

A COMPARISON OF ATTITUDES

TOWARD

INTENSIVE COMPETITION

AMONG

HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS

by

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P R E F A C E

As a teacher with experience in competitive sport, the author became interested in the topic of athletic competition when joining the staff of an all-boys' school.

The competitive aspect of sport at such a school can make quite an impression on an inexperienced teacher. The question then arose; Is this competitive atmosphere universal? Is this type of competition acceptable and desirable in our schools?

Being a teacher of Physical Education as well as other subjects and also being actively involved in the coaching of senior sports teams the author regarded himself suitably qualified to investigate the matter of athletic competition in our schools.

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I N T R O D U C T I O N

The question of competition is one which constantly confronts us and the relation between competition and co-operation still presents one of the fundamental problems in modern sociology.

In our Western democratic society the amount of competitive behaviour increases with age. It has been shown by Murphy that by the age of four the idea of competitive self-enhancement is almost normal. (40) Maller also comes to the same conclusion. In an experiment with school children he found that self-motivation dominated group-motivation. These children were presented with conditions where they had to choose between the two forms of motivation and the results showed that in 75% of the cases self-motivation gained preference. (30)

Other studies have shown that by the age of twelve most children are able to realise that in order to gain prestige and approval it is necessary to do things better than one's contemporaries. This competitive tendency is emphasised and strengthened according to the degree of competitiveness of the environment.

Partly owing to the fact that, recently, greater emphasis has been placed on fitness, interschools' competitive sport is experiencing unprecedented popularity. While top class interschools' competitions are to some extent still limited to the few who have outstanding ability, athletic games and sports are deeply rooted in our educational programme. Athletic games have increasingly been made available to all who wish to participate and the result is that there are now more participants in interschools' sport than in any other period of history. The spectator-appeal of these competitions has had a correspondingly rapid growth and at present we can predict, with a fair amount of certainty, that this widespread popularity and growth will not come to an abrupt end. Athletic contests have grown to be a source of interest

to an entire school (including its staff and parents), to an entire province, to an entire nation. In fact, the Olympic Games hold the attention of the whole world.

There is, of course, no unanimity on the issue of the moral, educational and physical benefits of athletic contests. In our society, competition is an important incentive. So too is co-operation. We glibly say that competition is responsible for the healthy state of the economy of a nation but, on the other hand, businessmen are continually trying to reduce competition in one way or another and may even form co-operative associations to promote common interests. The question of whether competition or co-operation is the more effective thus remains a very difficult one.

Controversy in a society also has its effects on the institutions of that society. The school is one of the more important of these institutions where there is considerable disagreement regarding the desirability of representative athletic competition. Some critics have even suggested that competitive interschools' sport and games be eliminated entirely.

The expansion of interschools' contests places a greater responsibility on those who administer the affairs in schools. Coaches and teachers themselves have a great responsibility for wholesome development in this field because it concerns primarily the conduct of the interschools' activities in such a manner that educational benefit is derived by those who participate, directly or indirectly, in the programme.

What is competition? "By definition, competition is an act of seeking what another is endeavouring to gain at the same time as co-operation is an act of working jointly with others to a common end" - Williams (67, p.137).

Cowell puts it as follows: "The essence of competition is the social interaction in which each individual seeks to achieve some satisfaction for himself or his own particular group by methods which tend to deprive another individual or group of similar satisfaction". (8, p.123).

Good's Dictionary of Education gives the following definition: "Competition is (a) conscious or unconscious activity involving rivalry, in which one person or group tries to outstrip or gain advantage over other persons or groups.

(b) Sometimes, rivalry is with the previous record of the individual or group". (16)

For the purpose of this study we interpret "Intensive Competition" as applicable to sports and games that involve crowds, intense excitement and also some publicity. We also imply that this type of competition takes place on a representative basis between schools and that the whole school (including staff and parents) is considered to be involved, interested and affected by the result of the game or contest.

The educational objectives of athletic competition have greatly changed from time to time with the result that today's idea of competition is somewhat different from that of a century ago. New objectives have gradually made their appearance as new conditions have arisen in the social and economical structure of our society. The emphasis has shifted perhaps, but the sum total influence on individuals is still the same. It is, therefore, obvious that those in charge of competitive situations in the educational programme should strive to exercise effective control over this aspect of the educational curriculum and accept the fact that with new emphasis on competition comes added responsibility.

Does the general public, which in the final analysis, forms

the basis of our school structure, support interschools' athletic competition and believe that it is a desirable component of the high school programme? This study investigates attitudes towards intensive competition for high school pupils as expressed by people directly and indirectly concerned with the education of high school boys and girls. It endeavours to present material pertinent to the issue and it is hoped that it will be of some assistance in finding a realistic and workable solution to the problem ... if such problem does exist.

PART I: GENERAL BACKGROUND TO INTENSIVE COMPETITION

CHAPTER ONE: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Van Dalen, Mitchell and Bennet (59) give some interesting information on the history of contests and games.

The major aims of contests and games in the Primitive society were: to develop physical efficiency; to strengthen group membership and participation; and finally, to provide recreation. Studies of primitive society show that these aims strongly motivated the primitive man's behaviour.

Physical efficiency was the foundation for the primitive man's ability to meet the challenge of survival, to cope with the hardships of daily life and to compete with his environment. This resulted in the fact that the savage relied heavily on his physical powers.

It is, therefore, not strange to find that the primitive man took part in a great many games of strength and skill, bat and ball games, wielding weapons, jumping, fighting, wrestling, boxing, climbing, swimming and boating.

From paintings, reliefs, vases, mosaics and writings we learn that the Egyptians also enjoyed their games and athletic contests in the form of competitive wrestling, dancing and gymnastic games. A convincing proof of the Egyptians' fondness of sports and games was their inclusion in their religious life. Sport, particularly wrestling, played a prominent role in the festive ceremonies that ushered the new year. Tests of lifting, single stick fighting, and jousting were introduced for the older children.

Many of the games that developed in China were devised for their military usefulness or as a means of diverting the attention of the troops from the hardship or boredom of idleness. A primitive type of football was popular. Giles found records indicating that "the winners were rewarded with flowers, fruit and wine and even with silver bowls and brocades, while the captain of the losing team was flogged and suffered other indignities". (15)

Some of the spirit of good sportsmanship was expressed in a poem about football written by the poet Lu Yu (50 - 130 A.D.)

"A round ball and a square wall,
The ball flying across like the moon,
While the teams stand opposed.
Captains are appointed and take their places.
No allowances are made for relations
There must be no partiality.
But there must be determination and coolness
Without the slightest irritation at failure.
And if all this is necessary for football,
How much more for the business of life". (14)

The Hebrews did not have Olympic Games as did the Greeks, nor professional exhibitions and festivals similar to that of the Romans, but they did meet on religious occasions to contest their strength and skill. The temple served as unifying force for the Jews as did the athletic contests and games for the Athenians.

The Iliad and the Odyssey give us a picture of the role athletic competition played during the Homeric Age. We read about chariot races, boxing, running, javelin throwing, etc. Even the Gods took part in and interfered with the contests. Spartan participation in the Olympic Games not only raised the prestige of festivals but also gave importance to the seriousness of athletics.

The Pan-Hellenic games of Istmia were also popular with the Atheneans. The prizes awarded were mostly of non-material value. Upon the victor's head an appropriate wreath was placed at an impressive ceremony. On his returning home, triumphal processions and banquets were held in honour of the festival champions. Sums of money were given to the winners of important events. Some champions were given special privileges and were highly respected by the community.

This professionalism had resulting degenerating effects. The festivals were no longer in the hands of the people of noble ideas. The short career of the athlete became a lucrative business. The celebrations lost most of their religious significance. They became professional and commercial enterprises, offering costly prizes rather than simple wreaths as rewards. Athletes who had once taken pride in representing their own city states now often sold their services to any community desiring to seek fame by Olympic victories. "Hero worship of the successful athlete ... the centering of the athlete's attention upon himself rather than on any useful social end and the competition of cities for successful athletes, all combined to produce a contempt for earlier standards of sportsmanship and morality". (68).

The Romans promoted games and festivals for political purposes rather than for athletic ideals. To win support politicians competed with one another in attempting to produce the most ostentatious games to delight the thrill-hungry mobs.

Coming to Medieval times, we learn that the church and monarchs attempted to interfere with the holding of tournaments of the knights. This was probably due to the large loss of life in the tournaments and the worldly atmosphere of gambling, gaiety and drunkenness in which some of the contests were held. In 1779 Pope Alexander III not only forbade the holding of tournaments but refused Christian burial to those who fell in them. These restrictions did not seem to have a marked effect on the future of the tournaments (59, pp. 111-12).

Wrestling bouts were frequently held between cities in England and almost every village festival provided this sport as part of the entertainment. The wrestling bouts of ancient London were more like a battle field than a friendly sport. The sport became a nuisance to such an extent that, in the time of Henry IV (1411), a proclamation was made forbidding wrestling within the City of London under the threat of forty days imprisonment. (59, p.125).

Historically, man has always engaged in some form of play activities of a competitive nature. The abuses of this form of recreation, entertainment, or whatever we want to call it, were always present. On the other hand the value of competitive sport is recognised by the fact that it plays an important role in our educational programme. Shepard and Jamerson claim that in recent years organised play has been fostered and encouraged within the schools, not because school administration visualised athletics as an educational tool but because the pupils themselves demanded this form of expression. They further say that athletics secured a foothold in secondary education primarily as a result of a desire on the part of boys and girls for physical activity and expression. Shepard and Jamerson believe that this factor is important since many of the problems associated with competitive sport at school exist because of the inability of school admini-

strators to grasp the significance of this movement and to channel its possibilities towards educational goals. (51 p.83). Brownell and Williams state that interscholastic athletics spread rapidly in the public schools in America primarily as a revolt against the formal discipline and faulty psychology which largely determined the school curriculum. This development of the competitive programme was not considered educational and emerged without pedagogical sanction, supervision or control. These authors state further that "the undesirable practices which flourished under unbridled adolescent enthusiasm and sponsorship, finally forced the school authorities to accept leadership and furnish the guidance for this activity". (4 pp. 205-6).

Research by anthropologists such as Mead (31) suggests that competition is not nearly so pronounced in some cultures as it is in our own. Amongst the Zuni Indians, for example, it is barely known. Instead of competition they stress cooperation and non-aggressiveness. Our culture, by way of contrast, aids competition but at times finds it necessary to restrict it.

A good illustration of how two cultures can have fundamentally different attitudes to the same idea is given by the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth. (33). It is said that the children of the Hopi (American Indians) took to basketball enthusiastically but could not be taught to keep score. Competition did not interest them but they loved the teamwork.

Cowell says that "in our culture, where the concept of competitive self-enhancement is clear, our ancestors 'fought' and won battles against nature by accepting each experience as an obstacle to surmount, a difficulty to overcome, or a conflict to resolve, and so learned to value fighting, mastering, and winning. The Hopi, on the other hand, found in somewhat

similar situations occasions for coöperation. The Western idea of success is definitely individualistic. The Hopi children differ in personality from other American children largely because of reaction to the competitive situations encountered and because of the way their respective families handle these situations. The goals and the values subscribed to by the two different cultures are not the same". Cowell also claims that "research studies in cultural anthropology indicate that co-operation or competitive personalities are not biologically inevitable. Value judgements are created by people themselves and are not the same everywhere. They are culturally derived, the result of cultural and social heritage. They are learned". (8, pp. 125-6).

Jesse Feiring Williams (67, p.139) claims that in respect of origin, both kinds of behaviour, competitive and co-operative, find their drives in biological traits. Thorndike writes: "Every human being tends by original nature to arrive at a status of mastery or submission towards every other human being and even under more intelligent customs of civilisation somewhat of the tendency persists in many men." Almost every environmentalist acknowledges this trait as original nature. Co-operation on the other hand shows much less evidence to support its biological origin. (57). Zuckerman observes that it does not exist in the social life of monkeys and apes. (69).

Williams states that the possibility of the biological origin of these two ways of behaviour could be an indication that they are not the product of a particular social system. To emphasize this could also give rise to the observations that these traits have produced a particular social organisation and customs. Williams also writes: "Fascistic and communistic states demand cooperation with the forces in power, but the abdication of individual intelligent cooperation and enthronement of slavish obedience are an essential condition of dictatorial government". (67, p.139). Williams states further that social life makes any individual peculiarly what he is. Fascism produced in Italy, Germany and Russia the kind of citi-

zens that dictatorship demands. The type of person we find in America, for example, is a product of action and reaction in American society. "Educated men and women in America do not openly snatch for things nor cry for what they want. Approved social behaviour does not sanction slugging an opponent in a football game ... Much of amateur athletics today corresponds to rugged individualisms in economics or to militant nationalism abroad and has about the same justification. But to observe that practices in competitive athletics may emulate the jungle standards of the market place is quite different from declaring that jungle standards inherently belong with any particular social organisation". (67, p.139).

Russel seems to take the same point of view and does not believe that competition is due to Darwinism. "The modern biologist, while he still believes in evolution, has much less belief in competition as its motive force than Darwin had; and this change reflects the change which has come over the economic structure of society". (45). Culture expresses the basic values of society. We live in societies which make "success and status" important concepts. We value ambition achievement and competition. In our culture status, prestige and power are recognised early in life as goals to be reached. Cowell writes on American society; "Having one's name on the blackboard as the winner of a contest becomes more motivating than receiving a candy bar. School athletic 'letters', gold footballs, fraternity, sorority and lodge pins, names on honour rolls medals and similar external incentives are all success or status symbols and play an important part in our culture". (8, pp. 124-5). Cowell shows that comparative studies of cultures indicate the relationships between co-operative trends in culture and the feelings of personal security on the part of individuals. Societies which foster patterns of co-operation and mutual aid in childhood have adults with co-operative personalities. Societies which foster ambition, achievement, and patterns of competition usually de-

velop adults with competitive personalities. (8, p. 125).

Human traits may be accentuated or weakened by education and social experience. Williams (67, p. 140) points out that the hope of public education in character development rests on the basis that tendencies to certain kinds of behaviour are altered by the actions and reactions of the individual in various situations. It is therefore, the practice among more progressive groups to weaken by various forms of disapproval the kind of behaviour that is selfish, against group welfare and subversive of social good, and likewise to strengthen those responses of behaviour that are highly regarded. Those who consider all forms of competition as antisocial are disposed to see in co-operation the panacea for a socially disturbed world and in this respect are those socialists who contend "... that the collective ownership of the means of production will produce a 'classless' state, inhabited by a race of men who are purged of acquisitiveness and aggression ...". (25).

In our society the role of competitive activities in the development of the individual is widely recognised. In the early years of childhood, play is largely co-operative, but before children reach the age of ten the picture changes. Williams states "This is the beginning of self-realisation, and stronger than the desire to impress others is the child's impelling drive to test himself. To identify himself, to discover his own reality - this is the sure outcome of the competitive situation". (67, p.140).

CHAPTER TWO: OBJECTIVES OF COMPETITION.

The educational objectives of athletics have varied greatly from period to period. The effect of these objectives has been cumulative. In no case has any of the more important objectives entirely disappeared. The emphasis on one may have lessened and the emphasis on another may have strengthe-

ned, but the influence of all has remained to affect the total result.

The purpose of the secondary school curriculum is to provide experiences that enable pupils to progress toward the established educational objectives of the school. Each field in the curriculum has objectives that harmonise with and make unique contributions toward the attainment of the overall objectives. In no other way can any programme in the curriculum be justified. This principle applies equally to interscholastic athletic competition.

Some people refuse to see the possibilities of this interscholastic competition in the education of individuals. Others accept athletic competition as more or less inevitable and hope, by the imposition of certain restrictions, to keep this activity within the bounds of education. The third group accepts athletic competition as an integral part of the school programme, sharing with other parts of the curriculum responsibilities in the total educational process.

Regardless of the attitude assumed (indifference, tolerance or approval) most persons seem to agree that athletic competition is an accepted part of the school programme, contributing its share to the education of the pupils and that it should receive the same support and recognition as is given to other school activities.

It is against this background that the educational programme must take into consideration the various abilities and needs of the children, but the drive behind it all is not something merely administrative. It comes from the belief that such an arrangement is for a worthwhile goal. Williams believes that it is struggle that makes life worthwhile. "Struggle to realise self gives some fibre to the personality that alone makes life worth living. If competition of all kinds could

be eliminated in life what sort of watery human being would result? If this sort of noncompetitive life were to ensue, then doubtless we are at the climax of civilization and less can be said for its continuance than many of us suppose". (67, p.142). Williams prefers a system of free enterprise with its continual struggle to improve and enrich individual personality above the planned and purposed society, without risks, inequalities and dangers. He motivates this by quoting William James; "A few summers ago I spent a happy week at the famous Assembly Grounds on the border of Chautauqua Lake. The moment one treads that sacred enclosure, one feels one's self in an atmosphere of success. Sobriety and industry, intelligence and goodness, orderliness and ideality, prosperity and cheerfulness, pervade the air. It is a serious and studious picnic on a gigantic scale. Here you have a town of many thousands of inhabitants, beautifully laid out in the forest and drained, and equipped with means for satisfying all the necessary lower and most superfluous higher wants of man. You have a first-class college in full blast. You have magnificent music - a chorus of seven hundred voices, with possibly the most perfect open-air auditorium in the world ... You have kindergartens and model secondary schools. You have general religious services and special club-houses for the several sects. You have perpetually running soda-water fountains and daily popular lectures by distinguished men. You have the best company and yet no effort. You have no zymotic diseases, no poverty, no drunkenness, no crime, no police. You have culture, you have kindness, you have cheapness, you have equality, you have the best fruits of what mankind has fought and bled and striven for under the name of civilization for centuries. You have in short, a foretaste of what human society might be, were it all in the light, with no suffering and dark corners. I went in curiosity for a day. I stayed for a week, spell-bound by the charm and ease of everything, by the middle-class paradise, without a sin, without a victim, without a blot, without a tear. And yet what was my astonishment, on emerging into the dark and wicked world again, to catch myself quite unexpectedly and involuntarily saying: 'Ouf. What a relief.

Now for something primordial and savage even though it were as bad as an American masacre, to set the balance straight again. This order is too tame and this culture too second-rate, this goodness too uninspiring. This human drama without a villain or a pang: this community so refined that ice-cream soda-water is the utmost offering it can make to the brute animal in man; this city simmering in the tepid lakeside sun; this atrocious harmlessness of all things, - I cannot abide with them. Let me take my chances again in the big outside worldly wilderness with all its sins and sufferings. There are the heights and depths, the precipices and the steep ideals, the gleams of the awful and the infinite; and there is more hope and help a thousand times than in this dead level quintessence of every mediocrity". (19).

The most important problem through the years seemed to be to determine the kinds of experiences our young people need to build favourable characteristics, interests, skills and other ingredients that make their behaviour socially desirable. The second part of this problem is to provide the pupils with these experiences.

Many educators have attempted to formulate objectives for our education at various levels. Although these formulations differ from each other in expression the basic principles and content are the same. Objectives that are universally accepted are those dealing with health (physical and mental), sound character, education for leisure, citizenship and preparation for a vocation. How does athletic competition fit in with these general educational objectives?

One need not stretch the imagination to any extent to realise that an effective interscholastic programme contributes to such educational objectives. Justification for interscholastic competitions usually is based on the benefits derived by the individual, the school, and the community. Among the in-

dividual participant's benefits claimed are those of a physical, mental, moral and social nature.

Physical activity is necessary to attain full development. Organic health and vigor depend primarily upon physical activity. Health habits are formed by regular health practices. Interschools' athletic contests provide the most vigorous forms of activity. In addition, participants are stimulated in larger measure to form desirable health habits that enable them to participate more efficiently in their chosen activities. In his effort to qualify for competition at high levels such as demanded by interschools' competitions, the participant is encouraged to meet high standards of fitness. Such experiences are conducive to the formation of attitudes that exemplify fine living and self-discipline and to fostering the development of qualities of self-sacrifice, teamwork, loyalty, devotion to a cause more important than the self. In this way socialization can take place. The socially desirable traits learned on the playing field can be applied to other situations in life. No finer laboratory exists within the school in which the principles of sportsmanship and citizenship can be actively lived. As stated by Williams and Brownell; "Intramural and interscholastic athletics bear the same educational relationship to the physical education program as laboratory experiences do to biology, physics, or chemistry". (4, p.216).

Character building is developed by action rather than by absorption. Most theories on learning state that the learning process takes place best through activity on the part of the learner. In the competitive situation actions are demanded; the competitor is judged by the responses made. A good teacher or coach is in the ideal position to observe the pupil in action, to command socially acceptable behaviour, and to correct and counsel with those whose responses are not of a desirable type. In such an emotionalized atmosphere there is real opportunity to encourage the development of such qualities as self-discipline, co-operation, leadership, sociabili-

ty, self-control, etc. Society stresses these qualities as desirable.

Inherent in the question of group competition is the question of group citizenship and group co-operation. It is virtually inconceivable that one group should compete against another without some agreement about the role each group member is to play. In rugby, for example, each member of the team will take the field knowing not only what his own functions and duties are but knowing what the functions and duties of his colleagues are besides. When a group has a common objective it tends to cohere and bring about an increased amount of interaction and integration. It can, at its best, bring about a sacrifice of the self to the group endeavour.

Competition in games involves submitting the self to the rules that control it. This set of laws and behaviour codes must be observed in the same way as it would be in everyday life of the community. There is social approval for the observance of the letter and spirit of the rules. Penalties are imposed for the infraction of these rules. If this is communicated effectively to the participants, athletic activities provide many lifelike situations which have meaning and purpose to the competitor and which may contribute to his development as a good citizen and individual of sound ethical character.

One of the functions of athletic competition is to train the participants in the concept of fairness. There is no reason why the method of competitive teamwork can not be carried over from the playground to the life in the community outside the school. In writing on fairness, Cerf elaborates on this theme; "Fairness is a sense of justice and the rights of men even in fields where these rights have not been codified and where breaking the rules does not bring about punishment by society. The true habit of fairness is competitive teamwork".
(6).

Competitive sport is performed (at high level) under emotionally charged environments involving large cheering crowds, wide publicity, intense rivalries, idolatry, awards and game tensions where the true character of the players (and spectators) can be challenged and developed. Under these conditions standards of conduct such as playing the fair game, trying again, being a graceful winner and good loser, become meaningful implications for human achievement. It is in this emotional condition that the participant has the opportunity to test himself to the utmost.

Under the stress of the competition he is motivated to exert his skill and strategy against another individual or group of equal skill. Under those conditions the development of the will to excel, courage, physical and mental stamina, and endurance are possible tests put to the competitor by the activity. It could be for this reason that our armed forces instituted strenuous, competitive athletic programmes to promote such qualities among military men. In war and peace these qualities are part of citizenship.

While we are on the subject of the emotional atmosphere that surrounds competitive situations we must consider the role of competition as a "safety valve". It is claimed that athletic competition occupies a strategic position among the school subjects for guiding and modifying the emotions. Emotional stability is achieved through practice in controlling and modifying the feelings released. Athletic competition provides a setting in which emotional control is practised. Activities involving bodily contact are effective in this respect because they stimulate more powerful emotions than many of the non-contact activities.

Educators in the 1880's and 1890's at first with little enthusiasm, saw in athletic competition a possible value in utilising or diverting or releasing of energies. Athletic

activities were merely considered as a negative avenue of using up energy in out-of-school time. The positive values in the way of effect on character, mental normality, and sociability were not yet realized, or if so, not yet stressed.

The health and character-training aspects of athletic competition were stressed much later. These have become two of the most important objectives of our present day athletic programme. Certain events helped to stimulate a dominating interest in athletics. This started, in 1896, with the revival of the Olympic games, which caused an increased interest in competitive sport. In America the games of basketball and volleyball had just been invented and were gaining in popularity in gymnastic circles. The Spanish-American War had an effective result in America particularly in leaving a strong realisation of the need for physical fitness and courage. To these actual events and happenings, there was also added academic challenge in the writings of Karl Groos, who also gave scientific evidence that competitive play had come through the process of natural selection and that it is one of the basic characteristics of man.

The effect of athletics upon health and character has been and always will be debated. It has been quite generally conceded, however, by many famous educators that both health and character qualities are to be gained in sports and games. In a questionnaire submitted by Thorndike to approximately one thousand school administrators of California, the subject in the curriculum that was given the highest rating for its effect upon character was organised play and games. Reaney of London University in 1916 submitted a similar questionnaire to the headmasters of English schools and also found that replies placed athletics highest in possibility for character training. (36, p.430). The conclusions drawn from a personality study conducted by a group of psychologists were reported as follows: "From a recent personality study of twenty thousand young people in the United States made by Dr Henry C. Link and eighty other psychologists, it was very

definitely concluded that of all subjects and activities, group games and sports contributed most to the development of wholesome personalities; that having healthful, wholesome fun was important in more ways than one. These psychologists found that rather than being a lucky accidental possession, a wholesome personality is largely the result of good habits and skills acquired in group activities and at the very top of these activities came games and sports". (28) Ryan summarising a survey of literature of American school and college athletics notes these trends, among others: "There is general acceptance of athletics as education. Once opposed, then tolerated, athletics have come to be regarded as an important part of the educational process at practically all levels, but especially for youth. Existing opposition to athletics is directed for the most part not at athletics per se, but at what are regarded as evils resulting from an exaggerated and commercialised system, especially in intercollegiate football. More athletics rather than less athletics is generally accepted as one of the remedies for athletic ills - that is, an opportunity for all youth to participate in athletics through intramural and similar activities provided as a regular part of the educational programme. School athletics are held to be even more specifically educational than athletics at college level, and school authorities, public and private, are working on programmes of lay activities for all that will include games and sports, suited to the physical, social and emotional needs of children at various ages and stages of development". (46).

This is evidence strongly in favour of the contribution that athletic competition, when properly conducted, can make to the health and character.

Values that refer to the schools may be classified as development of wholesome school spirit by fostering school loyalty, enthusiasm and pride; by improving discipline; by promoting

better spirit between teacher and pupils; by tending to hold pupils in school who might not otherwise remain; and by favourably influencing scholarship standards through eligibility standards.

School spirit is very real. Its existence or absence can be recognised when psychological needs such as self-esteem, recognition, the sense of belonging, status and participation are satisfied. Such qualities as enthusiasm zest, zeal, solidarity and happiness are reflected in all facets of the total school programme. These qualities result from shared experiences such as those found in an effective interschools' athletic programme.

There are few activities that have such a powerful influence on school spirit as interschools' athletics. Since 1910, concentration of all school activities around athletic competition has become quite the order of the day. This may have been the result of the need to raise money for equipment and other expenses of the athletic teams. This need has resulted in the gathering of the whole school community at various fund-raising functions, and has led to the involvement of practically the whole school with all its departments in order to make various contributions.

The competition or the game itself must be seen as more than the two teams meeting each other. Big games usually have a building-up programme which starts long before the actual contest. All these activities make athletics the centre of the school activities. This also leads to a feeling of belonging on the part of pupils and supporters and to the sharing of common interests.

"The game gives the school an identity that reaches out beyond its walls - a spiritual bond. It breathes a personality into the institution of the school. It is the one thing in common that all students may share, no matter how diversified

their interests otherwise. For this reason it affords the biggest expression of high school or college spirit - a thing that is not confined to the students alone. The 'old grads' cling to and treasure this spirit which for them furnishes many occasions for reunions, homecomings, and memories to linger over". (36, p.432).

From the community standpoint, interschools' athletic competitions may help to create community interest in the schools and, if properly directed, to promote the good will and good feeling among different communities and schools. Engelhardt makes the following statement in connection with athletic competitions and community relations:

"Athletics have been an outstanding activity of the schools, one which has enlisted community-wide attention and support. Through games and public contests general interest in all work of the schools has been stimulated. In some sections of the country the school officials have had difficulty in controlling the misguided efforts of certain elements in the school district which endeavour to dictate athletic policies unlike those acceptable to the officials. Educational leadership must not be disturbed by conditions of this kind, but must make the most of the good in these activities which build up a better relationship between the schools and the people". (11).

Mitchell and Mason claim that "the spectator interest in competition is natural ... The specialization of business and the professions isolates men into small groups according to mutual interests and friendships. But sport is common to all and is, therefore, a great leveller and humanizer. No wonder that, next to weather, sport is the most common topic of conversation". (36, p.433).

Groos states another value of sport and athletic competitions in his account of witnessing "fighting plays". He shows how

spectators undergo the same sensations as those of the performers themselves. There are the same tense moments just as the game is to commence, the breathless suspense and silence. Then there is the struggle, in which the normal onlooker takes part. He wants one side to win; to that side he gives his loyalty. Groos further states "that inner limitation allows us to take part in fights through subjective participation in attack. Defence, strategy, risks, victory and defeat". (17).

Mitchell and Mason make the following statement; "The elemental emotions can be aroused in even the most sedate human being. He must give credit to the opponent who has made a wonderful play, he must decry the unsportsmanlike act, he must be generous in victory and brave in defeat. The members of the crowd, then, as well as the players, share in the emotional training that results from the athletic spectacle, and there is brought home to them the meaning of courage, loyalty, perseverance, poise and selfcontrol. The ideals they hold in their hearts are demonstrated". (36, p.433).

Mitchell and Mason show how sport at a higher level than interschools' sport serves on a larger scale. These writers point out that top class contests serve as an example of skill for the spectator to emulate, a feeling that is stirred in all spectators who are onlookers at a contest where skill of a very high quality is displayed. The frequent result of this is that the spectator desires to go and test his own skills in a like manner. These top class competitions serve as an inspiration to beginners.

The interschools' programme gives the most skilled players of the school an opportunity to match their skill with groups equally good.

"A school program that meets the needs of its students must provide exploratory opportunities in many activities. One of these activities involves competitive athletics. For

many individuals participation in sports contests is part of enjoyable living; for these and many others intelligent spectatorship at athletics contests is likewise a part of enjoyable living. For those who participate actively there is nothing in the philosophy of education which denies them the right to strive for expertness. There is no reason why an educationally designed athletic program should have to defend its efforts to develop the maximum skill which an individual may possess". (2).

Educators are now more concerned with meeting the needs of the gifted child than at any other time in the history of education. The Physical Education programme must also make allowances for the gifted child by presenting him with opportunities in the interschools' athletic contests. This programme gives pupils opportunities to display and to improve their physical skills for others to appreciate and to emulate.

When providing opportunities for the highly skilled athlete provision must also be made for the weaker ones. Another reason for this step is to eliminate the abuses which are bound to creep in when competitiveness at top class level is overemphasized. It should be commonly realised that if interschools' competitions offer enjoyment and worth to those competitors of a high degree of skill, they should also give the lesser skilled the opportunity of receiving similar advantages.

The problem of the worthy use of leisure is an important one. Asocial behaviour is more likely to occur during hours of freedom than during hours of occupation unless pupils are educated properly in the correct use of free time.

Athletic competitions may contribute to the worthwhile use of free time in many ways. Sport and exercise can easily be made a habit. The main task of the school in this respect is to create the right habits and attitudes during the school

years. The play spirit is then so strong that the pupil will carry on with his endeavours to keep up a reasonable standard of proficiency.

The knowledge of the popular games has other advantages apart from its use to those taking part in them. There is leisure time value in reading the accounts of important sporting events in their season. The spectator who has some knowledge of a specific game is also able to appreciate and enjoy it much more, thus contributing to a worthwhile, enjoyable way of using leisure time.

Athletic competitions help to develop skill through the instruction that accompanies the preparation for such contests. There is some correlation between the elements of skill, enjoyment, and participation. The less skilled beginner is not in such a good position to enjoy physical activities and, therefore, is less likely to seek opportunities to participate. A good way of measuring the success of an interschools' athletic programme is in the participation; not because of factors such as strength, health or publicity but because pupils enjoy the activities for their own sake. The attainment of such attitudes has meaning for leisure education.

If athletic competitions contribute to the objectives of health, character building and citizenship, and the good use of leisure then they contribute to vocational preparation. All the favourable qualities discussed in the above-mentioned categories are desired in all vocations.

The objectives of interschools' athletic competitions will change in the future with the social and economic changes of our society. Some objectives will be emphasized to a greater extent and the emphasis on others will gradually weaken. "As a general rule, the trends in athletics will largely adjust themselves. Ten years ago the windows of sporting goods stores were filled with baseball equipment; today they are

Myers carried out an experiment with 180 students at Illinois University and his findings indicate that better team adjustment was generated by the competitive experience and success in the task. It was also found contrary to one hypothesis, that the low success competitive teams tended to manifest better adjustment than low success non competitive teams. It was concluded that the competitive experience not only engendered good adjustment under favourable conditions (success) but it was likely that it acted as a prophylactic against poor adjustment in unfavourable conditions (failure). (41, p.332).

What is the incentive value of competition itself? In another experiment "814 children were told that they were being tested to find out who were the fastest adders in the school. In the control condition, the student 'just practiced'. In the competitive condition they were told that the fastest adders would receive prizes. Co-operative condition the children were told that their scores would be averaged and would count towards a class prize.

The performance of both the latter groups were superior to that obtained in the 'no incentive' condition. Individual competition, however, was found to be more effective as an incentive than co-operation". (30).

The fact that competition between groups is not as effective as individual competition has been confirmed by other studies. Gague and Fleishman observe that "the reason seems to be that when responsibility is devided, the status needs of individuals are not as directly affected. On the other hand, group competition has been utilized with considerable effectiveness when groups are formed into teams in such a way that individual status is a function of his contribution to the group. If this is done, social pressure on the individual tends to be the vehicle for applying the incentive. The concept of 'morale' implies a feeling that group goals and individual goals coincide. What we often have in team performance is a combina-

tion of cooperative ('dont let our team down') and competitive ('beat the other team') incentives". (12).

We cannot deny the fact that interschools' athletics are rapidly expanding, both in the time spent in competitive endeavours as well as in the number of pupils taking part in these activities. Many of these efforts to increase the scope of interschools' competitions indicate the pattern of attitudes taken towards this part of the school's programme.

The trend in athletics is paradoxical; On the one side we have the specialized coaching and time set aside for the top class performer that makes him one of the privileged few; On the other hand we also note efforts to encourage more competitors, more teams, more responsibility to more players, and to share the honours more widely.

This expansion of interschools' athletic competitions brings expansion in other related fields. Having more players results in an increase in the number of leagues. The advantage of this is that schools can now compete against other teams of equal strength. This also cuts down the amount of travelling of teams to fulfil their fixture commitments as schools in a specific area will now have enough teams to compete with in their own vicinity. This factor also contributes to the social advantages of interschools' sport being carried out to the fullest extent. This increase of teams also brings about the practicability of classifying teams according to their strength with the result that mismatching of teams is eliminated to a large extent. This makes leagues more interesting and also gives the weaker teams the opportunity of enjoying their games more. The same advantages apply to the stronger teams.

A definite trend in this direction is to classify teams according to age or weight (within a specific league). The reason for this can be two-fold; Firstly to safeguard the physical

welfare of the pupils, and secondly, to give more pupils the opportunity to play in representative teams. The effect of this on the work of the teachers is important. Extra-mural activities are on the increase and could be reaching irksome proportions when interfering with the academic functions of the teachers.

The increase of numbers competing is not the only form of expansion. The number of competitions has also increased. It has become the custom to arrange so-called "friendly games" between neighbouring schools and something like the annual "triangular" between three schools that are in the same neighbourhood, has become quite a common thing. These competitions mostly take place on a casual basis and more often than not there is no formal method of point scoring. (Many individuals, however, secretly add up the points but no official results and points positions are given).

In contrast to this expansion of interschools' participation in competitions, there have also been efforts to restrict participation within these competitions. The need to keep star performers in such sports as track and field and swimming from entering for too many events has arisen where schools have used one or two athletes to compete in numerous events in order to collect as many points as possible. Restrictive measures have to be taken to prevent the star athlete taking away the opportunity to compete from others and also to protect the top class athlete himself. In some of our larger schools pupils are also restricted in the number of types of sport they take part in. In the smaller schools this is not so easy as an all-rounder usually takes the load in a variety of activities in order to enable the school to field a fairly strong team.

Among some of our schools there are also moves in the direction of restricting the time in which certain sports may be played. It has also been proposed that in some regions it should be agreed upon that no school will start practising for

the winter sports until the completion of the summer sport season.

Not only is the player under restriction but the powers of the coach are also limited by the fact that more responsibility is given to the captain and players once the game has started. In most sports the coach or non-playing member of a team is by the laws of the game prohibited from having influence on the players and the game once it has started. This law is not rigid because in practice a lot of "coaching from the bench or sidelines" is done. This is the cause of many dangers in our interschools' competitions. (This problem will be discussed in detail later).

The power of the school coach is further checked by the authority of the particular association under which the specific type of game is placed. In most cases (definitely in the case of all "major" sports and games) the school must be affiliated to the society of that sport which is usually run on a regional or provincial basis. The regional body is affiliated to the national body under whose jurisdiction and laws the regional teams and players compete.

It is under these controlling bodies where representative competitions on a provincial or even a national basis take place. Pupils may now represent their provinces and in some cases their country in sports teams. The representative idea has also spread to administrators of primary school competitions and it is not unusual to hear of under 14 national championships where representative teams from various provinces compete. Opinions are divided on this emphasis on tournaments because it involves a great deal of travelling, expense and sometimes absence from school. Teachers are also not unanimous on the educational issues of these representative tournaments.

At most of these tournaments the rivalry is very strong and this serves as a ground for frequent objections to athletic competition. Critics say that this pressure to win puts over-emphasis on rivalry and eventually leads to the fact that our society thrives on rivalry in all sections. This spirit of rivalry is carried over into business, religion and social life. Individual enterprise in business and life, therefore, becomes filled with it. Winning has become a part of our national spirit and our society loves a winner. Those who are involved in the organization and instruction in competitive programmes here face a problem of values. Should one teach participants to win at all costs? Should one teach them to try anything, manoeuvre any deceptive or crooked means to beat an opponent? Should one sacrifice a player in striving to win at all costs? And does one allow the end to justify the means? Many critics say that many coaches do. Schohaus feels as long as school authorities base education on personal success it encourages individual ambition to be the main incentive of school achievement - and necessarily becomes an education of asocial attitudes. This will give the pupils the impression that life is mainly a battlefield where each individual must look after his own interests and progress at the cost of and in opposition to the other members of the community. Schohaus also claims that the natural needs for contacts which can never be totally destroyed is completely inadequate to maintain the balance. "Among the Middle Schools we may frequently see in how many ways the teaching staff takes steps to hinder the construction of a firmer community feeling among the young folks. It was entirely symbolic of this mental attitude that it was prohibited to wear class colours for many years in a large Swiss boys' school. Teachers are suspicious of alliances among the children because they are afraid of the loss of their own prestige thereby. Whenever we find a person troubled about the preservation of his position of authority it proves the maintenance of the old Roman maxim of 'divide et impera'. Through that method of education the spirit of Bernard Shaw's definition of education is carried out. 'Education is the organized defence of adults against children'. In this way the fear of soli-

clarity of the pupils becomes especially easy to understand. The teaching staff feel that they have not got complete mastery over the children somehow, because they have failed in the conception of the educational spirit which grips them from within". (48).

Schohaus on the other hand proclaims that all happiness and culture are dependent on the quality of the means of using the school to co-ordinate all our more purposeful schemes increasingly in the community. The schools are the natural organizations for carrying out this function. When the school fulfils the functions of community education it must be realistic. We must think of the carrying over effect of the ideals into real life. Competitive behaviour can then be good or bad depending on the position of the person who contemplates it. This means that the bigger, stronger and better equipped team would stand a better chance of winning without being unfair. If the winning team suddenly finds itself on the losing side it cannot blame unfair play but must realise that it had a fair chance to avoid such a defeat. Surely this, as an attitude to competitive sport, cannot be wrong. On the other hand, if one had to be in a contest to see who could steal the most from a helpless victim or make the most in a money grab by using unfair methods, competition and its goals can be questioned. Competition becomes good or bad depending upon the way the activities are conducted, upon the aims set, and upon the conditions in which this competition takes place. According to Williams, the whole problem lies in the fact that the critics cannot distinguish between competition and opposition. Competition takes place without the desire to humiliate the defeated. "Sportsmen do not desire to humiliate opponents. The countless numbers of competitive activities in schools today are not run to humiliate opponents. Small cruel boys and some adults who are still growing up act in this way, but the code of fair experience is built upon the standard expression, 'May the better man win'. For those who lose, there is no

humiliation unless a faulty education has taught them to expect always to be right and never to lose ... To set a standard of social activity which is based upon the abnormal response of a player who is humiliated when he loses in games would correspond to establishing a diet based upon carious teeth and inability to masticate or a standard of honesty based upon the behaviour of a kleptomaniac". (67, p.141).

One of the objectives of the competitive programme of a school can also be dangerous. This is the exploitation of school teams for advertising purposes. For these purposes winning is absolutely essential and it becomes evident that schools' teams that are successful usually receive much wider publicity of a nature bound to attract the favourable attention of prospective parents and pupils. Mitchell and Mason show that these tendencies gave athletics a severe set-back in the esteem of conscientious educationists, for their real purpose became dominated by the search for ephemeral success. The history of athletics since the early 1900's has been a struggle to check and control this short-sighted tendency to place success in winning above all other standards.

The coach also sometimes sees in a winning team favourable publicity which may lead to offers of a better job. In many instances he has learned through experience that the best way to retain his present prestige is to produce winning teams. Many times this pressure is put on him by the overzealous individuals or groups in the community. Fortunately this type of coach is rather the exception than the rule.

Competition has been criticised on the basis that winning makes the attitude of the competitor close to hostility and that it often causes states of emotional tension that can lead to personality disturbances. Postma states, "Wanneer die kind herhaaldelik aan wedstryde moet deelneem en dus dikwels spanning voor die tyd moet deurmaak, is die moontlikheid dat 'n permanente toestand van prikkelbaarheid ontstaan, nie uitgeslote nie. Veral vir die tipes wat 'n 'reaktiwe affektabiliteit' het, dus

gevoelens van minderwaardigheid en frustrasie het, kan in intense deelname aan wedstrydsport gevare vir die psigiese ontwikkeling meebring". (43).

Johnson found that in the period preceding athletic competition emotional change can and does take place and that this change can be measured by various techniques. He found that this state was not detrimental provided that the competitor was free of profound personality disturbances. It is generally accepted that the normal child can cope without undue disturbance with a normal amount of competition. The abnormal and nervous child on the other hand, may become overanxious and placed under severe stress (20). However, as Williams observes, "Education policy for a general practice, however, cannot be derived from the limitation of emotionally abnormal children. Such children should have the supervision in activities that their special problems require, but they are the special cases that illustrate the principle of individual differences". (67, p.141).

The question that affects us is whether competition fans anti-social behaviour or whether it gives it scope for sublimatory expression? There is little research evidence on which to base any definite conclusions, although it is worth recording that a study by Johnson and Hutton found a noticeable decrease in aggressive tendencies of wrestlers the day after competition. Even while exercise is being taken, providing that the teacher is in firm control, there is always the possibility that hostile feelings could be converted into offensive acts. (21).

Lemkau does not share all these opinions. He is not sure of the cathartic function of competitive sport. He writes: "I am a little sceptical, I must admit, about whether athletics are really an outlet for aggressive feelings. It seems to me that the controls involved in game rules are so complete that

there is some doubt whether this basic aggression would be realised in such a controlled situation. I would at least say that it is a release for the drive to physical activity which is certainly not the same as aggression." (24).

Inherent in individual athletic competition is the danger that the fairly good athlete can become self-interested to a degree that makes his behaviour socially unacceptable. Individual sports have their place in education and are socially advantageous but some critics may point out that there is the danger of the athlete's thinking too much of himself, and the individual sometimes forgets to think about others with the result that he becomes indifferent to them.

We know that critics of athletic competition claim that it leads to dishonesty, trickery and unsportmanlike conduct on the part of the coaches and administrators which is again transferred to the player himself and manifested in his behaviour on the playing field. This, according to the critics has created a harmful moral atmosphere.

Our duty is, firstly, to build up wholesome play standards with the aids of strong leadership and adequate supervision. Secondly, our duty involves administration. We must make sure that teams play under one set of rules and that the laws of the specific association are not violated. Administration correctly carried out will also see that exploitation of weaker schools and the misuse of good players are eliminated. Many of the alleged dangers of athletic competitions are due to the fact that some schools are inadequate in controlling their programme. The head of a school or other institution that condones unsound practices, in the school's endeavour to win, is just as much to blame as the coach who promotes such practices. Both reveal inability to lead and direct the athletic competition so that they contribute to the educational growth of the competitor. Competition in itself is neither good nor bad, but from it, according to the manner in which it is handled, can stem beneficial or detrimental effects.

The state of affairs brought about by increased interest of spectators is both encouraging and discouraging. Firstly, the increased interest of the public in the competitions in the schools created an increased interest in the school and its other activities. By contrast we are also aware that this same increase of spectator interest has brought trends that are not so favourable. Spectators who have their say in competitive games of the school sometimes also think that they can dictate to the school in other departments.

Generally the public means well and in most instances their efforts prove to be worthwhile and in the interest of the healthy development of the school. There are, however, too many public groups causing undesirable effects on the total competitive program through misdirected pressures. The main problem of the administrator today is to keep the interest of the public in the school active and alive but at the same time also to control and eliminate various pressures.

Characteristically in Western society the general public is competitively orientated and the will to win is a dominant feature in its make-up. The public wants to win and will go through a lot of trouble to ensure that their favourite team stands a chance of winning. Winning at all costs is definitely not excluded.

We must be realistic and admit that the parents of our pupils are often the main offenders because they form the biggest group among our adult spectators. Weber classifies these parents in three problem groups;

- (1) Parents of pupils who are not competing enough.
- (2) Parents generally dissatisfied with how things are being run. (This complaint is usually associated with losing teams.)
- (3) Parents of gifted children who want to exploit the child's athletic ability. (64).

Weber also mentions the undesirable effect of sports writers in their attempts to make propaganda for certain schools by publishing favourable reports (which are often not the full truth). Some coaches make a special point of making "contacts" with reporters to publish the name of good athletes to boost their own prestige.

Weber lists the following undesirable effects of misdirected spectator interest:

(1) The public's desire to win puts pressure on the coach. This will result in the coach putting excessive pressure on himself and the athletes to win and in this way neglect the other aspects of the programme and the aims of the competitive programme for educational purposes. When the public uses as its main criterion of a successful coach the number of games that his team wins, then it must follow that the coach will make winning his ultimate goal no matter what effect it may have upon others. Such a belief is certainly contrary to sound educational philosophy.

(2) The use of key athletes, regardless of physical condition: the win-at-all-cost theme has caused coaches to use valuable players in crucial games when normally they would not have played. Even though there may be no immediate ill effects upon the player such practices are certainly contrary to sound health principles.

(3) Participation in representative championships: Problems in this area are very real and occur when certain public groups have attempted to exploit outstanding teams and players primarily to bring glory and fame to the community. The whole problem lies in the fact that administrators of these competitions on a representative basis are very often not teachers and do not think of the educational aims of the athletic programme but have in mind the progress "of our beloved sport ..." or the prestige of a certain area which is often the result of provincialism.

(4) Extensive publicity concentrated on a few athletes or special teams is a regular practice of newspapers. It is also common to find that one or two schools dominate a certain newspaper and receive the most sought-after positions on the sports page while other schools are just mentioned in passing and sometimes not mentioned at all. Continuous reports of who the leading scorer is, stimulate the wrong type of competition. (64, pp. 8-9).

Overemphasis on spectator sport brings another danger. Not all pupils participate in the so-called spectator sports so that there is a need for variety of athletic activities. However, in many school situations spectator sport gets first choice of equipment supplies, facilities, staff and practice time. The result of this domination of the athletic programme by the so-called "major sports" results in limiting the possibility of offering athletic activities to suit the taste of all the pupils.

Williams states that if high school athletics are ever "killed" it will be caused by the improper conduct of adults and not the pupils themselves. "These potential killers are adults who:

- (1) Gamble on games
- (2) Drink at games
- (3) Use loud and profane language at games
- (4) Insist on winning at all costs
- (5) Give items of material value to athletes
- (6) Commercialize (through advertising) on athletics
- (7) Insist on a one-sport, not balanced, program
- (8) Insist on promoting all-star games
- (9) Object to state association rules and regulations
- (10) Contend that gate receipts should finance the entire athletic program
- (11) Are poor sports - blaming the officials, coach and players
- (12) Insist that athletics be supported to the detriment of the physical education and the intramural programs." (66).

The spirit to win is inherent in our society; thus we can always expect varying degrees of public pressures upon the athletic programme. Possible methods in coping with these pressures will be discussed later.

One of the main objections to intensive competition at high school level involves the question of injuries. It is claimed that the competitive situation and the desire of the athlete to gain prestige is such a strong motivating factor that it leads to the athlete's setting too high a standard for himself, which results in a potential danger to his system.

According to Postma, the following factors can cause physical damage when the child specializes too young.

- (a) Inadequate training methods where the body is not sufficiently prepared for the exercise.
- (b) Deformities and weaknesses of which the competitors are not aware.
- (c) Health conditions e.g. colds.
- (d) Fatigue that can lead to muscle injuries.
- (e) Training methods of adults that are unconditionally prescribed for and followed by children regardless of their ability and maturity for these methods. (43).

Many critics of competition believe that there is a possibility of the heart of the child being over-strained. Research has shown that changes in heart and circulatory conditions do occur, but the relationship which these changes bear to the abilities of the young child who is training under proper supervision is questionable. Generally it is agreed that the normal heart cannot be damaged by the vigorous exercise that we find in intensive competition. (39). Steinhaus claims "There is no evidence that a normal heart may be permanently injured by exercise, no matter how strenuous". (55).

Wackenhut states "The belief that athletic participation produces an enlargement of the heart which is injurious to the

health is also unwarranted ... For those of this age group (adolescents) who suffer no circulatory embarrassment, athletic contests are suitable activities but they should occur in a natural social situation. Artificial stimulation by attempting to produce undefeated teams and record-breaking individuals should be avoided, because it increases the competitive effort and, under eighteen years, serious competitive effort is unwise ... Properly conducted physical activity is of the utmost value in the optimum hygiene of the heart". (60).

The prepubertal child is therefore more susceptible to injuries than his postpubertal mate because changes in body structure, and bone structure specifically, are still taking place at a more rapid rate. A survey in Texas schools, that included over 9,000 boys, shows an injury incidence of 5% in junior high school football as compared with the incidence of 10% in senior high school football. Walker in his summary of the survey concludes; "Although competition in junior high school is not comparable to competition in high school, since the length of the season, length of practice, number of games, and the length of games are all modulated to the lower level, it would seem safe to question the theory that football is more hazardous for younger boys". (61).

Willgoose makes the observation that, in general, adolescent motor coordination as measured by tests of motor performance, improves with an increase in physical power brought about by development of muscular strength. This indicates, according to Willgoose, the necessity of vigorous motor activity on the part of growing boys of this age. For the highly skilled, interschools' athletic competitions provide stimulating types of activity. (65).

Participation in competitive games will involve the possibility of injury of some sort. We must be realistic enough to accept the fact that we are running the risk. The basic problem does

not seem to be the elimination of athletic activities that have educational possibilities, but rather the promotion of factors that reduce unnecessary injuries. This is essentially an organisational consideration.

Another criticism against the competitive sports is the fact that often the training or preparation of athletes is one-sided and tends to concentrate on the event in which the athlete excels. The result of this is that the particular pupil who is gifted in one event, say hurdling, does only hurdling. This can even reach such proportions that his coach prohibits him from taking part in other sports. The boy is then debarred from playing rugby in the Winter because there is the possibility that he might injure himself and "ruin his hurdling career".

The danger has been overcome, to some extent, by the setting up of individual point systems where the athlete is encouraged to take part in as many events as he can manage. This takes place prior to the actual sports meeting so that the danger that the boy takes part in too many events is eliminated. In some schools a boy must reach a certain level or achievement in more than one event in order to gain his colours for that specific sport.

A lack of breadth in the competitive programme is another criticism that links closely with the above mentioned danger. There is in some schools a definite narrowness in their sport programme, and in some cases a school may be known, for example, as a "rugby school" but is it also known that the same school is very weak in other games. The result is that the school does not succeed in its educational goal of preparing the pupil for citizenship and for life outside the school. Such a narrow programme does not equip the pupil with experience and knowledge in other recreational activities that he could continue after leaving school. The carry-over value of such a programme is absolutely inadequate

because it is often found that boys that come from, say an "athletic school" never again take part in athletics after they have left school because they probably had an overdose of athletics at school and have no inclination to carry on with this sport. This is also sometimes called the "burning out" of athletes. The interschools' competitive programme should be broad enough to meet the interests of most of its pupils and should also give most pupils the opportunity of experiencing as many situations as possible in the wide variety of games and sports so that they can leave the school with the knowledge and experience to enable them to follow a worth-while activity in their free-time.

Together with the variety in the programme goes criticism that the trend seems to be to spend all the time and money on the top athletes for the glory of the school and neglect the coaching of the average athlete and the aims and concept of education for recreation. Some critics believe that the more severe indictment of competition lies in the fact that it frequently involves selection. This means that some are picked and others not. For those rejected there is, they say, the chance that they may feel inferior, resentful or humiliated. Worse, in some ways, especially if they have been dropped from a team is the feeling of the pupil that he has lost some social status. This is sometimes very real in the case of boys and amounts to dropping a boy from a first team as a means of punishment. Part of the solution to this problem lies in the difference between children wanting to compete and their being forced to compete. Reid makes the following point; "It is not the competition or the acknowledgement of inequality as such which is bad, but the making of these inequalities into a main standard of human assessment. Children need sympathy, yet at the same time they should be brought up resilient enough to be able to overcome the disappointments and upsets that life in its passage will inevitably bring them". (44). Moeller states; "It must be assumed that every boy is willing to undergo the training required of those who represent their

school on an interscholastic squad. Nothing is further from the truth. Some critics have suggested that interscholastic athletics should be abandoned so that all may be given a chance. Will the slow runner run faster if the fast is handicapped? Would it not be just as logical to abandon the school glee club, the band and other special interest organizations because all students do not participate?" (37).

Another criticism against competitive sport and games at school is that they take up too much time and are also a drain on school funds. Many people object to the programme because of inadequate equipment and facilities for conducting it. This seems to be a reasonable objection, especially if this state of affairs could result in the possibility of pupils being injured because of poor apparatus.

Some people also claim that the pupil is so interested in his competitive activities that he does not spend enough time and attention on his academic work. It would be difficult to prove such a generalization. It is perhaps true that the athlete has less time than his colleague who does not take part in competitive sport but that the recreational benefits derived from these activities enable him to do well enough at his other work.

An argument that is often used against competitions in schools is that the coach is not very competent. This could be the underlying cause of all the dangers of interschools' athletic competitions that we have already mentioned. It was the overwhelming emphasis on winning that once led to the appointment of coaches that were interested in only one facet of the athletic programme and were otherwise completely inadequately qualified. We had lots of trainers but few coaches and educators. Today with the introduction of courses in Physical Education this is to some extent prevented. The coaches

of teams are now on the school staff. Teachers are today more widely qualified to take part in a wide variety of extra-mural activities and in the coaching of games to a much higher standard than was the case a few years ago. This is partly due to the fact that the seriousness of interschools' athletics has gained in importance and that most educators see some value in the competitive programme of the school.

Shepard and Jamerson believe that a careful analysis of all the criticism reveals that such weaknesses are not inherent in interschools' athletics. They are weaknesses due to improper supervision and administration. These writers further make the following recommendations; Criticism can be eliminated by competent, courageous, educational leadership; by school administrators who sincerely believe that interschool athletics have contributions to make to the general education of high school youth and who strive to maintain these values. As a part of their professional leadership, such administrators should try to help the community understand the possible educational benefits to be derived from a sound programme of interschools' athletic competitions. It is not enough that school heads understand the objectives and values of the interschools' programme, important as that may be. These objectives and values must be made clear to the school personnel, to the committee of the school, to the community and to the press. Properly informed, the citizens of a community usually support an educational programme of interschools' competitions when they realise the values they can have for the youth of their community.

Shepard and Jamerson also believe that many problems associated with interscholastic competitions that distract from potential educational benefit are due to financial considerations. It is not the desire for money, but rather the need for money to build up adequate funds to facilitate a sound programme that is comprehensive, that often leads to misdirected emphasis.

The following summary of the competitive programme is made. "Interscholastic athletics enjoy widespread popularity from the standpoint of student participation and spectator appeal. This popularity emphasises the ever-present necessity for wise competitive leadership and supervision for athletes so that educational benefits will be assured to those who participate either directly or indirectly in this programme ... The justification for interscholastic athletics should be based upon the same criteria that justify other subjects in the curriculum; the attainment of established objectives which harmonise with objectives for the total school programme. The legal status of interscholastic athletic athletics as an integral part of the secondary school curriculum is now firmly established. Most criticisms directed against interscholastic athletics can be traced to weakness in administration and leadership." (51, pp. 17-18).

We now come to the question of athletic competition for women. Nixon and Cozens show that it is interesting to note that, as a rule, athletic competition for girls and women has developed in a more rational fashion than that for men and boys and that consequently the programme for competitive sports and athletics for girls and women is free from most of the problems which we have mentioned. The difference between the two programmes is in a large measure due to differences in origin and development (42, pp. 174-5).

From 1880 to 1910 women's colleges led a trend on the Eastern side of America toward developing intramural and inter-institutional competition in individual and later team sports. During the period in which the athletic movement was developing, social standards as applied to women and girls made their participation in such activities impossible. Croquet was about the most strenuous activity that women were expected to take part in. A few attempted an extremely mild form of tennis, but ideals of womanly modesty and corresponding types of swaddling clothes largely nullified this daring spirit. By

the time women and girls attained their freedom and began to assume their right to organise their own sports and athletics, college authorities had learned such an impressive lesson from their previous experience with athletics that they were rather careful to see that corresponding difficulties did not arise in connection with athletics for girls and women.

As athletics for women came to be accepted in the women's programme, empirical and philosophical differences flared up but administrators and leaders tried to avoid falling into the traps and dangers of competition that crept into the competitive programme of men at that time. The trend was now once again away from representative competitions. In the period between 1925 and 1945 the trend continued with virtual elimination of state national championships for women in the Olympic Games. From 1945 redefined educational goals and recognition of potential educational value in competition, games and sports were discussed in workshops, clinics and conferences. Recent developments have indicated a lively interest in sports, and some return to university athletics with reservations. (63).

Fortunately the university and school authorities were quick to realise the abuses and dangers that could develop out of such a competitive programme and were quick to curb it. Nixon and Cozens claim that "The competitive programme of sports and athletics for women and girls in schools and colleges possesses one striking superiority in general over that of boys. Not being encumbered by formal programs of interschool competition with their tremendous pressure to win, the leadership has been able to function in a more rational way. More thought and effort is devoted to interesting the whole group in such activities, a better effort is made to assist all to acquire skill, the competitive spirit is kept more nearly within reasonable limits, and a broader spirit of cooperation is emphasised". (42, pp. 176-7).

It seems to be the general feeling that girls' sports should

not be staged with the primary aim of entertaining spectators, for gate receipts, or the reputation of the school. Rather than the entertainment of the spectators the purpose of girls athletics should be physical development and the enjoyment of physical activity and the development of behavioural patterns and attitudes that have a carry-over value into later life.

CHAPTER FOUR: INVESTIGATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Many people are concerned about the competitive trends in our schools and the effect that they have on the pupils and products of schools with a strong competitive tradition. Some believe that it is the duty of the school to curb this competitive attitude as much as possible and to promote a higher degree of co-operation. By doing this, they hope, society will follow suit and become less competitive and more co-operative.

It is known that competition in schools can have some ill effects but it seems doubtful whether eliminating competition will, firstly, be possible and, secondly, will solve the problem. This will be difficult because it will discard the possible benefits derived from such a programme and it will also disregard the natural desires of pupils and the need of the highly skilled for challenging competitive experiences. Gates has the following to say; "Competition and cooperation are not antithetical, one good, the other bad. Needless to say, competitive pressures frequently are disadvantageous to the individual and to society, but when properly conducted they have many values. On the one hand, competition adds zest to many duties that otherwise would be boring: a child will even try to compete with himself, (matching one shooter against another and so forth). It also gives the individual a standard to emulate and thereby, through social facilitation, spurs him to greater heights of enjoyable skill. On the other hand, it is not possible to make a thorough distinc-

tion between competition and cooperation, for in many situations one cooperates through joining in competition (as in most outdoor games) and in the other, one competes in co-operative ventures (as when members of an organisation vie with each other to turn out more and better work)". (13).

There must be other solutions to the problem than merely abolishing competitive athletics. We will have to have a programme that eliminates the possible dangers of competition. Nixon and Cozens expect the following characteristics of the ideal programme of sports athletics;

A. "It makes a place for all:

- (1) It provides a variety of sports and athletics so that there will be activities appropriate to various interests, degrees of physical powers, stages of development, experience and skill.
- (2) It provides adequate equipment and facilities for all.
- (3) It provides adequate and interested leadership for the entire programme, not for the superior group of performers alone.
- (4) It does not exploit the superior group in such a way as to submerge interest in the ordinary performer.
- (5) It equalises the competition so as to maintain the interests of players of all degrees of proficiency.

B. It promotes physical well-being:

- (1) It exercises all precaution to prevent accidental physical injury.
- (2) It does not permit the contestant to sacrifice his physical well-being either in competition or in training.
- (3) It teaches, in connection with activities, the rules of healthful living.

C. It directs the competitive spirit toward educational goals:

- (1) It does not attach undue importance to winning, or place the individual under too great responsibility to win.
- (2) It cultivates the idea that trying fairly and wholeheartedly to win is more important than winning.

- (3) It does not sacrifice recreational values.
- (4) It cultivates respect for academic and other worthwhile interests.

D. It emphasizes social training:

- (1) It helps the individual to find satisfaction in socially desirable behaviour and dissatisfaction in poor sportsmanship.
- (2) It does not tolerate any trickery or shady dealing in promotion, management, teaching or conduct of sports and athletics.
- (3) It cultivates respect for and friendliness towards the opponent.
- (4) It stresses emotional control.
- (5) It provides leadership which sets good examples in habits, attitudes, and conduct.
- (6) It protects the group from the necessity of competing against unsportsmanlike opponents.
- (7) It does not offer material rewards for winning or participation.
- (8) It helps the contestant to see similarities between life situations and those in sports".
(42, pp. 172-3).

Various individuals have made suggestions recommending improvement in the interschools' athletic programme. Salario draws the following guiding principles for accomplishing educational values;

- (1) "The interschools' programme should be an integral part of the total educational programme and under the complete and direct control of those responsible for the programme.
- (2) Sound standards relative to health, safety and eligibility are essential for satisfactory competitive athletics.
- (3) The democratic process is recommended.
- (4) The coach should be a full time Physical Education teacher, democratically orientated, qualified to guide the youth.
- (5) The interscholastic programme should be centrally financed so that it will be independent of gate receipts.
- (6) The school should provide proper facilities and equipment in order to maintain a sound Physical Education programme,

to provide a diversified intramural programme, and to sponsor an effective interschools programme.

- (7) The school should assume the responsibility for promoting the educational values inherent in effective athletic programmes and interpreting them to the community". (47).

Shepard and Jamerson believe that the competitive programme is justified and that it can contribute to the general welfare of the participant physically, mentally, socially and emotionally. Failure to provide these competitive experiences under school supervision tends to encourage boys to seek such experiences in environments less favourable. These authors make the following suggestions:

- (1) "Each participant must have complete health examination and be certified as being physically qualified to participate in interscholastic sports.
- (2) Qualified personnel must be employed to direct and supervise the programme.
- (3) In competition involving body contact there should be restricting regulations with respect to weight.
- (4) Equipment must afford maximum protection to the participant.
- (5) The number of contests must be limited, assuring sufficient time before the first contest and between contests for thorough instruction in the sport concerned.
- (6) The rules of the game must be rigidly enforced.
- (7) Competent officials must be appointed.
- (8) Financial support of the programme should not be based upon gate receipts. If admission fees are charged the added revenue should be used in improvement of the whole physical education programme.
- (9) The playing areas must be in proper condition to afford maximum protection to players.
- (10) A physician should be present at contests.
- (11) If competitions take place far from the school, time must be given for players to start the game early in order to

prevent long overnight trips.

- (12) Participants must secure permission from a doctor to resume play after injury or period of illness.
- (13) Participants must have their parents' permission to take part in interschools' competitions.
- (14) There must be proper supervision for transportation on all trips.
- (15) There must be proper limitations upon the number of contests and the length of practice periods in accordance with sound judgement relative to desirable practices in such matters". (51, p.242).

Very little, if any, research has been done on the conditions in South African schools in connection with interschools' competition. This lack of research could possibly indicate a lack of need to investigate the matter. In contrast, much has been done in America to try and solve controversies among educators concerning the values of competitive athletics, the control and administration of this part of the school's activities. We shall briefly note their findings and suggestions.

Several organisations, representing large groups of general educators and physical educators, in 1952 issued a joint report which opposes interschools' athletic competitions below the ninth grade. "Interscholastic competition of varsity pattern and similarly organized competition under the auspices of the community agencies are definitely disapproved for children below the Ninth Grade". (22). So states this report.

The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American School Administrators recommended in 1954 that no Junior High School should have a team that competes with teams of other Junior High Schools.

The Joint Committee of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation and the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations has stated that the

athletic programme should:

- (1) "Be closely coordinated with the general instructional program and properly articulated with the other departments of the school.
- (2) Be such that the number of students accommodated and the educational aims achieved justify the use of the funds for its support and also warrant the use of other sources of income.
- (3) Provided that the time and attention which is given to the collection of such funds is not such as to interfere with the efficiency of the athletic program or of any departments of the school.
- (4) Confine the school athletic activity to events which are sponsored and supervised by the proper school authorities so that any exploitation or improper use of prestige built by the school teams may be avoided.
- (5) Be planned in such a way as to result in opportunity for many individuals to explore wide variety of sports and to set reasonable limits for each listed sport.
- (6) Be controlled in such a way as to avoid the elements of professionalism and commercialism which tend to grow up in connection with widely publicised 'bowl' contests, barnstorming trips, and travel, expense or loss of school time or which are claimed to be justified by educational travel values.
- (7) Be kept free from the type of contest which involves a gathering of so-called 'all stars' from different schools to participate in contests which may be used as a gathering place for representatives of certain colleges or professionals and organisations who are interested in soliciting athletic talent for their teams.
- (8) Include educative exercises to reach all non-participating students and community followers of the school teams in order to insure a proper understanding and appreciation of the sports skills and of the need for the adherence to principles of the game ethics.

- (9) Encourage a balanced program of intramural activity in grades below the ninth to make it unnecessary to sponsor contests of a championship nature in these grades.
- (10) Engender respect for the rules and policies under which the school conducts its program." (9, p.84).

The Joint Committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations and the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation has set the following standards in athletics:

- (1) "The program of athletics should be developed with due regard for ... health and safety standards...
- (2) Good citizenship must result from all coaching and from all interschools' competition. The education of the youth of the nation fails unless it creates the proper ideals and attitudes, both in the game and off the field ...
- (3) The ten 'Cardinal Athletic Principles' are accepted as expressing the policies of our organisations, and it is urged that these be displayed in the literature of our organisations ...
- (4) All schools shall use reasonable care in avoiding any participation in a contact sport between participants of normal high school age and participants who are appreciably above or below high school age ...
- (5) All schools shall fully observe and abide by the spirit and letter of the established eligibility requirements which have been democratically developed by the state athletic associations.

- (6) Each state athletic association should attempt to secure the co-operation which would provide a plan of continuous eligibility from high-school to college.
- (7) For competition in which only one state is involved, no school shall participate in a meet or tournament involving more than two schools unless such a contest has been approved by its state high school association or its delegate constituent or allied divisions.
- (8) The use of school facilities or members of the school staff shall not be permitted in connection with any post-season or all-star athletic contest unless such a contest has been sanctioned by the state athletic association.
- (9) A school shall not permit any employee or official to encourage or collaborate in any negotiations which may lead a high school athlete to lose his eligibility through the signing of a professional contract.
- (10) The solicitation of athletes through tryouts and competitive bidding by colleges and universities is unethical, unprofessional and psychologically harmful. It destroys the amateur nature of athletics, tends to commercialise the individual and the program and takes unjust advantage of competitors.
- (11) In all interstate athletic contests, each athlete shall compete under eligibility rules which are at least as restrictive as those adopted by the state high school athletic association of his state, except in the case of non-member schools which are not eligible for membership in their state associations.
- (12) No school shall compete in any of the following contests unless such contest has been sanctioned by the interested state high school athletic associations through the Nation-

al Federation:

- (a) any interstate tournament or meet in which three or more schools participate.
- (b) any interstate two-school contest which is sponsored by an individual or organisation other than a member high school.

- (13) No basketball tournament which is purported to be for interstate high school championship shall be sanctioned and no basketball tournament involving schools of more than one state shall be sanctioned unless the tournament is purely community in character.
- (14) No contest which is purported to be for national high school championships in any sport shall be sanctioned". (9, p.84-5).

Some research has also been done on the competitive programme of the elementary school. Some examples of recommendations follow:

- (1) "Interschool competition of a varsity pattern and similarly organised competition under the auspices of other community agencies are definitely disapproved for children below the ninth grade. Desirable Athletic Competition for Children, AAHPER, 1952.
- (2) Programs of games and sports should be based on the developmental level of children. Boxing, tackle football and ice hockey and other body contact sports should not be in any competitive program for children twelve or under. Recommendations of National Conference, Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation. (May, 1953) p.3.
- (3) In the elementary schools, children grow at variable rates and at the same chronological age there are many differences in maturity and growth demands much of their energy. Emotional pressures may drive the child past the stage of

healthful participation. Bone ossification and development is incomplete. Boxing and tackle football are undesirable activities for children. Recommendation of National Conference, Physical Education for Children of Elementary School Age, The Athletic Institute, 1951, p.22.

- (4) Highly organized competitive leagues are not desirable for children and youth of elementary and junior high school age (grades 1 - 8). Society of State Directors of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, Compilation of Experts and Recommendations on Highly Competitive Athletics for Children of Elementary School Age, California State Dept. of Education, July 1952, p.5.
- (5) Interschool athletic leagues should be confined to the senior high schools ... Interschool activities for junior high school pupils should be limited to occasional meets or games. Junior high school boys should not compete in football. Suggested School Health Policies, 3rd ed., American Medical Association, 1956, pp. 27-28.
- (6) Interscholastic athletics are not recommended for junior high school boys. At this level most prepubescent boys are growing rapidly and insufficiently developed to withstand the physical and emotional strain of interscholastic competition. Their needs can be met by a varied program of intramural activities. Health in Schools, 20th Yearbook of the American Association of School Administration, rev. ed., 1951, p.197.
- (7) Children 12 years of age and under:
 - (a) Competition is an inherent characteristic of growing developing children. Properly guided it is beneficial and not harmful to their development.
 - (b) Athletic activities of elementary school children should be a part of an over-all school program. Compe-

tent medical supervision of each child should be ensured.

(c) Athletic activities outside of the school program should be on an entirely voluntary basis without undue emphasis on any program or sport, and without undue emphasis on winning. These programs should also include competent medical supervision.

(d) Competitive programs organised on school neighbourhood and community levels will meet the needs of children twelve years of age and under. State, regional and national tournaments, bowl, charity, and exhibition games are not recommended for this age group. Commercial exploitation in any form is unequivocally condemned.

(e) Body contact sports, particularly tackle football and boxing are considered to have no place in programs for children of this age group. Competitive Athletics, Report of the Committee on School Health, American Academy of Pediatrics, 1956.

(8) (a) Children should have the opportunity of developing skills in a variety of activities. A sound program in schools should include competitive and non-competitive sports and play activities. The primary consideration should be a diversity of wholesome childhood experiences.

(b) Athletics should involve all of the children in the school in some phase of the program. Many teams are better than a few. At this age, the star system is bad.

(c) Body-contact sports, particularly football, boxing and wrestling are dangerous at this age. Touch or tag football is a safe sport if properly supervised.

(d) All competitive athletic programs should be organised with the co-operation of the local medical group. All children should have a thorough physical examination before entering the program and at specified intervals during the program. Ideally, a physician should be in attendance at all the games. A minimum requirement should be that he is quickly available.

(e) The best possible professional leadership should be

obtained. Volunteers, however well intentioned, should work under professional supervision. John Lester Reichert, M.D., A Pediatrician's View of Competitive Sports before the Teens. American Medical Association, 1957, p.8". (9, pp. 91-2).

"The evidence against highly competitive athletics for children of elementary school age is overwhelming. Yet athletic competition for children below junior high school age seems to be on the increase. Organisations outside the school are sponsoring programs such as the Little League Basketball, Bidy Basketball, Iddy-biddy Basketball, Little Guys Basketball, Little Basketball League, and Midget Football". (9, p.92).

In South Africa we now also have our own Mini Basketball on the same lines as the abovementioned trends in America. Though little research of the abovementioned type has been done (perhaps because there was no immediate need for investigation of it in South Africa) it is worth while to look at the findings of the Americans and try to learn from their efforts to cope with the problems that are encountered. One thing is certain - our interschools' competitive programme is still expanding all the time and we are bound to come to a stage in the development of interschool sport where it is necessary to take steps against the dangers of such competitions.

How did these reports affect the trends in competitive sport? It does not seem that it had far-reaching results. A study of interschools' practices in Junior High Schools had been in process since 1951 by the New York State Public High School Athletic Association. This study was initiated because neither the State Education Department nor the Athletic Association had adopted detailed procedures for guiding New York State's permissive legislation which allows individual school districts to engage in Junior High School interschools athletics if they so desire.

In 1954 a committee of the Athletic Association drew up tentative standards for the conduct of football, basketball, volleyball, wrestling, track and baseball. These standards were accepted on a trial basis in several areas.

Football was given special attention. Kurt Beyer, the chairman of the Junior High School Committee in the County of Nassau, Long Island, has recently written: "After three years of experimentation, the medical men dealing directly with these youngsters in this controlled program were asked to indicate the desirability of the tackle football program. Forty seven of the forty nine doctors involved approved the football program as it was conducted in these schools. (53). In 1957 the New York State Education Department reviewed the report of this committee. In an attempt to indicate its opinion to state officials, the Nassau County Council of City and Village School Superintendents adopted the following resolution:

"Whereas the Committee on Athletics for Boys in grades 7, 8, and 9 of the New York State Public Health Athletic Association had made a study of interscholastic competitive sports, and whereas adequate safeguards for the conduct of such sports have been outlined in a report of the committee, and whereas many districts find that in a school as in life situations there is a clear need for such competition, and Whereas the principle of local autonomy by Boards of Education will be impaired by arbitrary action forbidding such sports competition,

Now therefore, we recommend that the State Department of Education take no action to prevent school districts from continuing or instituting a program of competitive sport for boys or grades 7, 8 and 9 to meet local needs, when such program is carried on with adequate safeguard and approved by the local Board of Education, and

Be it further resolved, that the State Department of Education share in the incorporation of such rules and regulations as will constitute adequate safeguard for children participating in such competitive sports." (53).

In December 1958 the National Conference on Fitness for Secondary School Youth met in Washington under the sponsorship of the American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation. The entire conference accepted the following recommendation which was made after full consideration of educational and sociological factors involved: "The Boys Athletic Committee believes that interscholastic sports in grades 7 - 9, when properly organised, can make a significant contribution to youth fitness and recommends that proper school authorities establish procedures which will allow these sports to be carried out with due consideration for the safety, maturity, weight, height, speed, intensiveness of competition and length of schedule and number of games". (53).

Violent forms of athletic exercise can cause injuries and tendencies to over-strain. This element will always be present in athletic competition, but the danger can be greatly minimised by supervision which will inspect and properly train the players. The chance of injury has always been the greatest with those players not physically fit for the game. Health examinations should be required for games. Again, under proper supervision participants should be classified so that they are more equally matched in weight and strength.

Another preventive factor which helps is supervision that gives proper training along physiological lines. The methods of some coaches, where the programmes of adults are followed without any concessions for age of the participant, should be revised. These coaches must come to realise that high school boys are consuming much more of their energy in growth and therefore cannot stand as rigid and intensive a training as the adult athlete.

That the recommendations presented in these national reports are probably not followed in most schools is indicated in the results of a questionnaire survey published in the November 1959 Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (USA).

"Of the 2329 junior high schools (enrolling an estimated 90% of the total junior high school population) from which responses to the questionnaire were received, slightly more than 85% had programs of interschools athletics and 78% of the principals of these schools favoured these programs.

Further in 80% of the schools the policy of interschools athletics had not been changed since 1950. Of the schools in which the policy had been changed, about half had either started a programme or had expanded the existing program.

In this questionnaire the major points advanced by the opponents of junior high school athletics are;

- (1) The pupils are growing and developing at an accelerated rate and, consequently, are particularly susceptible to injuries.
- (2) Boys vary widely in respect of height, weight and psychological maturity. Unless the boys are matched on an equitable basis, competition in body-contact sports may be dangerous.
- (3) Boys who are likely candidates for positions in teams because they are taller and heavier than their classmates are not necessary physiologically mature and may be susceptible to injuries of the epiphysis of the bone structure.
- (4) The single stethoscopic examination to which an athlete is sometimes subjected is not infallable in determining whether the heart is 'normal'.
- (5) Interschools' athletics may interfere with the normal growth pattern of the boy.
- (6) High pressure competition may lead to strong motivational reactions which, in immature youngsters, may adversely affect emotional and social development

- (7) Interschools' athletic programs tend to allow a few gifted boys to monopolise the school personnel, the time, and the facilities at the expense of the majority of the pupils.
- (8) Interschools' programs often are allowed to disrupt the school's educational program. Practice sessions and games frequently require too much of the boy's time.
- (9) Participation in the interschool athletic program forces the athlete to specialise in one or two sports in which he probably will be unable to participate as an adult. At this age level his time could most profitably be spent in the exploration of a wide variety of activities.

In reply to these objections, proponents of Junior High School Athletics say:

- (1) Pre-adolescent and adolescent boys are growing, developing organisms; and injuries do occur in programs of athletics for this age group. However, there is no evidence that boys are injured more frequently or more seriously in well-organised and well-constructed programs in Junior High Schools than in such programs in Senior High Schools.
- (2) Studies have shown rather conclusively that the boys who succeed in athletics are boys who, in terms of height, weight and/or physiological maturity, are advanced for their age.
- (3) Boys will participate in sports whether the school authorities sponsor the sport or not. If the schools do not provide these opportunities, the boys will, in their free time, play under conditions that are more dangerous than those in the school sponsored programs.
- (4) The evidence purporting to indicate that participation in interschools' athletics interferes with the normal growth pattern of Junior High School boys is inconclusive.

- (5) Rather than adversely affecting the emotional and social development of the Junior High School boys, participation in well-controlled and properly conducted programs of interschools' athletic competitions fosters emotional control and desirable social development.
- (6) The failure of a coach or school to provide adequate required Physical Education, intramurally, and Physical Education programs is an administrative problem.
- (7) Interschools' competitions need not disrupt the school program. Overemphasis on winning and the undesirable practices that are associated with such overemphasis are conditions that surround interschools' contests but are subject to control.

The opponents and proponents on interschools' athletic competitions did agree on the following:

- (1) Because of the sedentary habits of modern man there definitely is a demand for physical activity.
- (2) Boys can profit, educationally and physically from participation in some competitive programs.
- (3) It is important that the school provide the necessary opportunities and facilities.
- (4) Interschools' athletic competitions should be carefully controlled and supervised by qualified adults." (1).

The above-mentioned observations were made in American conditions. To the author's knowledge very little has been done in this field here in South Africa. We cannot deny the fact that interschools' competitions in our own schools are expanding rapidly both in scope and magnitude. The aim of the author's survey is to find out what the public, the educators and the pupils themselves think of the competitive programs in our own schools.

PART II: INVESTIGATION OF ATTITUDES TOWARDS INTENSIVE COMPETITION.

CHAPTER FIVE: RELATED RESEARCH.

Much has been written on the topic of competition but not much has been done in the way of research and it was very difficult to find recent research on athletic competition. Recent research has been done by authors such as Meyers (32) and Schuck (49).

Some investigations have been done on expressed attitudes and but they cover mostly related topics such as the Physical Education programme in general. There is ample information available on the results of recent investigations by authors such as Campbell (5), Edgington (10), Mc Pherson (29) Mista (35), and others.

There is a surprising lack of information of attitude surveys on athletic competition. Meyers (32, p.521) comments on this; "The increasing prevalence of a practice that is contrary to professional recommendations and controversial on the basis of pertinent facts and opinions represents a matter of concern to all connected with education and youth. The lack of unanimity of opinions and support for these professional recommendations is no doubt attributable to the somewhat limited and unconvincing evidence that is available coupled with the perception of American culture. Considerable evidence exists pertaining to the physiological effects of vigorous athletic competition at this age level but less evidence has been compiled related to the influence of organised competitive athletics on psychological and emotional development. Virtually no attention has been directed to an analysis of this issue in the light of pupil needs".

Much of the available earlier work made use of the questionnaire and/or the checklist methods of qualitative measurement. Unfortunately most of these works were concerned with competition at college or university level and include investigations

of Lakie (23), Moore (38), and Stalnacker (54).

The available research on attitudes toward athletic competition at school level has been done by McGee (27) and Scott (50). The following is a short analysis of the data of the latter two investigations;

- (a) In both cases the majority of the groups tested tended to be favourable toward intensive competition at elementary and high school level.
- (b) Parents and coaches, in both surveys, showed a significantly more favourable attitude towards intensive competition than the administrators and teachers of the schools tested. The administrators seemed to be the least favourable towards this type of competition.
- (c) Scott found that the men indicated more favourable attitudes towards interschools' competition than women did.
- (d) Mc Gee also found that coaches and boys' Physical Education teachers had a significantly higher mean score (more positive toward athletic competition) than the girls' Physical Education teachers.
- (e) Scott observed that individuals who had experience with competition were more in favour of it than those with no experience.
- (f) Scott found no definite geographic differences in the distribution of attitudes between cities and states.

These were the main findings of these two investigations. In the present survey these findings and others will be dealt with in more detail in the relevant sections.

CHAPTER SIX: PROCEDURE.

A survey of the current attitudes towards intensive competition was made in the Cape Peninsula. The group tested consisted of a sample of the Parents, Teachers and Pupils of this area and the results were based on the data obtained from using the questionnaire method.

(a) The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was compiled on the basis of the work of Scott (50) and Mc Gee (27). Reference was also made to the work of Mc Cue (26).

Mc Cue compiled 77 statements in the following way; A survey of prevailing attitudes toward intensive competition in team games was made in order to secure a comprehensive sampling of current ideas. The sources used were current professional and popular literature and individual interviews. Thirty-five persons were interviewed and asked to talk informally on their ideas about competition in team games. Those interviewed represented varied experience and points of view. They included students, instructors, administrators, parents, skilled athletes, coaches, ministers and doctors. As a result of this, 145 statements pertaining to intensive competition were prepared according to criteria of Wang (62), Thurstone and Chave (58). On the basis of all the available material, criteria were then established for the classification of the statements into seven areas or special phases. Stability or consistency of the attitudes of individuals was investigated by administering the final form of the scale to 25 individuals from the Women's Physical Education Department a second time, 10 to 13 weeks after they had completed the first questionnaire. The product moment correlation between total scores on the first and second responses was 0.70. On the basis of this test 77 items were retained.

Scott (50, p.357) made use of a revision of the Mc Cue attitude scale. The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient computed between the first and second administration of the revised attitude scale was 0.90.

Mc Gee (27) also made use of the Mc Cue and the Scott methods. The scale items were obtained from reading articles, books, year-books, editorials, and other attitude scales concerned with competition. The 80 items were submitted to 94 graduate stu-

dents of the State University of Iowa. They made two different types of responses to the attitude scale at the first administration of the test. The favourability rating was the first one. Each person indicated whether he thought each statement was favourable or unfavourable to competition. The respondents answered on a five-point scale ranging from extremely favourable or extremely unfavourable with neutral in the middle. This rating served to evaluate each item. If 70% of the group agreed on the favourability of the item it was retained in the scale. As a result of the ratings, 12 of the 82 items had to be discarded.

In the present project the work of the three abovementioned investigations was taken as a basis for item construction and 70 items best suited to South African conditions were then selected.

The 70 items consisted of 7 groups of 10 statements each and covered the following areas; Personality development, Recreation, Physical development, Public relations, Health and safety, Skill, Human relations.

In order to test the validity of the statements two methods were used;

- (a) The questionnaire was submitted to 23 high school teachers of a variety of subjects to evaluate each statement according to its favourability or unfavourability toward intensive competition. These teachers were from various areas in the Cape Province.
- (b) Use was made of an Item Analysis table. (See Pilot Surveys).

The questionnaire was printed in Afrikaans as well as in English. Because the original statements were in English translations had to be made in the following way; Each statement was translated into Afrikaans by a qualified language teacher. This translated version was then given to another similarly qualified teacher to translate back into English. In this manner any discrepancies and possible misinterpretations, caused by the translation process, were eliminated.

(b) Scoring

An individual to whom the questionnaire was submitted had either to agree or disagree with each statement and thus could obtain a score anywhere in the range of 0 - 70. A score ranging between 0 and 35 was taken as showing an unfavourable attitude toward intensive competition. A score of more than 36 was regarded as a favourable attitude toward intensive competition. (In the analysis of the data more precise and sub-divisions are made). Each item carried the same weight and, therefore, for each positive response made toward intensive competition one point was scored. A negative response toward intensive competition scored zero points.

(c) Pilot surveys.

Two pilot surveys were carried out before the questionnaire was found to be satisfactory for the final survey. Only the data obtained in the final survey was used in the final analysis.

(i) First Pilot Survey (August, 1967).

A total of 78 questionnaires was mailed to parents and teachers of senior pupils in an Eastern Province high school and 67 questionnaires handed out to standard 9 and 10 boys of a boys' high school in another town in the same area. The following numbers of returned questionnaires were available for statistical analysis;

Parents	29
Teachers	17
Pupils	67
	<hr/>
Total	113
	<hr/>

The following mean scores were registered;

Parents	57.1
Teachers	40.75
Pupils	40.61

The discrepancies between the pilot survey and the final survey results could be due to the shortcomings in the questionnaire which were revealed when the questionnaires were tested

for validity (and subsequently rectified) and small size of the pilot sample. Also, the pilot survey group came from a different geographic area and socio-economic group. Scott (50, p.354) did not find any significant difference in attitude towards intensive competition in different geographic areas but in the present survey the pilot survey was definitely done in a socio-economic area of a lower standard than the area from which the sample of the final survey was drawn.

In order to test the validity of the statements, use was made of an Item analysis table. "This is a table of item-difficulty and item-discrimination indices for given proportions of success in the highest 27% and the lowest 27% of the normal bivariate population. In the tables, the values of p are proportions of correct responses in the total (100%) sample which were estimated from the p_H and p_L , the proportions of correct responses in the highest 27% and in the lowest 27%, respectively. The estimation of p introduces a special problem. A rough estimate of p could be made by averaging the values p_H and p_L , as has been done in other tables of this type. It has been observed, however, that this estimate is subject to systematic error, particularly in the cases of extreme values of p and high values of the distribution index. For a normal distribution, the mean of p_H and p_L overestimates values of p greater than 0.5. Accordingly, the values of p in the present table have been computed from tables of the normal bivariate distribution, and are thus free of this type of error.

The discrimination index is the correlation which corresponds to the given value of p_H and p_L in a normal bivariate distribution. It is the correlation between the criterion score which forms the basis for the selection of the high and low 27% groups, in the continuous score assumed to underlie responses to the items". (7).

Each item was evaluated in the following way:

- (a) The total score of each individual was recorded.
- (b) The top 27% and the bottom 27% were selected on the basis of the total scores of the individuals who were tested.

(c) The pH and pL values were calculated as follows;

$$pH = \frac{\text{(Number of individuals in the top 27\% who answered positively to the specific item)}}{\text{(Number of individuals in the top 27\%)}}$$

$$pL = \frac{\text{(Number of individuals in the bottom 27\% who answered positively to the specific item)}}{\text{(Number of individuals in the bottom 27\%)}}$$

If the item discrimination index, deduced from the tables using the pH and pL values, was below 0.20 or into the negative range the item had to be discarded or at least amended.

After the first pilot survey 15 of the items seemed of doubtful validity and were either discarded or amended. This could have been the cause of the exceptionally high scores obtained by the people tested in this first pilot survey.

(ii) Second pilot survey. (March 1968)

120 questionnaires were handed out to standard 7 pupils in a Cape Town school to take home to their parents. 47 questionnaires were mailed to teachers all over the Cape Province and 92 questionnaires were handed out to standard 10 boys in a Cape Town boys' school and 58 to standard 10 girls of a girls' school in the same area.

The following numbers of questionnaires were completed and returned:

Parents	88
Teachers	30
Boys	92
Girls	<u>58</u>
Total	<u>268</u>

The following mean scores were recorded:

Parents	43.5
Teachers	45.4
Pupils	40.6

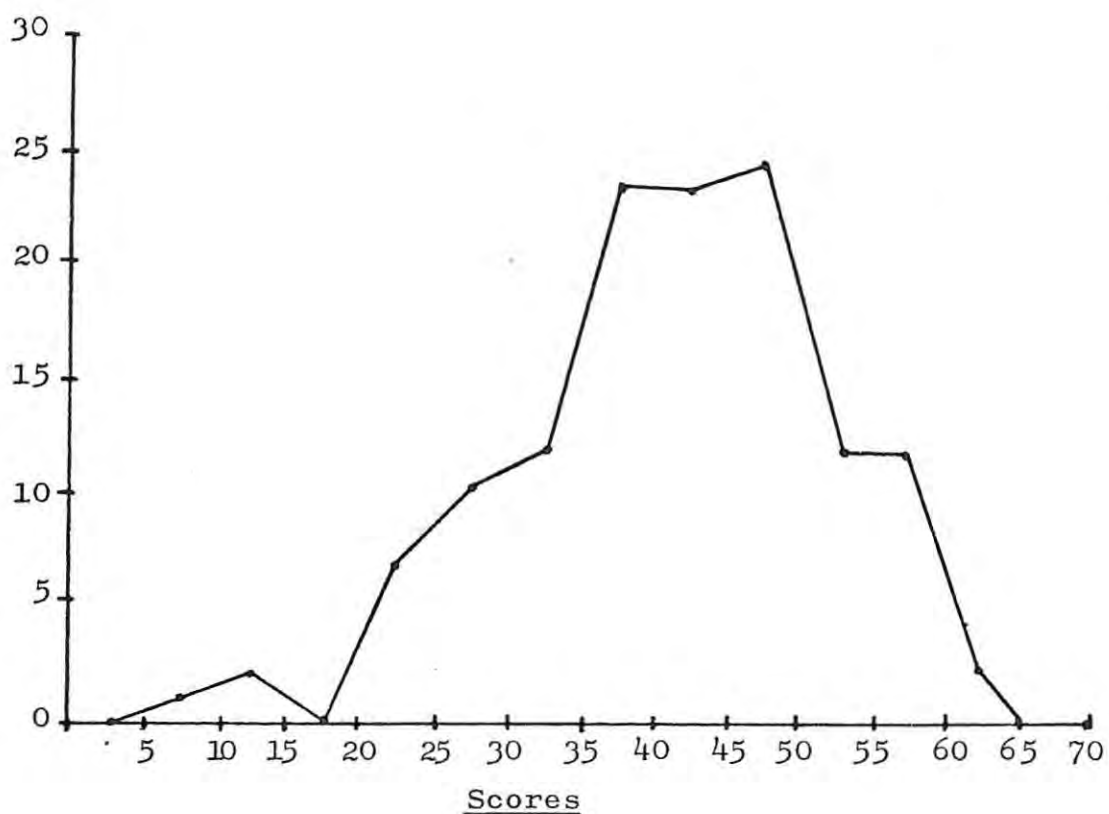
After using the item analysis tables four statements were found to be of doubtful validity. One of the items was discarded while three others were amended.

(d) The final survey. (1969)

The revised questionnaire was first sent out to the parents of pupils in a boys' school in Cape Town. The returned questionnaires (N = 107) showed, after using the item analysis tables, that all the statements were in order for use in the final survey and, therefore, no further pilot surveys were attempted. (These 107 questionnaires were also included in the statistical analysis of the final survey).

A total of approximately 3320 questionnaires were sent out. The numbers are given as approximate because some of the questionnaires were handed out by teachers in some schools to their pupils to take home to their parents for completion and returning by post. In other cases the questionnaires were directly posted to the parents. The great majority of the questionnaires to parents and teachers were dispatched in this way. The questionnaires were then returned by means of an enclosed, addressed and stamped envelope. The large number of questionnaires and the means of distributing and ensuring that they were returned proved to be expensive and made it impossible to send out additional questionnaires later when it appeared that the scores obtained by some groups tested were not perfectly normally distributed. This could possibly have been eliminated by increasing the size of the sample. On the other hand, the frequency polygons showed that the most of the irregularities appeared at the extreme ends of the polygons. A typical example of this is the polygon of the mean scores of girls belonging to the category that regarded themselves as academically above average.

FREQUENCY POLYGON OF THE SCORES OF GIRLS
(Academic results above average)



The break-down of the questionnaires that were sent out is as follows:

Parents	1600
Teachers	320
Pupils	1400
Total:	<u>3320</u>

1715 questionnaires were available for final statistical analysis. This consisted of the following:

<u>Group.</u>	<u>N.</u>	<u>% Return</u>
Parents	524	32.75%
Teachers	152	47.50%
Pupils	1039	74.21%
Total:	<u>1715</u>	<u>51.66%</u>

(d) Selecting the sample

Lists were drawn up of high schools in the Cape Peninsula. The schools on the lists were of approximately the same size and were grouped in the following categories:

- Boys' schools (English medium)
- Girls' schools (English medium)
- Afrikaans Co-educational schools
- English Co-educational schools.

By making use of random sampling within each of the above categories two schools were selected in each category. The parents, teachers and pupils of these 8 schools were to serve as the sample. One school could not see its way clear to cooperate and a substitute from the original list had to be found.

After permission to carry out the survey had been granted by the Cape Education Department and the principals of the schools concerned, the questionnaires were sent out. Questionnaires were distributed by making use of random sampling within the 8 schools. In some cases the parents of Junior pupils (Standard 6) had to complete the questionnaire and in other schools parents of Senior pupils (Standard 9 and 10) received the questionnaires. In the case of the pupils the questionnaires were handed out to them by their teachers. With the exception of one school, all the questionnaires to parents and teachers were mailed directly to them and returned by means of stamped and

addressed envelope that was enclosed with the despatched questionnaire. In the case of one school the questionnaires were given to pupils to be handed to their parents and returned by means of the stamped and addressed envelope.

CHAPTER SEVEN: RESULTS OF THE FINAL SURVEY.

- (a) A comparison of attitudes of parents, teachers and pupils toward intensive competition:

In order to indicate the proportions of people in the survey who were in favour of interschools' competition, percentages were calculated from the raw scores of the data;

TABLE I.

	<u>Parents</u>	<u>Teachers</u>	<u>Pupils</u>
Positive toward competition (36+)	72%	69.4%	81%
Negative toward competition (35-)	28%	30.6%	19%

Table I shows that the pupil group has the highest percentage of individuals who are in favour of interschools' competition. They are followed by the parents and then the teachers. Scott (50) and Mc Gee (27) also found that parents were more favourably inclined to interschools' competition than the teachers.

TABLE II.

	<u>Parents</u>	<u>Teachers</u>	<u>Pupils</u>
Highly in favour of competition. (56 - 70)	24.5%	19.2%	13.9%
In favour of competition. (36 - 55)	47.5%	50.2%	67.1%
Unfavourable toward competition. (21 - 25)	18.6%	24.4%	17.3%
Highly unfavourable toward competition. (0 - 20)	9.4%	6.2%	1.7%

When we analyse the data further as in Table II it is apparent that pupils, who showed a large majority in favour of competition, are more conservative and homogeneous in attitude. Parents scored the highest percentage in the group that are highly in favour of competition, followed by teachers and then pupils. It is also noticeable that the parents are more diverse in their opinions than the teachers and pupils. At the other end of the scale 9.4% of all parents tested were strongly against intensive competition, followed by 6.2% of the teachers and only 1.7% of the pupils.

An analysis of variance was calculated in order to determine whether there was any significant difference between the mean scores of parents, teachers and pupils.

"The parametric technique for testing whether several samples have come from identical populations is the analysis of variance or F test. The assumptions associated with the statistical model underlying the F test are these: that the scores or observations are independently drawn from normally distributed populations; that the populations all have the same variance; and that the means in the normally distributed populations are linear combinations of "effects" due to rows and columns, i.e. that the effects are additive. In addition the F test requires at least interval measurement of the variables involved."(52, pp. 159 - 60)

There seemed to be no reason to suppose that the above assumptions had been violated. Therefore, analysis of variance appeared to be the indicated statistical method.

"Circumstances sometimes require that we design an experiment so that more than two samples or conditions can be studied simultaneously. When three or more samples or conditions are to be compared in an experiment, it is necessary to use a statistical test which will indicate whether there is an over-all difference among the k samples or conditions before one picks

out any pair of samples in order to test the significance of the differences between them.

Cases have been reported in the research literature (Mc Nemar, 1955, p. 234) in which an over-all test of five samples yields insignificant results (leads to the acceptance of H_0) but two-sample tests of the larger differences among the five samples yield significant findings. Such a posteriori selection tends to capitalize on chance, and therefore, we can have no confidence in a decision involving k samples in which the analysis consisted only of testing two samples at a time.

It is only when an over-all test (a k-sample test) allows us to reject the null hypothesis that we are justified in employing a procedure for testing for significant differences between any two of the k samples." (52, p.160)

The following computing formulas were used to calculate F: (18)

$$SST = \sum_{j=1}^3 \sum_{i=1}^{n_j} X_{ij}^2 - \frac{T_{..}^2}{N}$$

$$SSA = \sum_{j=1}^3 \frac{T_{.j}^2}{n_j} - \frac{T_{..}^2}{N}$$

$$SSW = SST - SSA$$

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE.

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	SSA	(3-1)=2	$\frac{SSA}{2}$	$\frac{MSA}{MSW}$
Within groups	SSW	(1715-3)=1712	$\frac{SSW}{1712}$	
Total	SST	1714		

Example; Comparing parents, teachers and pupils.

$$\begin{aligned} SST &= 1122182 + 323990 + 2158085 - \frac{(75471)^2}{1715} \\ &= 3604257 - 3321208 \\ &= \underline{283049} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} SSA &= \frac{(22633)^2}{524} + \frac{(6661)^2}{152} + \frac{(46180)^2}{1039} - 331208 \\ &= 3322025 - 3321208 \\ &= \underline{817} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} SSW &= 283049 - 817 \\ &= \underline{282232} \end{aligned}$$

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE.

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	817	(3-1)=2	$\frac{817}{2}$	$\frac{408.5}{164.855}$
Within groups	2822	(1715-3)	$\frac{282232}{1712}$	
Total	283049	1714	164.855	2.4779

The result (F= 2.478) showed that there was no significant difference, at the 1% or 5% level, between the mean scores of these three groups of parents, teachers and pupils. Scott (50, p.354) found F= 18.84; $F_{01} = 4.62$. This meant a significant difference between the mean scores of the three populations of parents, teachers and administrators. Mc Gee (27, p.64) applied the X^2 test and found a value of $X^2 = 13.83$, that was not significant at the 1% level of confidence and thus indicated homogeneity of variances.

(b) A comparison between the attitudes of various categories of PARENTS toward intensive competition.

(i) Type of school:

The value of F was calculated to establish whether there was a significant difference between the means of parents of the four categories of schools tested, namely English Boys' schools; English Girls' schools; Afrikaans Co-educational schools; English Co-educational schools.

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE.

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	2032	(4-1)	$\frac{2032}{3}$	$\frac{677.33}{274.1712}$
Within groups	142569	(524-4)	$\frac{142569}{520}$	
Totals	14460	523	274.1712	2.4705

The result of $F = 2.471$ showed no significant difference, at the 1% or 5% level of confidence, between the attitudes of parents of pupils in the mentioned four categories of schools. This was also the case with the teachers of these different types of schools.

(ii) Sex of parent:

The significance of a difference between means of two uncorrelated samples was calculated by using the "t" test.
(34)

"t" was computed by the following formula: (34, p.74)

$$t = \frac{\text{Diff}}{S_{\text{Diff}}} = \frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{s(\bar{X} - \bar{Y})}$$

"t" was the evaluated by determining "the probability that a value of t as large as, or larger than, the obtained

value (which was based on the obtained difference between the means of the two samples) could occur on the basis of chance variations in the selection of the samples from the same population. " (34, p.74) Use was made of Fisher's Table of t. (34, p.87)

No significant difference was found between the attitudes of fathers ($\bar{X} = 44.03$) and that of mothers ($\bar{X} = 43.15$) toward intensive competition. ($t = 0.679$; $P = .4$) The reason for this could possibly be that both parents experience the same situations in their child's competitive programme, or, at least, share the same views because of the transmission of ideas, interpretations and attitudes toward the competitive programme of their child, who is of common interest to them.

Scott (50, p.355) found that men scored significantly higher at the 0.26% level of confidence and attributes it to the fact that men are more closely involved with the coaching and administration of competitive sport. This may be the case with men and women in general but when parents are involved in the question of the competitive sport at school level the experiences of their own child could form the basis on which a common attitude toward the programme is established.

(iii) Age of child:

A significant difference was found between the attitudes of parents of junior pupils ($\bar{X} = 45.75$) and the parents of senior pupils ($\bar{X} = 42.39$) ($t = 2.679$; $P = < .01$)

The cause of this is probably in the fact that the competition in the high schools becomes more intensive and that parents might, in the course of the pupil's education, become more aware of the disadvantages of the competitive athletic programme in our schools. A few significant incidents encountered by the parent in his experience with the competitive programme,

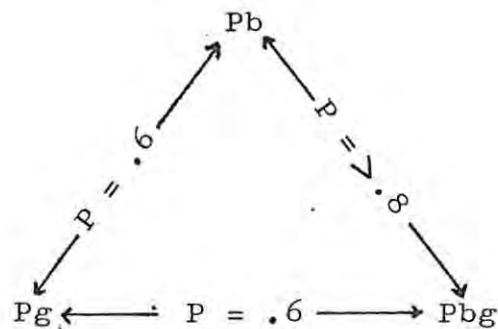
in which his child participates, could effect a change of attitude of that particular parent toward this type of activity.

(iv) Sex of child

There was no significant difference in the mean scores of parents of both boys and girls ($\bar{X} = 44.03$) and the parents of boys only ($\bar{X} = 43.91$) or the parents of girls only ($\bar{X} = 42.94$). This is in line with the results found when comparisons were made between the attitudes of parents of pupils of the different types of schools.

The following diagram compares the attitudes of the three categories of parents toward intensive competition:

(Pb = Parents of boys only; Pg = Parents of girls only; Pbg = Parents of boys and girls.)



(v) Achievement of child at sport:

18.70% of the parents thought that their children were above average in sport. These parents were significantly more in favour of the competitive programme ($\bar{X} = 46.63$) than the 12.60% of the parents who rated their children as below average in sport ($X = 39.31$) ($t = 3.183$; $P = < .01$)

The observation of Scott in this connection is that "this higher favourability expressed by persons with experience may be partially attributed to several factors;

- (1) The personal satisfaction gained as participants in interscholastic athletic programs

- (2) The general cultural emphasis on the values resulting from athletic competition
- (3) The pressures to develop winning teams at the high school level
- (4) The great spectator interest in seeing youngsters perform
- (5) Parents' desire for their childrens' success in prestige events, and
- (6) A reflection of the youngsters' enthusiasm and intense interest in their athletic contests." (50, p.354)

Mc Gee also found that parents of children who were good at sport were more favourably inclined to interschools' competition than those parents whose children were not so good at sport. (27, p.64)

Parents whose children are good at sport may get more satisfaction sharing the achievements of their children at sport and are perhaps inclined to accept certain facts more readily and with a less critical attitude than the parents of children who are only average or below average at sport.

(vi) Achievement of parent at sport:

20.42% of the parents tested evaluated their own sport achievements at school as above average. There was a difference of doubtful significance between the attitude of these parents ($\bar{X} = 44.18$) and the 16.04% of the parents that regarded their sport achievements at school as below the average ($\bar{X} = 40.35$) ($t = 1.751$; $P = 0.1$)

(vii) Participation and interest of parent in sport;

A total of 36.9% of the parents tested were taking an active part in sport. Of this figure 36.6% were parents of junior pupils and 37.7% were parents of senior pupils. (The percentage, 59.87%, of teachers taking part in sport is considerably higher).

Of all the parents tested 62.79% stated that they were keen sport followers and scored a mean score significantly higher ($\bar{X} = 47.45$) than the 37.21% of the parents that stated that they were not keen sport followers. ($\bar{X} = 38.23$)
($t = 7.158$; $P = < .01$)

This result was expected. Parents who take an active part in sport or, at least, take a positive interest in it, would naturally be aware of some of the advantageous effects of athletic competition and would possibly be less critical of, or even refuse to notice, the defects of the competitive athletic programme.

(viii) Academic ability and achievement of child:

Of all the parents tested 39.88% regarded their children as being above average as far as academic ability was concerned. This group ($\bar{X} = 41.68$) did not show a significantly different attitude toward intensive competition than the small group (5.92%) of the parents who regarded their children as below average as regards academic achievement. ($\bar{X} = 43.00$)
($t = .5056$; $P = .6$)

60.68% of the parents thought that their children were doing as well as they should at their schoolwork. ($\bar{X} = 43.97$) Only 39.32% of the parents were not satisfied that their children achieved enough at school. ($\bar{X} = 43.06$) There was no significant difference in the attitudes of these two groups of parents toward the competitive programme in interschools' athletics.
($t = .7188$; $P = .4$)

It is interesting to note that the pupils did not share the same optimistic view of the academic performances. Of the 1039 pupils tested, 26.94% regarded themselves as being above the average in academic achievement as compared to 39.32% of the parents. In contrast to the 60.68% of the parents only 26.95% of the pupils thought that they were doing their best

at their schoolwork. It could possibly be that parents are somewhat out of real contact with the school or possibly that pupils, as in the case of some of our university students, hide behind a statement such as "I did not even try" or "I did the absolute minimum of work for this examination" to prevent other pupils or students from getting the impression that they are academically poorly endowed.

(c) A comparison between the Attitudes of various categories of TEACHERS toward intensive competition.

69.4% of the 152 teachers tested showed a favourable attitude toward intensive competition. On the other hand 30.6% of the sample of teachers reacted unfavourably toward intensive athletic competition. This represented the largest group that expressed an unfavourable attitude.

(i) Type of school

The types of schools tested were:

- (a) Boys' Schools (English)
- (b) Girls' Schools (English)
- (c) English Co-educational Schools
- (d) Afrikaans Co-educational Schools

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE.

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	769	(4-1)	$\frac{769}{3}$	$\frac{256}{231}$
Within groups	34320	(152-4)	$\frac{34320}{148}$	
Totals	35089	151	231.8919	1.104

The result ($F = 1.104$) showed no significant difference at the 5% or 1% level of confidence. This was not the case with the pupils of the same four types of schools. The reason for this could possibly be that pupils are more directly and profoundly effected by the competitive programme of a certain type of school. While the pupils are "in the middle of it", adults probably have more or less fixed attitudes toward competitive athletics and are not so easily influenced by the programme offered by a specific type of school.

(ii) Type of subject taught.

A surprising finding was that teachers in the sciences were significantly more in favour of this type of competition ($\bar{X} = 47.45$) than the teachers in the arts. ($\bar{X} = 40.41$) ($t = 3.0742$; $P = <.01$)

The reason for this is obscure. Teachers in the arts are possibly more concerned with the "humanistic" development of the child, (which is usually based on philosophical assumption), as opposed to the science teachers who are probably influenced by their discipline which is based on analysis and the development of hypothesis from that analysis.

(iii) Sex of teacher.

Male teachers were not significantly more in favour of intensive competition ($\bar{X} = 43.89$) than the female teachers tested ($\bar{X} = 43.79$) ($t = .0340$; $P = .8$)

This was in line with the findings when fathers' and mothers' attitudes were compared.

Mc Gee, on the other hand, found a significant difference in attitude toward intensive competition between girls' Physical Education teachers and boys' Physical Education teachers. The female teachers, in this case, were less favourable in attitude toward intensive competition than the male teachers. (27, p.65)

(iv) Participation and interest in sport.

A large percentage (59.87%) of the teachers tested were still taking part in sport in an active role. These teachers were significantly more in favour of intensive competition ($\bar{X} = 47.00$) than the 40.13% who did not take part in sport. ($\bar{X} = 38.42$) ($t = 3.6604$; $P = <.01$)

As expected the large proportion of teachers in the sample who stated that they were keen sport followers (69.74%) adopted a significantly more favourable attitude toward intensive competition ($\bar{X} = 48.00$) than the 30.26% who declared that they were not keen sport followers. ($\bar{X} = 37.20$) ($t = 4.7788$; $P = < .01$)

(d) A comparison between the attitudes of various categories of PUPILS toward intensive competition.

Of the 1039 pupils tested a majority of 81% were in favour of intensive competition in their athletic programme at school. This represented the biggest group that was favourably inclined toward this type of competition. On the other hand it is clear that this group is more conservative in attitude toward the question than the other two populations of teachers and parents. Only 13.9% of the pupils were highly in favour of intensive competition and on the other end of the scale only 1.7% adopted an intensely unfavourable attitude toward the competitive programme. The mean score of the pupils ($\bar{X} = 44.54$) was not found to be significantly higher than the mean scores of the parents tested ($\bar{X} = 43.19$) and that of the teachers ($\bar{X} = 43.83$).

(i) Type of school.

In contrast with the parents and teachers of the four types of schools included in the survey, a significant difference was found between the attitudes of the pupils of different categories of schools.

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE.

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	7345	(4-1)	$\frac{7345}{3}$	$\frac{2448.3}{94.8763}$
Within groups	98197	(1039-4)	$\frac{98197}{1035}$	
Totals	105542	1038	94.8763	25.8052

The result ($F = 25.805$) gave a significant difference of $p = <.01$. It was now necessary to establish where the difference actually was to be found. This was done in the following way:

The attitudes of these groups were compared by using Scheffe's method of multiple comparisons. (18, pp. 57 - 9)

Example: Comparing attitudes of pupils in boys' schools and pupils in girls' schools.

At 1% level.

$$\begin{aligned} S^2 &= 3(F_{99,3,1035}) \\ &= 3(3.78) \\ &= 11.34 \end{aligned}$$

$$S = 3.367$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\sigma}_L &= 94.49 \left(\frac{1}{227} + \frac{1}{266} \right) \\ &= 0.76,86,9 \\ &= 0.8768 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} S\hat{\sigma}_L &= 3.367 \times 0.8767 \\ &= 2.9518 \end{aligned}$$

Limits: $4.16 - 2.95 \leq L \leq 4.16 + 2.95$

The limits did not cover zero and the difference between the attitudes of pupils in boys' schools was, therefore, significant at the 1% level. The implications were further investigated, as follows below, and are given in the summary at the end of this section.

Comparing attitudes of pupils in English boys' schools and English Co-educational schools:

Limits: $6.66 - 3.1969665 \leq L \leq 6.66 + 3.1969665$

The limits did not cover zero and made the difference between the attitudes of the pupils of these two types of schools significant at the 1% level.

Comparing attitudes of pupils of English boys' schools and Afrikaans Co-educational schools.

By inspection a significant difference on the 1% level was noted between the attitudes of pupils of the abovementioned schools.

Comparing the attitudes of pupils in English girls' schools and English Co-educational schools.

Limits: $2.5 - 2.566 \leq L \leq 2.5 + 2.566$

The limits did cover zero and, therefore, no significant difference between the attitudes of the pupils of these two categories of schools was found.

Comparing the attitudes of pupils in English girls' schools and Afrikaans Co-educational schools.

There was no significant difference found on the 1% level but on the 5% level the limits did not cover zero and, therefore, the difference between the attitudes of these two types of schools proved to be significant at the 5% level.

Limits: $2.62 - 2.21 \leq L \leq 2.26 + 2.21$

Comparing the attitudes of pupils in English Co-educational and Afrikaans Co-educational schools.

By inspection it appeared that there was no difference of significance between the attitude of pupils in English Co-educational and the attitudes of pupils in Afrikaans Co-educational schools.

The explanation of the abovementioned calculations could possibly be found in the difference in the social make-up of boys as compared to that of girls.

Scott observed that men and boys are more competitively and athletically inclined than females. (50, p.355) In the boys'

school sport, achievement and physical prowess play an important role in the evaluation of one pupil by another. The magnitude of the role and place of sport in the life of the pupil was shown in this survey by the high percentage of boys and girls participating in sport and the interest shown in school-sport.

In the boys' school, the rugby hero, for example, is esteemed higher in status than, for example, the outstanding athlete in an all-girls' school. The female athlete will enjoy some admiration from her fellow pupils but this admiration will not be as universal as in the case of the outstanding athlete in the boys' school. The girl will, on the other hand, admire the boy who is a good athlete, not because she is particularly interested in that type of sport but because of the status he enjoys among others, especially among his own sex. Association with such a boy might mean prestige. Girls might even take the opposite view as regards athletes of their own sex and it would not be unusual that an outstanding girl athlete might be regarded by her peers as not very feminine.

This difference of the magnitude of importance attached to attainments on the sports field could have a neutralising affect in the co-educational school where social prestige is not derived from sports achievements only.

(ii) Sex of pupil

Analysis of the data showed that girls did not score significantly more favourably in the matter of intensive competition ($\bar{X} = 44.86$) than boys ($\bar{X} = 43.83$).
($t = 1.5853$; $P = .2$)

Because more value is placed on the competitive programme and achievement in such a programme boys could be more aware of the dangers of these activities. The tension and seriousness that could be associated with the competitive athletic

programme could make it less enjoyable for the boy (especially for the boy who does not excel at sport). This might influence him to adopt a less favourable attitude than the girl who approaches her sport with less pressure and tension. Any difference of this nature was found to be of doubtful significance in the present investigation.

(iii) Interest and participation in sport.

Of all the pupils tested 86.82% were actively taking part in sport. This group was found to be significantly more in favour ($\bar{X} = 44.72$) than the 13.18% who did not take part in sport ($\bar{X} = 40.50$),
($t = 3.9147$; $P = <.01$)

The 18.58% of the girls who did not take part in sport ($\bar{X} = 41.30$) were not significantly more in favour in attitude toward intensive competition than the small proportion of boys (8.06%) who did not take part in sport. ($\bar{X} = 38.73$)
($t = 1.1102$; $P = .2$)

As expected, the 91.94% of the boys who took part in sport ($\bar{X} = 44.14$) were more in favour of competitive sport than the small group who did not take part in sport at school ($\bar{X} = 38.73$).
($t = 2.5774$; $P = .01$)

The difference in attitude of pupils that took part in sport and pupils not participating was even more markedly coming forward among girls. The 81.42% of the girls who were active in sport, scored higher mean scores ($\bar{X} = 45.50$) than the group (18.58%) who did not take part in sport ($\bar{X} = 41.30$).
($t = 3.5473$; $P = <.01$)

The implication of this, and other findings, will be discussed at the end of this section.

Although 86.82% of the pupils tested took part in sport, only 72.28% stated that they were keenly interested in sport. This again proved that many of the pupils were taking part in the competitive programme (possibly because of social and other pressures) although they were not particularly interested in it.

The 72.28% of the pupils who stated that they were keen sport followers were significantly more in favour of competitive athletics ($\bar{X} = 47.44$) than the 27.72% who were not keen sport followers ($\bar{X} = 39.13$).

($t = 12.1865$; $P = <.01$)

There was a difference of doubtful significance between the attitude of boys and girls in the groups of pupils who were keen sport followers. The mean score of the girls was 46.76 and that of boys 45.51.

($t = 1.7870$; $P = .1$)

In the group of pupils who were keen sport followers the girls again were significantly more favourable in attitude than the boys and this difference in attitude proved to be of significance. The mean score of the girls was 40.63 and that of the boys 36.30.

($t = 2.9617$; $P = <.01$)

Although most of the girls, in general, are not going to extremes as regards the role of sport in their lives, it seems that they see no harm in the programme itself. They are, on the one hand, not against the principle of competitive sport at school level, but, on the other hand, it seems that they are not over-keen to put a personal effort into it by competing enthusiastically in such a programme.

(iv) Achievement at sport.

It was found that the 17.04% of the pupils who regarded them-

selves as above average at sport were more favourable in attitude toward intensive competition ($\bar{X} = 45.70$) than the 16.55% that thought that they were below the average at sport achievement. ($\bar{X} = 42.21$)
($t = 2.9526$; $P = <.01$)

In the groups that regarded themselves as above average and average at sport there was no significant difference in attitude between the boys and girls but in the group that regarded itself as below average at sport, the girls tended to be more in favour of competition ($\bar{X} = 43.61$) than the boys who were below average sportsmen. ($\bar{X} = 39.23$)
($t = 2.2188$; $P = <.01$)

The reason for this could possibly be found in the fact that girls are perhaps protected by a "watered down" programme. Lack of pressures of spectators; the lack of emphasis on prestige value of the school based on its sports achievements; the absence of the win-at-all-cost spirit, could eliminate many of the dangers of the competitive programme and make it more acceptable to the girl. She herself may not excel at sport but does not then condemn it (as compensation for her own inability to achieve high standards) and accepts and tolerates competitive athletics more readily than the boy who does not quite meet the requirements and standards set in a boys' community.

In line with the findings so far it was also found that the 61.60% of the pupils who represented their schools at sport ($\bar{X} = 45.61$) were significantly more in favour of competition in school sport than the 38.41% of the pupils who did not represent their schools at sport. ($\bar{X} = 42.29$)
($t = 5.0030$; $P = <.01$)

The same hypotheses that applies to the below average girl-athlete is possibly also true when it was observed that the 41.22% of the girls who represented their schools at sport

($\bar{X} = 47.64$) were definitely more in favour of intensive competition than the 81.05% of the boys belonging to the same category ($\bar{X} = 44.63$) ($t = 3.884$; $P = <.01$)

The same observation was made in the category of pupils who did not represent their schools at sport. The girls scored higher scores ($\bar{X} = 43.09$) than the boys ($\bar{X} = 39.93$) ($t = 2.3742$; $P = <.01$)

Again it can be reasoned that the pressure of winning is not as heavy in the girls' community as among boys. The weaker girls could still enjoy their sport more than the weak boys because of a shift of values. The boys who represent their schools at sport are in direct contact with the advantages and disadvantages of interschools' competitions and are aware of the weaknesses in such a programme. They are the people directly involved in an atmosphere of intensive competition and the issues arising out of it. It could be that they feel the exploitations and dangers, and, although they still participate, (because of social and other pressures) they do not always enjoy it as much as they ought to because of the over-emphasis placed on it in some of the boys' communities. This could be particularly true in the case of the boy who is below or just average at sport.

(v) Academic ability and achievement of pupil.

About one out of every ten boys regards himself as academically below average. This obviously, is not a valid evaluation of the academic ability of a pupil but some interesting observations can be made when studying attitudes toward competition and comparing those with the academic standing of the pupils.

The 26.94% of the pupils who thought that they were above average in academic achievement ($\bar{X} = 42.62$) were significantly less in favour of intensive athletic competition than the 10.42% of the pupils who evaluated themselves as below average in academic achievement. ($\bar{X} = 45.95$) ($t = 3.4392$; $P = <.01$)

It could be argued that these pupils who were not good at sport at school (in the study so far, achievement at sport seemed to have had a positive correlation with attitude toward intensive athletic competition) evaluated themselves as above average in academic ability when they could possibly not make the same evaluation in sporting ability.

In the groups of pupils who regard themselves either as above average or below average on the academic side, there was no significant difference in attitude between the girls and boys of the same categories. The exception was in the category of pupils who thought that they were academically average. Here the boys were definitely more in favour of intensive athletic competition ($\bar{X} = 44.96$) than the girls ($\bar{X} = 40.56$) ($t = 5.1983$; $P = <.01$)

The 26.95% of the pupils who stated that they did do as well at their schoolwork as they ought to ($\bar{X} = 43.41$) scored less favourably toward intensive athletic competition than the pupils who were not contented that they were doing their best ($\bar{X} = 44.56$)

It would have been interesting to establish whether it was thought that the sports programme at school was a major reason for preventing the pupils of doing their best. It is not unusual for a pupil to find an excuse, eliminating his own reluctance to work, for poor academic results. This excuse is often set up with the aid of the parent. The sports programme of a school could serve as an excuse for the poor examination results of the pupils. Barring a child from participation in sport is one of the measures many parents often use to try to improve the academic report of the child.

The time spent on the sports field could, on the other hand, be a real cause of under-achievement. It is important to note that 71.63% of the pupils tested believed that practice periods and games often leave them over-fatigued.

(vi) Language of pupil.

In line with the results when comparisons were made between the attitudes of pupils of Afrikaans Co-educational and English Co-educational schools, no significant difference was found between the attitudes of Afrikaans pupils ($\bar{X} = 46.62$) and English pupils ($\bar{X} = 46.50$) in general.

($t = .1350$; $P = .7$)

(e) A comparison between the attitudes of parents, teachers and pupils in the various phases or sections of athletic competition and their reactions to individual statements.

The over-all attitudes of the three populations of parents, teachers and pupils have been discussed. An analysis follows of attitudes on specific issues as brought forward by studying the 7 sub-sections.

Analysing the over-all data yielded by parents, teachers and pupils, the 7 sections were rated in favourability toward intensive competition in the following order:

	<u>Average score.</u>	(Maximum score for each section = 10)
1. Physical development	6.561	
2. Health and safety	6.549	
3. Public relations	6.522	
4. Human relations	6.519	
5. Personality development	6.513	
6. Skill	6.053	
7. Reaction	5.249	

It is interesting to note from the average scores shown above that the sample thought that intensive competition is important for the physical development of the pupils. The low ranking that the sample gave to the recreational aspect of intensive competition is surprising and revealing, in the light of opinions often expressed in school staff-rooms. It is also significant to note that the value of intensive competition as regards personality development is fairly low down in the list.

Discussion of responses to the seven areas of intensive competition.

(i) Physical Development.

A significant difference was found between the attitudes of the three populations, i.e. teachers, parents and pupils, on this aspect of intensive competition.

(F = 14.48).

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE.

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	131	(3-1)	$\frac{131}{2}$	$\frac{65.5}{4.552}$
Within groups	7793	1712	$\frac{7793}{1712}$	14.4847

The next step was to determine where the difference in attitude was to be found. A significant difference was found between the attitudes of parents and pupils on the 1% level ($S\hat{e}\hat{L} = .346$) The pupils were more in favour of this aspect than their parents. It could be that the pupils are more concerned with physical development and prowess as an aim than the parents.

There was no significant difference in attitude, both on the 1% and 5% level, between the attitudes of parents and teachers. ($S\hat{e}\hat{L} = .481$) The teachers and pupils did not differ on the issue of physical development. The difference on the 5% level was not significant ($S\hat{e}\hat{L} = .453$).

Analysis of statements.

Here follow the statements pertaining to this section. No statistical analysis of the difference between the three groups of parents, teachers and pupils were made on each statement. Any single statement was not regarded as statistical significance by itself, but was included for interest.

A season of scheduled contests often makes undue physical demands on pupils.

% Agreed: Parents 46.84 Teachers 31.18 Pupils 38.00

Most coaches are mainly interested in developing the physical welfare of the pupil.

% Agreed: Parents 53.48 Teachers 31.20 Pupils 41.02

Participation in competitive sport promotes a pupil's physical condition.

% Agreed: Parents 83.3 Teachers 85.33 Pupils 88.18

Players often push themselves beyond the stage of moderate fatigue to the point of exhaustion.

% Agreed: Parents 50.00 Teachers 33.94 Pupils 47.82

It is interesting to note that the teachers' and parents' scores differed considerably on this statement.

Intensive competition is equally suited to the physical make-up of both high school boys and girls.

% Agreed: Parents 69.69 Teachers 67.89 Pupils 79.43

Practice periods as well as games leave pupils over-fatigued.

% Agreed: Parents 37.06 Teachers 21.10 Pupils 71.63

It is significant to note that the pupils thought that the intensive competitive programme leads to fatigue that is beyond moderation. The teachers, who are the coaches of such pupils, did not share the same opinion. This could possibly be a fact to keep in mind by the teachers concerned with the coaching of games.

Intensive competition in active sports promotes better physical condition in the years following participation.

% Agreed: Parents 68.69 Teachers 64.22 Pupils 71.63

Travel to and from distant competitions is excessively tiring to players.

% Agreed: Parents 39.95 Teachers 36.70 Pupils 22.20

This finding was not surprising because the schools that took part in the survey are so situated that there is no need for them to travel long distances to meet fixture arrangements.

Intensive competition teaches pupils how to build up their own good physical condition.

% Agreed: Parents 79.93 Teachers 82.56 Pupils 69.50

Participation in intensive competition usually places too much physical strain on pupils.

% Agreed: Parents: 41.31 Teachers 33.03 Pupils 44.83

(ii) Health and Safety.

There was a significant difference in attitude of the three groups on this aspect of competition. (F = 6.94; P. = < .01) The pupils again scored the highest mean score.

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE.

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	61	(3-1)	$\frac{61}{2}$	$\frac{30.5}{4.3931}$
Within groups	7521	1712	$\frac{7521}{1712}$	6.9427

There was no difference in attitude of parents (both at the 1% and 5% level) as compared with teachers. On the 5% level the value of $S\hat{\epsilon}$ was .357. There was, on further investigation, no significant difference found in attitude of the teachers and pupils. The value of $S\hat{\epsilon}$ on the 1% level was .466. The difference of attitude was significant between the mean scores of parents and pupils. Here the value of $S\hat{\epsilon}$ on the 1% level was .413.

The following statements were included in this section:

Travel arrangements used by most teams do not endanger the health or safety of a team.

% Agreed: Parents 86.10 Teachers 87.10 Pupils 88.67

Most pupils who play games are taught to keep fit in order to improve their health.

% Agreed: Parents 79.59 Teachers 57.79 Pupils 68.16

Intensive competition presents a greater danger of accidents than other phases of daily life.

% Agreed: Parents 27.6 Teachers 19.26 Pupils 24.56

Most coaches are concerned about the safety of their teams.

% Agreed: Parents 89.97 Teachers 95.31 Pupils 83.09

Noteworthy is the fact that teachers do seem to care about the players in their teams. The parents and pupils also seem to support this finding.

Most coaches are qualified to help promote the health of pupils.
% Agreed: Parents 67.38 Teachers 44.03 Pupils 62.19
The teachers did not seem to share the confidence of the pupils and parents on this matter.

Some coaches will take the risk of playing a pupil even if previous injury has made it unsafe for him.
% Agreed: Parents 19.29 Teachers 58.71 Pupils 28.27
Here again the teachers did not seem to have the same trust in coaches as the parents and pupils.

Participation in competitive sport often leads to unnecessary injury.
% Agreed: Parents 35.72 Teachers 29.35 Pupils 35.99

Competition usually helps to train pupils to develop good health habits.
% Agreed: Parents 72.93 Teachers 73.30 Pupils 66.71

Some coaches will take the chance of entering a pupil in a competition without knowing whether his health permits it.
% Agreed: Parents 45.36 Teachers 53.21 Pupils 55.17

Players in intensive competition very often receive some type of chronic injury which persists in later life.
% Agreed: Parents 38.99 Teachers 35.79 Pupils 45.99

(iii) Public relations.

No significant difference of attitude was found among the three groups tested. ($F = 1.426$ $P = 7.05$).

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	12	(3-1)	$\frac{12}{2}$	$\frac{6.00}{4.2079}$
Within groups	7204	1712	$\frac{7204}{1712}$	1.4259

Here are the statements on this section:

A desirable outlet for getting rid of too much energy is provided by participation in intensive competition.

% Agreed: Parents 72.40 Teachers 86.24 Pupils 64.86

Many schools misuse their teams as a means of advertising.

% Agreed: Parents 29.27 Teachers 35.78 Pupils 29.63

The value of competition is not sufficient to warrant large expenditure on equipment, travel, etc.

% Agreed: Parents 48.06 Teachers 58.72 Pupils 50.71

Interschools' games stimulate school spirit more than local internal contests.

% Agreed: Parents 81.08 Teachers 77.07 Pupils 80.87

A community derives prestige from the success of its teams in intertown contests.

% Agreed: Parents 78.23 Teachers 80.74 Pupils 85.88

Inter-schools' competitions are the most effective way for pupils to create community interest in the schools.

% Agreed: Parents 63.33 Teachers 49.55 Pupils 68.36

Most coaches do not think of winning as their only aim in inter-schools' competition.

% Agreed: Parents 49.03 Teachers 54.13 Pupils 49.67

The public is so interested in this type of competition that it judges schools and their staff by the success or failure of their teams.

% Agreed: Parents 49.03 Teachers 36.70 Pupils 54.08

Intensive competition usually results in spectators influencing the way in which the game is played (e.g. shouting advice from the side lines.)

% Agreed: Parents. 47.47 Teachers 33.03 Pupils 53.80

Participation helps to give most individuals self-confidence.

% Agreed: Parents 77.36 Teachers 87.18 Pupils 79.71

(iv) Human relations.

The three groups differed in degree of favourability on the issue of human relations in competitive athletics. Differences of significance were found among the parents, teachers and pupils tested. ($F = 8.648$; $P = < .01$)

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	50	(3-1)	$\frac{50}{2}$	$\frac{25}{2.8908}$
Within groups	4949	1712	$\frac{4949}{1712}$	8.6481

The difference in attitude of the three groups on this aspect of intensive competition was, however, not between the parents and the teacher groups. Both on the 5% and 1% level the difference prove to be of no significance between the two adult groups ($S\hat{\sigma}_L^2 = .384$) The teacher group did also not differ from the pupils. ($S\hat{\sigma}_L^2 = .360$) Pupils did differ from the parents in attitude on this aspect of intensive competition and were found significantly less in favour of competition as advantageous towards human relations. ($S\hat{\sigma}_L^2 = .088$) It could possibly be that adults are more aware and concerned about the values of human relations than the pupils.

The following statements were included in this section:

Participation in competition helps pupils to mix more easily with fellow boys and girls.

% Agreed: Parents 86.68 Teachers 84.41 Pupils 87.12

Participation in intensive competition makes pupils less considerate for the rights of others.

% Agreed: Parents 31.84 Teachers 31.18 Pupils 24.23

Participation in athletic competition creates more loyalty to the school than does participation in other school activities.

% Agreed: Parents 51.94 Teachers 53.12 Pupils 51.12

Interschools' competition teaches pupils to win without boasting.

% Agreed: Parents 23.76 Teachers 55.05 Pupils 54.88

A pupil is thought much of when representing the school in an interschools' team.

% Agreed: Parents 97.71 Teachers 89.00 Pupils 78.36

From this result it seems that parents attach a lot of prestige to the fact that a pupil represents his school at sport in a competitive capacity.

Membership of athletic teams prevents pupils from associating with their normal social group.

% Agreed: Parents 21.80 Teachers 10.09 Pupils 19.13

Participation helps individuals to acquire good manners.

% Agreed: Parents 60.42 Teachers 56.89 Pupils 48.99

Participation in competitive sports help to teach pupils how to behave correctly in social situations.

% Agreed: Parents 65.25 Teachers 38.52 Pupils 57.57

Most players in competitive sports are happier and better adjusted individuals than non-participants.

% Agreed: Parents 52.32 Teachers 62.38 Pupils 46.89

Many pupils who take part in competitions do not enjoy the game unless they can play before a crowd.

% Agreed: Parents 26.45 Teachers 44.03 Pupils 34.34

(v) Personality development:

On this aspect of intensive competition a significant difference in attitude was found among the three groups. ($F = 6.8117$ $P = < .01$).

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE.

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	66	(3-1)	$\frac{66}{2}$	$\frac{33}{4.8446}$
Within groups	8294	1712	$\frac{8294}{1712}$	6.8117

Teachers did not differ significantly in attitude from pupils in this section ($S\hat{\sigma}_L = .0376$) When comparing parents and teachers it seemed that these two groups did not share the same degree of favourability toward competition as regards the development of the personalities of the pupils. ($S\hat{\sigma}_L = .497$) There was also a significant difference found in degree of favourability between the parents and pupil groups ($S\hat{\sigma}_L = .036$) The parents were the most favourable toward intensive competition in this section.

The following statements were included in this section:

The experience gained in intensive competitions helps to develop leadership qualities in many individuals.

% Agreed: Parents 80.32 Teachers 79.82 Pupils 85.11

Participation in competition helps individuals to face the problems of everyday living.

% Agreed: Parents 65.85 Teachers 55.97 Pupils 45.73

The publicity used in intensive competition often disturbs a player's sense of values.

% Agreed: Parents 55.99 Teachers 83.30 Pupils 49.29

Inter-schools' contests promote a well-balanced outlook on life's values.

% Agreed: Parents 58.30 Teachers 52.30 Pupils 54.49

Competition usually helps a player to build up self-respect.

% Agreed: Parents 86.68 Teachers 82.56 Pupils 77.87

Participation in intensive competition helps players to control their emotions

% Agreed: Parents 64.09 Teachers 57.38 Pupils 48.43

Participation in competition often causes players to lose interest in other school activities.

% Agreed: Parents 52.61 Teachers 62.39 Pupils 61.01

Most players do not get the opportunity to think for themselves while playing in a team game.

% Agreed: Parents 31.27 Teachers 22.93 Pupils 36.37

Losing may often cause a pupil to cultivate a feeling of inferiority.

% Agreed: Parents 49.80 Teachers 44.71 Pupils 47.24

Winning and losing in competitive games help to prepare the pupils for the competition they meet in everyday life.

% Agreed: Parents 81.87 Teachers 84.41 Pupils 78.82

(vi) Skill.

There was a significant difference among the means of the three groups in this section. ($F = 6.368$; $P < .01$) The difference was to be found when parents and pupils were compared. The difference was significant at the 1% level ($S\hat{\sigma}_L^2 = .355$) Experience and knowledge could be the deciding factor in this case. No significant difference was noted among the other groups. In this section of competition the teacher group scored the highest mean score.

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE.

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	61	(3-1)	$\frac{61}{2}$	$\frac{30.5}{4.7897}$
Within groups	8200	1712	$\frac{8200}{1712}$	6.3678

The following statements were included in this section:

The player is usually trained to think of competition only as a means of winning individual and team championships.

% Agreed: Parents 55.21 Teachers 46.79 Pupils 40.98

Participation in intensive competition cultivates respect for a skilled player whether team mate or opponent.

% Agreed: Parents 89.38 Teachers 97.13 Pupils 90.41

Intensive competition provides a challenge to highly skilled players.

% Agreed: Parents 91.33 Teachers 93.58 Pupils 87.22

Intensive competition places too much importance on trophies and awards.

% Agreed: Parents 89.97 Teachers 95.31 Pupils 83.09

A high standard of skill is developed only through interschools' competition.

% Agreed: Parents 46.54 Teachers 45.87 Pupils 41.78

A skilled player needs this type of competition in order to develop his skill further.

% Agreed: Parents 72.78 Teachers 81.66 Pupils 67.78

Participation helps most pupils to discover what is needed to improve their own physical skill.

% Agreed: Parents 86.50 Teachers 80.74 Pupils 87.32

Competition does little toward equipping a person with recreational skills for later life.

% Agreed: Parents 36.21 Teachers 40.36 Pupils 39.16

Most pupils who reach the standard of skill necessary for intensive competition are not willing to participate in other activities in which they do not excel.

% Agreed: Parents 61.58 Teachers 55.97 Pupils 61.52

To develop the great degree of skill needed in intensive competition takes more time than most pupils can afford.

% Agreed: Parents 68.73 Teachers 52.29 Pupils 62.56

It is significant to note that there seems to be a difference of opinion on this matter between parents and pupils on the one hand and teachers on the other hand.

(vii) Recreation:

The recreational value of intensive competition was, in general, rated lowest in favourability. There was a significant difference among the mean scores of the three groups as regards degree of favourability in attitude on this aspect of intensive competition.

(F = 8.2398; P < .01)

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	70	(3-1)	$\frac{70}{2}$	$\frac{35}{4.2477}$
Within groups	7272	1712	$\frac{7272}{1712}$	8.2398

The general picture was that the adults differed from the pupils in attitude towards the aspect of skill as experienced in intensive competition. There was no significant difference between the mean scores of parents and teachers ($S\hat{\sigma}_L = .190$)

Pupils differed significantly from parents at the 1% level ($S\hat{\sigma}_L = .110$) and from the teacher group ($S\hat{\sigma}_L = .179$). It could be that the adults realize the recreational values more than the pupils because of an increased need for such activities for adults.

The following statements constituted this section:

A high school pupil who participated in inter-schools' competitions tends to specialise in them and so does not learn other recreational sports that he or she could play in later life.

% Agreed: Parents 48.26 Teachers 40.86 Pupils 38.38

Intensive competition is most essential for real enjoyment of the game.

% Agreed: Parents 30.89 Teachers 28.44 Pupils 41.88

The average South African child wants intensive competition.

% Agreed: Parents 53.86 Teachers 65.15 Pupils 62.67

Most schools do not have enough time and facilities to provide both for inter-schools' sports and other less competitive internal recreational activities.

% Agreed: Parents 65.63 Teachers 58.71 Pupils 58.60

Participation in intensive competition at high school usually results in pupils leading an active life in later years.

% Agreed: Parents 70.47 Teachers 60.96 Pupils 70.37

Participation in intensive competition does not always provide relief from the stress and strain of modern living.

% Agreed: Parents 78.18 Teachers 77.06 Pupils 72.56

Participation in competition often causes players to lose interest in other recreational activities at school.

% Agreed: Parents 52.61 Teachers 63.39 Pupils 61.01

The demands of intensive competition sometimes "burn" players out before they reach peak performance.

% Agreed: Parents 51.36 Teachers 41.28 Pupils 43.97

Most highly skilled players get more fun and satisfaction from intensive competition than from more casual forms of physical recreation.

% Agreed: Parents 79.34 Teachers 82.56 Pupils 69.50

Participation in competition enables most individuals to relax and work off emotional tensions.

% Agreed: Parents 67.57 Teachers 84.41 Pupils 66.91

CHAPTER EIGHT: SUMMARY

(1) It can be concluded, with a fair degree of certainty, that the three populations tested (parents, teachers and pupils) are in favour of intensive athletic competition. When the data is analysed it is seen that the pupils, who represented the largest group in favour of intensive competition, they were the most homogeneous.

(2) Although no significant difference was found between the mean scores of the three groups tested, the range of scores showed that there is by no means unanimity in attitude on the issue of competition. Again pupils seemed to be most homogeneous in attitude, with parents most divided.

(3) Parents and teachers of the four different types of schools used in the survey had similar attitudes toward intensive athletic competition. In contrast it was found that girls in girls' schools and pupils in co-educational schools were significantly more in favour of competition than the boys in boys'-only schools.

(4) There was no significant difference in attitude between Afrikaans speaking and English speaking groups.

(5) Individuals who had close association with competitive programmes such as; individuals who themselves (or whose children) achieved well at school sport; who represented their school at sport; who were keen sport followers; who still took an active part in sport, showed a significantly more favourable attitude toward intensive competition at school level than individuals who did not have such experience.

(6) There was no significant difference in degree of favourability toward competition found between parents who thought that their children were either academically below average or did not work well enough at their school work and those parents who were satisfied with the academic performance of their children. As

far as the pupils were concerned; those who regarded themselves as academically above average and also who felt that they were not doing as well as they should at their school work, were less in favour of intensive competition on the sports field.

(7) Males, both in the adult and pupil groups, did not differ from females in degree of favourability towards athletic competition.

(8) The highest degree of favourability was shown in the section pertaining to Physical Development. The recreational value of intensive competition was rated last. The value derived from competition as regards Personality Development was also low down on the list.

(9) The analysis of individual statements showed that there were aspects in the competitive programme where there was strong disapproval but these strong disapprovals were small in number.

CHAPTER NINE: CONCLUSION.

(1) The survey showed that this type of competition is wanted by the parents, teachers and pupils. This can also be viewed as a reflection of the competitiveness of our society. If this type of competition is desired by these groups it is reasonable to assume that it should be provided for them by the school authorities.

(2) Because there seem to be definite abuses in such a programme it must be ensured that those concerned with the coaching and administration of such programmes are competent educators and properly qualified to carry out these programmes.

(3) It seems that the competitive programme is succeeding in achieving certain educational objectives. For this reason it must be maintained and, where necessary, amended and developed.

(4) More attention and time should be spent to make the extra-

mural programme more attractive and acceptable to the pupil who is of below average athletic ability.

(5) More attention should be given to the recreational values of the extra-mural programme. One of our educational objectives in the first place, is to educate the child for life. The school must offer the child something that can be transferred to life outside the school and in later life. It is, therefore, important that the child must be given some assistance in how to spend his free time, both in school and in later life.

(6) The presence of a sound Physical Education programme in the internal curriculum can serve as a foundation for equipping the pupils with the necessary guidance in recreation.

(7) Good relation between school and the public and within the school itself can be fostered by means of a sound competitive programme.

(8) More research is needed. It seems that this is particularly true in boys' schools where this type of competition is something very intense. Stalnacker makes the following statement: "It is perhaps wise and logical to give heed to the attitude of the groups of people concerned with the problem. But in considering these attitudes, one must constantly bear in mind the sharp distinction between fact and opinion. Attitudes may be, and frequently are, built on foundations of supposed or desired fact which in reality have no existence. That a favourable attitude toward intercollegiate athletics prevails does not serve as proof that intercollegiate athletics are valuable. But strong attitudes regardless of their soundness, frequently are the cause of radical action. They are, therefore, worthy of serious consideration". (54, p.504).

It is felt that further investigation is necessary from time to time. Young people are realistic enough to give an honest indication of what they regard as beneficial for them. The educator on the one hand, cannot afford to ignore these atti-

tudes, and, on the other hand, should not be bound by these expressed attitudes. These attitudes must be taken into consideration to establish means of eliminating errors and developing the good in the educational programme.

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A P P E N D I X.

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>S\bar{x}.</u>
<u>Parents</u>	524	43.19	14.84	.65
Fathers	258	44.03	15.08	.94
Mothers	266	43.15	14.52	.89
Parents of Senior Pupils	299	42.39	14.79	.86
Parents of Junior Pupils	255	45.75	14.60	.92
Parents of Girls only:	88	42.94	14.40	1.54
Fathers	42	40.44	15.35	2.40
Mothers	46	45.11	13.14	1.96
Parents of Boys only:	118	43.91	13.98	1.29
Fathers	58	43.71	14.42	1.91
Mothers	60	43.00	13.59	1.77
Parents of Boys and Girls:	318	44.03	15.19	.85
Fathers	160	45.47	14.91	1.18
Mothers	158	42.59	15.16	1.21
Parents of pupils:				
in Afrikaans (co-ed) schools	101	41.71	14.73	1.47
in English (co-ed) schools	142	45.94	14.03	1.18
in Boys' schools	161	43.51	12.56	.99
in Girls' schools	120	40.76	15.87	1.45
in Co-ed schools	243	44.52	14.39	.92
Parents who think that their sporting ability:				
is above average	107	44.18	15.02	1.46
is average	333	44.93	14.60	.80
is below average	84	40.35	14.85	1.63
Parents who are keen sport followers	329	47.45	13.72	.76
Parents who are not keen sports followers	195	38.23	14.49	1.04
Parents who think that their children:				
have above average sporting ability	98	46.63	14.20	1.44
have average sporting ability	360	44.09	14.65	.77
have below average sporting ability	66	39.31	14.47	1.79
Parents who think that their children:				
are academically above average	209	41.68	15.97	1.11
are academically average	284	45.99	13.78	.82
are academically below average	31	43.00	12.95	2.36

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>S\bar{x}</u>
Parents who think that their children: are working as well as they should at schoolwork	318	43.97	15.63	.88
are not working as well as they should at schoolwork	206	43.06	13.05	.91

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>S\bar{x}.</u>
<u>Pupils:</u>	1039	44.54	11.60	.36
Boys	533	43.83	11.30	.49
Girls	506	44.86	9.59	.43
Boys in Boys' schools	228	39.84	11.08	.74
Girls in Girls' schools	265	44.00	14.84	.91
Boys in Co-ed schools (English)	116	45.96	14.48	1.35
Girls in Co-ed schools (English)	79	45.85	8.92	1.01
English pupils (Co-ed schools only)	195	46.50	10.17	.73
Afrikaans pupils (Co-ed schools only)	351	46.62	9.55	.51
Pupils who do not take part in sport	137	40.50	11.93	1.02
Boys	43	38.73	13.23	2.04
Girls	94	41.30	10.52	1.09
Pupils who take part in sport	902	44.72	10.21	.34
Boys	490	44.14	10.76	.49
Girls	412	45.50	9.35	.46
Pupils who represent their school at sport:	640	45.61	10.12	.40
Boys	432	44.63	10.64	.51
Girls	208	47.64	8.38	.58
Pupils who do not represent their school at sport:	399	42.29	10.56	.53
Boys	101	39.93	12.01	1.20
Girls	298	43.09	9.91	.58
Pupils who think that their sport achievement is above average:	177	45.70	10.22	.77
Boys	118	45.27	9.38	.87
Girls	59	46.49	8.71	1.14
Pupils who think that their sport achievement is average	690	44.77	10.24	.39
Boys	362	44.60	11.19	.59
Girls	328	45.27	9.33	.52
Pupils who think that their sport achievement is below average	172	42.21	11.74	.90
Boys	53	39.23	12.24	1.70
Girls	119	43.61	10.94	1.01
Pupils who are keen sport followers:	751	47.44	8.29	.30
Boys	433	45.51	10.08	.49
Girls	318	46.76	8.98	.50
Pupils who are not keen sport followers:	288	39.13	10.35	.61
Boys	100	36.30	12.87	1.29
Girls	188	40.63	9.32	.68

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>S\bar{x}.</u>
Pupils who think that they are academically above average:	280	41.62	11.53	.69
Boys	156	40.83	11.93	.96
Girls	124	42.63	10.75	.97
Pupils who think that they are academically average:	651	42.65	9.89	.39
Boys	309	44.95	12.14	.69
Girls	342	40.56	8.95	.48
Pupils who think that they are academically below average	108	45.95	10.89	1.05
Boys	68	45.61	11.41	1.39
Girls	40	46.53	9.90	1.59
Pupils who think that they are doing as well as they should at their schoolwork:	280	43.41	10.98	.66
Boys	136	41.23	11.15	.96
Girls	144	45.26	10.20	.85
Pupils who think that they are not doing as well as they should at schoolwork:	759	44.56	10.28	.37
Boys	397	44.49	12.80	.64
Girls	362	44.65	9.34	.49

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>\bar{S}_x</u>
<u>Teachers:</u>	152	43.83	13.96	1.14
Male	91	43.87	13.83	1.46
Female	61	43.79	14.31	1.85
Teachers: Science	67	47.25	12.74	1.57
Teachers: Arts	85	40.41	14.46	1.58
Teachers taking part in sport	91	47.00	12.37	1.30
Teachers not taking part in sport	61	38.42	15.09	1.95
Teachers who are keen sport followers	106	48.00	12.15	1.19
Teachers who are not keen sport followers	46	37.20	12.91	1.92

EXAMPLE OF QUESTIONNAIRE SENT OUT TO THE PARENTS AND TEACHERS

PLEASE READ CAREFULLY BEFORE ANSWERING QUESTIONNAIRE

- (1) By "INTENSIVE COMPETITION" we mean those sports and games that involve crowds, intense excitement and also publicity. This competition is usually inter-scholastic.
- (2) What do you think of this type of competition? I should like to have your personal reaction to each statement.
- (3) Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? There are no correct or incorrect answers. Indicate your OWN opinion of each statement by marking an X in the appropriate
- (4) Please go through the statements rapidly and respond to each item as you go along. Your first impression is the best for this purpose and I should rather not have you turn back and make a second decision.

Thank you for your co-operation.

DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS?

1. The experience gained in intensive competition helps to develop leadership qualities in many individuals.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
2. A high school pupil who participates in inter-schools' competitions tends to specialise in them and so does not learn other recreational sports that he or she could play in later life.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
3. A season of scheduled contests often makes undue physical demands on pupils.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
4. A desirable outlet for getting rid of too much energy is provided by participation in intensive competition.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
5. Travel arrangements used by most teams do not endanger the health or safety of the team.
AGREE... DISAGREE...

6. The player is usually trained to think of competition only as a means of winning individual and team championships.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
7. Participation in competition helps pupils to mix more easily with fellow boys and girls.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
8. Participation in competition helps individuals to face the problems of everyday living.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
9. Intensive competition is most essential for real enjoyment of the game.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
10. Most coaches are mainly interested in developing the physical welfare of the pupils.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
11. Many schools misuse their teams as a means of advertising.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
12. Most pupils who play inter-school games are taught to keep fit in order to improve their health.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
13. Participation in intensive competition cultivates respect for a skilled player whether team mate or opponent.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
14. Participation in intensive competition makes pupils less considerate for the rights of others.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
15. The publicity used in intensive competition often disturbs a player's sense of values.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
16. The average South African child wants intensive physical competition.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
17. Participation in competitive sport promotes a pupil's physical condition.
AGREE... DISAGREE...

18. The values of competitions are not sufficient to warrant large expenditure on equipment, travel, etc.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

19. Intensive competition presents a greater danger of accidents than other phases of everyday life.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

20. Intensive competition provides a challenge to highly skilled players.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

21. Participation in athletic competition creates more loyalty to the school than does participation in other school activities.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

22. Inter-school contests promote a well-balanced outlook on life's values.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

23. Most high schools do not have enough time or facilities to provide both for inter-school sports and other less competitive internal recreational activities.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

24. Players often push themselves beyond the stage of moderate fatigue to the point of exhaustion.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

25. Inter-school games stimulate school spirit more than local internal contests.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

26. Most coaches are concerned about the safety of their teams.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

27. Intensive competition places too much importance on trophies and awards.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

28. Inter-school participation teaches pupils to win without boasting.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

29. Competition usually helps a player to build up self-respect.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

30. Intensive competitive participation in high Schools usually results in pupils leading an active life in later years.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

31. Intensive competition is equally suited to the physical make-up of both high school boys and girls.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

32. A Community derives prestige from the success of its teams in inter-town contests.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

33. Most coaches are qualified to help promote the health of the pupils.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

34. A high standard of skill is developed only through inter-school competition.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

35. A pupil is thought much of when representing the school in an inter-schools team.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

36. Participation in intensive competition helps players to control their emotions.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

37. Participation in intensive competition does not always provide relief from the stress and strain of modern living.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

38. Practice periods as well as games leave pupils over-fatigued.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

39. Inter-school competitions are the most effective way for pupils to create community interest in the school.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

40. Some coaches will take the risk of playing a pupil even if previous injury has made it unsafe for him.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
41. A skilled person needs this type of competition in order to develop his physical skill further.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
42. Membership of athletic teams prevents pupils from associating with their normal social group.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
43. Participation in intensive competition helps to give shy individuals more confidence.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
44. Participation in competition often causes players to lose interest in other school activities.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
45. Intensive competition in active sports promotes better physical condition in the years following participation.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
46. Most coaches do not think of winning as their only aim in inter-schools' competition.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
47. Participation in competitive sports often leads to unnecessary injury.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
48. Participation helps most pupils to discover what is needed to improve their own physical skill.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
49. Participation helps individuals to acquire good manners.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
50. Most players do not get the opportunity to think for themselves while playing in a team game.
AGREE... DISAGREE...

51. The demands of intensive competition sometimes "burn" players out before they reach peak performance.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
52. Travel to and from distant competitions is excessively tiring to players.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
53. The public is so interested in this type of competition that it judges schools and their staff by the success or failure of their teams.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
54. Competition usually helps to train pupils to develop good health habits.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
55. Competitions do little towards equipping a person with recreational skills for later life.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
56. Participation in competitive sports helps to teach pupils how to behave correctly in social situations.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
57. Losing often may cause the pupil to cultivate a feeling of inferiority.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
58. Most highly skilled players get more fun and satisfaction from intensive competition than from more casual forms of physical recreation.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
59. Intensive competition teaches pupils how to build up their own good physical condition.
AGREE... DISAGREE...
60. Intensive competition usually results in spectators influencing the way in which a game is played (e.g. shouting advice from the side lines).
AGREE... DISAGREE...

61. Some coaches will take the chance of entering a pupil in a competition without knowing whether his health permits it.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

62. Most pupils who reach the standard of skill necessary for intensive competition are not willing to participate in other activities in which they do not excel.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

63. Most players of competitive sports are happier and better adjusted individuals than non-participants.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

64. Winning and losing in competitive games helps to prepare the pupils for the competition they meet in everyday life.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

65. Participation in competition enables most individuals to relax and work off emotional tensions.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

66. Participation in intensive competition usually places too much physical strain on pupils.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

67. Participation helps to give most individuals self-confidence.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

68. Players in intensive competition very often receive some type of chronic injury which persists in later life.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

69. To develop the great degree of skill needed in intensive competition, takes more time than most pupils can afford.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

70. Many pupils who take part in competition do not enjoy the game unless they can play before a crowd.

AGREE... DISAGREE...

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY MARKING AN X IN THE APPROPRIATE .

1. How good are you at sport?

Above average?

Average?

Below Average?

2. Do you represent your school at sport?

Yes

No

3. What are your school results like?

Above average?

Average

Below average?

4. Are you doing as well as you should at your schoolwork?

Yes

No

5. Are you a keen sports follower?

Yes

No

6. Do you play sport?

Yes

No

7. What is your father's occupation? (e.g. Doctor, Shopkeeper, Mechanic, Teacher, etc.)

.....

THANK YOU.

EXAMPLE OF AN AFRIKAANS QUESTIONNAIRE SENT TO PUPILS

LEES ASSEBLIEF AANDAGTIG VOORDAT U DIE VRAELYS BEANTWOORD.

- (1) Met „INTENSIEWE KOMPETISIE" bedoel ons daardie sportsoorte en spele wat gepaard gaan met skares, intense opwinding en publisiteit. Hierdie kompetisie vind gewoonlik op 'n interskoolse basis plaas.
- (2) Hierna volg 'n aantal stellings i.v.m. Intensiewe Kompetisie. Ek sou graag u eie en persoonlike reaksie op elke stelling wou hê m.a.w. wat u van kompetisie dink.
- (3) Stem u saam met of verskil u van die stellings? Daar is geen regte of verkeerde antwoorde nie. Dui slegs aan wat u EIE mening is deur by elke stelling 'n X in die betrokke te maak.
- (4) Mag ek u ten slotte vriendelik versoek om elke stelling deur te lees en dan onmiddellik daarop te reageer. U eerste indruk is, vir my doel, die beste. Moet dus nie sekere stellings laat oorstaan vir latere oorweging nie of later veranderinge aan u eerste reaksie aanbring nie.

Baie dankie vir u medewerking.

STEM U SAAM MET OF VERSKIL U VAN DIE VOLGENDE STELLINGS?

1. Die ondervinding wat gedurende intensiewe kompetisie opgedoen word help om leierskap-eienskappe in baie mense te ontwikkel.

EK STEM SAAM... EK STEM NIE SAAM NIE ...

2. 'n Hoërskoolleerling wat aan interskoolse kompetisie deelneem is geneig om daarin te spesialiseer en leer sodoende nie ander sportsoorte waaraan hy/sy in latere lewe kan deelneem nie.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

3. 'n Seisoen van vooruitbepaalde wedstryde verg dikwels oormatige liggaamlike inspanning van die skoliere.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

4. Kompetisie verskaf 'n gewenste veiligheidsklep om ontslae te raak van 'n oormaat energie.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

5. Die reisreëlings vir die meeste spanne is geheel en al voldoende en benadeel nie die gesondheid of veiligheid van leerlinge nie.
- STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
6. Die speler word gewoonlik geleer om aan kompetisie te dink bloot as 'n wyse om of individuele of spankampioenskappe te wen.
- STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
7. Deelname aan kompetisie help leerlinge om beter met hul maats te meng.
- STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
8. Deelname aan intensiewe kompetisie help mens om die probleme van die alledaagse lewe die hoof te bied.
- STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
9. Intensiewe kompetisie is absoluut noodsaaklik om 'n spel regtig te kan geniet.
- STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
10. Die meeste afrigters is hoofsaaklik geïnteresseerd in die liggaamlike vooruitgang van die leerling.
- STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
11. Die meeste skole misbruik hul spanne vir advertensiedoeleindes.
- STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
12. Die meeste skoliere wat aan interskoolse wedstryde deelneem, word geleer om fiks te bly en sodoende hul gesondheid te bevorder.
- STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
13. Deelname aan intensiewe kompetisie kweek 'n respek vir 'n bedrewe speler, hetsy spanmaat of teenstander.
- STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
14. Deelname aan intensiewe kompetisie bring mee dat leerlinge minder bedagsaamheid teenoor andere toon.
- STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
15. Die publisiteit wat gepaard gaan met intensiewe kompetisie versteur dikwels 'n speler se sin vir waardes.
- STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

16. Die normale Suid-Afrikaanse kind wil intensiewe kompetisie hê.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

17. Deelname aan intensiewe kompetisie bevorder 'n leerling se liggaamlike toestand.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

18. Die waardes van kompetisie regverdig nie die uitgawes op toerusting, reisonkoste, ens. nie.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

19. Intensiewe kompetisie (in aktiewe sportsoorte) stel mens aan meer gevare bloot as wat in die alledaagse lewe teëgekoms sou word.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

20. Intensiewe kompetisie verskaf 'n uitdaging aan bedrewe spelers.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

21. Kompetisie kweek meer lojaliteit teenoor die skool as deelname aan ander skoolaktiwiteite.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

22. Interskoolse kompetisie help die leerling om 'n goedgebalanseerde opvatting van lewenswaardes te verkry.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

23. Die meeste hoërskole het nie die tyd of die fasiliteite om sowel interskoolse sport as onder minder mededingende, interne ontspanningsaktiwiteite aan te bied nie.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

24. Spelers dryf hulself dikwels tot algehele uitputting (verby 'n matige vermoeienisstadium).

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

25. Interskoolse wedstryde is meer bevorderlik vir 'n gesonde skoolgees as plaaslike interne wedstryde.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

26. Die meeste afrigters is besorg oor die veiligheid van hul spanne.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

27. Intensiewe kompetisie bring mee dat te veel waarde aan trofeeë en toekennings geheg word.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

28. Interskoolse kompetisie leer leerlinge om te wen sonder om te spog.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

29. Gewoonlik help kompetisie 'n speler om selfrespek op te bou.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

30. Deelname aan intensiewe kompetisie op skool lei gewoonlik tot 'n aktiewe lewe in die jare wat na skoolverlating volg.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

31. Intensiewe kompetisie is net so geskik vir die liggaamlike samestelling van die hoërskoolseun as die hoërskooldogter.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

32. 'n Gemeenskap kry prestige deur die sukses van sy spanne in interdorpse wedstryde.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

33. Die meeste afrigters is gekwalifiseerd om die leerlinge se gesondheid te help bevorder.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

34. 'n Hoë standaard van bedrewendheid word slegs deur intensiewe kompetisie ontwikkel.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

35. 'n Leerling geniet baie aansien as hy/sy die skool in 'n interskoolse span verteenwoordig.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

36. Deelname aan intensiewe kompetisie help spelers om hul emosies te beheer.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

37. Deelname aan interskoolse kompetisie bied nie altyd verligting van die spanning van die moderne lewe nie.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

38. Oefeninge sowel as wedstryde put spelers te veel uit.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
39. Interskoolse kompetisies is die doeltreffendste middel vir skoliere om die belangstelling van die publiek in die skool op te wek.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
40. Sommige afrigters sal die risiko loop om 'n speler te laat speel, selfs al sou 'n vorige besering dit vir him gevaarlik maak
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
41. 'n Bedrewe persoon benodig intensiewe kompetisie om sy bedrewendheid verder te ontwikkel.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
42. Lidmaatskap van 'n span verhoed leerlinge se omgang met maats van hul eie ouderdomsgroep.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
43. Deelname aan intensiewe kompetisie help om skaam mense meer selfvertroue te gee.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
44. Deelname aan kompetisie beperk dikwels spelers se belangstelling in ander skoolaktiwiteite.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
45. Intensiewe kompetisie in aktiewe sport bevorder 'n beter liggaamlike kondisie in die jare wat na deelname volg.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
46. Die meeste afrigters beskou nie oorwinning as die vernaamste miktelpunt van interskoolse kompetisies nie.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
47. Deelname aan mededingende sport lei dikwels tot onnodige beserings.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
48. Deelname help die meeste leerlinge om te ontdek wat nodig is om hul liggaamlike vaardigheid te bevorder.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

49. Deelname help leerlinge om goeie maniere aan te kweek.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
50. Die meeste spelers kry nie die geleentheid om vir hulself te dink wanneer hul in 'n span speel nie.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
51. Die eise wat intensiewe kompetisie stel, "brand" spelers dikwels uit voordat hulle hul beste vertonings kan lewer.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
52. Die reis na en van verafgeleë kompetisies is oormatig vermoeiend vir die spelers.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
53. Die publiek stel so belang in hierdie soort kompetisie dat hulle die skool en sy personeel volgens die sukses en mislukkings van sy spanne beoordeel.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
54. Kompetisie help leerlinge gewoonlik om goeie gesondheids-gewoontes te ontwikkel.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
55. Kompetisies dra min by om leerlinge ontspanningsvaardig-hede aan te leer wat in latere lewe aangewend kan word.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
56. Deelname aan mededingende sport help leerlinge om te leer hoe om hulself onder sosiale omstandighede te gedra.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
57. 'n Speler mag 'n minderwaardigheidsgevoel ontwikkel as hy dikwels verloor.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
58. Die meeste hoogsbedrewe spelers put meer genot en bevrediging uit mededingende situasies as uit enige ander ontspanningsaktiwiteit.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...
59. Intense kompetisie leer leerlinge hoe om hul fiksheid op te bou.
STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

60. Die gewoonlike gevolg van intensiewe kompetisie is dat toeskouers die wyse waarop die spel gespeel word, beïnvloed (deur bv. raad van die kantlyn te skreeu).

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

61. Sommige afrigters sal dit waag om leerlinge vir 'n kompetisie in te skryf sonder om te weet of sy gesondheid dit toelaat.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

62. Die meeste leerlinge wat 'n hoë standaard van bedrewendheid vir intensiewe kompetisie bereik, is nie gewillig om aan ander aktiwiteite waarin hul nie presteer nie, deel te neem nie.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

63. Die meeste deelnemers aan mededingende sport is gelukkiger en beter aangepaste mense as diegene wat nie deelneem nie.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

64. Wen en verloor in mededingende sport help om die leerlinge voor te berei vir die kompetisie wat hulle in die alledaagse lewe teëkom.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

65. Deelname aan kompetisie stel die meeste mense in staat om te ontspan en ontslae te raak van emosionele spanning.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

66. Deelname aan kompetisie veroorsaak dikwels oormatige spanning by die leerlinge.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

67. Deelname aan kompetisie help om die meeste mense selfvertroue te gee.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

68. Spelers in intensiewe kompetisie doen dikwels 'n kroniese besering op wat hulle later pla.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

69. Om die vereiste vaardigheid vir intensiewe kompetisie te ontwikkel verg meer tyd as wat die meeste leerlinge kan bekostig.

STEM SAAM... STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

70. Baie leerlinge wat aan kompetisies deelneem, geniet nie die spel as hulle nie voor toeskouers speel nie.

STEM SAAM...

STEM NIE SAAM NIE...

BEANTWOORD ASSEBLIEF OOK DIE VOLGENDE VRAE DEUR 'n X TE MAAK IN
DIE BETROKKE .

1. Hoe goed vaar jy op sportgebied?

- Bo-gemiddeld ...
- Gemiddeld ...
- Onder-gemiddeld ...

2. Verteenwoordig jy jou skool op sportgebied?

- Ja ...
- Nee ...

3. Hoe vaar jy in jou skoolwerk?

- Bo-gemiddeld ...
- Gemiddeld ...
- Onder-gemiddeld ...

4. Vaar jy so goed as wat jy behoort in jou skoolwerk?

- Ja ...
- Nee ...

5. Stel jy belang in sport?

- Ja ...
- Nee ...

6. Neem jy aan sport deel?

- Ja ...
- Nee ...

7. Wat is jou vader se beroep? (Bv. Dokter, Winkelklerk,
Motorwerktuigkundige, Onder-
wyser, ens.)
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