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The effects of a personal responsibility model on individual student and class-wide social behaviors

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THE EFFECTS OF A PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY MODEL ON INDIVIDUAL
STUDENT AND CLASS WIDE SOCIAL BEHAVIORS

by

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ABSTRACT

The Effects of a Personal Responsibility Model on Individual and Class Wide Social Behaviors

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Teaching students social values has long been associated with K-12 education (Solomon, Watson, Delucchi, Schaps, 1988). With the rise of anti social behavior among children and youth in schools (Volokh & Snell, 1998) practitioners and scholars alike are re-focusing their attention on implementing and empirically documenting social skill programs (Hellison, 2003; Solomon, Watson, Battistich, Schaps, & Delucchi, 1996; Martinek & Hellison, 1998; Shields & Bredemeier, 1995; DeBusk & Hellison, 1989). The context of physical education, due to it’s naturally interactive and conflict oriented environment may be an ideal setting for social skill development. Although widely used but with little research support, the personal responsibility model encourages students to apply positive social behavior through group discussion, goal setting and reflection (Hellison, 2003; Hellison & Walsh, 2002). The current research examined the effects of
the personal responsibility intervention on individual and class wide anti and positive social behavior. Three students were chosen as participants based on the observed persistence of anti social behavior. A multiple baseline, behavior analytic design was used to best determine the effects of the intervention on the students. A pre-test-post test, control group design was also used to determine the effects of the intervention on the entire class in which the intervention was implemented. The results showed immediate effects on the three observed students in the reduction of socially and personally irresponsible behavior. In addition, data from all three students demonstrated increases in the amount of time the students were fully participating without direct teacher supervision (self direction). Data also showed similar increases in caring types of behaviors. The results from the group comparisons showed a statistically significant difference (p<.01) between the group that received the interventions pre and post test scores for both anti and positive social behavior. A statistically significant difference (p<.01) was also found between the post-test scores for the group of students who received the intervention and the students who did not.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Today students enter an environment where many feel unsafe both inside and outside the classroom (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 1999). Violence, bullying, and other anti social behaviors are some of the greatest concerns of those that educate our youth. It is not surprising that public school teachers continually cite discipline and management as one of their foremost concerns each day as they engage in instruction (Manning & Bucher, 2005). Unfortunately, and in response to these challenges, teachers typically react with a variety of remedies such as suspensions, extra work, or other “one shot” approaches in hope that the problems will go away. These reactive types of punishments usually do not decrease unwanted behaviors, make the environment safer, or help students learn.

Anti social behavior is generally defined as any behavior that violates important norms or laws of the culture or community and can range from careless negligence to deliberately damaging activity (e.g. vandalism and graffiti) (Wikipedia, 2006). Anti social behavior not only affects the immediate teacher-learner setting, but it also has the potential to diminish the morale of teachers, and can cause parents and administrators to lose confidence in teachers’ ability to facilitate learning (Wynne & Ryan, 1997). Given the documented impact on the learning environment, it would seem logical that attempts
to help teachers improve student behavior in the classroom, specifically to decrease student anti-social behavior, would be one of the field of education's foremost initiatives.

In this opening chapter I will briefly review a number of contemporary trends associated with addressing anti-social behavior, highlight some of the programs and initiatives attempting to reverse these trends, and describe one approach that has emerged in the literature that addresses these trends in a physical activity setting. The chapter will conclude with a summary of the important points, make a case for further study in this area, and provide a list of research questions and hypotheses.

Background

Anti-social behavior is one of the foremost concerns of many in the field of education because of the detrimental effects it has on student learning. Bullying in schools is one of the most common forms of antisocial behavior that occurs on a regular basis and appears to persist in prevalence (Bowman, 2001). Lumsden (2002) found that one in four students reported being bullied and one in five students openly reported being a bully in the United States. According to the National School Safety Center (NSSC), bullying was identified as the most enduring and underrated problem in U.S. schools (Beale, 2001).

Anti-social behavior in schools is not a new phenomenon. American education is replete with examples of 19th century teachers that were run out of town by unruly students (Volokh & Snell, 1998). It can be argued that forms of anti-social behavior today do not just, "run teachers out of town", but also involves such atrocities as murder, homicide, assault, and rape. The total number of crimes committed per year in or near the 85,000 U.S. public schools has been estimated to be around 3 million (Anderson,
Kaufman, Simon, Barrios, Paulozzi & Anderson, 2001). Another study found that 33% of students had been in a physical fight on school grounds over the last 12 months (Grunbaum, Kann, Kinchen, Ross, Lowry & Harris, 2004). The National Household Education Survey (Nolin, Davies, & Chandler, 1995), questioned students from sixth through twelfth grade and found that 71% of respondents knew about some form of anti social behavior in their school. Among the students who knew of this behavior, bullying was identified as the most common behavior approximately 56 percent of the time.

The detrimental effects of school based anti social behavior are apparent. As mentioned previously, the learning environment is compromised when this type of behavior is exhibited. Students and teachers alike may act differently because they don’t feel safe in their classroom (Whitted & Duper, 2005). Teachers often feel like untrained policemen in their teaching and supervision. One teacher lamented,

“You are on constant management and police patrol. If you let up your guard for a second, you don’t know what’s going to happen in the room. I try to maintain high standards in my room and I will not allow anything to go on that will infringe on a child’s safety, but I do go home drained because you can never have time to relax. You step outside your room for the four minute passing, you’re on more patrol than you are within your four walls (Volokh & Snell, 1998, p. 2).”

Demographic information regarding who is likely to be involved as either a victim or as a perpetrator of antisocial behavior, and when the behavior is likely to happen provides potentially helpful information. When compared, victimization rates among junior and senior high students are similar although research has found that this type of behavior seems to peak among 13-14 year olds (eighth and ninth graders; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2003). Furthermore, Walker and Sylvester (1991) found that 90% of violent acts were committed by boys. The preceding statistics suggest that junior high
aged boys appear to be the most “at risk” for the potential of displaying anti social behaviors.

There is empirical evidence to suggest that those who engage in anti social behavior will likely be arrested at some point during adolescence (Loeber 1982, 1985). A group of scientists from the Oregon Learning Center spent three decades tracking the behavior patterns of youth criminal activity (Walker & Sylwester, 1991). They found that the number one predictor of adolescent criminal behavior was the long established pattern of anti social behavior during school years. Further study on this topic revealed that severity (assault compared to class disruptions) of anti social behavior grows as the individual matriculates through the twelfth grade (Walker & Sylwester, 1991).

In response to the challenge of anti social behavior in schools, a number of various programs have been designed to help move students from anti social to positive social activities (Hellison, 2003; Battisitich, Schaps, Watson, Solomon & Lewis, 2000; Kohlberg, 1981). Although the programs are varied, each takes a proactive rather than reactive approach to addressing the behavioral problems. These ideas and programs have contributed greatly to the study of social skill development today.

Kohlberg (1981) was one of the pioneer thinkers in this area and introduced a model based on scientific evidence that outlined the process that one takes as they make ethical or moral decisions. Kohlberg’s model was then used to formally teach character or moral based education and to help students understand why they tend to make the ethical decisions they do. Termed “Steps to Moral Reasoning”, this attempt to summarize a multifaceted conceptual process became widely known in the mid 1980s. Kohlberg’s steps provided a starting point upon which other programs were modified or developed.
The Child Development Project (CDP) is one example of an education based initiative to incorporate academics and developing a positive social culture (Battistich, Schaps, Watson, Solomon & Lewis, 2000). Schools focus their attention and provide opportunities for communication among students, parents, teachers, and administrators. Research on the effects of the CDP program has shown improvement in academic achievement and has also shown lowered drug use and decreased school violence (Battistich et al., 2000; Solomon, Watson, Battistich, Schaps & Delucchi, 1996).

Physical activity settings are another context by which positive social development has been undertaken. This is not surprising given that sport and physical activity have long been thought to offer benefits beyond developing the physical body (Lumpkin, 1998). Due to the interactive nature of sport and physical activity, opportunities to develop social skills such as self control, conflict resolution, and positive social behavior occur on a regular basis. It would seem natural that combining sport and physical activity type situations with pro social programs may be able to provide situations where social skills are developed.

Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility (Hellison, 2003) is an example of such a program that provides a field-based approach for helping children and youth learn important social skill in the context of physical activity. Hellison’s model is termed *The Cumulative Levels for Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility*, and involves pedagogical recommendations including a five level approach (see Appendix I for a complete description) for encouraging students to move from irresponsibility to responsibility and from respecting oneself to caring about others (Hellison, 2003; 1995). Hellison, a high school physical education teacher at the time, created this model while
teaching in the 1970’s (Hellison & Walsh, 2002). Another important aspect of this model is that it encourages students to become more reflective in their decision making and provides them with a “voice” in which to express their opinions, interests, and feelings. The underlying hope is that students will demonstrate appropriate behavior and activity choices through this type of instruction and show greater concern for the well being, safety, and quality of experience of their peers (Hellison, 1995, 2003).

The Personal Responsibility Model has historically been studied using qualitative research methods (Hellison & Walsh, 2002). While this approach has provided important findings, there may be limitations in looking at the effects through primarily one methodology. The Personal Responsibility intervention has also been criticized for its lack of empirical evidence supporting the effects on student behavior (Newton, Sandberg, & Watson, 2001; Shields & Brdermeier, 1995). While there may also be challenges (Hellison & Walsh, 2002) with adequate scientific measurement, the five levels provide a conceptual framework upon which a teacher can encourage and evaluate dimensions of personal responsibility based behaviors.

The Problem

Based on the challenge of anti social behavior within the school context, the challenge in addressing the behavior, and the challenges in measuring these behaviors, the present research was designed to examine one intervention strategy—Hellison’s (2003) Personal Responsibility model. The selection of this model was based on its conceptual appeal, the widespread practical application by practicing professionals, the lack of quantitative data supporting its effectiveness, and the relative ease of implementation by
one teacher. It was hoped that as a function of this scientific inquiry, the effects of the intervention on student anti and positive social behavior would be more fully understood at both the individual and group level. In addition, it is the intention of engaging in this research project that the literature in this area will be advanced in relation to treatment operations and measurement challenges.

*Study Purpose*

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of the personal responsibility model on the measures of:

1) The five levels of the Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility model (See Appendix III).
2) Anti and Positive Social Behavior.

*Research Questions*

The following research questions guided this study:

1) What are the effects of the Personal Responsibility model on individual student behavior?

2) What are the effects of the Personal Responsibility model on the class as a whole with regards to levels of anti and positive social behavior?

3) How do classes that received the intervention compare in terms of pro and anti social behavior to a control class from another school?
Guiding Hypotheses

It was hypothesized that the Personal Responsibility intervention would:

1) Increase the level of positive social behavior and decrease the level of anti social behavior among the three individual students observed.

2) Increase the mean level of response for positive social behavior among the classes that received the intervention when comparing their pre and post tests.

3) Increase the mean level of response of positive social behaviors more than the control class that received no intervention when comparing the pre and post tests.

Significance

Results derived from the design and implementation of this research study are hoped to provide support for the Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility model (Hellison, 2003). If well documented from accepted scientific practices, the effects of the intervention on individual student and class wide anti and positive social behavior will be more fully realized. The curriculum model is also significant because it provides an approach to addressing the problems of antisocial behavior that holds potential for institutional utilization. Additionally, and in line with Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), it is hoped that use of a mixed method (single case and group) and multiple data source approach to curriculum documentation would be an asset to the scientific literature in the area of curriculum investigation.
Limiting Factors

Scope

This study was designed for an urban middle school in which the treatment was designed specifically for students exhibiting chronic off-task and anti social behavior practices. The potential to generalize these findings to settings beyond this type of ecology with the character of teacher provider operating within this study is therefore limited.

Assumptions

This dissertation research included the following assumptions:

1) It was assumed that the various methods of data collection and analysis for this dissertation study were valid and reliable instruments for such.

2) It was assumed that the test items which were used were valid and reliable measures.

3) It is assumed that the teacher communicating the model to the students can do it in a way that facilitates understanding.

4) It is assumed that the questionnaire data is representative of the personal feelings of the individual student.

Limitations

This dissertation research was limited by the following:

1. Behavior data on the three selected students are limited to only directly observable, overt behaviors.

2. Behavioral data are purely descriptive and not prescriptive.
3. Survey data are limited by the inherent bias and subjectivity of the respondent providing data reporting.

4. Due to the pre-test/post-test administration of the survey, the internal validity concern of testing may affect student response.

Definition of Terms

**Anti Social Behavior**- Any behavior that violates important norms or laws of the culture or community and can range from careless negligence to deliberately damaging activity (e.g. vandalism and graffiti).

**Bullying**- The regular intimidation of others by the real or threatened infliction of physical, verbal, written, electronically transmitted, or emotional abuse. Examples of bullying can range from verbal taunts, name-calling and put downs, including ethnically-based or gender-based verbal put downs.

**Gang Activity**- Illegal activities that are carried out by groups of individuals who band together for mutual protection and profit.

**Intimidation**- Verbal or physical threats with the intent to inflict fear, injury, or damage, and to prevent another from acting in accordance with the normal laws of the community.

**Personal Responsibility Model**- A field-based approach for helping children and youth learn important social skill in the context of physical activity. The model involves pedagogical recommendations including a five level approach for encouraging students to move from irresponsibility to responsibility and from respecting ones self to caring about others.
Baseline Phase- The phase of the research study immediately prior to the intervention being introduced. Observation of selected behaviors occurs during this time to get an indication of what behavioral levels and patterns are like before the introduction of the intervention.

Return to Baseline Phase- Return to the exact same conditions as the initial baseline phase. The intervention is withdrawn and data is collected to examine behavioral patters.

Interval Recording- A direct observation recording method that takes a predetermined period of time and divides it into a number of shorter intervals. The observer records whether or not the targeted behavior occurred in each successive interval. Data can be recorded in a partial interval method (happened once during interval) or a whole interval method (happened the entire time). The procedure used for this study would be categorized as a modified whole interval recording method where the most dominant behavior was recorded within each interval.

Treatment Fidelity Data- Behavioral data were collected to ensure that components of the treatment were not present in baseline phases of the experiment and to ensure that the treatments were operationalized for the experimental phase and were distinctly present as procedurally described for that particular phase.

Real Time Data Recording- Defined as the recording of all behaviors and events of interest that is contained in a particular category system as they actually occur.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter will provide a comprehensive review of the relevant literature associated with this Dissertation study. The review of literature presented in the chapter focuses on: (a) literature regarding anti social behavior in schools, (b) strategies and programs designed to address these challenges, (c) the personal responsibility literature, and (d) methodological considerations.

Anti Social Behavior in Schools

As defined in Chapter 1, anti social behavior generally encompasses any behavior that violates important norms or laws of the culture or community (Wikipedia, 2006). Anti social behavior in the form of school violence is represented in different ways. Gang activity, bullying, and intimidation are just a few of the acts that result in a victimization committed against other students, but also against teachers and support staff (Volokh & Snell, 1998). Lumsden (2002) found that one in four students reported being bullied and one in five students openly reported being a bully in the United States. According to the National School Safety Center (NSSC), bullying was identified as the most enduring and underrated problem in U.S. schools (Beale, 2001).
Anti social behavior among children and youth has long been an issue for K-12 educators (Reese, 1993). The detrimental effects of these behaviors are apparent. One study that examined the effects of bullying on middle school aged youth was conducted by van der Wal, Cees, and Hirasing (2003). This study involved 4721 students in the 7th and 8th grades (aged 9 to 13 years). Data were collected by means of anonymous self-report questionnaires distributed in classrooms across the city of Amsterdam, The Netherlands. Bullying was measured using the Amsterdam Children's Bullying questionnaire (van der Wall & Uitenbroek, 2001). The questionnaire included two subscales, one regarding bullying (20 items) and an analogous subscale on being bullied (20 items). The items were scored on a 4-point scale. Logistic regression was used to determine associations between bullying and psychosocial health. Results showed that depression and suicidal ideation were far more common among reactive bullies than among children who do not bully (van der Wal et al., 2003).

Another study examining the effects of bullying on students was conducted by Salmon, 1998). The Olweus bully/victim questionnaire (Olweus, 1993) was administered to 904 pupils aged 12-17 and coming from two secondary schools. The questionnaire contained a detailed definition or explanation of bullying read aloud to the students by the person administering the survey. Most questions had a clear spatial reference, asking about events and activities having occurred "at school". The authors found that students who self-reported being bullied had higher rates of anxiety and depression and decreased levels of self-esteem (Salmon, 1998).
Demographic information on who is likely to be involved as a victim or a perpetuator, and when the behavior is likely to happen as the student matriculates through school, yields interesting and potentially helpful information. The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) provides information detailing these demographics. The Center is located within the U.S. Department of Education and is the primary federal entity for collecting and analyzing data related to education. Survey methods were used to determine at what point in a child's education victimization rates were the highest (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2004). 500 high school, middle school, and elementary school students from diverse backgrounds and regions across the United States were selected as participants. From this study it was found that victimization rates were similar among middle and high school students although a noticeable peak in these rates can be found among 13-14 year olds (eighth and ninth graders) (NCES, 2004). In 2003, The National Center for Educational Statistics surveyed over 100 elementary and middle schools and also found that the middle school setting was more likely to report racial tensions, bullying, verbal abuse of teachers, and widespread disorder in classrooms (NCES, 2003).

Further investigation into the demographics surrounding school violence highlights those that seem the most “at risk”. Walker & Sylwester (1991) provide important research on the long term effects of anti social behavior. In their research they have found that 90% of those committing the violent acts (perpetuators) are committed by boys. These data suggest that middle school aged boys are the most “at risk” for becoming either a perpetrator of violence or becoming a victim.
Various theories have emerged to explain why anti social behavior exists. Three of the most prominent theories are: (a) The Social Control Theory (Hirschi, 1969), (b) the Social Development Theory (Vygotsky, 1978), and (c) the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986). A closer look at each of these theories may assist in understanding the challenge of anti social behavior.

The social control theory developed by Hirschi (1969) is one attempt to explain why anti social behavior exists. The theory purports that all people have an innate desire to be anti social and therefore questions why individuals are not anti social all the time. Hirschi (1969) identifies four areas, which he calls “bonds”, that are criteria for whether or not anti social behavior will occur. The four areas are: attachment, commitment, involvement and belief. In Hirschi’s (1969) theory, the four social bonds are critical in predicting the likelihood for anti social behavior. Hirschi believed that it is these four “social controls”, not moral values, which maintain law and order. Without controls, he argues, one is free to commit criminal acts.

The first bond, attachment, includes the individual’s interest or attachment to parents, school, and peers. Hirschi believed that the depth and quality of the relationship developed by parents played a role in whether or not the student would be delinquent (Hirschi, 1969). He also argued that one’s attachment to school depends on how one appreciates the institution and how he or she is received by fellow peers and teachers. For example, if the student feels that a teacher does not care about their personal well being they are more likely to respond to situation by emitting anti social behavior. Hirschi (1969) also noted that he found that one’s attachment to parents and school overshadows the bond formed with one’s peers. Commitment is the second
bond and Hirschi believed that people who build an investment in life, property, and reputation are less likely to engage in anti social behavior which will jeopardize their social position. Building an investment meant that the individual has made an effort to sacrifice (e.g. time, money, talents) in order to get something in the future. For example, a student who practices hard at a particular sport is making an investment in life and possible securing a better reputation. They are sacrificing their time now for, among other things, a position on an athletic team or enhanced reputation with peers. According to the Social Control Theory (Hirschi, 1969), those that invest in different areas are less likely to display anti social behavior.

The third bond is involvement and basically centers on the importance of involvement in school, family, recreation, etc. Hirschi (1969) argued that this involvement protects a juvenile from potential anti social behavior that may be a result of idleness. The final bond, belief, is the importance of common social settings where shared human values exist. If members of the social setting believe that laws or norms are unfair, anti social behavior is more likely to exist.

The Social Control Theory (Hirschi, 1969) may explain why school aged children involve themselves with anti social behavior. For example, if a teacher controls the entire direction of the class and does not allow student input it may cause the individual to lose attachment to the school and therefore be more likely to commit anti social behavior. It also highlights “bonds” that, if neglected, may contribute to a student engaging in anti social behavior.

A second theory for explaining why individuals engage in anti social behavior is the Social Development Theory (Vygotsky, 1978). This theory came from Russian
born educator, Lev Vygotsky. According to Vygotsky (1978), humans use tools that develop from their culture, such as speech and writing, to manage their social environments. Unlike Piaget's notion that children's development must necessarily precede their learning, Vygotsky argued that social learning precedes development. Initially, children develop these cultural tools as ways to communicate their needs. For example, a child may learn at an early age to respond to personal criticism by clever “comebacks” that allowed them to maintain social status. Vygotsky believed that the internalization of these tools, used initially as ways to manage their social environment, eventually lead to higher thinking skills. Vygotsky believed that this lifelong process of social development was dependent on social interaction.

Vygotsky's theory, however, requires the teacher and students to perform roles that are non-traditional as they collaborate with each other. Instead of a teacher dictating her message to the students for future recitation, a teacher should work together with her students in order to discover answers and maintain the students' interest (Hausfather, 1996). Through this approach, learning becomes a shared experience for the students and teacher.

Vygotsky would likely attribute anti-social behavior in schools to the command style teaching methods that some teachers employ. He would argue that students need to be an integral part of the learning process and that social interaction is a pre-requisite to cognitive learning. For example, a teacher may start the semester by asking the class about areas they are interested in and building the required curriculum around the students’ ideas. By using the students’ ideas and involving
them in the learning process, Vygotsky argues that a student will be less likely to engage in anti social behavior (Vygotsky, 1978).

The Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986) is another theory intended to clarify behavioral choices. This theory explains how people acquire and maintain certain behavioral patterns. According to the Social Cognitive Theory, an individual's behavior is uniquely determined by personal factors and the environment. Past experiences and biological maturation are examples of personal factors. The environment provides models for behavior. Observational learning occurs when a person watches the actions of another person and the reinforcements that the person receives (Bandura, 1997). Through feedback and experience, a person's own reality is formed by the interaction of the environment and one's cognitions.

In applying this theory to understand anti social behavior, one would have to focus on the students personal experiences, including biological maturity for answers. For example, if a student has been punished for a particular behavior in their past they will be less likely to do it in the future. Also important in this theory are the presence or absence of role models in the student's environment. The student may not know how to behave properly because they have never personally seen the behavior or had not seen the behavior regularly enough to incorporate it. For example, a student may have never received a compliment from another when the student successfully performs a particular task. It is hard for a person to compliment others if they have never seen much of it before.

The theories presently examined highlight the possible contributing factors to anti social behavior among school aged students. Although in some instances the violent
and anti social behavior may be beyond the reach or ability of the teacher to provide assistance, the potential is there, if done at the right time and with the right students, to help some of these students make better choices that will not only help them in the primary setting but will likely help them throughout their lives.

In contrast to the discussion on anti social behavior is an equally important inquiry into what causes students to display pro social behavior. Pro social behavior occurs when someone acts to help another person, particularly when they do it without planning and with no thought of receiving any extrinsic rewards (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963). There are theories that also attempt to explain why individuals choose to display pro social behavior. Some of the prominent theories are the Normative Models of Reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), Social Responsibility (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963), and the Indebtedness Theory (Greenberg, 1968).

Gouldner (1960) brought forward his theory for explaining pro social behavior, citing reciprocity as the key factor. The reciprocity norm is where people help others, knowing that one day they may want someone else to help them in the same unselfish way. For example, a student may congratulate another on a job well done in the hopes that that same gesture will be reciprocated in the future.

The Social Responsibility Theory (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963) centers on the student making behavioral decisions because they feel personally responsible to positively influence the social environment. The student might tell another to “be quite and listen to the teacher” because they are concerned that the individuals noise will distract from the learning environment. Those that believe that pro social
behavior comes from a feeling of personal responsibility believe that it is an innate attribute that can be developed (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963).

Greenberg’s, (1968) indebtedness theory argues that an individuals pro social behavior can be traced back to other pro social acts that they have received in their past and therefore they “return the favor” out of a feeling of “indebtedness”. This theory is similar to Bandura’s (1997) theory in that personal experiences, and the way the individual has been treated in those experiences, are a significant contributor to ones behavior. For example, an individual may have received life saving CPR from an unknown individual after a bad car accident. After this event the individual whose life was saved may take CPR training and be ready to return the favor to someone else out of a feeling of “indebtedness”.

These are just three of the many theories that attempt to explain pro social behavior. It is likely that both anti and pro social behavior result from a combination of these theories, depending on the individual circumstance of the student. These theories provide important insight into factors that may contribute to anti or positive social behavior. Along with the challenge of anti social behavior in the schools, these and other theories have inspired programs and strategies aimed at making positive changes.

Programs and Strategies

To help facilitate the transition of students away from anti social behaviors and as a response to the social problems outlined above, various programs, curricula, and strategies have been developed. The basic intent of these programs and strategies are
to help move students from anti social activities such as bullying or off-task behavior to pro social activities such as fully participating in the lesson and encouraging other classmates. Although the names of these ideas, programs, and strategies are varied, each takes a proactive rather than reactive approach to addressing behavioral issues.

Surprisingly, teaching students social values has long been associated with K-12 education (Solomon, Watson, Delucchi, Schaps, & Battistich, 1988) although sporadically implemented and largely remaining undocumented from a scientific perspective (Damon, 2002). The early settlers (primarily protestant) in American history used moral based education as a vehicle to teach their theocratic values (Howard, Berkowitz, & Schaeffer, 2004). Moral based education was the teaching of morals and values alongside other traditional academic subjects. For example, lessons would routinely cover topics such as developing one’s faith in Jesus Christ, becoming an honest citizen, and forgiving others (Howard et al., 2004). This was done not only to indoctrinate the students on morals and values cherished by the particular religious community but also in an attempt to promote positive behavior as the students engaged in learning (Howard et al., 2004). When more and more immigrants came from the Roman Catholic faith, the teaching of moral education (perceived as protestant values) was reduced (Howard et al., 2004).

Prominent theorists in the field of education and child development have intermittently contributed views in relation to the teaching of moral based education (Damon, 2002; Heslep, 1995). Moral based education is the process through which children develop proper attitudes and behaviors toward other people in society, based on social and cultural norms, rules, and laws (Piaget, 1965). Philosophers such as
Plato, Aristotle, and Kant, for example, contributed to Dewey's reflections on the crucial role of moral education in society (Heslep, 1995). Dewey was one of the first to present the case for the formal implementation of character programs within the K-12 education system. He felt that before moral education was introduced, schools needed to be practical and focus on solving real life problems. Dewey believed that with this type of a school students could be prepared morally to face the challenges of life and to make a contribution to their community. He also felt the best way to ensure this was to expose students to instruction relative to the making of appropriate ethical decisions during the impressionable early years of formal schooling (Dewey, 1975/1909). Over the course of the 20th century Dewey's ideas remained largely just ideas as emphasis was primarily placed on the teaching of academic content (Jackson, 1998).

Kohlberg (1981) was another of the pioneers in the area of social development and introduced a model that outlined the process that one takes as they make ethical or moral decisions. Kohlberg believed that anti social behavior could be better understood by examining the decision making process that preceded the behavior. He suggested that all people learn and develop morally in a six-stage sequence, ranging from decisions based on avoiding punishment to decisions based on concern for ones ethical principles (Kohlberg, 1981). This model was then used to formally teach character or moral based education and to help students understand why they tend to make moral decisions. Termed Steps to Moral Reasoning, this attempt to summarize a complex conceptual process became popular in the mid 1980s (Modgil & Modgil, 1988). Colby, Kohlberg, Gibbs, and Lieberman (1983) provided support for
Kohlberg's theory in their longitudinal study of 58 males. Over a time period of 20 years, it was found through series of individual interviews that every individual proceeded through Kohlberg’s stages in the exact sequence as predicted.

Another example of support for Kohlberg’s theory was provided by Walker, deVries, and Trevethan (1987) who found that participants' moral reasoning stage scores were consistent across real-life (i.e., those that participants generated from their experiences) and hypothetical dilemmas (i.e., those provided by researchers). This suggests that Kohlberg's stages of moral reasoning may be more applicable across a variety of abstract and real-life dilemmas.

Kohlberg's (1981) theories have provided guidance for many in the field of moral development. However, Kohlberg’s theories have been challenged because his research was conducted on a white, male population (Gilligan, 1982). Others argue that Kohlberg’s work places too much emphasis on the role of cognition in the decision making process and leaves out other important contributors (Reed, 1997). One could argue that Kohlberg’s ideas did help foster discussion and scholarly inquiry in this area, which led to other social development programs.

The Child Development Project (CDP) is another attempt to help develop important social skills in school aged children. This comprehensive school reform program helps elementary school students to become caring members of a school community (Battistich, Schaps, Watson, Solomon & Lewis, 2000). By focusing on community, the CDP project hopes to help all students feel the support, expectations, and team work that would typically be found in a society of people (Solomon, Watson, Battistich, Schaps & Delucchi, 1996; Battistich, Solomon, Dong-il Kim,
Watson & Schaps, 1995). The CDP emphasizes shared goals, specific interest in student needs, and students taking responsibility for actions while showing concern for others. Schools involved with this project use strategies like reflection, family involvement, and between-class sharing of ideas and experiences. The classroom component includes student collaboration, a literature-based approach to reading, and a student-centered approach to classroom management.

The program was evaluated over 4 years (baseline followed by three intervention years) in a quasi-experimental, multi-site demonstration trial involving approximately 4,500 third- through sixth-grade students in 24 diverse schools throughout the United States (Battistich, Schaps, Watson, & Solomon, 1996; Watson, Battistich & Solomon, 1997). Classroom observation, student questionnaire, teacher questionnaire, and test data were collected in a baseline year and in each of the three years of program implementation. From this evaluation key indicators of program success were the students being found to show increases in being supportive and friendly to others as well as displaying acts of spontaneous pro social behavior. Data also showed that schools who subscribe to this program witnessed declines in the amount of drug use among their student population (Battistich et al., 2000). Furthermore, two out of three of the schools evaluated found significant effects on academic achievement (Battistich et al., 2000).

Another study supporting the effectiveness of the CDP looked at six elementary schools in a suburban school district (Solomon et al., 1996). The students came from grades 4-6. Three of the classes were given the CDP intervention and 3 schools served as a comparative control. Various student outcomes such as social
competence, conflict resolution, and concern for others were assessed through a series of interviews and questionnaires. Results indicate that the program was successful in increasing the students' sense of community which helped them abide more closely with the norms and values of the school.

While the empirical support for the CDP program is evident, the program is time intensive and requires many levels of professionals to run the program (e.g., not only the teacher, but administration and parents). However, this project does provide important information and evidence that a multifaceted approach with focuses on social skill instruction in an academic setting can produce favorable results. The implementation of the CDP’s curriculum (e.g. reflection and between-class sharing of ideas and experiences) also provides helpful information for other teachers interested in specific strategies to address the problem of anti social behavior.

The work of Shields and Bredemeier (1995) and their efforts in regards to character development in physical activity provides further understanding in this area. Their work centers on sport and physical activity as a setting where character and moral development can be enhanced. Their philosophy draws primarily from social constructivist approaches to moral development where there is an emphasis on recognizing and understanding the individual needs of the student or athlete.

Bredemeier, Weiss, Shields, and Shewchuck, (1986) investigated whether teaching and modeling appropriate behaviors would enhance sportsmanlike behaviors. In this study two moral intervention programs were introduced at a youth sport camp. The first involved teaching one moral concept a week (e.g., fairness, sharing, and aggression) over five weeks. The instructors also explored moral issues
as they arose in play and coached children to appropriate resolutions of the issues. Children (ages 5 to 7) in this intervention program understood the differences between right and wrong better than those who did not receive such training (ie., control group). The second intervention involved the instructor demonstrating moral behavior when appropriate. This group also did better than the control group (who only participated in the sport program); however, this intervention was slightly less effective than the first intervention. The authors concluded that children do learn moral behavior directly from instruction and indirectly by observing the responses of coaches, teachers, and parents (Bredemeier et al., 1986).

In another study, Bredemeier & Shields (1986) posed hypothetical situations to 100 male and female high school and college students in Northern California, half of whom were basketball players and half of whom were non athletes. The hypothetical situations required the individual to make a moral decision and were designed to test their moral maturity. Moral maturity was related to the level of reasoning that the individual displayed. (Shields & Bredemeire, 1986). Each response was scored by two independent observers based on Haans's (1978) interactional model of moral development. The model comprises 5 levels, with one representing responses that are more egocentric and 5, representing responses that are others orientated. Through multivariate analyses, non-athletes were found to display higher levels of moral maturity. Female athletes were found to display a higher amount of moral maturity than their male counterparts. This study provides evidence that just physical activity and sports alone, without training, teaching, or reflection in the area of appropriate social behaviors may not be enough.

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It is not surprising that Shields and Bredemeire (1995) recommend the context of sport and physical activity for moral development. Sport and physical activity have long been thought to offer benefits beyond developing the physical body. For example, Piaget (1932) used the context of children’s decision and their application of rules as they played the game of marbles. It is interesting that this setting was used for his pivotal work on child development and to make the case for his structural development theories (Piaget, 1932).

Due to the interactive nature of sport and physical activity and the frequent opportunity to make moral decisions, opportunities to develop social skills like self control, conflict resolution, and pro social behavior occur on a regular basis. For example, a disagreement over the possibility of a rule violation leads those involved to make a choice between resolving the conflict peacefully or arguing and fighting over it. These situations occur whenever physical activity or sport is played-including physical education.

Character or moral based education was first introduced in the field of physical education by Clark Hetherington (Lumpkin, 1998). Hetherington and others opposed the original curriculum of methodological Swedish and German style gymnastics training and under the title of *The New Physical Educators* proposed a more comprehensive curriculum to include moral education. He felt that developing the whole person through physical activity should be the general emphasis of structured physical education instruction. He argued for one of the primary focuses in physical education to be social and moral character training (Lumpkin, 1998). Hetherington’s support of social and moral training led to the adoption of social and moral training as
one of five key objectives by the American Physical Education Association (today’s American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance).

One of Clark Hetherington’s pupils, Jay B. Nash, provided strong advocacy in the context of promoting the importance of lifelong physical activity for the importance of social skills training (Lumpkin, 1998). Nash pioneered the physical education profession’s adoption of the term character education. He was one of the first to take the theoretical goals of educating the whole body and transforming them into specific character education strategies within an organized curriculum.

The focus on teaching social and moral skills in physical education was also enhanced through the work of Jesse Williams from 1930-1960 (Lumpkin, 1998). Through the gymnastics approach to physical education mentioned previously, the emphasis was placed on educating the physical body (education of the physical). Williams’s promoted the theory of education through the physical, or physical activity as a means of training and developing the social and cognitive self. After a period of discussion and debate, the theory Williams supported emerged and was adopted as a part of the standard curriculum in many K-12 public education school systems (Lumpkin, 1998). The emphasis on social development in physical education helped prove the generalized social and cognitive benefits of physical activity and likely paved the way for modern physical activity based social development programs.

Most of the programs and initiatives described so far have been on a larger, school wide level (e.g. a character education program adopted by the whole school). However, teachers may not always have the support of administration or the
resources necessary in their attempts to deal with particular anti social behaviors. In many instances specific proactive strategies that individual teachers implement have been shown to be of short-term assistance in helping promote positive social behavior.

Ryan and Yerg (2001) describe one example of a proactive strategy that a teacher implemented in a co-educational middle school physical education setting. The intent of the study was to examine the effects of teacher based feedback on reducing disruptive off-task behaviors. Their specific treatment intervention lasted for 3 weeks and focused on providing feedback at differing locations in the physical education gymnasium to see if there was one location where the teacher provided feedback that helped students stay more on-task. The results of this study indicated that disruptive behavior could be reduced when constant, distal (at a distance) feedback was given. Conclusions were made that this simple intervention strategy could help in the reduction of undesirable behaviors, in direct response to addressing some of the aforementioned problems (Ryan & Yerg, 2001).

Yet another example of a proactive strategy for reducing inappropriate behaviors, Clare, Jenson, Kehle and Bray (2000) implemented a treatment that called for students to repeatedly view edited videotapes of their on-task or appropriate behaviors. Three male students, aged 9-11 were selected as the participants for this study. The methodology used was a multiple baseline, behavior analysis design across the three students. The authors found that when these students, who were observed previously as displaying high rates of disruptive behavior, watched themselves performing classroom on-task and other acceptable behaviors, their rate of
disruptive occurrences dropped dramatically. Conclusions centered on the potentiality of this proactive strategy being used by teachers to effectively manage their classrooms and reduce undesirable behaviors (Clare et al., 2000).

Rathvon (1990) studied the effects of providing various types of encouragement to the student when they displayed anti social behavior. The participants in this study were six first-grade students (3 boys, 3 girls) in a rural area of Virginia. They were identified by their teacher as being among those students exhibiting the highest rates of off-task behavior and the lowest rates of academic productivity in her class of 11 boys and 8 girls. During this study, these identified students, rather than being reprimanded, were provided with encouraging comments from their teacher. For example, when a student was talking to another student the teacher would take that opportunity to provide encouraging words about the work the student was completing. The study used a multiple-baseline across-subjects design, in which baselines were established for different individuals and interventions were introduced at a different time for each individual (Kazdin, 1982). Rathvon (1990) found that not only did the intervention of providing encouraging words reduce off-task behavior significantly, but the students also showed greater academic productivity.

In a study similar to the previous example, van der Mars (1989) looked at the effects of specific verbal praise on second grade physical education students' off-task behavior. van der Mars's (1989) study involved three students who were purposefully selected for observation due to their displaying high amounts of off-task behavior. By way of definition, off-task behavior was described as inattentiveness, inappropriate use of equipment, talk outs, interaction with other students while the
teacher was talking, and not following directions (van der Mars, 1989). Baseline data were collected to get an indication of behavioral levels without treatment implementation. This phase was then followed by the verbal praise treatment. The verbal praise treatment included any positive comments complimenting the student in a particular area (e.g., “You followed though nicely on that shot”). The authors found that when the treatment was implemented a significant positive difference in relation to the reduction of off-task behaviors among all three students was realized (van der Mars, 1989). This significant difference remained as the students were continuously exposed to the treatment. van der Mars conclusions centered on the relative effectiveness of this strategy in reducing unwanted off-task behaviors. As a teacher educator, van der Mars (1989) argues for the importance of teaching proactive behavioral management strategies to both novice and experienced teachers.

The use of the students’ peers in reinforcing appropriate behaviors has also received some research attention. Studies have shown peer reinforcement as an effective tool in modifying classmates’ social behavior (Strain, 1978), as well as improving adherence with teacher rules (Noonan & Thibeault, 1974). In non-school, education based settings, peer reinforcement has been found to be effective in training individuals to acquire job skills (Weinbach & Kuehner, 1986). Research on peer reinforcement in physical education and sports settings is relatively new and little documented to date.

In another treatment intervention, Sharpe, Brown, and Crider (1995) studied the effects of a particular curriculum that focused on talking about and displaying good sportsmanship. The measures for the curriculum were various generalized positive
social behaviors with the population being elementary physical education students. During the treatment phase the teacher spent five minutes before class talking about class objectives and appropriate forms of behaviors, followed by five minutes after class soliciting student discussion about various incidents and non-incidents of respective desirable and not-so-desirable social interactions. Results from this study show that, after collecting initial baseline data, immediate trend reversals in the areas of student leadership, conflict resolution, and off-task behavior were observed. Findings also indicate an increase in the percentage of class time the students were actively participating.

Another researcher looked at the use of sport literature (movies and books) as a vehicle for teaching social skills (Minchew, 2002). This descriptive study has particular appeal to physical educators due to the inherent relationship between sport and structured physical education. The authors described in detail how this type of instruction is being implemented and the perceived benefits and successes. Central to this instruction is the use of sport related popular media materials (e.g., the motion picture “Rudy”) to teach character traits such as hard work, perseverance, and teamwork. The curriculum also calls for the students to discuss the materials in the context of making connections to their daily life situations. The researcher provides important insight into how certain tools can be used to instigate discussion and reflection on important behavioral traits. While this example does not contain empirical data in specific support of the recommended curriculum, it does provide descriptive insight into the potential effectiveness of this type of treatment.
As character or moral based programs and strategies have received more attention (forty-eight states are amending their regular education state standards to include character education; Nielson, 1998), critics have raised potential concerns (Davis, 2003). Davis (2003) for example, argues that moral based education has not been empirically documented enough to garner this type of support. He also believes that, even if there is a consensus of the importance of moral education, an important question remains of, what are the best ways to teach it? Cleary, Davis's arguments are based on the relative newness of a focus and is lacking in empirical support. Many questions remain with regard to the scientific design, documentation, and implementation of conceptualized or popularly theorized and recommended curriculum procedures in this area. As with the typical evolution of many emerging curriculum models and educational reform recommendations in educational literature, the popularization and zealous recommendation of a particular educational approach tends to come well before the rigorous scientific documentation of its relative effectiveness (Lloyd, 1992).

The Personal Responsibility Literature

Another strategy for addressing the challenge of anti social behavior and promoting pro social behavior are based on personal responsibility tenets. Teaching personal responsibility is a potentially important foundation for an educator involved in the creation and implementation of a productive and effective learning environment.
The personal responsibility strategy provides a field-based approach for helping children and youth learn important social skill in the context of physical activity. The personal responsibility model seeks to promote an understanding of the ramifications of a variety of interactive behaviors, with the ultimate hope that through this type of instruction students will begin to demonstrate greater concern for the well being, safety, and enhanced quality of experience of others (Hellison, 2003; 1995).

Hellison (2003; 1995) provides an instructional model dealing with these personal responsibility principles. This approach is termed Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility and involves five levels that encourage students to move from irresponsibility to responsibility and from respecting oneself to respecting others. Showing respect and concern for others comprises the focus of the first level. Examples of this level would include: making fun of other students, talking while the teacher is talking, pushing others, loud outbursts, arguing over a rule violation. If the student is confronted about his behavior he is either unresponsive or blames others. The second level encourages students to take responsibility for their individual behaviors. Behaviors in this level indicate that the student is socially in control by not affecting others by his actions but lacks individual responsibility. The student's behavior in this category is clearly outside of recommended practices on the part of the teacher, but does not impact on, or distract, other student activity engagement. Specific examples of this level would be not fully participating in an activity but not causing an interference with the lesson progression, passively wandering off outside of lesson set-up, not listening while the teacher is talking but not disrupting others, staring off into space when lesson engagement should be taking place, individually
misusing equipment, and not transitioning from one activity to another on the teachers cue. The third level encourages students to actively participate and strive towards giving an optimal effort each and every day. Examples of this level would be a student listening to the directions of the teacher, using the equipment properly, fully participating in an activity, and making appropriate transitions on the teacher cue (e.g. when the teacher calls for everyone to come in- the student responds appropriately).

The fourth level provides opportunity for the students to learn how to work independently, accepting responsibility for their work and performance. This category describes students who show the behaviors of the previous level but also are able to work without teacher supervision. Examples of behavior in this level would be a student fully engaged in an activity without the teacher watching, using equipment properly without the teacher watching, or personally organizing a game to help it run smoothly. Also, during a non-teacher directed transition the student would act appropriately. The fifth level culminates with the student displaying caring behaviors for other students such as support, showing concern, and exhibiting compassion. In this level the student is concerned for the well-being of his classmates and the good of the class. Behaviors within this level would be the student congratulating another on a good play, helping another up after falling down, and resolving conflict independent of the teacher. The student would encourage others to make quick transitions, encourage others to listen to the teacher, provide helpful feedback during drills or game play, and genuinely makes comments to build others self efficacy (e.g. “Great game John, you really played well”). The student accepts responsibility for his actions. A fifth level, titled “Outside the Gym”, involves the student transferring the
responsible behavior and applying it in situations beyond the physical activity setting. For example, a student may develop a particular social skill such as complimenting another on a successful performance while exposed to the Model and then demonstrate the same social skill in the home as they compliment a brother or sister on a job well done.

The five Personal Responsibility levels have experienced widespread application and have provided a conceptual framework upon which a teacher can encourage dimensions of personal responsibility within his or her classroom setting in relation to the potential facilitation of behavioral control of off-task and negative social behavior (Hellison & Walsh, 2002).

Scholars have lamented the lack of empirical evidence supporting Hellison’s (2003; 1995) model (Newton, Sanberg, & Watson, 2001; Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). In response, Hellison and Walsh (2002) provide an analysis of 26 studies employing the personal responsibility model. This article highlights some of the ways the strategy has been used, various populations that were studied, and data in support of its effectiveness. Out of the 26 papers reviewed, 21 were case studies. Specific evidence was found in the areas of effort improvement (e.g., Hellison, 1978) and helping others improvement (Galvan, 2000). The authors note the lack of quantitative methods that were used in these 26 studies (Hellison & Walsh, 2002). They encourage a more “equitable balance of research designs” (Hellison & Walsh, 2002, p. 301). The authors also conclude that, while there are gaps in the evidence of treatment effects, and clear methodological issues related to treatment implementation, the model’s theoretical and practical application is apparent.
Debusk and Hellison (1989) provide support for the Personal Responsibility model when they studied the effects on delinquency prone youth. 10 fourth grade boys were selected for this study due to their previous anti social behavior. The boys were placed in a special physical education program that met for 1 hour- three times a week. The program included regular physical activity components (e.g. volleyball) as well as social skill instruction. This instruction included daily teacher talk, student sharing, reflection, and discussion of Hellison’s (1985) Personal Responsibility levels. The researchers used interviews, teacher field notes, and the obtaining of office referrals during the study. Although there was no apparent change in the office referrals, several changes were noted by observers in such areas as self control and caring. Other changes such as increased self respect, self- esteem, and respecting authority were also recorded (Debusk & Hellison, 1989).

The personal responsibility based interventions have been found to be linked with potentially important correlations. For example, students possessing key attributes that the model promotes (e.g. caring for others) are more likely to do better in their academic achievement. A study conducted by Martel, McKelvie and Standing (1987) found, that an important single predictor of academic achievement among students is the extent to which they are held formally and personally responsible for their actions. In contrast to the contemporary cooperative learning approaches to instructional effectiveness, personal responsibility ranked higher than general intelligence as measured by a standard IQ test battery in terms of a functional relationship with student achievement on academic tasks, providing additional support for the
importance of a personal responsibility component within K-12 education environments (Martel et al., 1987).

DeBusk & Hellison (1989) and Hellison and Walsh (2002) provide data supported examples in which personal responsibility skills have been introduced to physical education classes with some success. The personal responsibility skills introduced were functionally related to improved decision-making, improved interpersonal skills, and acceptance of responsibility, via qualitative and anecdotal records. What remains, again, as Hellison and Walsh (2002) iterate, is continued study of instructional strategy variations, alternate methodologies, as well as looking at the effects on multiple participants over various amounts of time (Debusk & Hellison, 1989). These recommendations would increase the ability to scientifically measure this model which would potentially lead to greater understanding for teachers who are looking for help in this area.

Watson, Newton & Kim (2003) used the setting of a summer youth sports program (National Youth Sport Program- NYSP) to measure values based concepts by using the Contextual Self Responsibility Questionnaire (CSRQ). The development of this questionnaire was influenced by the work of Hellison (1985, 1995) and the Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility model. One hundred and thirty five boys and girls (mean age 11.98 years old) completed the questionnaire. The CSRQ was used to assess the youth’s perceptions of specific values based constructs including care for others/ goal setting, self-responsibility, and self control/respect (Watson et al., 2003). They found that emphasizing values was correlated with greater sport enjoyment, interest in sport, positive future expectations, and greater respect for
leaders. The authors recommend that the CSRQ be further modified to adequately address all of Hellison’s levels (Watson et al., 2003).

Buchanan (2001) has pointed out the challenge in training or preparing those implementing values based instruction. This author studied the instructional staff who implementing the Personal Responsibility model at a sports camp for at-risk youth. Through ethnographic interviews and observations, themes were identified as contextual challenges. One of the themes was related to the staff members understanding of the model and how to implement it (Buchanan, 2001). The lack of understanding caused staff members to engage in behaviors such as disrespecting the students and being inflexible and authoritarian, actions that run contrary to Hellison’s (1995) model. Buchanan’s (2001) study provides evidence for the importance of effectively training those that will administer the Personal Responsibility model.

Mixed Method Approaches

Unique to this dissertation’s treatment development efforts, and outlined in Chapter 3, was measuring the effects if the Personal Responsibility Model through both a behavioral and quantitative- group comparison approach. Graham (1989) has said, “no one paradigm of inquiry- no single program of research is sufficient to capture the full magnitude or range of any educational activity or event (p.190)”.

Shempp (1987) also believes that using a multiple perspective approach is the key to truly understanding the full potential functional relationships among teacher-student and student-student behavioral interactions in educational context. This section of the
literature review will briefly highlight the history and appropriateness of a behavioral and group comparison study approach and provide rationale for its use.

The appeal of the mixed approach seems to be receiving more attention. Whereas in the past researchers would only subscribe to one methodology to answer their questions, today it is more common to find researchers who value the opinion of and engage in research coming from a different perspective. In a recent journal article, Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004) describe the appeal of mixed methods approaches as a research paradigm “who’s time has come” (p.14). They provide strategies for researchers to follow in developing mixed methods approaches and discuss the benefits. They conclude that this practical method has been around for many years but now, more than ever before, needs to be recognized and accepted as a third research paradigm. They feel that scientific inquiry and, in particular, educational research will be greatly enhanced through this approach.

Applied Behavior Analysis

In the social sciences and in particularly the field of education, behavior analysis as a research method has experienced a long and productive history. In addition, the experimental analysis of behavior literature has provided a rich source of theory building materials from which productive educational and therapeutic applications have been taken. Currently, behavior analysis is being used with ever increasing frequency in educational research and evaluation endeavors in various research areas and in many diverse settings (Ward & Barrett, 2002). Furthermore the experimental analysis of behavior has provided a rich source of theory building materials from which productive educational applications have been taken (Siedentop, 1984).
As one looks back on early behavior analysis research in education, much of the work was descriptive in nature (e.g., Anderson & Barrette, 1978). Efforts in this research period were focused on descriptions of the effective and not-so-effective practices of teachers and students in particular instructional ecologies, without effort toward constructing causal or correlational relationships among behaviors and events in those ecologies.

The field of Physical education and Sport has also been influenced by research from a behavior analytic perspective (see for example, Darst, Zakrajsek, & Mancini; 1989). Historically, Bookhout's (1967) work was the first of its kind in physical education, where systematic observation techniques were used to study the rapidly occurring events and behaviors of teachers. Another of the first to document this was the work of Tharpe and Gallimore (1976). These researchers were among the first to report observational data on coaching behavior. This work involved data collectors spending several practice sessions with the UCLA basketball team coding the behaviors of the head coach. Termed systematic observation in physical education and sport, these types of more traditional behavior analyses methods continued to grow and provide assistance to coaches, teachers and athletes (Darst, Zakrajsek, & Mancini, 1989; Metzler, 1989; Siedentop, 1981; Siedentop, Tousignant, & Parker, 1982).

One of the reason behavior analysis research rose in popularity (Ward & Barrett, 2002) is because there have existed many challenges associated with the empirical documentation of affective behaviors. The most predominant form of analysis to date has been in the area of survey methodology or qualitative field note analysis. These
methods have been problematic due to inherent challenges with the reliability and validity of data in relation to changes that may be occurring in clientele as a function of being exposed to positive social curriculum.

Applied behavior analysis as a research methodology, on the other hand, may offer important contributions that describe and document the personal responsibility model due to its emphases on reliability of treatment implementation and the quantitative focus on directly observable behaviors and events. Through careful and systematic selection, training, and analysis of the measures chosen, as well as agreement on what behavior and event activity corresponds with each measure, this methodology attempts to reduce term and data collection subjectivity.

With the potential benefits of a behavior analytic approach there also may be drawbacks. One of these drawbacks is that there are usually only a small number of participants analyzed in each study (a similar drawback to a qualitative case-study approach). This small number limits the understanding of the intervention’s effects on the larger group. Although the students observed may show changes in behavior, perhaps other students, not analyzed, would be different. Another potential drawback may be that in behavior analysis research the participant’s behavior is usually only compared to their own behavior prior to the intervention. It may be helpful in some situations to be able to have a comparison with another individual or group not in the setting where the intervention was implemented. These drawbacks lead us to the assistance of adding a within and between group comparison to assist in understanding the personal responsibility model on a larger scale.
Group Comparison Analysis

Experimental group comparison research has traditionally been the form of research in educational settings (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Through this methodology, researchers have been able to determine such things as the effects of various curricula on student performance, student perceptions on a variety of topics, and the comparison of overall test scores from different schools. Through the use of such instruments as surveys, group comparison research is interested in individual differences and is assisted by statistical manipulations to draw conclusions (Barlow & Herson, 1984).

Group comparisons are popular because of their ability to be administered to large numbers of people and the ease of data analysis through computer technology. Through the use of technology, online surveys have also added to convenience, participation, and subsequent appeal. One of the main challenges of this method, and source of scrutiny by some in the academic community (Barlow & Herson, 1984), has been whether the researcher is measuring merely the perception of the event or what actually is taking place. Despite the criticism, the group comparison continues to assist scholars in answering their research questions.

Summary

The first section of this review focused on the challenge of anti social behavior among children and youth. Emphasis in this section was on the negative implications and ramifications derived from anti social behavior among K-12 settings and throughout the individual’s lifespan.
The second section highlighted programs and strategies aimed at addressing these problems. Some of the studies were introduced on a large scale (e.g. The Child Development Project) while others were introduced by a single teacher (Rathvon, 1990). The larger studies used questionnaires, observations, and interviews to form conclusions. In many of the studies, control groups were used to compare the effects of a particular intervention between groups that received the intervention with groups that did not (e.g. Solomon et al., 1996). Positive indicators of program or intervention success were realized although one study found that a particular context (sports setting) in not enough alone to promote positive social behavior (Shields & Bredemeire, 1986). Evidence was provided in support of combining a physical activity setting with social skill training as an effective approach to social development (Bredemeier et al., 1986).

The smaller scale studies usually involved one classroom and a small number of participants (3-6). Behavior analytic methodologies, using a multiple baseline design were common in this area (Rathvon, 1990, van der Mars, 1989). Participants in these studies were selected based on their previous anti social behavior usually observed and recommended by the teacher (e.g. Clare et al., 2000). Examples of effective strategies included such things as the location of feedback given to students (Ryan & Yerg, 2001), participants viewing videotapes of their behavior (Claire et al., 2000), specific verbal praise (van der Mars, 1989) and encouragement (Rathvon, 1990) given by the teacher. The smaller scale studies generally showed short-term positive effects on the participants anti social behavior.
The third section of this literature review summarized the personal responsibility strategy. This section highlighted studies that have shown instances where students increased various dimensions of positive social behavior by being exposed to the personal responsibility instruction. Within this section Hellison’s (2003; 1995) model was highlighted. Discussion focused on the appeal of the model as well as the lack of empirical evidence. Most of the research conducted on the model has used the case study approach. Hellison solicits a more equitable balance of research designs aimed at studying the effects of the Personal Responsibility model (Hellison & Walsh, 2002). Interviews, field notes, and office referrals were some of the methods used to collect the limited data on this model (DeBusk & Hellison, 1989). The Personal Responsibility model has inspired the development of a questionnaire (CSRQ) which was used to measure participants perceptions of values learned in a summer sports camp (Watson et al., 2003). Research also suggests that those implementing the model be adequately trained so that the principles and strategies endorsed are not compromised (Buchanan, 2001). No evidence was found in the Personal Responsibility literature supporting whether the model was implemented according to pre-established methods. Data in this respect would provide a measure of treatment fidelity (Barlow & Hersen, 1984) and may assist others interested in the specific steps that were taken to implement the Personal Responsibility model.

The final section of this literature review was an overview of two methodologies- behavior analysis and group comparisons. Justification was provided as to their merit and appropriateness in educational research. Both of these
methodologies have been previously used for determining the effects of various social skill interventions.

This research was first based on the pervasive and steadily increasing challenge of off-task and anti-social behavior in school-based settings. Second, while there is a conceptual and data-based literature in relation to the potential handling of these challenges, it remains incomplete and inconclusive due to measurement challenges and unsubstantiated treatment recommendations (Newton, et al., 2001; Shields & Bredemeier, 1995). Based on the argued importance of the personal responsibility model's contribution to the facilitation of effective instruction in general, and to the treatment of anti-social behavior in specific, this dissertation research implemented the model with an urban, middle school student population. It was hoped that as a function of this type of data-based scientific activity, the literature in this area would be advanced in relation to treatment operations, measurement challenges, and student and group impact documentation.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The present research examined Hellison’s (2003) Personal Responsibility model, and its effects on student anti and positive social behavior at both the individual and group level. This chapter provides a detailed description of the methods and procedures used in this study. The methods and procedures are summarized under the following headings: (a) participants and setting (b) description of the research design, (c) operational description of the general and specific procedures used for implementation of the treatments as designed and developed, (d) measures used to detect treatment effects, (e) methods for data collection, (f) reliability procedures used to ensure respective treatment fidelity and accuracy of data collection, and (g) methods for data analysis.

Participants and Setting

The participants used to answer the first research question (What are the effects of the Personal Responsibility model on individual student behavior?) were three middle school students from Southside middle school (fictitious school name for clarity purposes). Southside middle school was characterized as urban, serving middle school aged children only, and serving a significant percentage of chronically low socio-economic status students from underrepresented minority backgrounds. From 74 students surveyed at this school, 40% were found to be Caucasian, 27% Hispanic, 2% African American, 1%
Asian, and 4% indicated Other. The school was public and ranged in grades 6-8 in educational offerings, and consisted of a total school population of approximately 500. The school's location was in a mid-sized city in the Rocky Mountain region of the United States.

Physical education classes at Southside were held on an open grass field adjacent to the school and in a well-equipped school gymnasium. Physical education classes were held five times per week for an entire semester. All physical education classes taught for observation purposes within this study included sport education content designed to develop a range of fundamental sport skills, with the inclusion of developmentally appropriate game activities. The games played during observation time were badminton, soccer, basketball, and volleyball.

The physical education teacher participating in this research study was an American Indian male, certified in a southwestern state to teach physical education. The teacher held an undergraduate degree in physical education. The teacher was completing his 9th year at this particular school, and had over 12 years of teaching experience in a variety of middle school education settings that served primarily urban children and youth. This teacher taught all physical education classes to the Southside students and implemented all treatments as designed and developed by the lead investigator for use in this study. The participating teacher had never implemented any of these interventions previously with this class or any other.

Three male students from Southside were chosen as participants for this portion of the study. These students were from three separate physical education classes. The selection process consisted of observing their classes multiple times over the course of two weeks.
Qualitative field notes focusing on students who displayed the target behaviors associated with this study (e.g. pushing, talking while the teacher is talking) were taken during the first week (two 50 minute observations). After a few students from each class were identified by analyzing the field notes, the second week consisted of observing these particular students on two days. During these days the students were observed in 10-minute segments (each were observed two segments per day). The students were coded according to the data collection sheet (See Appendix III). During the two-week observation period the students were involved in both badminton and soccer activities.

The selection process for the first class focused on a student named Darren (alternative name). Darren was consistently off-task and had a hard time not touching others. The participating teacher also agreed that he displayed this type of behavior on a regular basis. From one of the 10-minute observations, Darren displayed 10 socially irresponsible and personally irresponsible behaviors. The "helpful to others" category was never recorded. Darren’s mean frequency for socially and personally irresponsible categories was 7 per ten-minute segment. The other student observed during this time displayed a mean frequency of 3. After reviewing the data, consulting with the teacher, and consulting with a faculty mentor; Darren was chosen as the participant for the first class.

Darren was in the 7th grade and was 13 years old. This student’s ethnicity was Caucasian. Darren was in the upper half of the class as far as physical education ability. Darren had physical education class on Monday- Friday from 9:10- 10:03.

The selection process for choosing a student in the second class came down to a student named Jimmy. Jimmy has a problem with bothering others physically (e.g.
pushing, bumping on purpose). In a span of 10 minutes, Jimmy averaged 6 socially and personally irresponsible behaviors. After reviewing the data, consulting with the teacher, and consulting with a faculty mentor, Jimmy was chosen as the participant for class number two.

Jimmy was in the 6th grade and was 12 years old. This student was in the lower half of the class as far as physical education ability. This student’s ethnicity was Hispanic. Jimmy had physical education class on Monday- Friday from 1:20- 2:08.

The selection process for the last class focused on a student named Wes (alternative named). Wes’s main problem was calling kids names. The teacher mentioned that he has struggled finding ways to curb this behavior. The main problem is name calling and making fun of others. The 10-minute trial observations showed consistent socially irresponsible behavior in the form of name calling (e.g. he calls other students “fool” which is against class rules). Wes also consistently bothers other students (e.g. pushing, play fighting). Wes averaged 8 socially and personally irresponsible behaviors. The other student observed averaged 3 socially and personally irresponsible behaviors. After reviewing the data, consulting with the teacher, and consulting with a faculty mentor, Wes was chosen as the participant for class number three.

Wes was in the 8th grade and was 13 years old. This student’s ethnicity was Hispanic. Wes was in the upper half of the class as far as physical education ability. Wes had physical education class on Monday- Friday from 2:15- 3:04.

The second portion of this study was a group comparison and involved six physical education classes. These participants were used to answer research questions # 2 (What are the effects of the Personal Responsibility model on the class as a whole with regards
to levels of anti and positive social behavior?) and #3 (How do classes that received the intervention compare in terms of pro and anti social behavior to a control class from another school?). Three of the classes were at Southside middle school where the intervention took place and three were at Northside middle school that served as a comparative control. The classes were mixed between 6th, 7th and 8th grades. The teacher at Southside middle school, described earlier in this section, was the same teacher that taught the 6th, 7th, and 8th grade students.

Northside middle school was also characterized as urban and also served a significant percentage of chronically low socio-economic status students from underrepresented minority backgrounds. From a sample of 71 students at the school 38% were found to be Caucasian, 27% Hispanic, 2% African American, 1% Asian, and 4% Other. The school was public, ranging from 6 to 8th grade and consisted of a total school population of approximately 650. The schools location was in a mid-sized city in the Rocky Mountain region of the United States.

Classes at Northside were held in a well-equipped school gymnasium. Physical education classes were held five times per week for an entire semester. Physical education classes taught for observation purposes within this study included sport education content designed to develop a range of fundamental sport skills, with the inclusion of developmentally appropriate game activities. The games played during observation time were badminton and volleyball. The class also did periodic fitness testing.

The physical education teacher at Northside was a Caucasian male, certified in a southwestern state to teach physical education. The teacher held an undergraduate degree
in physical education. The teacher was completing his 5th year at this particular school, which was his first teaching appointment after becoming licensed. This teacher taught all physical education classes at Northside. The teacher regularly implemented what may be considered a standard behavior management approach consisting of warning the students upon first offense and then subtracting participation points if there was a second offense.

Prior to data collection, the teacher, participating students, and parents signed an informed consent/assent form. The forms used had been approved by the University of Nevada Las Vegas Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (see Appendix VI).

Design

The design chosen to assist in analyzing the effects of the Personal Responsibility model on the three selected students was categorized as single case, applied behavior analysis, and was chosen to reflect the natural and unobtrusive implementation of an intervention within the ongoing activities of the school setting. The design chosen has an underlying objective of making inferences about the effects of interventions across different treatment conditions over time. The following treatment implementation structure as discussed and illustrated provides for naturalistic scrutiny of participant behavior changes as a function of treatment exposure (Kazdin, 1982).

A multiple baseline ABA design across three students was implemented for this study. Phase designation included:

A= Baseline Period (No Treatment)
B= Personal Responsibility Treatment
A= Maintenance (Return to Baseline)
An appealing aspect of this design is the reduction of many internal validity concerns associated with single case research studies. Collecting the initial baseline data, introducing treatments at different times to the three classes, and involving a return to the baseline condition, helps the treatment arguably stand alone as the sole factor for behavioral change (Kazdin, 1982). Key threats to internal validity, including history and maturation, are reduced through the use of this particular research design. To further illustrate this point, because the treatment was implemented to the classes at different times, and if the behavioral change occurred immediately after implementation for each class, one could argue that a random historical factor was not what changed the behavior because the change consistently happened after the treatment was implemented.

Another appealing aspect of this type of single case design is the structural conformity to the natural physical education environment that the students had been previously accustomed. The treatments were implemented within the context of regular physical education units of study, during regular class-time hours, and at a location familiar to the students. These factors contributed to a very close replication of a typical situation, allowing the students to behave as normally as possible throughout the entirety of the study, with the exception of treatment exposure and potential effects of such exposure.

For the second portion of this study, comparing survey responses from students at Southside and students from Northside, a pre-test, post-test control group design was selected. The students observed from Southside middle school (3 physical education classes) received the intervention and the other three physical education classes from Northside middle school did not. This design was chosen because it conforms to the
structure of the research study and, through the pre-test, provides a comparison of the two
groups before and after the intervention as well as providing within group comparisons
relative to the dependent variable.

Procedures

General Procedures

This research study was guided by a set of general and specific procedures designed
to provide an operational and replicable framework for implementing the educational
treatments studied, and for observing and recording select student target behaviors
designed to aid in the determination of the relative effects of the treatment exposure over
time.

The Personal Responsibility intervention, along with all other physical education
instruction, was conducted in the context of a developmental based curriculum taught in
50-minute blocks, five times per week. The treatment lasted for two weeks with data
being collected four times per week. The classes were exposed to an initial baseline
period in order to gather an indication of behavior levels on the target measure (refer to
the Measures and Data Collection Procedures section) before the treatment was
implemented. After the baseline period, the classes were exposed to the Personal
Responsibility intervention followed by a return to baseline. As required by a multiple
baseline design, the 3 classes were exposed to the intervention at different times.

Although the intervention was implemented on a class-wide basis, the procedures
outlined above guided the data collection for the three individual students identified prior
to the baseline phase. In order to determine the effects of the intervention on the classes
as a whole, another measure called The Child Social Behavior Questionnaire (CSBQ) developed by Warden et al. (2003), was administered that looked specifically at pro and anti social behavior. All of the students on the first day and the last day of their respective intervention phase completed this 16-item questionnaire (see Appendix II) that asked questions about their behavior and the way that they viewed certain behaviors. The lead investigator administered the survey to both the experimental and control school sites.

The design chosen to measure levels of pro and anti social behavior on a class-wide basis was categorized as a pre-test/ post-test control group design. In staying consistent with this design, three classes from Northside middle school, but coming from the same grade level, received the same questionnaire at approximately the same time. The students at this school were not exposed to any part of the Personal Responsibility treatment. The data collector administered all three surveys at this site as well.

Specific Treatment Procedures

Baseline conditions. Baseline conditions were designed to be as unobtrusive as possible, and were designed to gather interval data on the 5 Personal Responsibility levels operationalized in Appendix I. These data were then used to provide a characteristic summary, or behavioral topography, of the student participant used for experimental purposes prior to any treatment implementation. In this manner, and as a function of treatment implementation across three classes, individual behavior exhibited by the student participant during baseline conditions could be compared to this behavior under treatment conditions.
Treatment fidelity data. Behavioral data were collected to ensure that components of the treatment were not present in baseline phases of the experiment. Fidelity data were also collected to ensure that the treatments were operationalized for the experimental phase and were distinctly present as procedurally described for that particular phase. Inter-observer agreement was performed 33% of the time that treatment fidelity data collected to ensure that these data were being collected accurately.

Treatment phase. The treatment implemented in this investigation was titled Personal Responsibility, and is based primarily on the qualitative work of Hellison (2003; 1995). Desired end products of this treatment include the increased student use of positive social behaviors contributing to a more effective learning environment for all students. Hellison (2003; 1995) provides the major conceptual and theoretical articulation in this area in supporting the notion of empowering students to take responsibility for their behavioral actions. His work has pointed to the view that when teachers empower rather than overpower, they are more likely to see positive behaviors emerge which act as a positive catalyst for student learning opportunities (De Busk & Hellison, 1989). Key to this intervention is the student as the goal setter, provider of knowledge, and related illustrations designed to teach other students.

Specifically, it was felt important to completely and operationally define the Personal Responsibility treatment used in this study, as this approach to treatment definition was viewed as an asset to both the future study of such treatments in terms of treatment fidelity issues, and the potential use of these treatments by practicing teacher professionals due to enhanced application definition (Peterson, Homer, & Wonderlich, 1982). On this premise, the specific treatment steps were:
1) The teacher asked the class to think about how their behavior was yesterday.

2) Each individual student assigned their behavior to one of the 5 levels. (Chart will be posted where students can easily observe)

3) The teacher talked about the 5 levels related to the TPSR scale and provided examples of appropriate behavior.

4) The teacher asked a student or students to demonstrate an example of the behaviors discussed by the teacher.

5) Each individual student set a goal for the upcoming class as to their personal behavior. The teacher asked them to fold their arms when a goal was selected.

6) The teacher provided feedback throughout the lesson pertaining to their goals and the levels of responsibility.

7) At the conclusion of the lesson the teacher asked the students to indicate by raising of their hands who met their goals.

8) Students and teacher provided specific examples of good and bad behavior demonstrated in the class.

The selection of the 8 steps outlined above corresponds with lesson plan strategies for teachers implementing the Personal Responsibility model in their classroom (Hellison, 2003). Strategies outlined by Hellison (2003) are awareness discussions, during activity reminders, group meetings after the lesson, and personal reflection time. Through the eight steps listed above and directly influenced by Hellison's (2003) suggested strategies, students are given the opportunity to become more aware of how their behavior affects others and take personal steps to be more responsible.
Measures

The measures chosen for this study were selected from the literature related to the focus on positive social behaviors in elementary age children. In this respect, the work of Hellison (2003; 1995) and his levels of personal responsibility were used (See Chapter 1 and 2 & Appendix II). An additional measure and related to the group comparison came from the work of Warden, Cheyne, Christie, Fitzpatrick & Reid (2003) who developed the questionnaire that concurrently measures positive and anti social behavior. These two measures were relied upon to effectively answer the research questions for this study. All measurement terms and operational definitions are completely listed in Chapter 1 and Appendix I.

The first measure selected for this study was the Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility scale (Hellison, 2003). This measure was used for the first portion of the study which involved the single subject analysis. The measure involves five levels that encouraged students to move from irresponsibility to responsibility and from respecting one's self to respecting others. Level zero is termed irresponsibility. In this level student behavior is considered disruptive with excuses being made to blame others while denying personal responsibility. Level one of the model focuses on students being in control of their actions by showing respect for others. The second level relates to student participation and whether they are giving their best effort possible in whatever they are engaged in. The third level measures whether the student is able to work independently, accepting responsibility for their work or performance. The final level is one in which the student displays caring behaviors such as support, showing concern, and exhibiting compassion to fellow students. The five levels provide a conceptual framework upon
which a teacher can encourage and evaluate dimensions of personal and social responsibility. The ultimate goal of the model is to provide important assistance and reflection in the social development of the individual (Hellison, 2003).

The second measure chosen for the present study was developed by Warden et al. (2003) and was developed in response to the lack of questionnaires that specifically addressed both positive and anti-social behavior together. The Child Social Behavior Questionnaire developed by Warden and colleagues (Warden et al., 2003) (See Appendix I), is a self-report tool that has 16 items that ask the student to respond to questions about their behavior. For example one question states, “During physical education class how often do you help another kid with something? Another example is, “During physical education class how often do you threaten to hurt another kid if they don’t do something?” The student then responds on a 5-point likert type scale ranging from Almost Never to Almost Always. The two constructs measured in this questionnaire are pro and anti-social behavior and received reliability scores of .68 and .63 respectively. Significant correlations (p<.01), among teachers completing the questionnaire about a student, peers completing the questionnaire about the same student, and self-reports from that same student were also found providing a form of reliability to the questionnaire (for a detailed discussion of the instruments reliability and validity refer to Warden et al., 2003). The CSBQ was selected because it was felt to be the best measure given that it has the potential to capture information that a teacher or a peer may not have been able to observe. It also is easy to administer to large groups of people.

The data collected on the three student participants was gathered in real time. Real time data recording is defined as the recording of all behaviors and events of interest that
are contained in a particular category system as they actually occur (Sharpe & Koperwas, 2003).

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection involved three steps. The first step in this process called for data collectors to be trained to criterion according to an accepted three-step method for data collection training (Kazdin, 1982). These included the development of a criterion standard in which a videotape record of multiple illustrations of all behaviors targeted for analysis within this study were represented and a corresponding data record collected from that videotape, the training of data collectors to that standard, and the independent interrater reliability checking during 35% of all observations. Second, treatment fidelity was ensured through the collection of behavioral data on the teacher who implemented the treatment for this study and who oversaw the baseline phases of this study. As mentioned earlier, this was done to ensure that the Personal Responsibility model operationalized for the experimental phase was implemented according to the procedures defined in this study.

Data were recorded for 50-minute class periods during the prescribed observational days, with all data collected by trained observers in real time (see earlier discussion of real time data collection). All teacher behaviors (intervention steps) related to the issue of treatment fidelity, and student behaviors in relation to the 5 level, Personal Responsibility scale were recorded during this time.

A modified whole interval recording methods utilizing a 10 second observe/10 second record was used for data collection on the three student participants. The data
collector observed the student for 10 seconds and then recorded the student’s behavior to one of the 5 Personal Responsibility levels (See Data Recording Sheet- Appendix III) for 10 seconds. Whole interval recording procedures (van der Mars, 1989; Kazdin, 1982), means that assignment is determined if the behavior lasted the entire interval. For this study the method was modified where level selection was determined by the most dominant behaviors observed over the 10 second interval. For example, if a student exhibited behaviors that fit into level zero for eight seconds and then exhibited behaviors that fit into level two for two seconds, level zero would be coded because it lasted longer or was most dominant. This process continued throughout the class period. The 10 second interval time and the 10 second recording time were kept consistent through the use of an audible tone by a portable Panasonic © tape player worn by the primary investigator during session observations.

The teacher was trained to implement the eight steps that made up the Personal Responsibility model. This training occurred towards the end of the baseline phase. This training consisted of two, 30-minute sessions. The first session involved explaining the theory behind the Personal Responsibility Model, introducing the teacher to the five behavioral levels, and showing the teacher the chart that displayed the five levels. The second session involved the teacher practicing delivering the eight steps to the model, with the lead investigator portraying a student. The teacher practiced until all eight steps were memorized and he consistently implemented them in order.
Specific Reliability and Treatment Fidelity Procedures

The rationale behind assessing reliability is the minimization of observer bias and pursuit of data collection consistency, and through such, increasing the probability of accurate data in relation to the experimental settings to be observed. Three general areas of reliability were included in this study; data collector training to criterion, data collector reliability checks during study implementation, and inter observer agreement checks on the treatment fidelity data throughout study implementation.

One advanced graduate student and one undergraduate physical education major were trained through 10-15 hours of practice and instruction on assigning a segment of behaviors to one of the 5 TPSR levels. A three-step process was used for this stage. First, a criterion tape standard depicting multiple occurrences of the various behavior categories of Appendix I was prepared. This criterion tape was then divided into distinct four-minute segments for training purposes. The videotape included multiple four-minute records of physical education students at a similar type of setting as the one in this study. This videotape, once the advanced graduate student data collector provided a reliable data record of each four-minute tape segment, was used as the data standard to train all data collectors for this experiment.

The second step involved data collectors being trained to a criterion of >.90 agreement for three consecutive observations on the 4 minute segments of videotape and in comparison to the corresponding data standard created by the faculty coder. The final reliability step included independent inter observer agreement checks, assessed 35 % of all observations (including the baseline phases). The observation sessions were randomly
selected. Interval by interval agreement checks were appropriate given that each interval received a score (level) from both data collectors. Each interval was compared to the corresponding interval to determine whether or not there was unanimous agreement. During this process, both observers had to agree on the occurrence or non-occurrence of all five behavior categories during each observation. Kazdin's (1982) point-by-point formula was used to assess the reliability standard. According to Kazdin (1982), the point-by-point agreement ratio is an important method for computing reliability to assess whether there is agreement on each instance of the observed behavior. The formula for computing point-by-point agreement consists of:

\[
\text{Point-by-Point Agreement} = \frac{A}{A + D} \times 100
\]

\[A = \text{agreements for each recorded interval}\]
\[D = \text{disagreements for each recorded interval}\]

To evaluate percentage measure agreement, percentages for each behavior occurrence were converted into discrete whole integers.

In order to assess the treatment fidelity aspect of the study, behavioral measures were tabulated in the form of a treatment checklist. In this manner, a visual representation of how accurately the teacher tended to operate experimentally and according to the defined treatment or baseline procedures of the study was made available. A summary protocol for specific intervention steps are outlined in the Specific Procedures section of this chapter. A checklist was used to indicate the intervention steps that had been met. The checklist consisted of the 7 components to the Personal Responsibility intervention (see Appendix III- Data Recording Sheet). For example, the first item on the checklist stated,
“The teacher asked the class to think about how their behavior was yesterday. The students were asked to assign it to one of the five levels.” If the teacher said this to the students during the class a check mark was placed on the data recording sheet.

To determine the reliability in collecting treatment fidelity data, a second trained observer recorded treatment integrity data simultaneously with the primary observer. This took place on 35% of the total observation sessions. The purpose in this effort was to ensure that the treatment fidelity data were being collected reliably. The same analysis methods as described above were used to assess the fidelity of treatment implementation.

Data Analyses

Data analysis for the first measure included the graphic representation of all behavior occurrences according to accepted applied behavior analysis table and figure preparation guidelines. The data were analyzed according to magnitude (i.e., mean and level) and rate (i.e., trend and latency) analyses (Kazdin, 1982). Visual inspection was viewed as the most amenable analysis method for this measure given (a) that the focus was on the therapeutic value of the treatment for the student participant, (b) only those effects of a strength visible to the practicing professional on a data graph were felt warranted to present given the applied nature of the study, and (c) single subject non-parametric data were collected and therefore, not amenable to most traditional statistical analyses.

Statistical analyses were used to evaluate whole class effects of the treatment. The data were entered into SPSS (Statistical Software for the Social Sciences Version 11.0) and this program was used to perform all group comparison functions. Due to the two constructs in the questionnaire (pro and anti social behavior) each questionnaire received
two scores. The first score was tallied from eight anti social type questions where a lower score is optimal (e.g. During Physical Education class, how often did you hit or kick another kid?) The second score measuring the pro social construct was tallied from eight questions in which the closer the score was to 5, the better (e.g. During Physical Education class, how often do you help another kid with something). So each student received both a anti and a pro social score for each questionnaire that they completed. Based on the results from the surveys, the means for each question were compared with each other. Further analysis, through independent and paired samples t-test’s identified statistically significant differences between the mean scores at a .05 and .01 alpha level.

Summary

This chapter has described the methodology used in implementing the Personal Responsibility intervention. The chapter describes the experimental design, measures, and data collection techniques chosen to best address the purposes of this research. Particularly important to this study, and largely overlooked in contemporary research, were the attention to reliability procedures and the collection of treatment fidelity data.

It is anticipated that the implementation of a study such as the one methodologically described above would provide a more rigorously measured and scientifically documented approach to research into the effectiveness of the Personal Responsibility intervention that to this point have only surfaced primarily in the qualitative literature. If the treatment is successfully implemented, and if results are found to be in accordance with other studies found in the literature, a quantitative approach to assessing behavioral change may be more fully realized. This realization may then be translated into
meaningful information for practicing physical education professionals and youth sport programmers interested in developing the affective domain.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter provides the results from following the procedures as listed in Chapter 3. The chapter is organized into four sections: (a) inter-observer agreement, (b) treatment fidelity, (c) individual behavioral data, and (d) statistical analyses.

Inter-observer Agreement

Assessing inter-observer agreement on the individual behaviors that were recorded is critical in controlling for observer bias. As mentioned previously, Kazdin’s (1982) point-by-point formula was used to assess inter-observer agreement on 35% of the observations. This assessment was completed throughout the duration of the study, including the baseline, treatment, and maintenance phases. From this assessment (6 checks per student for a total of 18 checks), the average agreement was 90.1% with a range of 82% to 95%.

Treatment Fidelity

As detailed in Chapter 3, the purpose of assessing treatment fidelity is to measure how accurately the teacher operated experimentally and according to the defined treatment or baseline procedures of the study. For example, data were recorded on whether or not the teacher followed such intervention steps as asking the class to set a
goal for the upcoming class or whether or not the teacher provided feedback throughout the lesson pertaining to the students goals (See Chapter 3 for a complete list of procedures). Results from the treatment fidelity checks indicated that no part of the intervention took place during the baseline or maintenance (return to baseline) phases of the study across all three participants. Data also show that all parts of the treatment were implemented during the treatment phase of this study and across all three participants (100%). These data indicated that the Personal Responsibility model was consistently present for the treatment phase according to the definitions and procedures outline in Chapter 3 and that these treatments were consistently absent during the initial baseline phase as well as the return to baseline phase. Table 1 shows the number of treatment fidelity behaviors that were checked and the corresponding percentage. For each observation there were seven behaviors that were watched for that made up the Personal Responsibility intervention (See Appendix III- Data Recording Sheet).

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Personal Responsibility Model</th>
<th>Maintenance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Darren</td>
<td>0/35 (0%)</td>
<td>42/42 (100%)</td>
<td>0/42 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jimmy</td>
<td>0/49 (0%)</td>
<td>42/42 (100%)</td>
<td>0/21 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wes</td>
<td>0/63 (0%)</td>
<td>42/42 (100%)</td>
<td>0/14 (0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inter-observer agreement checks were also assessed on the treatment fidelity data collected. The purpose of these inter-observer agreement checks was to ensure that the treatment fidelity data were being collected without observer bias. From this assessment (18 total checks), the average agreement was 99% with a range of 95%-100%.

Individual Student Behavior

The five levels of responsibility from Hellison’s (2003) Personal Responsibility Model were used to measure the effects of the intervention on individual student behavior. The students observed were selected after a two week observation period (see Participants and Setting section of Chapter 3). Observation data are presented graphically in Figures 1 and 2 and in accordance with accepted applied behavior analysis graphing procedures. Hellison’s Levels of Responsibility (2003) are a continuum of possible behavioral choices beginning with Level 0 (Socially Irresponsible) and ending with Level 4 (Caring) Hellison’s model (2003) does include an advanced level not discussed or measured in this study). This advanced part of the model is Level 5 and is called “outside the gym.” The focus of this level is taking responsible behavior and applying it into areas outside the physical education setting (e.g. at home, in another class). This level was not used due to the lack of resources and time that observing students beyond the physical education class would have required.

Figure 1 includes levels 0-2, with 0 identified as Socially Irresponsible behavior, 1 identified as Personally Irresponsible behavior, and the category of Participant
represented by Level 2. Figure 2 includes Levels 3 and 4, which are Self Direction and Caring respectively. Within each graph a dotted line separates the phases of the study and each phase is identified with a letter and a title (A- Baseline, B-Personal Responsibility, A- Maintenance). The dotted lines also show that the intervention was introduced to the participants at different times.

The data represented in Figures 1 and 2 indicate the percentage of total time the student displayed the level of behavior for each observation session. The effects of the Personal Responsibility model on each of these participants are as follows.

**Darren**

Figure 1 shows Darren’s percentage of social and personal irresponsible behavior to immediately decrease as a function of the onset of the Personal Responsibility intervention (Socially Irresponsible Baseline Mean ($M= 17.2$), range from 8 to 26; Personal Responsibility Treatment $M= 3.8$, range from 1 to 8; Personally Irresponsible Baseline $M= 16.4$, range from 11 to 20; Personal Responsibility $M= 5.0$, range from 3 to 10). The latency of the response from the last day of the baseline period to the first day of the intervention showed a marked change for both socially irresponsible (15% to 8%) and personally irresponsible (22% to 5%) levels. After the intervention was withdrawn, Darren’s social and personally irresponsible behavior increased gradually, but did not return to the levels of the initial baseline period (Socially Irresponsible Treatment $M= 3.8$, range from 1 to 8; Maintenance $M= 6.8$, range from 2 to 16; Personally Irresponsible Treatment $M= 5.0$, range from 3 to 10; Maintenance $M= 7.3$, range from 5 to 11).
Level 2 was termed Participant and shows the percentage of time Darren was fully participating in the lesson with the teacher observing. With the onset of the Personal Responsibility intervention, Darren’s behavior that was categorized as Level 2 increased from a baseline mean of 51.4 (range from 45 to 57) to a treatment mean of 64.2 (range of 57 to 68). The latency of the response from the last day of the baseline period (53%) to the first day of the intervention (65%) was also immediate. After the intervention was withdrawn, Darren’s Level 2 behavior dropped to a mean level of 47.0 (range from 42 to 53). What is interesting about this level is a noticeable trend and immediate decline from the first day the intervention was introduced (65%) through the withdrawal of the intervention and on to the last day of data collection (42%).

Figure 2 shows the percentage of observation time Darren displayed behavior categorized as level 3 or 4. Level 3 was recorded when Darren was fully participating in the lesson without the teacher observing and was called Self Direction. Level 4 was recorded when Darren displayed a caring act that clearly showed concern for those students in his class. This level was termed Caring. Data first show Darren’s percentage of self directed behavior to increase as a function of the onset of the Personal Responsibility intervention (Self Direction Baseline Mean= 13.4, range from 6 to 32; Self Direction Treatment Mean= 25.2, range from 16 to 34). The latent response from the last day of the baseline period (6%) to the first day of the intervention (16%) was also immediate. Data also show a continued increase in self directed behavior after the intervention was withdrawn (Self Direction Treatment M= 25.2, range from 16 to 34; Self Direction Maintenance M= 35.3, range from 30 to 44).
Darren’s Level 2 behavior showed an immediate increase from the onset of the intervention (16%), through the withdrawal, and on to the last day of data collection (41%).

Figure 2 also shows the Level 4 behavior of Caring to increase when the intervention was introduced (Caring Baseline \( M = 1.2 \), range from 0 to 4; Caring Treatment \( M = 4.7 \), range from 3 to 6). After the intervention was withdrawn Darren’s Caring behavior showed a slight maintenance effect but did drop slightly as compared to the treatment mean (Treatment \( M = 4.7 \), range from 0 to 4; Maintenance \( M = 2.8 \), range from 0 to 6).

Jimmy

The second student observed was Jimmy. Jimmy was absent on data collection day number 16. Similar to Darren’s behavior, Figure 1 shows Jimmy’s percentage of social and personal irresponsible behavior to substantially decrease as a function of the onset of the Personal Responsibility intervention (Socially Irresponsible Baseline \( M = 18.3 \), range from 16 to 23; Personal Responsibility Treatment \( M = 2.7 \), range from 0 to 5; Personally Irresponsible Baseline \( M = 13.1 \), range from 5 to 17; Personal Responsibility \( M = 4.5 \), range from 3 to 6). The latency of response from the last day of the baseline period to the first day of the intervention showed an immediate change for both socially irresponsible (18% to 2%) and personally irresponsible (13% to 3%) levels. After the intervention was withdrawn, Jimmy’s social and personally irresponsible behavior maintained a similar level and trend (Socially Irresponsible Maintenance \( M = 4.7 \), range from 3 to 7; Personally Irresponsible Maintenance \( M = 5.0 \), range from 3 to 5).
The line identified as Level 2, Participant, shows the percentage of time Jimmy was fully participating in the lesson with the teacher observing. With the onset of the Personal Responsibility intervention, Jimmy’s Participant behavior decreased from a baseline mean of 57.1 (range from 45 to 72) to a treatment mean of 53.2 (range of 42 to 63). After the intervention was withdrawn, Jimmy’s Participant behavior dropped to a mean level of 42.7 (range from 39 to 47). Despite the first day of the intervention Jimmy’s Level 2 behavior shows an immediate decrease in Participant behavior from the intervention phase though the withdrawal phase and on to the last day of data collection (63%- second day of intervention to 39%- last day of data collection).

Figure 2 also shows the percentage of observation time Jimmy displayed behaviors that were categorized as either Level 3 or 4, Self Direction and Caring respectively. Data first show Jimmy’s percentage of Self Directed behavior to increase as a function of the onset of the Personal Responsibility intervention (Self Direction Baseline $M=13.1$, range from 3 to 15; Self Direction Treatment $M=31.7$, range from 25 to 43). The latent response from the last day of the baseline period (14%) to the first day of the intervention (25%) was also immediate. Data also show a continued increase in self directed behavior after the intervention was withdrawn (Self Direction Treatment $M=31.7$, range from 25 to 43; Self Direction Maintenance $M=43.7$, range from 40 to 46). What is interesting is the immediate increase of Level 3 from the onset of the intervention (25%), through the withdrawal, and on to the last day of data collection (46%).

Figure 2 also shows the Level 4 behavior of Caring to increase when the intervention was introduced (Caring Baseline $M=1.1$, range from 0 to 3; Caring
Treatment $M= 4.2$, range from 2 to 6. The increase in this behavior was immediate upon treatment implementation (last day of baseline- 1%, first day of treatment- 6%). After the intervention was withdrawn Jimmy’s Caring behavior showed a maintenance effect, with a mean level of 4.0 (range from 3 to 5).

**Wes**

As Figure I shows, Wes’s percentage of social and personal irresponsible behavior decreased when the Personal Responsibility intervention was introduced (Socially Irresponsible Baseline $M= 16.7$, range from 5 to 26; Personal Responsibility Treatment $M= 2.0$, range from 0 to 4; Personally Irresponsible Baseline $M= 10.8$, range from 5 to 19; Personal Responsibility $M= 2.2$, range from 0 to 4). After the intervention was withdrawn, Wes’s social and personally irresponsible behavior maintained a similar level and trend (Socially Irresponsible Baseline $M= 4.5$, range from 4 to 5; Personally Irresponsible Maintenance $M= 4.0$, range from 3 to 5). This return to baseline only consisted of two observation days.

Also displayed in Figure 1 was the percentage of time Wes was fully participating in the lesson with the teacher observing- Participant, Level 2. With the introduction of the Personal Responsibility intervention, Wes’s Participant behavior, similar to Jimmy’s, decreased from a baseline mean of 61.3 (range from 55 to 74) to a treatment mean of 57.8 (range of 35 to 64). After the intervention was withdrawn, Jimmy’s Participant behavior dropped to a mean level of 39.0 (range from 38 to 40). A noticeable declining trend of the Level 2, Participant behavior is present when Wes was exposed to the Personal Responsibility intervention (55- first day of intervention, 41, last day of intervention).
Figure 2 shows the percentage of observation time Wes displayed behaviors that were categorized as Self Direction (Level 3) and Caring (Level 4). Data first show Wes’s percentage of Self Directed behavior to increase at the onset of the Personal Responsibility intervention (Self Direction Baseline $M=10.1$, range from 3 to 18; Self Direction Treatment $M=40.8$, range from 25 to 56). As with the other participants, the latent response from the last day of the baseline period (18%) to the first day of the intervention (32%) was also immediate. What is interesting, and similar as well with the two other participants is the marked and immediate increase of self direction (Level 3) from the onset of the intervention (32%), through the withdrawal, and on to the last day of data collection (50%). This upward trend is also noteworthy given the declining trend of Wes’s participation (Level 2) behavior during the intervention phase.

Figure 2 also depicts the Level 4 behavior (Caring) as increasing when the intervention was introduced (Caring Baseline $M=1.1$, range from 0 to 3; Caring Treatment $M=6.0$, range from 3 to 10. The increase in this behavior was immediate upon treatment implementation (last day of baseline- 0%, first day of treatment- 9%). After the intervention was withdrawn, Wes’s behavioral level decreased slightly but still show higher levels that the initial baseline (Maintenance $M=3.5$, range from 2 to 5). It should be noted that this baseline period only consisted of two observation days and therefore determining a trend within this phase was difficult.
Class Wide Self Reported Behavior

The Child Social Behavior Questionnaire (CSBQ) measuring levels of anti and pro social behavior (see Appendix II) was administered to two separate classes (experimental and control). As described in Chapter 3, the CSBQ is a self report tool that has 16 items asking students to respond to questions about their behavior. The students then responds on a 5-point likert type scale ranging from Almost Never to Almost Always. Table 2 provides demographic information on those that completed the questionnaire as well as their pre-test scores.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class Demographics</th>
<th>Experimental (Southside)</th>
<th>Control (Northside)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Students</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Age</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>40% Caucasian</td>
<td>45% Caucasian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27% Hispanic</td>
<td>45% Hispanic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33% Other</td>
<td>10% Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The demographics and pre-test data (Table 3 below) help to substantiate that in the absence of the intervention, there would be no difference between these two groups and therefore, legitimizing the appropriateness of the comparison.
Statistical Analyses

An independent t-test was performed on mean difference from pre and to post-test measures for experimental and control school sites. As Table 3 below indicates, the mean score for the experimental school site was 1.36 for anti social and 3.4 for pro social, while the mean score for the control group was 1.72 for anti social and 2.83 for pro social. The difference between the means was .575 for anti social and -.360 for pro social. An independent t-test revealed a significant difference (p<.01) between the experimental and control groups participant anti and pro social behavior.
### Table 3

Experimental and Control Group Statistical Comparisons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental (Southside)</th>
<th>Control (Northside)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pre-Test Mean Score</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti Social</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>1.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro Social</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Post-Test Mean Score</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti Social</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro Social</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>2.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Paired Samples T-test (Comparing Each Groups Pre and Post Test)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental (Southside)</th>
<th>Control (Northside)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anti Social</td>
<td>t= 2.68</td>
<td>t= -0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. .009 (p&lt;.01)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. =.388 (p&gt;.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro Social</td>
<td>t= -2.65</td>
<td>t= 0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. = .010 (p&lt;.01)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. = .372 (p&gt;.01)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Independent Sample T-test (Comparing Post Tests)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental (Southside)</th>
<th>Control (Northside)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anti Social</td>
<td>t= -3.25</td>
<td>Sig. = .000 (p&lt;.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro Social</td>
<td>t= 4.19</td>
<td>Sig. = .001 (p&lt;.01)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to this analysis, a paired samples t-test was also performed to compare each group’s pre and post test scores. The difference between the experimental groups pre and post test scores was .316 for anti social and -.355 for pro social. The t-test revealed a significance level of .009 (p<.01) for anti social and .010 (p<.01) for
pro social. These data indicate a statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test scores at the .01 level.

The difference between the control groups pre and post test scores was -.113 for anti social and .131 for pro social. The t-test revealed a significance level of .338 (p>.01) for anti social and .372 (p>.01) for pro social. These data indicate that there was no statistically significant difference between the control groups pre and post test scores at the .01 level.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter discusses the results from the implementation of the Personal Responsibility Model. Included in the chapter are overviews of the research questions and hypotheses of this dissertation, important findings and potential implications, how the findings of this dissertation connect to the existing pro social treatment literature, and some concluding recommendations for future study to continue this line of research.

In summary, this dissertation research was based on the ever present challenge of anti social behavior among middle school students. The selection of the Personal Responsibility Model (Hellison, 2003) was based on its conceptual appeal, the widespread practical application by practicing professionals, the lack of quantitative data supporting its effectiveness, and the relative ease of implementation by one teacher. It was anticipated that as a function of this scientific inquiry, the effects of the intervention on student anti and pro social behavior would be more fully understood at both the individual and group level. In addition, it was the intention of engaging in this research project that the literature in this area would be advanced in relation to treatment operations and measurement challenges.

This study posed three specific research questions aimed at examining the effectiveness of the Personal Responsibility Model. The first question was intended to
understand the effects of the intervention on individual student behavior using Hellion’s (2003) 5 levels of developing personal and social responsibility as a curricular model. The second question involved determining the effects of the intervention on not only one student, but the class as a whole. The instrument used to measure this inquiry was the Child Social Behavior Questionnaire (CSBQ). The third question investigated whether the class that received the treatment would result in changes in anti and pro social behavior when compared to a control.

As stipulated in the Study Purpose section of Chapter 1, before the study was conducted it was hypothesized that the Personal Responsibility Model not only would increase the levels of pro social behavior and decrease levels of anti social behavior among the three individual students but would increase the mean level of response for pro social behavior among the classes that received the intervention when comparing their pre and post tests. It was also hypothesized that the Model would increase the mean level of response of pro social behaviors more than the class that received no intervention when comparing the post-test scores.

The findings from this study confirm the stated hypotheses for both the individual student analysis as well as the group comparisons. From the observational data, it was found that all three students immediately decreased their levels of anti social behavior (socially and personally irresponsible behavior) when the Personal Responsibility Model was introduced. As these behaviors decreased, other behaviors rose in frequency, namely Self Direction and Caring. These decreases are important as the literature provides evidence of the negative effects they can have on the school environment (Wynne & Ryan, 1997). For example, bullying types of behavior
(categorized as socially irresponsible in this study) have the potential to not only harm physically but also psychologically (Beale, 2001). The Personal Responsibility Model in this study helped to reduce these types of behaviors.

The Personal Responsibility Model influenced all three students to increase the amount of time they were fully participating in the lesson without the direct supervision from the teacher (Self Direction). This increase was gradual and started when the intervention was first introduced and continued beyond the withdrawal. For the three observed students an opposite trend was found when looking at the Level 2 (Participant) behavior. This level was recorded when the student was fully engaged in the lesson under the supervision of the teacher. Despite a dip in the first day of the intervention for Jimmy, the students Level 2 behavior gradually decreased when the treatment was implemented. This decline also continued through the withdrawal, although the trend appeared to be level off towards the last portion of data collection.

The data suggest that the Personal Responsibility Model helped the students to take more responsibility for their behavior. This is important because the teacher was now given the opportunity to provide much needed attention to other students in the class. Research indicates that teachers do tend to spend most of their time dealing with students who display anti social behavior (Ryan & Yerg, 2001). It is also noteworthy that these trends are gradual in nature. The teacher did not just change his instruction and observation patterns immediately. It is logical that as he felt the student was fully participating in the lesson and the chance of social or personal irresponsible behavior was reduced, he could direct his attention to other important aspects of the lesson. This finding is consistent with what Martinek et al. (2001, p.42)
called a “slow and evolving process” in transferring social values through Personal Responsibility instruction. Although the effects in this study would not be considered “slow”, the changes in Levels 2 and 3 were gradual over time.

All three students exposed to the Personal Responsibility Model experienced an immediate increase in Caring (Level 4) behaviors. This increase was sustained throughout the intervention and was somewhat maintained after withdrawal. The increase may also have been what caused the teacher to feel more comfortable in allowing students to be Self Directed. As the students in this study were going out of their way to help another student or were providing encouraging comments to their peers, it likely increased the trust of the teacher to try new things or help another student who had specific needs.

Another important finding is that each level showed some sort of a maintenance effect after the treatment was withdrawn. In most cases there was a slight percentile decrease but, as compared to the initial baseline, the numbers remained high. This finding provides evidence that the Model does not need to be introduced each and every day. If a teacher does not have time or the class does not meet every day, important changes can still be experienced. Although social validation was not a part of this study because of the already popularized nature of the intervention, informal comments from the teacher and students provided anecdotal evidence. For example, the teacher asked if he could use the Model in other classes that were not apart of the study and also he asked if he could keep the chart after the study was completed.

The multiple baseline design provides valuable defense for critics who might argue that the declining trends of Participant behavior and increasing trend of Self
Direction were a function of a natural sequence that generally occur in physical education units of study. However, data show a fairly stable baseline until the moment that the treatment was implemented. In addition, the treatment was introduced at alternate times further isolating the intervention as the source of the change. For example, Wes did not receive the intervention until he was well into the volleyball unit. The changes for Wes in the areas of Participant and Self Direction did not occur until this time. The same pattern was present with the other two participants.

The survey data that were collected and analyzed confirmed the studies hypothesis on the impact of the Personal Responsibility Model on the collective group of students from Southside Middle School. Eight questions from the survey measured anti social behavior and eight measured pro social behavior. Students from three classes at Southside Middle School completed the survey prior to the intervention being introduced. The same group of students also took the survey after the intervention was withdrawn. The results comparing the means of both the anti social measure and the pro social measure among the pre test and post test revealed a significant difference (p<.01). These data indicate that there was a substantial difference between the two groups of scores. This is significant because it provides support that the benefits from use of the Responsibility Model may be applicable to all students, not just the ones that were prone to displaying anti social behavior. The teacher is usually most concerned with the general well-being of the class and the environment in which he or she operates. This finding indicates that, based on the
students responses, an improved classroom environment resulted from the Personal Responsibility Model.

When comparing the pre and post tests scores from the two schools, three important findings emerge. First, the two groups were very similar before the study began. This is important because it supports the notion that one group did not have a historical advantage or disadvantage that might alter the way that they responded to the intervention. The second finding is that anti social behavior actually went up at Northside and the Pro Social Behavior went down when comparing the pre and post tests. One might suggest that this is a natural progression as students progress throughout the school year (good to begin with and gradually get worse). This further validates the decreases in anti social behavior and the increases in pro social behavior experienced by the group at the Southside School. The final significant finding from this analysis was the difference between the two groups in their post test scores. As similar as the two groups were before the study, there is a clear difference in the two groups after the study was completed. This finding is one of the most compelling in the study and supports others claims that appropriate social skills often remain underdeveloped unless they are planned for and taught by the teacher (Patrick et al., 1998).

In conclusion, this study was an attempt through a mixed method approach, to determine quantitatively the effects of the Personal Responsibility Model. To these ends, quantitative evidence was presented to support the effects of the intervention on not only individual student behavior, but the class as a whole. This Model was introduced with little extra work on the part of the teacher and did not compromise
his previously planned curriculum. If results can be this compelling for others, hope is provided for teachers who may not have the resources or support to implement a wide scale program.

Additionally important to this study were data supporting the treatment’s integrity or whether it was implemented correctly and at the appropriate times. One of biggest criticisms of values or character based education (see for example, Davis, 2003) is that even if there is evidence to support the effects, how it is implemented and with whom are persistent issues. This study is one of the first to provide data showing that the Personal Responsibility Model was implemented according to pre-established plans. These data are important because one of the major limitations to the Model is that it is not implemented properly (Buchanan, 2001). This limitation was addressed in this study and provides guidance for those who are interested in implementing this Model.

Although this study used behavioral and group comparison methodologies, qualitative comments from the students provided anecdotal evidence that behavioral changes were occurring. After each lesson during the treatment phase the teacher sat down with the students and asked questions about their behavioral levels and whether or not they had met their goal for the day. From these discussions comments like, “I helped another kid up after they had fallen down”, or “I encouraged my teammate when they made a good play” were frequent. These comments came from all types of students. One of the observed students, Darren, even made a comment one day that he helped another student in a setting outside of the physical education class. Clearly
these comments are consistent with the quantitative data that was analyzed, supporting the individual and class wide effects of the Model.

Future research in this area should continue to provide important information on the effects of the intervention. This study provides evidence for the short-term effects of the intervention. If resources and time were available, this study would have been enhanced by a longer return to baseline period (especially for Jimmy and Wes). The prolonged period would have assisted in understanding exactly what happens after the intervention was withdrawn, especially as it relates to the maintenance effect. A follow up study one month after the study was completed would also provide important information. Furthermore, a study that analyzed the generalizing effects of the intervention into other settings and contexts would be of benefit.

Also recommended for further study in this area is the continued use of mixed method approaches. Important and compelling information derived from both methodologies enhances our understanding and complimented one another. As indicated previously, most of the research done in this area has been qualitative in nature (Hellison & Walsh, 2002) and focused on only a few students at a time (Debusk & Hellison, 1989). While the pendulum is still heavily weighted on the qualitative side, this study hopefully pioneers a pathway for further quantitative investigation.

This study was conducted at an urban middle school with a high percentage of minority students. Although lower in occurrence (Walker & Sylwester, 1991), anti social behavior is not a problem that is absent in rural areas with a lower minority student population and among females. Therefore, as a concluding recommendation
it is important to do more behavioral and quantitative research looking at the effects of the Personal Responsibility Model on these two groups.

This study provides evidence of the effects of the Personal Responsibility Model on student anti and pro social behavior. This study also provides helpful implementation data for those who wish to further study this Model or those who wish to implement it. Students who were exposed to the Model were positively affected and had their educational experience enhanced. The challenge of anti social behavior in the school setting is not likely to go away on its own. The Personal Responsibility Model is a viable option for professionals facing similar off-task and anti social problems.
Figure 1. Percentage of Student Behaviors across Experimental Phases

Key:
Level 0: Socially Irresponsible
Level 1: Personally Irresponsible
Level 2: Participant

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Figure 2. Percentage of Student Behaviors across Experimental Phases

Key:
Level 3: Self Direction
Level 4: Caring
HELLISON'S (2003) LEVELS OF RESPONSIBILITY

Level 0- Socially Irresponsible: Undisciplined. This category comprises of behaviors that are socially unacceptable in the classroom and hinder the flow of the lesson for other students or the class as a whole. Student behavior in this category can take away from instruction of the larger class. Examples would be: making fun of other students, talking while the teacher is talking, pushing others, loud outbursts, arguing over a rule violation. If the student is confronted about his behavior he is either unresponsive or blames others. Non examples of this category would be a student individually misusing equipment, not paying attention to the teacher, or any other behavior that did not involve another person or group of people.

Level 1: Personally Irresponsible: This category comprises of behaviors showing that the student is socially in control (not affecting others) of his actions but lacks individual responsibility. The student's behavior in this category is clearly outside of recommended practices on the part of the teacher, but does not impact on, or distract, other student activity engagement. Examples would be not fully participating in an activity but not causing an interference with the lesson progression, passively wandering off outside of lesson set-up, not listening while the teacher is talking but not disrupting others, staring off into space when lesson engagement should be taking place, individually misusing equipment, and not transitioning from one activity to
another on the teachers cue. Non examples in this category would be talking to other students or fully participating in an activity and using the equipment properly.

Level 2: Participant: This category describes students who not only are socially and personally in control of their actions but they are fully engaged in the lesson or activity under the observation of the teacher. Students in this category would generally be considered on-task. Examples of this level would be a student listening to the directions of the teacher, using the equipment properly, fully participating in an activity, and making appropriate transitions on the teacher cue (e.g. when the teacher calls for everyone to come in- the student responds appropriately). Non-examples would be misusing equipment, partial participation (starts and stops at his own discretion), and not responding to the teachers cue to transition.

Level 3: Self-Directed: This category describes students who show the behaviors of Level 2 but also are able to work without teacher supervision. Examples of behavior in this level would be a student fully engaged in an activity without the teacher watching, using equipment properly without the teacher watching, or personally organizing a game to help it run smoothly. During a non-teacher directed transition the student acts appropriately. Non-examples of this category would be the student transitioning from one activity to another on the teachers cue or under his supervision or a student fully or partially participating in an activity under the teacher’s supervision.

Level 4: Helpful to others: The student is concerned for the well-being of his classmates and the good of the class. Behaviors within this level would be the student congratulating another on a good play, helping another up after falling down, and
resolving conflict independent of the teacher. The student would encourage others to make quick transitions, encourage others to listen to the teacher, provide helpful feedback during drills or game play, and genuinely makes comments to build others self efficacy (e.g. “Great game John, you really played well”). The student accepts responsibility for his actions. Non-examples in this level would be any behavior intended to put down or make fun of a particular student, blaming others for a mistake, and comments that aren’t directed at any one person (e.g. “Yes!”; “We’re number one!”; “Our team rules”)

Level 5: Outside the Gym (Not used in this study): Trying out these ideas outside the program. Being a role model and clearly transferring the values learned and discussed in class to a new context.
APPENDIX II

QUESTIONAIRRE
The Child Social Behavior Questionnaire  Age  ______  Grade  ______  Ethnicity  

**Directions:**
The following statements describe a large number of common situations. Think about each one and decide how often you do the behavior during Physical Education class. There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer honestly.

**During Physical Education class, how often do you...**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Help another kid with something?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. Hit or kick another kid?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. Hang around with another kid who has no one to hang out with?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
</tr>
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<th>4. Push or trip another kid on purpose?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
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<tr>
<th>5. Help another kid if they have fallen or hurt themselves?</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>6. Let another kid borrow something of yours?</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
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</table>
### During Physical Education class, how often do you...

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<tr>
<td>7. Join in with a group of kids to hurt another kid?</td>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>A few times</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Many times</td>
<td>Almost Always</td>
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<td>8. Act nice to another kid who was sad or unhappy?</td>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>A few times</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Many times</td>
<td>Almost Always</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Share equipment (example-volleyball or badminton racquet) with another kid?</td>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>A few times</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Many times</td>
<td>Almost Always</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Stop another kid from joining in a game?</td>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>A few times</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Many times</td>
<td>Almost Always</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Stick up for another kid who was in trouble?</td>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>A few times</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Many times</td>
<td>Almost Always</td>
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<td>12. Spread nasty stories about another kid?</td>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>A few times</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Many times</td>
<td>Almost Always</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>13. Break another kid's things because you were upset with them?</td>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>A few times</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Many times</td>
<td>Almost Always</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Cheer up another kid who was crying or upset?</td>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>A few times</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Many times</td>
<td>Almost Always</td>
</tr>
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. Call another kid names or make fun of them because you wanted to upset them?</td>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>A few times</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Many times</td>
<td>Almost Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>16. Threaten to hurt another kid if they don’t do something?</td>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>A few times</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Many times</td>
<td>Almost Always</td>
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Personal Responsibility Study
Name _______________________
Grade ______________________
Date ______________________
Phase ______________________

Treatment Fidelity Checklist
1) The teacher will ask the class to think about how their behavior was yesterday. 
   Assign it to one of the 5 levels.
2) The teacher will talk about the 5 levels related to the TPSR scale and provide 
   examples of appropriate behavior.
3) The teacher will ask a student or students to demonstrate an example of the 
   behaviors discussed by the teacher.
4) The students will set a goal for the upcoming class as to their level. The teacher will 
   ask them fold their arms when a goal is selected.
5) The teacher will provide feedback throughout the lesson pertaining to their goals and 
   the levels.
6) At the conclusion of the lesson the teacher will ask students to indicate by raising of 
   their hands who met their goals.
7) Students and teachers will provide specific examples of good and bad behavior 
   demonstrated in the class.

5 minutes

Levels | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22
-------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
0- Socially Irresponsible
1- Personally Irresponsible
2- Participant
3- Self- Direction
4- Helpful to Others

Totals: Level 0 _______ Level 1 _______ Level 2 _______ Level 3 _______ Level 4_______ Agreement _________

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APPENDIX IV

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN
Mt. Ogden Middle School Lesson Plan
James Reeder, Physical Education Teacher

Date: November 21, 2005

Time: 50 minutes

Unit: Volleyball

Lesson Topic: Passing

Equipment Needed: 10 Volleyballs, 3 courts

Class Objectives:
1) Students will understand the correct way to pass a Volleyball
2) Students will demonstrate correct fundamentals during practice
3) Students will demonstrate correct fundamentals during games

Warmup:
Channel 1/ Announcements- 9:05- 9:15
9:15- Students run 5 laps and attendance in taken
9:20- Fitness- Students in lines- various activities to work on fitness

Lesson Activities:
9:30- Introduce the correct way to pass a volleyball/ demonstrate
9:40- Students with partner- pass back and forth
9:45- Game Play- They can only pass back and forth

Review:

n/a
APPENDIX V

INTERNAL REVUE BOARD & PRINCIPAL APPROVALS
Social/Behavioral IRB – Expedited Review Modification Approved

NOTICE TO ALL RESEARCHERS:
Please be aware that a protocol violation (e.g., failure to submit a modification for any change) of an IRB approved protocol may result in mandatory remedial education, additional audits, re-consenting subjects, researcher probation suspension of any research protocol at issue, suspension of additional existing research protocols, invalidation of all research conducted under the research protocol at issue, and further appropriate consequences as determined by the IRB and the Institutional Officer.

DATE: October 20, 2005

TO: Dr. Monica Lounsbery, Sports Education and Leadership

FROM: Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

RE: Notification of IRB Action by Dr. Michael Stitt, Chair
Protocol Title: Immediate and Generalization Effects of One Personal Accountability, Personal Responsibility, and Character Education Curriculum Model Hybrid on Select Student and Teacher Practices
Protocol #: 0504-1578

The modification of the protocol named above has been reviewed and approved.

Modifications reviewed for this action include:
➢ Principle Investigator change to Monica Lounsbery
➢ Site of Protocol research changed to Weber School Dist

This IRB action will not reset your expiration date for this protocol. This protocol is May 12, 2006.

PLEASE NOTE:
Attached to this approval notice is the official Informed Consent Form for this study. The IC/IA contains an official approval stamp. Only copies of this official IC/IA form may be used when obtaining consent. Please keep the original for your records.

Should the use of human subjects described in this protocol continue beyond May 12, 2006, it would be necessary to submit a Continuing Review Request Form 60 days before the expiration date.

If you have questions or require any assistance, please contact the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects at OPRSHumanSubjects@ccmail.nevada.edu or call 101
June 26, 2005

Danny Balderson
2801 University Circle
Ogden, UT 84408-2801

Dear Danny:

Your project entitled "Immediate and Generalization Effects of One Personal Accountability, Personal Responsibility, and Character Education Curriculum Model Hybrid on Select Student and Teacher Practice" has received an "expedited" review and is approved.

We wish you good luck with your project and remind you that any anticipated changes to the project and approved procedures must be submitted to the IRB prior to implementation. Any unanticipated problems that arise during any stage of the project require a written report to the IRB and possible suspension of the project.

A final copy of your application will remain on file with the IRB records. If you need further assistance or have any questions, call me at x6812 or e-mail me at tkay@weber.edu.

Sincerely,

Theresa Kay
Institutional Review Board
Professor Baldwin,

It sounds like you have checked with everyone you needed to contact. As long as James is interested in participating then I have no problem with you coming. I agree with you that our PE teachers are great and we are thrilled that your students come to Mt. Ogden for their practicums. I hope you are able to collect all the data you need for your research study.

Thanks,
Brenda Ruffier

----Original Message-----
From: Daniel BALDERSO [mailto:DanielBalderson@weber.edu]
Sent: Tuesday, August 23, 2005 9:46 AM
To: ruffierb@m.ogden.k12.ut.us
Cc: reeder@m.ogden.k12.ut.us
Subject: Principal Ruffier,

Principal Ruffier,
cc: Mr. Reeder
APPENDIX VI

INFORMED CONSENT/ASSENT

104
TITLE OF STUDY: Immediate and generalization effects of one personal accountability, personal responsibility, and character education curriculum model hybrid on select student and teacher practices.

INVESTIGATOR(S): Monica Lounsbury, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Daniel Balderson, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: 702-895-4629

Purpose of the Study
You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of a curriculum model focused on character education. If you agree, the observational data we collect for the purposes of describing the effective procedures you use in your classroom will be observed live and described anonymously (e.g. Teacher A) to others to provide a data-base in support of your instructional efforts in relation to this model curriculum. The data collected will be stored electronically on two computers for analysis, and in a secure cabinet until the end of the study. The data will then be stored in a locked cabinet for 3 years, after which time all data will be destroyed. Only the principal and student investigator of this study and as named above will review the data collected. In addition, the data will be shown to you in an effort to make you more familiar with your teaching practices and in the hopes of helping you become an even more effective teacher.

Participants
You are being asked to participate in the study because you are a teacher in the Ogden School District.

Procedures
If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following: The study will consist of observing your class one-three times per week. The duration of the study will be approximately 16 weeks. Within this study Teacher A (physical education teacher) will be asked to (a) begin teaching the character education curriculum during the specified time period, and (b) complete a survey at the end of the study. Teacher B (regular classroom teacher) will simply be observed teaching regular curriculum.

Benefits of Participation
There may not be direct benefits to you as a participant in this study. However, we hope to learn more in the areas of: (a) documenting effective teaching practices, (b) providing case material with which to educate future teachers, and (c) providing information to other teachers that are interested in the teaching of character education and related positive social behavior practices to their students.
TITLE OF STUDY: Immediate and generalization effects of one personal accountability, personal responsibility, and character education curriculum model hybrid on select student and teacher practices.

INVESTIGATOR(S): Monica Lounsbery, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Daniel Balderson, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: 702-895-4629

Risks of Participation
There are risks involved in all research studies. This study may include only minimal risks due to the purely descriptive nature of data collection on an ongoing set of instructional practices in your classroom setting. You may feel uncomfortable when answering some of the questions in the survey. This risk is reduced because the questions are non-confrontational and simply ask your impressions of the study.

Cost/Compensation
There will be no financial cost for you to participate in this study. The only additional time the study will require is completing the survey which will take approximately 20-30 minutes.

Contact Information
If you have any questions or concerns about the study, you may contact Dr. Monica Lounsbery at 702-895-4629 or Daniel Balderson at 801-626-6481.

For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted you may contact the UNLV Office for the Protection of Human Subjects at 702-895-2794.

Voluntary Participation
Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice to your relations with the university. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or any time during the research study.

Confidentiality
All information gathered in this study will be kept completely confidential. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study. All data will be stored in a locked facility at UNLV during the study and for three years after the studies completion. The data will be destroyed after the three year time period.
TITLE OF STUDY: Immediate and generalization effects of one personal accountability, personal responsibility, and character education curriculum model hybrid on select student and teacher practices.

INVESTIGATOR(S): Monica Lounsbery, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Daniel Balderson, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: 702-895-4629

Participant Consent:
I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I am at least 18 years of age. A copy of this form has been given to me.

Signature of Participant __________________________ Date __________

Participant Name (Please Print) __________________________

Participant Note: Please do not sign this document if the Approval Stamp is missing or is expired.
Title of Study: Immediate and generalization effects of one personal accountability, personal responsibility, and character education curriculum model hybrid on select student and teacher practices.

Investigator(s): Monica Lounsbury, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Daniel Balderson, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate

Contact Phone Number: 702-895-4629

Purpose of the Study
As a student in your classroom, you are invited to participate in a study that describes the things that your teacher does, and the subjects that you are learning in your class. In addition, we will describe some of the things that you do in class when working with your teacher. All of this information will be used to try to help your teacher become more effective. All of the information that we collect is to describe your teacher and the types of things that you do when your teacher asks you to. All information will be kept in complete confidence and not shown to anyone other than those of us who are describing your teacher's activities.

Participants
You are being asked to participate in the study because you are a student receiving physical education instruction in the Ogden School District.

Procedures
If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following: The study will consist of observing your class one-three times per week. The duration of the study will be approximately 16 weeks. You will participate in regular physical education activities. You will be asked to complete a survey about your impressions of the curriculum.

Benefits of Participation
There may be no direct benefits for you as a participant in this study. However, we hope to learn more about good teaching.

Risks of Participation
There are risks involved in all research studies. This study, however, includes only minimal risks due to observing you in your regular classroom environment. When you complete the survey you may feel uncomfortable when answering some of the questions. This risk is reduced because you do not need to put your name on it and the questions are simply asking your impressions of the activities.
TITLE OF STUDY: Immediate and generalization effects of one personal accountability, personal responsibility, and character education curriculum model hybrid on select student and teacher practices.

INVESTIGATOR(S): Monica Lounsbury, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Daniel Balderson, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: 702-895-4629

Purpose of the Study
As a student in your classroom, you are invited to participate in a study that describes the things that your teacher does, and the subjects that you are learning in your class. In addition, we will describe some of the things that you do in class when working with your teacher. All of this information will be used to try to help your teacher become more effective. All of the information that we collect is to describe your teacher and the types of things that you do when your teacher asks you to. All information will be kept in complete confidence and not shown to anyone other then those of us who are describing your teacher’s activities.

Participants
You are being asked to participate in the study because you are a student receiving physical education instruction in the Ogden School District.

Procedures
If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following: The study will consist of observing your class one-three times per week. The duration of the study will be approximately 16 weeks. You will participate in regular physical education activities. You will be asked to complete a survey about your impressions of the curriculum.

Benefits of Participation
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INVESTIGATOR(S): Monica Lounsbery, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Daniel Balderson, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: 702-895-4629

Cost/Compensation
There will be no financial cost for you to participate in this study. The only additional time the study will require is completing the survey which will take approximately 20-30 minutes.

Contact Information
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For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted you may contact the UNLV Office for the Protection of Human Subjects at 702-895-2794.

Voluntary Participation
Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice to your relations with the university. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or any time during the research study.

Confidentiality
All information gathered in this study will be kept completely confidential. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study. All data will be stored in a locked facility at UNLV during the study and for three years after the studies completion. The data will be destroyed after the three year time period.
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INVESTIGATOR(S): Monica Lounsbury, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Daniel Balderson, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: 702-895-4629

Participant Consent:
I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. A copy of this form has been given to me.

Signature of Participant __________________________ Date __________

Participant Name (Please Print) __________________________

Participant Note: Please do not sign this document if the Approval Stamp is missing or is expired.
TITLE OF STUDY: Immediate and generalization effects of one personal accountability, personal responsibility, and character education curriculum model hybrid on select student and teacher practices.

INVESTIGATOR(S): Monica Lounsbery, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Daniel Balderson, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: 702-895-4629

Purpose of the Study

Your son/daughter is invited to participate in a research study that investigates the effectiveness of a teaching procedure that one of your child's teachers is using. If you agree, the observational data we collect will be documented and described anonymously (e.g., Teacher A) to others for the purposes of showing effective instructional practices to other teachers. Additionally, student data in the anonymous form of whole-class descriptions (e.g., the number of times a student provides a positive comment to another student, the number of off-task episodes, regardless of which student is involved in that behavior) will be collected to further describe the effectiveness of the teacher's instructional activities.

Participants

Your son/daughter is being asked to participate in the study because he/she is a student and receives physical education instruction from a specific teacher.

Procedures

If you volunteer for your son/daughter to participate in this study, he/she will be asked to do the following: The study will consist of observing your son/daughter's class one-three times per week. The duration of the study will be approximately 16 weeks. They will participate in regular physical education activities. Your son/daughter will be asked to complete a survey asking them about their impressions of the curriculum.

Benefits of Participation

There may be no direct benefits for your son/daughter as a participant in this study. However, we hope to learn more in the areas of: (a) documenting effective teaching practices, (b) providing case material with which to educate future teachers, and (c) providing information to other teachers that are interested in the teaching of character education and related positive social behavior practices to their students.

Risks of Participation

There are risks involved in all research studies. This study, however, includes only minimal risks due to the purely descriptive nature of data collection on an ongoing set of instructional practices in your classroom setting. Your son/daughter may feel uncomfortable when answering some of the questions.
TITLE OF STUDY: Immediate and generalization effects of one personal accountability, personal responsibility, and character education curriculum model hybrid on select student and teacher practices.

INVESTIGATOR(S): Monica Lounsbery, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Daniel Balderson, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: 702-895-4629

in the survey. This risk is reduced because the student won’t put their name on the paper and questions are non-confrontational and simply ask their impressions of the study.

Cost/Compensation
There will be no financial cost for your son/daughter to participate in this study. The only additional time the study will require is completing the survey which will take approximately 20-30 minutes.

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CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: 702-895-4629

Participant Consent:
I have read the above information and agree for my son/daughter to participate in this study. I am at least 18 years of age. A copy of this form has been given to me.

Signature of Participant

Date

Participant Name (Please Print)

Participant Note: Please do not sign this document if the Approval Stamp is missing or is expired.
REFERENCES


Hausfather, S. J. (1996) Vygotsky and Schooling: Creating a social context for

Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Washington, D.C.: American Alliance for Health Physical Education Recreation
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IL: Human Kinetics.


*Physical Educator, 44,* 355-358.

Press.

Howard, R., Berkowitz, M., & Schaeffer, E. (2004). The politics of character


VITA

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Magrath, Alberta, Canada
TOK 1J0

Degrees:
Master of Science, Physical Education, 2003
University of Nevada- Las Vegas

Bachelor of Arts, Kinesiology, 2001
University of Lethbridge

Bachelor of Education, 2001
University of Lethbridge

Special Honors and Awards:
2003: Nominated for UNLV Graduate College’s Thesis of the Year
2003: Only Player in University of Lethbridge Athletics History To Have Jersey Retired
2000: Canadian Intercollegiate Athletic Union Basketball Player of the Year
2000: Royal Bank Academic All-Canadian
1999: Royal Bank Academic All-Canadian

Publications:

Dissertation Title: The Effects of a Personal Responsibility Model on Individual Student and Class Wide Social Behaviors

Dissertation Examination Committee:
- Co-Chairperson, Dr. Doris Watson, Ph.D.
- Co-Chairperson, Dr. Monica Lounsbery, Ph.D.
- Committee Member, Dr. Gerald Landwer, Ed D
- Graduate Faculty Representative, Dr. Matt Tincani, Ph.D.