9 and Year-10 classes were then selected by the teacher to be taught physical education based on the RM. This selection was based on the teacher's perceptions of the "difficulty" levels of the four classes. The teacher chose the Year-9 and the Year-10 class that she perceived to be the most difficult to be the RM class. This was a subjective decision based on the teacher's perception of the quality of the relationships among students, the general behaviour of the classes and her perception of the class's engagement with learning associated with physical education. No specific criteria were used in making the decision; the decision instead being based on the teacher's professional judgement. Both the Year-9 comparison class (9CO) and the Year-9 RM class (9RM) had 18 students while the Year-10 comparison class (10CO) had 29 students and the Year-10 RM class (10RM) had 28. The majority of students in the Year-9 classes were aged between 13 and 14 years of age. Students in the Year-10 classes were generally between 14 and 15 years of age. All four classes were co-educational.

⁷A school's decile indicates the extent to which the school draws its students from low socio-economic communities. Decile 1 schools are the 10% of schools with the highest proportion of students from low socio-economic communities, whereas decile 10 schools are the 10% of schools with the lowest proportion of these students. A school's decile does not indicate the overall socio-economic mix of the school

Teacher

The teacher, Sarah⁸, was selected because of her previous experience with and knowledge of the RM. Sarah was a young teacher in her first teaching position having recently graduated from a four-year specialist health and physical education teaching programme. She was a highly motivated and professional teacher who had already received promotion to the position of Year-9 Dean⁹ and teacher in charge of health in just her third year of teaching. Sarah had attempted an implementation of the RM in her second year of teaching in response to a poorly behaved class, an experience that led to her approaching the researcher for help in a more extensive implementation. When asked to consider that this implementation could also be used as a research project, she was extremely positive, offering her full support. Sarah had a philosophical affinity to the RM and felt comfortable with many of its underpinning beliefs.

The Researcher

The researcher is a Senior Lecturer in health and physical education at a major New Zealand University. He brought a strong background of teaching secondary school physical education having fulfilled that role for over fifteen years. This background gave an affinity to the realities of secondary schools and to the teaching of physical education within this context. The researcher had a strong philosophical alignment with the humanistic paradigm, which had been a central influence on his approach to teaching over many years. Much of his previous teaching had involved experimentation with alternative approaches to teaching physical education based on humanistic principles. This background of experiences meant that there was an obvious attraction to, and interest in, the RM as a potential approach to the teaching of physical education. This interest had led to him attending a number of in-service programmes facilitated by Dr. Don Hellison. He had also read extensively on the subject and had taught the RM as part of his university teaching programme. This background gave him a strong theoretical understanding of the RM and some experience of implementing the RM in practice.

⁸ This is a pseudonym chosen to help ensure anonymity.

⁹ A Year Dean is responsible for the administration and discipline of the students in a designated year group.

Physical Education Curriculum

All classes continued with the timetabled curriculum for the year. The topics covered during the period of the implementation included dance, gymnastics, touch rugby and minor games. All units of work followed the traditional pattern of eight sessions per topic. The two Year 9 classes both covered the same content areas at the same time as did the two Year 10 classes.

The only major modification to the standard curriculum was the introduction of a Sport Education module in touch rugby for 10RM at the end of the school year. This change was introduced by Sarah because of her understanding of the need to teach the physical education activity aspects of the lesson in such a way as to increase the chances of students achieving the goals of the RM. Sarah felt that, for 10RM, Sport Education was a suitable pedagogical approach that would supply opportunities for students to practice the goals of the RM. The 10CO class were not taught touch rugby using Sport Education but were taught using the same pedagogical approach that the teacher had used to teach touch rugby previously. This involved the teaching of the specific skills of touch, the practicing of the skills in small group drill sessions and the playing of games with teams created during the lesson.

Procedures

Initial interest in this study was generated by the Sarah who approached the researcher seeking information on the RM. Sarah had implemented a version of the model the previous year and was interested in implementing a full version with her junior classes.

Sarah conveyed the initial request for permission to implement and research a programme based on the RM directly to the principal of the school. After this a further meeting was organised at which the principal, teacher and researcher met. At the conclusion of this meeting, the principal gave his permission for the project to proceed.

Prior to commencing the programme Sarah and the researcher were involved in three, two-hour planning sessions. These sessions involved Sarah developing a greater knowledge of the RM and, in particular, the practicalities of implementing the model in practice. The sessions included a number of discussions based on Hellison's writing, which Sarah read to increase her understanding of the model. During these sessions the introductory phase of the implementation was planned along with the initial curriculum units for all four classes. Care was taken at this time to ensure that Sarah had a full understanding of the need to clearly differentiate between the pedagogy used with the RM classes and that for the comparison classes. The need to ensure that successful initiatives introduced into her teaching for the RM classes were not taught to the comparison classes was emphasised.

Ethical Considerations

After the school's permission was gained, an ethics application was submitted to the Massey University College of Education Ethics Committee. This application gave due consideration to the ethical implications raised by the research including the issues of confidentiality, anonymity and the need to protect participants from physical or psychological harm.

Permission was duly received to undertake the research (see Appendix B).

In following the protocols of the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, all participants received a letter of information (see Appendix C) and were asked to sign a permission slip giving their informed consent. The parents/caregivers of all participants under 16 years of age received an information sheet and were asked to sign a permission slip giving informed consent for their child's participation. Students understood that they had the right to remove themselves from activities associated with the research, for example, interviews or completing goal setting sheets at any time. Because the implementation was situated in a school with compulsory attendance requirements, students were not able to choose to remove themselves from the physical education class. After two follow-ups, consent forms

were received from all students in the four classes. The teacher at the centre of the research also signed a letter giving her informed consent.

During the initial planning for this study some consideration was given to the ethics of teaching comparison classes who would not receive any aspects of the RM. For Sarah the possibility of not offering the best quality learning to all her students was an issue of some concern. The uncertainty of the impact of the model in the initial stages of the implementation meant that at that point of time there was no way of knowing whether the comparison classes were going to be disadvantaged. The potential difficulty arose, however, if the implementation demonstrated outcomes for students in the RM classes that would clearly benefit students in the comparative classes. The tension between providing the best educational experiences for all students and the need for a clear differentiation between the classes for the purposes of the research raised an ethical problem. The overall potential for the research to positively impact on large numbers of students, combined with the understanding that the comparison classes were receiving the same educational experience they would have received if the study was not being run led Sarah to a point where she could accept this situation.

The following section of this chapter examines and discusses case study and quasi-experimental research.

The Case Study

There is some discussion on how a case study can be defined. Yin (1994) considered that a case study as an empirical inquiry that:

- investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when
- the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

The case study inquiry

- copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points and, as one result

- relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion. (p. 13)

Alternative definitions of a case study include “an intensive holistic description and analysis of a single instance, phenomenon, or social unit (Merriam, 1998, p. 27), while Salkind (2000) simply described it as “an in-depth study of individual people or an organisation” (p. 193). Stake (2003) considers that many researchers call their research by other names considering that “labels contribute little to the understanding of what researchers do” (p. 135). Gillham (2003) considered that “The word case [study] is one we all use, and feel we understand, but it rather challenging to define” (p. 1). The difficulty in defining a case study is illustrated by his description of case study research as research in which the case can “be individual : it can be a group ... it can be an institution ... it can be a community ... All of these are single cases but you can also study multiple cases” (p. 1).

Whether case study research is a method or not is also a matter of discussion. Gillham (2003) considers that it is stating that “case study is a *main* method. Within it different sub-methods are used: interviews, observations, document and record collection, work samples, and so on” (p. 13). Others disagree, Stake (2003), for example, considers that the choice to use case study research is not about methods but a choice of what is to be studied. Once that choice has been made there are a number of different methodologies available to examine the case.

In this study the “case study” involved the four physical education classes. The RM as a programme implemented into real world contexts is suited to case study research for a number of reasons, including the opportunity it offers to study programmes in their natural contexts. The decision to study the programme in a real word context is considered (Yin, 1994) to allow the researcher to “cover contextual conditions – believing that they might be highly pertinent to ... [the] phenomenon of study” (p. 14). Two other reasons for choosing the approach were related to the RM in practice. The approach is seen as valuable “When attempting to determine ‘how’ and ‘why’ a

programme has worked or not ...” and “When the investigator has little control over events” (p. 4).

The descriptive case study’s strength is that it offers an in-depth insight into particular programmes and it is a research approach that has been valuable in obtaining a useful understanding of the RM in practice. It has, however, received criticism for a perceived lack of research rigour, a criticism that has led to debate about the best way to address this issue (Salkind, 2000; Scott. D. & Usher, 1996). Both Yin (1994) and Easterby-Smith et al. (1997) promote the idea that the quality of design should be judged from the four tests typically used in positivist research: external validity, construct validity, internal validity and reliability. An alternative stance that complements but does not replace traditional criteria, suggests substituting credibility for internal validity, transferability for external validity, dependability for reliability and confirmability for objectivity Lincoln & Guba (1985). While these issues will be discussed separately in relation to this study, it should be acknowledged that all of these various factors interrelate closely.

Credibility is concerned with the credibility of and confidence in the data (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). This is a similar concept to the positivist concept of internal validity, which has been described in a number of ways. Wellington (2000) put it simply as the question. “Is what we discover the genuine product, and not tainted by our presence or instrumentation” (p. 98). Merriam (1998) asked, when describing internal validity, “how congruent are the findings with reality? Do the findings capture what is there and are the investigators observing or measuring what they think they are observing?” (p. 201). Silverman (2000) described internal validity as “another word for truth” (p. 176), commenting that qualitative researchers face some problems with ensuring internal validity when reporting their research:

How are they [qualitative researchers] to convince themselves [and their audiences] that their findings are genuinely based on critical examination of all their data and do not depend on a few well-chosen ‘examples’? This is sometimes known as the problem of anecdotalism. (p. 177)

While the establishment of internal validity in case study research is a concern for many writers (e.g., Salkind, 2000; Wellington, 2000), others challenge the very concept itself. Merriam (1998), for instance, challenged the belief that internal validity can actually be achieved, commenting that “validity must be assessed in terms of something other than reality itself (which can never be grasped)” (p. 202).

Three strategies - triangulation, member checks and long-term observations - have been identified in the literature as means for enhancing credibility or internal validity (Guba & Lincoln, 1985; Merriam, 1998; Scott. D. & Usher, 1996; Walford, 2001). The first strategy, triangulation, has been described as “the use of more than one source of data to substantiate a researcher’s conclusions ... it is a means used to establish validity and reliability” (Thomas & Nelson, 1990, p. 333). By comparing the data obtained from different sources, a more ‘holistic understanding’ (Merriam, 1998, p. 205) of the situation can be achieved. While generally supported, some concerns have been expressed with the use of triangulation as a means of enhancing validity. Silverman (2000), for example, questioned the worth of triangulation as a means of obtaining internal validity, asking if in fact “true fixes on reality can be obtained separately by separate ways of looking at it” (p. 177).

In this study, three or four sources of data were used to gain a more holistic view of the situation. A particular incident occurring in the classroom, for instance, could be examined through the eyes of the observer, of the teacher and of the students and then all viewpoints synthesised in an effort to reach a consistent understanding.

The second method, member checking, has been identified as a legitimate method of checking credibility (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1985; Merriam, 1998). In this study, this involved the cross-checking of the researcher’s understanding of data and incidents with the teacher and students at the centre of the study. Clarification of the researcher’s perspective of incidences observed within the classroom was sought from the students and/or the teacher. While offering an expanded view of what was occurring in the classroom, the researcher was mindful of the point articulated by Silverman (2000) that while we can ask them to:

... give an account of the contexts of their actions, there is no reason to accept that these accounts are necessarily any more or less valid than those of others; in other words they can not necessarily be taken as a validation of truth. (p. 177)

The third strategy was described by Merriam as “Long-term observation at the research site or repeated observations of the same phenomenon - gathering data over a period of time in order to increase the validity of the findings” (p. 204) and as prolonged engagement (Cohen et al., 2000). This present study occurred over a six month period during which the researcher regularly observed physical education classes in action and interviewed the teacher and selected students on a periodic basis. Such consistent observation over an extended period of six months adds weight to the validity of the findings as being a reliable representation of the reality of the implementation.

Case studies require a degree of interpretation of data from the researcher that opens up the possibility of unintentional bias. *Confirmability* is concerned with assurance that the interpretation of data is grounded in the data and that inferences drawn are logical and realistic. It is also concerned with limiting the incidence of enquiry bias (Guba and Lincoln, 1985). Wellington (2000) asked the question “to what extent are the researcher’s observations and subsequently [sic] interpretations theory or value laden”? (p. 98). This issue is potentially more problematic when the researcher interpreting the data is also closely involved in implementing the programme being researched. A majority of the case studies published on the RM have been written by teacher/researchers who are, in many cases, advocates for the model and are also closely involved in the implementation. Being close to the data is seen by some as a weakness, while for others it is considered to be a strength. Weiss (1998), for example, was one writer who argued strongly against objective distancing of the researcher from the “action” as a weakness that limits the degree of engagement and the potential for quality understanding.

In this study the researcher attempted to achieve confirmability through three processes. The first was to discuss his understanding of what was occurring within the classrooms with the teacher on a regular basis. These discussions were used to check the researcher's understanding and interpretation of events. The second was the researcher's conscious reflection on the potential impact of his philosophical alignment with the RM during the data collection and analysis. The third process was the taking of a non-participant role in the research. While the initial reason for limiting the relationship between the researcher and the students was to examine the RM when taught by a normal member of a secondary school physical education department, this positioning did result in a distancing of the researcher from the teacher and students. While stressing the genuine attempts to achieve confirmability the researcher acknowledges that he brought into the research an interest in and experiences with the RM that framed and influenced the interpretation and understanding that eventuated.

Transferability is concerned with the degree to which the understandings generated from qualitative research can be applied to other contexts. Transferability is a similar concept to the positivist concept of external validity and the case study method has received some criticism concerning issues with *external validity* or the ability of the findings to be extrapolated to other groups (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000; Merriam, 1998). For some writers who see their research as largely descriptive, this is not an issue, with no attempt being made to generalise beyond the single case (Silverman, 2000). For others, however, this is an area of concern. Salkind (2000), when discussing this perceived weakness, wrote that:

the generalizability of the findings is limited. Although you might be able to learn about another child or another institution like the one your case study is based on, it is not wise to conclude that because the focus of the study is similar, the findings might be as well. (p. 195)

Others disagree that this is a limitation of case study research. Yin (1994), for example, argued that the criticism is based on a misunderstanding that confuses sampling and the generalisation of results to larger populations with the

generalisation of case studies to some broader theory. Silverman (2000) suggests that one way of generalising from the analysis of a single case is what he describes as the comparative method, where the researcher demonstrates similarities and differences over a number of settings. Yin (1994) also argued that this is satisfactory approach to the issue of generalisation. He posited that where a number of case studies, over a period of time and at different sites, reported similar outcomes this justified the belief that the findings can be generalised to other similar contexts. While many would argue that the transferability of results is not the intention of case study research, these challenges become important in a situation where the case study is the predominate methodology used to support the success of a new pedagogical approach. This is particularly so where the results may be taken as encouragement to introduce the model into similar, or in the case of teaching and the RM, dissimilar contexts.

In this study, two methods were used to address the issue of external validity/transferability. The first was based on the comparative method. The literature review has established a number of learning outcomes reported in research studies on the RM. This present study attempted to establish whether the same or similar outcomes were achieved when the RM was implemented into a secondary school physical education programme.

The second method was based on the establishment and examination of two comparison classes (discussed later in this chapter) who were taught by the same teacher and received the same research scrutiny but were not taught physical education based on the RM. The presence of these classes has the potential to contribute to the discussion on the degree to which outcomes identified in the RM classes can be attributed to the implementation of the RM. It is anticipated that comparing and contrasting the outcomes from previous research on the RM and those from the RM classes and the comparison classes in this study will contribute towards an understanding of the impact of the RM in physical education classes and on the issue of transferability.

Dependability is associated with positivist concept of reliability. For Lincoln & Guba (1985) the concept of dependability is closely tied to credibility to the degree that if a piece of research is credible, than it can also be considered dependable. In attempting to establish dependability and credibility it has been suggested that researchers should “ascertain whether the findings are grounded in the data, whether inferences based on the data are logical, whether the utility of the category system ... are realistic, and finally the degree and incidence of inquirer bias” (Guba and Lincoln, 1985, 318). In this study all four suggestions have been acknowledged and taken into account during the process of the research.

If the researcher decides that there is a need to look beyond the case study methodology, what alternative research methodologies are suitable for evaluating new pedagogical approaches to teaching when they are implemented in real world contexts? There has been some discussion about this question (Ary et al., 1985; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000; Tuckman, 1999). For Gorard (2001) the experimental model offers an attractive option. “In many ways the experiment is the flagship or gold-standard of research design... the basic advantage ... is its convincing claim to be testing for cause and effect, via the manipulation of otherwise identical groups” (p. 131). Others disagree, believing, like House (1999), that the real world context of a school is not the place for carefully constructed experimental approaches to research. Arguments against using experimental methodology in schools include the ethical implications of denying beneficial “treatment” for the purposes of meeting research design requirements and the distancing of the researcher from the programmes they are researching, for reasons of objectivity.

Researchers who are interested in using an experimental approach often find that the real world context of schools is unresponsive to their design requirements. Schools are often, understandably, not willing to make major adjustments to meet the requirements of researchers. Researchers wishing to use the power of random selection find that in many cases schools will not randomly assign students to classes, make the necessary timetable adjustments or change the allocation of teachers to classes simply to meet research criteria. The lack of ability to randomise

should not be seen as meaning experimental research cannot occur in the school context. Tuckman (1999) when describing the potential frustrations of real world restrictions wrote:

School systems may not accept new programmes for experimental testing; decision makers may not allow disruptions of intact classes or division into groups necessary to designate random or equivalent samples; ... a situation may not provide an opportunity for pre-testing in advance of the implementation or change.

Researchers should not throw up their hands in despair or retreat to the laboratories ... they should instead employ quasi-experimental designs to carry experimental control to its reasonable limit within the realities of particular situations. (p. 168)

Quasi-experimental Research

Quasi-experimental research by definition “does not include the use of random assignment” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000) and attempts to “fit the design settings to the real world while still controlling as many of the threats to internal validity as possible” (Thomas & Nelson, 1990, p. 312). While this type of research design does not have the power of true experimental research, with its ability to randomly select groups and allocate treatments, quasi-experimental research still makes an attempt to achieve an understanding of cause and effect (Salkind, 2000).

In this study, the reality of already established classes removed the possibility of random selection into groups. The allocation of treatment to the classes was also not random with the teacher making the selection based on her perception of the classes' behaviour. This absence of randomisation, along with the presence of the two comparison classes, means that this part of the study could be described as a quasi-experimental methodological approach.

What the quasi-experimental approach offers is the opportunity to compare a group that has been taught using the RM with a similar group that, while not taught with the

RM, was taught by the same teacher and received the same research scrutiny. This opportunity helps address such potential internal validity/credibility issues as observational, implementation and testing errors.

One consideration that needs to be addressed, when attempting to attribute differences between groups to the treatment, is the issue of equivalency between groups at the start of the research. All four classes involved in this research were established prior to the commencement of the project, a situation that did not allow for random placement of students. An attempt was made, however, to work with classes that were as similar as possible. All four classes came from the same academic stream for their year group. The school policy, followed by the Deans who were responsible for creating the classes, was to establish as close to equivalent classes within each stream as was possible. Selection was based on academic testing and comment received from the student's previous schools. It can, therefore, be argued that, within the real world context of a school, the classes could be considered reasonably similar at the start of the research. The reality of practice would suggest, however, that while the classes shared a number of similarities the dynamics involved with groups of adolescents working together would lead to some differences. That there were potential differences was demonstrated by the Sarah's belief that she could differentiate between the classes on the basis of classroom behaviour and that the classes taught using the RM were more difficult than the other classes in the study.

Processes Used to Authenticate the Pedagogical Approaches Used

When evaluating a specific pedagogical model it is important to demonstrate that the way the model was taught showed fidelity to its design. While accepting that contextual factors may well lead to a less than perfect version of the theoretical model, it is important that the researcher can affirm that the reality of the implementation is still an acceptable version. It is also important that when making a comparison between two different pedagogical approaches the researcher can identify and affirm that a clear differentiation was maintained in practice, especially where a single teacher was involved.

Three sources of data were used to confirm that the two RM classes were taught in a manner that was faithful to the theoretical design and that a clear pedagogical differentiation was maintained between the RM and the comparison classes:

1. class observations,
2. teacher interviews and
3. student interviews.

These sources attempted to establish:

- The lesson format that was being followed,
- The degree to which the four themes, identified by Hellison as integral to the RM, were being implemented.

Details of the findings in relation to the authenticity of the implementation of the RM and the degree of differentiation of the teaching for the comparison classes are presented in Chapter Six.

Contextual Limitations for the Research

The decision to situate the study in the real world of a busy secondary school added a level of authenticity that would not have occurred in a more contrived setting. This decision had a number of implications, however, for the collection of data. The teacher at the centre of the study was extremely busy and, while she placed a great deal of importance on the research project, it must be acknowledged that the research was only one part of her professional and personal obligations. This meant that on occasions the demands of a full teaching and administration load, along with her duties as a Year-9 Dean, placed the requirements of the research into a secondary position. There were times, for example, where the teacher's obligation to teach other classes meant that it was difficult to discuss incidents that had occurred in classes that had just been observed. A second problem that occurred during the research was related to Sarah's personal health. Towards the end of the year she became unwell, which led to her missing two weeks of teaching. As a result of this her classes were

taught by relieving teachers and the teaching programme in terms of this study was put on hold. These absences occurred towards the end of the year and, after some consideration, the researcher made the decision to finish the implementation two weeks before the end of the school year. This, in reality, made little difference as the school was in the process of 'winding down' for the conclusion of the year and there were also a number of other interruptions occurring at this point of time.

The observation schedule for the four classes was complicated by two factors. The first was that the four classes did not occur on the same day at any stage during the implementation. On some days two classes were timetabled while on others only one of the classes was timetabled. This was further complicated by the school timetable being based on a six day rotation. This meant that the day that physical education occurred for all of the classes altered every week. The reality of the researcher having lecturing commitments based on a five day timetable, and the length of time involved in travelling (90 minute per return trip), meant that an uneven distribution of observations occurred for the four classes.

The availability of students for interviews also needs comment. Two students, initially selected to be interviewed, subsequently became unavailable. One student (Year-9 comparison class) was absent for a protracted period of time due to illness. He was not replaced due to the expectation that he would return to school. This unfortunately did not occur. A second student (Year-9 RM class) transferred to another school early in the implementation period. Because of the timing, she was replaced by another student for the purposes of interviewing. Absences from school also meant that on five occasions students timetabled for interviews were not present. The difficulties of reorganising interviews meant that these students were not interviewed at a subsequent time.

Difficulties with organising a follow-up session with 10RM meant that students who were absent when the class completed their reflection sheet (17 of 29 students present) did not get to do so and so that data were not available. A final limitation occurred with the loss of data for detentions for the months of November and

December. These data were unexpectedly removed from the administration computer before the researcher could retrieve it.

The following chapter presents the results for the study and reports on the processes used to ensure that the two RM classes and the two comparison classes were taught in appropriate and distinctly separate ways.

CHAPTER SIX

Results

This chapter presents the data and findings in six sections. The first five sections are each focused on a major Learning Outcome and its associated measures of learning achievement. The sixth section presents the results on the procedures used to authenticate the implementation of the RM and to ensure a clear differentiation in pedagogy between the RM and comparison classes. The Chapter concludes with an overview of the findings.

Five Learning Outcomes were generated from the research questions, which were, in turn, generated from the Literature Review and areas of specific interest for teachers. The relationship between the research questions and the learning outcomes is presented in (Table 6.1).

The five Learning Outcomes are:

- A. Student learning on personal and social responsibility.
- B. Impact of the implementation of the Responsibility Model on student engagement in physical education.
- C. Impact of the implementation of the Responsibility Model on classroom behaviour.
- D. Transfer of learning about responsibility to other contexts.
- E. Teacher perceptions of the implementation of the Responsibility Model.

For each Learning Outcome there is an indicator measure of student learning achievement and/or teaching practice. The learning-teaching variables were generated from the Learning Outcomes.

Table 6.1 Relationship of research questions to learning outcomes

Research Questions	Learning Outcomes
What understandings do students taught physical education in a programme based on the RM develop of personal and social responsibility?	A. Student learning on personal and social responsibility
What are the students' experiences of physical education in a programme based on the RM? (a) What is the impact on students': (i) level of engagement with the physical education curriculum? (ii) behaviour in physical education classes? (iii) behaviour in other classes? (b) In what ways do the experiences of students in the RM classes and those in classes taught using a traditional pedagogy differ in these three areas?	B. Impact of the implementation of the Responsibility Model on student engagement in physical education. C. Impact of the implementation of the Responsibility Model on classroom behaviour.
How is the implementation of the RM experienced by the teacher, and in what ways does this experience relate to previous research findings?	E. Teacher perceptions of the implementation of the Responsibility Model.
To what degree are the reported outcomes achieved by the RM in community and out-of-school programmes replicated when the model is implemented in a secondary school physical education programme?	A. Student learning on personal and social responsibility B. Impact of the implementation of the Responsibility Model on student engagement in physical education. C. Impact of the implementation of the Responsibility Model on classroom behaviour. D. Transfer of learning about personal and social responsibility to other contexts. E. Teacher perceptions of the implementation of the Responsibility Model.

The seven learning-teaching variables are:

- A. 1.0 Student understanding of personal and social responsibility in theory and practice.
- 2.0 Teacher's perceptions of students demonstrating personal and social responsibility.
- B. 3.0 Student engagement in physical education.
- C. 4.0 Student behaviour in physical education.
- D. 5.0 Students' perception of transfer of learning to other contexts.
- E. 6.0 Students' detentions in classes other than physical education.
- F. 7.0 Teacher's perceptions of the implementation of the Responsibility Model.

Each learning-teaching variable is supported by data from 1, 2, 3 or 4 indicators.

Table 6.2 presents an overview detailing Learning Outcomes, Learning-Teaching Variables and Data Indicators. Each section covering a Learning Outcome is concluded with a summary statement of the key findings for that Learning Outcome.

A. Learning Outcome: Student Learning on Personal and Social Responsibility

The data for this outcome were focused on student understanding of personal and social responsibility.

There were two learning-teaching variables researched for this Learning Outcome.

1.0 Variable: Students' Understanding of Personal and Social Responsibility in Theory and Practice

There were five sources of data for students' perceptions of the meaning of personal and social responsibility.

Table 6.2 Categories of variables and indicators

Learning Outcomes	Learning-Teaching variables	Data indicators
A. Student learning on personal and social responsibility.	<p>1.0 Student understanding of personal and social responsibility in theory and practice.</p> <p>2.0 Teacher's perceptions of students demonstrating personal and social responsibility.</p>	<p>1.1 Student's reflections on learning in relation to personal and social responsibility.</p> <p>1.2 Student interview statements about demonstrating personal and social responsibility.</p> <p>1.3 Student goal setting in relation to personal and social responsibility.</p> <p>1.4 Student interview statements on the meaning of personal and social responsibility.</p> <p>2.1 Teacher interview statements about students demonstrating personal responsibility.</p> <p>2.2 Teacher interview statements about students demonstrating social responsibility.</p>
B. Impact of the implementation of the Responsibility Model on student engagement in physical education.	3.0 Student engagement in physical education.	<p>3.1 Teacher perceptions of student engagement in physical education.</p> <p>3.2 Student interview statements concerning their engagement in physical education.</p>
C. Impact of the implementation of the Responsibility Model on classroom behaviour.	4.0 Students' behaviour in physical education classes.	<p>4.1 Teacher interview statements about student behaviour in physical education.</p> <p>4.2 Student interview statements about behaviour in physical</p>

		education. 4.3 Student end-of-year reflections on behaviour in physical education.
D. Transfer of learning about personal and social responsibility to other contexts.	5.0 Students' perceptions of transfer of learning to other contexts. 6.0 Students' detentions in classes other than physical education.	5.1 Student interview statements about transfer of learning. 5.2 Student reflections on behaviour in other classes. 6.1 Student detentions, frequency by month for Year-9. 6.2 Student detentions, frequency by month Year-10.
E. Teacher perceptions of implementation of the Responsibility Model.	7.0 Teacher's experiences of implementing the RM.	7.1 Teacher interview statements on her experiences of implementation of the Responsibility Model.

1.1 Indicator: Students' Reflections on Learning in Relation to Personal and Social Responsibility

As noted in Chapter Five, students from all four classes completed a reflection sheet in the last week of the implementation period (See Appendices G and H). Students were asked to identify what they considered that they had learned over the last six months in physical education, and what they thought the physical education programme was attempting to achieve. While it is acknowledged that there may be some differences between what students had personally learned and what they believed the programme was attempting to achieve, for the purposes of exploring their learning about personal and social responsibility as it related to the programmes the comments for these two questions were combined.

Analysis of the students' comments identified that there were a number of differences in what students believed about the learning associated with physical education with distinct differences evident between the RM classes and comparison

classes at both Year-9 and Year-10 levels. There were also differences found between the two RM classes. An examination of the comments from the students in the two comparison classes, however, showed little difference with a strong emphasis on learning about specific sports and fitness.

Eighteen students from 9RM gave 35 comments (see Table 6.3), of which ten (30%) were learning outcomes related to personal responsibility and nine (27%) were related to social responsibility. Fifteen comments (43%) identified learning outcomes related to learning about specific sports or fitness. The identification of learning outcomes in physical education related to personal and social responsibility and to the more traditional areas of sports and fitness in roughly equal numbers is perhaps an indication that the programme for 9RM was successful in achieving the twin goals (Hellison, 2003b) associated with the RM.

A contrast was supplied by the eighteen students from 9CO who offered a total of 36 comments on their beliefs about learning associated with their physical education programme. Of these comments none related to the area of personal responsibility, although six (16%) were concerned with learning to work as a team which can be related to the area of social responsibility. The greatest numbers of comments for 9CO, twenty eight (77%) were related to learning sport or about fitness.

In 10RM students' comments on learning in their physical education programme indicated a strong association with outcomes associated with the RM. Of the 50 comments received 24 (48%) were related to learning associated with social responsibility and 20 (40%) to learning associated with personal responsibility (see Table 6.4). In the area of sport and fitness only three comments were recorded in total. The results for 10RM would indicate that for students in this class the learning associated with the RM had taken precedence over that of the more traditional areas of physical education. This is an interesting result as it has never been the intention of the RM to replace the learning traditionally associated with physical education but rather to achieve learning outcomes in both domains.

A comparison between the two Year-10 classes showed an even greater difference in emphasis than occurred in the year nine classes. Of the 55 comments received from the students in 10CO 40 (73%) concerned sport skills and eight (15%) related to health. No comments from 10CO addressed personal responsibility and only two (4%) were concerned with social responsibility.

Table 6.3 Year-9 classes - Students' comments on what they thought they had learned in physical education

Type of comments 9RM	Number of comments recorded	Percentage of total comments (Rounded)	Type of comment 9CO	Number of comments recorded	Percentage of total comments (Rounded)
Specific sport or fitness	15	43%	Specific sport or fitness	28	77%
Improve behaviour	6	17%	Improve behaviour	0	
Work as a group	3	9%	Work as a group	6	16%
Help other	2	6%	Help other	0	
Play fair	2	6%	Play fair	0	
Self-control	2	6%	Self-control	0	
Self-management	2	6%	Self-management	0	
Include everyone	1	3%	Include everyone	0	
Cooperation	1	3%	Cooperation	0	
Fun	1	3%	Fun	1	3%
Health	0		Health	1	3%
Total number of comments	35		Total number of comments	36	

While differences were identified between the comparison and RM classes at both year nine and year ten there was also differences in emphasis between the two RM classes. Both classes clearly identified learning related to personal and social responsibility, although the bias towards these outcomes was much stronger in 10RM than in 9RM. There were also differences identified in these two classes in relation to learning concerning the more traditional outcomes associated with physical education. These results would suggest that learning associated with the RM had developed a higher profile for students in 10RM than had the more traditional outcomes associated with physical education. Table 6.5 presents the learning outcomes for physical education identified by students in the two RM classes.

1.2 Indicator: Student Interview Statements about Demonstrating Personal and Social Responsibility

During interviews students from all four classes were asked about demonstrating responsibility in physical education. A number of students from the RM classes reported that they were aware of their learning associated with personal responsibility and that they had been examining their behaviours based on this developing understanding. A number of examples were offered of their having been personally responsible in physical education:

I used to try and put the blame on other people some of the time and now I just like take my own responsibility. (9RM)

Don't try and be cool whatever. Just try and stick to what the teacher says to you. (9RM)

Trying to, yeah, make your own decisions and think about how you are going to act for the period. (10RM)

It's our responsibility to do it by ourselves in PE. You get to see it work but in the other classes and well you have to do it whether you like it or not. And you can have a choice whether you want to do it or not do it in the PE programme with the levels. (10RM)

Table 6.4 Year-10 classes - Students' comments on what they thought they had learnt in physical education

Type of comments 10RM	Number of comments recorded	Percentage of total comments (Rounded)	Type of comments 10CO	Number of comments recorded	Percentage of total comments (Rounded)
Specific sport or fitness	3	6%	Specific sport or fitness	40	73%
Work as a group	10	20%	Work as a group	2	4%
Self-control	9	18%	Self-control	0	
To show responsibility	8	16%	To show responsibility	0	
To be more encouraging	5	10%	To be more encouraging	0	
Goal setting	4	8%	Goal setting	0	
To respect others ideas	3	6%	To respect others ideas	0	
Don't put others down	3	6%	Don't put others down	0	
Self-assessment	3	6%	Self-assessment	0	
Sharing	1	2%	Sharing	0	
Helping others	1	2%	Helping others	0	
Fit and healthy	0		Healthy	8	15%
Fun	0		Fun	5	9%
Total number of comments	50		Total number of comments	55	

These comments give an indication that students were not only aware of being personally responsible in physical education but that their actions were related to their learning around personal and social responsibility. Students in the RM classes also reported enjoying the opportunities presented in class to be personally responsible. These included, for example, times where they were given a choice of activities, trusted to choose realistically and then allowed to complete the activities without direct teacher supervision:

You don't have to have a teacher watching yourself all the time. Gives you a bit of responsibility. And it's good. (10RM)

Students in the RM classes were also able to describe occurrences in physical education that demonstrated that they understood social responsibility. These were often related to helping other students in some constructive way or helping the class in general. The following examples are indicative of the types of comments made:

Like if you've finished at work or something, if I've finished then other fellow's a bit behind just help him catch up. (9RM)

I help other people and stuff but I just count it as a Level 3 or something. (9RM)

Cause they like want to achieve their goals, so they try and help everyone and stuff. (10RM)

That PE can be a lot of fun when you ... try and calm the others down sort of if they're getting a bit hyped sort of. (10RM)

It is interesting to note that in a number of comments there was referral to aspects of the RM. In the quotes above, for example, students refer to level 3 and to achieving goals. This would indicate that at to some degree the students are associating social responsibility with the learning that was occurring with the RM.

Table 6.5 RM classes - Students' comments on what they thought they had learnt in physical education

Type of comment 10RM	Number of comments recorded	Percentage of total comments (Rounded)	Type of comment 9RM	Number of comments recorded	Percentage of total comments (Rounded)
Work as a group.	10	20%	Work as a group	3	9%
Self-control	9	18%	Self-control	2	6%
Specific sport or fitness	3	6%	Specific sport or fitness	15	43%
Helping Others	1	2%	Help other	2	6%
To show responsibility	8	16%	Improve behaviour	6	16%
To be more encouraging	5	10%	Self- management	2	6%
Goal setting	4	8%	Play fair	2	6%
To respect others ideas	3	6%	Cooperation	1	3%
Don't put others down	3	6%	Fun	1	3%
Self-assessment	3	6%	Include everyone	1	3%
Sharing	1	2%			
Total number of comments	50		Total number of comments	35	

The results from the interviews with students from the comparison classes were quite different. There was certainly no indication that this was an area that they related to learning in physical education. Generally students in these classes appeared to not have considered responsibility in any way and certainly not in relation to their own behaviours in class. The following is an example of a discussion held with students from the Year-9 comparison class. The students were asked why their class behaved

well for some teachers and poorly for others and what was it that made the difference:

Student: *Teacher cool or dumb or they're racists.*

Researcher: So what sorts of things show that they're racist?

Student: *Like pick on black people*

Researcher: So you think that they pick on you particularly? Because of your race.

Student: *Not just me.*

Researcher: What about you X? What would be the things that mean a class might misbehave for another teacher?

Student: *They might not be able to handle us. We can be real naughty.*

Researcher: So they're not tough enough to handle you?

Student: *Yeah.*

Researcher: Okay. So whose responsibility is that do you reckon? Is it their problem or your problem or both?

Student: *Their problem. They need to harden up.*

The uncritical blaming of teachers and general lack of consideration of their own role in classroom interactions was common for many, but not all, of the students in the comparison classes. This seeming abdication of responsibility contrasted with students from the RM classes, who generally appeared better able to consider and acknowledge that they had a role to play in the quality of classroom interactions with other teachers. It is acknowledged, of course, that this is only what the students were saying during the interview processes, which may or may not have been the reality of their thinking and behaviour in real life situations of conflict. This was particularly obvious for some students in 10RM who found themselves in conflict with other teachers and were unable to step back from these conflicts or from reflectively blaming the teacher (discussed later in this chapter). The difference identified in the interviews with students from the RM classes, as compared to those from the comparison classes, was that these students were generally more open to acknowledging their potential role in these conflicts.

1.3 Indicator: Student Goal Setting in Relation to Personal and Social Responsibility

As noted in Chapter Five, students from all four classes completed two goal setting sheets during the period of the implementation. The first was completed in August and the second six weeks later in September. Students were asked to identify personal goals that they would like to achieve during their next unit of work.

The results showed that students selected a wide range of goals with many, such as improvement in specific sport skills, being associated with the traditional outcomes expected from physical education. A number of other goals, however, were less traditional, such as wishing to teach other students in the class, and these were more closely related to the RM programme content.

When considering the goals selected by 9RM (see Table 6.6) it can be seen that the three main areas selected in August were associated with personal responsibility, social responsibility and improving behaviour. The more traditional goals associated with skills and fitness were selected six times by students in this class. In the second selection (September) the number of goals related to personal responsibility (17 to 16) and improving behaviour (9 to 10) remained stable while those related to social responsibility (10 to 5) and sports and fitness (6 to 2) were heavily reduced. The prominence of goals associated with personal responsibility would suggest that for students in 9RM learning about personal responsibility was an accepted part of their physical education programme and that this acceptance had led to students becoming aware of and valuing goals related to this area. This in turn would offer some support for belief in the potential of the model for achieving learning related to personal responsibility.

Two other areas of goal selection are of interest. That improving behaviour ranked highly in goal setting for students in 9RM on both occasions could indicate either that student behaviour in 9RM was a problem or that students in 9RM were aware of the issue of poor behaviour. It is also interesting to note then that in September 9RM

halved the number of goals specifically related to social responsibility to five. Why this would occur in a programme that attempted to overtly develop social responsibility is interesting to contemplate and is a matter discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

Table 6.6 Written goals by 9CO and 9RM for physical education

	9CO (August)	9CO (September)	9RM (August)	9RM (September)
Improve participation	12	5	1	4
Improve behaviour	0	0	9	10
Skills and fitness	8	19	6	2
Prepared for class (PE gear)	12	2	4	1
Improve team work skills	0	2	0	0
Specific social responsibility goals (e.g., help others)	5	6	10	5
Specific personal responsibility goals (e.g., work independently)	1	3	17	16
Total number of goals selected	38	37	47	38

When the goals selected by the two Year-9 classes are compared it is apparent that there are distinctly different patterns in the selections. For 9CO improved participation and preparation for class were the two major goals in August. Six weeks later both of these areas were of less importance and had been replaced by skills and fitness as the most emphasised goals. Students in 9CO made eight and nineteen selections related to skills and fitness while students in 9RM chose goals in this area six and two times respectively. It can be seen from this that for 9RM, goals associated with skills and fitness became less important as the year progressed while for students in 9CO the reverse happened and they became more important. The

degree of difference can be seen most clearly in September when 9CO selected skills and fitness 18 times compared to 9RM who only selected it twice.

A notable difference between the two classes is also evident in the number of goals each selected related to personal responsibility. For 9CO personal responsibility related goals seemed not important in either August (one such goal identified) or September (three identified). This was in direct contrast to 9RM where students selected personal responsibility goals 17 times in August and 16 times in September. The low number of goals set in this area by students from 9CO would offer a level of support to the belief that the interest in personal responsibility was as a result of this being specifically taught in the RM classes.

When looking at the comparison between personal and social responsibility goals for 9RM it can be seen that goals related to personal responsibility are more prevalent in both August and September. A possible explanation for the stronger emphasis on personal rather than social responsibility goals could be related to the presentation of the goals as cumulative levels. In this situation levels 1 respect, 2 effort and 3 self-direction are initially presented with the first goal related to social responsibility (caring) being introduced as the fourth level. It is possible, therefore, that students consider that personal responsibility goals need to be obtained before moving onto the social responsibility goals. While it can only be a matter of conjecture at this point, it is also possible that this realisation may have led to the reduction in emphasising social responsibility goals in the second part of the implementation as was discussed previously. In other words, as students became involved in the programme they identified that they needed to work towards level one, two and three initially and, therefore, may have put the other levels on hold.

When considering the goals selected by 10RM (see Table 6.7) it can be seen that the main area selected in August were associated with improving participation followed by goals related to personal responsibility and not getting distracted. Five goals specifically related to being socially responsible were also recorded. The types of goals selected by the class in September were substantially different. For 10RM the

reduction of goals in improving participation, not getting distracted and being prepared for class (from 25 to 11) would suggest an overall improvement in behaviour. If concerns with participation and behaviour were lessening, it is of interest to know what they were being replaced with. For 10RM the two areas with the greatest increase were diverse in nature. Developing teamwork as a goal moved from zero selections to seven, while in the area of improving sport skills the number moved from two to eleven

When comparing the two Year-10 classes (see Table 6.7) it is apparent that there were a number of differences and similarities between them. In August, a high number of goals for both classes were related to the general area of behaviours, a focus that was reduced substantially six weeks later in September.

Table 6.7 Written goals by 10CO and 10RM for physical education

Goals	10CO (August)	10CO (September)	10RM (August)	10RM September)
Improve participation	16	6	13	3
Don't get distracted	0	0	7	0
Skills and fitness	24	45	2	11
Prepared for class (PE gear)	12	5	5	2
Improve team work skills	7	7	0	7
Specific social responsibility goals (e.g., help others)	1	0	5	6
Specific personal responsibility goals (e.g., work independently)	9	3	8	5
Total number of goals selected	69	66	40	34

The increase in interest in goals related to sport skills identified for 10RM was mirrored in 10CO where the number almost doubled, from 24 to 45. While both classes increased the numbers of goals associated with skills and fitness they were of greater overall importance for the students of 10CO than those in 10RM. Differences were also obvious between the two classes in the area of specific social responsibility goals. In 10CO social responsibility goals barely registered (one to zero) while they remained important for students in 10RM (five to six). Both classes showed a reduction in personal responsibility goals, with 10CO showing a greater degree of reduction (nine to three) than 10RM (eight to five).

An examination of the goal selections for the two RM classes showed that students in 9RM tended to be more consistent in their selections between August and September than students in 10RM. Two areas that showed reduced emphasis were the areas of skills and fitness (six to two) and social responsibility goals (ten to five). This was the opposite to 10RM who increased the number of goals related to skills and fitness (two to 11) and social responsibility goals (five to six). It is interesting to note again that 9RM reduced the number of goals related to social responsibility while participating in a programme that specifically identified social responsibility as an outcome. The high number of goals selected relating to personal responsibility (17 to 18) again indicates that personal responsibility was taking precedence, or was more relevant to students, at those stages of the implementation.

If the setting of personal learning goals can be taken as an indication of both what students believe can be learned in class and what they would like to learn in class then the above results are an interesting indication of students' understandings of their physical education programmes. The students in the two RM classes generally set a number of goals for their personal learning related to personal and social responsibility. While not exclusively related to these areas, their presence indicates that they are perceived by a number of students as being both available to be learned in physical education and of importance to them.

The personal goal selections of students in the two comparative classes are also of interest. That a number of students selected goals related to personal and social responsibility is an indication that these are evident and valued for some students in these classes as well. This would suggest that the physical education classroom in general is a suitable context for learning associated with personal and social responsibility. The generally fewer number of goals selected relating to these areas by the comparison classes is perhaps indicative of the comparatively lesser emphasis given in the two comparison classes.

1.4 Indicator: Student Interview Statements on the Meaning of Personal and Social Responsibility

Students from the two RM classes generally appeared comfortable discussing responsibility issues during their interviews. They appeared familiar with the concept and would often refer to it when answering questions. This underpinning of answers with reference to responsibility was common and occurred even when the questions did not directly address personal or social responsibility. The following example, which comes from an interview with a student from 10RM, illustrates this point. The answer was in response to a follow-up probe, which was attempting to establish what the student attributed improvement in classroom behaviour to:

More responsibility. And it makes you feel more grown up so I guess that's why most of us kids like doing it as well because you feel like you're actually getting recognised and you're grown up. Because, whereas in other classes we might not get any responsibility but in PE it's like, yep, you've got responsibility.
(10RM student)

It was noticeable that students in the two comparison classes did not seem to have the same degree of familiarity with, or usage of, the concept of responsibility as those in the RM classes. These students seldom used the word responsibility unless it was in reply to a direct question in regard to it, or in relation to a question about who was responsible for problems within the class. This is perhaps not surprising considering

that, unlike the RM classes, the concepts of personal and social responsibility were not part of the everyday lesson structures and discussions.

As part of the process of establishing the degree of understanding that students in the RM classes had of personal and social responsibility, they were asked if they could explain what they thought the terms meant. This question elicited a range of responses that suggested that students were more comfortable defining personal than social responsibility.

Students in 9RM offered a number of comments on what they thought was meant by personal responsibility. These comments were generally concerned with controlling behaviour, setting goals and being accountable for actions. Comments such as the following were common:

About us choosing how we want to act and to use self management.

To control our behaviour.

To be responsible for our behaviour.

Setting our own goals and learning to be responsible.

The comments from students in 10RM tended to be fuller and related more specifically to the context of the physical education classroom. The following quote, from a student in 10RM, offers an example of how students perceived personal responsibility:

Like be trusted by myself if you want to go for a run around the block for our exercises and so the teacher could trust us to leave us by ourselves when she could see that we were working at a higher level.

Students from both RM classes generally appeared less confident when talking about social responsibility than when talking about personal responsibility. Many struggled to articulate clearly what the concept meant giving answers similar to the ones below:

Would it be something like try and hold the society together, kind of hold the group together and playing your part, sort of? (9RM student)

It would be good to like be responsible for other people kind of thing. It would be quite good. (10RM student)

The difference in levels of understanding between personal and social responsibility can be possibly related to the teaching of the goals as levels. Students appeared interested in learning about and experiencing the levels that they felt were obtainable for them. For some students this may have been seen as levels one, two and/or three which are directly related to personal responsibility. As the levels were introduced to the class sequentially it is very possible that more time was spent discussing and reinforcing the initial levels than was spent on the level associated with caring. It should be noted, however, that in the interviews and goal setting discussed above a number of students discussed activities and selected goals that were congruent with social responsibility. This would suggest that the difficulties in explaining and defining social responsibility may be more related to language rather than a lack of understanding of the intent of social responsibility or of how socially responsible behaviour occurs in practice.

2.0 Variable: Teacher Perceptions of Students Demonstrating Personal and Social Responsibility

There are two sources of data for teacher perceptions of students demonstrating personal and social responsibility.

2.1 Indicator: Teacher Interview Statements about Students Demonstrating Personal Responsibility

During interviews Sarah made a number of references to what she believed was an increased ability of students in the RM classes to take personal responsibility. She observed this occurring in a number of areas including students taking more responsibility for their own actions, for looking after equipment and in their general behaviour in the classroom. On a number of occasions, for example, it was noted that

students organised themselves to put the physical education equipment away at the end of the lesson without any request from Sarah. This occurred regularly and with so little fuss that it was hardly noticeable, it just happened. Sarah also noticed students beginning to show personal responsibility for their learning in class. An example of this was seen in the fitness unit for 9RM:

By 20 past X was in the gym doing his warm up and he was up and down the bars and round and round. Same thing, (the rest of the class) came in, really independent, just got them going, put out the strength charts and they got through that.

Observations also identified that students were increasingly engaged in physical education activities without direct teacher supervision. This was noted in a number of different physical education contexts and was partially a function of the increased trust that Sarah developed in the class's abilities to work independently and the subsequent increase in opportunities supplied.

2.2 Indicator: Teacher Interview Statements about Students Demonstrating Social Responsibility

Sarah felt that students were less able to understand, or demonstrate in practice, social responsibility than they were personal responsibility. Socially responsible behaviour was not as wide spread or as obvious as the students' increasing ability to be personally responsible. Often the students were unsure what socially responsible behaviour was and when it did occur they did not necessarily equate their behaviour to being socially responsible.

Sarah illustrated this during an interview in August, when she discussed an incident that occurred while teaching the Haka¹⁰. A student chose to help lead and teach the class and Sarah then used this as a key incident to illustrate socially responsible behaviour in the group discussion time:

¹⁰ A traditional Maori dance activity.

Yet he hadn't perceived that. So it took that example to talk about to make him aware of it and also make the others aware that that's the type of role that we'd like, you know, that's where we're heading to spend more time like that.

By October Sarah had noticed that the RM classes were interrelating more positively and that within the general interactions occurring in the classroom, examples of socially responsible actions were happening. These incidences were generally unheralded and involved different students at different times. Sarah described an indoor soccer game with 10RM to illustrate how the class had moved as a group to being more socially responsible:

And so they actually played a really fair game. I gave them a gentle reminder during the period to just be aware of stealing the ball off people who are less able than you ... they seem to adapt well to that. From then on the really sort of macho contests went between the guys who were of similar ability, and I found that the girls who had sort of seemed to be a lot more positive and they're focussing on what people are actually doing well and giving them a real, you know, sense of belonging and encouragement in the game. As a staff member it's really awesome to actually see the kids doing that. I just, I hope that this will continue. I think it will. I think it's now part of what they're doing.

This ability of students to adjust their intensity of play to suit the ability of their peers is a key indicator of the development of empathy and Sarah felt it was an encouraging sign of a developing awareness of others. It is interesting to observe that students were able to behave in a socially caring way while involved in competitive games. The tendency to consider sport and games as a morally distinct context to "real life" has been well documented (see Chapter Two). This concept of bracketed morality has at times allowed people to justify behaving less morally in sporting situations than in other areas of their lives. That students in these games were able to relate their learning about caring for others into this context would indicate that their learning was at a level that survived the pressure placed on it in the sport/competitive games context.

In the final interview Sarah returned to the behaviour of 10RM in competitive games to illustrate the degree to which they had taken on board the ideas of working together for the common good. The class had moved to accepting student referees rather than relying on a teacher refereeing their games. This had been successfully implemented, but now Sarah had been observing that even the student referees were redundant, with players sorting out problems as the game progressed:

When something wasn't fair they could pick up the (game) and go from there. An example of this is when the ball gets stuck in under the Swedish benches. Normally they just boot at each other to get it out. Today they just stopped, and said, "Give him some room, give him some room" and on they went. I actually set up no boundaries or rules, just gave the whistle to the students. They automatically played if it went out the back. Things like that.

While Sarah observed an improvement in the level of social responsibility for many students in the two RM classes, this did not occur consistently for all students, with some being socially responsible on occasions and then acting irresponsibly on others. This inconsistency of behaviour is supported in the moral development literature (Noddings, 1992; Santrock, 2003) and was a key point in Shields and Bredemeier's (1995) criticism of the goals of the RM being taught as cumulative levels rather than independent goals. A small number of students struggled with the idea of being socially responsible at all and appeared to make little effort to reach out to others in any way during the implementation.

When contrasting the two RM classes and the two comparison classes Sarah identified a marked difference. She felt strongly that the comparison classes had made substantially less progress in demonstrating socially responsible behaviour and that this impacted on the classroom culture. Students did not relate as well to each other and Sarah felt that she had a less successful relationship with them. She described this in her final interview:

at the start of the implementation I preferred the other classes [comparison classes] because they functioned more effectively together. By the end of the RM (period) my relationship with the non-RM classes had progressed no further than at the start and I was a little frustrated with this lack of progress in comparison to the RM classes.

Summary of Findings on Students Understanding of Personal and Social Responsibility

There were nine findings concerning students' understanding of personal and social responsibility:

1. The RM students interviewed in this study all demonstrated that they understood the concept of personal responsibility.
2. These students were also able to identify appropriate behaviours associated with the taking of personal responsibility; for example self-control, looking after equipment and accepting responsibility for their actions.
3. Sarah stated that students in both RM classes demonstrated an increased ability to take personal responsibility.
4. The RM students interviewed were unable to easily articulate a meaning for social responsibility, raising questions as to whether they understood the concept.
5. When it came to selecting goals, 17 students from 9RM and eight from 10RM selected goals that were congruent with the idea of taking social responsibility; for example helping classmates or encouraging others.
6. The teacher believed that students in both RM classes demonstrated an increasing ability to take social responsibility.
7. A small number of students interviewed indicated that they enjoyed the opportunity to demonstrate social responsibility.
8. The teacher indicated that a small number of students in each RM class did not show signs of social responsibility.

9. The data indicated that equivalent changes in knowledge of, and behaviour related to, personal and social responsibility did not occur for students in the two comparison classes.

B. Learning Outcome: Impact of the Implementation of the Responsibility Model on Student Engagement in Physical Education

The data for this outcome were focussed on the impact that the implementation of the RM had on student engagement in physical education.

There was one learning-teaching variable investigated for this Learning Outcome.

3.0 Variable: Student Engagement in Physical Education

There were two sources of data about student engagement in physical education.

3.1 Indicator: Teacher Perceptions of Student Engagement in Physical Education

From the teacher's perspective, students' levels of engagement in the physical education curriculum for the two RM classes improved from early on in the implementation. This improvement continued until by the end of the programme the teacher felt that both RM classes were engaged in physical education at an exceptional level.

When asked what aspects of the classroom behaviour demonstrated an improvement in the RM classes' engagement, Sarah identified the amount of time students were on task as the most notable difference:

the engagement in the RM classes was certainly improved and this was often initiated by the students. They were quickly on task and also had the ability to stay on task for a longer period of time [than the comparison classes]. This is I suppose because I was not having to interrupt often for reasons of management rather than of teaching and coaching. The level of difficulty and/or extension

offered by me as a teacher to RM classes was greater, partly because I trusted them and felt that they could actually take responsibility for their own decisions.

During interviews Sarah was asked if she could expand on what was occurring in the RM classes that led her to be confident that there had been an improvement in the levels of engagement. In response Sarah chose to describe three separate incidences, which she felt illustrated the high degree of engagement that students were exhibiting. The first related to 9RM who were involved in a fitness unit that had been organised for the first fifteen minutes of each period. Within the unit students were given a choice of activities, including an aerobic exercise option that allowed them to leave the school grounds for a fifteen-minute run/walk. In one interview Sarah described what happened the previous period:

It went exceedingly well - it was just textbook stuff. Today two kids running through the quad intercepted me and said, "We're off on our run", they went. "Okay, right." So they'd already gone, like I mean I was walking out of the staffroom at this point so they'd rushed in and got changed and were off. By the time I got to the gym the rest of the runners were waiting to go so that was really cool.

The group that had chosen the walking/running option was predominately female and treated the opportunity for unsupervised exercise extremely seriously and with great enthusiasm. On no occasions were they late back or in any way did not meet the mutually agreed expectations for the activity. A number of observations occurred around the fitness part of the lesson including two occasions where the researcher/observer followed the group without being seen, and was able to confirm that there was complete adherence to all aspects of the programme. On all occasions that the class was observed it was noted that the walkers were fully involved with their programme and were participating with great interest and enjoyment.

The fitness unit was also a good example of the ability of the teacher to offer extension activities to students, which appeared to encourage students' interest and engagement. While those who chose to were involved with the walk/run group the remainder of the class had chosen a strength programme based in the school weight room. The teacher allowed this small group to develop their own individualised programmes which, with the occasional exception, most followed carefully. Two boys, however, were unable to follow their programme, instead choosing to be off task and generally being distracting and poorly behaved. In response the teacher placed them on a highly supervised programme in which they were guided carefully by the teacher who remained close by throughout.

The second situation related to 10RM and occurred towards the end-of-year during the Sport Education module. This module ran for fourteen periods and was a useful merging of the two pedagogical models. At one interview Sarah described in detail the high level of commitment the students were giving to the programme:

First of all the X team turned up, got all the gear, and went out. Their warm ups were really good and they were team warm ups. And then they actually practised for the half, exactly half the period in their trainings. Then they came into the games which was really interesting. The Y team, their training was just awesome. Really team orientated, excellent skills. And that's got to be a real credit to Z for getting them organised for that. They happen to be the duty team so they decided, as the duty team, that they were going to monitor the fifth touch and any forward passes so they, from the sideline, would call out when it was the fifth touch. Yeah, they were really encouraging from the side.

The third incident again related to 10RM, and also occurred during the Sport Education module. It had been announced that there was to be no school on the Wednesday of the following week because the teachers were involved in a one-day strike. Sarah reported on the students' reactions:

... you missed a cracker on Monday. So, yeah, and they also said that they were real keen to come in on the strike day for the PE lesson. They wanted to keep going with PE.

While the lesson did not eventuate, due to the cancelling of the school buses, the students' attempt to organise the class demonstrated an unexpected level of commitment to and engagement in the physical education programme.

After considering the degree of student engagement in physical education for the two comparison classes, Sarah reported that their level of engagement remained relatively consistent:

Those who were keen remained keen, those who needed prompting still did and those who were reluctant remained reluctant. As I retained control of the class, the engagement in the class was as a result of direct teaching. I said they did. The class responded well to that and enjoyed the opportunities to be active.

While accepting that in general the comparison classes showed enjoyment and engagement, the lack of choices offered to students was a concern for her. Sarah was aware that the more traditional pedagogies used with these classes offered little in the way of alternatives either in activities or in styles of learning. This she felt acted as a disincentive for true engagement for some students:

If that suited great; if not then the engagement was probably simply conforming and following instructions given.

When asked to consider the reasons for the difference in terms of levels in engagement Sarah returned to the diverse learning opportunities offered to students by the two approaches. She recognised that within the RM classes the students had gained a level of control of their learning that was not present for students taught in a traditional manner.

Individual opportunities were provided for students in the Hellison class to engage in a range of different ways, taking small parts in the lesson, taking large parts in the lesson, assisting others, simply taking responsibility of their own learning. ... The opportunities for the comparison classes were limited and only suited one style of learning. In terms of engagement the learning that took place in the comparison classes was of little personal significance or relevance to the students, it was what I thought where the Hellison class [was more engaged] the learning was meaningful and as a result the level of engagement was high.

Observations of all four classes also identified a difference in the level of engagement between the two RM classes and the comparison classes. This was particularly obvious with 10RM who by the end of the year were showing a quite distinctive “sense of purpose” in physical education. Observations of the two comparison classes noted that the classes appeared “less than enthusiastic” on occasions and that students often required teacher motivation to remain on task. Overall, the classroom observations would support Sarah’s description of the comparison classes as being generally well behaved and showing reasonable levels of engagement that remained basically unchanging throughout the implementation period. This is not to say that there were not periods of high-level engagement for the comparison classes. What was different was the lack of consistently high levels of engagement that was obvious in the RM classes in the second half of the implementation.

There were times also in the RM classes that the students appeared unmotivated and unengaged. One observation of 9RM in November recorded five students without physical education clothing and no excuse notes who sat out the class working in work books. Another observation recorded a group of six boys in 9RM playing touch rugby in the gymnasium when they were meant to have started their fitness programme. It required a few minutes discussion with Sarah before they went, without great enthusiasm, to start their programme. Similar observations were recorded on occasions for 10RM although these were usually during lessons in the

first half of the implementation or where there were major interruptions from the presence of relief teachers, the combining of classes due to the poor weather or some other external factor.

3.2 Indicator: Student Interview Statements about Their Engagement in Physical Education

The majority of students, from all four classes, reported that they generally enjoyed physical education, and that for many of them it was their favourite subject. This was a consistent response throughout the period of the implementations.

When considering the effects of the RM, students generally reported that the implementation had impacted positively on their participation in physical education. Many also referred to an increased enjoyment in the subject and specifically mentioned that they appreciated and enjoyed the offering of choices within the class which they felt motivated them to be more involved. One student when asked how he felt about being given choices replied in a vein similar to many of the others:

Oh, yeah. I quite enjoyed it a lot of the time. It was primo. I liked it cause you got to like be trusted and stuff instead of having to do things with the whole class. (9RM)

These comments show resonance with those reported by Burrows (2004) who found that when students felt they had a level of control over the activities they were involved in, this led to an increase in levels of engagement in physical education.

Another student was asked what impact the RM had had on her participation:

More responsibility. And it makes you feel more grown up so I guess that's why most of us kids like doing it as well because you feel like you're actually getting recognised and you're grown up. (10RM)

Students in the comparison classes were also generally positive about physical education with a number also identifying it as their favourite subject. Two students

offered comments consistent with many others when asked how they ranked physical education among their subjects at school:

It's my best subject, Yeah, same. Best subject. (9CO)

The students in the comparison classes identified that while the classes were enjoyable for them a number of their classmates did not have the same positive attitude. This led to some frustration, a frustration that was evident in an October interview with students from 10CO. They were asked what they thought about physical education and what their class was like:

Oh sometimes their [they are] not involved, sometimes they just sit back and don't do anything ... half our class doesn't bring PE gear.

While observations did not support that half the class did not bring PE gear the observations did show that the comparison classes appeared to be less enthusiastic overall and less engaged in class than the RM classes.

Summary of Findings on the Impact of the Responsibility Model on Student Engagement in Physical Education

There were four findings related to the impact of the Responsibility Model on student engagement in physical education.

1. Students in all four classes generally enjoyed physical education with many identifying it as their favourite subject.
2. The implementation of the RM generally resulted in a more distinctly positive view of physical education, with a sizable number of students in these classes commenting on their increased enjoyment and engagement with the subject.
3. The teacher observed an increase in student engagement in physical education with the RM classes from early in the implementation. This improvement continued throughout the programme. By the conclusion of the implementation

period the balance of students overall in the RM classes demonstrated a noticeably high level of engagement in the physical education programme.

4. These evident improvements in the levels of engagement were not as noticeable in the two traditionally taught comparison classes. In these classes the levels of engagement were generally satisfactory but showed no noticeable sign of improvement. These classes did not show the high levels of commitment and engagement in physical education shown by the RM classes at times.

C. Learning Outcome: Impact of the Implementation of the Responsibility Model on Classroom Behaviour in Physical Education

The data for this outcome were focussed on the impact of the implementation of the RM on the behaviour of students in physical education.

There was one variable researched for this Learning Outcome.

4.0 Variable: Student Behaviour in Physical Education Classes

There are three sources of data about the impact of the model on student behaviour in physical education.

4.1 Indicator: Teacher Interview Statements about Student Behaviour in Physical Education

In her initial interview, before the commencement of the RM programme, Sarah indicated that both of the classes she had selected to be taught with the RM were “difficult” classes that challenged her as a teacher. She identified them as being poorly motivated and containing a number of students with behaviour problems. Sarah felt that a number of the students were generally not interested or engaged in the physical education curriculum and that much of her time was involved with getting students back on task and disciplining them for indiscretions. The perceived difficulty of both these classes meant that Sarah was particularly interested to establish if the RM would have a positive impact on how the students behaved within the classroom.

In the second interview, four weeks into the implementation, Sarah had already begun to notice positive behavioural changes occurring in the two RM classes. These changes included fewer incidences of minor conflict with individual students and an increased tendency for students to be responsible for equipment. These improvements had led to a better atmosphere in the class and the degree of change in such a short time had been a surprise and was exciting for her. When discussing the behaviour of 9RM, a class that she had had some difficulties with in the first half of the year, she commented that:

They would have been a far more challenging class behaviour-wise (than 10RM). But now I think there's been a lot of behaviour modification there ... at this stage there's been definite behaviour modification from 9RM.

Sarah also identified at this time that there had been rapid improvements in the behaviour of 10RM. When asked what the areas were in which she had observed changes she identified the bringing of physical education gear (clothing) as an obvious example:

Within a couple of weeks their gear has gone, [students were no longer attending without correct clothing] well it was never really that bad but at times it was rough, but they're basically now all in full correct PE gear. Where you normally had odd shorts or odd tops on every now and then, they seem to have taken more responsibility for that. Don't tend to have the note-writers as much as you did [students bringing excuse notes]. Like the kids are tending to opt in.

During an interview in October Sarah returned to the subject of classroom behaviour and reported continuing improvements in the behaviour of both RM classes. When asked to give an example of this improvement for 9RM she commented on the impact of student understanding of the levels of behaviour on classroom behaviour:

I'm finding I'm not having to wait for them [to be quiet] to talk. I just simply say, "Look, come on, this is, you know, people who operate at Level 0 talk over the teacher." And then they sort of, "Oops, I'm not Level 0" so they stop, type of thing.

Sarah was also pleased with the change that had occurred in her relationship with 10RM. This change was attributed in part to the improvement in behaviour of the class which had enabled her to gain confidence in the future success of the programme:

10RM are, I think they're really nice people, young adults, like they're quite responsible, like I can trust them. That's why I'm not that worried about doing this next part because I can actually trust them to go off and do their own thing and work quite well there.

When discussing the overall improvement in classroom behaviour, Sarah made the point that this was not a miraculous transformation where all students now behaved impeccably, but rather a steady improvement and that there were still some students who struggled to take full responsibility for their behaviour. One example observed showed Sarah using a 'no plan, no play' (Hellison, 1995) agreement as a means of getting students to start understanding this responsibility. Two boys, who enjoyed physical education, were constantly disruptive and off-task in class. They exhibited little personal or social responsibility and their behaviour was both distracting and obvious to all students. In response, Sarah placed both boys in chairs, one at each end of the gym, with a pen and book and required them both, independently, to come up with three rules of behaviour that they would agree to keep. This occurred in clear view of the remainder of the class who continued with their lesson. The agreement was that while the rules were to originate from the boys they had to be agreed to by Sarah. The boys also agreed that if they broke any of the rules in class in future they would immediately remove themselves without discussion to the detention room. Until this plan was agreed to there was to be no more participation in physical

education for the students (no plan, no play). After a considerable time both boys decided, independently, that the three rules should be concerned with;

Not swearing in class

Not fighting in class

Not talking when Sarah was talking

This agreement was signed by Sarah and the boys at the conclusion of the lesson. At the start of the next lesson one of the two boys walked in punched a fellow student and then swore loudly when hit back. At that point Sarah simply shook her head and raised her eyebrows towards him. The student then returned to the changing room, changed clothes, and went by himself to the detention room. While a major issue was not made of the incident, it was noted by the class and was the subject of a number of comments. While there are a number of possible reasons for the student's decision to remove himself without protest on this particular morning, one possibility is that he was accepting responsibility for his behaviour and was willing to accept the consequences. It should be noted, however, that this was not a 'tipping point' that lead to a transformation and that the student's behaviour remained 'difficult' for the remainder of the programme.

A small number of students needed close supervision in the classroom situation when there was the possibility of off-task-behaviour:

X and Y don't necessarily need one-on-one but they need supervision. Like I actually need to be standing saying "What level [of fitness circuit] are you doing? Blue, green or red? Or have you done your sit ups? Are you on your second circuit?" They need a lot of prompting to do that.

By the conclusion of the programme Sarah was pleased with the behaviour of both RM classes. She felt that they had both improved steadily throughout the implementation and were now behaving in a close to exemplary manner. Their behaviour had led her to develop a high level of comfort and trust and she

commented on the subsequently improved relationships and atmosphere in physical education. During her final interview Sarah described two incidents that she felt offered good illustrations of the excellent behaviour of the two classes. The first involved 9RM and occurred in late November when Sarah was timetabled to teach the class but was feeling unwell. She described the class's response to this situation:

I read out Level 3 [self direction] and said that today's the day that I expect them all to work at Level 3 and the fact that they need to work together and work without direct supervision cause I said I'm not feeling well and I expect, well, would like them to be able to do that. And they did. They were really, really good, so that was really cool ... I'd probably had to have gone home previously where I could sit in the class today with them. And they worked well, they, no arguments, no silly play, just really [a] good little class which was awesome, so that's cool.

This behaviour contrasted starkly with the reaction she felt she would have received early in the year from a class she freely described at that point as "difficult". The second incident concerned 10RM. This class was involved in a Sport Education model based on Touch (rugby). The module was nearing the end and the students were taking responsibility for most aspects of the lesson. By this stage the student behaviour could only be described as excellent and Sarah was keen to share her experiences:

but it worked really well. Their trainings were excellent. They were really, really cool. It's just a shame that I didn't have a video cause it was just outstanding. They did really, really well this time. Really coordinated, everyone involved, helping each other out.

The observational notes on this particular class support the belief that the class's behaviour was excellent during this lesson. As Sarah approached the changing rooms she was asked by a member of the duty team for her keys. The student ran ahead to open the changing rooms and the equipment bay. Sarah walked out to the field and

watched as the members of the duty team distributed balls to the team coaches and set up the fields with cones. While this occurred the teams started training under the control of their student coaches. While the content of the training differed all had a warm-up and then a skills or tactic session. Fifteen minutes were allocated for this section of the lesson. Most appeared actively engaged with the processes occurring. All students were changed and involved with activity. The duty team called in the teams after fifteen minutes, confirmed who was playing who and then blew a whistle to signal the start of the game. The duty team took responsibility for acting as timekeepers. The games started and were played without referees with the teams keeping their own scores. At one point a dispute occurred around players not retiring the full 5 meters at the play the ball. After some excited discussion involving the majority of players from both teams it was agreed among the players that the teams would try as hard as possible to play fair. This decision appeared to be mainly driven by the players being eager to return to play rather than standing around talking. The games continued with great enthusiasm and few problems. At the completion of the games members of the duty team collected the balls, picked up the cones and recorded the scores on the results sheet. Having opened the changing rooms and returned the balls to the equipment bay the student returned the keys to Sarah. The behaviour of the students throughout the lesson could not be faulted. Sarah felt a little uncomfortable about both her lack of obvious input and the fact that the lesson had not followed the structure associated with the RM. After discussion she readily accepted that the lesson was a demonstration of the essence of the RM in action and that her role was very much one that illustrated the belief that “when you are doing nothing and they are doing everything then you are doing everything” (Hellison, 2006).

As Sarah had taught all four classes she was able to offer a clear comparison between the behaviour of the two RM classes and the two comparison CO classes taught with a traditional pedagogy. Sarah was very clear in her belief that while the comparison classes were well behaved generally, a clear differentiation had developed between them and the now better-behaved RM classes. This differentiation increased throughout the implementation with the comparison classes not showing a parallel

improvement in their behaviour as was noted for the RM classes. When asked in October about the behaviour of 10CO Sarah replied with an element of frustration:

10CO you know just totally no sense of responsibility or, you know, just haven't, it's like they haven't grown up and the other class [10RM] have.

In her final interview Sarah referred to how her relationships with the two comparison classes had remained basically stagnant:

By the end of the RM [implementation] my relationship with the non-RM classes had developed no further than at the start and possibly I was a little frustrated with this lack of progress in comparison to the RM classes ... I felt I gained little rapport with these classes. I didn't really know them as people - more as people who followed my rules ... in summary the behaviour was very flat line with no major changes either positive or negative.

In seeking to explain the comparative stability of behaviour and the limited relationship she had developed with these classes Sarah felt that it was the result of the class culture that had developed. She described this as a controlled atmosphere that was the result of the traditional approach to teaching and discipline that she had used:

I gave nothing - adhered to a relatively strict and dictatorial style of management and they [students] responded in a respectful and compliant manner. The behaviour was as I expected and the standard of what I expected was maintained. In being quite confrontational, any major management issues were generally large blow-ups. This did not happen often but when it did, I certainly showed no sense of budging from my position as the teacher.

Having described her approach to teaching the comparison classes, Sarah then reflected that she had perhaps eased off a little as the year progressed. She felt that in the comparison classes she had begun to give a "little more of herself:" and that had

begun to result in the students responding more positively. Without prompting she then began to reflect on whether this change in attitude was a normal process or had been impacted by her success with the RM classes:

Through Hellison [teaching the RM classes] I realised that positive and supportive relationships are equally important to having hard firm and fair guidelines, which gains respect. This probably was a process of osmosis, it simply filtered through.

This indication that the teaching in the RM classes may have influenced the teaching in the comparison classes is perhaps not surprising when considering the realities of teachers working in their practice.

Sarah was asked in her final interview to summarise how she saw the differences between the two classes in terms of the changes in behaviour in physical education.

The changes were simply that the Hellison classes modified the behaviour within the class either as individuals or as peer [of their peers] where the comparison classes were dependent, through my doing, on me being the modifier of their behaviour. The Hellison classes grasped and actually demonstrated that behaviour modification is directly related to the level of personal responsibility that they took. The changes in the Hellison classes were reinforced internally - it felt good, it was positive, opportunities opened as a result.

These comments seem to identify clearly that in the judgement of Sarah the students in the RM classes had generally become better behaved in class as a result of the implementation of the RM. While it is difficult to directly attribute improved behaviour specifically to students having learned about personal and social responsibility, Sarah identified aspects of the RM, which, in her professional judgement, had contributed to better behaviour. This contrasted with the students in

the comparison classes who were identified as being dependent on the external control of the teacher to direct and moderate their behaviour.

4.2 Indicator: Student Interview Statements about Behaviour in Physical Education

Over the period of the implementation, interviews with selected members of both RM classes showed a progressive acknowledgement that the class's behaviour was changing in physical education. In the initial interviews, four weeks after the implementation started, a number of students commented that they felt their physical education classes were behaving more positively. When asked why they thought this was, students offered a number of reasons:

It's more organized. It's more fun and like sensible too. (9RM)

Yeah. Everyone just tries way harder and everything. (10RM)

And they're all supportive of each other. (10RM)

During the second series of interviews, in October, students were again asked if they felt that the RM had had an impact on their class's behaviour. All of the students interviewed from the two RM classes commented that generally classroom behaviour in physical education had improved. Behaviour was still not considered to be perfect, however, with some complaining about other students' Level 0 behaviour. While they were critical of others' behaviour at times, they also acknowledged that at least students working at this level were now cognisant of the fact that this was not an acceptable way to behave:

Yeah, but some are honest on what level they're at, like some people at Level 0 [identified that they were working at that level] and that's what they did. They didn't obey (9RM).

By the December interview all RM students interviewed felt strongly that there had been a substantial improvement in classroom behaviour. When asked to identify ways in which changes had occurred students gave examples such as:

Like real bad people at the start well they've gone on to be quite responsible. Not acting stupid and that and people changed when that programme started. (10RM)

Yeah, the language stopped pretty quick. Cause at the start they were bad as. (10RM)

They were like not very good at the start and they've just changed. (9RM)

While students acknowledged that the programme had resulted in changes of behaviour in physical education, they were less able to clearly identify why this had occurred. Some students commented about a change in relationship between the students and the teacher as a potential reason. This they felt had led to a more positive atmosphere in the class and to a more positive relationship between the students and the teacher:

It feels like she's more equal to us now and before it was like teacher high, student lower, but now it's like we're on the same level of understanding and everything. Yeah, it's not like you talk to her any different or anything. You're still normal and polite and stuff. It's just that she, you have a better understanding of each other. Because we're more good behaved for her and she's starting to like us more and get along with us because we're behaving well because we want to get things done and stuff. (9RM)

Others were quite unsure about what was occurring to bring about the changes in behaviour. They did not identify the RM as a programme specifically orientated to behaviour modification, but saw the improvement in behaviour as a by-product of the implementation:

Like it made us more good. Like you don't know how it has cause it's not really about behaviour [the RM] but it is something that's made us behave better. We used to just muck around heaps but now we're really good and we just get straight into it. (9RM)

One student when attempting to explain the changes related them directly to the structure of the RM and this perhaps gives a glimpse into the way that the model was working:

Well, since we want to achieve at our level [of behaviour] we take more notice of how we're acting and stuff. (10RM)

Observations of the RM classes supported the judgements of the teacher and the students that the classes showed an improvement in their behaviour over the time of the implementation. By the completion of the implementation both RM classes were observed to be behaving extremely well in physical education.

In one observation of 9RM it was noted that Sarah did not have to make a single comment related to misbehaviour during the whole class. The students were all changed and fully engaged in the badminton lesson throughout. The behaviour of the students when called in from their games is a good example of the positive atmosphere within the classroom. When Sarah blew her whistle the students quickly and without fuss left their games and gathered around her to listen to her instructions. This happened quickly and little time was lost in transition. The students were noisy while they moved to Sarah but quickly quieted down when she started to talk. At the completion of the instructions the students returned happily to the next activity.

Students in the two comparison classes were also questioned about the behaviour of the class in physical education. Generally the students reported that classes were functioning at a reasonable level but they also identified that at times there were problems. When asked in the October interviews, for example, if there was a positive feel to their class (10CO) the reply, after a long pause, was hesitant:

Perhaps positive. It depends what we're doing. In the middle. Sometimes it can be nice, quite nice and other times it can be horrible. (10CO)

In an earlier interview the issue of bullying was raised with students commenting that this was occurring within the physical education classes. This subject was returned to in December when students in 10CO were asked if this was still occurring:

Student: *Yeah.*

Researcher: So it hasn't changed much?

Student: *Nup.*

Researcher: And who does the bullying?

Student: *Everyone.*

Researcher: Why do you think they bully?

Student: *Cause. They like to.*

In the December interview students from 9CO were asked if the class had a good atmosphere. Some students were blunt in their appraisal

No it's pretty rugged.

Yea pretty rugged.

Other students, however, reported that they felt that the class's behaviour had improved over the year and that they were comfortable with the relationships within the class.

Observations of the comparison classes support the view that there was an improvement in classroom behaviour over the six months of the implementation. The observations also indicated, however, that a clear differentiation developed between the behaviour of the two comparison classes and the two RM classes. It was noticeable' for example' that Sarah was far less involved in directly managing students in the RM classes than the comparison classes and there was less need for reprimands and comments aimed at changing students' behaviour.

4.3 Indicator: Student End-of-Year Reflections on Behaviour in Physical Education

As part of the reflection sheet completed at the end of the year, students in all four classes were asked about their behaviours in physical education. Eighteen responses

were received from 9RM (of 18) and seventeen (of 28) from 10RM. When asked whether the programme had impacted positively on the way they thought about their behaviour in class, a clear majority of students (25/33) in the RM classes felt that it had (note two non-responses for this question from 9RM). The results for these two classes are presented in Figure 6.1.

Students were also given the opportunity to make written comments on their behaviour. Fourteen students in 9RM and fifteen in 10RM included written comments in their reflection sheets. A selection of these comments, indicative of the responses overall, is presented in Tables 6.8 and 6.9.

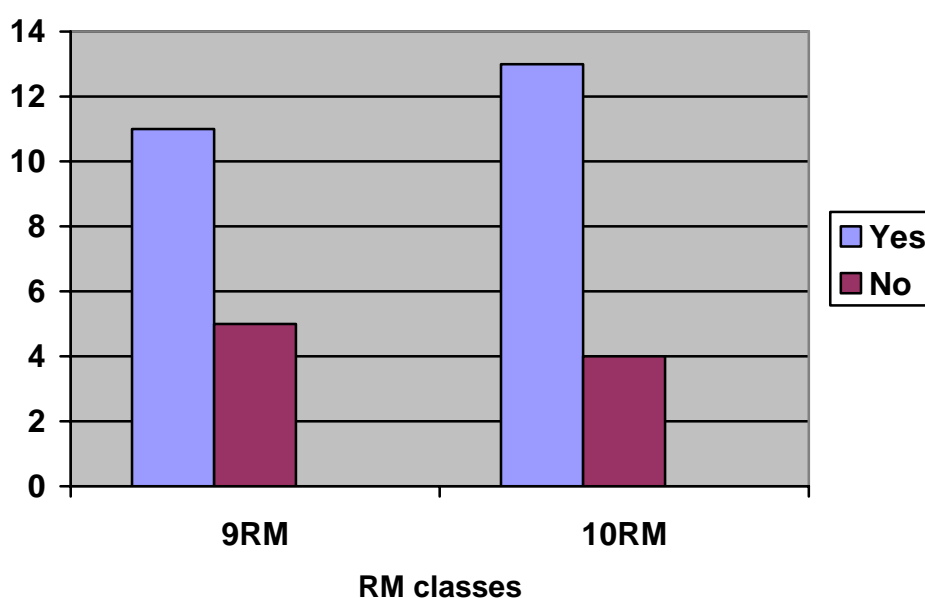


Figure 6.1 Students' responses by frequency on whether the RM had impacted positively on their behaviour in class.

The majority of 9RM's written comments (11/14) indicated that the RM had impacted positively on the way they thought about their behaviour, and on the way they behaved in physical education. Three students commented that the programme had had no effect while four students chose not to make comment.

Table 6.8 Students' written comments on behaviour in class - 9RM

Question	Selection of students' written comments - 9RM
<i>Did the programme impact on the way you think about your behaviour either in class or out of it?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ It made me behave better without supervision. ▪ Yes it made me realise how I should act and speak. ▪ It made me feel and behave better. ▪ It made me act responsibly. ▪ Yes I have more self control and I don't get frustrated real bad any more. ▪ Yes it made me realise how I should act and speak. ▪ No not really ... hell no.

A similar pattern of comments occurred with students from 10RM (see Table 6.9). Of the fifteen responses thirteen indicated that the students believed the RM had impacted on the way they thought about their behaviour and on the way they behaved in physical education, while two felt that there had been no impact. Two students chose to make no comment.

Table 6.9 Students' written comments on behaviour in class - 10RM

Question	Selection of student written comments - 10RM
<i>Did the programme impact on the way you think about your behaviour either in class or out of it?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Yeah in class it made me more aware about how I act and if it is senceable [sensible]/mature or not. ▪ Yes by you making a mental decision on how your [you're] going to behave instead of just starting at it. ▪ Yes it made me use my self control against others. ▪ Yes because I kinda learnt to control my mouth. ▪ Yes I think more about my actions. ▪ No not really cause it doesn't work in other classes because we don't have a choice what we learn. ▪ Yes it makes our class more responsible and trustworthy. ▪ Yes it makes you feel more responsible for your actions.

The reflection sheets also sought to establish if students in the comparison classes thought that there had been an improvement in behaviour in physical education. Students were asked if they considered that their "behaviour in class improved over

the last six months - if so why"? A majority of students in these classes (27/44) reported that their behaviour had improved (see Figure 6.2) but this was not as clear a majority as occurred in the RM classes. This was especially so in 10CO where sixteen students indicated that their behaviour had improved and ten said it had not. In 9CO eleven indicated that their behaviour had improved while six students indicated that their behaviour had not. One student from 9CO and two from 10CO made no comment.

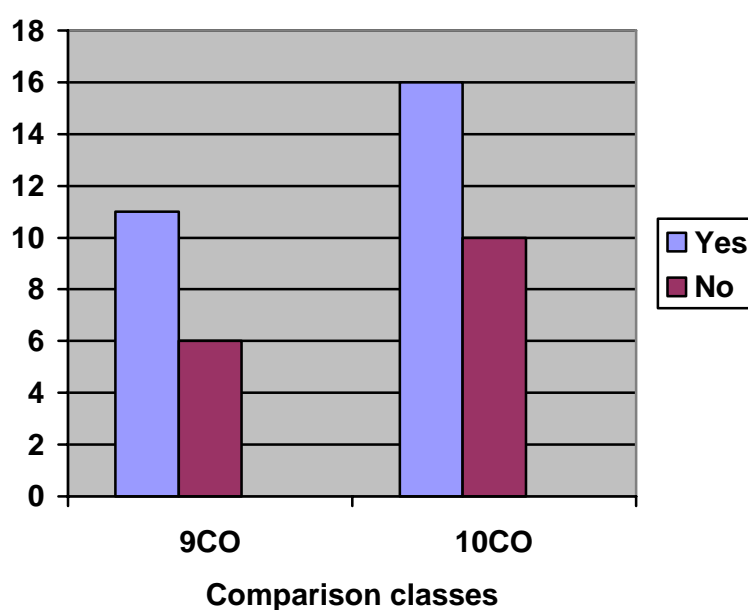


Figure 6.2 Student responses by frequency on whether their behaviour in class had improved.

Students in these comparison classes were also offered the opportunity to make written comments about their behaviour in class. A selection of these comments, indicative of the range of responses, is presented in Tables 6.10 and 6.11.

Table 6.10 Students' written comments on behaviour in class - 9CO

Question	Student written comment
<i>Has your behaviour in class improved over the last six months? If so why do you think this is?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Yes because I like running around and having fun. ▪ Yes it has because I have been participating more. ▪ Yes I have matured as an individual and as a class member. ▪ Stayed the same. ▪ No I have been reasonable all year. ▪ No cause I don't like it. ▪ I don't think so because every thing I do I seem to get wrong.

Table 6.11 Students' written comments on behaviour in class - 10CO

Question	Student written comments
<i>Has your behaviour in class improved over the last six months? If so why do you think this is?</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Yes because we have done funner sport that interest me. ▪ Yes because we played more interesting sport, its more enjoyable to participate. ▪ Yes because I bring my gear and participate. ▪ No not really because I have been good from the start and this hasn't changed. ▪ I said no because it hasn't changed. I've always thought of it as being there to learn and have fun. ▪ No it has not because friends and I get into trouble to [too] much.

Summary of Findings on the Impact of the RM on Classroom Behaviour

There were six findings on the impact of the implementation of the RM on classroom behaviour:

1. Data from Sarah, the students and classroom observations all suggested an improvement in classroom behaviour in physical education over the period of the implementation for the two RM classes.
2. An improvement in behaviour was noticed from early on in the implementation of the RM by Sarah, the observer/researcher and some

students. This improvement was observed to continue throughout the period of the programme. During the earlier stages of the implementation there were some students who felt that there had been little impact. By the end of the implementation the belief that the implementation had had a positive effect on classroom behaviour in physical education was acknowledged by the teacher and the majority of the students.

3. These observed improvements did not mean that there were not problems with student behaviour. Some students continued to misbehave at times and needed close teacher supervision.
4. All of the students interviewed from the RM classes saw an improvement in the class's behaviour as a whole. A minority of these students, and of the students who filled in the reflection sheets, did not believe that their personal behaviour had been impacted by the model.
5. Students who identified a positive change in behaviour were generally unable to identify exactly what was generating this change.
6. The majority of students in the two comparison classes also considered that there had been an improvement in behaviour during the time of the study. The teacher who was involved in teaching physical education to all four classes observed, however, that the degree of improvement in these classes did not parallel that experienced in the two RM classes. The researcher who observed all four classes also noted this differentiation.

D. Learning Outcome: Transfer of Learning about Personal and Social Responsibility to other Contexts

The data for this outcome focus on the transfer of learning about personal and social responsibility to contexts outside of the physical education classroom.

There are two learning-teaching variables researched for this learning outcome.

5.0 Variable: Students' Perceptions of Transfer of Learning to other Contexts

There were three sources of data about the transfer of learning on personal and social responsibility from physical education to other contexts.

5.1 Indicator: Student Interview Statements about Transfer of Learning

During interviews students were asked if they believed what they were learning in physical education had any relevance in other contexts. The majority of students from both RM classes responded that this was not the case and that the learning was applicable to the physical education context only. In the final interview in December students were asked if they had used what they had learned in physical education in other classes. The following replies are representative of all but two students interviewed:

No not really cause it doesn't work in other classes because we don't have a choice what we learn.

No because it's different in PE you are running around having a good time but in other classes you are sticking to the routine.

Two students from 10RM had a different view, with both being very clear that the learning had had an impact in other school contexts, at home and at work. When asked the same question their responses suggested that transfer of learning, for them, had occurred:

Yeah and outside of school and everything. I mean, everything you can do can go back to that [the RM]. Everything in life really. At work you can say, Oh yeah. I didn't really work that good. So the next time I try harder.

Yeah. I always try and be real responsible at home. It's like, I don't think about the posters but I think about what's on them. Yeah, they're in my, they're in your brain, eh from doing PE and then when you go and do other things you think, Oh yeah have I done that? It makes you remember more and try harder. Without like subconsciously doing it without actually knowing. Sounds a bit weird but I don't know how to explain it. Yeah, they've got stuck in your brain.

The majority of comments would suggest that, despite the stated intentions of Sarah to address transfer, and the integral place that transfer has in the RM, few students were cognisant of the connection between what they were learning in physical education and its applicability to other contexts.

While the study was interested in the students' understanding of transfer, there was also interest in changes in the behaviour of the classes in other subjects as a potential indication of a transfer of learning in practice. Of particular interest was the behaviour of 10RM, who while they had had demonstrated improved behaviour in physical education, had simultaneously been causing disruptions in their other classes through their steadily deteriorating behaviour. In the October interviews the situation was discussed in an effort to establish the students' understanding of the problem. The students readily accepted that their behaviour was poor in other classes and one comment offered an insight into the possible reasons for this:

Yeah. I think it's the way we get taught in PE. It's more, more like they're giving us more responsibility and in other classes we're treated like we're little kids.

The sense of frustration was illustrated when the researcher was approached by a student from 10RM before a class. She had just received a detention and explained in very clear terms what she felt about the teacher. She believed strongly that it was undeserved and unfair.

We get to do all sorts in PE and we are really responsible and then we go to ... and the xxxx tells us to sit down be quiet and get our books out or he will give us a detention. All I said was that he shouldn't treat us like children and he said we were so irresponsible that was the only way to treat us and when I said it was his fault because we were really responsible in PE the xxxx gave me a detention. Its not fair.

Perhaps unsurprisingly teachers did not accept these types of interactions easily and for a period of time Sarah was the recipient of a number of criticisms from other teachers about how the PE programme was ruining their classes.

While a number of the students appeared to apportion blame on the teachers, other students started to see that there were inconsistencies between what they were starting to understand and believe in physical education and the way they were behaving in other classes. The following illustrates the confusion that some students felt:

Researcher: So you're quite able to work at say Level 3 and 4 consistently in the physical education class, but the class, as a whole, hasn't transferred that into other classes?

Student: *No, not really.*

Researcher: Talking about it now does that sound strange to you or not?

Student: *Yeah, it does actually. It's kind of weird. Mm. It is weird isn't it?*

Sarah used this situation as a context for discussion of responsibility and the real life emotion involved led a reality to the situation that was in line with moral development theory (Noddings, 1992; Santrock, 2003). The reluctance of many students, however, to accept that they had a role to play in these conflicts illustrated that the ability to transfer their learning from the physical education context to other situations had not yet occurred. This conclusion is tempered by an understanding of the essential powerlessness many students felt in classes where the teachers had established a dominant role, and an acknowledgement that the reality for them was that any attempt at entering into meaningful dialogue with their teacher may well have been met with resistance.

5.2 Indicator: Student Reflections on Behaviour in Other Classes

Students from all four classes were asked to complete a reflection sheet at the completion of the programme. One of the questions asked of students from the RM classes was:

Did the programme impact on the way you think about your behaviour either in class or out of it. If so why?

While all students answered in regards to their behaviour in physical education, only four of the 35 students who responded made comment on the impact of the programme on their behaviour out of physical education. It is interesting that so few of the students, who readily supplied an answer in relation to the impact of the programme on their behaviour in class, also commented on their behaviour out of class. The low number of responses in regard to this issue would suggest that this was not a question that sparked interest for the majority of the students, a lack of interest consistent with data from other sources. All four of the comments indicated that the students did not consider that the learning in physical education had impacted on their behaviour in other contexts:

No not really it doesn't work in other classes because we don't have a choice what we learn. (10RM)

Not really in other classes. (10RM)

No because its different in PE. (9RM)

No because its not like any other class. (9RM)

6.0 Variable: Student Detentions Issued in Classes other than Physical Education

There were two sources of data for detentions issued to students in classes other than physical education.

6.1 Indicator: Student Detentions, Frequency by Month for Year-9

Detentions are a punitive process in which students are punished for misbehaviour by being required to stay after school for a set period of time. The school's deans administer the detention system and a record was kept of all the detentions given by individual teachers. Figure 6.3 displays the frequency of detentions given to members of the two Year-9 classes by month. Students in 9RM, for example,

received 28 detentions in total for the month of March while students in 9CO received nineteen.

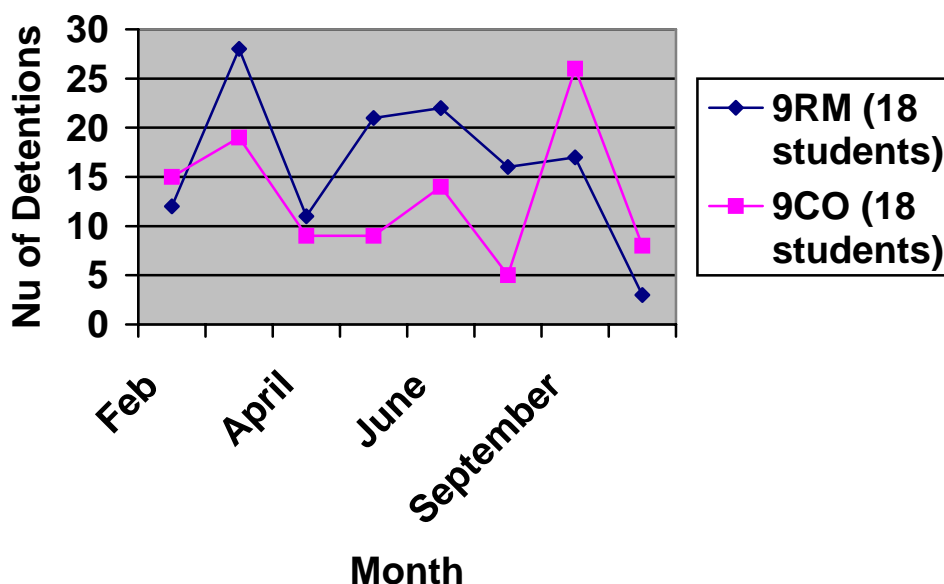


Figure 6.3 Number of detentions given to students February to October – Year-9

It can be seen from Figure 6.3 that for the first half of the year 9RM consistently received more detentions than 9CO with both classes followed a similar pattern of increase and decrease during this time. After the introduction of the RM in July this relationship remained consistent for a further month. From July, however, the number of detentions given to 9RM reduced. During the same period the number of detentions given to 9CO increased with the result that the comparative position of both classes was reversed. The reduction in the number of detentions given to 9RM during this period is one indication that their behaviour, in terms of teachers giving detentions, showed an improvement during the second half of the year.

6.2 Indicator: Student Detentions, Frequency by Month for Year-10

The relationship between the numbers of detentions given to the two Year-10 classes is the reverse of the pattern for the Year-9 classes (see Figure 6.4). For the first half

of the year fewer detentions were given to members of 10RM than to members of 10CO. In the second half of the year, after implementation of the RM in July, this is reversed with the number of detentions given to members of 10RM immediately beginning to increase. During this same period the number of detentions issued to students in 10CO decreased. The combination of these two trends led to a reversal of their comparative positions to a point where 10RM consistently received more detentions than 10CO.

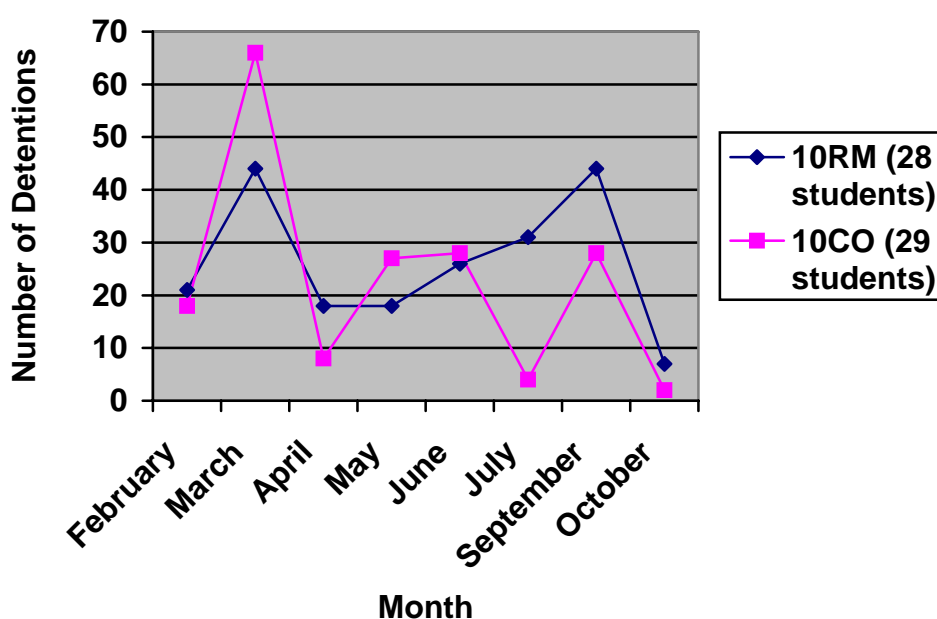


Figure 6.4 Number of detentions given to students February to October – Year-10

While detentions are only one potential measure of student behaviour, they give a broad indication of how other teachers perceive the classes' behaviour in contexts outside of physical education. The changing pattern of detentions supplies information, which can be used to help create an impression of what occurs when the classes move on to different teachers within the school. The trends identified from the data on detentions supports the impression gained from Sarah and the students of

one RM class, 9RM, behaving well in their other classes and of the other 10RM behaving progressively worse.

Summary of Findings on Transfer of Learning about Personal and Social Responsibility from Physical Education to other Contexts

There are three findings on the transfer of learning to contexts other than physical education:

1. Interviews of students from the RM classes showed that all but two of the students interviewed believed that the learning associated with taking personal and social responsibility was specific to the physical education context.
2. Detentions given to the two Responsibility Model classes showed two distinctly different patterns.
 - (i) The behaviour of 9RM as illustrated by detentions in other classes, improved after the implementation of the RM. This was the reverse of the trend for the Year-9 comparison class.
 - (ii) The behaviour of 10RM as illustrated by detentions in other classes deteriorated after the implementation of the RM. This was the reverse of the trend for the Year-10 comparison class.
3. The learning associated with the RM was considered by only two students interviewed to have had any impact on behaviour outside of the physical education context.

E. Learning Outcome: Teacher Perceptions of the Implementation of the Responsibility Model

The data for this outcome were focussed on Sarah's experiences of implementing the RM.

There was one variable researched for this Learning Outcome.

7.0 Variable: Teacher's experiences of implementing the RM

There was one source of data about teacher perceptions of the implementation of the RM.

7.1 Indicator: Teacher's Interview Statements on the Implementation of the RM

Sarah was interviewed on eight occasions before, during and after the RM implementation. She acknowledged that she held a strong philosophical alignment with the intent and pedagogical underpinnings of the RM, and that this was a part of the attraction of the model for her. When asked, for example, at her initial interview if she was comfortable with transferring power to the students and allowing them to take on a decision-making role within the classroom, her reply showed a philosophical congruence with this aspect of the of the RM:

Yeah I do. Yeah, I'd like them to be able to do that and I think that they, for some of these kids, they don't get any opportunities anywhere else, you know, in other subjects they sit behind a desk, at home they've got, it's done for them, so, yeah, I'm quite keen to do that.

Her general philosophical comfort with the requirements of the RM meant that her concerns during the planning phase tended to be pragmatic ones, concerning the allocation of time and her ability to adequately structure learning experiences for the students. Such concerns continued during the initial stages of the implementation. When interviewed in October, Sarah was asked to identify the major problems she had faced in implementing the RM. Her concerns at that point remained similar to those articulated previously:

It's mainly time. Probably the biggest problem is this reflection time at the end ... Yeah, so I've tried to put a real focus on that reflection time and yeah it, that's the hard part I think. It's going to be easy to facilitate learning and responsibility at those levels (Level 1 and 2) but it's when I start to see the kids who are getting to that Level 3 level, ensuring that they're catered for. That

they get their individual time, their time to go and do their skills ... I'll have a bit more understanding of the working of it to be able to ensure they get the teacher guidance and time that they need.

As the programme continued, Sarah's increasing experience and confidence with the model meant that her concerns about her ability to adequately structure the necessary learning experiences within the time available were reduced.

Over the time of the implementation period, both Sarah and the students became increasingly comfortable in discussing their experiences in terms of the goals of the model. While these discussions often used the levels of responsibility as points of reference, this was not always the case. In one interview Sarah discussed how she referenced the goals of the model when talking to students:

When you asked me before about did I relate to the framework and initially I said "No" because I didn't use level words, but in fact it is related back to there [levels]. Like we're using key, like yeah key words. Like right from the start we focussed on [not] blaming others, responsibility for others and responsibility for gear.

The issue of transfer of learning was one that Sarah considered in some detail at the completion of the programme. Sarah had a strong understanding of the importance of transfer of learning to the underpinning intent of the model and valued it as an important outcome. While she felt that she had made an effort to teach about transfer it was an area that she felt in hindsight she could emphasise more strongly in future

I think that transfer is extremely important as the skills taught become real when transferred out of the context of this classroom model. I would place more emphasis on this especially now that I realise how far students can come. This transfer takes organisation and insight to create the opportunities for transfer.

Her comments indicate that her experiences of teaching the model had helped her become confident that transfer could be successfully taught. There may also have been an element of getting the aspects of the model directly related to classroom up and running before moving onto transfer. The value given by teachers to learning associated with contexts outside of the immediate classroom is an interesting issue. This was signposted by Mrugala's (2003) work with his identification that teachers who had implemented the model were mostly concerned with classroom management and student behaviour. This issue is examined further in the discussion chapter. While acknowledging that more emphasis could have been placed on transfer, Sarah did feel that there had been some positive outcomes in this area:

some of the students who were achieving at the higher levels did some "touch" coaching on Friday nights at the local competition. Some were asking about what extra they could do.

In an attempt to determine what impact she considered that the RM had had on classroom dynamics, Sarah was asked to consider the relationships among students in the four classes and whether she had noticed differences in the "feel" of the classes as a whole:

This was significant; the classes who were used as RM classes were selected because of their social dysfunction and their inability to work cooperatively and to have all students actively involved by the end was a huge step. They demonstrated more respect and tolerance for each other [than students in the comparison classes]. More of a realistic mini community developed with some taking on leadership, some sitting back and quietly contributing but everyone had a part to play, and a different part when the unit changed. No one became type-cast or fixed into certain roles which allowed more interaction between the students.

It is an important outcome that Sara clearly considered that the implementation of the RM had led to a significant improvement in the classroom culture of the RM classes.

As the teacher involved with teaching all four classes she also felt confident in being able to clearly differentiate between the two RM classes and the two comparison classes. Sarah's professional judgement of these outcomes, situated as they are in the reality of a secondary school physical education programme, lend weight to the belief that the model can bring about changes within the "swamp of practice".

From Sarah's experiences as the teacher at the centre of the implementation she identified seven positive and two negative outcomes.

Positive Outcomes

The majority of students gained an *understanding of the goals of the RM* and were able to appropriately make reference to the goals in a physical education context. Sarah identified a number of occasions where the students in the RM classes showed signs of developing a "working" knowledge of the model and demonstrated an understanding of the intended outcomes. This understanding was shown in the student's ability to identify behaviour within the conceptualisation of the model. These common understandings allowed Sarah to scaffold her discussions with the students around the goals of the RM.

Many students showed a distinct improvement in regard to a number of the intended outcomes within the model. In regard to personal responsibility Sarah noticed improvements in students' *self-control*, *effort in class* and their ability to become more *self-directed* in their learning. These improvements were noted for students from both RM classes. The fitness unit for 9RM, for example, had students demonstrating all three of these outcomes. Students were asked to develop personal programmes based on their own needs and were then given the opportunity to demonstrate effort and self-control by following these programmes without direct teacher supervision. A majority of the students in the class successfully achieved all three aspects.

With regard to social responsibility Sarah noted improvements in a number of students' *willingness to help others* in the RM classes. These changes were

demonstrated, for example, in the Sport Education model where students not only took the opportunity to help others within their own teams, but also to help other teams when the opportunity arose.

Students in the RM classes seemed to *enjoy* physical education more than those experiencing the traditional approach to teaching physical education. A number of students made specific comments about their increased enjoyment of physical education when it was taught based on the RM. Sarah also found that teaching the two RM classes was more enjoyable than teaching traditionally. This increased enjoyment seemed to be generated by the increased engagement of the students, the improved relationships and the students' sense that they were learning something of importance. By the end of the implementation period Sarah experienced teaching the two RM classes as more enjoyable than teaching the two comparison classes.

The combining of the RM with the *Sport Education* model seemed successful with the Sport Education model offering a number of opportunities to integrate the RM into a physical education context. While there were evident philosophical tensions between the two models, Sarah's judgement was that it was a successful combination in practice.

Overall student *behaviour improved noticeably* in the two classes being taught using the RM. A corresponding improvement in behaviour was not observed in the two classes that Sarah taught using a traditional approach to physical education.

Potential problems concerning the process of *empowerment of students* seemed to be successfully avoided. Sarah had a positive attitude to this intention and regarded the empowerment of students to be an opportunity to be taken wherever possible.

Despite these beliefs, however, there were still times when she felt challenged by the process.

The degree of engagement in physical education increased noticeably for students in the two RM classes with a lack of equivalent change being noted for the students in the two comparison classes. Sarah was confident that the students in the RM classes

did as well, if not better, in learning associated with the physical education curriculum as the students in the corresponding comparison classes.

Two negative outcomes were evident from examining the implementation effects.

A number of teachers reacted negatively to changes in student behaviour in their own classes, changes that they attributed to the implementation of the RM in physical education. This led to Sarah receiving *direct criticism*, which was a difficult and unpleasant experience for her. These criticisms gradually disappeared as the implementation continued and the students' behaviour started to improve.

An awareness that there was *insufficient time* to cover all that needed to be covered in class continued throughout the implementation. While a lack of time is a common experience among teachers, the added demands of the RM meant that at times Sarah felt pressured to achieve all that she wished. On occasions when the classes were working well the requirement to stop the physical activity and to instigate the group discussion and individual reflection time caused some angst for her. In the main Sarah was able to rationalise these requirements in terms of the twin goals of the model, to a degree that meant it was not a major problem.

Sarah's overall experiences with the implementation of the RM were predominantly positive. At the conclusion of the implementation period she was asked whether she considered the implementation had been successful; with her answer leaving little doubt about her support of the model.

Absolutely. Powerful, in fact the question is by not teaching RM are you knowingly withholding the opportunity [for students] to succeed.

Later in this interview she was asked whether she would use it again in her future teaching and again her answer was unequivocal:

I certainly would use it again. I probably would use it with the Year-10 students, but for the whole year.

Summary of Findings on the Teacher's Perception of the Implementation of the Responsibility Model

There are seven findings on Sarah's perspective on the implementation.

1. Sarah felt that the implementation of the model was successful and she would see herself using the RM again.
2. Sarah had concerns about having adequate time to cover all aspects of the programme, with specific concerns about the time available for reflection time.
3. The implementation of the RM caused some friction with other staff members who felt that as a result of the implementation students were behaving more poorly in their classes.
4. The majority of students in the two RM classes demonstrated improved behaviours associated with taking personal and social responsibility, for example self-control and a willingness to help others.
5. Sarah felt strongly that the two RM classes became better behaved and more fully engaged in physical education. She did not consider that corresponding changes occurred in the two comparison classes.
6. The students in the two RM classes generally showed a higher level of enjoyment in physical education.
7. Sarah particularly enjoyed teaching physical education based on the RM, and less so teaching the comparison classes using a traditional pedagogy.

Overview of Results

This study examined a six-month implementation of the RM in a New Zealand secondary school physical education programme. The study involved four classes, two who were taught a physical education programme based on the RM and two who were taught by the same teacher, using a traditional pedagogy. Data were collected

through student and teacher interviews, classroom observations, detention records, and reflection and goal setting sheets.

An area of particular interest for teachers is the impact of the RM on classroom behaviour and student management. All of the data in this study identified that there had been a noticeable improvement in classroom behaviour for the two RM classes. The teacher, the students and the research observer noticed an improvement in behaviour early in the implementation, an improvement that continued throughout the study. By the conclusion of the study both RM classes were behaving extremely well in physical education. While students acknowledged the improvement in behaviour, and some attributed it to the RM, most students appeared unsure as to how the RM had achieved this result.

It was also noted that there had also been an improvement in the classroom behaviour of the two comparison classes over the period of the implementation. Both the teacher and the observer assessed, however, that this improvement did not seem to be of the same magnitude as that of the RM classes and that a clear differentiation had developed between the two groups. That the RM classes finished the implementation period noticeably better behaved than the comparison classes is interesting in that these classes were originally selected because of Sarah's perception that they were more difficult than the comparison classes.

Students in all four classes indicated that they enjoyed physical education and for a large number it was their favourite subject. The implementation of the RM did not alter this favourable opinion with a number of students in the RM classes commenting that the addition of the RM had increased their enjoyment. Students in the RM classes also showed a high level of engagement in the physical education programme, shown, for example, by their attempt to organise a physical education class on a teacher strike day. Both Sarah's professional judgement, and the observations of the four classes, indicated that the comparison classes did not show the same level of engagement in physical education.

This study found that the students interviewed in the two RM classes developed a good understanding of the concept of personal responsibility in both theory and practice. This was illustrated by their ability to explain the concept and to give examples of personal responsibility from the physical education context. These students considered that they were becoming more personally responsible in class, a belief supported by both the teacher and the research observer. Students in the comparison classes did not demonstrate an equivalent understanding of personal responsibility or show the same degree of personal responsibility in physical education as the RM classes.

The students who were interviewed from the RM classes were less comfortable in explaining the concept of social responsibility than that of personal responsibility. A number of students from both classes did, however, select a number of personal goals for physical education that were congruent with the idea of being socially responsible. These included goals such as helping classmates with work or encouraging others. The teacher observed that while many students showed socially responsible behaviour there was a small number of students who did not. The teacher identified the improved ability of students to help and care for each other as an important factor in making the students more positive in their relationships and the class more pleasant to teach.

Students in the two RM classes commented on a continuing improvement in peer relationships as the implementation continued. By the completion of the implementation period the students interviewed were generally positive, seeming to believe that the classroom culture had become more supportive. There were also a number of students in the comparison classes who identified that peer relationships and classroom culture had improved over the last six months of the school year. Both the teacher and the observer noted that overall students showed less socially responsible behaviour in the two comparison classes, that they were less positive in their relationships and that the classroom culture was less positive than that of the RM classes.

This study considered the degree to which learning about personal and social responsibility was transferred to other contexts. All three indicators suggested that the majority of students did not identify that the learning about personal and social responsibility was applicable in contexts away from the physical education classroom. For many students the suggestion that this could be a possibility was both surprising and confusing. For students in 10RM the failure to understand that learning could be transferred to other contexts seemed partially responsible for the deterioration of behaviour in their other classes. While this disruptive behaviour had a number of negative outcomes it also acted as a catalyst for some students, causing them to contemplate the incongruence of their learning in physical education and their experiences and behaviour elsewhere. While the majority of students did not seem to understand the potential for transfer of learning, two students identified that the learning in physical education had had a major impact in their lives outside of the physical education classroom.

When considering any new curriculum implementation it is important that the voice of the teacher at the centre of the process is heard (Dyson, 2006). In this study Sarah felt strongly that the implementation had been a success and that she would continue to use the model in her future teaching. She identified a number of positive outcomes from the programme, including substantial changes in the classroom culture and the increased ability of many students to behave in personally and socially responsible ways. The only major negative outcome to emerge from the implementation was the criticism that she received from a small group of teachers. The deteriorating behaviour of some students in other classes was attributed by these teachers to the implementation of the RM in physical education. This belief led to some pressure being placed on Sarah. By the completion of the implementation this negativity had been reduced substantially.

When considering the overall results of the implementation, Sarah concluded that there had been: an improvement in the RM classes' behaviours associated with taking personal and social responsibility; that students in the RM classes became better behaved and generally more engaged in physical education; that students in the

RM classes showed a higher level of enjoyment in class; and that the RM classes had become much “nicer”. She also observed that she had not noted parallel changes in the two comparison classes that she had also taught.

F. Authenticity of implementation of Responsibility Model

When examining a new pedagogical model it is important that the researcher can demonstrate that the application of the model in practice showed fidelity to the model in theory.

Metzler (2005) suggested four procedures to ensure that acceptable fidelity to a model has been achieved.

1. The researcher must fully explain the model under study, noting all relevant features.
2. The researcher must document and confirm that the model deployed in the study was acceptably faithful to its design.
3. Any changes in the model as it was implemented should be noted.
4. The researcher should demonstrate that the necessary contextual and operational requirements for the model were met. (p. 191)

Three sources of data were used to evaluate the RM in practice. These data were qualitative in nature in line with the methodology used in the study.

Class Observations

All four classes were observed on a regular basis (Table 5.2). When observing the RM classes the observer noted:

- The degree to which the lesson format was being followed.
- The degree to which the four themes, identified by Hellison as being integral to the model, were being implemented (Table 6.11).

Classes based on the RM follow a standard format:

1. Counselling time

2. Awareness talk
3. Lesson time
4. Group meeting
5. Reflection time

Observations of the RM classes recorded that Sarah initiated individual discussions with a range of students at the commencement of and during lessons, in such a way as to meet the intentions of the *counselling* time. These conversations covered a range of subjects including a number that related to the students' understanding of personal and social responsibility. Sarah would, for example, on occasions discuss with students their behaviour in previous classes and how they perceived it related to the goals of the RM. At other times Sarah would quietly discuss with the students their selection of the levels they either intended to work at or had worked at. On one occasion a student selected level two "effort" at the start of the lesson. During the dance class he had been extremely helpful to members of his group taking a leading role in helping others learn the moves and the group develop their dance. Sarah noted at the end of the lesson that the student did not change his level and spoke quietly to him as he moved to get changed. The discussion centred about his caring for others and the suggestion was made that he consider that he had been working at a caring level without being aware of it. Similar discussions occurred in a number of lessons.

Each lesson commenced with a process that served to refocus students on the goals of the RM. As students entered the gymnasium they removed their nametags from a Velcro strip attached to the gymnasium wall. They then placed their name on a Velcro strip below one of the six posters related to levels of responsibility permanently displayed on the gymnasium wall. The placing of their names by the level they considered they would be working at for the teaching period was a variation of 'touching-in touching-out' as used previously in implementations of the RM (Hellison, 1995). The students took the responsibility associated with this process very seriously. On most occasions some students would be seen considering their selection, a process that often involved discussion with others. The seriousness with which they took this responsibility was demonstrated on the occasions that

Sarah was absent and a reliever took the class. In these classes the students would still complete the process of placing their names by the posters. After the students had placed their names they would gather together for the introduction of the lesson. During this introduction Sarah would complete an *awareness talk* aimed at refocusing students on the goals of the RM. This discussion would often include some reference to the students' selection of levels of behaviour. The selection of a level of responsibility by students and an awareness talk occurred in every lesson observed. Sarah confirmed that this was a process that she followed in all of her lessons for the two RM classes.

The *lesson time* relates to the teaching of the curriculum subject area of the lesson. It is important during this time that the subject content area is taught using pedagogical approaches that facilitates the achievement of the RM goals as well as the physical education curriculum goals. Observations and discussions with Sarah confirmed that she was aware of the necessity for successful integration and that this consideration was an important aspect of her unit and lesson planning. This is a crucial element in a true implementation of the RM because if integration does not occur the programme is unlikely to be able to meet both the goals of the physical education curriculum and the goals related to the RM. In this study the RM classes were taught in a way that allowed for the achievement of both sets of goals. The pedagogical approaches used with the two RM classes included giving small groups the responsibility to develop new games, dances, and gymnastic routines. During the fitness unit students were asked to identify their own needs and were then given the opportunity to work independently in class time. Within the touch unit students were given a number of responsibilities and the opportunity to make a number of decisions about what they would be doing as the unit progressed. While these were reasonably major decisions the awareness of the need to provide opportunities for student development was also observed in small ways. These included such things as asking students to plan for taking warm-ups or introductory activities. It was also obvious that the degree to which students were involved in decision making and taking responsibilities within the class increased during the time of the study. This is a progression that is to be

expected in a situation where students are developing skills and both the teacher and the students are gaining confidence in their ability to meet the challenges.

The *group meeting* occurred towards the end of the lesson after completion of the subject content and was an opportunity for the class to discuss the events of the day as a class group. This was a time to raise problems that may have occurred during the lesson and to give the class the opportunity to decide how to address them. It was during this time that the class was given the opportunity to practice their decision-making. It was also a time that Sarah used to spotlight key incidents that she believed could help the students' understanding of the intent of the RM. This occurred on a number of occasions and usually involved students showing self-directed learning or caring. The degree of student involvement in discussion varied depending on what had happened during the class. On some occasions discussion occurred around issues such as the girls believing they were not being included in the activities or students believing others were not trying hard enough. On other occasions little discussion occurred and little time was spent on this part of the lesson. The group meeting occurred for the majority of the classes although it was noted that on a few occasions the group meeting was completed quickly with little discussion observed.

The final segment of the lesson, *reflection time*, offered students the opportunity to reflect individually on their behaviour during the lesson. During this segment students were given the opportunity to consider their behaviour in relation to the goals of the RM. On most occasions students were asked to think about a specific question related to their personal involvement and then asked to indicate with a thumbs up, sideways or down how they perceived that had been. These included questions such as "did you show self-direction in your learning today" or "did you do anything today to help someone else without being asked". The intent of the questions was to refocus the students again on the goals of the RM and to have them think specifically about their own behaviours, rather than the actions of others. A reflection time was observed to occur in virtually all classes. The final activity in class was for students to consider their initial selection of a level of responsibility and to decide whether this was an accurate indication of the way they had behaved

during class. Students were then given the opportunity to change their selection if they wished. Students were observed to be considering this question seriously and in most lessons one or two students changed their initial selection, often after some considered thought.

Implementation of Four Central Themes

Observations of both RM classes showed a consistent commitment to three of the four major themes. The first three themes, *student-staff relationships*, *integration* of the personal and social responsibility goals with the lesson content and the *empowerment* of students to make decisions and to take responsibility were all clearly meet. The fourth theme, *transfer of learning* about the RM to other contexts, was not as obvious a part of the programme with little observed to indicate that this was being addressed in class. Table 6.12 summarises the outcomes related to the implementation of the four themes.

Table 6.12 Observations related to four major themes

Themes	Observations of themes in practice.
Student-staff relationships	Data from observations and teacher and student interviews supported the belief that the relationships developed between the teacher and students were fully congruent with the RM.
Integration	The pedagogical approaches used in the physical education programme were consistently designed to allow for the meaningful integration of the goals of both the RM and the physical education curriculum.
Student empowerment	The degree to which students were given the opportunity to make meaningful decisions about their programmes demonstrated a commitment to empowering students in meaningful ways.
Transfer	While some mention of transfer was made this was an area that did not receive the emphasise that could be expected in an implementation of the RM.

Teacher Interviews

During interviews Sarah was asked to give overall comments about the process of implementing the RM and to identify any concerns that she may have held. Her answers to these questions clearly established that the processes were congruent with the RM and that the RM was integrated into the everyday practice of the RM classes in physical education. She mentioned on a number of occasions the processes she was using to ensure that the lesson format was being implemented correctly. Her concerns with having sufficient time to adequately meet the requirements for the group discussion time is an indication that the lesson format was being considered within her planning. In the following example Sarah is discussing 9RM reactions to the levels of behaviour that had been introduced, an example that illustrates that the process of implementation was occurring within the reality of the classroom:

So when we first started they all thought they were Level 4, they'd been the best that they could be so therefore that meant that had to be the highest level, when now they're coming to understand that they can be as good as they can be and operate at 1 or 2, say, depending on how much they're involved with. So that's quite good and 10RM are keen to get into the individual work.

Sarah was knowledgeable about the four themes and was confident that she was integrating them into her teaching. The only theme she was a little unsure of was the transfer of learning. In this area she considered that while she had incorporated the theme into her teaching it was an area she would give greater emphasis to in subsequent implementations.

Student Interviews

During interviews students made constant reference to both the structure and the intent of the model. These comments showed a developing understanding of the RM and gave a clear indication that it was an overt part of the physical education programme. In the following example a student from 10RM is explaining why she had not yet selected Level four at the start of a lesson:

I help other people and stuff but I just count it as a Level 3 or something cause Level 4 seems really high. We've been told that you've got to be really good and I don't think I've actually got enough skills real good yet.

Student interviews identified that from their perspective three of the four themes; student empowerment, integration of the RM into the physical education curriculum, and positive student-staff relationships were a part of their physical education programme. The fourth theme, transfer of learning to other contexts outside of the physical education programme, from their point of view was not fully implemented. While comment was made by two students that supported that a transfer of learning had occurred for them, the majority of students felt that this was not the case.

The above procedures have identified that in this study the implementation of the RM adequately met the four criteria as stated by Meltzer (2005).

1. The model has been carefully and fully described in Chapter three of this study.
2. Classroom observations confirmed that the model as taught in this study was acceptably faithful to the RM.
3. Changes in the way that the model was implemented have been noted.
4. The teacher involved in the study had previously implemented the RM into her classroom practice. Prior to the commencement of the study she received written support material and regular conferences with the researcher to ensure that she had a full knowledge of the model. During the study regular ongoing discussion continued to ensure that the necessary contextual and operational requirements for the model were met.

The combination of the processes detailed above and the feedback offered to the researcher gives confidence that the reality of the implementation was an acceptable version of the RM.

Pedagogical Differentiation between the Comparison and Responsibility Model Classes

When considering the contrast between classes taught using different pedagogical approaches it is important to authenticate that the different approaches were consistently implemented throughout the implementation period. This is particularly so in a real life situation such as a school where the same teacher is responsible for the teaching of all the classes involved. In this situation it needed to be clear that the separation between the two pedagogical approaches was clearly maintained.

Three sources of data were used to establish a clear differentiation of teaching pedagogies between the RM and the comparison classes; class observations, teacher interviews and student interviews.

During class observations the observer noted:

- The format of the lesson.
- The degree to which reference was made to the taking of personal and social responsibility.
- The presence or absence of the four themes identified by Hellison.

A clear differentiation was observed between the pedagogical approach used with the two RM classes and the two comparison classes in three areas. The first was in the lesson format used with the classes. The comparison classes were not taught lessons based on the specific format (Hellison, 1995) used with the RM classes (detailed on p.43) but with what could be termed a traditional lesson format. This format generally consisted of a lesson introduction, warm-up activities, lesson content, cool-down and closure. This pattern, with minor variations, was observed consistently throughout the time of the implementation.

Of the five steps in the RM teaching format the comparison classes did not experience three. During the initial part of lessons there was no indication of an awareness talk or any activity related to focussing students on personal and social responsibility. The introductory segment of the lesson was concerned with the

physical education content and classroom management matters. The comparison classes gathered together at the conclusion of the lesson which was a time for the teacher to revisit the curriculum related teaching points or to make comment about the general classroom behaviour. This was not the equivalent of the group meeting with no attempt being made to offer students the opportunity to identify problems that were occurring in class or make decisions about their programmes. There was also no equivalent to the reflection time, with students not being asked to contemplate their behaviour in relation to personal and social responsibility. While the physical gathering together of the students appeared similar, the purpose was distinctly different with far less time allocated to this segment of the lesson in the comparison classes.

There appeared to be some similarities in the activity segment and counselling time between the comparison and the RM classes. The activity segment of the lesson covered similar content to that of the RM classes and a number of the pedagogical approaches used were the same for all four classes. These approaches included peer teaching, guided discovery as well as the more traditional command/practice style (Mosston & Ashworth, 2002) and small group and cooperative learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). There was a developing pattern in the RM classes where students would be trusted to work alone, while less trusted students were kept under the close supervision of the teacher. This diversity of opportunity was not observed to occur in the comparison classes.

The following descriptions give an illustration of the realities of Sarah's practice when teaching the dance and minor games units to the comparison classes.

The dance unit for all classes initially involved the teacher working on developing the students' movement vocabulary. For the majority of this time the teacher used a teacher-directed transmission pedagogy. Later in the unit students self-selected into small groups and spent five lessons developing their own dance sequences for display and assessment. In all classes this process was treated seriously by the majority of students. It was not unusual to observe groups deep in discussion and

experimentation as they attempted to put their dances together. On a number of occasions students were observed enthusiastically discussing and demonstrating moves with their peers while waiting to be released at the conclusion of the class. There were of course times when students were off task and distracted. In 10CO there was a small group of male students who found the subject challenging and who required high levels of teacher supervision time in each lesson.

The lessons involving the students in developing their own dances tended to be positive and energetic. This was particularly so for the majority of girls in the classes and to a lesser extent some of the boys. Each lesson started with the class gathering around Sarah for a discussion, refocusing the students on the intent of the unit. During this time Sarah would offer comment on students' progress to date and set the parameters for what was expected during the lesson. Once the students had commenced their group work Sarah moved from group to group offering suggestions and asking to see evidence of the students' progress. This accountability measure appeared to have a positive influence on the amount of work being achieved. On occasions Sarah would tell groups that she would be returning later to check their dance and that they would need to demonstrate progress had occurred. Towards the end of the lesson Sarah would often ask a group or two to demonstrate some aspect of their dance. These demonstrations were then discussed as a means of developing the students' dance knowledge. The lesson would then conclude with a discussion of progress to date and suggestions for what students should be thinking about for the next session.

The minor game unit differed between the two year groups. In year nine the classes were introduced to a variety of minor games over the eight sessions of the unit. These included a number of standard games such as trophies and seaweed. This unit was predominantly teacher directed with Sarah deciding on, explaining and controlling the games. These lessons were high energy, noisy and full of excitement and appeared to be enjoyed by the majority of students who reacted positively to most activities. The competitive nature of some activities did lead to a small number of students being on the periphery of the action on occasions.

The minor game unit for the year 10 classes had a different emphasis with students being required to design and then teach the class their own games. Students were allocated specific items of equipment and were then required to develop a game based on the equipment. This dimension appeared to receive a mixed reception with some indicating that they would prefer to be involved physically with the games right from the start. When the games were played they were generally received with good humour and enthusiasm by the vast majority of students. The quality of and subsequent involvement in some games, however, was poor and led to obvious feelings of frustrations for some students. Sarah's pedagogical approach to this class varied from teacher directed to student-centred group work. On occasions Sarah started the lesson with a minor game that she organised and taught before moving onto the game making aspect of the lesson. All lessons started with Sarah calling the class together for the roll and then to introduce the aim of the lesson for the day. All lessons finished with a discussion including, on most occasions, a revision of the lesson.

Sarah believed in the importance of establishing good relationships with students and managed to do so with the students in all four classes. This occurred partly through her making time for the one-to-one conversations that build rapport. This meant that there were similarities in approach and results for what is termed counselling time in the RM. One difference, however, was the lack of conversation on the topic of personal and social responsibility, which was an integral part of the counselling time for the students in the RM classes.

The second area of difference concerned the four themes (detailed on p. 45) identified by Hellison (1995) as integral to any authentic implementation of the RM. Of the four themes, two were present to varying degrees in the comparison classes. The *student-staff relationships* were respectful and honest in all four classes. Sarah identified, however, that while her relationship with students in all four classes was good her relationships with students in the RM classes was more enjoyable and positive than those with the comparison classes. There was a degree of *student*

empowerment present in the comparison classes. This was as a result of Sarah's philosophical beliefs which tended towards including student-centred pedagogical approaches to her teaching. This empowerment of students was observed in pedagogical approaches such as small groups and peer teaching. The degree of empowerment was, however, noticeably less than for the two RM classes. The comparison classes did not demonstrate an *integration* of curriculum goals with outcomes related to the RM. For these classes the outcomes of the programme were concerned entirely with the physical education curriculum and little mention was made of personal and social responsibility. The absence of discussion on personal and social responsibility in the comparison classes meant that the fourth theme, *transfer of learning*, was not present in the comparison classes

The third area of difference concerned the fundamental requirement of the RM to meet the twin goals of developing personal and social responsibility while also meeting the goals associated with normal curriculum outcomes. For the comparison classes the first goal was absent. The constant referencing to personal and social responsibility present in classes using the RM was not observed during these classes. On the small number of occasions responsibility was mentioned, it was in relation to students misbehaving in a way that Sarah considered irresponsible. There was not a constant and systematic approach as occurred in the RM classes.

Teacher Interviews

During interviews Sarah was asked to comment on her pedagogical approach to the teaching of the two comparison classes. She identified that she consciously differentiated between the RM and comparison classes in her approach to teaching physical education. She confirmed that she taught the comparison classes using a more traditional physical education pedagogy that was distinctly different from that used with the RM classes. At no time did she attempt to introduce elements of the RM into her teaching of the comparison classes.

Student Interviews

Students from the two comparison classes were interviewed on the same schedule as those from the RM classes. Students' comments reinforced the belief that the teaching of personal and social responsibility was not a factor in their physical education classes.

Summary

The pedagogical approach used in teaching the comparison classes has been described as a traditional approach to the teaching of physical education. There are potential ambiguities involved with such a definition, which may mean different things to different people. For the purposes of this study it can be claimed that the classroom observations, supported by teacher and student interviews, gives confidence that the teaching approach used by Sarah for the two comparison classes was distinctly different to that for the two RM classes. It was clear that the comparison classes were taught physical education in a programme that was not based on the philosophy underpinning the RM and did not involve any of the structure integral to the RM.

In the following chapter the results as presented in Chapter six are discussed in relation to the four research questions.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Discussion

The discussion for this chapter will be based around the four research questions, a discussion that will be underpinned by the findings of previous studies on the Responsibility Model (see for example, Buchanan, 2001; Georgiadis, 1990). The chapter then discusses moral development as it relates to the RM both as a theoretical model and as it relates to the RM as it was implemented in practice in this study. This is followed by a discussion of how the RM relates to humanism in theory and practice and the chapter concludes with a discussion of the viability of full school implementations of the Responsibility Model.

This study examined a six month implementation of the Responsibility Model (RM) in a secondary school physical education programme. The study sought to answer four key questions. The first question addressed student learning in the area of personal and social responsibility, exploring the degree to which students gained an understanding of these central concepts. The second question addressed two areas of major interest for teachers implementing the RM into physical education classrooms. What was the impact of the RM on students' engagement with the physical education curriculum, and on their behaviour in the physical education classroom and in other contexts? The third question examined the implementation from the viewpoint of the teacher; it attempted to identify the experiences of teaching physical education based on the RM, and to establish how the teacher's experiences in this study related to those from previous research. The final question asked if the research findings on the RM, when implemented in community settings, were replicated when the RM was implemented in a secondary school physical education programme.

Question One

What understandings of personal and social responsibility are developed by students taught physical education in a programme based on the Responsibility Model?

One of the anticipated outcomes for programmes based on the RM is that students will develop an increased understanding of personal and social responsibility. It is hoped that this developing understanding will impact on both deontic and responsibility judgements and that this in turn will result in students behaving in more personally and socially responsible ways. How these potential changes are evaluated is, however, a complex process with a number of inherent difficulties in identifying valid changes in students' thoughts and beliefs (Hellison, 2003a).

Researchers have sought to gain an understanding of the degree to which students have become cognisant of personal and social responsibility in a variety of ways. In the majority of studies, participants have been asked to identify what they consider the programme is attempting to teach them and what they have learned (Hellison, 2000; Hellison & Walsh, 2002). The results from this approach have been mixed with some participants clearly identifying that their learning from these programmes was concerned with concepts and behaviours closely aligned with personal and social responsibility. Other participants have, however, identified learning outcomes more closely aligned with the contexts in which the programmes were situated, for example, basketball or martial arts (Hellison & Wright, 2003; Kallusky, 2000).

These results were paralleled for students in the RM classes in this study. When asked to identify what they had learned from the programme, and what they believed the programme was attempting to teach, some students identified learning outcomes related to personal and social responsibility while others selected learning outcomes more closely aligned with traditional physical education. In the final interview, students from all four classes were asked how they would answer a sister or brother who was coming to secondary school for the first time and wanted to know what they would learn in physical education. Students in the RM classes generally gave answers concerned with traditional outcomes such as "learning about lots of sports," (9RM) "how to get fit" (10RM) and "stretching and things like that" (10RM). In addition, however, some introduced elements more closely associated with their experiences of being taught physical education based on the RM. These included

comments such as “to learn how to coach” (10RM) and “to be better at self-control” (9RM). Students in the comparison classes predominately identified traditional learning such as “know how to play more sport” (9CO) and “playing games like touch and softball”(10CO) although a number also identified elements concerned with relationships and personal development. These students made comments along the lines of “how to work in groups and stuff” (10CO) and “in some ways to be more confident around other people” (9CO).

A similar division occurred when students were asked to select goals for their own learning in physical education. The selection of goals showed that students in the RM classes were more likely than students in the comparison classes to select goals associated with both the traditional outcomes associated with physical education and outcomes associated with developing personal and social responsibility. The selection of goals associated with personal and social responsibility would indicate that these were seen by students as legitimate outcomes to be achieved in physical education.

The results from the reflection and goal setting sheets would support previous research (Compagnone, 1995; Cummings, 1997), which reported that different students experience different learning outcomes as a result of participating in programmes based on the RM. A small number of students identified learning associated with both personal and social responsibility and traditional physical education outcomes, an indication that for these students the twin goals associated with the model had been understood.

In general terms, the students from the two comparison classes showed a markedly different understanding of the learning to be achieved in physical education. The students interviewed from these classes showed less awareness of the meaning of personal and social responsibility and they appeared overall not to have established a link between learning about personal and social responsibility and what was happening in their physical education programme. When students from these classes were asked to identify goals and learning outcomes related to their physical

education programme, their selections were predominantly associated with traditional physical education. For example, when asked what they had learned in physical education, 77% of the comments made by students from 9CO and 73% of the comments from students in 10CO were related to specific sports or fitness. This compared to 43% of the comments from students in 9RM and only 6% of the comments from 10RM. Conversely, for students from 9RM, 54% of comments and for students from 10RM 90% of comments were related to personal and social responsibility. This contrasts strongly with the two comparison classes where only 17% (9CO) and 4% (10CO) of comments were related to personal and social responsibility. These results would suggest that participating in physical education based on the RM had lead to students in these classes believing that learning about personal and social responsibility was an accepted outcome for the programme. The belief that the teaching associated with the RM is the catalyst for students associating physical education with learning about personal and social responsibility is strengthened when the results are compared to those from students who have been taught physical education by the same teacher in a programme that did not contain any of the elements of the RM.

An alternative approach towards establishing students' understanding of personal and social responsibility, favoured by some researchers, has been to examine participants' understanding of the programme goals, goals that are often expressed in the practical context as levels of responsibility. The results from this line of inquiry have been reasonably consistent, with researchers finding that most participants were able to accurately describe the different levels and to accurately identify the appropriate level when considering particular behaviours (e.g., Compagnone, 1995; Georgiadis, 1992; Hastie & Buchanan, 2000). The students in the RM classes in this study showed a similar ability to understand the levels of responsibility, an understanding that was demonstrated during interviews from early in the implementation. As in previous studies (Compagnone, 1995; Georgiadis, 1992; Hastie & Buchanan, 2000; Hellison, 1993), however, this cognitive awareness did not necessarily mean that students transferred this understanding into more responsible behaviour.

While changes in students' understanding about personal and social responsibility are important, this study was also interested in examining if there was a change in students' behaviour in these areas within the physical education classroom. Hellison and Walsh's (2002) literature review identified a number of studies that concluded that positive changes had occurred in this area. Sarah reported that she had observed students in both RM classes becoming more personally responsible in class and showing a greater willingness to help others. She believed that these changes were important factors in the improvements that she noted in classroom interactions and in students' engagement in class. She also acknowledged that in both classes there were a small number of students who appeared to struggle with personal responsibility and who were making little apparent effort to work with or help others.

Sarah noted that the culture of the comparison classes was different to that of the RM classes and partially attributed this to students not showing the same levels of personal and social responsibility in physical education as the students in the RM classes. The degree to which this difference can be attributed to being less knowledgeable about and/or less willing to take personal and social responsibility is difficult to quantify. An alternative possibility may be that students in the comparison classes simply did not receive the same number of opportunities to demonstrate personal and social responsibility as the students in the RM classes through the pedagogical choices made by the teacher.

Question Two

What are students' experiences of physical education in a programme based on the RM?

- (a) *What is the impact of the RM on students':*
 - (i) *level of engagement in the physical education curriculum?*
 - (ii) *behaviour in physical education classes?*
 - (iii) *behaviour in other classes?*
- (b) *In what ways do the experiences of students in the RM classes and those in classes taught using a traditional pedagogy differ in these three areas?*

Teachers are often concerned, when considering the implementation of a new pedagogical approach, about the impact of the implementation on the class's engagement in the curriculum related learning and on their behaviour in the classroom. These pragmatic concerns are of importance for practising teachers and have been expressed directly to the researcher on a number of occasions. Of perhaps less immediate concern, but still of interest to teachers, is the potential for the implementation to positively impact on the behaviour of students in other classes within the school.

An area of importance for teachers is that of student engagement in the curriculum within the classroom. The review of literature found that, for many students, involvement in RM-based programmes led to an increase in general levels of engagement with the programme (Hellison & Walsh, 2002; Schilling, 2001). This increase was generally measured by the patterns of attendance at voluntary clubs and/or by analysis of the comments received from participants. There was no research found that looked at the levels of engagement of students in a classroom curriculum. For teachers contemplating the introduction of the RM, the potential impact of the process on students' learning in the curriculum is of major concern. Many teachers would be unwilling to compromise the teaching/learning associated with the subject curriculum in return for teaching/learning associated with personal and social responsibility. The compulsory nature of a secondary school offers a markedly different context to previous studies, and measures of engagement used in those studies, for example, attendance would be inappropriate.

Sarah believed strongly that the students in the RM classes showed an increased engagement with physical education within the classroom. A number of the students from these classes expressed similar sentiments during interviews. Their comments included specific reference to increased engagement and interest in physical education, with some attributing this change directly to the implementation of the RM. This sense of increased engagement continued throughout the six months of the study with students clearly becoming more involved with the physical education programme as the implementation continued. This increased commitment was

demonstrated in a variety of ways. The 10RM class showed their interest very obviously in their classes, with the majority of students being changed and ready to start quickly. During class the atmosphere was positive and focused, a classroom culture existed that, while difficult to describe or quantify, is one that teachers strive to achieve and enjoy when it occurs. This high level of engagement and interest in physical education was perhaps exemplified, as previously mentioned, by the efforts of students to organise physical education on the teacher strike-day because they did not want to miss class.

While the 9RM class did not attempt to organise class on the strike-day, they also developed a positive, focussed atmosphere in which students worked hard and successfully in physical education. The culture of 9RM, like that of 10RM, was pleasant and hard working with students showing a good level of commitment to learning associated with physical education. They were also regularly changed and ready for class quickly and without fuss. During the fitness programme, student interest reached a point where a group of students was getting changed in the toilets during interval or lunchtime so that they could start early and get extra time on their walk/run. On a number of occasions Sarah discovered, when she arrived to start the class, a student “guarding” the bags of classmates who had already got changed in the toilets and had left.

The level of engagement in the subject, indicated by students’ enthusiasm and willingness to work hard in, and, in some cases out of class was generally higher for the RM classes than the comparison classes. While a number of incidents occurred with students in the RM classes that showed a deep level of commitment to the programme, no corresponding incidents occurred with students in the comparison classes. A consistent finding, supported by both the teacher who taught all four classes and the researcher’s observations of all four classes, was that, in general terms, the level of engagement for the comparison classes remained relatively consistent throughout the study. During class, it was noted that Sarah was more involved with keeping students on task and on many occasions using her position as “the teacher” to ensure that this happened. This is not to suggest that the classes were

particularly poorly behaved. Generally, classes were positive and in most lessons students worked reasonably well and stayed on task. The major differences appeared to be the lack of full class involvement and the number of students who seemed easily distracted and needed to be monitored and refocused by Sarah on a regular basis. In general terms, the classes were acceptably engaged in physical education but lacked the “extra” that was present in the two RM classes.

In making conclusions about changes in engagement with the physical education curriculum it is acknowledged that these conclusions are based on the professional judgement of Sarah, the beliefs of the students and the researcher’s observations. Traditionally in physical education research, qualitative approaches, such as measures of ALT-PE, have been used when examining levels of engagement. Initial consideration was given to examining the levels of engagement using a systematic observation based on ALT-PE in this study. The decision was made not to proceed with this option due to two major considerations. The first was to do with the limitations of ALT-PE as a assessment tool for physical education. The essence of ALT-PE is the use of motor behaviour as a indication of engagement in learning. This approach does not allow for the researcher to get into the mind of the student, to examine if learning is occurring at a cognitive level. The learning associated with the RM is concerned with affective domain and as such is not suitable for examination through observation of physical responses within the classroom. As a simple illustration of the limitations of the model a student sitting on the sideline of a game would generally be coded as off task or waiting. The student could, however, be carefully considering their responses to an incident in the game within the framework of personal and social responsibility. This could be an important learning process, easily lost when judgement is made on motor responses only. The second consideration concerned the time and resources available for this study. While it is acknowledged that an ALT-PE assessment would have been a useful addition to the data on engagement it was considered that the time involved in training, data collection, data coding and data analysis did not justify the limited insight obtained. The use of qualitative research to support examinations of engagement in physical education is, however, an option worth further consideration.

An important factor to be cognisant of, when considering the differences in engagement observed between 10CO and 10RM, is the potential impact of the introduction of Sport Education for 10RM. While this pedagogical approach was introduced because of its appropriateness for meeting the goals of the RM, it did mean that students in 10RM received different opportunities to become engaged with the curriculum. It is possible that a similar level of engagement would have occurred for 10CO if they had also been involved with Sport Education, without the underpinning of the RM. While this can only be a point of conjecture it is a possibility that needs to be considered.

An important outcome from the study is that it identified that learning in relation to personal and social responsibility was achieved without appearing to compromise the required curriculum goals of the physical education programme. This is an important point when discussing an introduction of new curriculum goals into an already crowded curriculum. Sarah believed strongly that not only were students in the RM classes not disadvantaged in relation to the traditional curriculum goals, but that the combination of improved behaviour and levels of engagement meant that they actually achieved at higher levels than the comparison classes.

The impact of the RM on *student behaviour* is an area that has received some research interest. A number of studies have identified that programmes based on the RM have produced an improvement in the behaviour of the students, and that teachers have generally reported an improvement in the “feel” of their classes (Buchanan, 2001; Cutforth, 2000; Georgiadis, 1990; Hastie & Buchanan, 2000).

In some cases, the prime motivation for teachers introducing the RM into practice has been to improve classroom behaviour (Mrugala, 2002) rather than a specific interest in the teaching and learning associated with personal and social responsibility. The managing of poorly behaved children in class is a pragmatic concern for many teachers and the impact of the RM on student behaviour is a prime determinant on whether the model would be considered successful.

The findings of this study concerning student behaviour are aligned with those of previous research (e.g., Hellison, 2000, Martinek, Schilling, et al. 2006). This study showed a notable improvement in the behaviour of students in classes taught physical education based on the RM. This conclusion was supported by three data sources: student comments, teacher comments, and field observations. A majority of the students in the RM classes (24/33) felt that the introduction of the RM had had a positive affect on their behaviour in class. Their comments (Table 6.2 and 6.3) also support that the RM had had an impact on both how they thought about their behaviour and their actual behaviour in class. One surprising outcome that arose from the student interviews was the short period of time that it took for some students to notice a change in classroom behaviour. A number of the students commented in their first interview that they had observed positive changes, which they attributed to the introduction of the RM. This improvement was considered to have continued throughout the period of the implementation and, by the end, the majority of students interviewed from both RM classes felt that the class's behaviour had improved substantially.

A rapid improvement in classroom behaviour was also noted by Sarah and by the observer. Sarah commented, during an interview four weeks into the implementation, that she was already noticing that the students' behaviour was improving, an observation that she found both surprising and exciting. This improvement continued throughout the study and at the conclusion of the study Sarah reported that, given an awareness of what might normally be expected from them, students were extremely well behaved. Sarah particularly identified the reduction in the number of times she needed to reprimand students for being off-task or for being negative or abusive to classmates as examples of improved behaviour.

Observation notes support the belief that there was improvement of behaviour in the two RM classes and that, by the conclusion of the study, both classes were behaving well. Some of the areas in which good behaviour was noted were: the general lack of conflict between Sarah and the students, the ease with which Sarah called students together and got them quiet when she wished to talk to them as a group, the lack of

time lost in transitions through students being unable to refocus quickly, the reduction in obvious student off-task behaviour and the limited amount of inter-student conflict leading to problems. In summary, the classes were generally well behaved with few problems. On some occasions the students' behaviour was excellent with a sense of positive purpose throughout the class that was noteworthy. A number of lessons involving the Sport Education unit were like this with all students positively involved and no sign of any behaviour problems.

It is, of course, difficult to equate better behaviour with specific learning about personal and social responsibility. What can be said, however, is that the belief that better behaviour occurred in the two RM classes was supported by the professional judgement of Sarah, comments from the students and observations over a six-month period. That the implementation of the RM was a factor in these changes is supported by both the consistent results from previous research and the absence of an equivalent improvement in behaviour in the two comparison classes in this study.

When comparing the behaviour of the RM classes with that of the comparison classes a number of similarities and a number of differences were observed. Both Sarah and the students interviewed commented that they felt that there had been an improvement in the behaviour of these classes. Sarah was very clear, however, that, while an improvement had occurred, it was not of the same magnitude as that of the RM classes and that the two RM classes were noticeably better behaved. In their reflection sheets, a number of students from the comparison classes commented that they felt that their behaviour had improved. An analysis of these comments, however, demonstrated a fundamental difference in the perception of behaviour changes between the students in the RM classes and those in the comparison classes. The comments from the former tended to show more global thinking with comments around such areas as self-control, thinking about behaviour and being more responsible. The comments from students in the comparison classes were more pragmatic and more closely related to the practicalities of the physical education classroom. For these students, comments were mainly about such things as improved

behaviour because of the more enjoyable activities being offered or with the bringing of correct physical education gear (clothing).

The impact of the RM on the behaviour of students in classes other than physical education is also of interest. The intention of the RM is clearly that learning in physical education gets transferred to other contexts, including other classes, with transfer of learning being identified as a major goal and one of four themes. Previous research has examined this issue and identified some evidence to support this occurring for students participating in community programmes (Kallusky, 2000; Martinek et al., 1999). There was no research found, however, on the situation that occurred in this study where a discrete class was taught physical education based on the RM and then moved as a complete group to other teachers within the same school.

No attempt was made in this study to systematically collect data from teachers who taught the 'RM classes' in other curriculum areas to assess the impact of the model on their behaviour, a decision made due to the limitations of time and resources available. Data on the behaviour of the students in the study in other classes were accessed, however, from three sources: student interviews; feedback from other teachers to Sarah; and data collected on the number of detentions given to members of the four classes by teachers outside of physical education.

The experiences of the two RM classes differed substantially. Being taught through the RM appeared to have little impact on 9 RM's behaviour in other classes. Sarah reported that she had received no feedback, either positive or negative, from other teachers about this class and student interviews gave no indication of changes either positive or negative. There was a reduction noted in the number of detentions given by other teachers, however, which may indicate that there was an improvement in behaviour for the class. Similar results were obtained for 9CO, with Sarah receiving no feedback from other teachers and no indication of change was given by the students interviewed. The pattern of detentions received by students in 9CO did show

a difference to that of 9RM with 9CO receiving an increased number during the implementation period.

The experience of being taught with the RM had a major effect on 10RM, both in their behaviour in other classes and on their relationships with their other teachers. All of the data painted a picture of a class causing a significant level of disruption over an extended period of time. This deterioration of behaviour was directly attributed to the experiences of being taught physical education based on the RM by both the students and the other teachers involved. A number of the students specifically identified in interviews that a major problem concerned the difference in the way they were taught, and the attitudes of teachers towards them, compared to what they were experiencing in physical education. The other teachers were also clear that they believed that the changes occurring in their classes were the result of what was happening in physical education. Sarah reported on a number of occasions that teachers had attacked her, blaming the “new stuff” she was doing in physical education for the problems in their own classes. In their interviews, students spoke openly about the problems they were experiencing which they felt was the result of the way that other teachers treated them. These tensions resulted in a number of confrontations in which students reacted badly to teacher criticisms of their attitudes and behaviour. This situation offered the class the opportunity to examine the incongruence of their behaviour in these classes with how they were behaving in physical education and their learning around being responsible for their behaviour. It was apparent that the idea of transferring their learning from physical education to these other contexts was not accepted by the majority of students interviewed from 10RM.

The deterioration of student behaviour in 10RM was a surprise as the initial expectation was that the implementation of the RM would lead to a transfer of learning to other classes, with a subsequent improvement in behaviour. That the opposite occurred for this class raises potentially significant issues around the suitability of the model for implementation into secondary physical education programmes. These issues are addressed in Chapter Eight.

Question Three

How is the implementation of the RM experienced by the teacher, and in what ways does this experience relate to previous research?

The experiences of teachers and leaders implementing the RM have been well researched, leading to the identification of a number of common themes. Table 7.1 presents a summary of the seven themes identified in the research literature and offers a summary of the relationship between the findings of previous research and the findings from this study in relation to these themes.

Many of the teachers and leaders involved in RM-based programmes reported feeling uncertain and vulnerable when introducing the model. For many of these teachers there was a feeling of moving into the unknown without the security of previous experiences to provide support. While these feelings could perhaps be related to a lack of experience in the RM, in many cases this was not the only factor, with similar feelings being reported by experienced practitioners. It is possible that the RM with its concentration on student empowerment and decision-making is by its very essence an unsettling process with many areas of uncertainty. Any situation where the leader is responsible for the group but is allowing the group to take responsibility for important decisions has inherent uncertainties that can be extremely stressful.

While Sarah reported some reservations about introducing the RM into her teaching she did not report feeling uncertain or vulnerable. In general she displayed an overall sense of confidence that she would be able to implement the RM successfully. There are a number of potential reasons for this confidence. Firstly, they may relate to the personality of the teacher. In her third year of teaching, Sarah had already achieved a measure of success in the school. She had been promoted to a Dean's position, had been placed in charge of health education and was generally acknowledged as being a "good teacher" by the students. These successes, allied with her youth, may well have given her a feeling of confidence that allowed her to feel "bullet proof" in regards to the challenges ahead. Sarah had also introduced a modified version of the

model the previous year with a class that she was having difficulties managing. The success that she achieved in this implementation may also have helped build her confidence in her ability to use the model successfully.

Sarah also had the background experience of having taught many of the participants previously. She had taught one of the RM classes as a class group the previous year and had also taught both RM classes, using traditional pedagogy, for the first half of the year of the implementation. As a Dean, she had also established long-term relationships with a number of the students before the implementation occurred. These factors meant that she came into the implementation with a background of successful experiences with the students that may have given her extra confidence in her ability to successfully undertake the programme. This background of previously established relationships with students was generally not present in other studies where the teachers and leaders introduced the programme to students who they had not previously worked with.

A second area of vulnerability identified in the literature review concerned teachers' feelings of uncertainty about their success in meeting the goals of the RM. This uncertainty was reported by both experienced practitioners of the model (Hellison, 1988) and by those less experienced (Georgiadis, 1992). Cutforth (1997), for example, an experienced practitioner of the RM commented that even after three years work with the RM he still had "real doubts about the success of the programme and the impact on the needs of the students" (p. 139). This uncertainty can perhaps in part be attributed to the difficulties in observing and measuring changes in student beliefs and behaviours.

Sarah did express some initial uncertainties about the outcomes that would be generated by the programme. As the implementation progressed, however, these uncertainties were quickly replaced by a feeling of excitement and the belief that the model was being successful in meeting its goals. She felt that this learning was creating positive changes in both the individual students and in the classes as a whole.

Table 7.1 Summary of comparative research findings for teachers' experiences in implementing the RM in community and secondary school programmes

Research findings from Literature Review on teachers' experiences of implementing the RM	Teacher's experience of implementing the RM in a secondary school physical education programme
1. Feelings of uncertainty and vulnerability during the initial stages of introducing the model (eg., Georgiadis, 1992)	There was no initial stage of uncertainty or vulnerability when introducing the model.
2. Uncertainty of success in meeting the goals of the RM (eg., Parker & Cutforth, 2000)	There was some initial uncertainty of success but this was quickly replaced by confidence that the implementation was successful in terms of meeting the RM outcomes.
3. Many teachers had difficulties in transferring power to students and in offering genuine opportunities for decision-making (eg., Hellison, 1995)	No difficulties in transferring power to students or in offering genuine opportunities for decision-making.
4. Teaching the RM had an impact on the teachers themselves, including their beliefs about teacher-student relationships(eg., Mrugala, 2002)	Teaching physical education based on the RM reaffirmed Sarah's beliefs on teacher-student relationships.
5. Teachers felt that other teachers on the periphery of the programme were unsupportive of the RM, particularly in the initial stages. This lack of support placed extra pressure on the teachers. In most cases other teachers became supportive as they observed the results of the programme (eg., Buchanan, 2001)	The physical education staff and the school administration were supportive of the implementation throughout. A number of other teachers believed that the RM was causing student misbehaviour in their classes and placed some negative pressure on Sarah.
6. That the RM was a successful model for their programmes and one that they would continue to use (eg., Georgiadis, 1990).	That the RM was a successful model for physical education programmes in secondary schools and one that she would continue to use.

A concern identified in the literature review was the commitment and confidence needed by teachers to transfer power to the students in a way that gave them genuine opportunities for decision-making and the taking of responsibility (Bulger & Townsend, 2001; Hastie & Buchanan, 2000). Buchanan's (2001) study of the implementation of the RM in a sport camp, for example, graphically illustrated this problem. While the instructors understood the concepts, displayed appropriate posters, etc., they seemed "unable or unwilling to relinquish enough control to enable responsibility to develop" (p. 164). For many of the teachers, the reality was that a high value was placed on well-controlled classrooms, and this control had traditionally been established through teacher directed management strategies. To move away from this tight and familiar control was challenging and, for some, threatening.

For Sarah the transferring of power to students was never a philosophical issue. Her personal philosophy was aligned closely with that of student empowerment and, as such, this fitted easily with the philosophy of the RM. She still, however, had some initial reservations about the implications of giving up a degree of power to students. These reservations were based not on philosophical uncertainty, but on a pragmatic understanding of the realities of a secondary school classroom. Her concerns were discussed at the initial interviews but they were quickly overcome during the implementation. By the conclusion of the study she reported that student empowerment was an established and accepted part of physical education.

Mrugala's (2003) research on teachers who had implemented the RM into their teaching discovered that, for many, the process of teaching with the RM had led to unexpected impacts on their teaching and their beliefs about *teacher-student relationships*. Many teachers reported an initial interest in the model for its potential to help in classroom management, rather than any belief in its power to develop either more humanistic classrooms or to impact on students' lives outside of the classroom. These teachers reported that working with the model had, however, impacted on their approaches to teaching and had lead to them changing the way they related to their students. Teachers reported becoming less controlling and a

“tangible increase in their levels of patience and understanding when dealing with them” (p. 126).

For Sarah, the implementation of the model led to a reaffirming of her beliefs about the importance of a humanistic classroom and of the need for teacher–student relationships to be based on mutual respect. In her final interview, she described how her work as a Dean had led to her developing, “a hard-nosed attitude which worked, but what I didn’t do was actually to form meaningful relationships with students”. Later, in the same interview, when discussing what she thought the RM brought to her teaching she commented “what it brought to my teaching is the development of positive relationships within my class” When discussing how this development had occurred, she commented that:

The RM classes allowed me to safely give a little more of myself – which I had always thought of as giving up power but in turn it became an equal giving and I developed personal relationships with the students and some of these really flourished.

It is interesting to note here that Sarah talked of the RM as giving her a feeling of “safety” in shifting power towards the students. In effect, the RM was legitimising the movement to student empowerment. This is an important point in that she had already stated a philosophical alignment with student empowerment and had successfully implemented a modified version of the model the previous year. Despite this, she still appeared a little unsure and gained confidence through the legitimacy offered by the RM.

It is also interesting to note that Sarah did not experience a similar improvement in teacher-student relationships with students in the two classes she taught using a traditional pedagogy. This lack of improvement was noted:

By the end of the year my relationship with the non RM [comparison] classes had developed no more than at the start and possibly I was a little frustrated with this lack of progress in comparison to the RM classes”

The *attitudes of other colleagues* towards those attempting to implement the RM, has been identified in the research literature as a factor in helping or hindering any implementation (Buchanan, 2001; Kallusky, 2000). In a number of studies, those implementing the RM felt pressure from others observing their work. In many cases, teachers felt that judgements were being made about their ability, based on an apparent lessening of their control of students, a result that accompanies the empowerment process so central to the RM. In general, these observations did not lead to active intervention or negative comments addressed directly to the RM teachers, and many of these critical colleagues were “won over” in time. For the teachers attempting to implement the RM, this scrutiny was generally accepted as an unwelcome but unavoidable extra pressure.

For Sarah, the attitude of teachers associated with physical education and her everyday professional practice was both positive and supportive throughout. She at no time felt pressure to justify the RM or felt that judgements were being made of her professional abilities based on the behaviour of the students. The apparent success of the model quickly ensured that this support was maintained. What differed in this study, compared to others in the research literature, was the negative attitude of teachers who taught 10RM for other subjects. These teachers attributed the deterioration of behaviour in their own classes to the impact of the RM in physical education. As a result of these beliefs the teachers placed pressure on Sarah and this made for an unpleasant situation for a period of time. That this problem occurred raises the possibility that it is a potential problem for school-based implementations of the RM. The ramifications of this possibility are discussed in Chapter Eight.

Many of the teachers and leaders involved in previous studies involving the RM commented that having worked with the RM they saw it as a successful way of working with students and that it was a pedagogical approach that they would use in

their future practice (Cutforth, 1997; Martinek et al., 1999; Parker & Hellison, 2001). Sarah reported similar sentiments. In her final interview, when asked what she felt about the RM as a pedagogical approach to teaching physical education her reply left little doubt of her feelings:

Absolutely, powerful, in fact the question is by not teaching the RM are you knowingly with-holding the opportunity to succeed [for the students]”.

When asked if she would use it again in her teaching, her reply was unequivocal:

I certainly would use it again. I probably would use it with the Year-10 students but for a whole year and structure a programme that supports this and would allow for the opportunities required for students working at Level three and four”.

Sarah's experiences during this study showed both similarities and differences to the experiences of leaders and teachers described in previous research on the model. Table 7.1 offers a summary of these findings and a comparison with Sarah's experiences. When examining the comparison it is important to consider the similarities and differences that exist between the contexts previously researched and that of the compulsory physical education programme at the centre of this study. Consideration also needs to be given to the particular experiences and knowledge that Sarah brought to the programme. Sarah came to the study having successfully implemented a modified version of the RM the previous year; she had also recently studied the model in her university programme and had taken the opportunity to read extensively about the model. The depth of her background in the RM contrasts with, for example, the limited knowledge and background of many of the teachers surveyed in Mrugala's (2003) study.

Question Four

To what degree are the reported outcomes achieved by the RM in community and out-of-school programmes, replicated when the model is implemented in a secondary school physical education programme?

Research (e.g., Cutforth, 1997; Georgiadis, 1992; Hellison, 1986) on the RM has been predominately completed on programmes that have been specifically established to cater for groups of students who are considered to be either underserved or in some way at risk. These programmes have generally been situated in community settings and run outside of the normal school context.

The review of research literature on the RM when implemented in these settings identified a number of outcomes for the participants and leaders involved in the programmes. This study attempts to establish whether the same outcomes were achieved when the RM was implemented in the different context of a secondary school physical education programme.

The question of whether outcomes from previous research are replicated in a school physical education programme is important in helping to establish the validity of the RM as a legitimate pedagogical approach for teaching physical education in schools. When discussing case study research Silverman (2000) described the comparative method, where the researcher demonstrates similarities and differences over a number of settings, as a means of supporting the transferability of results. This approach is also supported by Yin (1994) who believed that where a number of case studies, over a period of time and at different sites, reported similar outcomes this justified the belief that the findings could be generalised to other similar contexts.

This study sought to establish if there is consistency of outcomes between previous research on the RM, when it has been implemented in a variety of settings, and when it was implemented in a secondary school physical education programme. The introduction of two comparison classes in this study had the potential to offer further support for the transferability of outcomes. If it was found that outcomes established in a number of different contexts were replicated in this study, this would

offer a level of support for the transferability of results to other secondary school physical education programmes. If these outcomes were not also achieved in the comparison classes who were taught by the same teacher, received the same research scrutiny but were not taught with the RM this would strengthen claims that the outcomes were the result of the implementation of the RM, which would in turn strengthen claims about the transferability of results.

Of the identified outcomes (see Table 7.2) four: the empowerment of students, the reaction of teachers on the periphery of the implementation, student behaviour and student effort and engagement in the programmes, and the issue of student empowerment have been discussed under previous questions.

When considering the impact of the RM on the general area of demonstrating personal and social responsibility, researchers have identified three specific outcomes. It has been established that in many of the RM programmes changes had occurred in participants' self-control (Georgiadis, 1990; Lifka, 1990); their ability to become more self-directed in their learning (Lifka, 1990; Williamson & Georgiadis, 1992); and in their willingness to make an effort to help others (Hellison et al., 2000; Williamson & Georgiadis, 1992).

The students in the RM classes clearly considered self-control to be an important element of personal responsibility. When they were asked to consider what the RM was attempting to achieve, many specifically mentioned demonstrating or showing self-control as a key outcome. The teacher also noted that there had been an improvement in the students' abilities to show self-control in class and for the RM classes as a whole. Students in the comparison classes did not identify self-control as a key outcome for physical education and the teacher did not observe changes in self-control in individuals within the comparison classes.

A second outcome, identified as a factor in personal responsibility, was the ability of students to become self-directed learners, a major goal of the RM. As an integral part of the implementation, students were given a number of opportunities to become

self-directed in, and to take more responsibility for their own learning. Previous research had identified that this was an outcome achieved by some students in the programmes while, for other students, this had not occurred. The results for this study paralleled these, with Sarah identifying a number of students who were able to demonstrate an, at times surprising, ability to take control of their own learning. The fitness programme, where some students established areas in which they wished to improve, developed personal programmes and then implemented them without close teacher supervision, was a good example of self-directed learning. It was also noted that for some students in the class this did not occur and that these students needed Sarah to structure a fitness programme for them. During class time the same students needed to be closely supervised and monitored.

In the area of social responsibility, researchers (e.g., Cutforth & Parker, 1999; Wright et al., 2004) have generally considered students' willingness to reach out and help others. There are some problems with this as it is difficult, if not impossible, to identify the motives behind a student's actions. It is possible, for example, for a student to appear to help others while being motivated by reasons that are highly socially irresponsible. The implementation of a NCEA unit based on the RM (discussed in Chapter One) in New Zealand, for example, has the potential to motivate students to help others for their own personal benefit through the gaining of academic credit. Judgements are further complicated by what has been described as the 'sleeper effect' (Lickona, 1991) where learning can sit dormant in some students only to come forward at a later time. In general the results from previous research has been mixed with some students showing an improvement in the way they relate to and help others while for others little progress was apparent.

The results for this study showed a similar pattern. A number of students when asked to set goals for physical education chose goals associated with helping and supporting others within the class. Students also commented in their interviews that they believed their classrooms had become more supportive and caring as a result of the learning associated with the RM. In line with previous research, Sarah also identified that for a number of students few connections were made with the concept

of social responsibility, either in theory or in practice. While a number of students in the RM classes identified goals for physical education that related to social responsibility, this did not occur to the same degree for students in the comparison classes. For students in these classes, the predominant area of goal-setting was concerned with more traditional outcomes, such as developing sporting skills. In total the two RM classes selected 26 goals related to social responsibility while the corresponding comparison classes selected only 12.

Studies on the RM (e.g., Compagnone, 1995; Georgiadis, 1992; Hastie & Buchanan, 2000) have consistently found that participants have developed a good level of understanding of the goals of the programme, and have the ability to express these in terms of levels. These studies found that, even in the initial stages of a programme, participants were able to accurately describe their own and others' behaviour in terms of these levels. It was also found that this ability did not necessarily lead to an improvement in behaviour. In terms of moral development theory this process can be described as the developing of knowledge and understanding that equip students to make different deontic decisions. The changes in deontic judgements may, or may not, then influence the actions or responsibility judgements that follow, depending on the student, the context and quasi-obligations the students feel (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). Participants in this study were also able to identify the goals of the programme and the corresponding levels confidently. As was found in previous research this ability did not show a direct relationship with actual behaviour, with the students who behaved the most poorly often being the most vocal in identifying the levels of behaviour in other students.

Strong evidence has been provided (Hellison & Walsh, 2002) to show that participants enjoyed programmes based on the RM and had fun. In one research study, for example (Schilling, 2001), over half the participants reported that having fun led them to become committed to the programme. The students in this present study also reported that they enjoyed the physical education programme based on the RM. Some made specific mention of the opportunities to be personally and socially responsible that occurred in physical education as being part of the reason for their

enjoyment. Many students from all four classes identified physical education as their favourite subject, although no student from the comparison classes identified the opportunity to be responsible as a reason for their enjoyment.

While students in the four classes were generally positive about physical education, this attitude was not unanimous. Two of the responses in the end of year reflection sheets give an insight into the alternative view. One student from a comparison class answered “*nothing*” for both the question on what he had learned in physical education and what physical education was attempting to teach. Another student, from a RM class, simply wrote “*sux*” for both questions. It is interesting to note this negative response from a student in a RM class. This is one of the few negative comments received, and the fact that it was an opportunity to respond anonymously suggests the possibility that the voices of those who did not enjoy the RM were not given the opportunity to be heard. An alternative possibility of course is simply that the student was having a negative day or could not be bothered writing anything meaningful.

The degree to which learning about personal and social responsibility is *transferred to other contexts* is an important outcome for the model. The goal of transfer of learning was added to the model after the realisation developed that this was the underlying reason for its creation (Hellison, 2001). This outcome was, in reality, the driving motivation for the development of the community-based programmes. As discussed previously, there may not be the same degree of motivation for generating transfer of learning for teachers looking to implement the RM into their teaching programmes. For many teachers, the vision for the RM is more restricted to their own classrooms (Mrugala, 2003) and an overview of their expected learning outcomes may well discover little emphasis on student transfer of learning to other contexts.

Hellison & Walsh’s (2002) review of the research literature on the RM found a divergence of results in the area of transfer of learning. Some studies (Cummings, 1997; Hellison & Wright, 2003) found strong evidence of transfer of learning, with

participation in RM based programmes impacting on students' attitudes and behaviours in other contexts. Six studies for example, found strong evidence of improved self-control in other classrooms while other studies found strong evidence of improved effort, self-esteem and a reduction in the number of reprimands and office referrals in other classrooms. A different group of studies, however, found either weaker or no evidence of transfer of learning to other contexts (Hellison & Walsh, 2002).

The results from this present study indicated less transfer of learning than was reported from a number of studies of community-based programmes. There are a number of possible reasons for this difference, including; the different motivations for implementing the RM into classroom programmes; the extra pressures involved with meeting curriculum outcomes; the restricted time period of the implementation and a lack of emphasis by the teacher.

For the vast majority of students involved in this study neither transfer of learning, nor an understanding that this was a possibility was recorded. Interviews indicated that the transfer of learning from the classroom to other contexts was, for many students, something that they had not considered. There was little understanding demonstrated by the students of the potential for the learning to be transferred and little evidence that this occurred. It should be noted, however, that two students indicated strongly that transfer of learning was a reality for them and that the programme had had a strong influence on their attitudes and behaviour at work and at home.

Sarah believed that the issue had been addressed within the class. She acknowledged, however, that transfer of learning would have received greater emphasis as the programme became more established in the classroom. This would appear to make intuitive sense within the context of a developing programme. When asked if, in the future, she would place more or less emphasis on the concept of transfer, she replied that she would "*place more emphasis on this especially now that I realise how far students can come*". It appears that the experience of teaching the model had led to a

better understanding of the potential for developing student understanding of the transfer of learning and that this theme would receive more emphasis in subsequent implementations.

An intended outcome identified by Hellison (2003a) was to give students the opportunity to practice good decision-making. The belief that developing decision-making among students was a worthwhile objective is supported by a number of writers in relation to physical education generally as well as specifically to the RM (Kidman, 2001; Prusak et al., 2004). The literature review reported that for a number of students, the opportunity to be involved in decision-making was a positive aspect of involvement in programmes based on the RM (Williamson & Georgiadis, 1992, Hellison, 1993). Similar sentiments were expressed by a number of the students in this study who indicated that they enjoyed the opportunity to make decisions and appreciated the trust involved, which made them feel more grown up and more responsible.

When comparing research outcomes it was found that, despite the different contexts, all but two of the outcomes observed in community settings were also recorded in the secondary school physical education context (see Table 7.2). The first area of difference concerned the transfer of learning to other contexts. In this study, less acknowledgement of the potential for transfer of learning and less actual transfer occurred than was generally reported in the literature. There are a number of potential reasons for this including that the secondary school physical education context is less conducive to the transfer of learning than previous contexts. Whether this difference was the result of the study being placed in a school context or was the result of this specific implementation is not clear. Further research on the RM situated in school physical education programmes may help clarify the issue.

Table 7.2 Summary of comparative research findings for community-based and a secondary school-based programme

Research findings from Literature Review on community-based programmes.	Research findings from this study, on the RM when implemented in a secondary school physical education programme	Research findings from this study for the two comparison classes
1. There were improvements in participants' self-control, self-direction and in their willingness to help others.	There were improvements in participants' self-control, self-direction and in their willingness to help others.	No general improvement in participants' self-control, self-direction and in their willingness to help others.
2. Participants developed an understanding of the goals of the model and the goals when they were expressed as levels.	Overall participants developed an understanding of the goals of the model and the goals when they were expressed as levels.	Not applicable
3. The research showed that many participants enjoyed the programmes and that this was motivating for them to continue.	Overall participants enjoyed physical education when it was taught based on the RM.	Participants enjoyed physical education
4. The degree to which learning in the programme was transferred to other contexts was uncertain. The research showed mixed results in this area.	Little evidence was found of the transfer of learning in physical education to other contexts for all but two students.	Not applicable
5. Participants were generally positive towards the opportunities given to them to make decisions for themselves.	Students were positive about the opportunities given to them to make decisions for themselves.	No comment was received about opportunities to make decisions for themselves

6. Some teachers and leaders found the process of transferring power to students a difficult one.	The teacher found little difficulty in transferring power to students	Not applicable
7. Mixed attitudes were shown by other teachers towards the programmes In many cases this was initially negative although in some case teachers were won over by the results.	Some teachers initially were very negative to the programme believing that it contributed to increased misbehaviour in their own classes. A number of other teachers were very supportive throughout the study.	Other teachers made no comment about classes
8. The behaviour of participants in the programmes showed steady improvement	The overall behaviour of participants in the programmes showed steady improvement	Overall the behaviour of participants showed some improvement but not to the same degree as the RM classes.
9. Students improved their levels of engagement in the programmes	Overall students levels of engagement improved.	Overall students levels of engagement stayed the same

The second area of difference concerned the feelings of the teacher in regard to the transfer of power and control to the students. In this study the teacher reported little or no difficulty with this process (discussed under question three). This is at variance with the results of previous research (e.g., Buchanan, 2001; Georgiadis, 1990), which had identified that this was an area of concern for many of the teachers involved. This difference is probably accounted for by Sarah's personal philosophy. Sarah already had a philosophical congruence with the underpinning belief in empowerment, which is central to the RM. This personal philosophy was, in fact, partially responsible for her initial interest in and attraction to the model.

Whether these differences were the result of the study being placed in a school context or whether the differences were as a result of this specific implementation is

not clear. Further research on the RM situated in school physical education programmes may help clarify the issue.

The Responsibility Model and its relationship to moral development theory

Chapter Two discussed moral development theory and looked specifically at a number of theorists concerned with moral development. The following section will examine the RM in relation to moral development theory. This discussion will be supported by reference to the implementation of the RM at the centre of this study. As previously outlined moral development theory is generally considered to be based around one of two major philosophical paradigms. These are commonly referred to as the social learning approach and the structured development approach. The social learning approach (detailed on page 24) considers that there are three major elements in moral development. These can be summarised as watching what others do and don't do, observing the penalties and rewards that occur because of their actions and then behaving in a way that the individual believes will allow them to fit in successfully. The structure of the RM offers the opportunity for learning to occur in this way. A teacher can identify positive behaviour, for example a caring action, and reinforce the behaviour through a variety of means. This could include comments during or after the lesson as part of the counselling time or mention of the behaviour in the group discussion sessions. If this process is observed by other students and then modelled by them at a future time then social learning has potentially occurred.

This process was observed to occur as a part of the experiences of students in this study. Sarah worked consistently to both reinforce behaviour that met the goals of the model and where necessary to acknowledge and penalise student's behaviours that were not acceptable. On many occasions Sarah would notice positive behaviour and make comments to the student; comments often framed around the goals or levels of the RM. The incident was then generally highlighted in the group discussion as a demonstration of what the RM was attempting to achieve. One example occurred in a dance class where students were attempting to put together a dance routine for display. One group was attempting, with little success, to learn a particular move involving a spin. A boy from another group spent some time

teaching them until they were able to complete the move to an acceptable level. As Sarah moved past she spoke quietly to him and gave him a touch on the shoulder telling him well done. During the group discussion time she asked if anyone had observed caring behaviour and members of the group identified the boy's behaviour in helping them. This was generally agreed by the class to be a positive example and something that they should also think about doing in class. This process allowed students to be aware of behaviour that had led to public acknowledgement and reinforcement. This would hopefully lead to them completing the third element, the exhibiting of similar behaviours to fit in with the class.

A second example involving the 'no plan no play' implementation was discussed in the results section (see p. 174). In this situation social learning occurred when the students in the class observed the negative consequences for disruptive behaviour. Learning also occurred for the students as they observed Sarah's attempts to develop in the boys an increased understanding of taking personal responsibility for their own behaviour and in observing the boys' responses.

While two examples have been highlighted this process was repeated many times throughout the study. Both of these examples offer the potential for understanding and learning by students who observed what was acceptable or unacceptable behaviour and the rewards and punishments that occur with each. This was social learning occurring in practice. It occurred of course for students in the two comparative classes as well. The potential differences were in the behaviours targeted and the availability in the RM classes of a framework of goals within which to discuss such behaviour.

The RM is more closely aligned, however, with the structured development approach which places a greater emphasis on the cognitive processes leading to a reorganising of thoughts and behaviours. Nucci's (1997) work adopts the structural development classification. His synthesis of research on moral development identified five key educational practices (detailed on p. 28) that enable teachers to engage in moral education that is neither indoctrinate nor relativistic. Nucci considered that moral

education should be based on justice, fairness and student welfare; that it should be fully integrated into the curriculum; that transactive discussion patterns should be used; that cooperative goal structures should be developed; and that the development of firm, fair and flexible classroom management practices was important. Of these five educational practices, the RM seems to be fully congruent with four.

Opportunities that arise in the classroom to consider issues concerning morality are often addressed at a pragmatic level. While this consideration may be related to a simple issue, the discussion and decision making is underpinned quite explicitly in terms of the issues of *justice, fairness and student welfare*. The RM is based on the premise that learning related to personal and social responsibility should be *fully integrated into the curriculum* and that learning occurs by reacting to real-life events as they arise in the teaching of a standard curriculum. This integration of learning with the curriculum is explicitly identified as one of the four themes underpinning the model. The fourth educational practice identified by Nucci, that of *cooperative goal structures*, is met in the RM's emphasis on group discussion and decision-making. This empowerment of students through cooperative decision-making is considered as helping to promote both moral and academic development. The fifth practice involves the *development of firm, fair and flexible classroom management practices* to help establish a classroom culture that supports moral growth. The RM intends to develop this culture through its emphasis on student involvement in decision-making and on the establishment of teacher-student relationships based on respect and understanding. There is also an expectation that, in any discussion of classroom rules, rather than a simple demand for acceptance "because they are rules", an understanding is developed in students of the consequences for themselves and others when transgressions occur.

The third practice identified by Nucci, the use of *transactive discussion patterns*, is less clearly aligned with the RM. Transactive discussion patterns occur when students integrate what other students have said into their own understandings before making any comment. This is different to simply responding without thought or rephrasing the speaker's comments before repeating them. There is a clear

expectation within the RM that students will engage at a cognitive level. The group-sharing and individual-counselling phases within the RM are both opportunities for students to utilise their understandings of and beliefs on “moral issues”. The intention is to bring about the reorganisation of thoughts and behaviours (Soloman, 1997) that leads to moral development. Whether in fact transactive discussion occurs during these times seems, to a large degree, dependent on the knowledge and intent of the teacher. It is possible, however, to facilitate student examination of their thoughts and beliefs concerning moral issues without the specific use of transactive discussion patterns. This is an expected outcome of the RM, independent of whether transactive discussion patterns or an alternative method is used.

Of the five identified practices three were obvious throughout the implementation of this study. The classes were involved in the *cooperative setting of goals* as exemplified by the Sport Education module where students worked together running the sports season. Students were also involved as groups within teams developing training programmes, skill drills and deciding on game tactics in this module. The second element of *integrating moral education with the (PE) curriculum* was observed for the two RM classes throughout the study. Sarah was aware of the importance of integrating the two aspects and worked hard to ensure that it occurred. The third element that was consistently observed was the *establishment of firm, fair and flexible classroom management practices* within the classroom. Sarah was conscious of the importance of explaining the reasons for rules and their importance in relation to the wellbeing of the class and individual students. As an example of this process Sarah worked with both classes early in the implementation to develop class rules to make the class an enjoyable and safe place for all. The final two elements were not as obvious in this study. The programme tended to focus on issues related to taking personal responsibility for behaviours and being socially responsible rather than specifically *emphasising issues of justice, fairness and human welfare*. While these aspects underpinned many of the discussions it would be incorrect to state that they were the main focus. The final element, the use of *transactive discussion patterns* to promote moral development was not observed to occur in this study.

Noddings (2002) identified four elements that she considered to be necessary for successful moral education: modelling, dialogue, practise and confirmation (detailed on p. 26). When considering these elements, it becomes clear that the RM has the potential to have a strong connection to all four elements. *Modelling* of responsible actions is an integral part of establishing effective teacher-student relationships and the failure to model appropriate behaviour undermines potential learning associated with the RM. *Dialogue* involves open-ended discussion that leads to understanding and the development of caring relationships. This could be seen as an important feature of two stages of the RM programme - counselling time and the group meeting. *Practise* at making moral decisions is promoted as a basic premise of the RM, with students actively encouraged to participate in decision-making both as individuals and as part of a group. Noddings's final component, *confirmation*, involves the positive reinforcement of moral action when it occurs. This, too, is strongly encouraged within the RM, with teachers being encouraged to use critical incidents to reinforce behaviour that demonstrates personal and/or social responsibility. The construct of caring, integral to Noddings's perspective about moral education, also has a strong presence in the RM as one of its specific goals. (caring) stresses the importance of developing positive social relationships and being able to respect, value and care for others.

Many of the theoretical elements identified by Noddings were identified in practice in this study. Sarah consistently *modelled* an ethic of care in her teaching. This is related to the "way of being" identified by Hellison (1995) as being central to any successful implementation of the model. A number of students in the RM classes spoke of the improved relationships that had developed with Sarah, while a number also commented along the lines that she really seems to care about us.

Dialogue around issues of relationships, tolerance and the best ways to relate to each other occurred on a number of occasions during classes. These were sometimes semi-structured, within the group discussion times, while at other times they occurred during the general business of the class. On many of these occasions it was noted that

the starting point was around the goals or levels. On one occasion a student who felt left out of the activities approached the teacher and started the conversation with a comment that her team were not including her and ‘that wasn’t very caring’. This led to a wider discussion, involving a number of students, about the reasons for including others in class and the results for students if they are excluded.

A strength of the model in practice is that it supplies numerous opportunities to *practice making moral decisions* in a supportive environment. Decisions on how to select teams, whether players should play soft defence on weaker players to allow them to enjoy their game and how to alter the rules of games to equalise competition all contain a moral dimension and offer the opportunity to practice making moral decisions. In some cases making the right deontic decision was reasonably easy while the responsibility decision leading to moral action was often more difficult. This was observed in one class where members of a team playing indoor soccer felt they were not being given sufficient opportunities to be fully involved. After discussion the deontic decision was that all players needed to touch the ball before anyone could shoot for goal. The responsibility decision to follow the rule was, for a number of players who perceived themselves as able, a difficult one to take. Many felt that the loss of personal enjoyment in the game was too high a price to pay simply to get the others involved. The behaviour of the opposition team who crowded around the poor players knowing they had to be passed to and were vulnerable also showed a lack of affinity to the intent of the rule change. It is these situations that are so rich for the discussion of moral issues.

The final element identified by Noddings *confirmation*, or the positive reinforcement of moral action when it occurs, was observed to happen in a variety of ways. Many of these have been commented on previously in this chapter but it should be noted again that a consistent feature of the model in practice was the confirmation of positive behaviour for the students.

It would appear that the Responsibility Model is aligned strongly with the beliefs of a number of theorists on ways in which to maximise moral development. While the

discussion on the relationship between moral development and the RM has been framed around two specific moral development paradigms and the moral development theories of Noddings; it is perhaps worth considering three common beliefs about maximising moral development which are consistently held by writers and theorists from a range of persuasions. The first is the importance of *adolescence* as a time where changes in moral beliefs can occur; the second is the power of the *peer group* to act as a catalyst in this process and the third is the importance of placing the learning into a *real world situation* involving activities that involve the students at an emotional level. All three of these factors are potentially available for implementations of the RM and were consistently present in the present study. The students were all adolescents and the RM involved the peer group in discussions and decision-making. The implementation was also situated in a physical education programme and used real life situations as the basis for much of the learning. The alignment of the RM in practice with these central beliefs offers further theoretical support for the potential of the RM to bring about change in moral beliefs and behaviour.

The Responsibility Model and Humanism

The RM has been consistently identified as a model of teaching and learning that is associated with the humanistic paradigm (Hellison, 2000; Laker, 2000; Stillwell & Willgoose, 2006). This relationship was discussed in Chapter three with a number of commonalities between the RM and humanism being identified in this discussion. It is, therefore, of interest to examine the RM, as it was implemented in this study, and to attempt to establish if this real world implementation remained congruent to the humanist philosophy.

In the previous discussion, a number of concepts were identified as being central to learning and teaching situated within the humanistic paradigm. These concepts included; establishing a student centred learning environment; teaching the subject matter in what might be called a “more human” way; the establishment of positive and respectful relationships; educating in the affective domain; authenticity, respect and empathetic understanding by the teacher; and the opportunity to examine

existential questions like the examples given by Loland (2006), “who am I? What can I do? Who are we? and What can we achieve together?” (p. 65).

The examination of this implementation would suggest that Sarah established a learning and teaching environment for the two RM classes that demonstrated many of the aspects associated with a humanistic approach to teaching. As the implementation progressed, Sarah progressively moved towards more *student centred* classrooms. This was demonstrated by the empowering of students to take responsibility for various aspects concerned with their teaching and learning. Examples of this included allowing students to decide whether to have referees for the touch games in the sport education module and allowing students to design, and then implement their own fitness programmes based around their own perceived needs.

The students interviewed felt that there had been a change in the way that Sarah related to them in the classroom. They identified these changes in terms of her being “nicer” and “less bossy”. They were keen to emphasise that this had not led to a loss of respect, and that she was still the teacher, but commented that she was “more like a friend” now. A number of comments were also made along the lines that “we are treated like adults in PE”. These comments would suggest that for a number of students there was a feeling that they were being taught in a more *human way*.

These comments would also suggest that the relationship between Sarah and the students was a *respectful and positive* one. A number of students commented that the relationship with Sarah was one that they liked and that they felt that it was more equal than was usual between students and teachers. Again it should be emphasised that the students maintained a good level of respect for Sarah and clearly identified her as “the teacher” The issue of respect was reciprocated by Sarah who spoke of her increased liking for the students in these classes and her feelings that they could be trusted.

An acknowledgement of the importance of learning associated with the *affective domain* was overtly present in this implementation. This aspect was visible, for

example, during the group discussions on being empathetic and inclusive of other members of the class. There was also discussion about how events made students feel and whether how others felt was important. Many of the discussions related to events that happened or behaviour that occurred in class was underpinned by an acknowledgement of the impact on the emotions and feelings of themselves and others. While these considerations were not necessarily paramount, there was awareness that they should be a factor when making decisions or judgements.

Of the three characteristics identified by Patterson (1975) that identified a humanistic teacher, Sarah demonstrated *authenticity and respect*. Sarah's behaviour in class, and the way that she related to the students, was fully congruent with the values that she was attempting to teach. She demonstrated that she was reliable and responsible, both personally and socially, and was honest in her dealings with the class. Sarah was respectful of her students and showed that she liked them as people. This did not mean that she accepted or excused their poor behaviour and she was quick to identify and react to unacceptable behaviour. This chastising was usually centred on the behaviour rather than the student, however, and often involved a discussion on personal responsibility and consequences. The third characteristic *empathetic understanding* is less easy to identify in a teaching situation. While Sarah appeared to understand students' perspectives the degree to which this occurred was not established.

The final concept identified was that of supplying opportunities for students to examine *existential* questions. Loland (2006) identified that a humanistic perspective considers this process is core in the development of "free and responsible moral agents" (p. 66). The physical education programme experienced by students in the RM classes allowed them some opportunities to explore the "possibilities and limitations of embodiment and movement" (Loland, 2006, p. 65) in a number of contexts. An example of this process was observed in the dance programme. For many students, dance was an activity that they were unfamiliar with and one in which they lacked both skill and confidence. For these students the requirement to work in groups, and to develop a dance sequence to be presented to the class,

challenged them at a number of levels. For some it asked the basic question “who am I”? Am I able to move outside of the limitations embodied in me by my culture and background and if so what are the possibilities. What movement can I create and what can we create together as a group? These questions were asked in a physical sense in a number of contexts. Similar questions were raised as part of the processes associated with the RM. When students were asked to address their behaviour in terms of impact on others, or were given the opportunity to create their own programmes, this gave them the opportunity to examine themselves and their core beliefs.

If we examine students’ experiences within the framework of humanism discussed in Chapter three it appears that a number of the identified elements were present for these students. It seems then that it is reasonable to conclude that the two RM classes were taught by Sarah using a humanistic approach to learning and teaching. This conclusion would support the belief that the theoretical association between the RM and humanism was maintained in this practical implementation of the Model.

Full school implementations of the Responsibility Model

This chapter will conclude with consideration of full school implementations of the RM. The possibility of implementing the RM throughout an entire school has received little consideration in the literature (Hellison et al., 2000). The possibility appears, however, to hold a level of attraction for some teachers involved with the model. For some teachers, the belief is that implementing the RM across the full school would lead to the benefits identified at a class level being achieved over a full school population. It is also felt that the learning occurring at the classroom level would be reinforced and consolidated if students were exposed to the RM on a consistent basis in a variety of contexts throughout their school day. For others, introducing a school wide implementation is more motivated by the perceived benefits in behaviour management, with the most sought after outcomes being those concerned with improved student behaviours. The reasons underpinning a decision to implement a full school implementation would influence both how the programme was instigated and run and the outcomes that might be achieved. If the major

concern was with changing student behaviour then the result may well be a superficial application involving, for example, the prominent display of posters and a lot of discussion about personal and social responsibility. Alternatively, if the motivation was to achieve the full potential benefits of the RM there would need to be a commitment to the underlying philosophy of the model by the leadership team and all individual teachers. While the idea has some appeal, a potentially major problem occurs with the prospect of getting a number of different teachers to take on board the model in its entirety. While it is possible to implement the structure of the model by, for example, displaying posters of the levels and discussing personal and social responsibility, a commitment to the total package would be needed. This relates to the “way of being” that has been previously discussed in this study. Buchanan’s (2001) study of the RM in a sports camp identified some of the problems of a full programme implementation of the RM with a number of teachers buying into the programme in theory, but choosing to ignore it in the reality of their teaching. The result was that while the students were ready and able to take on responsibilities and to develop personal and social responsibility this did not occur due to the teachers’ lack of commitment.

Mrugala’s (2003) study indicated, however, that teachers who implement the model, without a firm philosophical commitment to its underpinnings, can find themselves influenced towards a more humanistic way of teaching through the experience of teaching in this way. This would suggest that a full school implementation where some teachers were fully committed and others made an effort towards implementing the mode could be successful.

In any full school implementation of the RM it would be the teachers who were the crucial element. It would be the reality of their practice that would determine how the model was implemented, the experiences that the students would have and the outcomes that would eventuate. The diversity of teachers in any school, with their philosophical differences and the differences in the ways they choose to teach and relate to students, would make this a complex and challenging task. In any full school implementation it would therefore be vital that teachers were carefully

prepared and fully supported in both the introductory phase and while teaching the model. While it is beyond the parameters of this study to discuss issues of professional training, it should be noted that there is extensive information available on quality professional training. Accessing this information would aid schools in developing a successful training programme, which would in turn increase the chances of a successful full school implementation of the RM.

It is perhaps interesting to quickly contemplate the experiences of the Te Kotahitanga programme developed and implemented in New Zealand (Bishop et al., 2007). This programme was developed to find out how education could make the greatest difference in raising the educational achievement of Maori students. The first phase consisted of interviewing Maori students to gain a better understanding of their experiences in the classroom. This was followed by professional development, initially for a small number of teachers, in schools with the intention of using this understanding to improve the educational experiences of Maori students. The emphasis of the professional development was to bring about changes in the ways that the teachers related to students and in the ways that they structured their teaching. The following, taken from the Ministry of Education research report on Phase 2, offers an insight into the researchers' experiences of facilitating change in a school. The report offers a parallel to the experiences of some students in this study and makes comment on the question of full school implementations:

In Te Kotahitanga Phase 1, only a very small number of teachers were involved in the project in each school. As a result, these teachers tended to become somewhat isolated enclaves within their respective schools. It has also been identified that students had changed their behaviours, reduced their absenteeism and in most cases had improved their educational achievement in the target teacher's classrooms. However, in their other classes taken by non targeted teachers, it was reported anecdotally, that their behaviour had in some cases worsened, selective absenteeism (wagging selected periods) had increased and the general level of frustration of all concerned had risen.

Consequently, we have identified that the focus of the professional development intervention in future should be the whole staff. This would see changes taking place in the teachers' classrooms throughout the whole school and create a 'cultural change' in the school so that all teachers were supportive and knowledgeable of the new approaches. In addition it would allow their students to experience consistency across as many of their subject classrooms as possible.
(p. 2)

Phase two and three of the Kotahitanga project are still being implemented and evaluated and it will of interest to monitor the results in relation to the impact of full school implementations.

The following chapter addresses the significance of this study and offers a number of conclusions.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Significance and Conclusions

We need more than classroom management to address the problems that children and youth bring to school and community programs. To help today's children we need to deliver on our holistic rhetoric about such things as character development and the affective domain. Of course physical activity is central to physical education, but the world today requires that teachers put kids ahead of physical activity, that they teach for personal and social development much more than teachers in the past ... Margaret Mead [National Clearinghouse on families and Youth, 1996, p. 22] offers us hope with this remark: Never doubt that the efforts of one person can change the world ... Indeed it's the only thing that ever has. (Hellison, 2003, p. 242)

The final chapter in this study is concerned with the significance of the study and in discussing potential conclusions. The chapter also discusses four limitations associated with the study, offers a number of suggestions for future research and concludes with ten recommendations for teachers considering implementing the Responsibility Model into their professional practice.

It is important at this point to return to comments made earlier in the study. The predominant epistemology that inform this study is that of constructivism which has been defined as “the view that all knowledge, and, therefore, all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context” (Crotty, 1998, p. 42). The understanding that the beliefs and views expressed by the participants in this study are constructed through their experiences and world views is important when interpreting meaning. In a similar manner the interpretation process itself is influenced by the beliefs of the researcher. As Crotty (1998) stated, different people gain a different meaning even from the same phenomenon and what constructivism “drives home unambiguously is that there is no true or valid interpretation” (p. 47). This understanding does not

negate understanding derived from interpretation as it is accepted that while no particular interpretation can be claimed as the correct one, interpretations can be both valuable and useful.

In this study it is therefore necessary to be cognisant of the limitations and restraints integral to research situated in the constructivist paradigm. It is also important, however, to acknowledge that the views and experiences that participants bring to the process often adds an insight and understanding that may be unavailable to others. In this study, situated in the reality of practice, the world view of the teachers and students need to be both acknowledged and valued as these are the legitimate inhabitants of this particular “swamp of practice”. As Crotty (1998) stated, different people gain a different meaning even from the same phenomenon, and the meaning given by Sarah and her students is their meaning and must be valued.

This study examined an implementation of the RM in a New Zealand secondary school physical education programme. It was driven in part by the awareness that, despite a lack of clear empirical support, the RM was becoming established as an accepted approach to the teaching of physical education in New Zealand. The review of literature identified that there were a number of areas where research was either limited or non-existent. These included: the lack of research on the RM when implemented within school physical education programmes; the absence of research on the model in the New Zealand context; the RM when implemented with students who were not considered to be underserved; a lack of methodological breadth; and the effects of having the RM taught in schools by practising physical education teachers.

The research methodology for this study was designed to address a number of these limitations. The implementation occurred in an established physical education programme and was taught by a permanent member of the physical education department in a New Zealand secondary school. The classes involved in the study were established prior to the implementation and as such contained a full range of students, many of who would not be considered to be underserved. The review of

literature also identified that the research on the model to date had been predominately situated within the descriptive research paradigm. The majority of the research consisted of case studies completed by research practitioners heavily involved in teaching the programmes (e.g., Georgiadis, 1990; Lifka, 1990; Wright et al., 2004). The potential limitations of having research on the RM concentrated in one research paradigm have been discussed in Chapter Four. In response to these limitations, the research design for this study used a mixed methods approach involving both case study and quasi-experimental methods.

Significance of the Study

What then is the significance of the findings of this study? The first major finding was that the RM can be successfully implemented into a compulsory physical education programme by a classroom teacher. This is an important outcome when it is considered that the RM has already been introduced into physical education practice and has gained “teacher tested status”, without research support for its effectiveness. While the findings from research in community and out of school programmes had identified a number of successful outcomes, a physical education class in a secondary school differs in a number of important ways. Of particular importance is that a physical education class consists of students who are required to attend and that moves as a discrete unit within the school, five or six periods a day, five days a week for the full year. This continuity means that a class unit takes their experiences in the RM with them throughout the day and into the classrooms of a number of other teachers. This is distinctly different to an out of school based programme in which students attend for a specific period of time and then disperse until their next session. Other differences that can be identified include: the requirement for the teacher to ensure that specific curriculum goals are met; the inability of the group to exclude students who do not respond to the RM philosophy or cause problems; the generally large class sizes; the possibility of conflicts between the RM philosophy and that of the school or other teachers within the school; the range of students within classes, which means that a number will not be considered to be underserved and the potential different motivations for teachers introducing the RM into their classes as opposed to the motivations behind voluntary groups run out

of school. These differences raise the central question of whether the outcomes previously identified could be replicated within a school physical education programme.

Three issues generated by the specific context of the school were identified from this study: teachers' motivations for introducing the RM into their practice; potential tensions between the RM teacher/class and other teachers who teach the RM classes; and the realities of merging the RM with Sport Education.

Concerning the first issue, it appears reasonable to assume that teachers involved in running after school RM programmes, or who chose to introduce the RM into specially constituted classes for poorly behaved students, do so with the intention of making a difference to participants' abilities to be personally and socially responsible. The motivation for introducing the RM into physical education classrooms may, however, be different. Mrugala's (2003) research found that, for many teachers, the introduction of the RM into their practice had little to do with creating a more humanistic classroom or the learning of personal and social responsibility, and more to do with a search for alternative ways of controlling students and managing classroom behaviour. One area on which this difference in motivation may have an important influence is the emphasis placed on the transfer of learning on personal and social responsibility to contexts outside of the classroom. A teacher motivated by a vision of making a difference in students' lives is more likely to see the worth of an emphasis on transfer than a teacher initially motivated by the need to improve classroom management within their own classroom. It could be considered that the commitment to achieving a transfer of learning to other contexts is a point of difference between those for whom the primary focus of the RM is the development of personal and social responsibility, and those who see it primarily as a means of improving management in their classroom.

The second issue involved the potential conflict that occurs where the pedagogy associated with the RM is at odds with more traditional approaches to teaching and classroom management present in the school. With one RM class students who were

enjoying the teaching approach being implemented in physical education, reacted strongly against the more traditional approaches to teaching employed by their other teachers. For these students, there was a perception that, in physical education, they were trusted and were being treated “like adults”. When they felt this was not occurring in their other classes, they reacted with worsening behaviour resulting in an increase in detentions and negative interactions with their teachers.

A similar outcome was found in the Kotahitanga programme (Bishop et al., 2007) which also worked initially with a limited number of teachers within the school. This programme identified a problem with some student behaviour outside the targeted teachers’ classrooms. In one school it was reported that “although suspensions generated by in-class incidents decreased dramatically, there was an increase in those generated by out-of-class incidents” (p.121). Problems were also recoded with selected absenteeism and conflict occurring with other teachers in the playground.

This issue is related to the principle of student empowerment, a process that can be in direct conflict with both the training of teachers and the predominant culture of many schools and physical education programmes. It has been argued that traditionally the key imperatives for schools are docility and utility (Kirk, 2004). Docility relates to the social regulation of children, a process that produces obedient students who are able to be more easily controlled while utility is concerned with the production of healthy robust adults able to contribute to the countries economies. If this is in fact the case, it can be seen that a way of teaching that openly empowers students has the potential to come into conflict with these imperatives.

The empowerment of students, however, is a central tenet in the RM philosophy and needs to occur in any implementation of the model. For this to be successful, the teacher needs to have both a philosophical alignment with the principle of student empowerment, and a pragmatic ability to instigate power sharing in practice. Along with this, in many cases, is a willingness to swim against the at times strong pedagogical currents. As mentioned in Chapter Seven, the public scrutiny that often

occurs in this situation can place an extra pressure on teachers looking to implement the RM within a school.

Conflict between classes taught with the RM and their other teachers is not, of course, an inevitable consequence of implementing the RM into a school environment. This was demonstrated by 9RM in this study, who showed no apparent sign of deteriorating behaviour in their other classes and, in fact, showed some signs of improvement, at least in terms of detentions earned.

The third issue that arose from the introduction of the RM into a school physical education context is related to a merging of the RM and Sport Education. The requirement in Sport Education for students to be responsible in a variety of ways gives the model an immediate appeal as a partner for the RM. This “obvious” alignment has led to the RM/Sport Education combination being taught in a number of New Zealand schools. A key element in choosing this combination is the potential that Sport Education seems to offer students to experience meeting all of the goals of the RM. The structure of Sport Education allows students to show respect for others, to make an effort to be involved, to initiate self-directed learning and to care, both in their interactions with other students and by the roles that they choose to take within the class. The variation in ability and experience among team members, when combined with the group attempting to achieve a common purpose, offers a rich opportunity for students to practise both personal and social responsibilities. Like the RM, Sport Education is essentially a model that seeks to empower students, to allow them to take responsibility for controlling and directing their own experiences (Siedentop, 2002). It is also a model that gives students the opportunity to experience real responsibility through performing a number of roles apart from that of player.

Despite this apparent commonality there are some tensions that can arise when the models are combined. While both models share a number of common beliefs and values, there are also a number of differences. These differences include the emphasis on internal versus external sources of authority and control and the place of formalised games (Hastie & Buchanan, 2000). A formalised competition is an

integral aspect of the Sport Education model, with established draws identifying a schedule of games throughout the module. This schedule of games is published early in the programme and leads to a high profile culminating event, followed by the presentation of awards for champion teams, etc. There is a strong expectation that teams will meet their commitments and participate in all games. This contrasts with the informal game structure that is the common approach in Hellison's RM programmes.

The Sport Education structure also places that model in potential conflict with a core aspect of the RM, the encouragement to change the rules within games. While flexibility is offered within Sport Education to modify some aspects of the sport, for example, the number of players in teams, it is expected that there will be consistency once the rules have been established. This consistency contrasts with the flexible approach at the centre of the RM which encourages the changing of rules if necessary to achieve the goals of the model. These rule changes are often generated by the groups themselves in response to situations that arise within the lesson. If, for example, it appears that some players are being excluded in basketball, it is a common modification to require all players to touch the ball before a shot can be taken. This modification can occur at any time and may then be removed and reintroduced when students feel it is appropriate. Attempts to generate this type of change may well meet resistance from students involved in a Sport Education model, with its emphasis on keeping scores, league tables and identifying winning teams. Another example of the potential for fundamental conflict is seen in the encouragement of players to play soft defence when marking less able opponents. The intention for this is to encourage empathy and in moral development terms to give students the opportunity to follow their deontic decisions with a practical demonstration of a responsibility decision. The context of a competitive season with records kept of wins and losses, points for and against, the publishing of results etc. is not as conducive towards this type of accommodation as the less competitively structured approach encouraged by the RM. The importance of team success in Sport Education could well work as an active disincentive for developing empathy for others.

The differences between the two models mean that any merging could be more problematic than might initially be assumed. Hastie and Buchanan's (2000) examination of a 26 lesson programme based on a RM/Sport Education combination concluded that an equal partnership was not possible and that, in reality, the needs of one model would always take precedence over those of the other. This conclusion led to the decision being made in this present study that the RM would take precedence over Sport Education and that in situations where there was a conflict the needs of the RM would take precedence. However, the present researcher wanted, at least, to signal possible points of difference and similarities between the two models.

When consideration was given to implementing the RM into a New Zealand secondary school physical education programme two questions that arose were the impact of large class groups on the model and whether the model would transfer successfully to the New Zealand cultural setting.

In general, the recommendation for implementing the RM in community settings is for the size of the group to be kept to between ten and fifteen participants (Hellison, 2003b). It is considered that the intimate size of these groups is helpful in developing close relationships between participants and that the small group size helps ensure that participants are not easily able to avoid the scrutiny that is so important in programmes based on the RM. Small class groups are, in reality, not a practical option within many compulsory school physical education programmes, which, in many cases, will have over thirty students in a class. What impact the high number of students had in this study is difficult to identify. The two RM classes had 18 and 28 students respectively and it is difficult to be certain whether the experiences of students in the class would have been different if the groups were smaller. All that can be said is that the results achieved in this study were achieved with classes containing high numbers of students.

Much of the previous research on the RM has been completed in the United States and one of the interesting questions for this study was to find if the model would

successfully transfer to the New Zealand cultural setting. The results of the study showed that there were no difficulties identified that could be attributed to cultural differences and this would support the belief that cultural differences are not a factor in the success or otherwise of implementations of the RM in New Zealand.

An associated criticism of the research to date on the RM is the lack of comparative research, which raises questions about claims of the model's success. The introduction of the two comparison classes in this study gave the opportunity to compare the outcomes of the RM classes with similar classes taught using a traditional pedagogical approach. The comparison classes followed a similar curriculum to the RM classes, were taught by the same teacher and received the same research scrutiny as the RM classes. The major difference between the two groups was simply that the comparison classes were taught using a more traditional pedagogy that contained no elements of the RM.

The argument could, therefore, be presented that observed differences in outcomes between the RM classes and the comparison classes were related to the different pedagogical approaches used by the teacher. The argument that the relevant outcomes were generated by the RM is further strengthened if the observed differences in outcomes between the RM and comparison classes were consistent with outcomes previously identified in case study research on the RM. This is in alignment with Silverman's (2000) suggestion that generalising (transferability) is possible where the researcher demonstrates similarities and differences over a number of settings, a process he describes as the comparative method.

When a comparison was made between the comparison and RM classes in this study, a number of differences were observed. The findings showed an increased engagement overall in physical education and a rapid improvement in behaviour for the RM classes; increases that was not matched by the comparison classes. In the area of personal and social responsibility, students from the RM classes generally developed a greater understanding of the concepts and demonstrated a greater degree of personal and social responsibility in physical education classes than did students

from the comparison classes. These changes included; improvements in self-control, self-direction, and a willingness to help others; The teacher, who taught all four classes, considered that she had established better relationships with students in the RM classes and that, by the end of the implementation period, she preferred teaching them to the comparison classes. This was a reversal of her attitude prior to the start of the study.

It is interesting to note that these outcomes, identified in the RM classes, but not observed in the comparison classes, had been previously identified as outcomes associated with the implementation of the RM in other contexts (Table 7.2). A number of other outcomes identified in this study were consistent with the findings from research on the RM in other contexts. These include developing an understanding of the goals associated with personal and social responsibility and showing a positive attitude towards the opportunity to make decisions within the programme. Both of these goals are related directly to the RM and were not part of the experiences of students in the comparison classes.

The limitations associated with quasi-experimental and case study research do not allow for claims of cause and effect in this study. What can be considered, however, is that a number of outcomes, previously reported in a number of research studies on the RM, situated in a variety of contexts, were also identified to occur in this study. It can also be reported that these outcomes did not occur for the two comparison classes, taught by the same teacher in the same school and recipients of the same research processes. These results add support for the case, presented by proponents of the RM that the model has the ability to be an effective means of bringing about positive change in participants attitudes and values related to personal and social responsibility.

Limitations

Four limitations were identified in this study and these need to be acknowledged as having potential impact on the outcomes. In regards to some, efforts were made to minimise the likely impact, but it has to be recognised that some influence will have

been inevitable. In regard to the others, the limitations would be important to consider in future research in this area.

In any school-based study the impact of the research process itself needs to be acknowledged. While every attempt was made to reduce this influence, the reality was that the presence of the researcher and the processes involved in data gathering had the potential to impact on the students and the learning that occurred at a number of levels.

A second limitation was the lack of systematic data collection from other teachers involved with the students which have would more clearly identified the degree to which transfer of learning on personal and social responsibility had occurred. An examination of the students' behaviours in contexts outside of the school, for example, at work or at home would also have offered an additional insight into the degree of transfer of learning. While these additions would offer a number of logistical challenges, they would also supply opportunities to examine in more detail the effectiveness of the model in impacting on students' lives outside of the classroom context.

The length of the implementation for the study could also be considered to be a limitation. The need for consistent and long term implementation has been identified (Hellison et al., 2000) as an important variable in the success of the RM. The restriction of this study to six months may well have resulted in different outcomes being achieved than would have occurred in an implementation that lasted a full year or longer. The reality of conducting intensive research of this kind within a school context, with all its complications, precluded any lengthier implementation period.

The final distinct limitation can also be regarded as a major strength. Placing the study into the real world of a school resulted in a number of unforeseen events. The messy realities of a busy school with the changes in timetables, sick teachers and strike days had an impact on the data collection and the way that the RM was implemented. These occurrences, however, can also be considered a strength that

grounded the study in reality or what Hellison called the “swamp of practice” (Hellison, 2000). Every effort was made to minimise the impact of such uncontrollable factors, but conducting the research under such conditions meant that it has a distinct ‘real world’ quality.

Further Research

Research on the RM is still in the developmental stage with much of the completed research consisting of descriptive case studies of programmes developed for underserved youth. With the increasing acceptance of the RM as a pedagogical approach to teaching physical education, the first necessity is for further research to be completed on the RM when it is implemented into school physical education programmes. The scarcity of research in schools leaves questions about the impact and legitimacy of the model in these settings. It is, therefore, important that a body of empirical research is established to develop an understanding of the realities of the RM in these contexts. This body of research should include a range of methodological approaches implemented in a variety of educational settings. Of some interest in these studies would be an exploration of the conflicts that can occur when the philosophical beliefs underpinning the RM are incongruent with those of the school or other teachers.

One option that has been considered is full school implementations of the RM (discussed in Chapter Seven). While there are advantages for this approach, there are also a number of potential problems. These problems include the difficulties of gaining an acceptance of the philosophical underpinnings of the RM from the full range of teachers within a school. Despite these difficulties, the effects of a full school implementation would be an area of interest for the educational community.

A core question that needs to be examined carefully is the degree to which the outcomes achieved with the RM can be attributed to the humanistic and pedagogical approaches associated with the RM rather than the RM itself. The RM gives students the opportunities to practise skills such as self-directed learning, decision-making, being personal responsible and helping others. It also places value on establishing

teacher-student relationships that are respectful and positive. These opportunities are created as an integral part of the physical education programme and are underpinned by the learning associated with and the structure of the RM. It is interesting then to contemplate to what degree the positive outcomes observed in the RM classes are the result of the reconstituted relationships and the specific pedagogies used rather than the RM itself. How different would the results be in a physical education programme that encouraged decision-making and student empowerment and that used a number of the same pedagogical approaches but did not underpin the programme with either the structure of the RM or the specific teaching and learning about personal and social responsibility.

The research to date has been primarily associated with students from underserved communities or, in the case of school based research, public schools. It would be interesting to examine the RM when implemented into a high decile and/or private school. This change of context, with the potential removal of many of the initial behaviour and management problems, could offer the opportunity for a more concentrated examination of the impact of the model on student's understanding of and behaviour in relation to personal and social responsibility.

In this study, no systematic collection of data was completed to examine the impact of the model on the way students behaved in other classes or outside of the school context. The data that were gathered was collected through interviews with students, the teacher as well as an examination of the number of detentions given to students in other classes. Analysis of these data indicated that, for the vast majority of students, the learning that occurred in physical education was not consciously applied in other areas of their lives. This may mean that this transfer to other contexts simply did not occur. It is possible, however, that students take on board the learning at a subconscious level and that this may influence their behaviour without them being consciously aware of it. It would be interesting, therefore, in future research to systematically collect data from teachers involved with teaching the classes in other subjects along with significant others, such as parents and caregivers

There has been some criticism of the way that the goals/levels of the RM have tended to be taught. A potentially fruitful area of research interest would be to explore an implementation of the RM where the goals were introduced and taught as a series of independent goals/levels rather than as a sequence that is cumulative in nature.

The effect that implementing the model has had on teachers' beliefs and attitudes is another area of interest. Mrugala's (2003) research signalled that changes occurred in the teachers involved with the RM, in the ways they thought about their teaching and in the ways they related to their students. Future research could examine teachers' beliefs to identify if working with the RM had changed them in any substantive way.

Aligned with an examination of the impact of working with the RM on teachers are the interesting possibilities associated with working with the RM for pre-service physical education teachers. A number of programmes have used pre-service teachers or graduate students, either as part of their course requirements, or on a voluntary basis (Cutforth, 1997). Exposure to these programmes has often had a strong influence on the students' beliefs about teaching physical education and about the nature of inner city youth. As one graduate student involved in Project Lead (Cutforth, 1997) said, "I had the typical stereotypes of these kids [but] since participating in the program, the kids are real to me. They have so many strengths and they need guidance to develop their skills" (p. 135). Hellison, who used physical education students as teachers in an inner city basketball programme, commented that he, "knew of no better way to destroy the stereotypes of inner-city youth usually held by the middle class than to spend time on a regular basis with these children" (Hellison, 1993, p. 68). In the New Zealand context it would be interesting to explore if similar changes occurred for student teachers teaching the RM in low decile schools.

To date, the RM has been taught to groups predominantly situated in western societies with traditional western cultural values. Another research possibility is an examination of the RM when taught in a distinctly different culture. Would the underpinning beliefs about personal and social responsibility be acceptable for and

transfer across to other cultures and be accepted from another cultural perspective? If not what would be the culturally appropriate alternatives. What, for example, would be the impact of implementing the RM into a Moslem community?

One of the successful innovations in this study was the merging of the RM with a Sport Education module. This combination has received some interest from teachers and anecdotal evidence would suggest that the apparent congruency between the two models had led to their being combined in a number of schools. The popularity of this approach suggests the necessity for it to be adequately researched in order to establish the reality of practice; especially given that there are some obvious inconsistencies.

The review of literature identified that there was a lack of methodological breadth in the research on the model to date. One area that offers potential for future research involves the increasing use of comparison groups or controls. While being cognisant of the arguments offered by Martinek (2000), on the difficulties of working in this way with underserved youth, this study indicates that, with planning and flexibility, it is possible to achieve understanding without negatively impacting on students who are not involved. Sharpe's (1995) research also suggests that the implementation of the RM into schools may make comparative research in this context less problematic.

The introduction of the RM into a compulsory school setting raises the question of the teaching of a particular set of values. While the underpinnings of the model appear to be almost incontestable in their "goodness", the rapidly changing demographics of school populations requires examination of potential clashes in values with students legally required to attend classes. Is there potential for tension, for example, between the independence encouraged through the RM and the expectations of some fundamentalist religious groups or even conservative communities. Is the assumption that the values being taught are "correct" defensible when consideration is given to the compulsory nature of attendance in public schooling and the diversity of beliefs held by many families within modern communities?

Recommendations for Teachers

As a result of this study the following recommendations are presented for physical education teachers who are considering implementing the RM into their teaching practice. It is recommended that:

- Teachers ensure that they have an in-depth knowledge of the RM before implementing the programme. This includes an understanding of, and an affinity to the philosophy that underpins the model, an understanding that will help ensure that the implementation is more than a superficial presentation of the levels.
- In any attempt to implement a full school approach to the RM a substantial commitment be given to educating teachers about the model prior to its introduction and to supporting the teachers while they are working with the model in their practice
- When developing programmes based on the RM, teachers give careful consideration to the pedagogical approaches used in the activity segments of the lesson. A successful implementation of the RM requires students to have opportunities to practice decision-making and to be personally and socially responsible. This means that the classes must be structured in ways that supply these opportunities. It is important, therefore, that appropriate pedagogical approaches be implemented to allow this to occur.
- The importance of the transfer of learning to other contexts be clearly identified as an important outcome and taught carefully and overtly.
- Consideration should be given to introducing and teaching the goals as being independent rather than as being cumulative. While accepting that treating the goals as cumulative levels has become the norm for teachers, implementing the RM as independent goals offers many potential advantages.
- Teachers be aware that the research has shown that most teachers feel unsure at times about what they are doing, especially in the initial stages of any implementation. Teachers should remember, however, that this uncertainty tends to ease as the teacher and the class gets familiar with the programme.
- Teachers think carefully about the potential for conflict with other teachers when they implement the RM. If the class is likely to be taught by teachers with

distinctly different views, or the underpinning values of the RM are fundamentally different from the school's culture, it may be useful to spend time explaining to other teachers about the RM and exploring possible conflicts.

- When consideration is given to merging the RM with Sport Education a clear decision be made that the requirements of the RM take precedence over those of Sport Education.
- Implementing the RM starts with a single class. The programme can be expanded as confidence builds.
- Ideas that have been successfully implemented with the RM classes should be tried with other classes without necessarily implementing the full model.

Final Comments

In his article, 'Becoming Responsible - Theoretical and Practical Considerations' Jim Stiehl (1993) attempted to answer the question, "What is worth doing in physical education?" by describing what might be:

Imagine a physical education that contributes to a future where kids achieve more, become healthier, cease to accost others, and perhaps even wake up every morning eager to come to school. Imagine what might be possible if children matured into adults with the knowledge that they can be responsible for themselves; that they can be accountable for their behaviours and to their commitments; that how they treat their bodies is a matter of personal and social responsibility and choice. Imagine what might be possible in a school where "every child is healthy, creative, self-disciplined, caring of others, able to work with others, and concerned about the community and environment..." [Stiehl & Morris, 1992, p. 8]. More specifically imagine physical education programmes where students disperse and return equipment quickly and efficiently; where students come to class dressed appropriately and prepared to learn; where "so what and whatever" are not commonplace expressions; where students talk decently to others, and respect each others space, property, and specialness. (p. 39)

This current study would suggest that the RM was successful in going some way towards meeting Stiehl's perception of a classroom "worth doing". The question then becomes "Is it important"? Perhaps the answer can be seen in history where "educated men" have often behaved in the most immoral and inhuman ways. We need to look no further than Nazi Germany, for example, to see a stark illustration that "education" offers no guarantee of humanity.

What then is the future for the RM in physical education? Are the humanistic values promoted by the model valued by physical education or will they be sidelined by the more easily taught and measured technocratic outcomes traditionally linked to physical education? The decision whether to embrace the potential of the RM is not a simple or easy one to make. It requires a belief that the outcomes associated with the model are important, a vision that sees they can be met, and the courage to try.

Throughout this study, the question "What is worth doing?" has been asked in relation to physical education. Perhaps an equally important question is "Can I make a difference". While no definitive answer can be given to either, the following paragraph written by Sarah three years after the completion of the study, perhaps offers a glimpse at what can be:

Thanks Barrie, this was an awesome opportunity which I feel has really challenged me to find my own style of teaching and formed a strong backbone for my own philosophy of teaching and basically why I am a teacher. If I can help spread the word – let me know. Since this [study], I have implemented the model and have had even more success both for the students but as importantly for myself and my professional practices. It is really powerful stuff to have such an effect on young people and I do feel that I have made a difference.

APPENDIX A

Teacher Questionnaire

- 1 Do you like kids and can you relate to them?
- 2 Do you like to treat kids as individuals?
- 3 Do you spend some time consciously focusing on kids strengths?
- 4 Do you listen to kids and believe they know things?
- 5 Do you share your power with pupils?
- 6 Do you help your students solve their own conflicts so that they can learn to solve their own?
- 7 Do you help your students to control their negative statements and temper, or do they rely on you to control them?
- 8 Do you help everyone to be included in the activities so that they can do this on their own?
- 9 Do you give students the opportunity to work independently and on their own goals?
- 10 Do your students have a voice in evaluating each lesson and in solving problems that may arise?
- 11 Do your students have the opportunities to assume meaningful leadership roles such as teaching and coaching?
- 12 Do you place some emphasis on transferring the levels from your class to their lives outside physical education?
- 13 Do your students leave your program understanding what taking responsibility means and how it applies to them? (p.124)

APPENDIX B

Ethics Approval

APPENDIX C**Letter of Information and Consent Forms****INFORMATION SHEET
(Students)**

Kia Ora

My name is Barrie Gordon and I am currently working as a lecturer in physical education at Massey University College of Education.

I am involved in a research project with xxxx and the physical education department at xxxx College. This research is looking at a different way of teaching physical education called teaching personal and social responsibility through physical education. This model has been used in previous years at xxxx College and the research project is simply about looking to see if it is effective.

For the majority of students this project will have no impact at all. Classes will continue as usual, the curriculum will stay the same and you will not be invited to be interviewed. Written comments made on evaluation sheets in class may be used but no names will be included in any written articles or presentations.

Four students from each class will be asked if they are willing to be interviewed on four occasions during the project. Students selected for interviews will receive a separate information and consent form.

The information gained from this research will be used for professional presentations and journal articles.

If you are interested please feel free to:

- * ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- * ask for a summary of the findings of the study when it is concluded;

Thanking you in anticipation of your help.

Barrie Gordon

INFORMATION SHEET

(Students to be interviewed)

Kia Ora

My name is Barrie Gordon and I am currently working as a lecturer in physical education at Massey University College of Education.

I am involved in a research project with xxx xxx and the physical education department at xxx xxx. This research is looking at a different way of teaching physical education called teaching personal and social responsibility through physical education. This model has been used in previous years at xxx xxx and the research project is simply about looking to see if it is effective.

Four students from each class will be invited to be interviewed on four occasions during the project. The students will be selected to represent a range of ability in physical education. These interviews will be audio taped and should take approximately 20 minutes each. Interviews will be held at xxx xxx. **I would like you to be one of the students that we interview.**

The information on the tapes would be transcribed and then used in the writing of a PhD thesis and research articles. Any university staff member involved in transcribing tapes will be required to sign a confidentiality agreement. Your name would not be used during the writing process and every attempt would be made to ensure that no individual could be identified.

Information will be used for a PhD thesis, professional presentations and journal articles.

As a potential participant you have the right to

- * decline to participate;
- * to refuse to answer any question;
- * to withdraw from the study at any time;
- * to ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- * to provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- * to be given access to a summary of the findings of the study when it is concluded;
- * decline to have the interview audio taped

- * ask for the tapes to be wiped, returned to you or allow the tapes to be kept at the completion of this project. If kept they would not be used for teaching or any other purpose other than this research.

If you have any questions or wish to seek clarification then please contact me at 06) xxxx home or 06) xxxx etxn xxxx Work.

Please read the consent form carefully, sign it appropriately and return it to your physical education teacher. I will contact those who have agreed to participate to organise an interview at a mutually agreeable time.

Thanking you in anticipation of any help you can offer

Barrie Gordon

CONSENT FORM

I have read the Information Sheet provided. I understand that I may ask questions at any time.

I understand I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decline to answer any particular questions.

I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that my name will not be used without my permission.

I understand that I have the right to ask for the tapes to be wiped, returned or kept by the researcher as explained on the information sheet.

(The information will be used only for this research and publications arising from this research project).

I agree/do not agree to the interview being audio taped.

I also understand that I have the right to ask for the audio/video tape to be turned off at any time during the interview.

I **agree** to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet (students over 16 years of age).

Signed:

Name:

Date:

I agree that _____ can participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet (students under 16 years of age).

Signed (caregiver)

Name:

Date:

I **decline** to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signed:

Name:

Date:

Please return to your physical education teacher

APPENDIX D**Guide questions for teacher interview**

Interview schedule
Teacher

- 1) How do you think the programme is going generally
- 2) Have you identified any changes in behaviour within the class
- 3) Have you received feedback from students in the class concerning the programme.
- 4) Do you see any indications that the students are understanding personal and social responsibility ... being more personally and socially responsible.
- 5) Have you noticed any impact on student engagement in the subject matter of physical education
- 6) On a personal level are you comfortable with the programme. Have you any concerns with how it's going. Has it impacted on your relationships with the class as a whole or with individuals within the class?
- 7) Have you received feedback from other teachers or caregivers about the programme.

APPENDIX E**Guide questions – Students (RM classes)**

- 1) What do you think about the Responsibility Model that Ms xxxx is teaching in physical education. (Probe for further understanding)
- 2) Has it made you think about the way you react to others in class. In what ways has this occurred? (Probe for examples of changes in ways reacted if it has occurred)
- 3) Do you think it has had any effect on you in the way you have worked in physical education. If so can you give some examples.
- 4) How about outside class. For example, in other classes in school. At home. With your friends.
- 5) If your little sister or brother was coming to this school for the first time next year and they asked you “what do you learn in physical education”, what would you tell them.
- 6) Any other comments about what is happening in physical education.

APPENDIX F

Examples of notes taken during class observation

Observations 11th August 10RM

Curriculum context dance.

Initial routine well established. Students select names and then place next to levels of behaviour. Some appear to consider choice others do so quickly. One boy walks away then returns and changes his selection from level 3 to level 2.

0 students select level 0
4 students select level 1
5 students select level 2
remainder select level 3

Roll taken ... other class in gymnasium so lots of noise and laughter. 2 without gear (notes)

Class sits quietly and listens to teacher. A quick discussion on intent of the model. Students react seriously.

Teacher introduces plan for dance to classes. They select into groups and are asked to plan towards a dance presentation. The teacher gives a structure of what she wants them to work on.

Groups of girls work really well.

One group of boys jumps up and down on mat then take a mat from a girls group.

Extra students from other class are hanging around distracting class. No interest from their teacher who is outside.

Students have been given the opportunity to work independently in their groups. For some this has happened for others little has been done.

Group gathers at end for group meeting. The slowness of putting the gear away means little time left before bell. No feedback to teacher on behaviour in class. When she asks them to consider their behaviour in class a number of conversations start “you were level 0 not level 2” etc. When given opportunity to change the level they had already selected two girls change from level 1 to 2.

Bell goes and class dismissed.

Comments The structure of the RM was visible with all five stages being attempted. There is a question about the commitment to the programme, however, with the group discussion work being completed quickly and with out student feedback. The potential for pedagogical approach to fit with the RM is obvious, now to meet this potential.

Need to discuss this with Sarah before next class.

Observations 24th November 10RM
Curriculum context Sport Education touch rugby.

1 without gear (note)

As Sarah walks towards gymnasium students runs to meet her to get keys to equipment shed. Students are quickly changed and head out to fields. The duty team is setting up touch fields and organising scorers (no refs). Two teams who are playing start warm-ups, jog then stretches lead by captains. Teams move into team practices run by coaches. Very little discussion with all students on task. Most impressive.

Duty team calls teams in and games start without refs (class decision). Two minor disputes break out but are quickly settled by the students who are playing. No obvious problems. A number of the students in the duty team walk up and down calling encouragement to other players. Two sit in sun and sunbath. Game goes well with high standard of teamwork and sportsmanship.

At end both teams give team cheer and shake hands.

Duty team picks up cones and all head back with keys. As the teacher arrives at gym the keys are handed back cones and ball are away...results entered onto result board and students are changed and ready to leave when the bell goes.

This was an interesting lesson in that there was no obvious structure associated with the RM present. No attempt at group discussion etc. The whole lesson, however, was an example of students showing personal and social responsibility at a high level. They were involved in decision making throughout and met every expectation held of them.

This was a prime example of Hellison's saying "When you are doing nothing and they are doing everything then you are doing everything"

APPENDIX G**Reflection sheet (RM classes)**

Dear student

As you are aware over the last six months you have been taught physical education using a different style of teaching. I am interested in finding out what you thought about the programme. Could you please fill out the following questions.

What were some of the things that you learnt over the last six months in physical education?

What do you think the programme was about?

Did the programme impact on the way you thought about your behaviour either in class or out of it? If so how?

APPENDIX H**Reflection sheet (CO classes)**

Dear student

As you are aware over the last six months I have been observing your class in physical education. I am interested in finding out any comments that you have about your physical education programme. I would appreciate it if could please answer the following questions?

What were some of the things that you learnt over the last six months in physical education?

What do you think that physical education is about

Has your behaviour in class improved over the last six months? If so why do you think this is?

APPENDIX I**Goal setting sheet (RM classes)****Name:****Class:****Date:****Unit:**

What level do you think you work at most of the time?

Write 3 reasons why you work at this level

Write down 3 goals for the next unit.

APPENDIX J**Goal Setting Worksheet (CO classes)****Name:****Class:****Date:****Unit:**

You are about to start a unit of _____ in physical education.
What would you like to achieve in this unit? Can you set three goals that you would like to achieve.

Is there anything else that you would like to achieve as far as working with other students in the class?

APPENDIX K

Detention list print out (example of data)

<u>Name</u>	<u>Form</u>	<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Done</u>	<u>Reason</u>
Xxxx	9xx	xx	20.02	Talking back
		Xy	1.03	lines not done
		Xx	2.03	poor daily
		Xy	3.04	misbehaviour
		Xo	6.03	throw'g spitballs
Xxxy	9xy	xy	6.03	talking in test
		Xy	15.03	fighting
		yy	17.07	poor behaviour
		yy	24.07	eating in class
Xxxy	10yy	yy	17.05	fighting
		Yx	22.05	ditto
		Yx	7.08	truant p5 31/7

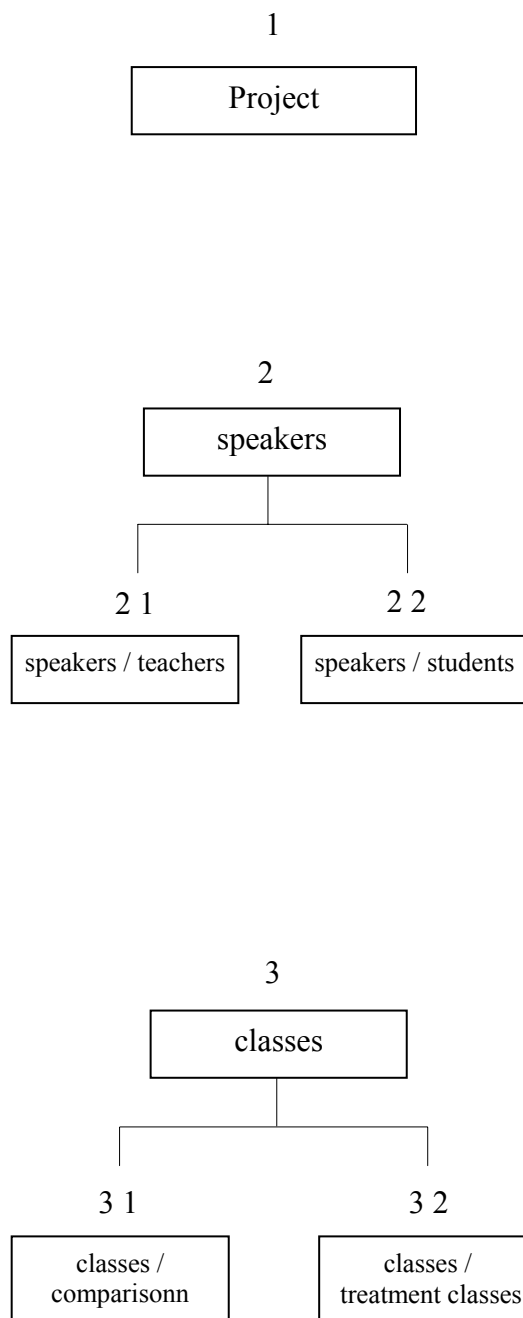
APPENDIX L

Example of Transcript RM classes

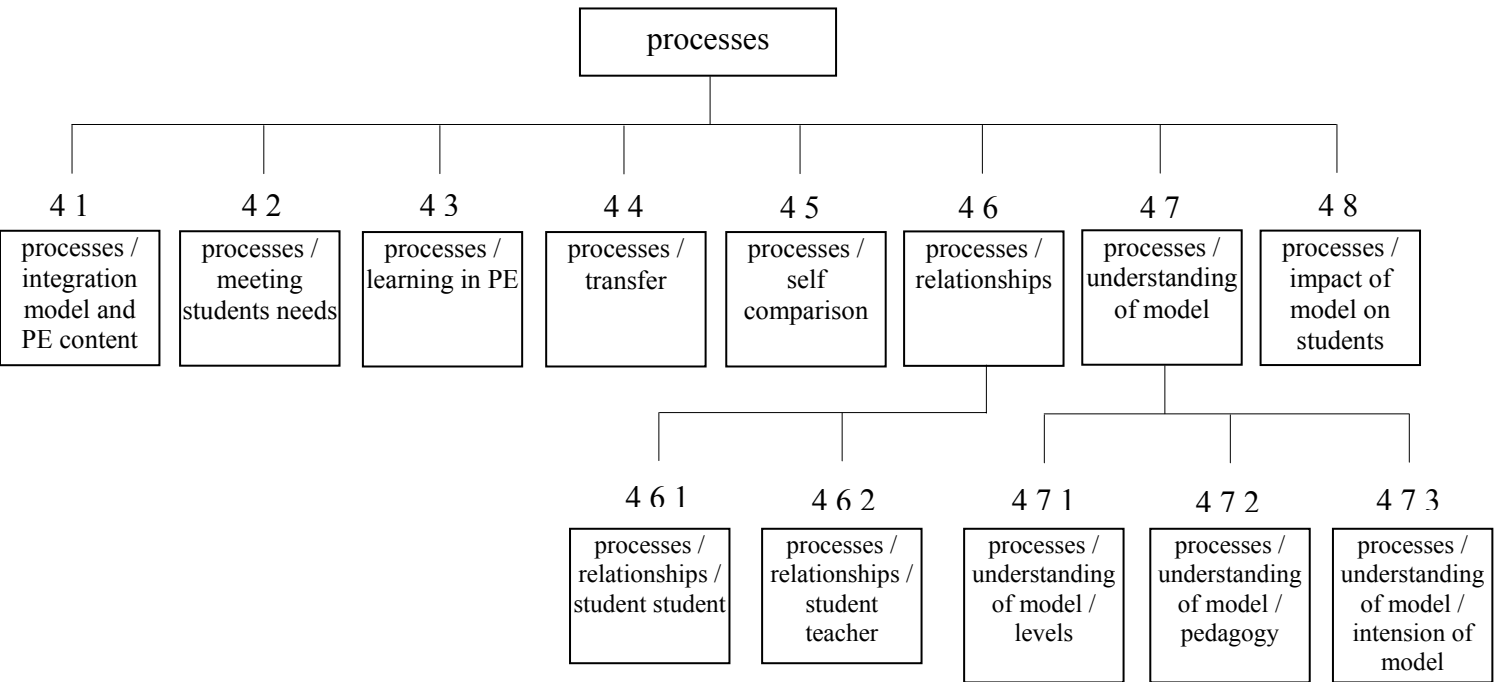
B: How did your fitness programme go?	180
L: Good.	181
D: Mm. Good.	182
B: Yep.	183
D: We could do what we wanted at the start of the period.	184
B: What did you choose?	185
D: Running and then I changed. I done basketball and then I done running again.	186 187
B: Oh, okay. How about you?	188
L: Upper body strength.	189
B: Oh, okay. Oh, that was you doing push-ups and	190
L: Yeah.	191
B: pull-ups and all that stuff. Yep. And did you do it properly? I mean	192 193
L: Yep.	194
B: Oh, okay. You too? Did you muck around?	195
D: Oh, I was just doing running. Not doing it properly though.	196
B: Oh, okay. So you chose to do it but you did it properly.	197
D: Yeah.	198
B: So do you like that idea of arriving and having a choice and	199
D: Yeah.	200
L: Yeah, it's real good.	201
D: Mm. 'Cause usually at the start we just stuff around anyway but if we do this	202 203
L: Makes you more focused	204
D: we're like ready straight away. Like as soon as you get changed, "Yeah, let's go for the run." Or something like that.	205 206
B: Oh, okay. So that the whole concept, what about the concept of you choosing, is that a good one for you?	207 208
L: Yep.	209
D: Yep. 'Cause then we don't get put with something we don't like, like some people don't like running and stuff.	210 211
B: Right.	212
L: And then everyone's more sensible that way. 'Cause if people don't want to do what they're told to do they, that sometimes makes them muck around more.	213 214 215
B: Mm.	216
L: But if you're doing something you want to do you want to do it more.	217
D: Mm.	218
B: Oh, okay. And basically you say most, you reckon most people did it properly?	219 220
L: Yeah.	221
D: Yeah.	222

APPENDIX M

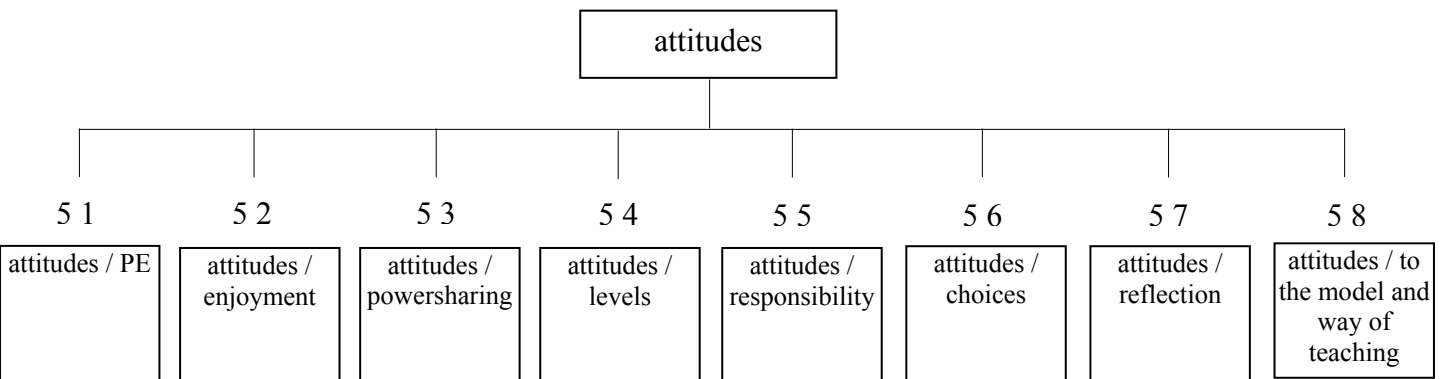
Organisation of ten major and sub-nodes



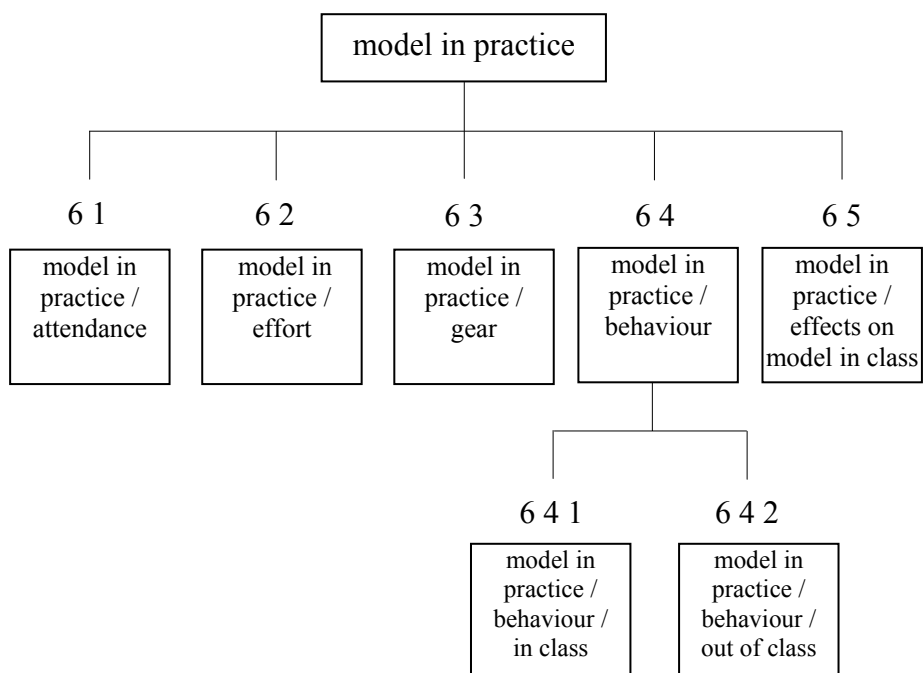
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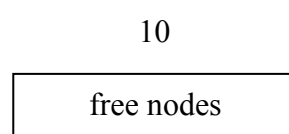
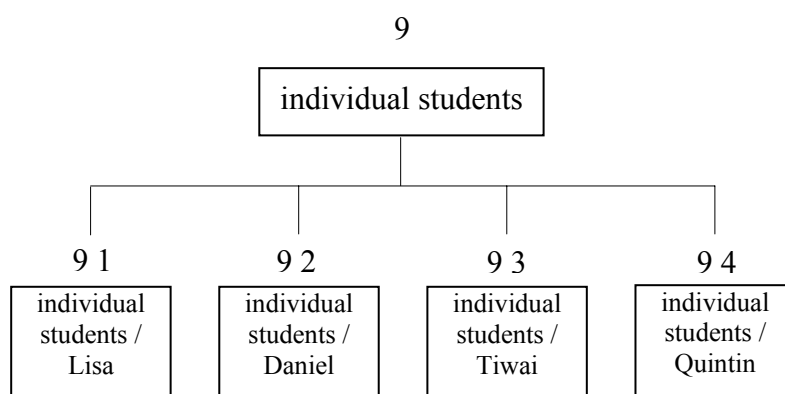
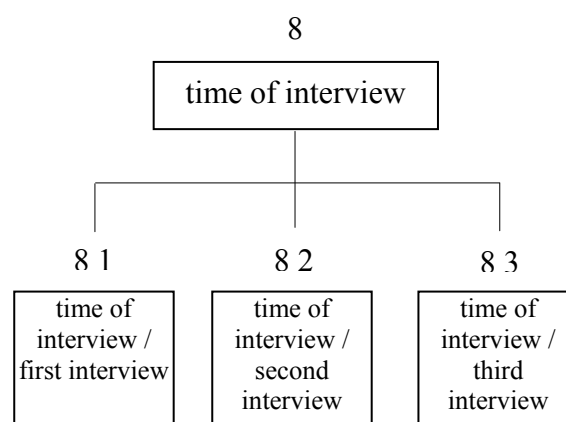
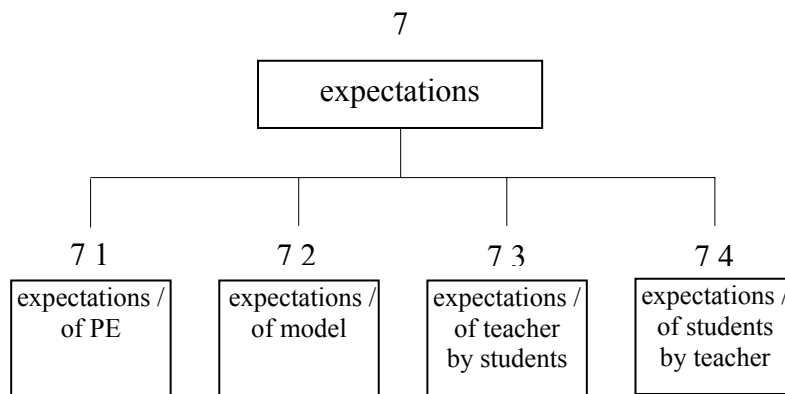


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