

Course Companion



For AS Level Eduqas PE Component 1

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Teacher's Introduction

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This course companion is designed to support the AS Level Theory Content for PE. The companion has been divided into chapters and clearly split into topics covering the AS Level qualification. This resource is fully co-teachable and relevant to both AS and A2.

The course companion provides a detailed set of notes covering the specification content used in class by your students. Opportunities to put their learning into practice are provided in chapters in the form of application of knowledge and questions at the end of each chapter.

You will also come across 'Did you know' and 'Case study' boxes during chapters to stimulate the students' interest, encourage them to apply their knowledge to real-life situations and make them aware of real-life implications of the content they are learning. Further boxes provide opportunities for in-class discussion springboards.

At the end of each chapter will be a set of questions to reinforce your students' understanding and testing students' knowledge of the content they have learnt throughout the chapter. A set of questions has been provided in the Answers section.

This course companion includes:

- detailed notes which fully cover the specification in depth and at a level that is suitable for AS Level
- application of knowledge boxes encouraging students to apply their knowledge to real-life situations
- key terms which highlight the important definitions to be aware of throughout the course
- 'Did you know' and 'Case study' boxes stimulating the students' interest and encouraging them to apply their knowledge to real-life situations
- 'Things to think about' boxes providing opportunities for in-class discussion
- visually stimulating diagrams to aid the learning of difficult topics
- 'Checking your understanding' questions to reinforce students' understanding

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Chapter 1.1: Contribution of Physical Activity to Health and Fitness

Overview

In this chapter you will learn about the influence that physical activity has on a person's health and fitness.

We will also cover the short-term and long-term effects of exercise on an individual's cardiovascular, respiratory, neuromuscular and musculoskeletal systems.

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter, you should

- ☐ Understand the impact that an individual's physical activity has on their health and well-being
- ☐ Be able to describe the physical and physiological adaptations of exercise
- ☐ Understand how physical exercise can improve health and fitness

Key Terms

Body image:	How a person interprets their own body and how they feel about it based on their body
Cardiac atrophy:	A decrease in size, strength and ability of the heart
Cardiac hypertrophy:	An increase in the size and strength of the heart
Coronary heart disease:	A disease which involves the restriction of the coronary arteries (which supply blood to the heart) due to a build-up of cholesterol
Endorphins:	Hormones released following exercise. They give a sense of well-being and satisfaction.
Hypertension:	High blood pressure which puts pressure on the arteries. It is usually defined as a blood pressure of 140/90 mm Hg or higher
Obesity:	Having a BMI of over 30
Oxyhaemoglobin:	The molecule produced when oxygen binds with haemoglobin

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Impact of an Unhealthy Lifestyle on the Body

It is vitally important to look after our health, and one way of doing this is by avoiding the negative impact on it. While physical activity can contribute to a healthy lifestyle, choices such as smoking or having a sedentary lifestyle can outweigh these benefits.

Smoking, Drinking and Drugs

The primary negative effect of smoking is the development of cancers. Smoking can also damage the efficiency of the respiratory system via a number of mechanisms. One of these is the effect that carbon monoxide (a gas found in cigarette smoke) has on oxygen transport. Carbon monoxide binds to haemoglobin, reducing the affinity for haemoglobin to pick up oxygen, thus reducing the oxyhaemoglobin content in the bloodstream. This results in the gas exchange of oxygen at the alveoli being less effective.

Another toxin found in cigarettes is tar. Tar destroys cilia (small hairs which are found in the lungs) so that the lungs are no longer filtering out toxins and other harmful particles which enter the lungs, contributing to diseases such as lung cancer and emphysema.

Excessive alcohol consumption has both long- and short-term effects on the body. The short-term effect of alcohol is generally a feeling of happiness. However, alcohol can also act as a depressant, leading to inhibitions, which could lead to reckless behaviour.

Long-term effects of alcohol consumption include cancer, liver disease, chronic liver disease, and dependency (addiction).

Recreational drugs are all considered to have damaging effects on the body. Drug use can lead to overdoses and a variety of other health problems.

Understanding the impact of physical activity and sport on the health and fitness of the individual

A major cause of the worrying trend of obesity is the shift towards a sedentary lifestyle that accompanies a modern lifestyle. For example, there has been an increase in the number of people who are sitting and using technology such as their phones and computers rather than doing sport and being active. Obesity is a major contributor to many cardiovascular diseases, such as coronary heart disease, stroke, atherosclerosis and heart attacks. Encouragingly, physical activity can lessen the likelihood of suffering from these cardiovascular diseases, as well as from respiratory diseases such as asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease.

The impact of training and exercise on cardiovascular health

Regular training helps to improve an individual's cardiac output, via the increased heart rate and stroke volume, which helps to improve the efficiency of the transport of oxygen. Alongside this is the reduced resting heart rate, which helps to put less strain on the cardiac muscle. Regular training also helps to reduce the risk of cardiovascular diseases such as coronary heart disease (CHD) and heart attacks. One of these risk factors is high blood pressure. Training can lower blood pressure, which helps to reduce the risk of heart disease. It can also lower levels of low-density lipoproteins (LDL) in the blood, which helps to lower blood pressure. It can also increase levels of high-density lipoproteins (HDL), referred to as 'good cholesterol', which help to regulate blood pressure. Training can also increase the size of the coronary artery, reducing the risk of artery blockages and ensuring that blood flow can be unrestricted. Training helps to lower body fat levels, which helps to reduce the risk of heart disease.

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1 <http://www.nhs.uk/news/2011/08August/Pages/half-of-uk-predicted-to-be-obese-by-2030.aspx>

Let's take a look at each of these health issues and how exercise can help reduce

Cardiovascular health issue	What it is	
Coronary heart disease	A disease which involves the restriction of the coronary arteries (the arteries that supply blood to the heart) due to a build-up of cholesterol / fatty substances.	Exer of er the l size
Hypertension / High blood pressure	A blood pressure of 140/90 mm Hg or above that puts strain on the heart muscle and blood vessels, increasing the likelihood of heart attacks or strokes. Also known as hypertension.	Exer othe and to bl
Cholesterol build-up	When cholesterol combines with fatty substances and forms a plaque that builds up in the arteries and causes blockages that can lead to heart attacks and strokes.	Exer good fat co chole
Stroke	An urgent medical condition that involves blood flow to the brain being restricted or cut off, leading to a reduction in oxygen that causes brain cells to die.	Exer obes bein up in bloo bloo
Cardiac atrophy	A decrease in size, strength and ability of the heart muscle.	Regu hype

So it is clear that in order to lead a healthy lifestyle, it is important to avoid neg and to take part in regular physical activity. This will reduce the risk of develop diseases and thereby improve the quality of life that a person experiences.

Influence of exercise on psychological issues

It is well documented that exercise has a positive influence on the psychological health of an individual. Exercise releases 'feel-good' hormones (endorphins) which can help to lower stress, increase satisfaction and increase happiness.

Having good health can also increase the self-image of a person. Having a good self-image can increase self-esteem, leading to reduced rates of depression and low self-confidence.

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Contribution of Physical Activity to Health

Checking your understanding

1. Describe the effects that smoking has on the health of a person. (4 marks)

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2. Define 'hypertension'. (1 mark)

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3. Describe the effects that physical activity has on the psychological health of a person. (4 marks)

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Chapter 1.2: Cardiorespiratory and Systems in Response to Ex

Overview

In this chapter we will consider how the cardiovascular system and respiratory system adapt during exercise to maintain our body's physiological processes, how these processes are regulated, and how they can contribute to our health.

We will also examine the structure, anatomical components and physiology of both systems, as well as processes such as vascular shunting, and how these contribute to the process of physical activity.

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter you will be able to do the following:

- ☐ Understand the structure and function of the respiratory system and how it adapts to exercise
- ☐ Understand how oxygen is transported and the mechanisms involved in this process
- ☐ Understand the different types of muscle and the impact these have on physical activity
- ☐ Describe the process of muscle contraction and the role of the muscles
- ☐ Understand Starling's law of the heart, the oxygen difference, and the relationship between structure and function

Key Terms

Anticipatory rise:	The release of adrenalin via the sympathetic nervous system prior to exercise
Arteriole:	Small blood vessel which extends from an artery
Atrial and ventricular Atrial depolarisation:	Occurs during a brief time period following depolarisation. The effect that the SA node has on the atria, causing them to provide an electrical stimulus across them
Baroreceptors:	Sensors detecting changes in blood pressure
Cardiac output:	The volume of blood ejected by the heart per minute
Cardiovascular drift:	The 'drift' effect of cardiovascular responses to exercise, despite exercise intensity not increasing
Chemical regulation:	The control of physiological processes via the chemical changes within the body
Chemoreceptors:	Sensors detecting chemical changes within the body
Expiration:	The process of breathing out
Expiratory reserve volume:	The extra air that can be exhaled after normal expiration
Heart rate:	The number of times the heart beats per minute
Inspiration:	The process of breathing in
Medulla oblongata:	An extension of the spinal cord found in the brainstem for the heart and lungs
Minute ventilation:	The volume of air inspired or exhaled per minute
Myogenic:	Originating in muscle tissues, rather than through the nervous system, as it creates its own impulses intrinsically
Neural control:	The control of physiological processes via the nervous system, either sympathetic or parasympathetic nervous systems
Oxyhaemoglobin:	A combination of oxygen and haemoglobin
Pre-capillary sphincter:	Smooth muscle that regulates capillary blood flow
repolarisation:	The process of an electrical impulse returning to a baseline value
Residual volume:	The amount of air left in the lungs prior to forced expiration
Stroke volume:	The amount of blood ejected from the heart per beat
Tidal volume:	The volume of air displaced from the lungs during inspiration and expiration

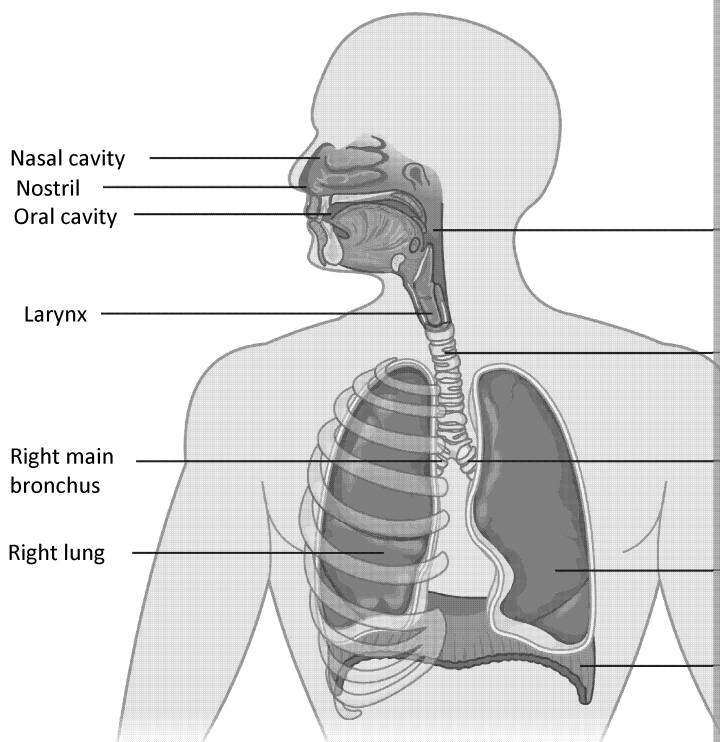
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Structure and Function of the Respiratory System

If you've ever completed high-intensity exercise, you will be familiar with the feeling of breathlessness immediately afterwards. The diagram below shows the key structures of the respiratory system.



Nasal cavity: Air firstly enters the nasal cavity, where tiny hairs act as a filter to prevent dust and germs from entering. Air does not move towards the lungs.

Larynx: Also known as the voice box, it consists of cartilage which helps to protect the trachea and larynx.

Pharynx: Acts as a passage for air to move from the mouth to the lungs.

Trachea: A mucous lining helps to prevent toxins from entering the lungs.

Bronchi: A pair of bronchi exists at the bottom of the trachea, before splitting into smaller airways called **bronchioles**. These bronchioles then supply the air to the alveoli.

We will learn more about the alveoli later, when we discover how gases are exchanged.

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Physiology of the Respiratory System

The body must change the respiratory rate of a person depending on the level of activity. The rate of respiration is determined by receptors in the body that detect need for oxygen. These are:

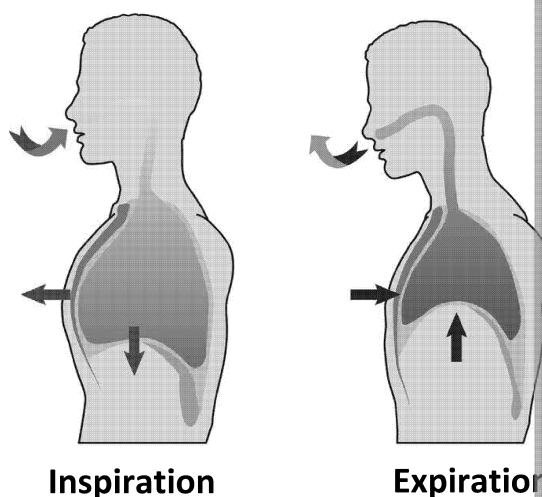
- Chemoreceptors – detect changes in levels of gases in the body; for example, carbon dioxide in the blood.
- Proprioceptors – detect changes in the movement of a body. If a person is moving, more oxygen is needed at the muscles, so the respiration rate is increased.
- Thermoreceptors – detect changes in the temperature of nerve cells. An increase in temperature increases exercise intensity.
- Baroreceptors – detect changes in arterial pressure. If the pressure inside the arteries is low, more blood is being returned to the heart to be oxygenated.

It is important that we understand how the volume of air in the lungs changes during breathing. The relationship between the different values for ventilation, and how oxygen and carbon dioxide move between the air and the blood in the lungs and in the muscles.

Mechanics of breathing at rest

The mechanism of breathing involves a number of processes, which differ in order during inspiration and expiration. The diagram below shows the process at each.

The movements of the chest during breathing



The diaphragm

This contracts and becomes flatter, causing the lungs to be pulled downwards.

External intercostal muscles

These muscles contract, which causes the ribs to move up and out, allowing the thoracic cavity to enlarge in volume.

Air pressure

The larger lung volume decreases the lung's air pressure below that of the atmospheric air, causing air to enter the lungs from the atmosphere.

The diaphragm

The diaphragm relaxes and returns to its original shape.

External intercostal muscles

These muscles relax, which causes the ribs to move downwards and inwards, allowing the thoracic cavity volume to decrease.

Air pressure

The lower lung volume increases the lung's air pressure above that of the atmospheric air, causing air to be expelled from the lungs to the atmosphere.

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Mechanics of breathing during exercise

We all know we need more oxygen when we exercise, but did you know that this is assisted as the intensity of exercise increases? Specific muscles are drawn upon to meet the demand for oxygen. Each is explained below.

Inspiration:

During exercise, it is important to increase the oxygenation of the blood, which is achieved with the help of the sternocleidomastoid and the pectoralis minor muscles and the effect that these muscles have on inspiration.

The sternocleidomastoid, a muscle found in the neck, works alongside the scalene when an individual is working at a high intensity. These muscles help to lift the sternum, which lifts the rib cage, helping to expand the thoracic cavity. This increase in thoracic cavity reduces the pressure within it, creating a pressure gradient between the atmospheric air and the thoracic cavity. Air therefore flows from where the pressure is high (the atmospheric air) to where it is low (the thoracic cavity).

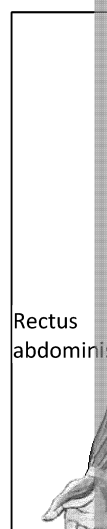
The pectoralis minor has a similar action in lifting the ribs, which occurs as a result of stimulation from the anterior thoracic nerve. This, therefore, has the same effect of increasing the thoracic cavity as the sternocleidomastoid.

Expiration:

During exercise, it is important to rid the body of the growing concentration of carbon dioxide in the blood, which is being produced by the exercising skeletal muscles. This is achieved through the effect that the internal intercostals and the rectus abdominis muscles have on expiration.

The internal intercostals are not activated during breathing at rest, only during exercise when respiration becomes forced. These muscles lower the ribs and bring them inwards, reducing the thoracic capacity and causing air to be expired from the lungs, due to the pressure gradient (high within the thoracic cavity and low in atmospheric air).

The rectus abdominis muscle, found in the abdominal wall, contracts during expiration. This causes the intra-abdominal pressure to increase, resulting in the diaphragm being raised, thereby reducing the thoracic pressure.



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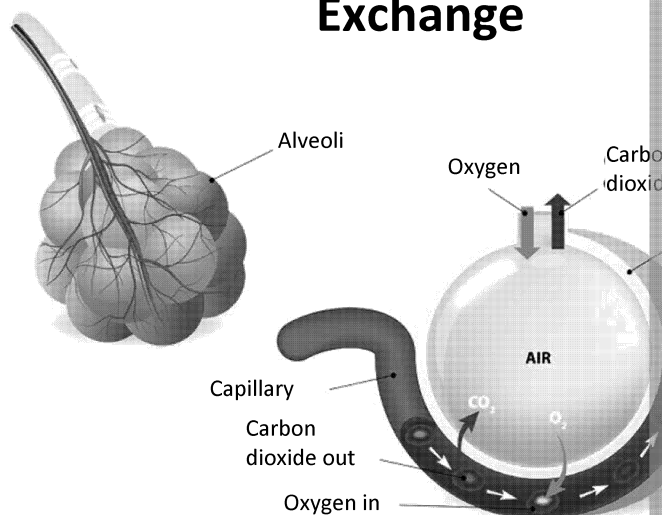


Gaseous exchange

Gas exchange in the lungs occurs between the alveoli and blood as a result of diffusion. Oxygen moves from an area of high concentration (alveoli) into an area of low concentration (in the capillaries) and carbon dioxide moves from an area of high concentration (in the capillaries) into an area of low concentration (in the alveoli). This takes place due to the pressure gradient that exists between the two sites of exchange. The rate of gas exchange in the alveoli is increased by the following:

- There is a large number of alveoli, which creates a large surface area for diffusion.
- There is a large number of capillaries, which are very thin, meaning that blood flow is rapid, thereby lengthening the time for diffusion.
- The membrane between the alveoli and capillaries is very thin, reducing the diffusion distance.

Alveolus Gas Exchange



Gaseous exchange in the muscles

When gas is delivered to the muscles, oxygen dissociates from haemoglobin through the Bohr effect. The high concentration of oxygen in the working muscles means oxygen diffuses down the concentration gradient into the muscle cells, while carbon dioxide diffuses from a high concentration in the muscle to a low concentration in the blood.

Efficient gaseous exchange in the muscles is influenced by:

- thin capillary walls – makes the diffusion distance shorter
- a high-capillary network around the muscles – increases the surface area for exchange

Effect of differing intensities of exercise and recovery on gas exchange in the muscles

As exercise intensity increases, so does the demand of the skeletal muscles for oxygen. The rate of gas exchange in the muscles undergoes changes, so too do the sites for gas exchange within the body at different intensities of exercise.

Changes in partial pressure

Gas exchange occurs as a result of a gradient formed between the differences in partial pressure between two sites; for example, the alveoli and the blood. Partial pressure refers to the pressure that a gas exerts within a combination of other gases, and, according to Dalton's law, the partial pressure of a gas in a mixture is the sum total of the individual gases' pressures. Oxygen diffuses from an area of high concentration (in this example, the alveoli) to an area of low concentration (the blood). Carbon dioxide diffuses from an area of high concentration (the blood) to an area of low concentration (the alveoli). The partial pressure gradient is increased as we exercise, due to oxygen levels in the blood falling and carbon dioxide levels rising.

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Respiratory Values and Capacity

The respiratory system is closely linked to the cardiovascular system, as the blood carries oxygen from the heart and lungs to replenish the blood with oxygen. This system is vital, not just because it provides needed oxygen to the body's cells, but because it helps to dispel from the body the waste product of the exercising cells. There are three values we must first consider when discussing the respiratory system:

Breathing frequency: the number of breaths per minute

Tidal volume: the volume of air displaced from the lungs during steady-state breathing

Minute ventilation: the volume of air inspired or exhaled per minute

There is a relationship between the key terms above, which can be explained by the following equation:
minute ventilation = tidal volume x breathing frequency

Breathing frequency		Tidal volume
Definition: the number of breaths per minute		Definition: the volume of air displaced from the lungs during steady-state inspiration and expiration
Average resting value: 12 breaths per minute	×	Average resting value: 500 ml
The resting breathing frequency can vary for each individual, but generally, the fitter the individual, the lower their breathing frequency.		Having a higher tidal volume allows a larger amount of carbon dioxide to be expelled from the lungs per breath.

At rest, Megan's tidal volume is 600 ml, and she has an average breathing frequency of 14 breaths per minute.

Using the equation above, we can determine the average value for Megan's minute ventilation at rest.

- Minute ventilation = tidal volume × breathing frequency
- Minute ventilation = 600 ml × 14 breaths per minute
- Minute ventilation = 8.4 l/min

Apply

Record your own minute ventilation by firstly recording your breathing frequency, then using the average value for tidal volume provided above, and complete the equation.

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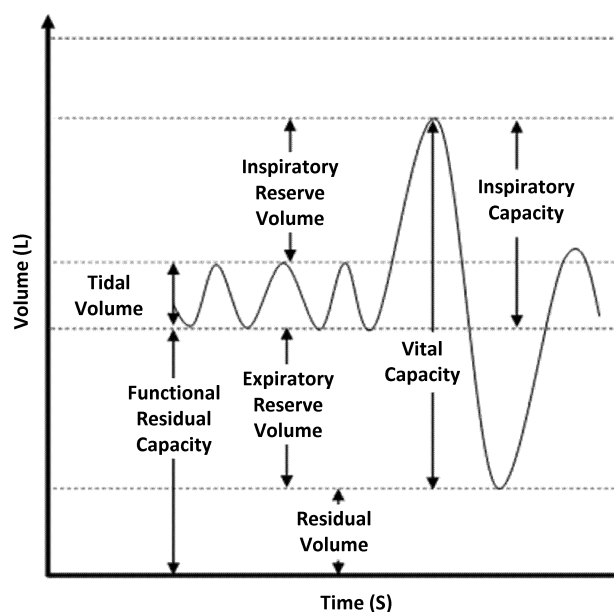
The changes in lung volume during physical activity and sport

The respiratory system during exercise works alongside the cardiovascular system to deliver oxygen to the working muscles. The increased demand for oxygen from the working muscles results in changes to the respiratory system. These include changes to the resting values of the previous measurements. These changes are summarised in the table below.

Respiratory measurements	At rest	Typical value at moderate-intensity exercise
Breathing frequency (per minute)	12	28
Tidal volume (ml)	500	3000
Minute ventilation (l/min)	6	8.4 (untrained)

It is also important that you understand the other respiratory measurements and their definitions:

- **Residual volume:** The volume of air that is left in the lungs after forced expiration.
- **Expiratory reserve volume:** The volume of air that can be expired forcefully below the functional residual capacity.
- **Inspiratory reserve volume:** The volume of air that can be inspired forcefully above the tidal volume.
- **Vital capacity:** The maximum volume of air that can be expired following a maximal inspiration.
- **Inspiratory capacity:** The maximum volume of air that can be inspired following a maximal expiration.
- **Functional residual capacity:** The amount of air within the lungs following a normal expiration.
- **Total lung capacity:** The amount of air that can be held in the lungs following a maximal inspiration.



The above lung volumes all have an impact on the performance of sport and physical activity. They all have an effect on the process of gas exchange, and, therefore, on the efficiency of the respiratory system. The more efficient this system, the longer your skeletal muscles can perform.

While we can see the effects that moderate-intensity exercise has on the respiratory system, it is important to consider how these change for high-intensity exercise. The table below shows the differences between respiratory measurements at rest and during high-intensity exercise. The measurements for high-intensity exercise differ from those for moderate-intensity exercise. It is important to note that recovery allows for the decrease of the figures above and below, and the quicker the return to resting values for each of the respiratory measurements.

Respiratory measurements	At rest	Typical value at high-intensity exercise
Breathing frequency (per minute)	12	40
Tidal volume (ml)	500	~4500
Minute ventilation (l/min)	6	~18

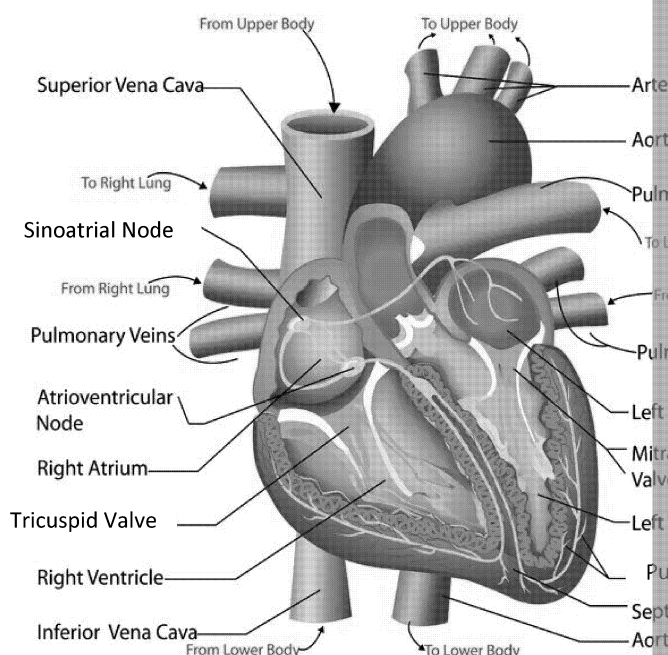
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The Anatomical Components and Structure of the

Structure of the heart

The heart is made up of four chambers which are separated by valves and are designed to accept deoxygenated blood from the body (right atrium) and eject it to the lungs (right ventricle). It also accepts oxygenated blood from the lungs (left atrium) and ejects it to the body (left ventricle).

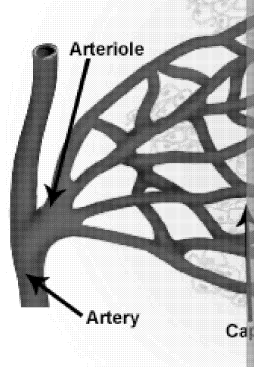


Blood vessels

It is also important to understand the structural differences between the different types of blood vessels. The following table summarises these differences:

Arteries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Walls consist of smooth muscle • Highest elasticity • Narrow lumen • Transports blood away from the heart at high pressure
Veins	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thinner walls than arteries • Contain valves to prevent backflow of blood • Mostly consist of fibrous tissue • Less elastic than arteries • Wide lumen • Carry blood back to the heart at low pressure
Capillaries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Walls are one cell thick • Very narrow lumen • Remove waste product (e.g. carbon dioxide) • Supply cells with necessary oxygen and nutrients

Capillaries



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The Physiology of the Cardiovascular System

Cardiac cycle

The transport of blood to the lungs and the working muscles is controlled by, a conduction system. If you have ever listened to your heart, you may notice its sound of the two stages of the cardiac cycle: systole and diastole.

‘Lub’ – diastole – this is where the heart relaxes and fills with blood.

Firstly, blood flows into the right and left atria, filling them with blood. The atria contract to aid this process. The blood pressure in the atria now exceeds that in the ventricles. The atrioventricular valves are open. This means that blood can now flow into the ventricles – but not the aorta as the **semilunar valves** being shut.

The amount of blood that is in the ventricle following diastole is known as end-diastolic volume.

Semilunar valves are the valves found in the pulmonary artery and the aorta and are closed during diastole.

Atrioventricular valves are found between the upper chambers of the heart (atria) and the ventricles.

There are two types of atrioventricular valves:

- the **tricuspid** valve is found on the **Right** atrium
- the **bicuspid** valve is found on the **left** atrium

‘Dub’ – systole – this is the process in which the heart contracts and blood is ejected from the heart.

The contraction of the atria ensures that any residual blood in the atria moves to the ventricles. The ventricles then contract, resulting in a raised blood pressure in the ventricles. This causes the semilunar valves to open, allowing blood flow to the aorta and pulmonary artery. When the ventricles relax, any returning blood is stopped from flowing into the ventricles as a result of the semilunar valves shutting. The blood now travels to the body's tissues and the lungs through the aorta and pulmonary vein respectively. The amount of blood that is in the ventricle following systole is known as end-systolic volume.

While the above describes the cardiac cycle, it is important to understand that there are two types of circulation – pulmonary and systemic. Pulmonary circulation describes the circulation of blood between the heart and the lungs, then the return of this blood to the heart, while systemic circulation describes the circulation of blood from the heart to the body, then the return of this blood to the heart.

The pathway of blood in the pulmonary circulation is as follows:

Deoxygenated blood is transported to the lungs from the right ventricle, via the pulmonary artery. In the lungs, the blood can become oxygenated, and is returned to the left atrium of the heart via the pulmonary vein. The pulmonary circuit can then continue.

Systemic circulation consists of a different pathway of blood:

Oxygenated blood is transported out of the left ventricle, via the aorta. This oxygenated blood is then transported to the cells and tissues of the body via the capillaries. Deoxygenated blood is then transported via the vena cava, into the right atrium of the heart.

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Conduction stages

We have now learnt about the cardiac cycle of the heart; however, this doesn't work unless powered by electricity. Don't worry, your heart generates its own electrical impulses to stimulate the muscle and allow the cardiac cycle to continue. The brain sends numerous signals to the heart to either increase or decrease the heart rate.

- Chemoreceptors – detect changes of chemicals in the blood, mainly carbon dioxide levels
- Baroreceptors – found inside arteries, these detect changes in blood pressure and adjust heart rate to maintain exercise intensity
- Proprioceptors – detect changes in movement, e.g. if someone starts moving, the brain sends signals to the heart that the body needs to increase the heart rate

The rate of cardiac output is controlled by the cardiac control centre (CCC), which receives input from the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous systems. The sympathetic system increases heart rate, while the parasympathetic nervous system decreases heart rate.

The cardiac muscle of the heart is described as myogenic (or intrinsic), meaning it generates its own electrical impulses (myocardia). Let's take a look at how this happens.

The electrical stimulus in the cardiac cycle takes the following pathway:

1. Sinoatrial (SA) node:

Often referred to as the pacemaker of the heart, it regulates the heart rate in line with the body's demand by sending out an electrical stimulus which travels across the muscle cells in the atria, causing the atria to contract (atrial depolarisation).

2. Atrioventricular (AV) node:

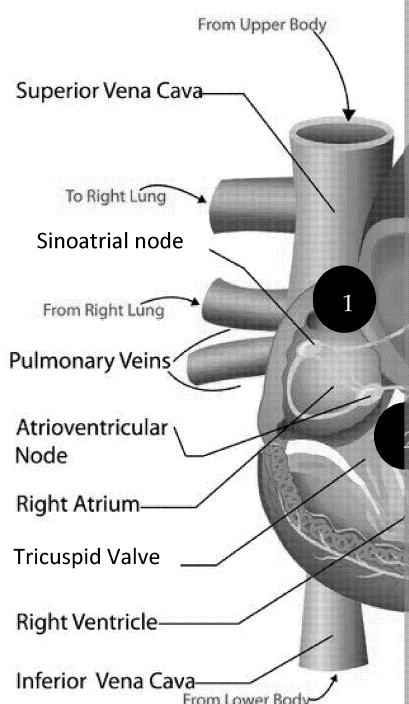
The impulse travels to the AV node, where it delays the next contraction to allow the ventricles to fully fill with blood. Once the AV valves have closed, the stimulus travels to the bundle of His and Purkinje fibres.

3. The bundle of His:

The stimulus travels down the bundle of His, which is a group of conduction cells. This bundle separates into right and left branches, which consist of the Purkinje fibres.

4. Purkinje fibres:

These are found in the ventricular walls and cause ventricular contraction by passing an electrical impulse in the ventricles (ventricular depolarisation).



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Atrial depolarisation: the effect that the SA node has on the atria, causing the atria to contract by passing an electrical stimulus across them

Ventricular depolarisation: the effect that the AV node has on the ventricles, causing them to contract by providing an electrical stimulus

Atrial and ventricular repolarisation: occurs during a brief time period following contraction, where the heart describes the electrical impulse returning to a baseline value

Venous return

Venous return is the process of the blood returning to the heart. There is a number of mechanisms that contribute to venous return. These are shown in the table below:

Mechanism	Description
Pocket valves located in the vein	These help to stop the blood flowing backwards (backflow) and ensure it flows the correct way.
Skeletal muscle pump	The skeletal muscles surrounding the veins contract and relax, creating a pressure which causes the blood to flow quickly back towards the heart.
Respiratory pump	There is a pressure gradient between the abdominal cavity and the thoracic cavity which acts as a pump for blood to be transported from the abdomen to the heart.
Gravity	Blood which is being returned from above the level of the heart flows back towards the heart.
Pressure gradient	A pressure gradient exists between venous pressure and/or venous resistance, which aids the process of blood returning to the heart.
Smooth muscle in the veins	The smooth muscle layer found in the walls of veins contracts and relaxes, pushing blood back towards the heart.

Venous return at different intensities of exercise

Venous return is the rate at which the blood returns to the heart. When exercise becomes apparent that there is a greater need for quicker and efficient venous return. As intensity increases, venous return increases. This is important as, if the blood return is reduced, stroke volume and therefore cardiac output would be reduced.

Starling's law refers to the increased stroke volume as a result of an increased venous return to the heart. This occurs as a result of the cardiac muscles stretching before contraction, which leads to an increased volume of blood in the ventricles. This leads to an increased stroke volume, allowing the heart to eject a higher volume of blood. Therefore the increased stroke volume, which accompanies the increased exercising heart rate, results in the regulation of cardiac output.

Venous return during recovery

A decrease in venous return at rest leads to a decreased stroke volume. This is due to the Starling law of the heart, which suggests that a slower venous return leads to a smaller stroke volume (the amount that the ventricles stretch before contraction), thus leading to a lower stroke volume per heart per beat. Venous return is also aided by the valves situated in the veins, which ensure blood flows in only one direction (towards the heart).

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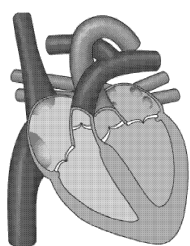


Redistribution of blood during exercise (vascular shunting)

While the amount of blood stays constant within the body, there is an increased amount of blood transported to specific areas during exercise. In terms of sports performance, this allows more oxygen to be supplied to the parts of the body that have a greater demand for oxygen, such as the muscles.

The vascular system 'shunts' oxygenated blood to where it is needed the most, namely the working skeletal muscles. Situated in the medulla oblongata, the **vasomotor centre** regulates the blood flow by causing the sympathetic system to cause the arterioles to vasoconstrict or vasodilate, depending on factors such as the increased presence of carbon dioxide in the blood, or an increase in body temperature. This can result in blood being directed away from the lower-priority organs (kidney, stomach) and towards the higher-priority working skeletal muscles.

The sympathetic nervous system



Vasoconstriction of arteries = narrowing



Vasodilation of arteries = widening



The **arterioles** also have an important role, as they can widen or narrow to help direct blood flow towards the higher-priority tissues. Blood flow is further regulated via the **sphincters**. They do this by either allowing or not allowing the blood to flow in or out of the capillaries for oxygen exchange at the muscles. Think of these as valves; if they are closed, blood is directed to localised capillaries, so instead it flows through the open sphincters at a different location.

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Cardiovascular Values

It is important to firstly gain an understanding of the baseline values of the key way, it is easier to determine the magnitude of the effect that each form of exercise has on the cardiovascular system. The values which can be considered most important are those of heart rate, stroke volume and cardiac output. Heart rate and stroke volume have a close relationship, which will be explained in more detail below.

Heart rate		Stroke volume
Definition: the number of times the heart beats per minute	×	Definition: the amount of blood ejected from the heart per beat
Average resting value: 70 beats per minute (bpm)		Average resting value: 70 ml
The resting heart rate can vary for each individual, but generally the fitter the individual, the lower their resting heart rate. For example, Olympic time-trial champion and Tour de France winner Miguel Indurain recorded a resting heart rate of just 28 bpm. Having a low resting heart rate demonstrates that the heart is efficient in transporting blood around the body, which means that the heart undergoes less undue strain, lessening the risk of cardiovascular diseases.		Having a higher stroke volume allows the heart rate to be lowered, due to the relationship that stroke volume and heart rate have in determining cardiac output. The benefits of a lowered heart rate have been mentioned to the left.

Exam Tip

Think about how this calculation may be altered in the exam if different values were used. Would you use the same values if you were asked to work out the stroke volume? Or the heart rate?

To explain this equation in greater detail a worked example has been completed.

Jim, an amateur cross-country runner, has a resting heart rate of 65 bpm and a stroke volume of 85 ml/beat.

Using the equation above, Jim's cardiac output can be calculated:

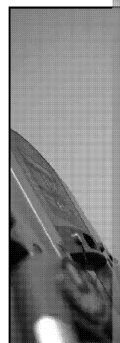
- Cardiac output = heart rate \times stroke volume
- Cardiac output = 65×85
- Cardiac output = 5525 ml/min

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Most people are aware that the heart rate changes during exercise; however, there is a number of changes that take place in the cardiovascular system due to the stresses put on the body during exercise. As our body demands more oxygen to be delivered to the working skeletal muscles, adaptations have to occur within the cardiovascular system in order to redistribute blood to the muscles that need it. This is because of the greater demand for oxygen from the working skeletal muscles. However, it is also important to understand how the mechanisms of blood return are affected by exercising and the changes to the cardiovascular system that these result in.



We know that from the equation previously mentioned, cardiac output is increased as stroke volume increases as we begin to exercise. However, did you know that stroke volume plateaus (levels off) at approximately 60% of maximal exercise intensity and then plateaus (levels off) at approximately 120 millilitres (ml) of blood per heartbeat. This means that any additional increase in cardiac output is the result of the continuing increase in heart rate.

The table below helps to demonstrate the difference between the cardiovascular measurements at rest and during moderate-intensity exercise.

Cardiovascular measurements	At rest	Typical value at moderate-intensity exercise
Heart rate (bpm)	70	115
Stroke volume (ml)	70	90
Cardiac output (ml/min)	4900	10 000 (10 l/min)

While we can see the effects that moderate-intensity exercise has on the cardiovascular system, we need to consider how these change for high-intensity exercise such as sprinting. The differences between cardiovascular measurements at rest and during high-intensity exercise are more pronounced. The differences between cardiovascular measurements at rest and during high-intensity exercise differ from those for moderate-intensity exercise.

Cardiovascular measurements	At rest	Typical value at high-intensity exercise
Heart rate (bpm)	70	135
Stroke volume (ml)	70	110 (untrained) 160 (trained)
Cardiac output (ml/min)	4900	17 500 (17.5 l/min)

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A useful heart rate to be aware of is the maximum heart rate. A lot of fitness professionals use this when designing training programmes, to ensure that the individual is training at a suitable heart rate. The maximum heart rate can be calculated by the following equation:

Maximum heart rate = $220 - \text{age}$

Therefore, the maximum heart rate of a 20 year old would be 200 bpm

The Karvonen formula can be used to calculate an individual's heart rate reserve.

Heart rate reserve = maximum heart rate – resting heart rate

This heart rate reserve is then used to determine individualised training zones. The following equation:

$(\text{Heart rate reserve} \times \text{training \%}) + \text{resting heart rate}$

To give a practical example of this latest equation, we can imagine that a 25-year-old athlete with a resting heart rate of 60 bpm wants to train at 60% of their maximum heart rate.

We firstly need to calculate this athlete's maximum heart rate:

$220 - 25 = 195 \text{ bpm}$

We can then determine the training zone heart rate by doing the calculation:

The above equation fits an individual who would be working within a heart rate reserve of 60–70% into the 60–70% range.



Things to think about

What effect can an improvement in the cardiovascular and respiratory systems have on sporting performance?

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The transport of oxygen

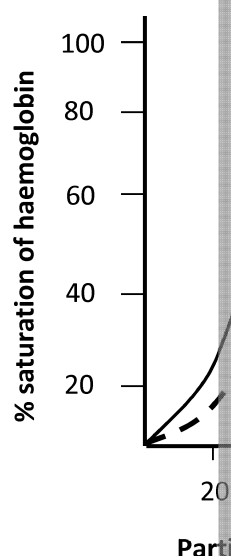
Haemoglobin is the protein that is found within red blood cells, and its role is to transport oxygen throughout the body. It does this by combining with oxygen to become oxyhaemoglobin. When oxygen is released from the oxyhaemoglobin within the bloodstream, it is important to note that oxygen is carried in the excitation-contraction coupling known as myoglobin.

As exercise intensity increases, there is a change in the dissociation of oxyhaemoglobin. The oxyhaemoglobin dissociation curve involves, as the name suggests, the relationship between oxygen saturation and the partial pressure of oxygen in the blood, either oxygen is released by the tissue cells or the blood absorbs oxygen from the surrounding tissues.

In areas of high partial pressure, the oxygen is readily bound to the haemoglobin. In areas of low partial pressure, the oxygen is released from the haemoglobin as the surrounding tissues have a high demand for its presence.

The oxyhaemoglobin dissociation graph demonstrates how, when the partial pressure of oxygen increases, haemoglobin becomes more saturated. The levelling off at the top of the graph, and hence the graph's 'S' shape, can be explained by less oxygen being able to bind to the haemoglobin as it becomes fully saturated.

The *Bohr shift* is a term used to describe the movement of the curve shown on the graph to the right (shown by the dotted line). This Bohr effect is a result of an increase in blood acidity and suggests that oxygen less readily binds to haemoglobin when in an environment which has low pH levels.



Remember: dissociation of oxygen requires an 'S'-shaped graph that shows haemoglobin is fully saturated.

Arteriovenous oxygen difference (a-vO₂ diff)

Gas exchange at the muscles can be determined by the arteriovenous oxygen difference. The **oxygen difference** is a term that refers to the difference in the levels of oxygen in the arterial and venous blood. At rest, there is a small arteriovenous oxygen difference due to a relatively small amount of oxygen being used by the muscles. As the muscles undergo exercise, they consume a much larger amount of oxygen, so that there is an increase in the amount of oxygen in the capillaries surrounding the muscles. This reduced amount of oxygen in the veins, in comparison to the amount of oxygen in the arteries staying constant, results in a larger difference between the two (and, thus, a larger a-vO₂ diff).

A trained individual is likely to have a higher a-vO₂ diff than that of an untrained individual. As a result of cardiovascular training, in which the muscle fibres undergo capillarisation (the formation of new capillaries), allowing a greater blood supply to reach the muscles, along with an increase in the number of mitochondria, a trained individual can, therefore, utilise a larger amount of oxygen from the blood.

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Bradycardia

Bradycardia is a term used to describe an abnormally slow heart rate, under 60 bpm. Athletes can have such a heart rate, as a result of a heart consisting of stronger cardiac muscle and a larger ventricular chamber. As this increased chamber size allows more blood to be pumped out with each contraction, the heart maintains the same cardiac output through the reduction of heart rate (remember, $\text{cardiac output} = \text{stroke volume} \times \text{heart rate}$). This means that the heart does not have to work so hard to ensure that oxygen-rich blood is delivered to the skeletal muscles, helping to prevent the early onset of fatigue.

Cardiorespiratory and Cardiovascular Responses to Exercise

When athletes begin exercising, either at the start of a match or during a warm-up, their cardiorespiratory and cardiovascular systems respond acutely. These structural and functional responses are:

- Vasoconstriction of the blood vessels restricts the blood flow to less-essential organs, which increases the amount of oxygenated blood being transported to the working muscles through the process of vascular shunting (*structural*). This ensures that enough oxygen is delivered to the muscles to produce energy aerobically (*functional*).
- Cardiac output is increased, due to an increase in heart rate and stroke volume, which increases the amount of blood to be transported to the exercising muscles (*functional*).
- An increase in thoracic cavity volume as the sternocleidomastoid pulls the rib cage upwards and outwards (*structural*) reduces the partial pressure of oxygen in the lungs and increases the rate of oxygen entering the external environment at a higher rate (*functional*).
- More powerful contraction of the internal intercostals and rectus abdominis muscles leads to a more forceful expiration, which helps to expel more air (*functional*).

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Long-term Adaptations to Exercise

After months and years of frequent exercise, positive adaptations occur to the body. This section will cover the musculoskeletal and cardiorespiratory changes in response to exercise.

Musculoskeletal system

Musculoskeletal adaptations occur as a result of both aerobic training (using oxygen) and anaerobic training (without using oxygen). These adaptations are of benefit to particular sports such as sprinting and marathon running (aerobic).

The adaptations are outlined below:

Anaerobic Training	Aerobic Training
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased muscle mass Increased cross-sectional fibre size (fast-twitch muscle fibres) Increased number of fast-twitch muscle fibres Increased strength Increased speed of muscle contractions Increased bone density Increased creatine phosphate and glycogen stores for energy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased efficiency of oxygen transport (increased muscle capillarisation) Increased bone density Increased force of contraction

Apply

Think of anaerobic and aerobic sports and how each of the training adaptations benefit performance.

Cardiorespiratory system

Physiological adaptations in response to exercise can also occur in the cardiorespiratory system. The benefit from these adaptations will normally be aerobic forms of exercise, but some adaptations can also benefit anaerobic performance.

Adaptation	How it Aids Performance
Bradycardia – a lowered heart rate (<60 bpm)	A lower resting heart rate means the heart is more efficient at pumping blood around the body. The heart has to work less intensely to maintain a normal heart rate.
Cardiac hypertrophy	The increased size of the heart means it can pump more blood and more blood can be pumped to the muscles.
Increased stroke volume	Each heart beat pumps out more blood (and, therefore, more oxygen) reaches the muscles.
Increased lung volume	More air can be inhaled per breath, meaning more oxygen can be delivered to the body and more carbon dioxide can be removed from the body.
Increased VO ₂ max	VO ₂ max is directly related to aerobic performance. An increased VO ₂ max increases the amount of oxygen that can be used during performance, increasing the rate of energy production.
Increased myoglobin content	Oxygen binds to myoglobin to be transported in the muscle. Increased myoglobin content means more oxygen can be transported during exercise.
Capillarisation	The increased number of capillaries in the muscle means oxygen and carbon dioxide can be diffused more efficiently, increasing the efficiency of the cardiorespiratory system.

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Cardiorespiratory System: Checking your understanding

1. If Sally's resting cardiac output is 4800 ml/min, and her resting heart rate is 75 beats/min, what is her resting stroke volume? (3 marks)

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2. Explain the roles that the sinoatrial node and atrioventricular node have in the heart.

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3. Explain the vascular shunt mechanism of the blood during exercise.

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4. Identify **three** structural characteristics of the alveoli that allow the exchange of gases. (3 marks)

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5. Explain the process of gas exchange from the alveoli into the blood.

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Chapter 2.1: Performance Analysis

Analysis in Sport

Overview

In this chapter you will learn how and why performance analysis is carried out on athletes. This includes the type of data used and the positive and negatives of different tests.

We will also discover the joint types found in the body and the movement that can occur at synovial joints. We will also look at lever systems found in the body and the planes and axes that movements can occur in, while applying them to sporting situations.

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter, you should

- ☐ Understand how data can be collected
- ☐ Describe the coaching process and its importance
- ☐ Identify the advantages and disadvantages of different tests
- ☐ Understand how different tests measure behavioural and physical aspects
- ☐ Describe the types of joint found in the body and the movements possible at each joint
- ☐ Identify the locations of joints in the body and the movements possible at each joint
- ☐ Draw the three different types of lever systems and their mechanical advantages
- ☐ Describe the planes and axes that movements can occur in, while applying them to specific sporting situations

Key Terms

Axes of movement:	The collective name for the points the body can move around
Coaching process:	The steps an effective coach takes to identify flaws and improve performance by collecting and interpreting data to improve the performance
Data integrity:	The data that is collected and stored remains both accurate and reliable for the performer
Effort arm:	The distance from the effort to the fulcrum
Effort:	The force that is needed to move the load
Fulcrum:	Where the rotation or movement of the lever takes place
GPS:	Global Positioning System – which helps to determine location
Load arm:	The distance from the load to the fulcrum
Load:	Any weight that needs to be moved in a lever system
Objective data:	Data which is collected via someone seeing or hearing
Planes of movement:	The collective name for the dimensions the body can move in
Qualitative data:	Data which is descriptive in nature
Quantitative data:	Data which is in the form of a numerical value
Reliability:	The degree to which a test can be repeated and give the same result
Subjective data:	Cannot be heard or seen but is generally told to the coach
Synovial joint:	The most common joint type in the body, allowing a wide range of movement
Validity:	The ability of a test to measure what it is supposed to measure
Video analysis:	The use of video footage to assess an individual's performance
VO₂ max:	The maximum amount of oxygen that can be consumed by the body
Weight:	The force of gravity acting on an object

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Performance Analysis in Sport

Recent technological advancements have led to a significant increase in the use of technology to analyse sporting performance by collecting data. This allows coaches to assess a performer's physical, technical and psychological performance using their own tactical approaches.

Most of the data collected via technology is **quantitative**, and **objective**, as they are numerical values. Objective data is factual, with clear numerical evidence backing it up. Subjective analysis of the data collected can occasionally be **qualitative** and **subjective**, such as a performer's performance which has been analysed via a video analysis programme. Subjective data is based on the perceptions of others.

Maintaining data integrity: qualitative and quantitative approaches

While many performers like the idea of technology being used to measure their performance, it is important that the software or hardware that they choose to do so has evidence that it helps to maintain data integrity, which is a term used to describe the accuracy of data throughout its storage duration. Therefore when data integrity is maintained, the data collected and stored will remain both accurate and relevant to the performer. Data integrity is maintained by ensuring software or hardware errors or mistakes upon data entry. The best methods to maintain data integrity include ensuring that data is stored on separate hardware to protect against hardware failure, and using personal protected computers to protect against external influences.

When the majority of elite performers train or perform, they will have access to a performance analysis system which shows their level of performance, which can then be compared to other performers. Under laboratory conditions and field tests, an athlete will regularly hear different types of data. The main terms are outlined below:

- **Quantitative data** refers to data which is in the form of a numerical value, whereas **qualitative data** involves data that is descriptive in nature.
- **Objective data** involves data which is collected via someone seeing or hearing the data being collected, whereas **subjective data** cannot be heard or seen but is generally told to someone.
- **Validity** refers to the ability of a test to measure what it is supposed to, e.g. its relevance, whereas **reliability** refers to if the test was repeated in the exact same conditions, the result would be exactly the same.

Case Study

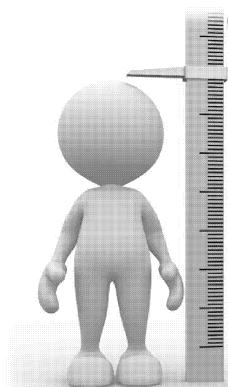
Use the following example to help you remember the difference between qualitative data, and between validity and reliability. Imagine a sports scientist measuring the height of an athlete.

Qualitative data: the sports scientist looks at the athlete and says the athlete is 'quite tall'. He doesn't measure anything.

Quantitative data: the sports scientist uses a method of measurement, thus putting a **value** to the athlete's height.

Reliable test: the method used by the sport scientist to obtain the same or a similar result on more than one occasion.

Valid test: the sport scientist uses a tape measure to measure height. The measurement uses units of distance, the same units that height is measured in. If the sports scientist estimated height based on the weight of a person (e.g. kg), this would be an **invalid** test as it is using the measurement of weight to measure height.



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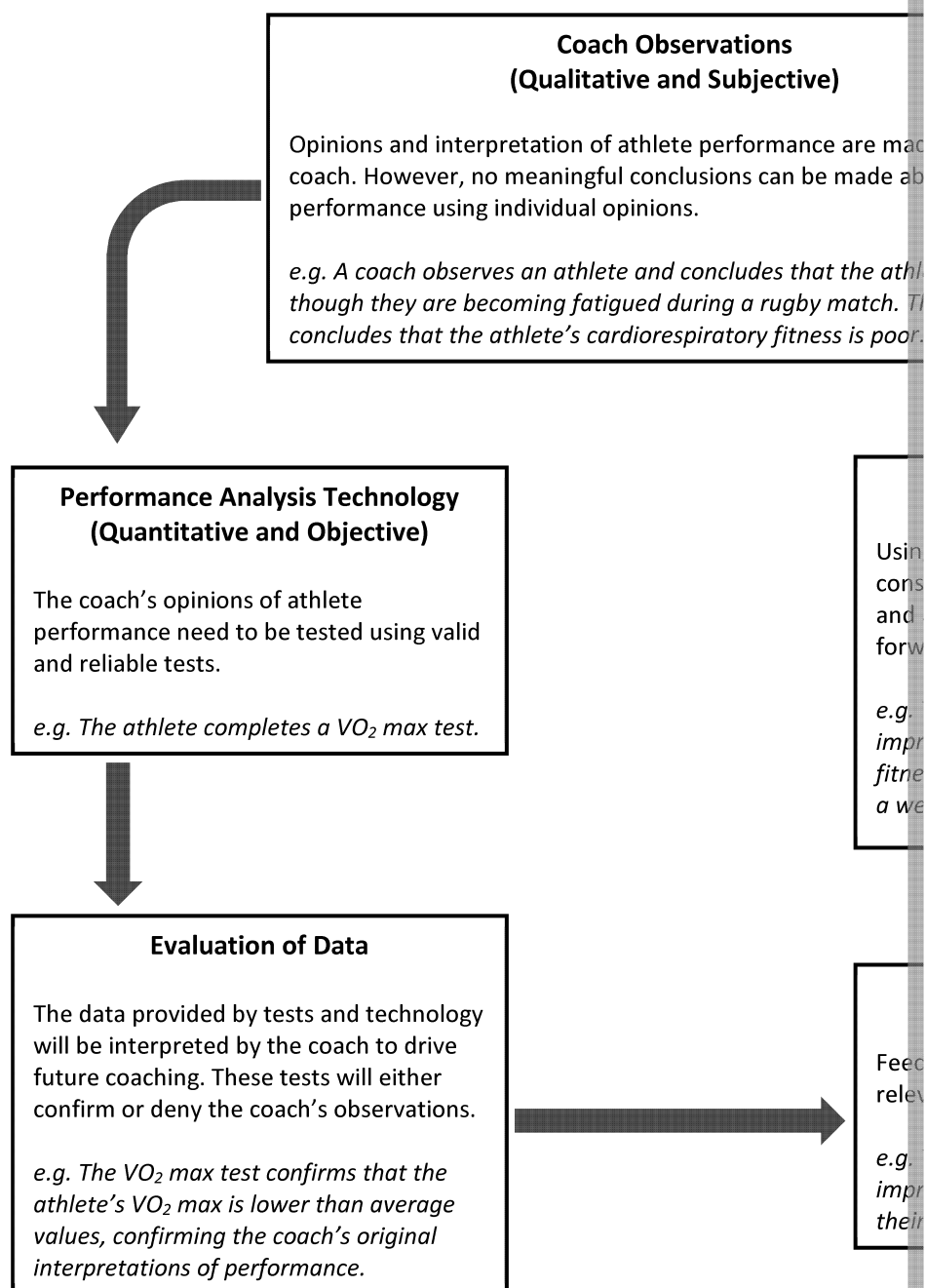


The coaching process and its limitations

Coaches need to monitor athlete performance for a number of reasons:

- to monitor progress
- to monitor drops in performance
- to assess rehabilitation from injury
- to assess and improve technique

Coaches can make real-time (as it happens) observations of performance and of the athlete. This means that observations are qualitative and subjective. Therefore, data must also be collected to support findings and analyse performance. The coach must take the following steps coaches should take to maximise the performance of an athlete.



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Monitoring and analysing key aspects of performance

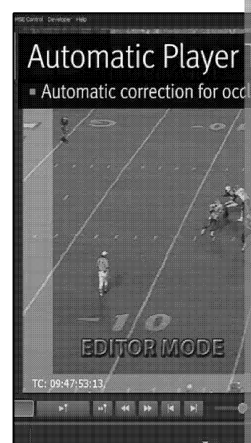
Coaches and athletes want to monitor and analyse the most important factors. The key areas of performance are:

- Tactical
- Technical
- Behavioural or psychological
- Physical (fitness testing)

Some important tests and analysis methods used to analyse aspects of performance are:

Video analysis (technical and tactical)

As the popularity and use of technology in sport has increased, so has the use of performance-analysis software. This can give the performers and coaches an in-depth insight into individual and team performance levels. Much of this analysis is done post-match, although it is possible to analyse performances during the game. The software used can provide data on a number of performance factors, such as player position, the intensity of performance, distance covered, number of sprints, etc. The performer can also look through the video evidence of their performance with the coach, highlighting points for technique improvement.



An example of video analysis software

Video analysis can be carried out using a split screen to compare techniques (e.g. a professional golfer's swing compared to an amateur's golf swing). Slow-motion and frame-by-frame analysis can be used to compare technique at exact time points in a skill.

Advantages of Video Analysis	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coaches and athletes can see aspects of performance, instead of having to interpret numerical data • Cheaper video cameras are becoming available • Can be adapted to film different aspects of performance (e.g. tactics of a whole football team / positioning or technical skills of an individual) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The highest-quality equipment is expensive • Can be time-consuming • Doesn't provide real-time feedback • Sometimes requires specialist equipment • High level of expertise needed to make the most of the data

Global Positioning System (GPS) and motion tracking software (tactical and physical)

Perhaps the most popular method of measuring motion and distance is through Global Positioning System (GPS) technology. This software can be used to provide information such as the speed at which the athlete was travelling, providing a heat map of positioning throughout a session. Examples of this technology include the use of small chips placed in an individual's shoe for example, which can track movement over a specified amount of time. Software can include mobile phone apps, which can be used to track performance with information about their performance.

Cognitive questionnaires (behavioural)

Questionnaires are commonly used by sports clubs to monitor the behaviour of athletes. They are normally used to monitor aspects that cannot be measured using other tests (e.g. mood). They are used to analyse player mood, sleep patterns, happiness and job satisfaction. They can also highlight any cognitive issues a player may have, and lead the athlete to work on these issues to be in the best mental state possible, aiding performance.

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Fitness Testing: Laboratory-based testing and its applications

Technology can be used to test and record the body's physiological reaction to exercise, which can then be used to determine the fitness levels of the athlete.

1. VO₂ max tests (cardiovascular endurance)

VO₂ max is the maximal volume of oxygen that can be consumed and utilised by the body during exercise. Measurement of VO₂ max is through indirect calorimetry (gas analysis). Methods can be used to estimate VO₂ max. These tests are outlined below.

Fitness test	Method
Indirect calorimetry (gas analysis)	Gas analysis involves an athlete measuring the volume of oxygen that they are breathing out, by using a mask or a specialised bag. This bag can then be analysed to determine measures such as VO ₂ max.
Multi-stage fitness test	Two sets of cones are spaced 20 metres apart. The performer runs from one set of cones to the other by the time the whistle is blown. The process is repeated, with the time between whistles shortened as the performer completes each stage. The test continues until exhaustion. The level of exhaustion is recorded.
Step tests	The performer keeps to a steady pace on a step (for males and females respectively). The performer steps up and down the box (with the right then the left foot) for a set time (usually 3 minutes). Once the test is finished, the heart rate is recorded and compared to a fitness level.
Yo-yo tests	This is a similar procedure to the multi-stage fitness test, with the major difference being that this test involves the performer running at a quicker pace before altering the speed to complete the test. The test continues until exhaustion, at which point the level of exhaustion is recorded.
Cooper 12-minute run	The performer runs around a running track for 12 minutes, covering as great a distance as they possibly can.

2. 30-second Wingate test

The 30-second Wingate test is a measure of anaerobic power using a cycle ergometer. The participant cycles at 60 revolutions per minute (rpm) on the bike for 10 seconds. Following a countdown, weights are dropped onto the bike (making it harder to pedal) and the athlete must cycle with maximum effort and speed for 30 seconds. Power output can then be calculated for the athlete using the following equation:

$$\text{Power output (kpm/min)} = \frac{[\text{revs} \times \text{resistance (kg)} \times \text{dist (m)} \times 60 (\text{sec})]}{\text{time (sec)}}$$

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Fitness Testing: Field-based testing

Many components of fitness can be tested in field-based environments. Field-based testing is performed in environments similar to those found in an actual match / competition. It is normally cheaper, quicker to perform and easier to analyse than laboratory-based testing are:

- Cheap
- Quick
- Can be performed by multiple people at the same time
- Limited equipment required
- Specialised knowledge not essential
- Can be compared to normative data

Some disadvantages of field-based testing are:

- May not be as reliable or valid as laboratory-based testing
- Different tests may be used to assess the same components of fitness, making comparison difficult (e.g. sit-up bleep test and press-up bleep test)

The other fitness tests you should be aware of are:

Fitness Component	Fitness Test
Strength	Hand grip dynamometer
Muscular endurance	Sit-up bleep test
Flexibility	Sit and reach test
Agility	Illinois agility test
Balance	Stork balance test
Speed	30 m sprint test
Power	Vertical jump test
Reaction time	Ruler drop test
Coordination	Wall toss test

Once fitness test results have been collected, the data for athletes must be analysed. The results can be compared to previous results from the same athlete to see if there are any increases or decreases in performance. Results can also be compared to normative tables which show the average results for people and gives you an idea of how you compare against them.

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Chapter 3.1: Sports Psychology

Attitudes and Group Dynamics

Overview

This chapter will uncover the link between personality and sporting performance and examine how personality can be used to establish individuals' sporting preferences. You will learn about the theories of personality and how these are used to explain certain behaviour traits seen in sport. You will also learn how personality can be measured and begin to evaluate these profiling methods.

We will also look into how attitudes are formed in sport and physical activity and how we can work to change these. Also, we will touch on group dynamics, what makes an effective group and problems with dysfunctional groups.

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- ☐ Define personality
- ☐ Understand the theories of personality
- ☐ Describe how personality types affect different types of sports
- ☐ Describe and evaluate methods of measuring personality
- ☐ Understand origins of attitudes
- ☐ Describe methods of changing attitudes
- ☐ Understand the six 'I's of a group
- ☐ Understand how groups form
- ☐ Understand problems with dysfunctional groups

Key Terms

Attitude:	An enduring emotional feeling that alters the response towards a specific situation
Behaviour:	The manner in which an individual acts, predicted by their attitudes
Cognitive dissonance:	A method of attitude change that aims to create consistency between an individual's beliefs and their behaviour
Cohesion:	The united nature of a group of individuals who work together
Extrovert:	Somebody outgoing and loud; they enjoy being around people
Group:	A collection of individuals who work together to achieve a common goal
Introvert:	Somebody who tends to be quiet and shy and does not enjoy being around people
Personality profiling:	The use of questionnaires, observations and interviews to identify individuals having a certain personality
Personality:	The collection of distinctive characteristics of a person specific to them
Persuasive communication:	A method that uses encouragement and an influence to change a person's beliefs
Ringelmann effect:	The larger the group size, the greater the loss of effort by each individual
Social learning:	The learning of behaviour based on observing and imitating others expressed by other people
Social loafing:	A reduction in the effort of individuals when performing a task in a group
Somatotypes:	The physical build of a person which is used by coaches to predict performance
Stable:	Characteristics that are unchanging or fixed
Trait:	An enduring quality that characterises an individual
Unstable:	Characteristics that are easily changed

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Theories of Personality

Personality can be defined as the collection of distinctive characteristics of an individual. There has been a longstanding debate regarding whether behaviour is inherited (nature) when we are born or learned (nurture), i.e. outside environmental influences, and how these have been linked with sports performance, with the question being asked if these factors can lead to optimal sports performance. While an answer to this question is often debated, there are several theories of personality and the effect that each of these may have on sporting performance.

Trait theory

A **trait** can be defined as an enduring quality that characterises an individual. Therefore the trait theory of personality proposes that behaviour is innate, with individuals being predisposed to act in a certain way to specific situations. This theory is from the nature side of the debate. It was suggested by Cattell (1965) that the different traits are organised into a hierarchical structure, with the more dominant traits having a larger effect than the less intense traits. This suggests that the environment that the individual finds themselves in does not have any effect on their personality or behaviour.

Trait personality can be summarised by the equation:

Behaviour = Function of Personality

However, trait theory does not explain the influences the environment has on personality and behaviour are always predictable. It also does not explore the ways in which individuals modify and adapt to meet certain situations or environments that sometimes occur.

The traits that an individual is more predisposed to exhibit are known as personal traits, and are listed below.

Social learning theory of personality

Social learning theory proposes that behaviour is determined by previous observations of others. Individuals learn to behave in a variety of social situations. Therefore behaviour can be modified through direct experience (or model), or through observing the behaviour of this model being positively or negatively socially reinforced. Social learning can be summarised as the equation:

Behaviour = Function of Environment

Social learning is enhanced if the model being observed shares the same characteristics and the observer is motivated to learn. An example of social learning is a football player dramatically falling to the ground when they are tackled, due to observing a similar situation.

However, social learning theory does not acknowledge that people may be born with certain traits that can then be adapted through social learning. It assumes that a personality is learned.

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Biological theory (Sheldon)

Biological theory categorises people based on their body type – known as a somatotype. There are three main somatotypes are:

- ectomorph
- mesomorph
- endomorph

Sheldon used these three somatotypes to help describe the personality traits of each type.

Somatotype	Physical Description
Ectomorph	Slim in build, narrow hips and shoulders and carrying little body fat
Mesomorph	Broad shoulders and narrow hips with a high percentage of muscle mass and low percentage of body fat
Endomorph	Narrow shoulders and wide hips with a low percentage of muscle mass and high percentage of body fat

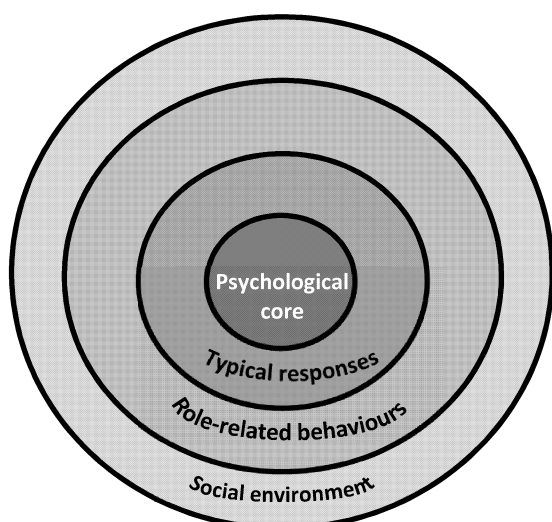
Sheldon's biological theory does not, however, consider the effects other people or previous experiences (learning) have on personality and behaviour. It also does not consider that people's body shapes can change – does this mean that their personalities change too?

Interactionist theory of personality (Lewin)

Interactionist theories propose that an individual's behaviour is governed by the relation between their personality and the situation's environment. This theory is from the nurture side of the debate. This can be demonstrated by the equation:

$$\text{Behaviour} = \text{Function of (Personality} \times \text{Environment)}$$

This theory is closely linked to Hollander's model, which supports the alteration in behaviour in different circumstances.



The psychological core is the underlying and enduring part of the personality that affects the typical responses that an individual will exhibit in specific situations. The role-related behaviours section of the model describes how an individual's behaviour changes in different varying situations and how they find themselves in.

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How interactionist theory can impact on performance

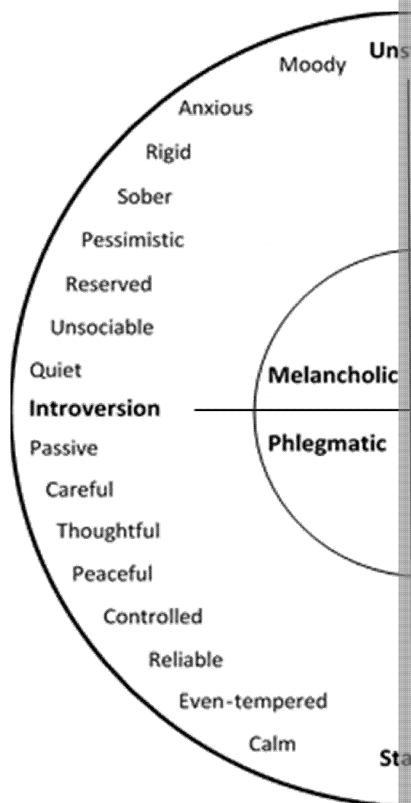
The theory therefore suggests that, although individuals' traits cause the behaviour, behaviour is altered by changeable situations. For example, just because an athlete is a calm and timid character in normal match situations, a more hostile environment can make them aggressive. If the performer, such as in the example above, can learn to positively cope with the sporting environment they find themselves in, their performance levels can improve.

Personality types

The concept of extroversion and introversion is a branch of Eysenck's Theory, which proposed two dimensions of personality, extroversion/introversion and stable/unstable.

Extroversion/introversion refers to how energy is generated and used in social situations. For example, extroverts gain energy from being outgoing in social interactions in large social groups, whereas introverts are energised through spending time on their own, and their energy is drained in social situations.

The stable/unstable dimension refers to how calm and steady an individual's emotions are. Unstable personality types are characterised by having high anxiety levels and mood swings, whereas stable personality types are often calm and have unchanging moods.



A further trait theory was proposed by Girdano et al. (1990), which divided personality into four types. The characteristics of each type are shown in the table below.

Type A	Type B
Demands high levels of control	Prefers to be led
Competitive	Non-competitive
High need to achieve	Low need to achieve
More easily stressed	Less easily stressed
Likes to work quickly	Prefers to work slowly
Can become angry quickly	Calm

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Personality Profiling

Personality profiling is used to categorise people based on their personality. This is especially true in personality profiling, especially at elite-level sport. The reason for this is that some personalities are more suited to particular sports. For example, introverts may be more suited to snooker and archery, and extroverts may be more suited to rugby, football and basketball.

Personality profiling can be completed using interviews, questionnaires and observations. The following include:

- Profile of mood states (POMS) (McNair et al., 1971) – this test requires participants to rate the emotions they have felt over the last week. Using a scoring system, the test determines how stable your emotions are.
- Cattell's 16 personality factors (16PF) – this test asks individuals to rate how they feel about themselves. It is used to determine the trait personality of a person.
- Sport competition anxiety test (Martens, 1977) – this test determines the level of anxiety in competitive situations. The test asks athletes to rate how often they agree with the statement 'I get nervous before competing.'

Benefits of Personality Profiling	Limitations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cheap and easy to complete • Easy to interpret results • Can be self-assessed • Identifies the sporting environments someone performs best in • Helps to guide training/goals (communication between trainer and athlete) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personalities can be accurately measured • Personality is not always stable • Cannot predict performance • Cannot predict environment/situation • Individuals can be self-assessed

Research

Try to find the POMS test, 16PF test and the sport competition anxiety test online, and complete the tests to assess your own personality – did any of the results surprise you at all?

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Aspects of Personality

Checking your understanding

1. Explain how trait theory suggests that personalities are formed. (4 marks)

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2. Provide an equation to represent the social learning theory of personality.

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3. i. Describe personality profiling. (2 marks)

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- ii. Cattell's 16 personality factors test and the profile of mood states test can be used to profile someone's personality.

Give two advantages and two disadvantages of personality profiling.

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Attitudes

The **attitude** of a performer can be defined as an enduring emotional feeling that alters the response given towards a specific situation. It is important for a performer to have a positive attitude, as this has a beneficial impact on goal motivation and task persistence. It is, therefore, important to understand how an attitude is formed, the components of attitude and how these can be modified to form a more positive attitude towards sporting situations.

The formation of an attitude is dependent on a number of factors:

- **Personality type:** As covered earlier, there are many different types of personality. It has been suggested that extroverts are more likely to have a positive attitude towards sport.
- **Social influences:** An individual is more likely to form an attitude that is similar to those of the people they interact with through the process of social learning. For example, if a young girl's friend playing sport is masculine, the young girl is likely to adopt this same attitude. This can also have a similar effect.
- **Personal experiences:** If an individual has had a high amount of positive experiences in a particular situation, they are more likely to form a positive attitude towards this situation. The more positive the experience, the more likely that an attitude will be formed.
- **Conditioning:** Reinforcement can promote the formation of a particular attitude. If a particular situation is reinforced as being positive, an individual is more likely to keep that attitude.

Triadic model

Every attitude consists of three components – affective, behavioural and cognitive – the triadic model.

The **affective** component concerns the emotional reaction held towards an attitude object. A positive emotional reaction would promote the formation of a positive attitude, for example.

The **behavioural** component concerns how an individual acts when faced with an attitude object. Previous behaviour can affect the formation of a positive attitude.

The **cognitive** component concerns the individual's thoughts towards an attitude object. An individual's attitude being influenced by either positive or negative beliefs that they hold.

Remember the attitude components:
ABC:
Affective
Behavioural
Cognitive

Methods of attitude change

It is possible to alter an individual's pre-existing attitude. This can be done via persuasive communication and cognitive dissonance.

Persuasive communication:

As the name suggests, this method involves using communication to persuade an individual to change their attitude. The success of this method is dependent on the following factors:

- The characteristics of the receiver: if the receiver is willing to change their attitude, they are more likely to be persuaded to do so. Therefore, a strong pre-existing attitude will be harder to change.
- The characteristics of the persuader: if the persuader is of a higher status or more credible, they are more likely to be persuaded.
- The quality of the message: the message must be clear, accurate and concise. It will not be overloaded with information.
- The situation: a positive environment, with the social support for a change in attitude, is more likely to change their attitude.

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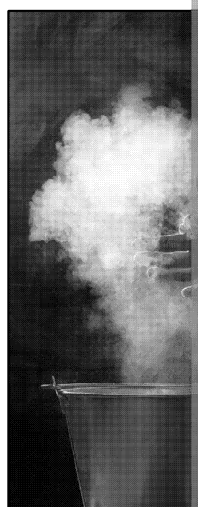


Cognitive dissonance:

The basis of this method is to create an imbalance in one's beliefs, i.e. create dissonance. If an individual experiences this dissonance, they will be more prepared to change their behaviour. This is created by causing a conflict between two attitude components. This causes an individual to create a balance between the components to lessen the stress. The process of creating a balance between the components of attitude (affective, behavioural, cognitive) is called cognitive dissonance. Dissonance is dependent on the persuasive abilities of the teacher/coach and the individual. Giving an athlete an example of how each component of attitude can be changed is a key part of this method.

A teenage boy has a pre-existing negative attitude towards gymnastics, as he believes that it is a feminine sport and males do not participate in it. This attitude can be changed by creating cognitive dissonance by altering the components in the following ways:

- **Affective:** the boy can be presented with visual evidence of the many male gymnasts performing impressive routines successfully.
- **Behavioural:** the boy can perform in a setting which enforces the masculine aspect of gymnastics, e.g. attempt the rings, which require high levels of muscular strength.
- **Cognitive:** the boy can be taught about the positive effect that gymnastics can have on strength and flexibility, and relate this to the sports that he enjoys doing.



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Group Dynamics in Sport

Understanding how individuals work together in a group helps a coach effectively manage interactions to provide successful team performances. A **group** can be defined as a collection of people who work together to achieve a common goal. If a group is not a cohesive unit, breakdowns can occur due to simple errors being made as a result of the group members not communicating with each other. Therefore, it is important to understand how a group is formed and the stages of group formation.

The Six 'I's

A group is made up of people who share similar ideas, goals or feelings. To remain effective, a group must have the following characteristics:

1. Interaction – how the group members communicate with each other. Positive communication is essential for a cohesive group.
2. Interdependence – members of a group recognise that they need each other to achieve their goals.
3. Interpersonal relationships – the closeness of team members. If members have positive relationships, the group is more likely to be happy and cohesive.
4. Identical norms, values and goals – the members of a group will share the same values and work towards the same goal.
5. Identity – the members of a group should recognise themselves as having a common identity, on the basis that the group is working towards a shared goal.
6. Independence – members should understand their own roles within the group and be able to perform them effectively.

Tuckman's stages of group formation

Forming: The initial stage of the meeting of group members, with interactions forming interrelationships within the group and sharing opinions. At this stage, an individual's focus is on what they can contribute to the team.	Storming: Leadership styles might clash at this stage, with certain team members being drawn to each other due to sharing similar opinions. Problems begin to be identified at this stage, with a focus on teammates' performance rather than the member's own performance. Progressing from this stage is difficult, but needs to be done to ensure successful team formation.	Norming: This stage involves problem-solving by working together to find answers to the problems that arise from the storming stage. This stage helps members identify their own roles within the team, while team cohesion has increased.
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Group Formation

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Cohesion

Cohesion can be defined as the united nature of a group of individuals who aim to achieve a common goal. There are two types of cohesion: task cohesion and social cohesion. Task cohesion refers to the team working together to complete a task successfully. Social cohesion refers to the relationships between the group members. A cohesive team is one in which the individual team members are committed to the team and this can be beneficial in competition as it ensures that the team members are working together. It is important for a team to have strategies in place which can help encourage and maintain cohesion. Strategies can include:

- improving the communication between the individual team members
- using shared goals within the team
- making sure that each of the members knows how their role can impact on the team performance
- including each of the team members
- using the correct leadership style
- promoting the importance of team performance over individual performance
- allowing the team members to be involved in the decision-making process

Steiner's model of group effectiveness

Steiner's model of group effectiveness considers the relationship between the individual members to a team's productivity, and the successfulness of the team member. It is summarised as the equation:

Actual productivity = best potential productivity – losses due to faulty processes

These faulty processes are either **coordination** losses or **motivational** losses. Coordination losses occur when the individuals are not successfully directing their efforts in a cohesive or efficient manner. For example, the team that is the favourite to win the World Cup due to its abundance of individual talent, but is unable to successfully work together. Losses of motivation can be a result of the number of team members having an effect on motivation (**the Ringelmann effect**), i.e. when the number of team members increases, each individual exerts less effort. Related to this, **social loafing** suggests that although their own role is not recognised within a larger group, and they perceive their contribution to be diminished. This model also suggests that team sports which rely on high coordination are greatly impacted by faulty group processes than those sports which do not rely on high coordination.

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Group Dynamics in Sport: Checking your understanding

1. Identify and describe the four stages of group formation. (8 marks)

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2. Provide an equation to summarise Steiner's model of group effectiveness.

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3. Explain the terms 'Ringelmann effect' and 'social loafing'. (2 marks)

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4. Provide six strategies for improving cohesion. (6 marks)

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Chapter 3.2: Sports Psychology: Stress and Anxiety and Aggression

Overview

Even elite athletes get stressed. In this chapter you will learn what is meant by the terms 'stress', 'arousal' and 'anxiety' and their relationship in sports performance. You will uncover the theories behind arousal and the different factors affecting arousal levels. You will also learn how stress and anxiety influence sporting performance, including the effect of an audience's on sports performance, linked to different personalities. And finally, you will discover methods of controlling the above in order to improve performance in sport.

We will also look at aggression in sport, what it is, what can potentially cause it and methods to manage it.

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter, you should be able to do the following:

- ☐ Describe drive theory, inverted U-shaped curve, catastrophe theory of arousal
- ☐ Describe stress and understand its components
- ☐ Describe the difference between acute and chronic stress
- ☐ Identify cognitive and somatic anxiety
- ☐ Understand how stress, arousal and anxiety affect performance
- ☐ Explain the effect an audience has on performance in beginners/amateurs
- ☐ Explain and apply stress management techniques to manage the negative impacts of stress, anxiety and arousal
- ☐ Define types of aggression and understand its components
- ☐ Evaluate theories behind the causes of aggression with examples
- ☐ Identify strategies behind controlling aggression

Key Terms

Aggression:	Behaviour which has the goal of harming other people
Anxiety:	A feeling of apprehension when faced with a situation that may be threatening
Arousal:	A raised state of physiological and psychological activity
Assertion:	Forceful behaviour in order to achieve a goal without harming another individual
Cognitive anxiety:	The mental reactions a person has to anxiety
Evaluation apprehension:	An athlete believing the audience is judging their performance and the negative effect on their actual performance
Social facilitation:	The beneficial impact on sporting performance of an audience
Social inhibition:	The negative impact on sporting performance of an audience
Somatic anxiety:	The physical responses a person has to stress
State anxiety:	How an individual reacts to a specific stressful situation
Stress:	Psychological or physiological tension in response to a stressor
Stressor:	The name given to the stimulus that is causing stress
Trait anxiety:	The general tendency of how an individual responds to stress
Zone of optimal functioning:	The level of arousal that each individual person needs to perform to the best of their ability

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Arousal

Arousal can be defined as a raised state of physiological and psychological readiness. A state of arousal (and therefore ready for physical performance) is seen as a beneficial state. However, too much arousal can lead to rapid decreases in the level of performances.

There are a number of theories that attempt to explain the close relationship between arousal and performance, and the effect that being either over-aroused or under-aroused has on performance.

Drive theory (Hull, 1943; Spence and Spence, 1966)³

This theory suggested that as arousal increases, performance levels increase proportionally. It was suggested that as arousal increases, so does the performer's dominant response. This dominant response is the natural response provided by an athlete in the quickest time, when faced with a specific stimulus.

A performer of higher ability generally has a stronger dominant response which, due to being used correctly, helps improve performance. However, a performer of lower ability has a weaker dominant response, which is more likely to be used incorrectly, and thus less likely to positively impact on performance. For example, if an experienced and elite basketball player's arousal increases, their performance is likely to improve. However, the drive theory has since been made redundant, due to the lack of explanation for the concept of over-arousal; that is, once a performer's level of arousal becomes too great, performance will inevitably start to drop.

Exam Tip

It might be useful to remember the associated equation **performance = habit + drive**. Habit refers to the dominant response, whereas drive refers to level of arousal.

Inverted U theory (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908)

This theory also suggests that as arousal rises, so does performance. However, this theory answers the questions that were a result of the drive theory, what happens when a performer becomes too aroused? The inverted U theory states that performance rises alongside arousal, up until the level of optimal arousal. This point is where performance is at its optimal level. If arousal continues to rise beyond this point, performance will decrease.

However, the arousal level at which optimal performance is dependent on the athlete affects optimal performance. For example, an inexperienced athlete will have a lower level of arousal. This is because they have to devote their concentration to the task. This contrasts to an experienced athlete whose actions are more autonomous, less about the skill performance. Also the type of sport affects at which point of arousal performance is optimal. Sports which require a greater amount of control, such as putting in golf, require lower levels of arousal. Sports which engage large muscle groups to produce powerful movements, such as in sprinting, require higher levels of arousal. However, this theory can be criticised as it views arousal as a single entity, not taking into account the different effects of somatic and cognitive anxiety.

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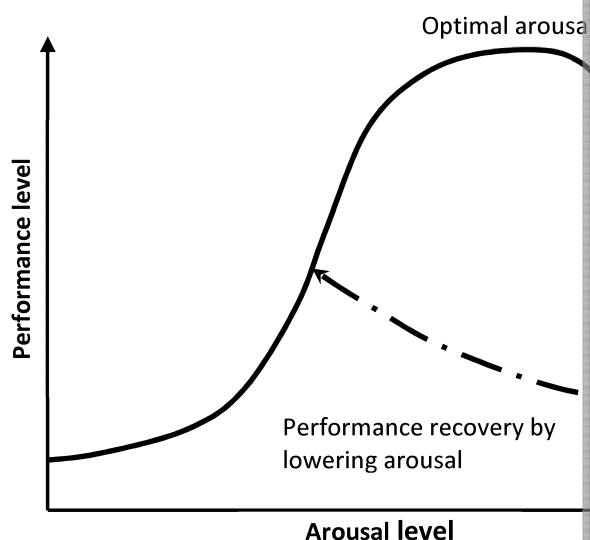


³ Spence, J T and Spence, K W, 1966. *The motivational components of manifest anxiety: Drive and habit*. pp. 291–326.

Catastrophe theory (Hardy & Fazey, 1987)⁴

This theory clarifies the issue of arousal being perceived as unidimensional, as because it addresses the need to include the effect that both somatic and cognitive levels. The catastrophe theory suggests that as cognitive anxiety increases so long as somatic anxiety remains low. However, if both cognitive and somatic anxiety increase, there is a catastrophic effect on performance, with performance levels rapidly declining. A performer can salvage performance levels by reducing their anxiety. As shown in the graph, this can result in immediately returning to an optimal level of performance, but it does not result in performance being at least temporarily somewhat rectified. If anxiety is not reduced, performance will continue to decline.

Criticism of this theory includes that it does not offer an explanation of why the two



Apply

Think of a time you competed. Can you relate to any of the theory? Did you have a catastrophe or did you perform better as your arousal increased?

Zones of optimal functioning

Zones of optimal functioning suggest that individual will respond to increases in arousal differently. Some athletes will perform differently dependent on how they react to the level of arousal. Some athletes may experience low levels of arousal and succeed, while others may experience high levels of arousal and succeed. The optimal levels of functioning are an individual's psychological awareness. However, one criticism of the theory is that not all individuals perform better in certain emotional states than others.

Peak flow

Peak flow is a branch of positive psychology, and is a state of mind which athletes experience during competition. This is because experiencing this state can have beneficial effects on an athlete feeling as though they are at the top of their game. Characteristics of the state include:

- high self-awareness
- high level of control over the performance
- having maximum focus on the activity
- the performance feels effortless
- state of relaxation
- time feels slowed-down



Things to think about

What are the impacts of arousal and anxiety on performance in sport?

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⁴ Hardy, L, 1990, A catastrophe model of performance in sport.

Stress and Anxiety

Stress

Stress can be defined as either psychological or physiological tension in response to a stimulus. This stimulus can either be external or internal, and is referred to as a **stressor**. There are multiple stressors that exist and they have a varying effect which can be dependent on the individual's trait and state anxiety. Some key stressors that can affect sporting performance could include: adverse environmental conditions, opposition player behaviour, coach behaviour, etc. The list is endless and contains different stressors for different individuals.

Different
anxiety
Stress
stimulus
react

Anxiety

It is likely that you will have experienced anxiety at some point in your lifetime. It was prior to taking an important exam, or having to speak in front of a large group of people, causes of anxiety are wide-ranging. In sport, experiencing anxiety can have a direct impact on sporting performance. Athletes are often aware of when they are anxious, as they have learned to understand how their body reacts to anxiety. For example, if an athlete is aware of their heart rate rising, they understand that they are anxious and associate this with a positive step towards a positive performance. For example, an Olympic sprinter's heart rate may increase minutes before they have to perform, which they associate with their body preparing itself to perform.

Anxiety can be defined as a feeling of apprehension when faced with a stimulus.

Anxiety can be separated into state or trait anxiety:

- **State** anxiety refers to how an individual reacts to a specific stressful situation. State anxiety is a temporary response to a temporary threatening situation, which can therefore differ depending on the situation.
- **Trait** anxiety refers to an individual's tendency to react to stress in a specific way. This means that those with high levels of trait anxiety are predisposed to finding stressful situations highly stressful, whereas those who have low trait anxiety are less affected.

Remember
Don't
it's on

There are two types of anxiety which have different symptoms – cognitive and somatic. Cognitive anxiety concerns the mental reactions to anxiety, whereas **somatic** anxiety involves the physical symptoms that can have on an individual. Below is a table summarising the key symptoms of cognitive and somatic anxiety.

Cognitive anxiety symptoms	Somatic anxiety symptoms
Loss of concentration or focus	Headache
Confusion	Muscular tension
Feelings of uneasiness	Raised heart rate
Negative thoughts	Raised ventilation rate
Feelings of weakness	Increased sweating
Indecision	Feelings of nausea
Feelings of being unsatisfied	Irritability
	Increased need to urinate
	Feelings of 'butterflies' in the stomach
	Loss of appetite

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Social Facilitation – The Effect of an Audience

Social facilitation can be defined as the beneficial impact on sporting performance caused by performing in front of an audience. This contrasts with **social inhibition**, which can be defined as the negative impact on sporting performance caused by performing in front of an audience. The presence of an audience can often lead to an increase in arousal, which can have an effect on performance level. This is because increased arousal levels increase the likelihood of the occurrence of the dominant response. Not everybody reacts in the same way when faced with performing in front of an audience, with personality factors, level of experience and the type of skill affecting the performance level.



The effect of an audience on...	
... introverts/extroverts	... b
<p>Introverts: the presence of an audience increasing arousal leads to social inhibition.</p> <p>This is because introverts struggle to perform at higher levels of arousal.</p> <p>Extroverts: the presence of an audience increasing arousal leads to social facilitation.</p> <p>This is because extroverts tend to thrive and be energised in high-arousal situations.</p>	<p>Beginners: the prese arousal leads to soci</p> <p>This is because arou beginners need to be</p> <p>Experts: the presenc arousal leads to soci</p> <p>This is because expe attentional focus to</p>
... complex/simple skills	...
<p>Complex: the presence of an audience increasing arousal leads to social inhibition. This is because complex skills require more attention due to the multitude of actions needed.</p> <p>Simple: the presence of an audience increasing arousal leads to social facilitation. This is because simple skills are often more habitual and so require less attention.</p>	<p>Fine: the presence o leads to social inhibi</p> <p>This is because fine s decision-making and lower arousal levels.</p> <p>Gross: the presence leads to social facilit</p> <p>This is because gross information process</p>

Evaluation apprehension refers to the perceived judging by others that negati Evaluation apprehension leads to an increased level of arousal, and the effect i perceived to be evaluating are of a higher status than the performer. Performer evaluation apprehension if they suffer from high anxiety or low self-confidence have suffered from previous negative experiences in similar situations.

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Arousal, Stress and Anxiety: Checking y

1. Provide a definition for 'social facilitation'. (1 mark)

2. Provide a definition for the term 'anxiety'. (1 mark)

3. Explain the difference between state anxiety and trait anxiety. (2 marks)

4. Identify three symptoms of cognitive anxiety, and three symptoms of somatic anxiety. (4 marks)

5. Explain the theory of the zones of optimal functioning, and provide an example of how this theory can be applied in a real-world context. (4 marks)

6. Describe the catastrophe theory of arousal. (4 marks)

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Measuring Stress, Anxiety and Arousal

It is important for athletes to be able to measure and monitor their anxiety levels to allow them to assess where they need to improve and which stress management techniques to use to control their anxiety (see 'Controlling Stress, Anxiety and Arousal').

Arousal can be monitored using physiological measures. For example:

- Heart rate and breathing rate – will increase significantly if someone is highly aroused.
- Sweating – people who are nervous begin to sweat profusely
- Muscle response – when nervous, athletes' muscles can become tense, wobbly or tremble
- Hormone levels – the level of hormones in the blood can be monitored to determine arousal. When adrenaline levels are high, the athlete is likely to be aroused.

The table below summarises the most popular methods of measuring anxiety, and the advantages and disadvantages of each method.

Method	Description	Advantages
Sport competition anxiety test (SCAT)	This test is a self-report questionnaire which evaluates how they feel prior to competing, and their views towards participating in competitive sport in general.	This measure has high levels of reliability as an individual is likely to repeat the same answers each time, and high validity as it has been shown to be a strong predictor of competition state anxiety.
Competitive state anxiety inventory (CSAI-2)	A test that divides anxiety into three individual components: cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety and self-confidence.	Categorises anxiety into three separate components. It is often quick to complete and can be self-assessed.
Physiological tests	This method includes tests such as measuring heart rate response to a variety of environments, i.e. determining the physiological signs of anxiety.	This type of measurement has the advantage of providing real-time and accurate measurements.
Observational methods	This is when another person watches the performance of an individual, recording their signs of anxiety.	This method has the advantage of being able to give an insight into how the performer is during a live performance.

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Controlling Stress, Anxiety and Arousal

Stress can have a negative impact on sports performance, depending on how it occurs and its frequency. Similar to anxiety, there is also cognitive and somatic stress.

To prevent the detrimental effects that stress can have on performance, there are various management techniques that can be used. It is best to look at these techniques in terms of the difference between cognitive and somatic techniques.

Cognitive stress management technique	How it works
Positive thinking/self-talk	Saying positive statements out loud helps to improve interpreting actions or stressors as positive and reduce the negative impact they may have. Statements such as 'I can do this' help to build confidence, improve result, improve task persistence.
Imagery	Imagining a peaceful and relaxing scenario can help to reduce stress, such as lowering the heart rate and ventilation.
Goal-setting	Using the SMART technique helps to improve self-control and reduce stress. This can be stress-specific, with the long-term goal of reducing the amount of stress felt during competition.

Somatic stress management technique	Description
Progressive muscular relaxation	<p>This enables the performer to understand how to relax their muscles using muscular relaxation techniques.</p> <p>Process:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> This requires finding a comfortable and quiet environment. The performer tenses a particular muscle or group of muscles. After this tension has been held for roughly 10 seconds, allowing the tension to disappear. <p>The performer can use this technique when they are feeling stressed, improving their performance, reducing their stress levels.</p>
Biofeedback	This enables the performer to control their arousal levels by monitoring physiological symptoms of stress and how to control them.
Breathing control	Increasing the depth of breathing while slowing down the rate of breathing can help to reduce stress. Focusing on altering the breathing pattern can help to reduce stress from stressors.

Apply

Think of a time you have been stressed. What did you do to try and control it? Did it work?



Things to think about

Why is it important to manage stress and how does the approach suit the individual's situation?

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Measuring and Controlling Stress, Anxiety and Depression

Checking your understanding

1. Explain how positive self-talk is an effective stress management technique. (2 marks)

2. Why is imagery an effective stress management technique? (2 marks)

3. Identify three somatic stress management techniques and explain why they are effective. (6 marks)

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Aggression

Aggression in a sporting context can be defined as behaviour which has the goal of breaking the rules of the game. It is important not to get this type of behaviour mixed up with competitive behaviour in order to achieve a goal, and does not include injuring another individual. Aggression, with each aiming to achieve a particular goal:

- Hostile aggression – hostile aggression's sole purpose is to cause injury to the opponent. For example, a fight in a rugby match.
- Instrumental aggression – instrumental aggression is aggressive behaviour to achieve a goal. For example, a football player injuring the opponent's best player to help his team win.
- Assertive behaviour – assertive behaviour is the use of legal aggression to achieve a goal. For example, a rugby player making a hard, but legal, tackle on an opponent, without injuring the opponent's mind.

Theories of aggression

There are a number of theories that explore the causes of aggression:

Instinct (Lorenz, 1966)

The instinct theory of aggression proposes that each individual has the innate (natural) characteristic of the act of aggression within themselves. Concerning the 'instinct' element of this theory, Lorenz argued that the evolution of the instinct of aggressive behaviour enabled survival through fighting and gaining territory. He explained the theory as the necessary release of aggression that is continuously developing within an individual, proposing that acting aggressively is unavoidable. Therefore, perceived aggressive sports (e.g. ice hockey) allow the athletes to let off steam through the game (catharsis), enabling them to be more peaceful post game in other aspects of their life.

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Cue arousal hypothesis (Berkowitz, 1969)

This theory suggests that the result of frustration is increased arousal, with this arousal resulting in a readiness for aggressive behaviour. The increased arousal is combined with aggressive cues, and when faced with these cues the individual is conditioned to respond in an aggressive manner. For example, if a basketball player recognises an opposition player who they have argued with before, this could be an aggression-related cue which leads to aggressive behaviour. An example of an environmental aggressive cue may be a hot day, which may result in more aggressive behaviour.

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Social learning (Bandura, 1977)

Bandura (1977) proposed that aggression is a learned behaviour. To expand on this, it is suggested that individuals learn aggressive behaviour through observing others who display such behaviour. Observers tend to identify more closely with those they have more in common with, or a role model, for example. This theory takes a more flexible approach towards prompting aggression, suggesting that aggressive behaviour is learned and thus controlled.

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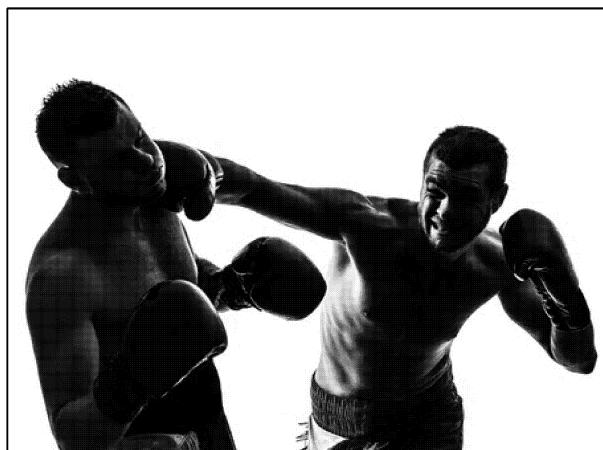
Frustration-aggression hypothesis (Dollard et al., 1939)

This hypothesis, originally developed by Dollard et al. (1939) explained the link between frustration and aggression. The premise of this link is that aggression is solely the direct result of feeling frustrated, and that this feeling of frustration inevitably results in aggressive behaviour. A primary source of frustration in this hypothesis is the obstruction of goal achievement; for example, in football the striker's shot may be cleared off the line, which could result in the striker becoming frustrated.

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Did you know?

Some sports performers who have a tendency to act aggressively, sports psychologists try to prevent them from doing so.



Things to think about



- Why does aggression happen in some sports and not others? How does the development of different sports in terms of rules and objectives influence this?
- How can these studies and theories be applied by sports psychologists and sports clubs?

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Causes of aggression

Aggression can be caused by a number of factors, some of which have been discussed (e.g. cue arousal). Other causes of aggression are:

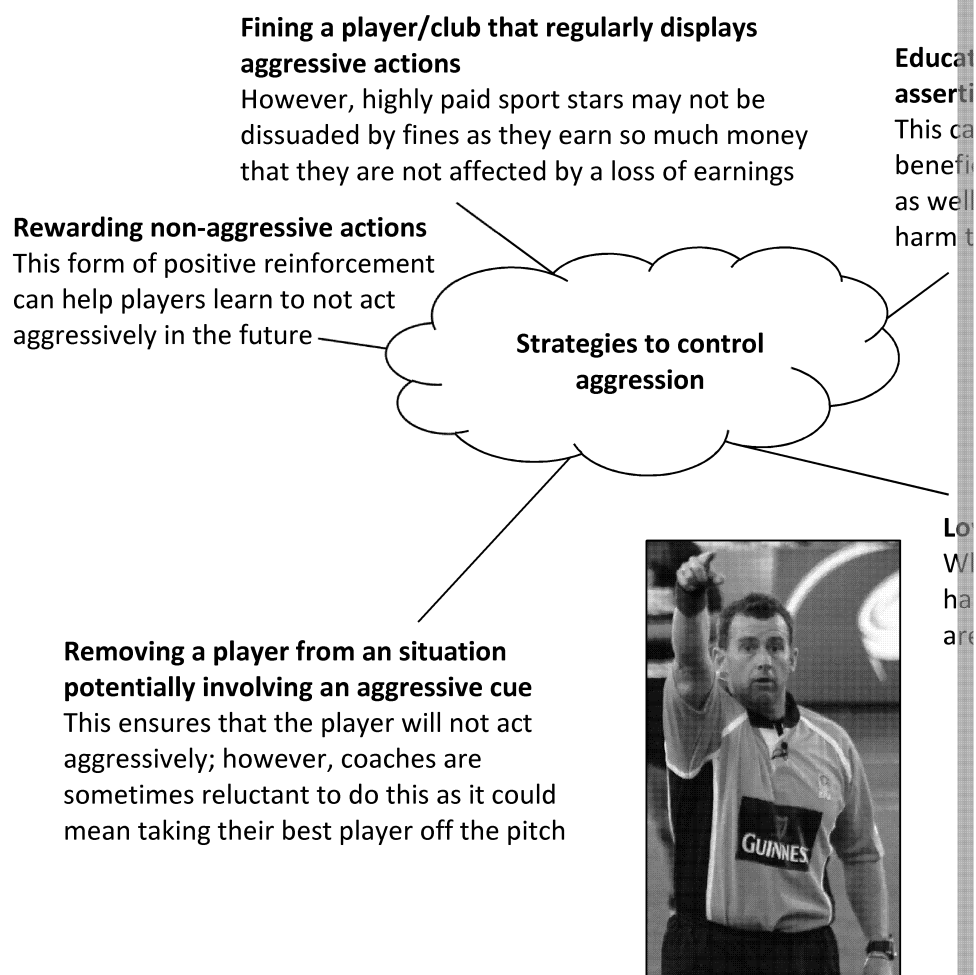
- Anger and aggression towards an opponent as a result of being over-aroused. This cause of aggression is normally displayed in contact and invasion sports such as lacrosse.
- Morals of a player – if a player has lower moral values than another, they may display more aggressive behaviours as they may not see any problem with displaying them.
- Officiating – if a player thinks an official is making bad decisions, this can lead to aggression.
- Temperature – in hot or humid climates players can become increasingly hostile and under pressure.
- Partisan crowd – if a team is playing in a location where the crowd is heavily biased, aggression can develop as players become frustrated or angry towards the opposition.

Apply

Think of any examples where you have experienced aggression due to one of these reasons. How can you control your aggression?

Controlling aggression

As aggressive behaviour can have a number of associated negative impacts, it is important to control its occurrence when possible. The spider diagram below summarises strategies to control aggression.



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Aggression: Checking your understanding

1. Give an example of Aggression in sport (1 mark)

2. Explain the difference between assertion and aggression. (2 marks)

3. Explain the frustration–aggression hypothesis, and provide a criticism

4. Provide a sporting example for the social learning theory of aggression

5. Identify four methods for controlling aggression. (4 marks)

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Chapter 3.3: Sports Psychology

Overview

In this chapter you will learn about the different types of motivation used by individuals to maintain participation in sport. You will learn the different theories of motivation and explore how motivation is linked to personality types.

The chapter also covers self-efficacy and how previous experiences can affect somebody's motivation towards something in the future.

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- ☐ Describe intrinsic and extrinsic motivation
- ☐ Describe tangible and intangible rewards
- ☐ Assess the use of different rewards
- ☐ Understand the difference between internal and external motivation
- ☐ Understand how behaviour can be influenced
- ☐ Understand Bandura's model of self-efficacy and its effect on performance

Key Terms

Extrinsic motivation:	Motivation that comes from sources external to the individual
Intangible rewards:	Rewards which are not physical
Intrinsic motivation:	Motivation that comes from within the performer
Motivation:	A willingness to display certain behaviour
Need to achieve (NAch):	People who actively seek success in performance to do so
Need to avoid failure (Naf):	People who look to avoid failing a task at all costs
Self-efficacy:	The level of belief an individual has in their ability to succeed in a given situation
Tangible rewards:	Rewards which are materialistic

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Motivation

What motivates an athlete to succeed? Commentators of Olympic sports often speak in high levels of the athletes, saying that they had a desire to win ever since they were born as a willingness to exhibit a particular behaviour.

Two forms of motivation are intrinsic and extrinsic.

1. **Intrinsic** motivation comes from sources within the performer. Intrinsic motivation includes wanting to experience the feelings of pride and satisfaction that are associated with a successful performance. The performer will also want to participate due to the fact that they enjoy playing the sport. Personal goal-setting can be used to maintain intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation can lead to improved task persistence and more enjoyment in tasks.
2. **Extrinsic** motivation comes from sources external to the performer. Extrinsic motivation is a source of reinforcement. That is to say that a successful performance will reinforce this behaviour and maintain motivation. The rewards used as extrinsic motivation are separated into tangible and intangible.
 1. **Tangible** rewards concern materialistic rewards; for example, trophies.
 2. **Intangible** rewards are not physical and include praise from others.

Intangible rewards are preferred to tangible rewards in terms of encouraging participation. Extrinsic rewards can lead to less satisfaction from participation and therefore are less effective.

Generally, intrinsic motivation is the optimal type of motivation for an athlete as it has a lasting effect, but this is not to say that extrinsic motivation does not have its benefits.

Case Study

Motivation can come in many different forms. For example, professional boxer Amir Khan was motivated to perform well so he could win over his opponent's fans.

'Coming to his hometown is more motivation for me because I want to win his fight.'



Things to think about

How do personality and attitudes affect an individual's motivation?

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⁷ <http://www.mightyfighter.com/amir-khan-quotes/>

Achievement Motivation

A major theory of motivation is the achievement motivation theory. Achievement is the amount of competitiveness an individual displays in relation to their personality. McClelland's theory of achievement, motivation is a personality trait which is a situation that the individual finds themselves in. This situation contains two components:

1. **The probability of success** – the likelihood that the individual will perform. The performer finds the task easy
2. **The incentive value of success** – the intrinsic value that the individual feels. The performer believes the task they successfully completed was difficult

Atkinson and McClelland believed that two personality traits affected achievement: 'need to achieve' (NAch) and 'need to avoid failure' (Naf) personalities.

Each displays the following characteristics:

Need to achieve (NAch)	Need to avoid failure (Naf)
Set clear goals	Do not have clear goals
Willing to take risks	Unwilling to take risks
Use intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation	Prefer extrinsic motivation
Do not mind negative feedback	Dislike negative feedback
Optimistic	Pessimistic
Confident	Low levels of self-confidence

In sport, high achievers generally have a NAch personality trait, whereas low achievers have a Naf personality trait. However, that is not to say that an individual can only display one or the other. An individual can have both traits. For example, if a task was perceived as being extremely simple to complete, they would not display a need to avoid failure personality trait as being extremely simple to complete, they would display optimism and self-confidence, which are two characteristics of a need to achieve personality trait.

It can, therefore, be important for a coach to understand whether their athletes have a NAch or Naf personality trait. If their athletes have a NAch personality, it will be important to challenge them to reach the outer limits of their potential. This will motivate them to push themselves to achieve, which can aid their performance. On the other hand, if the athletes have a Naf personality, the coach focuses on improving the athlete's self-confidence by setting achievable goals and thereby allow the athlete to regularly experience success.

Behaviour can be influenced by four factors:

1. **Situation** – this can influence the way that a person behaves, as people react differently to different situations. For example, if an athlete is in a stressful situation, they are more likely to be impulsive and act with urgency than if they are in a situation which is less stimulating.
2. **Personality** – the way that a person behaves can be greatly affected by their personality. Introverts are likely to behave in a more controlled and methodical manner, whereas extroverts are more likely to behave in a more excited manner. This can influence the motivation of individuals as introverts and extroverts will be motivated by different factors.
3. **Behaviour** – previous behaviours which have been displayed by an individual can influence their current behaviours in a similar situation and can lead to the formation of habits. For example, if an individual is sedentary and is trying to change their lifestyle may struggle to stay motivated to go to the gym and could fall back into their previous behaviours.
4. **Expectation** – this can influence the way that a person behaves, as they will be more likely to complete a task depending on how they expect the outcome to turn out. If they expect the task to be easy, they will complete the task with much less effort than if they expect it to be difficult. Outcomes that differ from expectations can also influence behaviour. For example, if an individual interacts with someone who is not behaving within social norms, they may be more likely to behave in a similar manner.

Goal-setting is an important technique employed by many coaches to help direct and focus an athlete's efforts in improving their performance. Goal-setting can, therefore, have a positive effect on an athlete's motivation, giving them clear paths for progress while also providing a sense of achievement when made. We will explore goal-setting in more detail later on.

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Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy can be defined as the belief that an individual has concerning their ability to be successful when faced with certain situations. It is an alternative way of describing someone's confidence.

Having high levels of confidence can do wonders for many aspects of a sporting performance, whereas a lack of it can stifle the creativity and assuredness of any sporting action. Below we will take a closer look at the impact that sports confidence has on performance, participation and an athlete's self-esteem.

Bandura's theory of self-efficacy (1997)⁵

Albert Bandura suggested that there are four main factors that contribute to self-efficacy: previous performances, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and physiological factors.

Previous performance

The level of success that the athlete has previously experienced in similar circumstances increases their confidence when faced with a similar specific situation (i.e. their self-efficacy). Athletes who have already positively experienced success when completing a specific skill, when faced with a similar situation, will have a higher level of self-efficacy that they can repeat this successful performance.

Vicarious experience

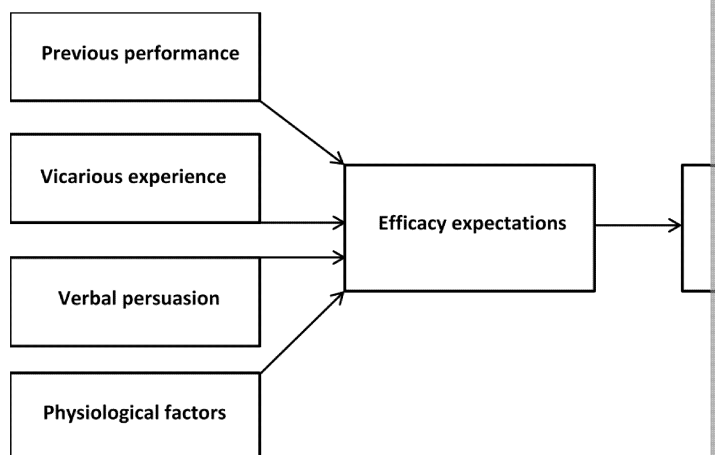
This type of experience is a result of an athlete viewing another person complete a task that they hope to complete. Once the athlete sees that this other person can successfully complete the task, their self-efficacy is increased, as they believe that they too can be successful. Vicarious experience is most effective when those being observed are of similar standard to, and have much in common with, the observer.

Verbal persuasion

Verbal persuasion involves the use of verbal feedback, either prior to, during or after a performance, to encourage the athlete and to highlight any of their successes. This helps the athlete to build belief in their ability, stimulating an increase in their own self-efficacy by providing positive feedback. For example, a coach says 'I can do this, and he knows what he's talking about, so I must be able to do it too'. Verbal persuasion can be a powerful way, as verbal forms of discouragement are an effective form of reducing self-efficacy.

Emotional arousal

This refers to how an athlete interprets their physiological symptoms of arousal. If an athlete interprets increased arousal, such as increased heart and ventilation rate, as a sign of anxiety, they may be discouraged. However, if the athlete interprets increased arousal as a sign of excitement, they will be encouraged by any increase in arousal which they are experiencing. In a sporting event, on the other hand, if these signs are interpreted negatively, such as anxiety, it can have a detrimental performance on self-efficacy and/or performance.



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⁵ Bandura, A (1977) *Self-efficacy: Towards a unifying theory of behavioural change*. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 1, 129-148.

Improving Self-efficacy in Athletes

Teachers and coaches will want to improve the self-efficacy of athletes to allow them to perform in competitive situations and perform to the best of their abilities. To improve self-efficacy, teachers and coaches should consider the following:

- Set realistic goals – if an athlete can reach a set target or goal, their self-efficacy increases, giving them the belief that they can reach targets and improve their performance.
 - This increases motivation of an athlete as they will actively want to reach their goals.
- Have realistic expectations – athletes should be aware of their limits and capabilities. If an athlete has unrealistic aims, their motivation and self-efficacy decrease as they are not met enough. This links to setting realistic goals.

**Apply**

If you were coaching a young player and noticed a player suffering from low self-efficacy, how would you improve their self-efficacy level?

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Motivation: Checking your understanding

1. Provide a definition for 'motivation'. (1 mark)
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2. Explain the difference between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.
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3. Explain the difference between tangible rewards and intangible rewards.
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4. Which type of motivation is better for an athlete to use, intrinsic or extrinsic? Give your answer. (2 marks)
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5. Give three characteristics of NACH performers and three characteristics of LACH performers by Atkinson and McClelland. (6 marks)
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Chapter 4: Skill Acquisition

Overview

What is a skill and what is an ability? In this chapter you will discover the characteristics of a skill and an ability and learn how skills can be categorised on continua matched to specific factors. You will explore the theories of learning and stages of learning an athlete will progress through as they attempt to improve their sports skills.

This chapter will also explore how skills can be transferred across sports, as well as how coaches and teachers can apply different practice structures to support athletes in improving their skill sets. You will also begin to assess the different methods of guidance and feedback that coaches and teachers use to reinforce motivation of athletes in order to advance their skills effectively.

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- ☐ Identify the characteristics of a skilled performer
- ☐ Understand the difference between skill types
- ☐ Classify skills on given continua and give them their placement
- ☐ Understand theories of learning and the stages of learning
- ☐ Understand how linear graphs can be used to show performance and training
- ☐ Describe different types of transfer of learning
- ☐ Understand which methods of practice are used by different athletes
- ☐ Understand the advantages and disadvantages of different methods of practice
- ☐ Show an understanding of how reinforcement is used in athletes
- ☐ Assess the types of feedback, and understand the advantages of each

Key Terms

Bilateral transfer:	The transfer of a skill from one side of the body to the other
Drive reduction theory:	An athlete's motivation to perform a task reduces when performing the skill, due to boredom
Extrinsic:	Coming from outside a performer
Feedback:	Information that is provided in relation to task performance
Guidance:	The method of assistance that the coach provides to help an athlete learn movement patterns
Knowledge of results:	Receiving information regarding the quality of the performance
Knowledge of results:	Provided extrinsically, enabling the performer to know the outcome of their performance
Learning plateau:	When the level of performance no longer accelerates despite the amount of training being completed
Learning:	An ongoing process that can permanently change an individual's performance
Negative feedback:	Feedback following an unsuccessful performance or poor performance behaviours
Negative transfer:	When a previously learnt skill has a detrimental effect on the performance of a new skill
Performance:	The execution of a skill
Positive feedback:	Feedback following a successful performance with the aim of reinforcing the skill
Positive transfer:	When a previously learnt skill has a beneficial effect on the performance of a new skill
Proactive transfer:	When a previously learnt skill has an impact on the performance of a new skill
Reinforcement:	The process of strengthening something
Skill continuum:	A scale used to categorise a skill based on the skill's characteristics

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Characteristics of a Skill and Skill Continua

Skill can be defined as a predetermined action completed by an individual to perform a task using their innate capability or potential of a person to do something. When performing a skill, they will perform a gross skill (large muscle movements). However, sometimes they will perform a fine skill (small muscle movements). **Psychomotor skill.** Psychomotor skills are the ability of an individual to consciously control their movements to be successful. For example, kicking a football in just the right way to score a goal.

Not every skill that you perform can be classified as the same type of skill. The classification depends on what type of skill is being performed, such as the types of muscles producing the movement, the impact that the surrounding environment has on the control over a skill, and the main characteristics of a skill are given below:

- Fluent
- Efficient
- Effective
- Consistent
- Well timed
- Accurate
- Correct technique
- Controlled

Apply

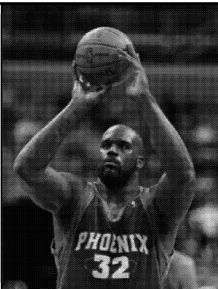
Think of the skills you played and how they are different skills from each other using the continua.

To ensure that different types of skills can be universally classified, a number of factors are considered to consider the distinguishing factors between skill types.

Use of skill continua

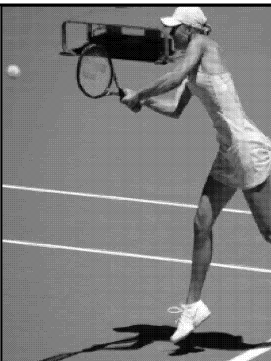
Difficulty (simple–complex)

This classification refers to the complexity of the skill, taking into account such factors as the number of movements needed to complete it, and the cognitive processes needed throughout the skill.

<p>Simple:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduced importance of decision-making and other cognitive processes • Transferable <p>Example: Basketball free throw</p>		<p>Complex:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decision-making • High levels of cognitive processes needed • A high number of movements and complicated skills <p>Example: A tennis return</p>
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Environmental influence (open–closed)

These skills are classified by the magnitude of the impact that the environment has on the skill.

<p>Open:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Take place in an unpredictable environment • Movements must be adapted to align with the changing conditions • Largely perceptual skills <p>Example: A tennis return affected by the opponent's positioning</p>		<p>Closed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Take place in a predictable environment • No need to adapt to changing conditions • Largely sensorimotor skills <p>Example: A long jump</p>
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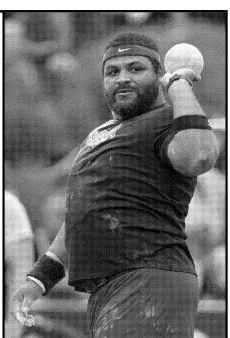
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Pacing (internal-external)

This classification refers to how the performer times their execution of the skill. The performer has control over when the skill starts and ends.

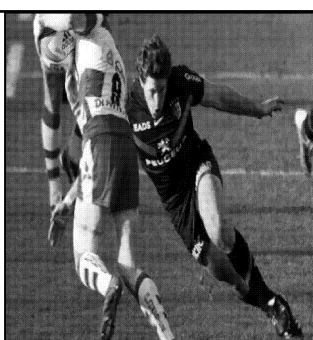


<p>Internal:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The timing and pace of the skill is under the performer's control Generally closed skills <p>Example: A shotput</p>		<p>External:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The timing and pace of the skill is out of the performer's control Generally open skills <p>Example: Batting in cricket</p>
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Muscular involvement (gross-fine)

This classification classifies skills depending on the level of precision that the muscles are required to use.



<p>Gross:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Skills use large muscular groups Skills which require power, and accuracy is less important <p>Example: Rugby tackle</p>		<p>Fine:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Skills which use small muscular groups Skills which need precision, control and accuracy <p>Example: Throwing a javelin</p>
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Continuity (discrete-serial-continuous)

Skills are classified on this continuum by how definitive the stages of the skill are.

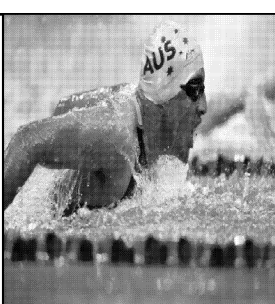


<p>Discrete:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have an obvious beginning or end End quickly <p>Example: A football pass</p>	<p>Serial:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Follow a specific sequence Consist of numerous discrete skills <p>Example: Triple jump</p>
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Organisation (low-high)

This classification concerns how easily the subroutines combine to produce a skill.



<p>Low:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simple skills Easy to divide into separate subroutines Require little attention <p>Example: Swimming</p>		<p>High:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Complicated skills Difficult to divide into separate subroutines Need to be closely attended to <p>Example: Pole vault</p>
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Even though the content above highlights a different skill on each continuum, on all of the continua.

For example, a rugby tackle can be classified as:

- **Simple** – limited cognition needed
- **Open** – dictated by opponent's movements
- **Externally paced** – controlled by the ball carrier
- **Gross** – large muscle movements
- **Discrete** – obvious beginning and end
- **Simply organised** – can be divided into subroutines and requires little attention



Apply

Try and apply each of the sporting skills below on each skill continuum:

- Tennis forehand
- Goal kick
- 100 m sprint
- Basketball free throw
- Dart throw



When classifying a skill, justify the placement on the continuum.

Correctly classifying a skill allows athletes and coaches to identify the best method to improve a skill. For example, an open skill would benefit from varied practice, as the skill is changing and different environments. Types of practice will be covered in the next section.

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Principles and Theories of Learning and Performance

Learning can be described as an ongoing process that can permanently change the effects of learning can be demonstrated through **performance**. Performance is the ability to perform a specific skill in a specific situation. Understanding the theories behind how an individual learns allows them to optimise their learning methods, with the aim of improving their retention of the skill and to improve their sporting performance. Below are three key theories of learning.

Stages of learning (Fitts and Posner, 1967)

As a performer progresses from learning a new skill to possessing the ability to perform the skill consistently, they are said to have moved from the cognitive to the autonomous stage. There are three stages of learning: cognitive, associative and autonomous. Each of these stages has specific characteristics, which are outlined below.

Cognitive (Think)	Associative (Apply)	Autonomous
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Cognitive	Associative
Characteristics	Characteristics
Mental practice occurs, with the learner using this to form a basic understanding of the skill.	A shift towards physical practice takes place.
The skill is performed inconsistently, with only a slight improvement being made.	Skill performance becomes more consistent, with the largest improvement being made during this stage.
The learner relies on guidance to perform the skill due to a lack of understanding themselves.	The learner gains a personal understanding of the key components of the skill.
Making basic errors is common, due to the trial and error nature of this stage.	Fewer basic errors are made, but errors during the more complex movements still occur.
The learner does not understand how to adapt their performance when faced with a variety of situations.	The learner begins to understand how to adapt their performance to be successful in various situations.
The learner has to direct a large proportion of their attention to completing the skill.	There is a balance between conscious and autonomous control over the skill.
External, positive and terminal feedback is most effective.	There is less external feedback, with a slight shift towards intrinsic. Positive feedback is still effective.

Apply

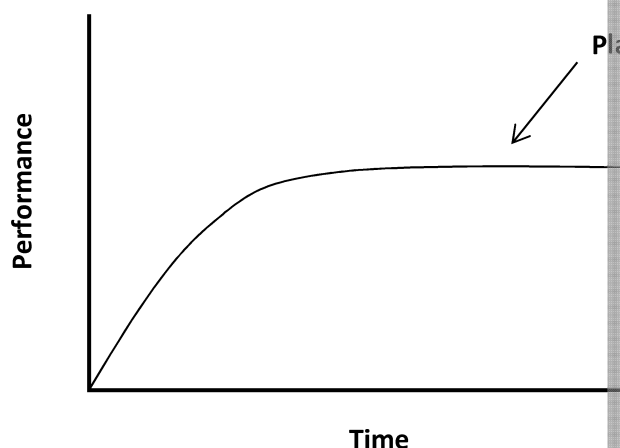
List a number of different skills from different sports. Now identify whether you would be in the cognitive, associative or autonomous stage for learning that skill.

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The learning plateau

Occasionally performers hit a plateau in their performance level. This is to say that after a period of training, their performance level does not improve – it stays the same. This concept is illustrated in the graph below.



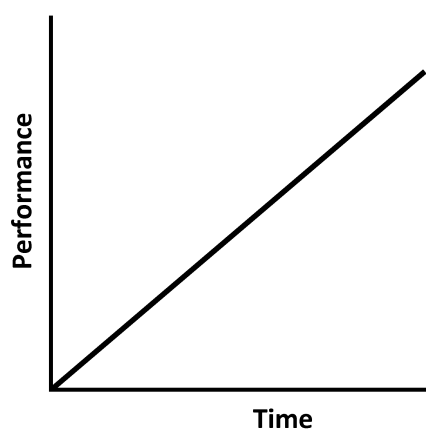
There are a number of potential causes of a learning plateau, a number of which are listed below.

- The performer is not skilled enough to progress.
- The coaching is not at a high enough level to enable progression.
- The performer is not motivated to improve.
- The performer is too tired to improve.
- The performer finds the practice tedious.

It is important that the performer solves the problem of a learning plateau, otherwise they will not develop their level of performance any further. The solutions outlined below are based on a general basis – what works for one performer may not work for another!

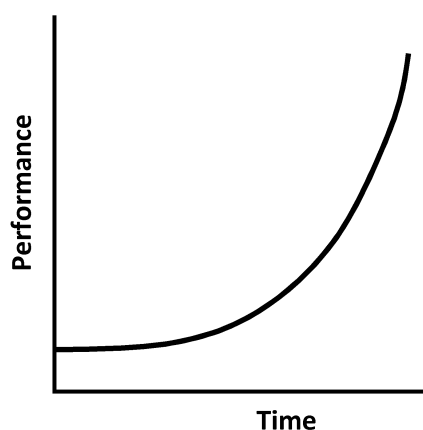
- Improve the skill level of the performer by attending to the separate subroutines.
- Improve motivation levels by promoting intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.
- Use a more experienced coach which can use the necessary feedback effectively.
- Allow sufficient recovery periods to prevent fatigue.
- Make the practice more enjoyable to avoid tedium.

Other performance curves that show the relationship between training and performance are:



Linear:

The level of performance is directly correlated with the level of learning / amount of training undertaken



Positive:

As time progresses, the rate of increase in performance gets faster (accelerates)

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Social learning theory – observational learning (Bandura)

Bandura suggested that learning could occur through observing others. According to Bandura, learning consists of four stages:

1. **Attention:** involves paying close attention to a demonstration of a skill, ideally by an individual who has a lot in common with the observer, has a high status and has a high level of ability. The performance should also be accurate and have distinctive components.
2. **Retention:** the observer should be able to store the skill performance in their memory, and have the ability to recall the relevant information. Retention is enhanced if the performance is relevant to the observer.
3. **Motor reproduction:** involves the observer possessing the ability to physically replicate the skill. This will often require physical practice to develop the motor skills needed to successfully perform. The performance should therefore be relevant to the observer's physical ability.
4. **Motivation:** the observer must be sufficiently motivated to learn the skill. If the observer has respect for the performer, they are more likely to be motivated to a level that matches the original demonstration.

Case Study

David Beckham, known for his impeccable free-kick-taking ability, has inspired many players to learn his technique on his. For example, James Ward-Prowse, a professional Premier League player, stated that throughout his own career he has modelled his free-kick technique on Beckham by observing and replicating.

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Transfer of Learning

Understanding how the basis behind skill transfer can aid the performer to learn helps to provide an explanation for any potential difficulty they might have due to because there are different forms of skill transfer, which each impact on how the skill may be.

Positive transfer

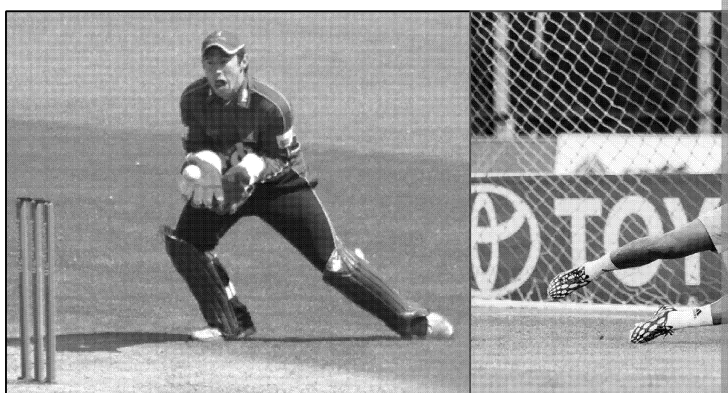
This occurs when a previously learned skill has a beneficial effect on the learning of a new skill. Generally, positive transfer is more likely to take place when the two skills bear a close resemblance. This is because the performer will only have to slightly adapt the similar component of the old skill to be able to perform the new skill. An example of a positive transfer could be a basketball player taking a goal kick in football.



As you can see, the two skills above are very similar and positive transfer is likely to occur.

Negative transfer

Negative transfer occurs when a previously learned skill has a detrimental effect on the learning of a new skill. The reason behind this may be that a slight difference in technique between the two skills is used when performing the new skill, and this technique could be the reason for the negative transfer. An example of a negative transfer could be a football goalkeeper diving for a low catch in cricket.



A slight difference in technique in the above skills could mean that the transfer of learning has a negative impact on the learning of the new skill.

Bilateral transfer

Bilateral transfer concerns the transfer of a skill from one side of the body to the other. An example of this might be a right-footed football player practising long passes with their left foot. If an individual is ambidextrous, this type of transfer will take a long time to succeed.

After considering the above, it is apparent that to benefit the learning of a new skill, positive transfer should be maximised, while negative transfer should be restricted.

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Proactive and retroactive transfer

Proactive transfer is when a previously learnt skills influences the learning of a new skill. For example, a tennis player learning to play squash. The skill of hitting a forehand shot in tennis influences how they learn a forehand shot in squash.

Retroactive transfer is when a newly learnt skill influences a previously learnt skill. For example, learning how to hit a backhand in squash may affect how a tennis player performs a backhand in tennis.



Coaches' corner: How to improve positive transfer and limit negative transfer. It is important for the coach to emphasise positive transfer to their athletes, and to limit the occurrence of negative transfer. The main method of doing this is for the coach to identify **similarities and differences** between the previously learned and current skill. The coach can understand how to correctly adapt their technique to fit the new skill, rather than the incorrect technique, which leads to the breakdown of the new skill. It is a good idea to **begin with the basics** of the new skill, to ensure a full understanding of the skill and the complexity of the skill. It is also beneficial for the athlete to **refine their main technique** for these provides a securer platform for the learning of the new skill.

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- True or false: an externally paced skill is one that is generally a close
- If a skill is affected by the environment it is classified on which skill c
- Classify a gymnastics routine against each of the skill continua and ju

-

- [illegible]

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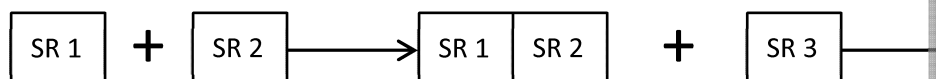


Methods of Presenting Practice

Different skills are best learned, and practised, using different methods to make learning of the skill more effective. The effectiveness of the differing methods depends on numerous factors; for example, the experience and size of the group. The different types and methods of practice are outlined below, along with the types of practice environment that they are best suited to.

Progressive-part practice

This method involves learning the individual subroutines in chronological order before linking them together, again in order. The skill is then practised as a whole once all of the subroutines have been linked together and practised in sequence.



SR= Subroutine. SR1 is learned, then SR2. These are then learned in sequence. SR1, SR2, SR3 are then learned in sequence, and so on.

Advantages: This is useful for beginners as it does not overload them with information about different parts of the skill in their own time. It also allows dangerous skills to be broken down into smaller parts, building the confidence of the performer. Progressive-part practice also enables the performer to focus on parts of the skill that they find most difficult to perform, allowing them to improve on the performance of the skill.

Disadvantages: The kinaesthetic awareness of the skill is lost, as the skill is broken down into parts. The progressive-part practice method also does not suit highly organised skills, as they are difficult to break down into subroutines. This method of practice is also time consuming.

Whole practice

The skill is learned to be performed as a complete action, i.e. from a clear start to a clear finish. Therefore, the skills learned using this method tend to be simple skills, consisting of a single action or into the next.

Advantages: The main advantage of this method is that, unlike the part practice method, it provides a kinaesthetic feel for the skill. Practising the skill as a whole action helps to prepare the performer for the situation, as this is how the skill will be performed in competition. Additionally, it helps to store the skill within the long-term memory, resulting in effective recall for the performer when they perform the skill.

Disadvantages: However, this method cannot be used during complicated skills that require a lot of time to be dedicated to the learning stages. It can also overload beginners with information, leading to poor performance and demotivation.

Whole-part-whole practice

As the name suggests, this type of practice is a mixture of the part and whole practice methods. The performer first learns the skill using the whole practice method, before breaking it down into parts and practising these using the part practice. Once these have been learned and practised, the skill is practised as a whole again.

Advantages: This type of practice is best used when the skill being learned is too complex to be learned using the whole practice method, but can still be easily broken down into separate subroutines of the movement to be attended to, as long as most of the time is not dedicated to learning the whole skill. It also allows the performer to specifically target areas of weakness which may be affecting the whole skill.

Disadvantages: This method takes longer to learn the skill when compared to the whole practice method. The whole-part-whole method of practice also cannot be used for highly organised skills. Dedication of too much time to the part section of the practice can lead to the skill feeling disjointed.

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Types of Practice

Consideration must also be given to the type of practice in which a coach will use. Each skill needs careful consideration to what type of practice is used. For example, rugby would be best suited to variable practice in which the environment can be changed to a real live game situation.

There are five types of practice to be concerned with:

Massed practice

Massed practice is a continuous form of practice, where practice is not interrupted by breaks or discussion. These practices generally last a long time, with simple skills being learned.

Advantages:

- This practice is effective when the group is highly motivated and fit.
- It improves fitness levels as there are no recovery breaks.
- Motor programmes can be effectively stored.

Disadvantages:

- Even motivated groups can find the practices too lengthy and may struggle to keep their focus.
- Boredom can occur.
- Should not be used with dangerous tasks.

Distributed practice

This practice method is more suited to open skills, as it allows the performer to experience performing the skill in potentially competitive situations.

Advantages:

- This practice is effective when the group is highly motivated and fit.
- It allows mental rehearsal of the skill.
- It is also an effective way to learn complicated skills as they can be discussed and corrected.

Disadvantages:

- It is time consuming.
- More experienced performers may find it unnecessary.

Variable practice

This method is more suited to open skills, as it allows the environment to be manipulated by the coach to allow the performer to experience performing the skill in potentially competitive situations.

Advantages:

- This helps to improve the performer's decision-making and selective attention skills, as they learn the optimal responses to a number of situations.
- It is more realistic for a competitive environment.
- Helps to break the monotony of training.

Disadvantages:

- Cannot be used effectively for closed skills.
- Can overwhelm beginners who do not have the decision-making skills to focus on the correct stimulus.

Fixed practice

This involves the performer repeating the skill over and over again, honing the skills needed to perform the action or strategy.

Advantages:

- Effective in ensuring the performer develops the skill.

Disadvantages:

- Does not replicate the competitive environment.

Mental rehearsal/practice

This practice method involves the performer creating a mental image of themselves performing the skill, often through a run-through of the skill that is being learned, with the performer being able to imagine a perfect scenario.

Advantages:

- Can improve confidence as it allows the performer to imagine how they perform under difficult conditions.
- Can be used as a stress management technique.
- Useful for beginners to create a mental image.

Disadvantages:

- Not as effective as physical practice when used alone.
- Not as effective for simple skills.

Apply

Think back to the last practice session that you completed. What type of practice was used? Do you think that the type of practice was suited to the session?

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Methods and Types of Practice: Checking

1. Describe the process of how a coach would use whole-part-whole
.....
.....
.....
2. What are the characteristics of massed practice? (3 marks)
.....
.....
.....
3. What type of skill is varied practice most suited to? Provide an explanation why it's useful. (3 marks)
.....
.....
.....
4. In what situation would it be best to use distributed practice? (3 marks)
.....
.....
.....
5. What does 'kinaesthetic' mean? (1 mark)
.....
6. Identify which practice would be best suited to the following scenarios:
 - a) Teaching a complex skill
.....
 - b) When you want the performer to develop their kinaesthetic feel
.....
 - c) When you are looking to develop your team's decision-making
.....
 - d) When your team's/individuals' fitness levels are low
.....

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Methods of Guidance

The method of assistance that the coach provides to aid the learning of different skills is known as **guidance**, and comes in four main forms; verbal, visual, manual and mechanical. If the guidance is suited to their athletes, it is important for the coach to consider factors such as experience levels, ability, stage of learning and the complexity of the skill.

Verbal guidance

This involves the coach verbally explaining how to complete a movement, and providing feedback. It is important that the information given is clear, relevant and easy to understand.

Advantages: it can be used to target specific areas of weakness. It can be used to provide additional detail for experienced learners.

Disadvantages: it can overload the learner with information, as it is sometimes hard to describe technical aspects of a movement concisely.

Examples:

- The coach discussing the main teaching points with the learner.
- Using different types of verbal reinforcement.

Visual guidance

This involves the coach providing visual cues to stimulate learning. Any demonstration can be replicated successfully. Using mental rehearsal after this form of guidance is important for the learner to retain the key information.

Advantages: an effective guidance style when the learner is inexperienced and the learner focuses on the key individual parts of the movement.

Disadvantages: it is often difficult for a beginner to be able to quickly replicate a visual cue for a complex skill. The learner might not understand the reasons behind certain movement techniques.

Examples:

- A presentation.
- Use of a video of the correct performance.
- Watching a role model perform.

Manual guidance

This involves the coach physically moving the learner to aid their understanding of how the movement should feel. This is often used during a potentially dangerous sporting action.

Advantages: it can improve confidence levels, and provide a separation of a longer complicated skill, into more manageable sections.

Disadvantages: it can lead to an over-reliance on physical support to complete the movement. It does not allow for a natural feel of a successful movement.

Example:

- A coach physically moving a gymnast's limbs during a gymnastic routine.

Mechanical guidance

This involves the coach using equipment to guide a performer through a movement. It is often used during the same type of training as manual guidance, i.e. during dangerous or complex movements in the early stage of learning.

Advantages: can limit the potential danger. Provides a general feel of how to perform a movement.

Disadvantages: can result in the performer's internal feedback being incorrect. It can lead to an over-reliance on physical support to complete the movement.

Example:

- A swimmer holding a float in their hands so they can concentrate on the correct kicking technique.
- A trampolinist using a harness to experience travelling through the air.

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Reinforcement

When an athlete exhibits a certain behaviour, a coach should use reinforcement to encourage that particular behaviour. This is so that the athlete learns from this particular way in the future. There are numerous theories of reinforcement that

Behaviourism – operant conditioning

Operant conditioning involves the consequences of actions forming behaviour. This is done via the use of either rewards or punishment, and the effect that these will have on future actions. Operant conditioning suggests that there are three responses to behaviour which have an effect on the likelihood of repeat behaviour:

- **Positive reinforcement** – if the performance is successful, the individual is rewarded. Positive reinforcement hopes to reinforce the behaviour and encourages the individual to exhibit this behaviour when faced with a similar skill performance in the future. For example, a basketball coach praising their player when they successfully make a free throw.
- **Negative reinforcement** – if the performance is unsuccessful, negative reinforcement is used. Negative reinforcement involves the removal of an unpleasant stimulus. This acts as a type of reward, as it allows the individual to not experience this again. For example, a basketball coach removing opposition players when coaching their player to dribble.
- **Punishment** – involves either the addition of a negative stimulus or withdrawal of a positive stimulus. For example, a basketball coach giving their player extra fitness sessions if they miss free throws.

These three responses have an impact on the stimulus response bond. This bond (when faced with a specific stimulus the individual is likely to respond correctly) (when faced with a specific stimulus the individual is likely to respond incorrectly). The effect that these have on the stimulus response bond is summarised in the table below.

Response	Effect on the stimulus response bond
Positive reinforcement	Increases the bond
Negative reinforcement	Increases the bond
Punishment	Decreases the bond

The different forms of reinforcement should be used correctly with athletes in training. For example, punishment should be avoided with cognitive stage learners because they are perservering in the sport as they fear further punishment. However, punishment can be used with elite athletes as they can cope with punishment and could use it as a form of motivation (they will not receive punishment again). Negative reinforcement should be used with cognitive stage learners to remove negative stimuli, allowing them to practise a skill without having to further face the negative stimulus.

Drive reduction theory

Drive reduction theory states that an individual's motivation to complete a task is based on the drive to reduce a state of tension. For example, they will be highly motivated to complete a task if they will receive a reward (either a natural drive) or if they will receive a financial reward for completing a task (the drive to reduce a state of tension).

In sport, when an athlete is learning a skill, they will likely have a high drive (motivation) to learn the skill as they are very good at it. For example, practising a tennis serve. However, once the athlete becomes proficient at the skill, they may suffer from drive reduction as they lack the motivation to perform the skill (the skill becomes boring). This means that the athlete's performance in that particular skill may decline. Coaches need to use methods of reinforcement to maintain motivation in the athlete to continue to improve the skill.

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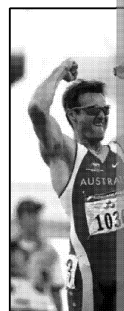


Types of Feedback

Every coach should pay attention to the type, and timing, of the feedback they give to improve a performer's sporting performance. This is because, if used incorrectly, a performer may be discouraged or lose confidence in a performance task. There are different types of feedback, each of which will be discussed below.

Intrinsic

Intrinsic feedback comes from within a performer. This type of feedback is concerned with how a sporting action feels to the performer themselves. This is a form of kinaesthetic feedback, which involves detecting changes in body position and movement. An example would be an elite rugby player kicking a conversion. During their kick, this player would be aware if they are performing it correctly due to detecting how well their foot connected with the ball and how smooth their follow-through was, among other factors.



Advantages: improves the 'feel' of a movement. Elite performers can use it without the need for external feedback.

Disadvantages: inexperienced athletes may be unaware of how the movement feels. They may not know if they have performed successfully. This is also the case for less skilled athletes.

Extrinsic

Extrinsic feedback comes from an external source via a performer's senses. Examples of this source in a sporting setting can include the coach, teammates or judges. Extrinsic feedback therefore concerns the result of the performance or the standard of performance. While intrinsic feedback is more beneficial for those at an autonomous stage of learning, extrinsic feedback is the preferred style to use with those at the cognitive and associative stages. This is because they often need external guidance to counteract their lack of kinaesthetic awareness.

Advantages: it can be used during the earlier stages of learning. Positive extrinsic feedback can increase motivation and focus.

Disadvantages: it does not help create a kinaesthetic awareness of a movement. Performers can become too reliant on external feedback. Negative extrinsic feedback can result in a loss of confidence.

Positive

Positive feedback follows a successful performance. This aims to increase the performer's self-efficacy and motivation, while also reinforcing successful behaviour. This helps to increase the likelihood of the performer repeating this behaviour in the future. An example of this may be a hockey coach praising one of their players for passing the ball well.

Advantages: increases confidence and motivation, particularly for those at the cognitive stage of learning. Increases reinforcement of successful behaviour.

Disadvantages: if used excessively, performers may suffer from over-confidence.

Negative

Negative feedback follows an unsuccessful performance. This is used as a preventive measure to reduce the recurrence of poor performance. This type of feedback is used with those at the cognitive and associative stages. An example would be a basketball coach telling a player they need to be more consistent when they miss a free throw.

Advantages: it can help performers to set complete goals for performance. It can also provide a clear direction of learning.

Disadvantages: it can lead to a loss of motivation and confidence if used incorrectly. It can also lead to a loss of learning.

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Concurrent feedback

This form of feedback is delivered throughout a performance; a common example is a coach shouting feedback at a player during a match. Concurrent feedback can be delivered in a number of ways.

Advantages: It allows for technique to be adapted during the game, which can improve performance. It can give beginners a continuous stream of feedback which can help them to learn.

Disadvantages: It can sometimes overload the performer, meaning that they may become distracted from their performance. It can sometimes mean that the performance feels less natural.

Terminal feedback

This feedback is provided at the end of a performance, e.g. a team talk given at the end of a match.

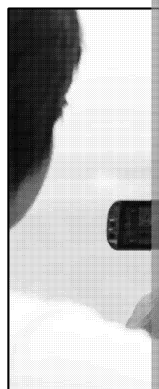
Advantages: It does not distract the performer when they are performing. It allows for a more detailed discussion of the performance.

Disadvantages: The performer may believe that the feedback is given too late, so they may not be able to adjust their performance. It also does not promote intrinsic feedback, and, therefore, does not encourage the performer to improve themselves.

As discussed for guidance, technology is also used as an aid for feedback by making use of video analysis. Again, video analysis is a popular method of providing feedback, and is an example of terminal feedback and extrinsic feedback.

Knowledge of performance

This form of feedback refers to receiving information regarding the quality of the movement during a sporting action. This is generally a form of extrinsic feedback, with the main sources including verbal or visual sources. A sporting example may be the coach using a video recording to show a skier where they could improve the angle of their elbow joint to improve their skiing speed.



Advantages: it can provide the performer with additional and specific information to refine technique. Explains why a performance is successful, which is particularly useful for those in the cognitive stage of learning.

Disadvantages: it can overload the performer with information, particularly if they are in the early stages of learning. It can break up the overall feel of the whole movement. Success can be overemphasized.

**Knowledge of results**

This form of feedback is provided at the end of a performance to allow the performer to judge how successful they were. For example, a judge's score following a performance allows the performer to know how successful their division was.

Advantages: success can be evaluated and the performer can improve task persistence.

Disadvantages: does not provide information on how the performance was successful or unsuccessful, which can lead to a lack of motivation.

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Apply

Did you base the success of your last sporting performance on the results?

How did this inform you for your next game/practice?



Use of Guidance, Reinforcement and Checking your understanding

1. Provide a definition for guidance. (1 mark)
.....
.....
2. Describe verbal guidance and provide an advantage and disadvantage
.....
.....
.....
.....
3. Describe mechanical guidance and provide an example of this method
.....
.....
.....
4. Explain the difference between mechanical and manual guidance. (1 mark)
.....
.....
5. Identify the best method of guidance for the following people and explain why.
 - a) A beginner (2 marks)
.....
.....
 - b) An experienced athlete (2 marks)
.....
.....
6. Describe the types of reinforcement that should be used according to theory. (3 marks)
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Chapter 5: Sport and Society

Overview

This chapter discusses the role sport plays in society and the influences it can have on culture. You will look at the relationship between sport and the government and how sport is used as a tool.

Also discussed is the emergence of modern sport from pre-industrial Britain to the modern day, including the influence public schools had on the development and growth of sport and sport ethics. Furthermore, you will study the origins of the modern Olympic Games and how sport has been used as a political tool throughout the years.

This chapter also looks at the development of sport from amateurism to professionalism. You will learn how different groups are underrepresented in sport and any solutions and campaigns used to increase participation rates of disadvantaged groups in sport. Finally, you will

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter, you will be able to do the following:

- ☐ Define 'culture', 'society' and 'sport'
- ☐ Understand how sport is used as a tool
- ☐ Understand how a government uses sport
- ☐ Describe the characteristics of different types of sport
- ☐ Explain how public schools influenced the development of sport
- ☐ Describe the aims and characteristics of 'amateurism' and the influence of 'amateurism' on sport
- ☐ Describe events in which sport has been used as a political tool
- ☐ Understand the effect of commercialisation on sport and professionalism
- ☐ Discuss the barriers to participation in sport and potential solutions to these barriers
- ☐ Understand the influence of social class on participation in sport

Key Terms

Amateur:	Someone who takes part in a sport for enjoyment, and does not get paid for playing
Athleticism:	The notion of putting in maximal physical effort when playing and playing sportingly
Centrality:	The idea that the most intelligent people are the central key decision makers
Commercialisation:	Running and controlling something for financial gain
Culture:	The beliefs, ideas or actions of a group of people with shared values
Ethics:	Behavioural rules which ensure that moral behaviour is followed
Exploitation:	Using a situation to unfairly benefit someone who is vulnerable
Globalisation:	The process of using increasing influence to be recognised globally
Government:	A group of people with the responsibility of running a country
Industrialisation:	A shift from society relying on rural-based occupations to holding manufacturing-based occupations
Lombardian ethic:	A 'win at all cost' ethic
Muscular Christianity:	The idea that a Christian with good moral beliefs should be physically fit
National Identity:	The image associated with a nation based on culture and history
Popular recreation:	Recreational activities prior to the Industrial Revolution, often involving physical activity
Professional:	Someone who takes part in a sport for financial reward as a source of income
Racial stacking:	The view that people of certain ethnicities are naturally suited to certain sports
Social class:	The classification of people based on their economic position
Social differentiation:	The opportunity given to groups of people to achieve different social positions
Social institution:	The ongoing behaviour of people in a society
Social mobility:	The idea of rags to riches. A person can change their social position in sport.
Society:	The organised combination of individuals who live together

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The Role of Sport in Society and Culture

Physical activity can have a large effect on both the individual and the society. While looking similar, have different meanings so it is important to understand

Culture: The beliefs, ideas and actions of people within a society

Culture can influence sport participation as people's beliefs may limit them, however, can be a tool for bringing people from different cultures together

Society: The organised combination of individuals who live together

Sport helps to benefit a society as when a nation competes successfully, the society experiences feelings of pride and is encouraged to participate in it

Social institution: The ongoing behaviours of people in a society

Sport has the ability to integrate itself into culture and society. If sport becomes part of a society, its influences will spread further as it becomes part of a society's behaviour

National identity: The image associated with a nation based on culture

When sport becomes an integral part of a nation (e.g. rugby in New Zealand), it has huge influences on a range of issues. As the country is associated with the sport, it can be used to promote ideas; for example, anti-racism campaigns.

Sport as a tool for promotion of societal and cultural values

When sport has become an integral part of a nation, culture or society, it has been deemed to be important. For example, the use of sport to promote:

- **Following rules and regulation** – sports have many rules that participants follow, which promotes an idea of respect towards authoritative figures and following the laws in day-to-day life.
- **Discouraging violence** – in many poorer areas, sports clubs have been promoted to keep young adults and children out of trouble. Sport gives them an avenue to expend unspent aggression or energy. For example, in the UK, many boxing clubs are based in deprived areas of the country.
- **Importance of competition** – competition is a part of everyday life. Sport can promote the idea of fair competition with respect for your opponents.

Apply

The sport rules imposed discourage

Social action theory

The social action theory suggests that the formation and maintenance of a social interaction (interactionist approach). The creation of sports results from the social interaction within a social circle. It is these relationships which can lead to the adaptable nature of sport to have a positive impact on sport, by creating a positive meaning for the sport and its behavioural characteristics within set sports. This also means that sport can help to create a social interaction that participating in a team sport can generate.

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The Link between the Government and Sport

Governments often use sport as a tool for promoting their ideas e.g. the Olympics. If a government is behind sporting events that are successful, it can aid their future campaigns. If they are unsuccessful, this tarnishes the name of political parties. Below are some of the links between the government and sport.

Impact	Positive	Negative
Sporting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Successful performances inspire a nation to become active and participate in sport. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – This helps the government meet its health guidelines • Minority sports are given more coverage, with an increased interest in sports such as javelin and long jump. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Increased funding from government 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sports without adequate funding can harm athlete during the event. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – This can lead to poor performance and funding • Poor performance can harm the nation and its reputation. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The government can be associated with poor performance • An increased success can lead to a loss of body to the nation
Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increases the physical activity levels of the nation, promoting a healthy, active lifestyle. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – This helps the government meet its health guidelines • The mood of the nation is improved when a sporting event is being hosted due to its celebratory nature. This can help bring the population of a country together. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Increased happiness in the public is good for government ratings • Pride is felt when the nation performs successfully. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Increased happiness in the public is good for government ratings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If a home nation is performing poorly, the mood can turn negative. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – This can lead to poor government approval • Protests at the event can lead to negative publicity. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Pressure on the government where it is hosting the event • The human rights of the nation can be neglected if the government can host the event and leave homes and facilities. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Can lead to poor government ratings • A belief that the government is not providing and education. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Pressure on the government where it is hosting the event
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides large amounts of revenue from tourism, trade and investment. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Increases income for government through taxes • There is development of new sporting facilities which continue to be used following the games. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Positive legacy of government • There is regeneration of public services that also continue to be used. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Saves the government money 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are huge costs for the event, which can lead to government debt. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Negative impact on the government • Unpopular sports can lead to the cost of mass participation. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Negative impact on the government
Political	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The current political party in power is looked upon favourably by the nation, increasing its chances of staying in power. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is an increase in the government's reputation. • Protests at the event can lead to negative publicity. • Negative publicity can harm the party's reputation.

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Sport, Society and Culture and Government

Checking your understanding

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Emergence and Evolution of Modern Sport: Pre-industrial Britain

Life in pre-industrial Britain was very different from life today, with tough living conditions, a high percentage of rural living and a much lower life expectancy. The sport that was referred to as 'popular recreation' and had the following characteristics:

- violent
- unwritten/simple rules
- wagering
- local
- irregular
- participated in by the lower classes

This leads us to the question:

Why did sport take on these characteristics and why is it so different from today?

Well, let's take a look at the social and cultural factors that shaped sport during pre-industrial Britain.

Social class

Pre-industrial Britain saw a clear distinction between two social classes, the upper and lower classes. The upper class had disposable income which they could spend on participation in sports, whereas the lower class had longer working hours with much less pay, meaning that they had less time to participate in it. This meant that sport in pre-industrial Britain was irregular, due to the limited time available to participate in it. It also meant that the sport was violent due to the lower class having more time to participate in it, whereas the upper classes did not.

Gender

Women had a smaller role to play in sports than men, but still had opportunities to participate in ball games and smock races (races where the winner would win a dress). This was exclusively played by men, with the violent nature demonstrating a sense of peer pressure.

Law and order

Pre-industrial life in Britain had many cruel and violent aspects, owing mainly to the harsh living conditions. These conditions were reflected in popular recreation, with violence being a key factor. Sport was mainly participated in by the lower class, as the upper class saw such activities as a waste of time.

Did you know?

Those believed to be witches were publicly executed in pre-industrial Britain, which demonstrates the cruel and harsh living conditions.

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Education/literacy

The education of the masses also shaped the characteristics of the sport. Due to the high levels of illiteracy, the rules of sport needed to be simple and understandable to allow people to participate. This led to the high levels of violence as rules were not enforced to prevent it, as well as the irregularity of the sport due to the lack of written regulations or fixtures.

Case Study

Football in pre-industrial Britain:

Due to the violent nature of this time in history and the illiteracy of the population, the sport lacked set rules and positions, had no boundaries and certainly no officials. It was collectively known as 'mob football'. It was frowned upon by many due to the damage and injuries it inflicted.



Mob football

Availability of time

Sport was only occasionally played, as there was a lack of time that could be spent on it. Many hours were spent working. This meant that sport was played on holidays or holy days, which had a religious nature. The limited time also had a small contribution to sport being local, due to the difficulty of traveling to other areas to participate.

Availability of money

Those who had more money available had the opportunity to wager (place a bet) on the outcome of a game. Wagering gave the upper classes an opportunity to show how much income they had, while the lower classes had a chance to make their own money, thus meaning that wagering was a popular form of entertainment in industrial sport in Britain. It also contributed to the division between the classes, with the upper class spectating while the lower class participated.

Type and availability of transport

The lack of modernised transport resulted in many of the population not being able to travel to watch or participate in sport. Therefore sport was localised, with local sporting events having a large number of followers.

Apply

For a sport of your choice from the ones given below, research how these differed from the same sport we know today.

- tennis
- cricket
- athletics



Things to think about

How did the living conditions of pre-industrial Britain influence the development of sport back then?

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Influence of Public Schools (Nineteenth Century)

Post-1800 industrial Britain and the emergence of public schools meant public schoolboys took the sports from their local towns and villages back to their schools. It was these in public schools that sport began to develop. Dr Thomas Arnold is seen as a key founder of the use of schooling to promote good Christian ethics in schoolboys through the use of sport. He promoted the idea of muscular Christianity – the idea that a fit and healthy body should replicate a fit and healthy soul / fit and healthy morals. He did so by increasing the relationship between teachers and sixth-form pupils.



The promotion and organisation of sports and games

Schoolmasters believed that sports would help to develop the character of the schoolboys, while giving them a distraction to exert their energy towards, therefore also enabling a form of social control. Inter-house competitions also took place during school, which helped to promote the competitive nature while helping to encourage

The promotion of ethics through sports and games

Public schoolboys kept to a code of behaviour when participating in sport, creating sporting behaviour. This code of behaviour included respecting the opposition

The 'cult' of athleticism – its nature and impact

At the forefront of this promotion of **ethics** was the notion of athleticism. **Ath** in maximal physical effort while adhering to the ethics of the game and playing concept of sportsmanship, meaning that sports were played more fairly, opposition were adhered to.

The spread and export of games and the games ethic

An important focus of the sports and games was the establishment of leadership used to promote social values such as loyalty and responsibility. The spread of schoolboys left for universities, which led to the different games and rules brought by students being adapted to form more structured games. The coming together of different sporting ideas is called the **Oxbridge melting pot**. This melting pot accelerated the codification of rugby and football. Those who went on to work as masters at schools played within the establishments at which they were working. Ex-public schoolboys founded sporting national governing bodies (NGBs), which gave the sports more structure. The games ethic was also spread through the careers of ex-public schoolboys, including areas such as fitness and endeavour.

Apply

Think about the sports in your school. How do they compare with the characteristics of the sports played by the public schoolboys post Industrial Revolution?



Things to think about

How is the spread and evolution of games and codes still relevant today?

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Emergence of Sport and the Influence of P

Checking your understanding

1. Using mob football as an example, name the characteristics of popular

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2. Explain how social class impacted sport in pre-industrial Britain. (2 marks)

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3. What is meant by 'muscular Christianity'? (1 mark)

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4. How did public schools promote ethics in sport? (3 marks)

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5. Explain how public schoolboys helped the spread of games and sport

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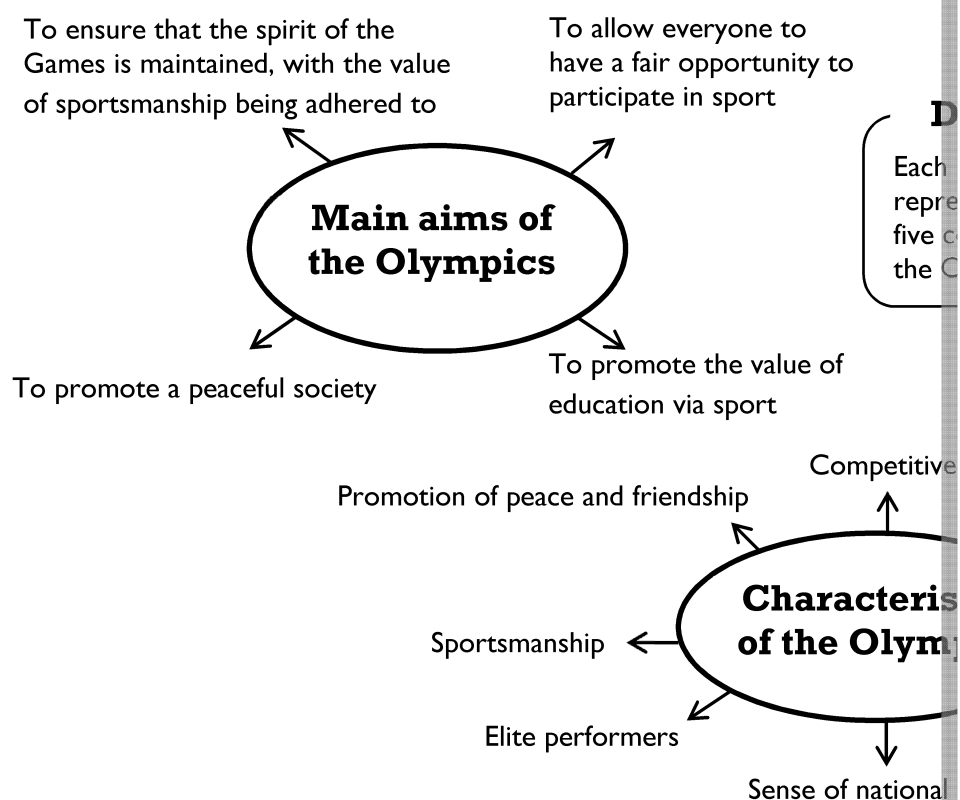


The Modern Olympic Games: Amateurism and Oly

The Olympic Games is the most obvious of global sporting events, with many countries coming together in one host country to compete for the pivotal prize of a gold medal for their nation. Now held every four years, it is the largest celebration of sport, with millions of people tuning into the events across the globe. Before we look at the characteristics of the modern Olympic Games, let's first consider its history.

Background and Aims

Pierre de Coubertin was behind the revival of the Olympics in the modern era. De Coubertin's interest in reviving the Games stemmed from his willingness to reform France's education system. In Paris, 1894, Pierre de Coubertin established the International Olympic Committee (IOC). Alongside Dimitris Vikelas (chairman of the IOC), de Coubertin convinced Athens to hold the first modern Olympic Games, which took place in 1896. The Olympic Charter is the agreed guidelines of the Olympics, and the main aims of this charter are outlined below. The characteristics of the modern Olympic Games, which are still in place today, are also highlighted below.



Things to think about

How has the legacy of the Olympic Games been maintained from w

'Shamateurism'

Until the 1970s, the Olympic Games was seen as a competition for amateur competitors to have a fair opportunity to compete. However, by the 1970s the Olympic Games had gained significant influence. This meant that there was an increase in demand from viewers to see the best athletes competing. As a result, 'shamateurism' developed. This was the introduction of professional preparation for the Olympics. In the USA, the best athletes were offered scholarships to train full-time without financial fear (i.e. they were paid to train). To be able to compete at the highest level, other countries also began to also pay athletes to train. This is seen as the time when the Olympics started to become an event for professional athletes. The movement of amateurism to professional modern sport is covered later.

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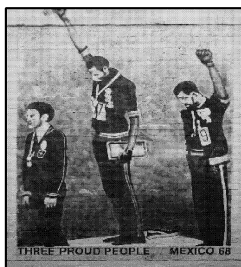
Sport as a Political Tool

Political exploitation of the Olympic Games

With the Olympic Games being a global entity it has often been used to exploit as propaganda to influence its wide-ranging viewers. Let's take a look back at the Olympics' history where political **exploitation** has been witnessed.

Berlin 1936 Third Reich ideology

The Olympic Games were held in Berlin, Germany, in 1936. This event occurred while the Nazis were in power, and Hitler took the chance to use the Games to endorse the Nazi ideology. Although a number of nations were debating if they should **boycott** the Games, any boycotting plans were unsuccessful, and the Games began with 49 nations competing, with Hitler opening the Games himself. However, Jesse Owens, a black US sprinter and long jumper, won four gold medals, which embarrassed Hitler, as a black athlete being successful over the white athletes went against the Aryan supremacy ideology that he was trying to promote.



Graffiti showing black power salute

Mexico City 1968 'Black Power' demonstration

The 1968 Olympics took place in Mexico City, Mexico. At the time, racial discrimination in the USA were ongoing. To protest against this, two African American athletes, Tommie Smith (gold) and John Carlos (bronze), performed a Black Power salute when they collected their medals. They did this by raising their right fists during the national anthem, performing a black power salute.

Munich 1972 Palestinian terrorism

The 1972 Olympics were held in Munich, Germany. This Olympics was devastated by the 'Munich massacre'. This is because a group of Palestinian terrorists forced the taking of 11 Israeli sporting personnel. During a failed rescue mission, the eleven hostages ultimately led to the suspension of the Games, for the first time ever. It also led to increased security measures that are seen today at the Games, with counter-terrorism within the host nations.

Moscow 1980 boycott led by USA

The 1980 Olympics were held in Moscow, USSR. The USA, led by President Jimmy Carter, led a **boycott** as a protest at the invasion of Afghanistan by the Soviet Union which occurred in 1979. The USA was worried that its athletes would have their passports taken off them if they competed. The number of sporting events were reduced as a result of the boycott.

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Los Angeles 1984 boycott by Soviet Union

In response to the boycott of the Moscow Olympics by the USA, as mentioned above, the Soviet Union boycotted the 1984 Olympics held in Los Angeles, USA. The Soviet Union referred to the USA as anti-communists. The reason provided by the Soviet Union was that it boycotted due to fears over security and the commercialisation of the Games. This Olympic Games was boycotted by fewer countries than in the 1980 Olympic Games, with 14 countries not participating.

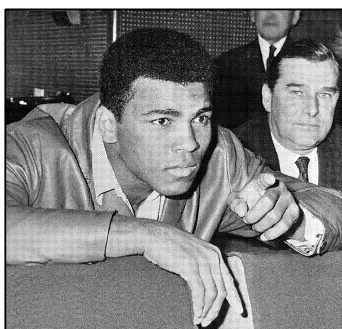
Political exploitation of sport

There are other examples of sport being used as a political tool outside of the ones outlined below. You should be aware of the influence these have on sport and politics.

Apartheid (South Africa)

There was enormous tension in South Africa due to apartheid (segregating people based on their race). Many high-level athletes did not want to compete for or in South Africa because of the segregation of the people.

In 1995, following the end of apartheid, South Africa hosted and won the Rugby World Cup. At the presentation ceremony, Nelson Mandela (the president of South Africa) appeared wearing a South African rugby team shirt. The South African rugby team was a primarily white team. This show of support from Nelson Mandela helped to bring the country back together.

**Muhammad Ali (Vietnam War)**

In 1967, Muhammad Ali refused to be drafted into the Vietnam War. He was fined \$10,000, lost his heavyweight title, faced a five-year prison sentence, and was banned from boxing for three years.

Ali stated that the reason he refused to participate in the war was his religion – he had converted to Islam some years before.

Ali was a massive sporting star. His refusal to compete in the Vietnam War helped to remove links between sport and politics. It showed that people should not be forced to participate in activities that go against their religious beliefs. The size of Ali's fame and popularity helped to ensure that many people followed in his footsteps.

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Commercialisation: Amateurism and Professionalism

The spread of games throughout the world

The movement of people across the world aided the growth and spread of games. Missionaries and clergymen travelled to faraway countries to promote the message of Christianity; they spread the idea of 'muscular Christianity' using sport.

The size of the British Empire also helped spread sport across the world. As British soldiers were based in other countries, they took their sporting knowledge and traditions with them. For example, the British Empire once ruled India. Therefore, the growth in popularity of cricket in India dramatically increased. To this day, cricket is the number one sport in India.



The British Empire was made up of many territories.

In countries where the British Empire ruled, the civil service (made up of local people) spread the games taught to them by the British into their own countries, looking after them.

The emergence of amateurs and professionals

In post-1850s Britain there was a divide in the social classes between amateurs and professionals. The lower class were professionals, while the upper class were amateurs. Participation in sport was restricted for the lower classes due to membership rules being enforced by the upper class to prevent the lower class from being able to participate in their clubs. The fees for this membership meant that the lower classes could not afford to join. Professionals were also prohibited from competing in certain competitions. There was also a distinction between the roles in sport that meant the lower class were performers, the middle class were managers or agents, and the upper class were benefactors and supporters.

Amateur: Sport for enjoyment, not for playing for money.

Professional: Sport for financial gain, where it is their main source of income.

Sport has gone global in the twenty-first century and is celebrated frequently. As we have improved discipline among players, barriers to participation have been removed. Sport is now part of every child's education. Whoever you are and wherever you go, you can't escape sport. Globalisation has been assessed from pre-industrial Britain all the way to the twenty-first century. We took a look at the contemporary factors that shape the sport we know and play today.

Class – amateurism and professionalism

Professionals and amateurs are no longer as clearly defined in regard to the social classes. There are still some types of sports which are closely associated with the upper classes, such as tennis and polo. There are still sports associated with the working class, e.g. spectators of football matches. With the globalisation of sport, professional sports performers are among the highest earners in the world.

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Did you know?

The highest paid athlete in 2015 was Floyd Mayweather, earning \$300 million in just one year!⁶

Case Study

Amateur and professional boxing:

One of the best sports to demonstrate the gap between the professionals and amateurs is boxing. Professional boxers, thanks largely to the commercialisation of the sport, can earn vast amounts per fight. The biggest of these fights are generally shown on pay-per-view, bringing in millions of pounds in revenue. Only amateur boxers are allowed to compete at the Olympics, however, with many of these boxers opting to fight for the chance of Olympic glory, rather than turn professional.

Apply

For a sport of your choice, can you describe the differences between a professional athlete and an amateur athlete?



Gate money, the 'broken time' debate and gentlemen vs players in

Without some form of income, sport would be destined to remain an amateur money – charging people to watch sport – created an income for sporting club and pay the very best players, buy equipment and improve the club facilities. professional era.

Alongside gate money, a move to make sport more professional was happening. In the late 1800s, northern rugby clubs pushed for 'broken time' payments for their players. These were wages given to workers who had to miss work for some reason – in this case, to play for their club. However, the southern-based RFU refused this prospect, meaning that players received no wages. This debate led to the eventual split of the northern rugby clubs from the Rugby Football Union (RFU) to form the Rugby Football League (RFL). This created a dramatic drop in the number of rugby union clubs in the north to play sport and receive a wage for playing.

In cricket, from 1806 to 1962, biannual cricket matches were played between gentlemen (amateurs – upper class) and players (professionals – working class). The players received wages from the clubs, while the gentlemen claimed expenses for the matches they played. This caused disagreement as some of the gentlemen were claiming expenses greater than the players' wages. The Cricket Club (MCC) deemed that any first-class cricketers (elite players) should be earning a wage – regardless of their social class.

Professionalism and ethics – the 'Lombardian ethic'

In a world where more and more people are striving to become professional athletes, the nature of many athletes has changed. Contrary to Dr Arnold's view of using sport to promote health, athletes have to be more ruthless to get to where they want to be. In the early 20th century, a coach named Vince Lombardi became a leader in the idea of 'winning at all costs'. In modern sport, more money, facilities and physiological and psychological help are available than ever before. These are all examples of the Lombardian ethic at work. Negative aspects of the Lombardian ethic do exist, though; for example, an athlete using performance-enhancing drugs to maximise their performance.

Did you know?

Perhaps the most famous cricketing incident was the dismissal of Grace, an amateur Gentleman, who dismissed 129 batsmen in 1876.

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⁶ <http://www.theguardian.com/sport/2015/jun/11/floyd-mayweather-forbes-list-highest-paid>



The Modern Olympics and Sport as a Business

Checking your understanding

1. Name the aims of the Olympic Games, as proposed by Pierre de Coubertin.

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2. Explain how 'shamateurism' has led to a change from amateurism to professionalism.

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3. Describe the events of the 1936 Olympic Games whereby sport was used for propaganda.

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4. Describe how the Rugby World Cup of 1995 influenced the promotion of professionalism.

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5. Explain the difference between a professional and an amateur in modern sport.

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Social Differentiation within Sport

Within any community or group of people, the opportunities to participate in sport are influenced by numerous factors such as location and wealth. This influences the growth of sport and some people may not have the opportunities available to them to participate in sport. **Social stratification** is the division of a group of people within a particular society. **Social differentiation** is the opportunity for people to achieve something.

Underrepresented groups in sport

While many believe that sport is accessible for all, they often overlook the access to sport for underrepresented groups in sport, which fall under the categories of disability (physical or mental condition which limits their functioning), ethnic group (a population group compared to the larger population in terms of their cultural background), gender (women are underrepresented than males) and disadvantaged (those with a poor socio-economic status and ability to participate in a variety of events). The table below summarises the barriers to participation and suggests solutions for overcoming these barriers.

Underrepresented group	Barrier	Solution
Disability	Not all local sports facilities are accessible for disabled people, with an absence of the correct equipment or adapted sports. This means that disabled people often find themselves left out of doing sports.	Providing adapted sports to enable disabled people to participate in adapted sports.
	Negative attitudes towards disability sport contribute further to this feeling, with some of those leading sport lacking the understanding needed to include disabled athletes in sporting events.	Educating the public about sports and increasing the level of understanding.
	A lack of media coverage for disabled sports has also led to a lack of positive sporting role models, meaning that the popularity and participation levels remain relatively low.	Increasing the visibility of disabled sports, such as through social media, to increase the level of participation.
Ethnic groups	Negative attitudes and stereotypical and racist views can mean that those from a minority feel less welcome in terms of doing sport.	Campaigns to increase the level of understanding.
	These negative attitudes can also mean that individuals are placed into positions to which coaches stereotypically believe they are best suited, leading to potentially less enjoyment of the sport.	The education of coaches to dispel stereotypes and can lead to individuals being placed into positions where they can enjoy the sport.
	A lack of positive role models in underrepresented sports.	Increasing the visibility of ethnic minority role models in sports.
Gender	Negative attitudes and sexist views towards females' roles in sport still exist. For example, some people still believe that a woman's role should only be domestic, with sport being considered to be too masculine.	Increased media coverage to help to increase the role models for girls to take part in sport.
	Females can be pushed towards sports typically seen as more suitable for females. This can reduce enjoyment.	The enforcement of rules to prevent sexist behavior.
Disadvantaged / socially deprived	They are said to be at a disadvantage in a sport due to not being able to afford the associated costs, such as equipment, membership fees, use of facilities, etc. This means that they do not have the opportunity to participate in a number of sports.	Increasing the visibility of sports.
		Community programs to increase participation and reduce the cost involved in sports.

The groups mentioned often suffer from issues such as discrimination, stereotyping and prejudice, so it is, therefore, important to learn the definitions of these terms.

- **Discrimination:** the use of a negative perception to make a distinction between individuals or a group
- **Stereotyping:** a preconceived, oversimplified perception of an individual or a group
- **Prejudice:** a previously formed biased opinion which has no evidence to back it up

In disadvantaged groups, sport is seen as a method of **social mobility** – the idea of rags to riches. Therefore, sport provides an end goal for many underprivileged people. If someone from a disadvantaged background succeeds in sport, they can use their **role model** status to break through barriers that exist within sport.

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Economic and Sociocultural Factors and Their Impact on Participation

The social and economic standing of people plays a significant role in sports participation. The factors that influence these roles are outlined below:

Privately educated sporting success

In the London 2012 Olympics, Team GB achieved great sporting success in many sports. A very large proportion of Team GB medallists were privately educated. The high number of Team GB members who won medals highlights the fact that people who attend private schools often achieve sporting success. This puts people from a poor background at a disadvantage. Private schools often have state-of-the-art facilities and high-level coaches, aiding their success.



Black, Asian and minority ethnic (BAME) managers and coaches

Black, Asian and minority ethnic managers and coaches are underrepresented in sport. Many sporting bodies have set targets for managers and coaches from ethnic groups to be well represented in sport. For example, the Premier League and Football Association are attempting to increase the number of BAME coaches in football. However, between 2015 and 2016, the number of BAME coaches in senior football positions actually decreased from 4 to 3.

Centrality and racial stacking

Centrality is the idea that the most intelligent people play the key roles in a group. In sport, it would be the decision maker in a team, or a playmaker, as they have the intelligence to read a game and make the right decisions. For example, in football this would often be a central midfielder.

Throughout history, ethnic minorities have been at a disadvantage due to stereotyping and racism. As a result, some people still believe that certain ethnicities are predisposed to be good at certain tasks. For example, black people are often stereotyped as being undereducated but possessing great athletic ability such as sprinting. Therefore, in sports such as American football, they may play roles where thinking is less important than physical prowess (e.g. defensive line). On the other hand, quarterbacks in the same team may likely be white, as they are stereotyped as being more intelligent and so are the playmakers.

Racial stacking is the idea that people of certain ethnicities are only good at certain tasks. Examples of this are that black people are only good at running and basketball.

Self-fulfilling prophecy

A self-fulfilling prophecy is the subconscious act of someone who helps their own prophecy to come true. In sport, coaches and managers are subject to self-fulfilling prophecies as they believe what they say would happen to come true. For example, a football manager buys a player from another team because he is a prolific goalscorer in that league. In terms of his skills and ability, the player is not a striker. However, subconsciously, the coach or manager may expect him to improve his performance to the required standard. This is a self-fulfilling prophecy as the player meets the standard required by the manager, as the manager originally predicted when he bought him.



Things to think about

Think of sporting examples that prove that the ideas behind centrality and racial stacking are true.

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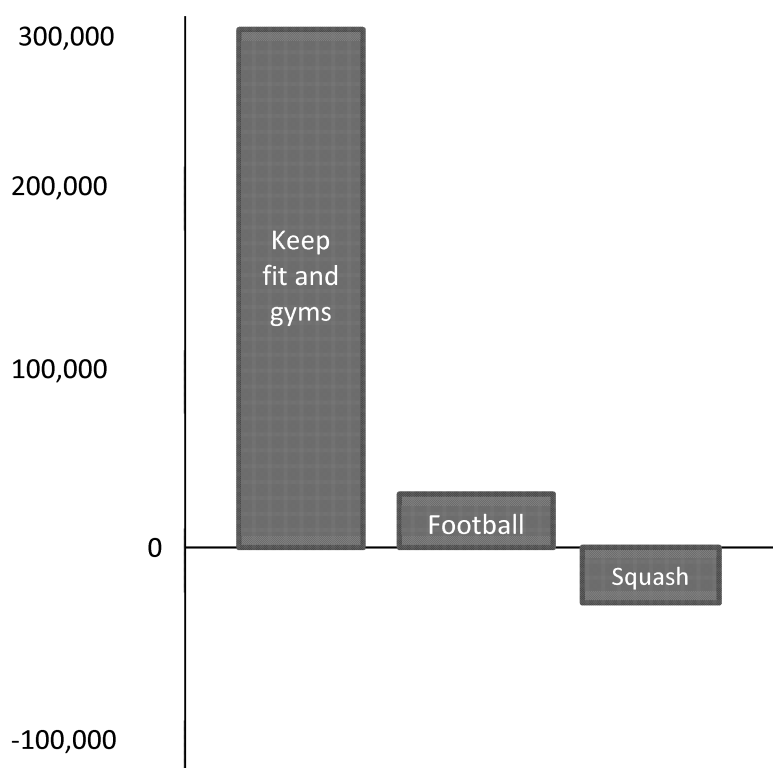


⁷ <https://www.theguardian.com/football/2016/nov/15/bame-coach-numbers-stall-english-football>

Participation trends in the UK in the twenty-first century

You have previously learnt some of the strategies put in place to improve participation in sport in society, but have any of the strategies succeeded in increasing participation rates in the twenty-first century? Make up your own mind by examining the graph and reading a summary of the trends.

This graph shows the changes in once-a-week participation rates in sports from October 2015–September 2016.⁸



Keep fit and gyms

Keep fit and gyms has seen a significant increase in participation rates over the last decade. This is due to a number of reasons, including the fact that it is a low-cost activity and is accessible to a wide range of people.

Football

Football has seen a significant increase in participation rates over the last decade. This is due to a number of reasons, including the fact that it is a low-cost activity and is accessible to a wide range of people.

Squash

Squash has seen a significant decline in participation rates over the last decade. This is due to a number of reasons, including the fact that it is a high-cost activity and is not as accessible to a wide range of people.

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⁸https://www.sportengland.org/media/11325/1x30_sport_16plus-factsheet_aps10.pdf

Strategies for increasing participation in sport among disadvantaged

Many strategies have emerged in recent years to increase participation rates in sport.

- **Kick It Out** – organisation that campaigns for the removal of all forms of discrimination in sport. It is well known for being an anti-racism campaign.
- **Rainbow Laces** – this campaign encourages elite sport stars to wear rainbow laces to support the LGBT community, removing homophobia from sport.
- **Adapted sports for disabilities** – many sports have now been adapted to allow people with disabilities to participate in sport, notably the Paralympics. Individual sports such as rugby have been adapted. Community clubs are also increasing in number for people with mental disabilities.
- **This Girl Can** – a campaign that aims to encourage women to participate in sport.

The effect of these campaigns is an increase in participation rates in sport. By participating in sport, people are becoming more exposed to discrimination in sport. The media has highlighted the sporting prowess of athletes with disabilities.

Apply

Using the Internet, research the trend in participation rates for a sport of your choice. Write down the reasons behind the trend.

Case Study – Additional Learning

Gender / changing role and status of women

While unfortunately gender stereotypes do still exist in the world of sport, there has been a positive shift in terms of the role and status of women within sport in the twenty-first century. Women are now seen as equal to men, with the same working hours and pay. For example, while still a minority, women's football has received an increase in television coverage and popularity, and at Wimbledon the prize money is equal for the female and male tennis players. This has encouraged more females to participate in sport and sport can become a viable career path. There are also a higher number of women involved in sporting roles, such as team doctors, physiotherapists, coaches and managers. This is because the sporting talent of women has been recognised, with positive role models such as Jessica Ennis-Hill and Nicola Adams.

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Influence of the Media in Sport

Media and globalisation of sport

Sport has gone global in the twenty-first century and is celebrated frequently. It has improved discipline among players, barriers to participation have been removed, and it is now a part of every child's education. Whoever you are and wherever you go, you can't escape it. Globalisation has been assessed from pre-industrial Britain all the way to the twenty-first century. In this section, we took a look at the contemporary factors that shape the sport we know and love today.

Globalisation of sport

The *globalisation of sport* is another important factor which has shaped the characteristics of, and participation in, sport. In the twenty-first century, sport is now a global event, with tournaments such as the Olympics and the FIFA World Cup involving nations from across the world. There are three underpinning factors which have led to this globalisation:

1. **Media coverage:** An increase in media coverage has increased the interest in sport, and has provided the finances for sport to improve its range of coverage. The wide range of available media platforms (radio, TV, satellite, social media and the Internet) has made sport very accessible for the majority of the population. The success of 24-hour sports news channels shows the popularity of sport, and it is this popularity that the media aims to cash in on. Dedicated sports channels show a wide range of sport, helping to increase its global appeal.
2. **Freedom of movement for performers:** This has allowed performers to participate in tournaments which take place in another country to their country of birth.
3. **Greater exposure of people to sport:** This has increased the popularity of sport, and the number of elite performers. This is because it creates a larger foundation of athletes who could reach the elite level of different sports, and with the help of coaching, talented athletes are more likely to be able to reach this elite level.

Globalisation
increasing
international

In the 2011 World Cup, Japan vs South Korea was the largest demonstration of globalisation has on the

Apply

The media has globalised sport, giving choice and developed

The 'golden triangle'

The golden triangle is a method used to describe the interlinking relationship between sport, media and sponsorship. This shows how money is generated and used within sport.

The diagram to the right clearly shows that all three (sport, media and sponsorship) have a beneficial relationship, with each receiving and providing for each other. For example, sport helps to generate money for the sponsors by promoting their brand in a positive light via advertising hoardings or kit sponsorship. This in turn is beneficial for the sport and their national governing bodies, as the money from sponsorship can be used to improve facilities and improve the grass-roots of the sport, for example.



Media and role models

The growth of sport through the media has meant that disadvantaged groups can now become successful in modern day. For example, many elite boxers do not come from a privileged background. If they become successful, they become **role models**. Furthermore, the ability of athletes to move to new clubs. In recent years this has been most obvious in football. The ability of foreign players to British football clubs creates optimism for disadvantaged groups. One day they could also grow up to become as successful as these footballers.

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Commercialisation, Social Differentiation in Sport: Checking your understanding

1. Describe the 'Lombardian ethic' in modern-day sport. (2 marks)
.....
.....
2. Define 'social stratification'. (1 mark)
.....
.....
3. Explain how disadvantaged (low socio-economic status) people are in sport, and describe any solutions in place to solve this problem. (4 marks)
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4. Describe two strategies in place that aim to increase sporting participation of people. (4 marks)
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Answers

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Chapter 1.1: Contribution of Physical Activity to Health and Fitness

Contribution of Physical Activity to Health and Fitness: Checking your understanding

- Smoking is a leading cause of cancer. (1 mark)
 - Carbon monoxide binds to haemoglobin, reducing oxygen delivery around the body. (1 mark)
 - Presence of tar in cigarettes destroys cilia, meaning the lungs are not filtered. (1 mark)
 - Can cause emphysema. (1 mark)
- Hypertension is high blood pressure – 140/90 mm Hg or above. (1 mark)
- Exercise releases endorphins, which cause feelings of happiness. (1 mark)
 - Exercise helps / endorphins help to reduce stress of a person. (1 mark)
 - Exercise contributes to positive body image, which reduces feelings of anxiety. (1 mark)

Chapter 1.2: Cardiorespiratory and cardiovascular systems

Cardiorespiratory System: Checking your understanding

- Cardiac output = stroke volume \times heart rate / Stroke volume = cardiac output \div heart rate

Stroke volume = $4,800/80 = 60$ (1 mark)

Stroke volume = 60 ml (Note: ml needed for mark.) (1 mark)
- Sinoatrial node:** regulates the heart rate in line with the body's demand / sends impulses to the atria, causing them to contract. (1 mark)

Atrioventricular node: delays contraction to allow the ventricles to fully fill with blood. (1 mark)
- 4 marks from the following:
 - The vascular system 'shunts' oxygenated blood to where it is needed the most. (1 mark)
 - The vasomotor centre regulates the blood flow by causing the sympathetic nervous system to constrict or dilate. (1 mark)
 - This can result in blood being directed away from the lower-priority organs. (1 mark)
 - The arterioles also have an important role, as they can widen or narrow to direct blood flow towards the higher-priority tissues. (1 mark)
 - The precapillary sphincters allow / do not allow the blood to flow into the capillaries. (1 mark)
- They have a large surface area, increasing diffusion rate. (1 mark)
 - There is a large number of capillaries, increasing blood flow and increasing the surface area. (1 mark)
 - The membrane between the alveoli and capillaries is very thin, reducing the distance for diffusion. (1 mark)
- Gas exchange occurs as a result of a gradient formed between the different partial pressures of gases in the alveoli and blood. (1 mark)
 - Partial pressure refers to the pressure that a particular gas exerts within a mixture of gases. (1 mark)
 - Oxygen will diffuse from an area of high concentration (the alveoli) to an area of low concentration (the blood). Likewise, carbon dioxide diffuses from an area of high concentration (blood) to an area of low concentration (the alveoli). (1 mark)
 - This pressure gradient is increased as we exercise, due to oxygen levels of 100% in the alveoli and 75% in the blood. (1 mark)

Chapter 1.1 – Performance Analysis and Movement Analysis

Performance Analysis in Sport: Checking your understanding

- Quantitative/objective (1 mark)
- 1 mark for each stage and description:
 - Observation – a coach observes a performance and draws their own conclusions. (1 mark)
 - Performance analysis technology – the opinions given by the coach are tested using performance analysis equipment. (1 mark)
 - Evaluation of data – testing equipment either confirms or denies the coach's observations. (1 mark)
 - Feedback – feedback is given to the athlete. It should be relevant and positive. (1 mark)
 - Planning – using the information gained from testing, the coach and athlete plan for the next performance. (1 mark)
- It is a term used to describe the accuracy and consistency of the data throughout a performance. (1 mark)

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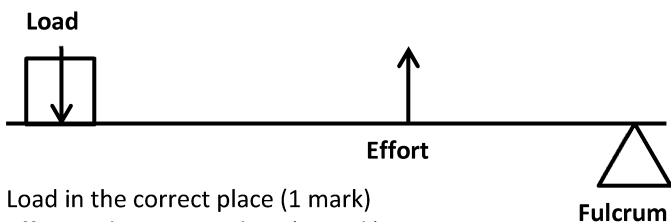


4. Any of the following points (maximum 2 marks from advantages and 2 marks from disadvantages):
- Coaches and athletes can see aspects of performance, instead of having to imagine it.
 - Cheaper video cameras are becoming available.
 - Can be adapted to film different aspects of performance (e.g. tactics of a whole team or technical skills of an individual).
- Disadvantages:**
- The highest-quality cameras are still very expensive.
 - Can be time consuming.
 - Doesn't provide numerical data.
 - Sometimes qualitative and subjective data.
 - High level of experience and knowledge is needed to maximise data and quality of analysis.
5. **Reliability** – refers to the repeatability of a test. It is whether a test can measure similar results each time. (1 mark)
Validity – the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to be measuring. (1 mark)
6. • Analysis of movement – e.g. positioning and movement of football players to score a goal.
 • Tactical analysis – e.g. analysing the set-piece moves an opponent performs.
 • Technical analysis – e.g. a sprinter analysing their running technique. (1 mark)
 • Statistics – e.g. commentators looking at possession in a football match. (1 mark)

Biomechanical Movement: Checking your understanding

1. **Law 1:** an object stays at rest or in a constant state of motion unless acted upon by an external force.
Law 2: an object will accelerate in the same direction as the force applied upon it. The acceleration is directly proportional to this force. (1 mark)
Law 3: for every action there is an equal and opposite reaction. (1 mark)
2. **Reaction:** the equal and opposite force acting in the opposite direction to the force applied.
Net force: the overall force that is exerted on an object. (1 mark)
Unbalanced force: occurs when the magnitude of the forces acting upon the object is not equal, therefore, moved in the direction of the larger force. (1 mark)
3. Speed = distance/time (1 mark)
 Speed = 100 m / 11 seconds (1 mark)
 Speed = 9.09 m/s (1 mark)

Movement Analysis: Checking your understanding

1. 
- Load in the correct place (1 mark)
 Effort in the correct place (1 mark)
 Fulcrum in the correct place (1 mark)
2. A second-class lever has a greater length of the resistance arm relative to the effort arm. This allows the second-class lever to produce a large force to overcome a heavy load. (1 mark)
3. Frontal (1 mark); e.g. cartwheel (1 mark)
 Transverse (1 mark); e.g. golf drive (1 mark)
 Sagittal (1 mark); e.g. somersault (1 mark)
4. 1 mark for naming a type of synovial joint **and** giving a correct example of the joint.
- Pivot joint – e.g. neck/cranium (1 mark)
 - Hinge joint – e.g. elbow/knee (1 mark)
 - Gliding joint – e.g. between the carpals and metacarpals of the hand / tarsals (1 mark)
 - Condylloid joint – e.g. wrists (1 mark)
 - Ball-and-socket joint – e.g. shoulder/hip (1 mark)

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5.

Type of movement	Muscles causing movement	Plane movement place in
Plantarflexion (1 mark)	Gastrocnemius and soleus (1 mark)	Sagittal plane (1 mark)

Chapter 1.2: The Musculoskeletal System

The Musculoskeletal System: Checking your understanding

- Agonist:** pectoralis major / triceps (1 mark)
Antagonist: trapezius / posterior deltoid / rhomboids (1 mark)
Contraction: concentric (1 mark)
- This is the muscle that is the primary instigator of a joint movement. The contraction of the muscle causes the movement of a joint's related limb (accept any other correct definition). (1 mark)
- What type of joint is being used? (1 mark)
 - What is the movement being produced? (1 mark)
 - Which agonist and antagonist muscles are involved? (1 mark)
 - What type of muscle contraction is used? (1 mark)
- 4 marks from the following
 - Protection (axial) – bones protect your vital organs. (1 mark)
 - Shape and points for attachment (axial) – bones give our body size and shape and attach to. (1 mark)
 - Blood cell production (axial) – red blood cells (carry oxygen) and white blood cells are produced in the bone marrow. (1 mark)
 - Movement (appendicular) – the bones act as levers that muscles attach to, to produce movement. (1 mark)
 - Mineral storage – the skeleton stores calcium and phosphorus. (1 mark)
- Eccentric (1 mark)
 - Eccentric (1 mark)
 - Isometric (1 mark)
 - Concentric (1 mark)

Chapter 1.3 Preparation and Training Methods

Components of Fitness and Training Methods: Checking your understanding

- Continuous:** any correct example of a sport requiring good aerobic capacity, e.g. swimming. (1 mark)
PNF: any correct example of a sport requiring a good range of motion, e.g. gymnastics.
Weight: any correct example of a sport requiring powerful movements, e.g. rugby.
 Must supply two examples of each fitness component to get one mark.
- Maximum 4 marks. Definition and suitable sporting example must be provided for each component.
 - Flexibility – the ability to stretch the muscles to the full range of their movement. e.g. a gymnast performing a floor routine / any other suitable example
 - Agility – the ability to change direction at speed while maintaining balance. e.g. a footballer / any other suitable example
 - Power – the amount of work completed over a period of time. In sport, it is the ability to produce in a short period of time, e.g. a rugby player / any other suitable example
 - Aerobic capacity – the maximum amount of oxygen that can be consumed at a given intensity aerobic exercise, e.g. marathon runner / any other suitable example
- Weight – 90% 1 RM (1 mark)
 - Sets – 1–3 (1 mark)
 - Reps – 1–3 (1 mark)
 - Rest – 3–4 minutes (1 mark)
- Maximum 2 marks from the following:
 - Plyometrics is training that targets speed and power. (1 mark)
 - Plyometrics consists of jumping, hopping and bouncing exercises. (1 mark)
 - Focus is placed on producing a high amount of force/power over short periods of time.

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Environmental Training: Checking your understanding

- Lack of oxygen results in the body producing a higher number of red blood cells. (1 mark)
 - This increases the efficiency of oxygen transport. (1 mark)
 - The body acclimatises. (1 mark)
 - The effect can last up to 14 days / provides an advantage at sea level. (1 mark)
- Definition:** the increased heart rate during a period of sustained exercise to counteract the decrease in stroke volume (1 mark)
- 3 marks from the following:
 - There is a greater volume of blood transported to the skin to lose heat from the body. (1 mark)
 - This is achieved by vasodilation of vessels supplying the skin. (1 mark)
 - Cardiovascular drift / increased heart rate during a period of sustained exercise to maintain stroke volume. (1 mark)
 - There is a reduction in stroke volume due to loss of fluids. (1 mark)
- Acclimatisation: positive adaptation to a change in the environment (1 mark)
The athlete has to give enough time to acclimatise to the conditions before they compete. (1 mark)
- 37 °C (1 mark)

Periodisation and Goal-setting: Checking your understanding

- 3 marks from the following:
 - Reduce the amount of training in the one to three weeks prior to competition. (1 mark)
 - Training intensity should be maintained. (1 mark)
 - Endurance events have longer tapering period. (1 mark)
 - Tapering should follow the longest session of training. (1 mark)
- Microcycle – lasts up to a week, and is the shortest stage of training. Focuses on one component. (1 mark)
Mesocycle – made up of numerous microcycles, normally lasting one month. (1 mark)
Macrocycle – made up of numerous mesocycles, normally lasting a year. Provide a description of each. (3 marks)
- 5 marks for descriptions of principle. 1 mark awarded for the use of a sporting example.
 - Specific: having a set aim to improve a specific component of a performance (1 mark), e.g. a swimmer focusing on one aspect of technique instead of overall performance. (1 mark)
 - Measurable: if a goal is measurable, it will help the performer identify any problems with their performance (1 mark), e.g. the swimmer records a sprint time before training to see if any improvements have been made based on technique training. (1 mark)
 - Agreed: goals should be agreed between the performer and the coach, so that they are both working towards and can work together as efficiently as possible (1 mark) e.g. the swimmer's leg kick is something that needs to be improved. (1 mark)
 - Realistic: the performer must believe they have the ability to be able to complete the goal (1 mark), e.g. the swimmer knows their current time and can have a negative impact on motivation (1 mark), e.g. the swimmer knows their current time and is motivated to make the change. (1 mark)
 - Time-phased: having a set time by which the goal needs to be completed (1 mark), e.g. it is agreed the swimmer must be half a second faster in one month. (1 mark)

Chapter 1.4 Energy for Exercise**Energy Systems: Checking your understanding**

- Energy system: ATP-PC (1 mark)
Duration: up to 10 seconds (1 mark)
- The aerobic system (1 mark)

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3. A sporting example needs to be given for each principle to achieve the mark.
 - Specific: the training should be specific to the sporting event that is being trained (e.g. a sprinter's training should benefit a sprinter). (1 mark)
 - Progressive overload: the training should progress in difficulty, whether this ensures that a plateau of progress does not occur, and the performer can continue to make adaptations (e.g. a marathon runner running a longer distance in each session).
 - Reversibility: the performer should ensure that they train regularly, otherwise performance or lose any benefits from training (e.g. a long jumper's performance drops after two weeks). (1 mark)
 - Variance: activities and training should be varied in their nature. This helps them to transfer their skills (e.g. a sprinter completing sprints, plyometrics and long jumps).
4. 70–80% of maximum heart rate (1 mark)

Chapter 1.5 Fatigue and Recovery

Fatigue and Recovery: Checking your understanding

1.
 - The temperature of the muscles and tendons increases, enabling them to be more efficient.
 - The speed and strength of muscular contraction is improved, due to the increased speed of nerve transmission and also the improved nerve transmission speed which send signals to the muscles.
 - Blood vessels dilate (widen) to increase blood flow around the body. (1 mark)
 - Raised heart rate helps to increase the speed of blood flow to the exercising muscles. (1 mark)
 - Raised breathing rate helps to increase the transport of oxygen to the exercising muscles. (1 mark)
2. 3 marks from the following:
 - OBLA occurs at high-intensity exercise when the ATP stores have been used up.
 - Lactic acid builds up in the muscles during anaerobic exercise. (1 mark)
 - OBLA is an increase in blood lactate concentration above 4 mmol/l. (1 mark)
 - OBLA leads to increased blood acidity, muscular pain and an accompanying decrease in performance. (1 mark)
3.
 - When an athlete has stopped exercising, their body still demands oxygen to complete the exercise. (1 mark)
 - Excess post-exercise oxygen consumption (EPOC) helps to replenish an oxygen debt and increases breathing rate/depth after exercise. (1 mark)
 - Alactic recovery replenishes blood supply and muscle oxygen stores. (1 mark)
 - Lacticid recovery maintains elevated circulation and ventilation and helps to remove lactic acid from the muscles. (1 mark)

Recovery and Rehabilitation: Checking your understanding

1.
 - Carbon dioxide is carried in either the blood plasma (as carbonic acid) (1 mark)
 - or by binding with the haemoglobin in the red blood cells. (1 mark)
 - These substances are then removed from the body through exhalation of the lungs.
 - The body controls breathing rate using chemoreceptors by detecting changes in blood pH. (1 mark)
2.
 - Ice baths are a type of cold therapy. (1 mark)
 - Cold temperatures cause the constriction of blood vessels. (1 mark)
 - This reduces swelling and prevents further breakdown of tissue. (1 mark)
 - Once the body returns to the normal temperature, blood flow is increased, and this helps to remove waste products and exchange at the muscles. (1 mark)
3.
 - **Protection** – prevent additional injury by protecting the injured area against external forces.
 - **Rest** – the injured part of the body should be allowed to recover fully. (1 mark)
 - **Ice** – applying ice on the injured area helps to reduce swelling. (1 mark)
 - **Compression** – applying pressure to the injured area helps to limit swelling. (1 mark)
 - **Elevation** – raising the injured body part above the heart level reduces blood flow to the area and helps to reduce swelling. (1 mark)

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4. 3 marks from the following:
- Hypoxic tents (1 mark)
 - Oxygen tents (1 mark)
 - Kinesiology tape (1 mark)
 - Electrotherapy (1 mark)

Chapter 1.6: Diet and Nutrition

Diet and Nutrition: Checking your understanding

- Carbohydrates
 - Main source of energy for body as carbohydrates are broken down to glucose (1 mark)
 - 50–65% of diet (1 mark)
 - Proteins
 - Aid tissue repair/recovery (1 mark)
 - 10–20% of diet (1 mark)
 - Fats
 - Provide energy during low-intensity exercise / when glycogen stores are depleted (1 mark)
 - 20–30% of diet (1 mark)
- A boxer would lose weight by:
 - reducing energy intake (1 mark)
 - increasing energy expenditure (1 mark)
- 4 marks from the following:
 - During exercise (1 mark)
 - (during exercise) Used to maintain energy stores in the body as high GI food is broken down quickly (1 mark)
 - After exercise (1 mark)
 - (after exercise) High-GI foods can give immediate stores of energy back to the body (1 mark)
 - High-GI foods should not be consumed immediately before exercise (1 mark)
- 2 marks from the following:
 - Increased heart rate (1 mark)
 - Increased breathing rate (1 mark)
 - Increased lactic acid production, causing fatigue (1 mark)
 - Increased viscosity (thickness) of blood, reducing the flow of blood around the body (1 mark)

Chapter 2.1: Sports Psychology: Personality

Aspects of Personality: Checking your understanding

- 4 marks from the following:
 - Behaviour is innate, with individuals being predisposed to act in a certain way (1 mark)
 - Takes the 'nature' side of argument in 'nature vs nurture'. (1 mark)
 - Dominant traits have a larger effect than the less intense traits. (1 mark)
 - The environment does not have any effect on their personality or behaviour (1 mark)
 - Behaviour = Function of Personality (1 mark)
- Behaviour = Function of Environment (1 mark)
- Personality profiling is used to assess what type of personality a person has. Personalities are assessed using tests. (1 mark)
 - Maximum 2 marks from advantages and 2 marks from disadvantages

Advantages:

 - Cheap and easy to complete.
 - Easy to interpret results.
 - Can be self-assessed.
 - Identifies the sporting environments someone performs best in.
 - Helps to guide training/goals (communication between trainer and athlete) (1 mark)

Disadvantages:

 - Personalities of people are complex and may not be accurately represented (1 mark)
 - Personality is not the only factor that can influence performance.
 - Cannot predict behaviour in every environment/situation.
 - Individuals can lie / influence results of a test if it is self-assessed.

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Attitudes: Checking your understanding

1. An attitude is an enduring emotional feeling that alters the response given towards a particular situation. (1 mark)
2. Beneficial impact on goal motivation. (1 mark)
Beneficial impact on task persistence / any other suitable example. (1 mark)
3. **Personality type** (1 mark)
There are many different types of personality / relevant example, such as extroverted personality type / relevant example, such as an extroverted attitude towards sport. (1 mark)
Social influences (1 mark)
An individual is more likely to form an attitude that is similar to those in their peer group / relevant example, such as if a young girl's friendship group held the attitude that smoking is cool, the young girl is likely to adopt this same behaviour. (1 mark)
Personal experiences (1 mark)
If an individual has had a high amount of positive personal experience of a certain situation, they are more likely to form a positive attitude towards this situation. / The more emotional the experience, the more likely an attitude will be formed. (1 mark)
Conditioning (1 mark)
Reinforcement can promote the formation of a particular attitude. If an attitude is reinforced, it is more likely to be formed. / If an attitude is being positive, an individual is more likely to keep and strengthen this attitude. (1 mark)
4.
 - The affective component concerns the emotional reaction held towards an attitude.
 - The behavioural component concerns how an individual acts when faced with a situation.
 - The cognitive component concerns the individual's thoughts towards an attitude.
5. 3 marks from the following:
 - The basis of this method is to create an imbalance in one's beliefs.
 - If an individual experiences this dissonance, they will be more prepared to change their attitude.
 - It is created by causing a conflict between two attitude components.
 - This causes a feeling of stress and a will to create a balance between the components.

Group Dynamics in Sport: Checking your understanding

1. **Forming** (1 mark)
The initial stage of the meeting of group members, with interactions forming and sharing opinions. / An individual's focus is on what they can contribute to the team.
Storming (1 mark)
Leadership styles might clash at this stage. / Certain team members are drawn to the group. / Problems begin to be identified at this stage. / Focus is on teammates' own performance. / Progressing is difficult, but needs to be done to enter the performing stage. (1 mark)
Norming (1 mark)
This stage involves problem-solving, by working together to find answers to any problems. / Helps the members identify their own roles within the team, while team cohesion is built. (1 mark)
Performing (1 mark)
This stage involves the team performing successfully to achieve their team goals, while team cohesion is built. / Performing in their own roles to bring success to their team. (1 mark)
2. Actual productivity = best potential productivity – losses due to faulty processes (1 mark)
3.
 - **The Ringelmann effect:** losses of motivation can be a result of the negative impact of group size on motivation / when there are more members in a team, the motivation of each individual tends to decrease. (1 mark)
 - **Social loafing:** individuals tend to feel as though their own role is not recognised / they do not perceive their importance to the group as being diminished. (1 mark)
4. 6 marks from the following
 - Improving the communication between the individual team members.
 - Using shared goals within the team.
 - Making sure that each of the members knows how their role can impact on the team's performance.
 - Including each of the team members.
 - Using the correct leadership style.
 - Promoting the importance of team performance over individual performance.
 - Allowing the team members to be involved in the decision-making processes.

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Chapter 2.2: Sports Psychology: Stress, Arousal and Aggression

Stress, Arousal and Anxiety: Checking your understanding

1. Social facilitation is the positive effects an athlete receives by performing in front of others. (1 mark)
2. Anxiety is a feeling of apprehension when faced with a stimulus that is perceived as threatening. (1 mark)
3. State anxiety refers to how an individual reacts to a specific stressful situation (1 mark)
Trait anxiety refers to an individual's tendency to react to stress in a specific way (1 mark)
4. Maximum 3 marks for cognitive symptoms and maximum 3 marks for somatic symptoms.
 - Cognitive:**
 - Loss of concentration or focus (1 mark)
 - Confusion (1 mark)
 - Feelings of uneasiness (1 mark)
 - Negative thoughts (1 mark)
 - Feelings of weakness (1 mark)
 - Indecision (1 mark)
 - Feelings of being unsatisfied (1 mark)
 - Somatic:**
 - Headache (1 mark)
 - Muscular tension (1 mark)
 - Raised heart rate (1 mark)
 - Raised ventilation rate (1 mark)
 - Increased sweating (1 mark)
 - Feelings of nausea (1 mark)
 - Irritability (1 mark)
 - Increased need to urinate (1 mark)
 - Feelings of 'butterflies' in the stomach (1 mark)
 - Loss of appetite (1 mark)
5. 4 marks from the following:
 - An individual will respond to increases in arousal in different ways. (1 mark)
 - Different people have different optimal zones of arousal to produce their best performance. (1 mark)
 - Some athletes perform well at low levels of arousal. (1 mark)
 - Some athletes perform best at high levels of arousal. (1 mark)
 - The theory does not explain why some individuals perform better in certain situations. (1 mark)
6. 4 marks from the following:
 - The catastrophe theory suggests that as cognitive anxiety increases so does somatic anxiety. (1 mark)
 - This relationship lasts as long as somatic anxiety remains low. (1 mark)
 - If both cognitive and somatic anxiety are high, there will be a significant decrease in performance. (1 mark)
 - Performance levels can be salvaged through a reduction in anxiety. (1 mark)
 - If anxiety is not reduced, performance will totally deteriorate. (1 mark)

Measuring and Controlling Stress, Anxiety and Arousal: Checking your understanding

1.
 - Positive statements help improve self-efficacy. (1 mark)
 - Interpreting actions or stressors as positive reduces the negative impact that they have. (1 mark)
 - Positive self-talk improves task persistence. (1 mark)
2.
 - Lowers heart rate (1 mark)
 - Lowers ventilation rate (1 mark)
3. 1 mark for identification of technique and 1 mark for description.
 - **Progressive muscular relaxation** (1 mark)
 - The performer tenses a particular muscle or muscle group. After this tension has lasted for 10-15 seconds, that muscle is relaxed, allowing the tension to disappear. (1 mark)
 - **Biofeedback** (1 mark)
 - This enables the performer to control their arousal levels by understanding their physiological responses and how to control these. (1 mark)
 - **Breathing control** (1 mark)
 - Increasing the depth of breathing to lower breathing rate – focus is placed on the breath and away from the stressors. (1 mark)

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Aggression: Checking your understanding

1. Any suitable example where the performer aims to harm others e.g. a two-footed kick.
2. Aggression is behaviour which has the goal of harming others. (1 mark)
Assertion is forceful behaviour in order to achieve a goal, and does not include intent to harm.
3.
 - Aggression is solely the direct result of feeling frustrated. / Frustration inevitably leads to aggression. (1 mark)
 - A primary source of frustration is the obstruction of goal achievement. (1 mark)
 - Criticism: this hypothesis does not consider the other emotions associated with aggression. Aggressive behaviours can take place regardless of whether the athlete feels frustrated.
4. A rugby player may learn aggressive behaviour by seeing a close teammate acting aggressively. (1 mark)
5. 4 marks from the following:
 - Punishing a sporting club which regularly displays aggressive actions by assigning a fine.
 - Removing individuals from an individual situation where they may face (and potentially cause) harm.
 - Lowering the arousal levels of individuals to ensure that they are calmer when they return to the situation.
 - Educating players and teams about assertive behaviour and how this would improve their performance.
 - Rewarding non-aggressive actions can help to promote the avoidance of the aggressive behaviour.

Chapter 2.3: Sports Psychology: Motivation**Motivation: Checking your understanding**

1. Motivation is a willingness to exhibit a particular behaviour. (1 mark)
2. Intrinsic motivation comes from within the performer. (1 mark)
Extrinsic motivation comes from sources external to the performer. (1 mark)
3. Tangible rewards are materialistic (e.g. money and trophies). (1 mark)
Intangible rewards are non-physical rewards (e.g. praise from others / self-satisfaction).
4. Intrinsic motivation is the better type of motivation to use. (1 mark)
Intrinsic motivation has a longer-lasting effect on performers than extrinsic motivation.
5. Maximum 3 marks for characteristics of NAch and maximum 3 marks for characteristics of Naf.

NAch (need to achieve)

- Set clear goals (1 mark)
- Willing to take risks (1 mark)
- Use intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation (1 mark)
- Do not mind negative feedback (1 mark)
- Optimistic (1 mark)
- Confident (1 mark)

Naf (need to avoid failure)

- Do not have clear goals (1 mark)
- Unwilling to take risks (1 mark)
- Prefer extrinsic motivation to using intrinsic motivation (1 mark)
- Dislike negative feedback (1 mark)
- Pessimistic (1 mark)
- Low levels of self-confidence (1 mark)

Chapter 3: Skill Acquisition**Skill Continua, Theories of Learning and Transfer of Skills: Checking your understanding**

1. A gross skill is a skill that uses large muscular groups / requires power / accuracy.
Example: a rugby tackle / any other suitable example (1 mark)
2. **False** – externally paced skills are generally open skills. (1 mark)
3. Environmental influence (open–closed) (1 mark)

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4. **Difficult:** Complex (1 mark)
Complex as it requires a high level of coordination / a high number of complicated movements. (1 mark)
Environmental influence: Closed (1 mark)
Closed as it takes place in a predictable environment / largely internally paced. (1 mark)
Pacing: Internal (1 mark)
Internally paced as the timing and pace of the skill are under the performer's control. (1 mark)
Muscular involvement: Gross (1 mark)
Gross as it uses large muscular groups. (1 mark)
Continuity: Serial (1 mark)
Serial as the movements follow a specific sequence / consist of numerous discrete movements. (1 mark)
Organisation: High (1 mark)
High as complicated skills / need to be closely attended to. (1 mark)
5. Bilateral transfer concerns the transfer of skill from one side of the body to the other.
Example: a right-footed football player practising long passes with their left foot. (1 mark)
6.
 - By highlighting the key similarities and differences between the previously learned skill and the new skill. (1 mark)
 - Understand how to correctly adapt technique to fit the new skill. (1 mark)
 - It is important for the coach to begin with the basics of the new skill to allow the athlete to build confidence. (1 mark)
 - Ensure a full understanding of the skill. (1 mark)
 - Get the athlete to refine their main motor skills. (1 mark)
 - Ensuring the correct technique of main motor skills is used will allow a secure foundation for learning new skills. (1 mark)

Methods and Types of Practice: Checking your understanding

1. 3 marks from the following:
 - Combines part and whole methods. (1 mark)
 - The performer first learns the skill using the whole practice method... (1 mark)
 - ... before breaking down the subroutines of the skill and practising these using the part method. (1 mark)
 - Once these have been learned and the performer feels comfortable, the skill is then practised using the whole method. (1 mark)
2. Continuous / no breaks or discussion (1 mark)
Long duration (1 mark)
Simple skills are learned (1 mark)
3. 3 marks from the following:
 - Type: open skills (1 mark)
 - It allows the environment to be manipulated by the coach to allow the performer to practise the skill in potentially competitive situations. (1 mark)
 - It helps to improve the performer's decision-making skills. (1 mark)
 - The performer can learn the optimal responses to a number of situations. (1 mark)
4.
 - When rest periods are needed / when the participants have low fitness levels. (1 mark)
 - When there are clear opportunities for mental rehearsal to be implemented. (1 mark)
 - For more complicated skills / when discussion about the different subroutines of the skill is needed. (1 mark)
5. A type of internal feedback that involves detecting changes in body position and movement. (1 mark)
6.
 - a) Whole-part-whole / progressive-part (1 mark)
 - b) Whole practice (1 mark)
 - c) Varied practice (1 mark)
 - d) Distributed practice (1 mark)

Use of Guidance, Reinforcement and Feedback: Checking your understanding

1. The method of assistance that the coach provides to aid the learning of different skills. (1 mark)
2. Involves the coach verbally explaining how to complete a movement. (1 mark)
Can be used alongside visual guidance / It is important that the information that the learner receives is clear and easy to understand. (1 mark)
Advantages (1 mark from the following):
 - An effective guidance style when the learner is inexperienced and the skill is complex. (1 mark)
 - It can help the learner focus on the key individual parts of the movement. (1 mark)

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Disadvantages (1 mark from the following):

- It can overload the learner with information.
 - It is sometimes hard to describe technical aspects of a movement concisely.
3.
 - This involves the coach using equipment to guide a performer through a movement.
 - This is typically used during the same type of training as manual guidance / only for performers at an early stage of learning. (1 mark)
 - A swimmer holding a float in their hands so they can concentrate on the correct technique. (1 mark)
 4. Manual guidance involves the coach physically moving the athlete, whereas mechanical equipment to guide the athlete. (1 mark)
 5.
 - a)
 - Manual (1 mark): can improve confidence / more manageable. (1 mark)
 - OR
 - Mechanical (1 mark): provides a feel for movement / limits potential damage.
 - b)
 - Verbal (1 mark): good for targeting known weaknesses / providing additional feedback.
 - OR
 - Visual (1 mark): experienced learners will understand the visual movement better than individual aspects of movement. (1 mark)
 6.
 - Positive reinforcement – if the performance is successful, the individual is rewarded to reinforce the behaviour and encourages the individual to exhibit this behaviour in the future. (1 mark)
 - Negative performance – if the performance is unsuccessful, negative reinforcement involves the removal of an unpleasant stimulus. (1 mark)
 - Punishment – involves either the addition of a negative stimulus or withholding a positive stimulus.

Chapter 4: Sport and Society**Sport, Society and Culture and Government Use of Sport: Checking your understanding**

1. The beliefs, ideas or actions of a group of people within a society. (1 mark)
2. Society is the organised combination of individuals who live together. (1 mark)
3. A social institution is the ongoing behaviour of people in a society. (1 mark)
4.
 - Following rules and regulation – sport promotes the idea of respect to authority.
 - Discouraging violence – in many poorer areas sports clubs have been promoted out of trouble. (1 mark)
 - Importance of competition – sport can promote the idea of fair competition between opponents. (1 mark)
5. Students should identify the positive relationships between sport and the government as a political tool; 4 marks for suitable examples.
 - Meeting health guidelines (1 mark)
 - e.g. Successful performances inspire a nation to become active and participate in sport.
 - Increased funding for sport from government (1 mark)
 - e.g. Minority sports are given more coverage as a result of increased funding, showing a positive relationship between sports and the government. (1 mark)
 - Increased government approval ratings (1 mark)
 - The mood of the nation is improved when a sporting event is being hosted in the country. (1 mark)
 - Increased income for government / saving money (1 mark)
 - Sport provides large amounts of revenue from tourism, trade and investment.

Emergence of Sport and the Influence of Public School: Checking your understanding

1.
 - Violent (1 mark)
 - Unwritten/simple rules (1 mark)
 - Wagering (1 mark)
 - Local (1 mark)
 - Irregular (1 mark)
 - Participated in by the lower classes (1 mark)

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2. There was a clear distinction between the upper class and the lower class. (1 mark)
The upper class had disposable income which they could spend on participation in sport.
The lower class had longer working hours with poor pay, meaning that they could not afford to participate in sport.
3. The idea that a Christian with good moral beliefs should have a strong, healthy body.
4. Public schoolboys kept to a code of good sporting behaviour when participating in sport.
Respecting the opposition and competing with honour. (1 mark)
5. 5 marks from the following:
 - When schoolboys moved to university, they took games and sports with them.
 - University acted as a central point for a collection of ideas and games. (1 mark)
 - More structured games were made at university. (1 mark)
 - Students who later became masters at schools encouraged games to be played at schools.
 - Ex-public schoolboys also moved on to form sporting national governing bodies.

The Modern Olympics and Sport as a Political Tool: Checking your understanding

1. To allow everyone to have a fair opportunity to participate in sport (1 mark)
To promote the value of education via sport (1 mark)
To promote a peaceful society (1 mark)
To ensure that the spirit of the Games is maintained, with the value of sportsmanship.
2. The Olympic Games were originally seen as a competition for amateurs. (1 mark)
By the 1970s there was an increase in demand from viewers to see only the very best.
'Shamateurism' was the introduction of the athletes training full-time in preparation for the Games.
This idea spread to other countries as they attempted to compete with those paying professionals.
3. The Olympic Games were held in Berlin, Germany, in 1936. (1 mark)
Hitler used the Games to promote the Nazi ideology. (1 mark)
Jesse Owens, a black US sprinter and long jumper, won four gold medals. (1 mark)
Owens success embarrassed Hitler, as a black athlete being successful over the white supremacy ideology. (1 mark)
4. Apartheid had just been abolished in South Africa. (1 mark)
Apartheid had created huge tension throughout the country. (1 mark)
South Africa hosted and won the Rugby World Cup. (1 mark)
Nelson Mandela appeared wearing a South African rugby team shirt. (1 mark)
The South African rugby team was a primarily white team. This show of support helped bring the country back together. (1 mark)
5. An amateur is someone who takes part in a sport for enjoyment, and does not get paid.
A professional is someone who takes part in a sport for financial reward, with this as their main income. (1 mark)

Commercialisation, Social Differentiation and the Media in Sport: Checking your understanding

1. American football coach (Vince Lombardi) promoted the idea of 'winning at all costs'.
Modern sport has more technology and finances to enable people to 'win at all costs'.
2. Social stratification is the separation of a group of people within a particular society.
3. They cannot afford the associated costs, such as equipment, membership fees and transport.
This means that they do not have the opportunity to participate in sports. (1 mark)
4. Accept other suitable answers.
 - Kick It Out (1 mark)
 - Organisation that campaigns for the removal of all forms of discrimination from football.
 - Rainbow Laces (1 mark)
 - Encourages elite sport stars to wear rainbow-coloured laces in support of the campaign to reduce homophobia from sport (1 mark)
 - Adapted sports for disabilities (1 mark)
 - Many sports have been adapted to allow disabled people to participate in sports.

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