



**Course code: KHE103,**  
**Course title: Sociology and Psychology of Sports**

**COURSE DEVELOPER/WRITER**

Dr ABDULSALAM ABDULLAH  
DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL AND HEALTH  
EDUCATION  
FACULTY OF EDUCATION  
UNIVERSITY OF MAIDUGURI, BORNO STATE

**COURSE EDITOR**

PROFESSOR FIDEL OKOPI  
DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN KINETICS AND HEALTH  
EDUCATION  
NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA  
JABI ABUJA

## **INTRODUCTION**

The course guide provides comprehensive information on necessary steps to take in order to derive maximum benefits from the course material. The course covers different areas of sociology and psychology of sports such as sociology: Sociology of Physical Education & Sports; Social Significance of Sports; Social Theories of Sport; Sports as Socializing Agency; Social Phenomenon and Sports & Socialization. Other areas include Psychology; Sports Psychology; concept of Learning,; motivation; arousal and anxiety. At the end of each unit, there are Tutor-Marked Assignments that constitute integral part of your evaluation.

## **WHAT YOU WILL LEARN IN THIS COURSE**

Sports sociology is a sub-discipline of sociology which focuses on sports as social phenomena. It is an area of study concerned with the relationship between sociology and sports, and also various socio-cultural structures, patterns, and organizations or groups involved with sport. This area of study discusses the positive impact sports have on

individuals and society as a whole economically, financially, and socially. Sociology of sport attempts to view the actions and behaviour of sports teams and their players through the eyes of a sociologist. While Sport psychology is an inter-disciplinary science that draws on knowledge from many related fields including biomechanics, physiology, kinesiology and psychology. It involves the study of how psychological factors affect performance and how participation in sport and exercise affect psychological and physical factors. Sport psychologists teach cognitive and behavioural strategies to athletes in order to improve their experience and performance in sports. In addition to instruction and training of psychological skills for performance improvement.

Therefore, it is important for prospective sports administrators and participants to have a perfect understanding of the concepts and theories of sociology and psychology. You will learn about the various concepts and theories in sports sociology and psychology, their applications in sports administration in Nigeria, as well as experience in developed economies of the world.

## **COURSE AIMS**

The aim of the course briefly put, is to equip you with necessary skills to function effectively as sports administrators and participants that would influence policy decisions in areas of sports administration for optimum performance of athletes

This will be achieved through:

- Introduction of students to foundational issues in sociology.
- Exposure to theories and approaches to sociology.
- Introduction of students to concepts of sport sociology
- Introduction of students to foundational issues in psychology
- Exposure to the theories of psychology and their applications to sport and exercise management

## **COURSE OUTLINES**

In order to achieve the aims of the course outlined above, there are specific objectives that are clearly stated at the beginning of each unit in the course material. Through this approach it would be very easy for you to determine the extent to which you have achieved the objectives stated at the end of each unit.

On successful completion of this course, you would be able to:

- Define sport and. Explain the reasons for studying sport
- Highlight social significances of sports
- Explain the theories of sport sociology
- Apply theories to everyday life
- Describe the relation between sociology and science;
- Appraise the relation between sociology and other social sciences;
- Give in brief the ideas about the founding fathers of sociology such as, Comte, Durkheim, Weber, and Marx.
- Highlight the roles of sport as a social institution?
- Describe how do sport organizations contribute to social integrity?
- Identify the contributions of sport to reproduce social inequalities in society?
- Understand the types of interactions are seen in competitive sport?
- Explain the contributions of sport to diminish social inequality in society
- Itemise ways to proof that sport is an agent of socialization.
- Explain the concept of psychology

- Outline the basic schools of psychology and how each school has contributed to psychology
- Define sport psychology and narrate briefly the history of sport psychology Explain psychological factors that are affecting sports
- Define and explain the concept of learning
- Understand the relevance of theories of learning describe the types of learning
- Define motivation
- Explain the role of motivation in sports
- Describe the types and methods of motivation
- Understand the importance of motivation
- Define key terms including arousal and anxiety
- Distinguish between state and trait anxiety and between cognitive and somatic anxiety
- Understand the influences on arousal and anxiety, including both situational and individual factors
- Describe and evaluate theories of the relationship between arousal and performance, including drive theory and the inverted-
- Distinguish between cognitive and somatic anxiety.

- Describe how cognitive anxiety affects performance.
- What kinds of factors determine the amount of anxiety an athlete experiences?
- Explain how drive theory can be used to understand the relationship between arousal and performance.

## **WORKING THROUGH THIS COURSE**

It is expected that before the completion of this course you must have read the study units, textbooks and other prescribed materials for this course. Each unit also contains Tutor- Marked Assignment that will form part of your personal assessment on this course. Assignments and class works will be given periodically, and final examination will be conducted after the completion of the course.

## **COURSE MATERIALS**

The major components of the course are:

1. Course outline
2. Course guide
3. Study units
4. Textbooks

## **STUDY UNITS**

There are twelve units in this course and they are arranged in the following sequential order:

Unit 1. Meaning of Sociology and Scope of Sociology

Unit 2. Sociology of Physical Education & Sports

Unit 3. Social Significance of Sports

Unit 4. Social Theories of Sport

Unit 5. Sports as Socializing Agency

Unit 6. Social Phenomenon

Unit 7. Sports & Socialization

Unit 8. Meaning & Scope of Psychology

Unit 9. Sports Psychology and Psychological factors effecting Physical  
Education

Unit 10. Meaning & Nature of Learning, Laws of learning ,type of  
learning curve

Unit 11. Motivation

Unit 12. Arousal and Anxiety

Each unit consists of introduction, objectives, main content, conclusion, summary, Tutor-Marked Assignments, references and



suggested textbooks for further reading. The Assessment exercises are meant to assist you in achieving the stated objectives for each unit as well as the overall objectives of the course.

## **TEXTBOOKS**

There are many books on this course but you are advised to read current and relevant textbook on the course. You will find the under listed titles useful.

Serra,P.(2015).Sociologyofsport;<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/282124548>

Coakley, J. (1990) Sport in Society: Issues and Controversies, (4thed.).  
St. Louis: Mosby

Shields, D. L. &Bredemeier, B. L. (1995) Character Development and Physical Activity. Human Kinetics, Champaign, IL.

Harris, J. (1998). The nurture assumption: Why children turn out the way they do. New York, NY: Touchstone Books;

Pinker, S. (2002).The blank slate: The modern denial of human nature.  
New York, NY: Penguin Putnam.

Wegner, D. M. (2002).The illusion of conscious will. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Fiske, S. T. (2003). *Social beings*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Hunt, M. (1993). *The story of psychology*. New York, NY: Anchor Books.

James, W. (1890). *The principles of psychology*. New York, NY: Dover.

Dennett, D. (1995). *Darwin's dangerous idea: Evolution and the meanings of life*. New York, NY:

Simon and Schuster; Tooby, J., & Cosmides, L. (1992). *The psychological foundations of culture*. In J. H. Barkow & L. Cosmides (Eds.), *the adapted mind: Evolutionary psychology and the generation of culture* (p. 666). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

## **ASSESSMENT**

As part of the evaluation mechanisms, this course Tutor-Marked Assignments (TMAS) out of which would be used for the Continuous Assessment for this course. The TMAs are compulsory and you are advised to attempt and submit all the assignments as at when due, as they will be graded accordingly and converted to 30%, which will be added to your total course mark. The course material and other books recommended for further reading will be of tremendous assistance to

you in undertaking these Tutor-Marked Assignments. The final examination will be based on your performance in the course work and dissertation. It is therefore desirable that you put in your best in every facet of the programme. This is because your poor performance in any of the assignments listed in the course will have negative impact on your overall grading.

Evaluation of the course would consist of Tutor-Marked Assignment and End of Course examination. The TMA constitute 30% of the Total Credit Units score. The End of Course examination is 70%.

## **HOW TO GET THE MOST BENEFITS FROM THIS COURSE**

1. In distance learning, the study units are equivalent to lectures in the conventional universities where there is face to face contact between lecturers and students during lectures. This is one of the advantages of distance learning, since you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace, and at a time and place that suit you best. The study materials stand in place of the teachers. Think of it as if the teacher s standing in front of you. In the same way a

lecturer might give you some reading to do, the study units tell you when and what to read. You are provided with self assessment exercises to ascertain your level of understanding of each of the units, just as a teacher might give his students an in class activity.

2. Each of the study units follows a uniform format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit, and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole. Next to this is a set of learning objectives. These objectives allow you to know what you should do, by the time you have completed the unit. The learning units are meant to guide your study. The moment a unit is finished, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives.

3. The following is a practical strategy for working through the course material. If you run into trouble, telephone your course facilitator or visit the study centre nearest to you. Remember that the course material is a self-study manual, therefore your facilitator is to assist you any time you need clarification on the content of the course material.

Read this course guide thoroughly, it is your first assignment.

4. Organise a study schedule. Design a 'Course Overview' to guide you through the Course. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units.

Important information, e.g., details of your tutorials, and the date of the first day of the Semester is available at the study centre.

You need to gather all the information in one place, such as your diary or wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to adopt must be written down with dates and schedule of work for each unit.

5. Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything to stay faithfully to it. The major reason accountable for students' failure is due to inability to adhere strictly to schedule. If you are having difficulties with your schedule, don't hesitate to contact your course facilitator before it is too late.

6. Review the objectives for each study units to confirm that you have achieved them. If you are not sure about any of the objectives, review the study material or consult either your facilitator or the study centre counsellor. When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through

the course and try to space your study so that you can keep yourself on schedule.

## **TUTOR AND TUTORIALS**

The mode of instructional delivery will be bi-modal, that is, the programme will be partly face-to-face and partly at a distance. You will be notified of the dates, times and location for the face-to-face contact.

## **SUMMARY**

This course intends to introduce you to Sociology and Psychology of sports. Upon completing the course, you will be equipped with basic knowledge and skills that will place you in the status of effective and efficient sport administrator. It will also enable you to influence policy decisions geared towards resource mobilisation for quality sport delivery.

## **Volume 1 Sociology of Sports**

### **Module One**

Sport, at a social, recreational or competitive elite level, can be considered as a microcosm, or small-scale version, of society. The same social issues that exist in larger society also exist in sport. The

sociology of sport uses essential and conflicting approaches that force us to explore alternative ways of viewing the place and organization of sport in our society and how issues and problems presented by sports in society affect individuals. In this module you will be acquainted with the listed units below:

Unit I. Meaning of Sociology and Scope of Sociology

Unit II. Sociology of Physical Education & Sports

Unit III. Social Significance of Sports

Unit IV. Social Theories of Sport

**Unit I. Meaning of Sociology and Scope of Sociology**

## CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Meaning of Sociology

3.2 Scope of Sociology

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

## 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

## 7.0 References

### **1.0. INTRODUCTION**

Sociology is the study of humans in societies, their values, relationships, beliefs and interactions. It also focuses on institutions and people that dictate how we act and behave. Sport has a huge influence on the lives of millions of people, from activities in which they participate, channels they watch on the television to how they interact with other people.

This unit aims to apply the principles of sociology to sport to explain how sport is shaped by society and how, in turn, it impacts our behaviour and relationships. You will learn different sociological theories and how they apply to sport before looking at the influences and impacts that sports and society can have on each other and the role the media has to play in it all.

### **2.0. Objectives:**

By the end of the lesson, the students will be able to:-

1. Explain the meaning and define sociology



2. Explain the nature and scope of sociology

### **3.0. Main Content**

#### **3.1. Meaning of Sociology**

Sociology is the scientific study of society, including patterns of social relationships, social interaction, and culture. The term sociology was first used by Frenchman Auguste Comte in the 1830s when he proposed a synthetic science uniting all knowledge about human activity (Craig, 2002). In the academic world, sociology is considered one of the social sciences.

According to Zerihun (2005) sociology may be generally defined as a social science that studies such kinds of phenomena as:

- The structure and function of society as a system;
- The nature, complexity and contents of human social behaviour;
- The fundamentals of human social life; Interaction of human beings with their external environment;
- The indispensability of social interactions for human development;
- How the social world affects us, etc.

Team of Experts (2000). defines sociology in a formal as may be that, it is a social science which studies the processes and patterns of human individual and group interaction, the forms of organization of social groups, the relationship among them, and group influences on individual behaviour, and vice versa, and the interaction between one social group and the other.

Sociology is the scientific study of society, which is interested in the study of social relationship between people in group context. Sociology is interested in how human beings interact with each other (the pattern of social interaction); the laws and principles that govern social relationship and interactions; influence of the social world on the individuals, and vice versa (Ibid.). It deals with a factually observable subject matter, depends upon empirical research, and involves attempts to formulate theories and generalizations that will make sense of facts (Giddens, 1996).

### 3.2. Nature and Scope of Sociology

#### 3.2.1. Nature of Sociology:

In nature of sociology investigation is on, what type of subject Sociology is? Is sociology a science, or an art or what? To answer this

question, Robert Bierstadt (1970) enlisted the following characteristics of sociology in his book “The Social Order”:

Sociology is an independent science. Sociology like any other discipline have its own area of study and not fully dependent on other discipline. Sociology is a social science not a physical science. Social sciences focus on various aspect of human society while physical sciences deal with natural phenomena. Thus Sociology is a social science as it deals with man and his social activities. Sociology is a categorical and not a normative discipline. Sociology is value-free. It is only interested in ‘what is’ and not ‘what should be’ or ‘ought to be’. Sociology is pure science and not an applied science. As a Pure science it is only interested in acquisition of knowledge, it has nothing to do with application of that knowledge. Like Physics is a pure science while engineering is its application. Sociology is relatively an abstract science and not a concrete science. It studies the society in an abstract (Theoretical not physical) way. Like, Sociology is not interested in particular families but in family as a social institution that exists in all societies. Sociology is a generalizing science and not a particularizing science. Sociology is not interested in particular events rather it studies

events in a general way. Example: History study French Revolution but Sociology will be interested in revolutions in general. Sociology is a general science and not a special social science. Like Economy or Political Science, Sociology does not focus on only one aspect of human activity. As it has to deal with society it includes all aspects of human life in a general way. Sociology is both a rational and an empirical science. It studies the social phenomena in scientific way. It is based on reason (logic), observation and experimentation.

### 3.2.2. Scope of Sociology:

Scope means the subject matter or the areas of study or the boundaries of a subject. What we have to study in a particular subject is known as its scope. Every science has its own field of inquiry. It becomes difficult to study a science systematically unless its boundary or scope is determined precisely. Sociology as a social science has its own scope or boundaries. But there is no one opinion about the scope of Sociology. However, there are two main schools of thought regarding the scope of Sociology: (1) The Specialist or Formalistic school and (2) the Synthetic school. There is a good deal of controversy about the scope of Sociology.

### 3.2.3. Two different views about the scope of Sociology:

There is no one opinion about the scope of Sociology. V. F. Culbertson writes as cited by Zerihun (2005), “Since Sociology is so elastic a science, it is difficult to determine just where its boundaries begin and end, where sociology becomes social psychology and where social psychology becomes sociology, or where economic theory becomes sociological doctrine or biological theory becomes sociological theory, something, which is impossible to decide.” It is maintained by some that Sociology studies everything and anything under the sun. This is rather too vague a view about the scope of Sociology. As a matter of fact, Sociology has a limited field of enquiry and deals with those problems which are not dealt with by other social sciences.

In the broadest sense, Sociology is the study of human interactions and inter-relations, their conditions and consequences. Thus ideally Sociology has for its field the whole life of man in society, all the activities whereby men maintained ‘themselves in the struggle for existence, the rules and regulations which define their relations to each other, the systems of knowledge and belief, art and morals and any

other capacities and habits acquired and developed in the course of their activities as members of society.

But this is too wide a scope for any science to deal with properly. An attempt has, therefore, been made to limit and demarcate the field of Sociology. There are two main schools of thought among sociologists on this issue.

One group of writers headed by German sociologist, Simmel (1971), demarcates Sociology clearly from other branches of social study and confines it to the enquiry into certain defined aspects of human relationship. They regard sociology as pure and independent.

The other groups maintain that, the field of social investigation is too wide for any one science and that if any progress is to be made there must be specialization and division and insist that in addition to special social sciences such as Economics, Anthropology, History etc. There is need also of a general social science, i.e. Sociology whose function it would be to inter-relate the results of the special social sciences and to deal with the general conditions of social life. In the opinion of this group Sociology is a general science. Let us discuss these two different views about the scope of Sociology in details.

### **3.2.4. Specialist or Formalistic School:**

According to Simmel (1971), the distinction between Sociology and other special sciences is that it deals with the same topics as they from a different angle—from the angle of different modes of social relationships.

Social relationships, such as competition, subordination, division of labour etc. are exemplified in different spheres of social life such as economic, the political and even the religious, moral or artistic but the business of Sociology is to disentangle these forms of social relationships and to study them in abstraction. Thus according to Simmel, Sociology is a specific social science which describes, classifies, analyses and delineates the forms of social relationships.

According to Small (1902), sociology does not undertake to study all the activities of society. Every science has a delimited scope. The scope of sociology is the study of the generic forms of social relationships, behaviours and activities, etc.

Similarly, Zerihun (2005) reported that Vierkandt, another leading sociologist maintains that, Sociology is a special branch of knowledge concerned with the ultimate forms of mental or psychic relationships

which link men to one another in society. According to him, the actual historical societies, for example, the French society of the eighteenth century, or the Chinese family are of interest to a sociologist only as illustration of particular types of relationships.

He further maintains that similarly in dealing with culture sociology should not concern itself with the actual contents of cultural evolution but it should confine itself to only the discovery of the fundamental forces of change and persistence. It should abstain from a historical study of concrete societies.

Max Weber (1946) also makes out a definite field for Sociology. According to him, the aim of Sociology is to interpret or understand social behaviour. But social behaviour does not cover the whole field of human relations. Indeed not all human inter-actions are social.

For instance, a collision between two cyclists is in itself merely a natural phenomenon, but their efforts to avoid each other or the language they use after the event constitute true social behaviour. Sociology is thus, according to him, concerned with the analysis and classification of types of social relationships.



According to Van Wiese, the scope of Sociology is the study of forms of social relationships. He has divided these social relationships into many kinds (Zerihun (2005)).

Tonnies (2001) also has supported the formalistic school. He has differentiated between society and community on the basis of forms of relationships. He interpreted social processes quantitatively and gave a mathematical formula. According to him:—

$$P = A \times S$$

P = Social Processes

A = Attitude

S = Situation

Attitude is made up of

$A = N \times E$  (N = Basic social nature (E = Previous experience)

$S = B \times A$  (B = Geographical conditions) = (A = attitude of the participants)

Thus, according to the formalistic school, sociology studies one specific aspect of social relationships, i.e., their forms in their abstract nature, and not in any concrete situation. A comparison is drawn

between the forms of social relationships and a bottle. A bottle may be either of plastic or any other material (Zerihun (2005).

It may contain milk; water etc. but the contents of the bottle do not change the form of bottle. Similarly, the forms of social relationships do not change with the change in the content of social relationships, for example, the study of competition—a form of social relationship will not make any difference whether we study it in the political field or economic field.

Sociology has been compared with Geometry. Just as Geometry studies about the forms of physical things triangular, rectangular, square or circular etc., similarly Sociology studies about the forms of social relationships.

The relation of Sociology to other social sciences is similar to the relation of Geometry with other natural sciences. The formalistic school has limited the scope of Sociology to the abstract study of the forms of social relationships.

#### 3.2.4. Criticisms of formalistic school:

The formalistic school can be criticized on the following grounds:

(i) It has narrowed the scope of sociology:

The formalistic school has limited the field of sociology to merely abstract forms. Sociology besides studying the general forms of social relationships should also study the concrete contents of social life.

(ii) Abstract forms separated from concrete relations cannot be studied: Ginsberg (1961) is of view that Simmer's thesis that function of Sociology is to study the social relationships in abstraction is not correct. He maintains that a study of social relationships would remain barren if it is conducted in the abstract without full knowledge of the terms to which in concrete life they relate.

The study of competition, for example, will be hardly of any use unless it is studied in concrete form in economic life or in the world of art and knowledge. He is of the opinion that, the scope of Sociology should not be limited to the study of social relationships in general but it should be widened by the addition of the study of these relationships as embodied in the different spheres of culture under special sociologies like the Sociology of Religion, of Art, of Law and of Knowledge etc.

Actually social forms cannot be abstracts from the content at all, since social forms keep on changing as the content change. In the words of

Sorokin (1943), “We may fill a glass with wine, water or sugar without changing its form, but I cannot conceive of a social institution whose form would not change when its members change.”

Likewise its comparison with Geometry:

(i) misconceived because whereas in Geometry the forms of physical things are definite, in Sociology the forms of social relationship are not definite.

(ii) The conception of pure sociology is impractical:

The formalistic school has conceived of pure sociology but none of the sociologists has so far been able to construct a pure sociology. As a matter of fact, no social science can be studied in isolation from other social sciences.

(iii) Sociology alone does not study social relationship:

Sociology is not the only science which studies social relationships. Political Science, Economics and International Law also study social relationships.

Thus the formalistic school has extremely narrowed and confined the fields of sociology.

### **3.2.5. Synthetic School:**

The synthetic school wants to make sociology a synthesis of the social sciences or a general science, Durkheim, Hob-house and Sorokin (1943) subscribe to this view.

According to Durkheim, Sociology has three principal divisions, viz., (i) Social Physiology and (iii) General Sociology. Social Morphology is concerned with geographical or territorial basis of the life of people and its relation to types of social organizations and the problems of populations such as its volume and density, local distribution and the like (The Free Press,1984).

Social physiology is divided into a number of branches such as Sociology of Religion, of Morals, of Laws, of Economic life, of Language etc. Every one of these branches of Sociology deals with a set of social facts, that is activities related to the various social groups. The function of the General Sociology is to discover the general character of these social facts and to determine whether there are any general social laws of which the different laws established by the special social sciences are particular expressions.

Hob-house (1913) also holds a view similar to that of Durkheim regarding the functions of Sociology. Ideally, for him Sociology is a synthesis of numerous social studies but the immediate task of the sociologist is threefold.

Firstly, as a sociologist, he must pursue his studies in his particular part of the social field. But secondly, bearing in mind the interconnections of social relations he should try to interconnect the results arrived at by the different social sciences and, thirdly, he should interpret social life as a whole.

According to Sorokin (1943), the subject matter of Sociology includes:

- (i) The study of relationship between the different aspects of social phenomena;
- (ii) The study of relationship between the social and non-social;
- (iii) The study of general features of social phenomena.

Karl Mannheim (1997) divides Sociology into two main sections:

- (i) Systematic and General Sociology, and (ii) Historical Sociology.

Systematic and General Sociology describes one by one the main factors of living together as far as they may be found in every kind of society.

The historical sociology deals with the historical variety and actuality of the general forms of society. Historical Sociology falls into two main sections: firstly comparative sociology and secondly, social dynamics.

Comparative Sociology deals mainly with the historical variations of the same phenomenon and tries to find by comparison general features as separated from industrial features. Social dynamics deals with the interrelations between the various social factors and institutions in a certain given society, for instance, in a primitive society.

Ginsberg (1961) has summed up the chief functions of sociology as follows.

Firstly, Sociology seeks to provide a classification of types and forms of social relationships especially of those which have come to be defined institutions and associations.

Secondly, it tries to determine the relation between different parts of factors of social life, for example, the economic and political, the moral

and the religious, the moral and the legal, the intellectual and the social elements.

Thirdly, it endeavours to disentangle the fundamental conditions of social change and persistence and to discover sociological principles governing social life.

#### **2.4. Branches of Sociology:**

Society is vast and complex phenomenon and, therefore, it is generally debatable that, which part of society should be studied by Sociology. There is a great degree of difference of opinion regarding the definitions, scope and subject matter of Sociology.

**According to Durkheim (1895), Sociology has broadly three principal divisions which he terms as:**

- (a) Social morphology, (b) Social physiology, and (c) General Sociology.

**Social morphology** covers the geographical settings, the density of population and other preliminary data which is likely to influence the social aspects.



**Social physiology** is concerned with such dynamic processes as religion, morals, law, economic and political aspects, etc., each of which may be the subject matter of a special discipline. General Sociology is an attempt to discover the general social laws which may be derived from the specialized social processes. This is considered by Durkheim as the philosophical part of Sociology.

Max Weber (1946) combines two schools of thought, i.e., historical and systematic and he adds something more. His analysis with regard to relations between Economics and Religion enables him to use both historical as well as systematic method. The sociologies of law, economics and religion are the special Sociologies which are the part of both systematic and historical methods of study.

**According to Sorokin, Sociology can be divided into two branches:**

**(a) General Sociology and (b) Special Sociology.**

**General Sociology studies**

- (i) The properties and uniformities common to all social and cultural phenomena in their structural and dynamic aspects and
- (ii) The inter-relationships between the socio-cultural and biological phenomena.

In the structural aspect Sociology studies various types of groups and institutions as well as their inter-relations to one another. In the dynamic aspect, Sociology studies various social processes like social contact, interaction, socialization, conflict, domination, subordination, etc.

The special sociologies study a specific socio-cultural phenomenon which is selected for detailed study. According to Sorokin(1943), some of the most developed sociologies are: Sociology of population,- rural Sociology, urban Sociology, Sociology of family; Sociology of law, Sociology of religion, Sociology of knowledge, Sociology of war, Sociology of revolution, Sociology of disorganization, Sociology of fine arts, Sociology of economic phenomena and many others.

According to Sorokin(1943), 'Though Sociology is a generalizing science dealing with the socio-cultural universe as a whole, this does not mean that it is an encyclopaedic survey of the social sciences or that it is a vague philosophical synthesis.

The study of the common and current properties, relationship and uniformities of socio-cultural phenomenon involves as much specialization as does a study of the unique or segmentary traits and

relationships. In spite of its generalizing nature, Sociology remains a strictly special science”.

Ginsberg (1961) has listed the problems of Sociology under four aspects:

(i) Social morphology, (ii) social control, (iii) social processes and (iv) Social pathology. Social morphology includes investigation of the quantity and quality of population, the study of social structure or the description and classification of the principal types of social groups and institutions.

Social control includes the study of law, morals, religion, conventions, fashions and other sustaining and regulating agencies. Social processes refer to the study of various modes of interactions between individuals or groups including cooperation and conflict, social differentiation and integration, development and decay.

Social pathology refers to the study social maladjustments and disturbances. In a latter article, Ginsberg refers to the major problems of Sociology in three categories, i.e., (i) social structure, (ii) social functions and control and (iii) social change, which are discussed below:

(i) Social structure is concerned with the principal forms of social organization, i.e., types of groups, associations and institutions and the complexes of these which constitute societies. The study of social structure should include demography, that is, the branch of study concerned with various aspects of human population and how they affect or are affected by the social relations.

(ii) The category of social functions and social control refers to the working of the social structures which also analyses that how social structures are regulated and sustained. This includes a study of law, morals, religion, convention and various other forms of social control.

(iii) The sub-division of the social change refers to the study of short term and long term trends in the life of societies including the problems of development and decay of societies and finally development of mankind as a whole.

There are a number of perspectives in Sociology for the study of human society. It is difficult to classify them under a few categories. Sorokin refers to nine major schools of thought in Sociology, which are further divided into various sub-categories.

The major schools of thoughts in Sociology mentioned by Sorokin (1943) are as follows:

1. Mechanistic school
2. Synthetic school
3. Geographical school
4. Biological school
5. Bio-social school
6. Bio-psychological school
7. Psychological school
8. Psycho-sociological school

According to Zerihun (2005), Don Martindale has mentioned five main schools of thought in Sociology which are further divided into sub-schools. These are: (i) positivistic organicism, (ii) conflict theory, (iii) formal school, (iv) social behaviourism, (v) sociological functionalism. Sorokin (1943) has referred to the main currents of recent sociological thoughts in the following four branches of Sociology: (i) cosmo-Sociology, (ii) bio-Sociology, (iii) general sociology and (iv) special sociologies.

**(i) Cosmo-Sociology:**

This division of Sociology discusses the relationships between various types of geographic conditions and the socio-cultural phenomena, e.g., the relationship between climate, topography, etc., on various social aspects of human population.

**(ii) Bio-Sociology:**

This division deals with three major aspects—(a) it tries to analyse various aspects in which the social organism can be considered as similar or dissimilar from the biological organism, (b) it focuses on the role of biological factors like race and heredity upon the socio-cultural life, and (c) the demographic school deals with the influence of various aspects of human populations on various socio-cultural phenomena.

**(iii) General Sociology:**

In this branch there are three main sub-divisions, i.e., mechanistic, psychological and sociological or socio-cultural. Mechanistic school applies the laws of physical sciences to the social sciences. The psychological school attempts to analyse the psychological aspects of socio-cultural phenomena. The socio-cultural school focuses attention on the socio-cultural aspect. As such, the major task of this sub-

division refers to three main areas of enquiry: (a) analysis of basic characteristics of socio-cultural phenomena in its structural aspect, (b) a study of the major and repetitive forms of social processes and their dynamic aspects and (c) description of the uniform social relationship and interdependence between various aspects of socio-cultural phenomena. According to Sorokin, this school, that is, general Sociology is concerned with real Sociology.

## **2.5. Nature of Sociology, is it a Science or Not?**

Two opposite views about the nature of science. There is a great controversy about the nature of Sociology as a science. There are some critics who deny Sociology the claim to be regarded as a science. But there are others who assert that Sociology is as much a science as other social sciences like Political Science, History, Economics, etc.

### **2.5.1 The Meaning of Science:**

A science is “a branch of knowledge or study dealing with a body of facts or truths systematically arranged and showing the operation of general laws”. It gathers facts and links them together in their causal sequence with a view to draw valid inferences.

Scientific knowledge is based on reason and evidence. It is therefore variable and communicable. The chief characteristics of a science are: (i) the possibility of a concise, consistent and concrete formulation, (ii) the capacity to form generalizations and make predictions, and (iii) the possibility of verification of the data as well as of the generalizations. The various steps used in the scientific method are observation, recording, classification, hypothesis, verification and prediction.

According to William Esslinger as cited in Zerihun (2005), however what distinguishes a science is that “it is exclusively and methodically based on reason”. Experimentation and prediction are not its requirements. It only signifies the existence of systematic methods of enquiry. According to Huxley also, science is a systematic body of knowledge based on reason and evidence (Zerihun, 2005).

**2.5.2. Sociology cannot be regarded as a Science:** Those who deny the claim of sociology to be designated as a science advance the following objections:

(i) Lack of experimentation:

If science is used in the same sense in which it is used for physical sciences, then sociology cannot claim to be a science. The term science



as used for physical sciences includes the twin processes of experiment and prediction. Sociology in this sense is not a science because its subject-matter, the human relationships, we can neither catch nor see; neither weigh nor analyse in the test-tube of the laboratory.

It does not possess the instruments like the microscope and the thermometer to measure the human behaviour. Sprott (1953) has remarked, “If you cannot experiment, if you cannot measure, if you cannot establish broad unifying hypotheses and if you cannot be confident in your social engineering, you cannot be said to be engaged in scientific study at all”.

There is no denying the fact that sociology cannot experiment and predict in the same way in which physical sciences do, because the materials with which society deals i.e., human behaviour and relationships are so peculiar and uncertain. There are sentiments not to be questioned. They are not even to be studied dispassionately; for instance, subjects like sex life and religion evoke great controversies.

An investigator dealing with a controversial subject becomes the victim of censure by those who hold different views. If it is prohibition, cow-slaughter, abortion, birth control or untouchability he must be

either for or against them. Any dispassionate analysis by him is likely to antagonise both the sides.

Furthermore, Society is so complex and variable that it is not possible to separate and analyse its different elements as can be done in physical sciences. We can analyse the composition of water as two parts of hydrogen and one part of oxygen and illustrate by means of experiment in any laboratory of the world. But such experimentations in the laboratory sense in sociology is often difficult and impossible.

**(ii) Lack of objectivity:**

The second difficulty of sociology in employing the scientific method is that he cannot maintain complete objectivity with the objects of his experiment as does a physicist. Man has his own prejudice and bias. It is, therefore, not possible for him to observe his subject with complete detachment.

It is really difficult to dissociate ourselves from the assumptions which we have absorbed from childhood with regard to any objects. Our valuations are consequently bound to be prejudicial. Moreover, if a person tries to maintain objectivity in the study of human behaviour, he is quickly branded as an agnostic, traitor or worse.

Instead of public support for his work, he may be faced with public hostility. To protect himself then he accepts certain social values and eliminate from his study the phenomenon that form a sociological point of view and are the most fundamental basis of social existence.

Thirdly, social relationships cannot be studied through physical senses. What we see in social relationships is only an outward expression of our inner life. A sociologist has, therefore, to concern himself also with the working of the inner mind of his subject in order to understand his external actions properly. A physicist is not confronted with such a complex phenomenon.

### **(iii) Lack of exactitude**

Another characteristic of science is that it should be able to frame certain laws on the basis of observation and hypothesis and such laws should also enable us to predict accurately. From this point of view also Sociology cannot be called a real science because firstly its laws and conclusions cannot be expressed in precise terms and secondly its prediction might not come true. Its findings are often limited in time and space. Owing to the fact that social phenomenon is too vast, human

motivations are complex; it is difficult to make predictions about human behaviour.

In view of the above obstacles confronting social science it is said that there is no such thing, at best there are merely 'social studies'. Others believe that dispassionate study of social phenomena is not possible, the investigator cannot be neutral, she or he must take sides. Without neutral analysis science is impossible.

### **Terminological Inefficiency:**

It has also been argued that Sociology suffers from inexact and clear terminology. Same words convey different meaning to different persons, for example, the terms 'caste' and 'class' have not yet acquired exact meaning. The recent judgment of the Supreme Court in the Mandal case has held that the concept of class cannot be separated from caste (Zerihun, 2005).

Is caste a class? The confusion has not yet been removed. Words are essential tools of thought, scientific or otherwise. Sociology has not yet developed an adequate set of scientific terms.

Many of our terms like religion, caste, class, and group are words found in everyday use. Until we cease to employ terms with vague meanings,

our terminological in efficiency will remain an obstacle in the way of sociology developing into a science.

## **2.6. Sociology is a Science:**

There is an element of truth in what the critics say. Indeed, a scientific study of social phenomena is not free from difficulties. Social studies, by their very nature, cannot perhaps be as exact or natural as physical sciences. But the critics overlook their case when they deny any possibility of Sociology becoming scientific. Perhaps they assume that, exactness of conclusions and capacity to predict alone makes a study scientific. This betrays a rather inadequate comprehension of the nature of science. Meteorology fails to make accurate prediction. Shall we deny it the designation of science?

In other words, universal validity of conclusions and a complete accuracy of prediction are not the criteria of science, what determines the scientific character of a discipline, is its methodology. If the methods of a study are scientific, the subject deserves the rank of a science. Sociology does make use of scientific methods in the study of its subject-matter and it is therefore, entitled to be called a science.

Firstly, though Sociology cannot experiment with men directly in a laboratory, its social behaviour is amenable to scientific investigation as any other natural phenomenon. It is conducting many experiments indirectly with their consent in certain specific fields, particularly, in the fields of industry.

Moreover, Sociology does employ scientific methods as scales of Socio-metric, Schedule Questionnaire, Interview and Case History which apply quantitative measurements to social phenomenon and which are, therefore, comparable to the method of experimentation, for instance, if we want to know whether families with low incomes have more infant deaths, we collect statistics. Sociology has quite adequate methods. The difficulty lies in getting the data for the process is very costly.

Secondly, two other basic methods of scientific investigation, observation and comparison, are readily available to the sociologist and she or he uses them all the time.

Thirdly, all the physical sciences do not employ laboratory experimentation. Astronomy, for example, cannot experiment with its

materials. The heavenly bodies cannot be induced to put in an appearance in the laboratory.

If astronomy, in spite of its inability to experiment with its material in laboratory, could be termed as a science, there is no justification to deny the title of science to Sociology. Newton and Archimides did not invent their laws in the laboratories. The obstacles placed in the way of sociologist come not from the subject-matter itself but from the limitations placed on him by his own society.

Fourthly, Sociology does frame laws and attempts to predict. It endeavours to discover laws that are generally applicable, regardless of variations-in culture; for instance, the law that the social practices of a community are considered right by the group because they are in the 'mores'; not that the practices are in the 'mores' because they are right; that people always regulate marriage in such a manner as to prevent incest.

These are the principles whose validity can be examined by anyone. They are universal. Moreover, no science can boast of making infallible predictions. Many of the theories established by the other sciences had to be modified with the change of time.

As remarked by Sprott (1953), “The changes in theory which have followed one another so swiftly have made us less certain that what ‘science teaches’ today will be what science will teach tomorrow”. In some areas of social life prediction to a limited extent has been possible.

According to Cuvier as cited in Mannheim, (1997), the predictive value of sociology is being improved. There is a good deal of approximate information on family relationships and the personality of children. As sociology matures and comes to understand more fully the principles underlying human behaviour it will be in a better position to make accurate prediction.

Fifthly, Sociology delineates cause-effect relationships. In its study of family it has traced the relationship between family disorganization and divorce, between urbanization and family disorganization as one of the causes of divorce. Thus Sociology traces cause-effect relationship in social disorganization. It tries to find an answer to ‘how’ as well as ‘why’ of social processes and relationships.

Lastly, if we accept “science” in the sense in which it has been defined by philosophers like Cuvier, Pearson, Giddings and others it will



invalidate objections to Sociology being regarded as a science. According to Cuvier as cited in Mannheim, (1997). “The science is the method of discovery of the uniformities in the universe through the process of observation and re-observation, the result of which eventually comes to be stated in principles and arranged and organised into the fields of knowledge”.

According to Parsons (1975), “the classification of facts, the recognition of their sequence and relative significance is the function of science’. According to Giddings (1889), “Science is nothing more or less than the getting at facts, and trying to understand them and what science does for us is nothing more or less than helping us to face facts”.

One simple definition of science is that it is simply organized common sense involving objective observation followed by cautious interpretation of the observed facts. Science is further described in a traditional way as a mass of knowledge concerning a particular subject acquired by systematically observation, experience and study and analysed and classified into a unified whole.

It is approach rather than content that is the test of science. According to Lundberg (1929) "Science is a procedure for discovering the conditions under which events occur". According to Weber (1946), "Sociology is a science which attempts the interpretative understanding of social action in order thereby to arrive at a causal explanation of its cause and effects".

Sociology, then, is a scientific discipline which obeys the demands of validity implied by the word science. It studies its subject-matter scientifically. It tries to classify types and forms of social relationships, especially of institutions and associations.

It tries to determine the relations between different parts or factors of social life. It tries to deduce general laws from a systematic study of its material and the conclusions drawn from the study of sociological principles are applied to the solution of social problems.

Sociology is thus as much a science as social psychology, clinical psychology and other sciences concerning man. Though it has not reached perfection, the sociologist is searching for the instruments which will add to the minuteness of the study and exactness of its principles.

Robert Bierstadt (1970) has in his book ‘The Social Order’ mentioned the following characteristics of the nature of sociology:

- (i) Sociology is a Social and not a Natural science.
- (ii) Sociology is a categorical or Positive and not a Normative Science.
- (iii) Sociology is a Pure or theoretical Science and not an Applied Science.
- (iv) Sociology is an Abstract science and not a concrete one.
- (v) Sociology is a Generalizing and not Particularising Science.
- (vi) Sociology is both a Rational and an Empirical Science.

#### **4.0. Conclusion:**

Thus, the scope of Sociology is very wide. It is a general science but it is also a special science. As a matter of fact, the subject matter of all social sciences is society. What distinguishes them from one another is their viewpoint.

Thus economics studies society from an economic viewpoint; political science studies it from political viewpoint while history is a study of society from a historical point of view Sociology alone studies social

5.0 In this unit, you have learnt that sociology is the study of structure and function of society as a system; its nature, complexity and

contents of human social behaviour; the fundamentals of human social life ;the interaction of human beings with their external environment; the indispensability of social interactions for human development; how the social world affects us, etc. You have been told that sociology is both a rational and an empirical science and It studies the social phenomena in scientific way which is based on reason (logic), observation and experimentation. You have learnt that the scope of sociology is based on two schools of thought i.e. Specialist or Formalistic school and the Synthetic school.

#### 6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment.

1. Give a definition of sociology
2. Describe the relation between sociology and science;
3. Explain the relation between sociology and other social sciences;
4. Give in brief the ideas about the founding fathers of sociology such as, Comte, Durkheim, Weber, and Marx.

## 7.0 References

- Craig C.(2002)(Ed). Dictionary of the Social Sciences, New York : Oxford University Press.
- ZerihunDoda, M.A.(2005)Lecture Notes on introduction to sociology, Debub University
- Team of Experts,(2000).Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Sociology. New Delhi: Animol Publications
- Giddens, A. (1996). Sociology.6<sup>th</sup>Edition.LondonMacmillian
- <https://brainly.in/question/2761137#readmore>
- Durkheim, É (1982). The Rules of Sociological Method and Selected Texts on Sociology and its Method. Edited with an introduction by Steven Lukes; translated by W. D. Halls. New York: The Free Press. pp. 34–47. **ISBN 978-0-02-907940-9**.
- Karl Marx (1986), "Economic Manuscripts of 1857–1858" contained in the *Collected Works of Karl Marx and Frederick Engels: Volume 28* ;International Publishers: New York, pp. 5–537.
- Simmel, G. (1971) "The Metropolis and Mental Life", p. 324 in [Donald N. Levine](#) (ed) *Simmel: On individuality and social forms*, Chicago University Press, [ISBN 0226757765](#).
- Comte, A. (1975) [1830]. "The Nature and Importance of the Positive Philosophy." In *Auguste Comte and positivism : the essential writings*, edited by Gertrud Lenzer. NY: Harper and Row.
- Tönnies,F. (ed. Jose Harris), *Community and Civil Society*, Cambridge University Press (2001), hardcover, 266 pages, [ISBN 0-521-56119-1](#); trade paperback, Cambridge University Press (2001), 266 pages, [ISBN 0-521-56782-3](#)
- Ginsberg,M(1927) The Scope of Sociology: *Economica*, Published by: [Wiley](#):No. 20 (June), pp. 135-149 DOI: 10.2307/2548423:<https://www.jstor.org/stable/2548423>
- Small,A.W(1902) The Scope of Sociology. VIII. The Primary Concepts of Sociology: American Journal of Sociology, The University of Chicago Press: Vol. 8, No. 2 (Sep., 1902), pp. 197-250: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/2761933>
- Ginsberg, M.(1961) *Sociology*. Oxford University press
- Giddens, A.(2001), *Sociology* (4th edition): polity press, Cambridge

Parsons, T. (1975), *"The Present Status of 'Structural-Functional' Theory in Sociology"*, *Social Systems and The Evolution of Action Theory*, New York: The Free Press

Sorokin, P.A. (1937) *Social and Cultural Dynamism*, American Book Co., New York, Vol.3 pp.93-118

Comte, A.(1893), *Cours de philosophic positive*; 6 vols., Paris, 1830-42, 5th ed., translated by H. Martineau, 2 vols., 3rd ed., London.

Durkheim, E.(1960) *Montesquieu and Rousseau*, Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Hobhouse, L. T., Wheeler, G. C. and Ginsberg, M..(1913). *The Material Culture and Social Institutions of the Simpler Peoples*, London.

Lundberg, G; Bain, R.; and Anderson, N.(1929)., New York: Harper & Brothers..

Mannheim, K(1940). *Ideology and Utopia*, London: Kegan Paul, French, Trubner & Co., Ltd.,

Parsons, T.(1951). *The Social System*, Glencoe: The Free Press.

Small, A. W. and Vincent, G.(1894). *An Introduction to the Study of Society*, New York: The American Book Co., 1894.

Sorokin, P. A(1943). *Socio-cultural Causality: Space, -Time*, Durham, N.C.: Duke Univ. Press.

Sporott, W.J.H.(1953). Social Psychology, *The British Journal of Sociology: Wiley. Vol.4, No.2: pp.189-191*

Pearson, A (1972). *Piaget's concept of causality. Educational Theory*, Google Scholar

Giddings, F.H.(1899) The Elements of Sociology, *The Economic Journal, Volume 9, Issue 35, 1 September, Pages 411–416*,

Mannheim, K. (1925). "Das Problem einer Soziologie des Wissens." Archiv für Sozialwissenschaft und Sozialpolitik 53. Reprinted in *Wissenssoziologie*. Berlin: Luchterhand, 1964. [Google Scholar](#)

Mannheim, K. (1997). *Systematic Sociology: An Introduction to the Study of Society* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Routledge, Psychology Press.

## **Unit II. Sociology of Physical Education & Sports**

### **CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Definition of sport sociology

3.2 Origin of sport sociology

4.0 Summary and Conclusion

5.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

6.0 References

### **1.0 Introduction:**

Sport has a huge influence on the lives of millions of people, from activities in which they participate, channels they watch on the television to how they interact with other people.

This unit aims to apply the principles of sociology to sport to explain how sport is shaped by society and how, in turn, it impacts our behaviour and relationships. You will learn different sociological theories and how they apply to sport before looking at the influences

and impacts that sport and society can have on each other and the role the media has to play in it all.

## **2.0. Objectives**

By the end of the lesson, the students will be able to:-

- i. Define sport sociology
- ii. Narrate the origin of sport sociology

## **3.0 MAIN CONTENT**

### **3.1 Meaning and Definition of Sport Sociology**

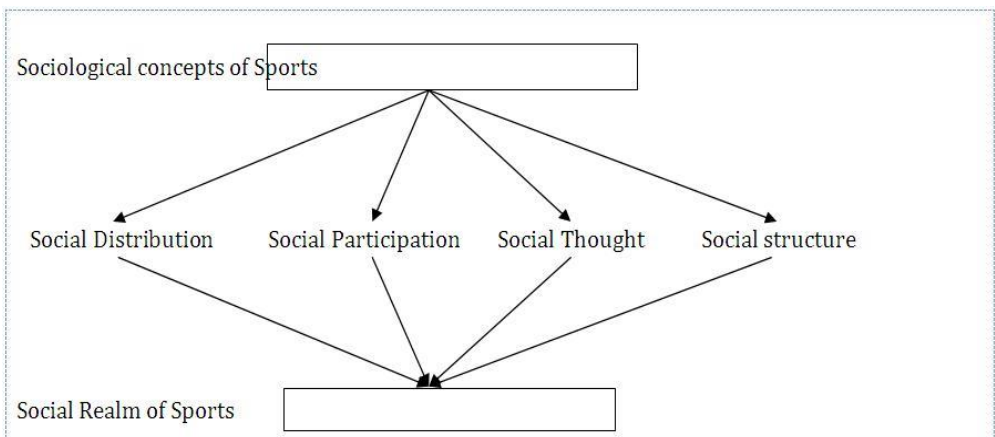
Although Sports sociology is a sub discipline of exercise science, it is also a part of the parent discipline of sociology, which is the study of human behaviour and social interactions within particular aims. Sports sociology examines sports as a part of cultural and social life, and adds a different dimension and perspective to the study of sports and exercise. More specifically, sports sociology examines the relationship between sports and society and seeks answers to many issues and questions regarding sports and culture (Manisha and Arup, 2015).

The sociology of sport, also referred to as sport sociology, is the study of the relationship between sport and society. It examines how culture and values influence sport, how sport influences culture and values,



and the relationship between sport and the major social spheres of life such as the media, politics, the economy, religion, race, gender and youth.( Crossman, 2014)

According to ManishaandArup, (2015), Sports sociology is also defined as the systematic study of human society and social behaviour that interacts to produce social action. Sports sociology is empirical science. It is scientific discipline having its own methods of investigation like observation, interrogation, survey etc. It tries to study the cause and effect phenomena systematically.



Adapted from (.ManishaandArup,2015).

### **3.2. The Origin of Sport Sociology**

The first analyst to refer to a “sociology of sport” was Theodor Adorno’s student Heinz Risse, who published *Sociologie des Sports* in 1921. Sports received little or no further analytic attention from social scientists until after World War II. Then, in the mid-1950s, there was a slow but steady accumulation of analyses of sports done by scholars in Europe and North America (Loy and Kenyon 1969; Dunning 1971). The origins of the sociology of sport can be traced to both sociology and physical education (Ingham and Donnelly 1997; Sage 1997). The field initially was institutionalized in academic terms through the formation of the International Committee for Sport Sociology (ICSS) and the publication of the *International Review for Sport Sociology* (IRSS) in the mid-1960s. The ICSS was a subcommittee of the International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education and the International Sociological Association, and it sponsored the publication of the IRSS. Other publications in the 1960s and 1970s provided examples of the research and conceptual issues discussed by scholars who claimed an affiliation with the sociology of sport (Kenyon 1969; Krotee 1979; Luschen 1970). In addition to meeting at

the annual conferences of the ICSS beginning in the mid-1960s, many scholars in the sociology of sport also met at the annual conferences of the North American Society for the Sociology of Sport (NASSS). This organization was founded in 1978. It has sponsored conferences every year since then, and its membership has been as high as 326 in 1998. In 1984, the Sociology of Sport Journal was published under the sponsorship of the NASSS.

Although the sociology of sport involves scholars from many countries and has its foundations in traditional academic disciplines, its early growth was fuelled partly by the radical and reform-oriented work of social activists trained in a variety of social sciences. That work attracted the attention of a number of young scholars in both sociology and physical education. For example, in U.S. universities, many courses devoted to the analysis of sport in society in the 1970s highlighted sport as a social institution, but many also used sports as a focal point for critical analyses of U.S. society as a whole. Objections to the war in Vietnam inspired analyses of autocratic and militaristic forms of social organization in sports and other spheres of social life. Critiques of capitalism were tied to research on the role of competition

in social life and the rise of highly competitive youth sports and inter-scholastic sports. Concern with high rates of aggression and violence in society was tied to an analysis of contact sports that emphasize the physical domination of opponents. Analyses of racial and civil rights issues were tied to discussions of racism in sports and to issues that precipitated the boycott of the 1968 Mexico City Olympic Games by some black American athletes (Edwards 1969). Analyses of gender relations were inspired by the widespread failure of U.S. high schools and universities to comply with Title IX legislation that, among other things, mandated gender equity in all sport programs sponsored by schools that received federal funds.

Today, those who are dedicated to studying sports as social and cultural phenomena constitute a small but active, diverse, and steadily expanding collection of scholars from sociology, physical education and kinesiology, sport studies, and cultural studies departments. This has made the field unique because many of these scholars have realized that to maintain the field they must engage each other despite differences in the research questions they ask and the theoretical perspectives and methodologies they use.

Mainstream sociology has been slow at the institutional level to acknowledge the growing social and cultural significance of sports and sports participation. The tendency among sociologists to give priority to studies of work over studies of play, sports, or leisure accounts for much of this disciplinary inertia. Furthermore, sports have been seen by many sociologists as non-serious, non-productive dimensions of society and culture that do not merit scholarly attention. Consequently, the sociology of sport has continued to exist on the fringes of sociology, and studying sports generally does not forward to a scholar's career in sociology departments. For example, in 1998-1999, only 149 (1.3 percent) of the 11,247 members of the American Sociological Association (ASA) declared "Leisure/Sport/Recreation" as one of their three major areas of interest, and over half those scholars focused primarily on leisure rather than sports as reported by Dunning, (1992). Only thirty-seven ASA members identified "Leisure/Sports Recreation" as their primary research and/or teaching topic (0.3 percent of ASA members), and only two Canadian and two U.S. sociology departments offer a graduate program in the sociology of sport, according to the 1998 Guide to Graduate Departments of

Sociology. According to Donnelly, (2000) at the 1998 annual ASA meeting, there were approximately 3,800 presenters and co-presenters, and only 20 dealt with sport-related topics in their presentations; only 2 of the 525 sessions were devoted to the sociology of sport. Patterns are similar in Canada, Great Britain, and Australia (Rowe et al. 1997). In physical education and kinesiology, the primary focus of most scholars has been on motor learning, exercise and fitness physiology, biomechanics, and physical performance rather than the social dimensions of sports (Sage 1997). Social and cultural issues have not been given a high priority in the discipline except when research has had practical implications for those who teach physical education, coach athletes, or administer sport programs. As the legitimacy and role of physical education departments have been questioned in many universities, the scholars in those departments have been slow to embrace the frequently critical analyses of sports done by those who use sociological theories and perspectives. Therefore, studying sports as social phenomena has not earned many scholars high status among their peers in physical education and kinesiology departments. However, the majority of sociology of sport scholars with doctorates

have earned their degrees and now have options in departments of physical education or kinesiology and departments of sport studies and human movement studies.

There have been noteworthy indications of change, for example, there are a number of journals devoted to social analyses of sports (Sociology of Sport Journal, International Review for the Sociology of Sport, Journal of Sport & Social Issues, Culture, Sport, and Society). Many mainstream journals in sociology and physical education now accept and publish research that uses sociological perspectives to study sports (Donnelly, 2000). National and regional professional associations in sociology and physical education in many countries sponsor regular sessions in the sociology of sport at their annual conferences. Annual conferences also are held by a number of national and regional sociology of sport associations around the world, including those in Japan, Korea, and Brazil as well as the countries of North America and Europe (Manisha & Arup, 2015). The International Sociology of Sport Association (ISSA, formerly the ICSS) holds annual conferences and meets regularly with the International Sociological Association. Attendance at many of these

conferences has been consistent, and the quality of the programs has been impressive. The existence of such organizational endorsement and support, along with continued growth in the pervasiveness and visibility of sports in society, suggests that the discipline will continue to grow (Rowel et al, 1997).

Among other indications of growth, articles in the *Sociology of Sport Journal* are cited regularly in social science literature. Scholars in the field are recognized as “public intellectuals” by journalists and reporters associated with the mass media. Quotations and references to sociology of sport research appear increasingly in the popular print and electronic media. Amazon.com, the world’s major Internet bookseller, listed over 260 books in its “Sociology of Sport” reference category in March 1999 (Ingham and Donnelly, 1997).

#### **4.0 Conclusion.**

Complicating the issue of future growth is the fact that scholars in this field regularly disagree about how to “do” the sociology of sport. Some prefer to see themselves as scientific experts who do research on questions of organization and efficiency, while others prefer to see themselves as facilitators or even agents of cultural transformation



whose research gives a voice to and empowers people who lack resources or have been pushed to the margins of society. This and other disagreements raise important questions about the production and use of scientific knowledge, and many scholars in the sociology of sport are debating those questions. As in sociology as a whole, the sociology of sport is now a site for theoretical and paradigmatic debates that some scholars fear will fragment the field and subvert the maintenance of an institutionalized professional community. Of course, this is a challenge faced in many disciplines and their associated professional organizations.

### **5.0 Summary.**

In this unit we have given you definition of sport sociology, also narrated the origin and development of sport sociology. This unit provides thumbnail sketches of founding fathers of sport sociology.

### **6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment**

- i. Define sports sociology
- ii. Narrate the origin of sport sociology

## **7.0 References:**

1. Brohm, Jean-Marie (1978) *Sport—A Prison of Measured Time*, trans. I. Frasier. London: Ink Links.
2. Coakley, J. (1990) *Sport in Society: Issues and Controversies*, (4th ed.). St. Louis: Mosby.
3. Donnelly, P. (2000) “Interpretive Approaches to the Sociology of Sport.” In J. Coakley and E. Dunning. eds., *Handbook of Sport and Society*. London: Sage.
4. Dunning, E. (1992) “Figurational Sociology and the Sociology of Sport: Some Concluding Remarks.” In E. Dunning, and C. Rojek, eds., *Sport and Leisure in the Civilizing Process*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
5. Ingham, A. G., and Donnelly, P (1997) “A Sociology of North American Sociology of Sport: Disunity in Unity, 1965–1996.” *Sociology of Sport Journal* 14(4):362–418.
6. Kenyon, G. S., ed. (1969) *Aspects of Contemporary Sport Sociology*. Chicago: Athletic Institute.
7. Lüschen. G. ed. (1970) *The Cross-Cultural Analysis of Sport and Games*. Champaign, Ill. Stipes.

8. Lüschen. G., and G. H. Sage (1981) “Sport in Sociological Perspective.” In G. Lüschen and G. H. Sage, eds., *Handbook of Social Science of Sport*. Champaign, Ill. Stipes.
9. Rowe, D., J. McKay, and G. Lawrence (1997) “Out of the Shadows: The Critical Sociology of Sport in Australia, 1986–1996.” *Sociology of Sport Journal* 14(4):340–361.
10. Sage, G. H. (1997) “Physical Education, Sociology, and Sociology of Sport: Points of Intersection.” *Sociology of Sport Journal* 14(4):317–339.
11. Crossman. A. (2014). *Sociology of sports*. Available at <http://sociology.about.com/od/ Disciplines/a/Sociology-Of-Sports.htm>. [Accessed 19 October 2014]
12. Manisha, M. And Arup, G.(2015)*Sociology, Sports Sociology and Human Resource Development: IOSR Journal of Sports and Physical Education (IOSR-JSPE)* , Volume 2, Issue 1 (Jan - Feb. 2015), PP 17-19 [www.iosrjournals.org](http://www.iosrjournals.org)

### **Unit III. Social Significance of Sports**

#### **CONTENTS**

## 1.0 Introduction

## **2.0 Objectives**

By the end of the unit, you will be able to

- i. Define sport
- ii. Explain the reasons for studying sport
- iii. Highlight social significances of sports

## **3.0 Main Content**

### 3.1. Definition of sport

#### 3.1.2. Why do we study sport in society

#### 3.1.3. Social Significance of Sports

## 4.0 Conclusion

## 5.0 Summary

## 5.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

## 6.0 References

## **1.0. Introduction**

Sport is recognized for its significance in most societies - culturally, economically and politically - and this has increased the demand for qualified specialists who are able to provide knowledge and advice which can explain and predict the relationship between sport and social realities, events and issues. Sports play an important role for the development of human resource, which recognizes that development is more than economic growth (Manisha & Arup, 2015).

A sport is an organized competitive entertaining and skilful activity requiring commitment, strategy and fair play, in which a winner can be defined by objective means. It is governed by a set of rules or customs. Sports activity educates young people about the importance of certain key values, such as honest, fair play, respect for self and others and adherence to the rules and respect for their importance. Sports are a way to build understanding of the value of common bonds.

### **3.1. Definition of sport**

Sports are institutionalized competitive activities that involve rigorous physical exertion or the use of relatively complex physical skills by participants motivated by personal enjoyment and external rewards. (Sage, 1997).

Sports activity educates young people about the importance of certain key values, such as honest, fair play, respect for self and others and adherence to the rules and respect for their importance. Sports is a way to build understanding of the value of common bonds.(Edwards, 1976).

### **3.1.2. Why study sport in society?**

There are several reasons why it is necessary to study the important part that sport plays in a society. The three most important reasons are the following. (Sara, 2015).

- Sport is a part of people's lives.
- Sport is connected with important ideas and meanings in life.
- Sport is connected to major spheres of social life.

#### **3.1.2.1 Sport is a part of people's lives**

Sport is all around us and has become an important part of our everyday social life. Mega sporting events such as the Olympic Games, the IRB Rugby World Cup, the Tour de France and the FIFA World Cup are worldwide events that are televised globally.

#### **3.1.2.2. Sport is connected with important ideas and meanings in life**

We also study sport in society because the two are closely linked with how people think about and see the world. Sociologists try to understand these links by studying connections between sport and ideologies. Ideologies are sets of unified ideas that people use to give meaning to, and make sense of, the world. Ideologies are important parts of cultures because they embody the principles, orientation and viewpoints that underlie our feelings, thoughts and actions. Different people in different societies develop their own set of ideas for giving meaning to, and making sense of, the world. The ideologies that will be mentioned in this chapter are those of gender ideology, race ideology and class ideology. (Serra, 2015).

#### 3.1.2.3. Sport is connected to major spheres of social life.

Another reason to study sport in society is that it is clearly connected to major spheres of social life, including the family, the economy, the media, politics, education and religion.

#### **The family**

Organized youth sport plays an important role in the life of the family in Nigeria. It serves as a unifying agent, because it may bring the family closer together; parents and siblings support the athlete, taking him or

her to practices and attending games. The family may unite as spectators, watching televised or live events

### **The economy**

The relationship between sport and the economy cannot be overlooked as we examine the other social institutions. The money spent by consumers on tickets, concessions, club fees, membership fees, sport equipment and clothing, and gambling has a direct effect on the economy (Alexander, William & John, 2000)

### **The media**

According to (FIFA.com, 2010), the 2010 FIFA World Cup accounted for 87 per cent of FIFA's total revenue. Television networks and stations pay billions of Dollars for the rights to televise major games and events. The National Broadcasting Station (NBS), an American commercial broadcast television and radio network, paid the international Olympic Committee (IOC) \$1.181 billion for the rights to the 2012 Olympic Games. Similarly, the broadcaster Super Sport won the rights to broadcast the 2014 and 2016 Olympic Games in South Africa and 43 sub-Saharan nations on the continent. Super Sport acquired broadcasting rights on satellite pay-television, the Internet



and mobile for South Africa and sub-Saharan Africa, which includes populous nations such as Nigeria, Ethiopia, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya and Tanzania, among others.

Mega-sporting events have become dependent on the media and would not be as widely followed or watched without it. The images and messages presented in the media coverage of these sporting events communicate certain themes and ideas that influence how people see and think about sport and social life. (Serra, 2015).

### **Sport and politics**

Despite frequent complaints about mixing sport and politics, most people around the globe give no second thought to displaying national flags and playing national anthems at sporting events, and some may quickly reject athletes and other spectators who don't share their views and feelings about the flag and the anthem. Various theories propose how sport and politics use each other. Although countries use sport to enhance their image and power or the image of their leaders, sport has also been used as a medium to unite and bring about peace. (Serra, 2015)

### **Sport and education**

Sport is inextricably intertwined with the institution of education in our society. At all levels of education, but particularly high school and tertiary level, high-level competitive sport or varsity sport competition is present. The value of sport within education raises numerous questions, because sport has become so important that a school or university's worth is judged by the success or failure of its sport teams. Students have even been known to choose a school or university based not on the academic programmes in which they will enrol but on the success of the institution's sport teams. I knew of some classmates during my secondary school education who failed promotion examinations but were promoted by the school authority because of their participations in the school sports and games.(Serra, 2015).

### **Sport and religion**

Athletes performing religious rituals – for example, stopping to pray as they step onto the field – are becoming increasingly prevalent at sport events. Athletes in some cultures have become increasingly likely to display religious beliefs as they playsport, and even to define their participation in religious terms. Not only do churches sponsor leagues, but athletes themselves publicly profess and promote religious beliefs.

Organizations for Christian athletes in particular have been established for such purpose (e.g. Athletes in Action), (Serra, 2015).

### **3.1.3 Social Significance of Sports**

What is the value of sports for all those millions of people in our society who are involved in it in one way or another? And what is the value of this large-scale participation in sport for society as a whole? Some time ago, a sociological study was published that examined the various functions and meanings of sport (De Knop & Hoyng, 1998). A total of 24 functions and forms of significance can be encountered. We shall discuss a number of these here:

The democratizing effect of sport: this means that sport contributes to maintaining the balance of power between groups with different characteristics (social classes, race, sex, age, religion, handicaps, regional differences or sexual preferences);

Distinction through sport: distinction is (conscious) differentiation from others. Through a distinctive use of the body or a different (life) style sport reveals the social classification of different kinds of people; through sport one can distinguish oneself from others and from other social classes.

The economic significance of sport: the economic function of sport can be measured with three yardsticks: expenditure, production and employment. Some years ago, for example, it was established in one of the studies by the IOS (the Belgian interuniversity sports policy research unit) that more than 3 % of all consumer and investment expenditure in Flanders is currently sports-related. In economic terms sport accounts for 3 % of world trade (European Commission-DG X, 1998);

The health function of sport: sport involves physical movement and so can foster improved general health; this is not unimportant, given that we are confronted more and more with a drastically increasing sedentary life style, which goes hand in hand with a systematic decline in the physical fitness of our young people;

The pleasurable experience of sport: not only participating in sport but also watching it gives people pleasure. Sport can therefore make both a direct and an indirect contribution to an enhanced quality of life;

The recuperative function of sport: sport is an excellent means of physical recuperation for people in sedentary jobs;

The identification function of sport; sports offers individuals an opportunity to identify with a specific group or individual. Sport thus gives people an opportunity to generate comradeship and a feeling of 'belonging' and solidarity;

The integration function of sport: integration means the growing together of different groups and/or individuals (immigrants, the elderly, the physically challenged, homosexuals, etc.) within a society, institute or organization (Elling & De Knop, 1997). In spite of the fact that it both brings together and splits up members of a community, sport encourages communication and provides common symbols, a collective identity and a reason for solidarity (the 'integration through conflict paradox': Lever, 1987). So, for example, both sports events and sports centres can function as sources of national pride and strength, enabling the inhabitants of a country to start feeling more unified; sport is one of the few symbols of global unity between people that is recognized by almost the entire world population;

The interactive function of sport: participating in or watching sport means that people come into contact with others and communicate with each other because of their shared interests;

The military function of sport: sport often serves as a form of military training. It is seen as a way of improving the (military) skills that may be required in the event of conflict;

The 'release' functions of sport: sport is a safety valve for many people, acting as a relaxant for the combating of stress and as a way of getting one's feelings out of one's system; this form of release is also designated by the term 'catharses. Sport is a way of channelling aggression and a means of escaping from workaday reality;

The leisure function of sport: sport is a form of amusement experienced by millions of people;

The developmental function of sport: sport is a means of personal unfolding, a way of increasing self-knowledge and, ultimately, of personal development. This personal development can lead to a feeling of self-worth and actualization. The feeling of competence (through mastery of skills) can help to nourish a sportsman's or sportswoman's perception of their own self-competence, self-confidence, feeling of self-worth and fulfilment, and can help foster the development of their self-actualization; (Serra, 2015).

The social control function of sport: sport is a form of controlled combat (mimetic function), a symbolic representation of a usually 'non-violent form of competition between individuals, groups or even countries'. Sport can therefore contribute to the maintenance of public order ('panem et circenses');

Sport as a political instrument: the political function of sport is one of the most widely described functions in the scientific literature. Sport does, after all, appear to fulfil several political functions:-sport as a diplomatic instrument;- sports as a means of propaganda and ideology;- sport as a way of obtaining political prestige;- sport as an instrument of foreign policy; sport as a medium for political protest;- sport as a catalyst of (inter-)national conflicts.

#### **4.0. Conclusion**

It is difficult to draw up a precise balance sheet of the positive and negative social effects, it can be deduced from the above data that the problems are limited in nature when set against the enormous extent of sports participation and the individual and social benefit to be derived from it. The positive features do not, however, cause us to deny or ignore the problems. Recognising them is, in fact, a first requirement

for finding solutions to them in consultation with the various responsible parties. This balance sheet could work out even more favourably if the social added value of sport was more intensively and inventively utilized. Both the sports world and the government have focused all too little on the social added value of sport in the past. But there does seem to be a change on the horizon: sport is increasingly being regarded and used as a ‘tool’ for preventing or solving social problems.

## **5.0. Summary**

In this unit you have been told that sport an organized and institutionalized competitive activities that involve rigorous physical exertion or the use of relatively complex physical skills by participants motivated by personal enjoyment and external rewards. It also educates young people about the importance of certain key values, such as honest, fair play, respect for self and others and adherence to the rules and respect for their importance. Sports are a way to build understanding of the value of common bonds. You are also been told that taking part in sport activities because it is a part of people’s lives,



it is connected with important ideas and meanings in life and to major spheres of social life.

## **6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignments**

1. Define sport and highlight reasons for taking part in sport activities
2. Enumerate at least ten social significance of sport and explain them

## **7.0 References**

Alexander, D., William, K. & John, N. (2000).Valuing the Consumption Benefits from Professional Sports Franchises. Journal of Urban Economics 48: 321–337.

Kroska, A. (2000). Conceptualizing and Measuring Gender Ideology as an Identity. Gender and Society 14(3): 368–394.

FIFA.com. (2010).Income Available at <http://www.fifa.com/aboutfifa/finances/income.html>. [Accessed 2 December 2014].

De Knop, P. & Hoyng, J. (1998).De Functies En Betekenissen Van Sport (The Functions and Significance of Sport). Tilburg: Tilburg University Press.

Elling, A. & De Knop, P. (1997a). De Sociale Integratieve Betekenis Van Sport: Sport Is Geen Wondermiddel (The Socially Integrative

Significance of Sport: Sport Is Not A Miracle Cure).

Lichamelijke Opvoeding, 7, 324-329.

Elling, A. & De Knop, P. (1997b). De Sociale Integratieve Betekenis

Van Sport.(2). Sport Is Geen Wondermiddel (The Socially Integrative

Significance Of Sport. (2) Sport Is Not A Miracle Cure).

Lichamelijke Opvoeding, 8, 363-370.

European Commission – Dgx (1998). The Development and Prospects

for Community Action in the Field of Sport. Commission Staff

Working Paper, Brussels: Ec-Dgx.

Ios (1990). Fysieke Fitheid En Sportbeoefening Van De Vlaamse Jeugd

: Volume 2 : Analyse Van De Georganiseerde Sport In Vlaanderen

(Physical Fitness And Participation In Sport Of The Flemish : Volume

2 : An Analysis Of Organized Sport In Flanders). Brussel : Ios;

## **Unit IV. Social Theories of Sport**

### **CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Social Theories of Sport

3.1.1. The functional theory

3.1.2 The conflict theory

3.1.3 The critical theory

3.1.4 The interactionism theory

3.1.5 The feminist theory

3.1.6. The figuration theory

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

5.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

6.0 References

## **1.0. Introduction**

Through the mid-1980s, most research in the sociology of sport was based on two assumptions. First, sport was assumed to be a social institution similar to other major social institutions (Luschen and Sage 1981). Second, sports were assumed to be institutionalized competitive activities that involve physical exertion and the use of physical skills by individuals motivated by a combination of personal enjoyment and external rewards (Coakley 1990). These conceptual assumptions identified the focus of the sociology of sport and placed theory and

research on sports within the traditional parameters of social theory and research.

## **2.0. Objectives**

By the end of this unit, you will be able to

1 Explain the theories of sport sociology

2. Apply theories to everyday life

## **3.0. Main Content**

### **3.1 Social theories of sport**

As we engage in studying and changing sport, we use social and cultural theories to assist us. These theories help us to identify issues and problems to study. They enable us to be more informed citizens and, in turn, better sport managers as we apply what we have learnt in our planning, organising, implementation and control of sport. When we study sport in society, we use theories or general views to understand how and why the world works as it does. In the sociology of sport there are six major theories that can be used to study sport in society. (Serra,2015)

#### **3.1.1 The functional theory**

According to Serra (2015), the functional theory looks at how sport contributes to the stability and social progress in organizations, communities and societies. Sport is studied in terms of its contribution to the system and how it helps keep societies, communities, groups and organizations operating smoothly, as well as how it influences individuals to contribute to the social systems in which they participate. Sport is seen as a source of inspiration for individuals and society.

### **Using the functional theory in everyday life**

Many people use the functional theory to make decisions about using sport to promote social integration through development and growth in organized youth sport. Sport participation and individual development can combat deviance through elite programs, build values and expose children to sporting role models.

Weaknesses of the functional theory include the following:

- It assumes that all social groups benefit equally from sport. What is good for society must be good for all of its members. It argues that inequalities are good for society.
- It overstates the positive consequences of sport in society.

- It does not recognize that sport is a social construction that privileges or disadvantages some people more than others.

### **3.1.2. The conflict theory**

People using the conflict theory view society as a continually changing set of relationships that exist because of different economic interests. In other words, society is ultimately shaped and organized around money, wealth and economic power. The people who hold the economic power use that power to coerce and manipulate others to accept their view of the world as the correct view. This means that those who use this theory are concerned with class relations. The social order exists because people do not all have access to equal resources. Thus conflict theorists see sport as a means of promoting capitalism in society, as a set of activities and spectacles that reduce awareness of economic exploitation among those without the power while maintaining the privilege and position of those who control wealth and the economy (Serra, 2015).

### **Using the conflict theory in everyday life**

According to Serra(2015) the conflict theory focuses attention on economic factors, class inequality and the need for changes in how

society and sport are organized. Relationships between people with and without economic power are highlighted. Athletes and spectators are not aware of how they are being manipulated and oppressed for profit and the personal gain of the economic elite – sport is used as an opiate. Those who play sport have no effective control over the conditions of their preparations; this is left up to the coach or trainer.

Weaknesses of the conflict theory include the following:

- It assumes that all social life is driven and shaped only by economic factors ('market needs').
- It ignores the importance of gender, race, age, sexual orientation and other factors in social life.
- It ignores cases in which sport participation consists of experiences that can empower groups and individuals.

### **3.1.3The critical theory**

The focus of the critical theory is explanations of culture, power and social relations. It consists of various approaches designed to understand where power comes from, how it operates in social life and how it shifts and changes as power relations (in the political, historical

and economic context), narratives and discourses change. It sees sport as a social construct. The critical theory assumes that sport is more than a reflection of society, so it studies the struggles about the meaning and organization of sport and of sport as a site for cultural transformation. It focuses on how dominant narratives and images are used to form and give meaning to sport. (Serra,2015)

### **Using the critical theory in everyday life**

Critical theories are based on concerns of fairness and the desire to understand, confront and transform systems of exploitation and oppression in social life through sport. The critical theorists are interested in increasing diversity in sport, challenging the dominant debates and ideologies in sport, challenging those in power in sport and society, and giving the marginalised a voice. South Africa is a good example of critical theory in that affirmative action in sport was brought about to rectify past power imbalances. (Serra,2015)

### **Weaknesses of the critical theory include the following:**

- There are no clear guidelines for identifying and assessing forms of resistance and strategies for producing transformation.



- There are no unified strategies for dealing with social problems, conflicts and injustice.

#### **3.1.4. The interactionism theory**

According to Serra (2015) the interactionism theory,) states that, society is created through social interaction. It studies sport through the meanings and symbols that people create through social interactions. People use these meanings to make decisions in their everyday lives, which also govern their involvement in sport. Interactionism theorists are interested in researching how individual's experience sport and how identities are created through the social processes of becoming, being and unbecoming an athlete. Our identities influence our choices, actions, relationships and the processes through which we form and change our social worlds. In turn, the interactionism theory is often used when people study the experiences of athletes and their relationships with others, and the ways in which athletes make sense of their participations in sport. This theory sees sport from the individual's perspective.

#### **Using the interactionist theory in everyday life**

Using the interactionism theory in everyday life is based on lived realities as people engage with others and give meaning to the complex world in which they find themselves. Interactionists call for changes that increase discussion and the mutual sharing of ideas, experiences and understanding of sport experiences.

**The interactionism theory has two main weaknesses:**

- It does not explain how meaning, identity and interaction are connected with social structures and material conditions in society.
- It ignores the issues of power and power relations in society and how they affect sport, sport participation and sport experiences.

**3.1.5 The feminist theory**

The feminist theory is based on the assumption that knowledge about social life requires an understanding of gender and gender relations. This theory has grown out of a general dissatisfaction and frustration that intellectual traditions base knowledge on the values, experiences and insights of men and ignore or devalue those of women. Social life is regarded as pervasively gendered in a patriarchal, or male-dominated, world. Sport, in turn, is regarded as a set of gendered activities based on masculine values and experiences. The widely

accepted norms and the celebration of strong, aggressive and tough male athletes exclude women, who are expected to display femininity and look beautiful in sports like tennis and gymnastics or fill caring and supportive roles. Feminists are interested in researching how sport reproduces patriarchy through physicality, sexuality and the body, how women are (mis)represented in media coverage of sport and how women can use strategies to resist or challenge dominant gender ideology(Serra,2015).

### **Using the feminist theory in everyday life**

Using the feminist theory in everyday life is mainly focused on our awareness of how culture informs sporting practices and gender-related issues in sport. For example, we know that gender equity is difficult to achieve because it often requires that men share resources, which mostly leads to competition. Homophobia influences the participation in sport as well as the experiences of heterosexual women, who may face being called gay if they participate in sporting activities usually associated with men. This theory also looks at the experiences of gay women in sport. Feminists believe in using sports

as sites of empowerment of women and promote forms of sport that reflect women's interests.

**Weaknesses of the feminist theory include the following.**

The feminist theory focuses on social justice, equality of opportunities and existing ideologies that undermine fairness related to gender, sexuality, social class, race, ethnicity and disability. However, there is no clear guideline on the interrelated experiences of women of different ages, race, ability and religions across cultures. Not every woman experiences the same discrimination and/or unfairness within the same context or in the same way. Secondly, feminists assume that there is a unified 'women's interest', while many women argue that this is not their interest. Certain women are happy to uphold the traditional gender role that is expected of them (i.e. motherhood and femininity) and believe that sport is a 'man's territory'.

### **3.1.6The figuration theory**

The figuration theory is a theory in which figurations of humans – evolving networks of interdependent humans – are the unit of investigation. It sees sport as a social phenomenon. Also known as process sociology, the figuration theory explains that social life consists of networks of interdependent people in formations or ‘figurations’ over time (i.e. many amateurs in sport led to the social trend of amateurism; similarly, figurations of professional athletes surfacing in sport led to the sociological trend of professionalism in sport). These social connections shift and change, which gives special meaning to the social worlds that are formed and recognized through them. Shifts and changes within the figurations happen according to changes in power relations within the economic, political and emotional dimension of social life. Sport is seen as important as it is regarded as a set of ‘collective interventions’ that provides people in highly regulated modern societies with forms of enjoyable excitement. Those who use the figuration theory are concerned with how social figurations emerge and change over time, how modern sport emerged

and became important in certain societies, and the complexities of global sport and local and national identities.(Serra,2015)

### **Using the figuration theory in everyday life**

Studying the development of pastimes and folk games into competitive sport provides insights into national and global figurations. The global migration of athletes, the global sport industry, the global media, and the impact of global sport on national identity formation as global phenomenon have helped us to understand sport from a global perspective. This theory is based on the idea that knowledge about social life is cumulative and enables people to develop the knowledge that will give rise to strategies for controlling expressions of violence, exploitation and the abuse of power, and will increase access to sport participation among the historically powerless. The primary weakness of this theory is that it gives too little attention to problems and struggles that affect day-to-day lives: it focuses on the long-term historical interconnections between people. It understates the immediate personal consequences of oppressive power relations and, in turn, has not given enough attention to the experiences of women and the gender inequities that affect their lives. (Serra,2015)

## **4.0. Conclusion**

Theories are tools that help us to ask questions, collect and analyze information, and interpret the implications of our analyses. The decision about which theory is best is influenced by the goals and political agendas of the sport manager, organization, community, or nation. The best theories are those that help us to find ways to make the world more democratic.

Note that in the management of sport, no single theory is suitable on its own. An integrated perspective and a combination of the various theories should be used to study and interpret social phenomena accurately so that the right strategy or plan is chosen and its implementation is successful.

## **5.0 Summary**

In this unit you have made to know that sociological theory such the functionalist theory offers an explanation for the positive consequence associated with sporting involvement in the lives of both athletes and spectators. The conflict theory identifies serious problems in sports and explains how and why players and spectators are oppressed and exploited for economic purposes. The theory of social interaction

suggests that an understanding of sports requires an understanding of the meanings, identities, and interactions associated with sporting involvement. The critical theories suggest that sports are concerned with social relations and culture in complex and diverse ways and that sports change as power and resources shift and as these changes take place in social, political and economic relations in society. The feminist theories have taken a critical approach that emphasizes gender as a category of experience and sports as sites for producing, reproducing and transforming ideas about gender and the structure of gender relations in society. The figuration theory identifies the complex and long-term social processes through which modern sports have emerged and have changed in various contexts, cultures and societies

## **6.0. Tutor-marked Assessment**

- 1 What are the roles of sport as a social institution?
2. How do sport organizations contribute to social integrity?
3. How does sport contribute to reproduce social inequalities in society?
4. What types of interactions are seen in competitive sport?



5. How does sport contribute to diminish social inequality in society?
6. To what extent sport reproduce gender inequality in society?
7. Analyse a sociological theory applied to sport and justify the strengths and the weaknesses of its ideology

## **7.0. References**

Canan K.(2012):Sport Sociology Lecture Notes: School of Sports Sciences and Technology SBR 129 Sport Sciences and Recreation, Hacettepe University.

Cambridge Technical (2016) Sport and Exercise Sociology Scheme.

Serra,P.(2015).Sociology of sport;

<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/282124548>

Coakley, J. (1990) Sport in Society: Issues and Controversies, (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). St. Louis: Mosby.

Lüschen. G., and G. H. Sage (1981) “Sport in Sociological Perspective.” In G. Lüschen and G. H. Sage, eds., Handbook of Social Science of Sport.Champaign, Ill. Stipes.



## **Module Two**

In Module One, you have learnt the meaning, scope and nature of sociology together with attendant theories that are being applied to the organization and the management of sport. You have also learnt that sport is a significant activity that has fostered unity among citizens and nations of the world.

In this module the following listed units will give you more insight as to how sports act as a medium for socialisation, in what condition and by what group. To get all these insights the module will be delaminated into four units as follows:

Unit I.Sports as Socializing Agency

Unit II.Social Phenomenon

Unit III.Sports & Socialization

### **Unit I. Sports as Socializing Agency**

#### **CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content

### 3.1. The Meaning of Socialisation

### 3.2The social functions of sport

#### 3.2.1Socio-emotional function

#### 3.2.2 Socialization function

#### 3.2.3 The integrative function

#### 3.2.4 The political function

#### 3.2.5. Social mobility function

### 4.0 Conclusion

### 5.0 Summary

### 6.0Tutor-Marked Assignment

### 7.0References

### 1.0Introduction

Sports are agents of socialization because it provides both men and women with the understanding of self that sticks with them for life.

Sports can also help people understand gender differences. For men, their identity is formed by success and failure within sports. Men learn that being a man goes hand in hand with being competitive in sports.

For everyone that play sports, they learn life skills such as work ethic, fair play, and a winning attitude. The Social Learning Theory explains

how young children start learning the principles that shape the external world. Sports helps people understand the difference between right and wrong because of rules and encouragement that is associated with sports

This process of learning and development in and through sport is known as socialisation.(Coakley,1990)

## **2.0 Objective**

By the end of the unit, students will be able to

I. Explain the meaning of socialization

II Explain the social functions of sports

## **3.0 Main Content**

### **3.1. Meaning of Socialization.**

According to Serra (2015) Socialisation is an active process of learning and social development, which occurs as we interact with one another and become acquainted with the social world in which we live. It involves the formation of ideas about who we are and what is important in our lives. We are not simply passive learners in the socialisation process. We actively participate in our own socialisation as we influence those who influence us. We actively interpret what we see

and hear, and we accept, resist, or revise the messages that we receive about who we are, about the world, and about what we should do as we make our way in the world. Therefore, socialisation is not a one-way process of social influence through which we are moulded and shaped. Instead, it is an interactive process through which we actively connect through others, synthesise information, and make decisions that shape our own lives and the social world around us.

### **3.2 Agents of Socialization**

Agents of socialization are the people and groups that influence our self-concept, emotions, attitudes, and behaviour (Serra, 2015)

1. **The Family.** Family is responsible for the youth and among other things, determining one's attitudes toward religion and establishing career goals.
2. **Education.** Education is the agency responsible for socializing groups of young people in particular skills and values in society.
3. **Religion.** Religions play a major role in socialization, in that context often synonymous with 'indoctrination'.

4. Peer groups. Peers refer to people who are roughly the same age and/or who share other social characteristics (e.g., students in a college class).

### **3.3. Social Functions of Sports.**

Some sociologists hold that because sport is a product of society, it can often reflect larger elements of the society that created it. Some believe that particular sports teach important principles, rules and values that form key life skills, such as how to learn from defeat or encourage self-discipline and drive through the rewards of deserved success. But such approaches may also cause problems in society. Some have argued that winning is valued more highly than lessons of self-improvement or social co-operation. In other words, how well you play the game takes a backseat to victory.

There are five basic social functions of sport according to Serra (2015).

#### **3.3.1 The socio-emotional function**

The socio-emotional function of sport is seen to operate at the level of the individual and is concerned with the socio-psychological stability of the individual. The stable functioning of the individual as a member of society depends upon his being 'well adjusted' psychologically and

socially. Examples of this function are evident in two socio-emotional components:

- The management of tension and conflict:- Participation in sport is believed to help release frustrations and aggression, known as catharsis, avoiding people releasing this on others in everyday life; Sport allows for extreme emotions such as sadness, joy and hate; to develop in ways that are considered non-threatening to the self and to others.

The production of feelings of community and camaraderie:-Sport helps to reduce the social distance between people. The 1995 Rugby World Cup, 1996 All Africa Cup of Nations and 2010 FIFA World Cup are examples of this. Fans of specific clubs unite to become 'one' and feelings of belonging are generated in non-participants. In other words, even if people are only spectators, they also feel that they 'belong' to the team and automatically have something in common with other supporters of the team (Serra,2015).

### **3.3.2. Socialisation function**

Through socialisation, people absorb their culture (customs, habits, laws, practices, language, etc.) and form their own identity. The



socialisation function allows for the acceptance of cultural morals and beliefs, social values and personality characteristics of an individual to take place. Traits such as friendships, communication skills, co-operation and respect for the rules of a game are highlighted in this function (Crossman, 2014).)

Sport fosters identity and friendship and, in turn, helps to create a social identity. In high school, youths who participate in organised sports activities view sports as a place to meet other young people who have at least one shared interest. Indeed, quality sport programmes can help to develop and maintain healthy relationships amongst youth (Tenorio, 2015).

Additionally, sport may help boys and girls to socialize in different ways, which may be a positive or a negative consequence of taking part in sport. Sport participation socialises boys into traditional gender roles, while similar participation socialises girls into non-traditional gender roles. Sport has an additional social benefit for female high school student athletes who find participation in sports to be a way to break gender stereotypes, enhancing their sense of possibility and

identity. Youth sports can also help children to learn to interact with adults such as parents and their teachers.

Quality sport programmes that can benefit interactions between children may also benefit exchanges between youth and adults. Parents promote children's social development and social skills by enrolling them in sport programmes and these skills can improve children's relationships with their teachers.

### **3.3.3. The integrative function**

Sport brings people together. It is a universal language and creates a common bond between people who might have nothing else in common and who might have had no reason to interact with one another in the past. That said, sport is seen as a medium that promotes a shared sense of belonging and participation and may therefore also be an important tool for the integration of people from different backgrounds. The integrative function focuses on the unification of separate individuals into a group and their identification with that group.

### **3.3.4 The political function**

The political function is concerned with sport being used as a political instrument. As an extension of the integrative function, sport can be used to unite a country. However, sport can also be used politically as a means of sanctioning other countries and expressing a nation's feelings over the actions of another country.

- Examples of a nation using sport to sanction, and express its feelings about the actions of, another nation: Zimbabwe pulled out of Twenty20 Cricket World Cup in 2009 and South Africa was sanctioned because of apartheid laws(Serra,2015)
- Examples of sport uniting a country: 1995 IRB Rugby World Cup and 2010 FIFA World Cup.

### **3.3.5. Social mobility function**

Social mobility is a person's movement over time from one class to another. Social mobility can be upwards or downwards and can be either intergenerational (occurring between generations, such as when a child rises above the class of his or her parents) or intra-generational (occurring within a generation, such as when an individual changes class because of career success). Sport is frequently known as a source

of upward social mobility. Jomo Sono is a local example where sport represented a social mobility function. (Serra, 2015)

#### **4.0. Conclusion**

A socializing or pedagogic value is assigned to sport whereby, through a system of rewards and punishments, a multifaceted training of sportsmen and sportswomen and so of the population as a whole is achieved. A desired character, personality characteristics and moral qualities such as sportsmanship, honesty, courage, an orientation towards success, cooperation, etc. are all aims of participation in sport.

#### **5.0. Summary**

In this unit, you have been told how sport serves as an agent of socialization by performing the function of socio-psychological stability of individuals, socialisation function that allows for the acceptance of cultural morals and beliefs, social values and personality characteristics of an individual, social mobility, integrative function and lastly political function.

## **6.0Tutor-Marked Assignment**

### **I. Define socialization**

ii. Explain five ways to proof that sport is an agent of socialization.

### 7.0. Reference

Tenorio, R. (2015). What is the role of sports in socialisation?

Available at <http://www.livestrong.com/>

Crossman,A(2014). Socialization: Available at [tp://sociology.](tp://sociology.About.com/od/Index/g/Socialization.htm)

About.com/od/Index/g/Socialization.htm.[Accessed 23 November 2014]

Serra,P.(2015).Sociology

ofsport;<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/282124548>

Coakley, J. (1990) Sport in Society: Issues and Controversies, (4th ed.).

St. Louis: Mosby.

## **Unit II. Social Phenomenon**

### **CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 MainContent

3.1. Sociological Issues

3.1.1. Gender issue

3.1.2 Deviance issue

3.1.3Racial/Cultural issues

3.1.4 Socioeconomic issues

3.1.4 Legal issue

3.1.5 Political issues

3.2. Strategies to overcome sociological issues in sport

4.0 Conclusion

5.0. Summary

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

7.0References

## **1.0 Introduction**

Social phenomena are an incredibly important aspect of everyone's lives. In this unit, you'll explore a number of examples of social phenomena that should provide insight into how they influence sports participation and administration. The reality that sports involves vast amounts of media, time, money, people, industries, etc. creates intersections that put various social concerns at the front and centre. In recent years sports have crossed paths in significant ways with issues of domestic violence, sexual assault, gender and sexuality, the role of media, the role of protest, religion, collective bargaining, racial justice, ethics, university scandals, and many more. This unit will explore issues in society that affect sport and strategies that are being used to combat sociological issue in sport.

## **2.0. Objectives**

- I. Understand issues in society that affect sport
- Ii. Mention strategies that are being used to combat sociological issue in sport

## **3.0 Main Content**

### **3.1. Sociological issues**

3.1.1 Gender issues: Gender and gender relations are a main topic in the sociology of sport. When people talk about gender relations and sport, they usually focus on issues related to fairness, equity, ideology and culture. The single most dramatic change in sport in the world over the past generation has been the increased participation of girls and women in sport. The history of women's involvement in sport tells a story of opposition and oppression. At the first Olympic Games in 776 BC, women were barred from public events. Sources suggest that women, prohibited from entering the Olympic Games, held their own games at Olympia. The issue of equity in gender and sport also relates to national priorities, access to resources, budget cutbacks and priorities, females in professional sport vocations, emphasis on 'cosmetic fitness', media presentation of sporting females, and the limited coverage and trivialisation of female sport. Girls are also cast in the role of glamorising competitive male sport by acting as cheerleaders or pom-pom girls. The marginalisation of female sport is, however, linked to the process of cultural production, ideology and media presentation. (Kroska, 2000)



The under-representation of women in all aspects and at all levels of sport – be it at the level of participants, decision-makers, officials or coaches, and national role-players – should be recognised in order to address cultural and socio-economic problems as well as the lack of recognition and funding. However, despite resistance in some countries, girls and women around the world now participate in a variety of school, community and sport club programmes, which did not exist 35 years ago. (Serra, 2015).

### **3.1.1.1 Factors that could inhibit the future increase of female participation in sport.**

There are five reasons to be cautious about the pace and extent of future increases in the sport participation rate of girls and women: They are explain by Serra (2015) as follows

1. Resistance among those who recent changes favouring strong women. When women play certain sports, they become strong. Strong women challenge the gender ideology that men are stronger and more powerful than women. Both women and men who resent changes favouring strong women do all they can to discredit most women's sport and strong women athletes, and they call for the return of the

‘good old days’ when men played sport and women watched and cheered. As a sport manager, one could possibly provide workshops and educate both men and women on ways in which they could work together to achieve better equality in sport.

2. Under-representation of women in decision-making positions. Despite large increases in the number of sport participation opportunities for girls and women since the mid-1970s, women have suffered setbacks in the ranks of coaching and sport administration in women’s programmes. It is very important for young girls and women to see that key decision-making roles within sport programmes are filled by other women.

In South Africa, programmes such as sport, with commentator Kass Naidoo, promote sportswomen and their sporting structures. This will encourage women to believe in the importance and relevance of female sport in the future and to take their participation in sport seriously. (Serra, 2015).

3. Continued emphasis on ‘cosmetic fitness’. There are many competing images of female bodies in cultures today. Many girls and women see and hear confusing, and sometimes contradictory,

messages about the 'ideal' body type. These messages include that women should be 'firm but shapely, fit but sexy, strong but thin'. Although women see images of powerful female athletes, they cannot escape the images of very thin fashion models. These images might deter young girls and women from taking part in certain sporting activities out of fear that they would acquire more muscular features. Sport managers could facilitate workshops that sensitise sport journalists to the continued emphasis on 'cosmetic fitness' so that female bodies are not associated with sexual innuendos. The focus should also be on the athletic ability of the female participants and not necessarily on their physical attributes (Serra,2015).

4. Trivialisation of women's sport. 'Okay, women play sport, but they are not as exciting to watch as men's sport and I wouldn't pay to watch them'.<sup>36</sup> Statements like these are based on ideas that 'real' sport must involve 'manly' things, such as intimidation, violence and physical domination. Therefore, if sport involves grace, balance and co-ordination, all regarded as feminine values, it is often seen as second-rate or boring. Even if women participate in traditionally male sporting activities, such as soccer, rugby or cricket, they still do not receive the

same level of attention and respect as their male counterparts. This is also evident in the amount of time allocated to broadcasting male sporting events versus a women's soccer match, for example. Media houses could possibly introduce more programmes dedicated to female sport and have female sport journalists reporting on the athletes' achievements to avoid trivialising women's sport. (Serra, 2015).

5. Homophobia and the threat of being labelled as gay. Homophobia is a generalised fear or intolerance of homosexual and bisexual individuals. Homophobia causes some parents to steer their daughters away from sporting activities that they believe are too masculine. The wider public sometimes shares these negative connotations of women taking part in certain sporting activities, which often deters women from taking part in them. As a sport manager, you should educate about gender stereotyping and prevent gender bashing, should it occur (Serra, 2015).

3.1.2 Deviance: Deviance refers to behaviour that goes against widely accepted traditions, norms, values, ideology, rules and laws of society and that draws mild to severe sanctions. Deviance in sports has existed across time and space and throughout the world, and whether or not

someone commits a deviant act depends upon the time and place and who does the judging. Determining what deviance is, in other word, is a social process because behaviour itself is not enough, there must also be a reaction to it.

Deviance in sport cuts across gender, race and class line. Some of the deviant acts are cheating, drug abuse, gambling and violence:

Cheating means when the rule and norms are violated for one's advantages. Cheating can take many forms and is serious when coaches are involved, Eitzen (2003) a sociologist notes that coaches who cheat on their resumes can hardly qualify as role models for their athletes.

Drug abuse is a practice when athletes take additive drugs that are meant to stimulate the body beyond normal capabilities. In recent times, some athletes were tested positive to blood doping performing enhancing drugs.

Gambling that involves athletes or others in a position to alter the outcome of a contest is associated with sports. According to Curry and Jobu (1984) the most famous incident of sports gambling is the "Black Sox Scandal".

Violence means the use of excessive physical force intended to cause mental or physical pain to another person is associated with sport. Coakley (2004) believes that acceptance of excessive physical force can be looked at as deviant over conformity to the norms of sports.

### **3.1.2.1. Theories of Deviance in sports**

Two of the most popular theories employed by sport sociologists are differential association and strain theory. They are expanded on below (Serra,2015).

Differential association is based on the work of Edwin Sutherland, who emphasized that people learnt conformity or deviance from the people with whom they associate. Sutherland notes that deviant behaviour is learnt through interaction with other, especially in small, intimate groups. Such learning of deviant behaviour consists of acquiring techniques, motives, drives and attitudes. An individual learns 'definitions' (mindsets or attitudes) that are favourable or unfavourable to prevailing norms, and becomes deviant when he or she learns to accept more unfavourable definitions than favourable definitions. The frequency, length, and intensity of a person's associations determine the impact of associations on the person. Infrequent contacts of limited

duration will have less impact than frequent, intense contact (Sutherland and Cressey, 1978).

Strain or anomie theory is less concerned with the interaction among team members and more concerned with the structure of opportunity in society. According to Robin Merton, who first constructed the theory, structural strain develops when the culturally prescribed goals of the social system cannot be achieved through socially approved means. The strain may produce deviance, and Merton outlined five typical social adaptations to such a situation. They are as follows: conformity; ritualism; innovation; retreatism and rebellion.

**Conformity.** A conformist accepts the conventional goals of society and the conventional means to obtain them. An athlete who desires to win an Olympic goal medal will spend many years practicing and improving his skills until he is able to perform and succeed at the highest level. In contrast an innovator accepts the goals but rejects the socially approved means and thus opts for deviance to obtain the goals. Athletes who use banned substances such as steroid are trying to win but are doing so through innovative practices with performance enhancing drugs.(Luschen,2001).

3.1.3. Socioeconomic issues, i.e. opportunities (e.g. time, work/family commitments); access (e.g. facilities, coaching, equipment, knowledge, transport); financial (e.g. cost of sessions/kit/equipment, cost of watching sport live or through TV subscription); o privilege (e.g. memberships, costs); ostereotypes (e.g. polo for upper class, drafts for lower class)(Serra,2015).

### **3.1.4 Racial/Cultural issues**

Sport involves complex issues related to race and ethnicity. These issues have increasing social relevance as global migration and political changes bring people together from different racial and ethnic backgrounds and create new challenges for living, working and playing together. The challenges created by racial and ethnic diversity are among the most important ones we face in the 21st century. Cultural beliefs about race and ethnicity influence social relationships and the organisation of social life.

Sport not only reflects this influence but is also a site at which people challenge or reproduce dominant ideas and forms of racial and ethnic relations in a society. The social meanings and experiences associated with skin colour and ethnic background influence access to sport



participation, decisions about playing sport, the ways in which people integrate sport into their lives and the organisation and sponsorship of sport. (Louw, 2014)

3.1.5 political issues, i.e. use of sport to tackle social problems (e.g. obesity/public health); exploitation of sport to promote other interests (e.g. government support for hosting events)

3.1.6 legal issues, i.e. sport (and society) more litigious: growth of sports law; legislative institutions in sport (e.g. Court of Arbitration for Sport).

3.2. Strategies to overcome sociological issues in sport, i.e. (1) governing body (e.g. campaigns, targets, punishments (e.g. against racism); (2) Government - central (e.g. funding, increased opportunities/resources) and local (e.g. councils offering discounted rates at facilities, increased local promotion/awareness)

## **4.0 Conclusion**

Research suggests sports play both a positive and negative role in socialization, not only between young athletes and their peer group, but also between children and adults. Research also indicates that sports play differing roles in socialization for boys and girls. As a sport

manager, you need to understand why people participate in sport, why they change sports or stop participating in sport, and what happens to them as a result of their participation in sport.

## **5.0. Summary**

In this unit, you have learnt that sports are not immune from social issues such as gender discriminations, racial and cultural discrimination, violence, drug abuses, and financial constraints. Strategies have been suggested to bring negative sociological issues to the barest minimum.

## **5.0 Tutor-marked Assignment.**

1. Highlight some of the sociological issues that impede sports participations
- 2 Suggest strategies that can be employed to reduce the negative impacts of above mentioned sociological issues

## **6.0 References**

Curry, T.J and Jiobu, R.M.(1984) Sports: a social Perspective. Prentice-Hall, Englewood cliffs, NJ

Eitzen, D.S. (2003) Fair and Foul: Beyond the Myths and Paradoxes of Sport(2<sup>nd</sup>ed). Rowman & Little field, New York

Luschen, G (2001)Doping in Sport as Deviant Behaviour;In: Coackey, J & Dumy, E (Eds), Handbook of Sport Studies. Sage, London,pp461-476

Coakey, J. (2004)Sport in Society: Issues and Controlversies. McGraw-Hill, Boston

Merton, R.K.(1938)Social Structure and anomies. American Sociologist Review3:671-682

Sutheland, E and Cressey (1978)Principles of Criminology. Lippencott, Chicago.

Louw, A.M. (2014). The return of racial quotas in South African sport. Available at

<http://sportsfire.co.za/the-return-of-racialquotas-in-south-african-sport>.

## **Unit III. Sports & Socialization**

### **CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1. The Meaning of Sport Socialization

3.1.1. The Roles of sport in the socialization process

3.2. Social Learning Models of Sports

3.3 The role of transition within sport and exercise

3.3.1. Primary Socialization

3.3.2 Socialization

3.3.3. De-socialization

3.3.4. Aversive Socialization

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

7.0 References

## **1.0 Introduction**

Sport manager, you need to understand why people participate in sport, why they change sports or stop participating in sport, and what happens to them as a result of their participation in sport. This process of learning and development in and through sport is known as socialisation.

Socialisation is an active process of learning and social development, which occurs as we interact with one another and becomes acquainted with the social world in which we live. It involves the formation of ideas about who we are and what is important in our lives. We are not simply passive learners in the socialisation process. We actively participate in our own socialisation as we influence those who influence us. We actively interpret what we see and hear, and we accept, resist, or revise the messages that we receive about who we are, about the world, and about what we should do as we make our way in the world. Therefore, socialisation is not a one-way process of social influence through which we are moulded and shaped. Instead, it is an interactive process through which we actively connect through others,

synthesise information, and make decisions that shape our own lives and the social world around us (Serra,2015).

## **2.0 Objectives**

By the end of the unit, you will be able to

1. Explain the concept of sport socialization
2. Highlight the roles sport plays in socialization process
3. Explain social learning models of sport
4. Describe role of transition within sport

## **3.0 Main Content**

3.1. The Meanings of Socialization into sport, out of sport and through the sport

### **3.1.1 Socialization into Sports**

Research based on an internalization social systems approach clarified that socialization into sport is related to three factors: (1) a person's abilities and characteristics, (2) the influence of significant others, including parents, siblings, teachers, and peers, and (3) the availability of opportunities to play and experience success in sports. Most of this research utilized quantitative methods and presented correlational analyses, but it provided little information about the social processes

and contexts in which people make participation decisions and in which participation is maintained on a day to day basis at various points in the life course.(Crossman,2014)

### **3.1.2. Socialisation Out Of Sports**

References have been made to attrition, disengagement, de-socialization, withdrawal from sport roles, dropping out, nonparticipation, burnout, transitions, alienation, “social death,” exits, retirement, and involuntary retirement (i.e., being “cut” or denied access to participation opportunities). Studies have focused on many issues, including the relationship between participation turnover rates and the structures of sport programs, the attributes and experiences of those who terminate or change their sport participation, the dynamics of transitions out of sport roles, the termination of participation in highly competitive sport contexts as a form of retirement or even as a form of “social death,” and the connection between declining rates of participation and the process of aging.

This research indicates that terminating or changing sport participation occurs in connection with the same interactive and decision making processes that underlie becoming and staying involved in sports. When

people end their active participation in one sport context, they often initiate participation in another context – one that is more or less competitive, for example. Terminating active participation due to victimization or exploitation is rare, although burnout, injuries, and negative experiences can and do influence decisions to change or end participation. Changes in patterns of sport participation often are associated with transitions in the rest of a person's life, such as moving from one school to another, graduating, initiating a career, marriage, and becoming a parent. And for people who end long careers in sports, adjustment problems are most common among those who have weakly defined identities apart from sports and lack the social and material resources required for making transitions into other careers, relationships, and social worlds.

### **3.1.3. Socialization through Sports**

The belief that sport builds character has its origins in the class and gender relations of mid-nineteenth century England. Although the history of beliefs about the consequences of sport participation varies by society, the notion that sport produces positive socialization effects



has been widely accepted in most western industrial and post-industrial societies, especially England, Canada, and the United States.

### **3.1.4 Role of sport in the socialization process**

Quality sports activities are needed to socialize the youth into the total education process and also increase the physical competence, health-related fitness, self-responsibility and enjoyment of physical activity for all students so that they can be physically active for a lifetime. Sports programs can only provide these benefits if they are well-planned and well-implemented.

There the researcher defines the various ways that are essential for physical education and socialization in children. The various stages are mentioned below (Crossman, 2014)

1) Improved Physical Fitness: Improves children's muscular strength, flexibility, muscular endurance, body composition and cardiovascular endurance.

2) Skill Development: Develops motor skills, which allow for safe, successful and satisfying participation in physical activities, emotional stability and resilience.

3) Strengthened Peer Relationships: Physical education can be a major force in helping a child socializes with others successfully and provides opportunities to learn positive people skills. Especially during late childhood and adolescence, being able to participate in dances, games and sports is an important part of peer culture.

4) Improved Self-confidence and Self-esteem: Physical education instils a stronger sense of self-worth in children based on their mastery of skills and concepts in physical activity. They can become more confident, assertive, independent and self-control.

### **3.2 Social Learning Models of Sports**

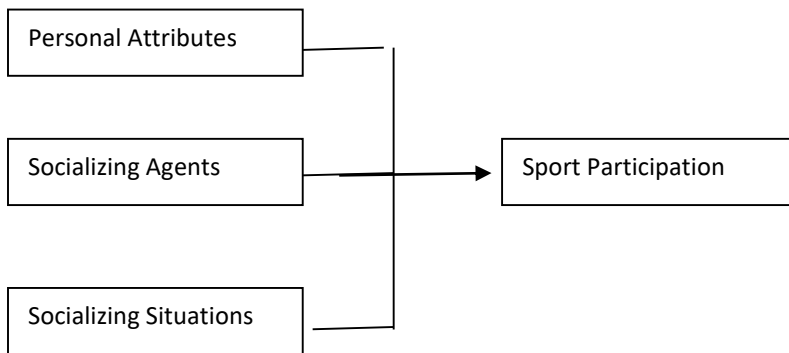
Fitting into physically active roles is a complex process, and no two individuals experience the same process. Predicting whether an individual is likely to participate in any of the forms of physical activity is best understood by utilizing a social learning approach. (Kenyon & McPherson, 1973)

Kenyon and McPherson (1973) introduced a framework for consolidating the overwhelming number of factors that play a role in an individual's likelihood of participation in an organised sport or other physical activity. Drawing on general theories of social learning,

predictors of participation in sporting activity roles can be categorised into three groups:

1. A person's abilities, characteristics and resources;
2. The influence of significant others, including parents, siblings, teachers, peers and role models (socialising agents);
- and 3. The availability of opportunities to play sport (socialising situations).

**Figure 1. Predators of Participation in Sports**



Source: Kenyon & McPherson (1973) cited in Serra (2015)

Personal attributes are any descriptive features that characterise the individual. They include the physical dimensions (height, weight, age, physical condition) the psychological dimension

(Personality, competitiveness, psychological maturation) and the social psychological dimensions (coping skills, social interaction skills).

Socialising agents are significant people in one's life who provide social influence.

The family is considered the most significant socialising agent for all age groups, but particularly for children. Social support, whether from family members or friends, is an important factor in whether people start and continue participation in sport and other forms of physical activity. Social support takes a variety of forms. It may consist of accompanying someone to an exercise class, calling someone to see how a programme is going, or providing information about new programmes.

The third group, socialising situations, consists of an individuals' unique blend of opportunities and life experiences. Factors such as the social class of a family; the amount of disposable income available to buy sport equipment and the physical environment in which the individual lives all play a role in the socialisation process.(Serra, 2015)

### **3.3 The role of transition within sport and exercise**

An athlete or participant's transition through sport can occur simultaneously and in any order in an individual's socialisation journey. They are primary socialisation, re-socialisation, de-socialisation and aversive socialisation..(Serra.2015)

### **3.3.1. Primary Socialisation:**

Primary socialisation is the process by which individuals first learn a sport or physical activity role. It occurs mostly during childhood, during physical education – for example, children learning to play mini hockey, mini soccer and rugby. Primary socialisation could also occur in adulthood when an individual takes up tennis at a local club or joins a senior or masters league.

### **3.3.2 Re-socialization**

Re-socialisation is when individuals transfer from one level, form or role in the same activity to another – for example, from primary school to high school level sport, or from being an Olympic swimmer to being a college swimming coach.

### **3.3.3. De-socialization**

De-socialisation is the process by which individuals leave sport roles temporarily – for example, due to moving from one city to another, an independent decision to quit, being dropped by the coach, sustaining a minor injury, or any other reason that would cause an individual to stop taking part in a particular sport. Other reasons could include socio-economic reasons (such as the inability to carry the costs of fees and equipment) and negative experiences (such as a fight with the coach, being benched, negative media exposure or a personal trauma).

### **3.3.4. Aversive Socialization**

Aversive socialisation is long-term withdrawal from sport and physical activity due to possible heightened stress levels and pressure as a result of growing up, adapting to different levels of sport, burnout or achieving a sporting goal. An example of an athlete who may be in the aversive socialisation phase is Oscar Pistorius. Personal circumstances have resulted in him withdrawing from sport due to a prison sentence he is currently serving for fatally shooting his girlfriend Reeva Steenkamp. One could say that he had no choice but to aversively socialise from sport – his circumstances have left him no choice and,

if the shooting had not happened, he would most likely still be participating in athletics. Similarly, Lance Armstrong, seven-time Tour de France champion, aversively socialised from cycling due to a doping scandal and charges for illegal substance use in his cycling career. Another example is an athlete who aversively socialises from sport due to having won and broken records and, in doing so, having reached his or her goals)(Serra,2015)

#### **4.0 Conclusion**

Socialization is a learning process that begins shortly after birth, by which people become familiar with and adapt themselves to the interpersonal relationships of their social world. Sports play a major role in the socializing the children's by providing opportunities of play, game and contest which develops the social qualities like skill, self-confidence, self-esteem and good peer relationship.

#### **5.0. Summary.**

In the unit, you have been told that sport socialisation can be in three forms such as socialization into sport, out of sport and through sport. You have also been told that sport participation improves physical fitness, develops motor skills, helps children to socialize, and improves

self-confidence and self-esteem. Not only that, you have been taught factors that play a role in an individual's likelihood of sport participation.

## 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1 Explain the following terms

a) Socialization into sport b) Socialization out of sport c) Socialization through the sport

2) Name and expanciate four agents of sport socialization

3) Highlight how transition through sport can occur in an individual's socialisation journey

4) Discuss four roles sports play in socialization process.

5) Explain the learning process model

## 7.0 References

1. Helanko, R. (1957) Sports and Socialization. Acta Sociologica 2: 229-40.
2. Kenyon, G. & McPherson, B. D. (1973) Becoming Involved in Physical Activity and Sport: A Process of Socialization. In: Rarick, G. L. (Ed.), Physical Activity: Human Growth and Development. Academic Press, New York, pp. 303-32.



Shields, D. L. & Bredemeier, B. L. (1995) Character Development and Physical Activity. Human Kinetics, Champaign, IL.

Stevenson, C. L. (1975) Socialization Effects of Participation in Sport: A Critical Review of the Research. Research Quarterly 46: 287-301.

Crossman, A. (2014). Socialisation. Available at [http://sociology.about.com/od/S\\_Index/g/Socialisation.htm](http://sociology.about.com/od/S_Index/g/Socialisation.htm).

Tenorio, R. (2015). What is the role of sports in socialisation? Available at <http://www.livestrong.com/article/532903-what-is-the-role-of-sports-insocialization/>.

Volume 2: Sports Psychology

## **Module Three**

In Module Two, you have learnt the meaning, scope and nature of sociology together with attendant theories that are being applied to the organization and the management of sport. You have also learnt that sport is a significant activity that has foster unit among citizens and nations of the world.

In this module the following listed units will give you more insight as to how theories and principles of psychology are being applied to sport management and participation.. To get all these insights the module will be delimited into three units as follows:

Unit I. Meaning & Scope of Psychology

Unit II. Sports Psychology and Psychological factors effecting Physical Education

Unit III. Meaning & Nature of Learning, Laws of learning, type of learning curve.

Unit I Meaning & Scope of Psychology

### **CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

### 3.0 Main Content

#### 3.1. The Meaning and Definitions of Psychology

##### 3.1.2. The evolution of Psychology

#### 3.2 Scope of Psychology

##### 3.1.1 Socio-emotional function

##### 3.1.2 Socialization function

##### 3.1.2 The integrative function

##### 3.1.4 The political function

##### 3.1.5. Social mobility function

### 4.0 Conclusion

### 5.0 Summary

### 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

### 7.0 References

## **1.0 Introduction**

Psychology is the scientific study of mind and behaviour. The word “psychology” comes from the Greek words “psyche,” meaning life, and “logos,” meaning explanation. Psychology is a popular major for students, a popular topic in the public media, and a part of our everyday lives. And many people have direct knowledge about psychology because they have visited psychologists, for instance, school counsellors, family therapists, and religious, marriage, or bereavement counsellors.

### **Objective**

At the end of the lesson, students will be able to

1. Explain the concept of psychology
2. Outline the basic schools of psychology and how each school has contributed to psychology

### **3.0 Main content**

#### **3.1 Meaning and Definition of Psychology**

Some might say that psychology is a study of "human behaviour"; some might say it is a study of the "mind or brain"; others might say

that it is a study of personality and what motivates people to do what they do.

All are partly correct t, but each of these answers is focused on only some aspect of psychology.

It is now generally agreed that psychology is a science.

Psychologists study\*Behaviour

Behaviour includes being kind, angry, breathing, walking, aggressive, getting old, becoming a grandparent and so on.

\*Experience – If we study behaviour, we need to understand what the experience of that behaviour is like for the individual. I.e. if we study someone being angry, we need to know what that feels like for the person.

\*Human and animal behaviour – often psychologists cannot perform experiments on humans for ethical reasons and may use animals to try to gain understanding of human behaviour. For example, by trying to teach monkeys to talk, researchers have gained insight into how humans may develop their language skills.

**As psychology is a science**, - it is vital that it can be studied scientifically and objectively. We can study, experiment with and

objectively talk about manifest behaviour. However, the experience of that behaviour is a subjective experience, where we rely on the individual to tell us how it feels.

Psychology is the scientific study of behaviour and mental processes. Behaviour includes all of our outward or overt actions and reactions, such as verbal and facial expressions and movements.

Mental processes refer to all the internal and covert activity of our mind such as thinking, feeling and remembering. It is a scientific study because to study behaviour and mental processes, the psychologists use the scientific methods for understanding more precisely and accurately.

The word Psychology has its origin from two Greek words 'Psyche' and 'Logos', 'psyche' means 'soul' and 'logos' means 'study'. Thus literally, Psychology means 'the study of soul' or 'science of soul'.

### **1. The first definition of the Psychology was the study of the soul:**

The earliest attempts at defining Psychology owed their origin to the most mysterious and philosophical concept, namely that of soul. What is soul? How can it be studied? The inability to find clear answers to such questions led some ancient Greek philosophers to define psychology as the study of the mind.

## **2. In terms of the study of the mind:**

Although the word mind was less mysterious and vague than soul, yet it also faced the same questions, namely what is mind? How can it be studied, etc? This definition was also rejected.

## **3. In terms of the study of consciousness:**

The description and explanation of the states of consciousness is the task of Psychology which is usually done by the instrument introspection

Therefore, a generally accepted definition of psychology is "the study of human behaviour. Behaviour can provide us with valuable windows into a person's emotional and cognitive states, and if we can understand the psychological influences on behaviour, we can try to better understand a person's inner experience.

### **3.2. Different Approaches to the Study Psychology**

There are many different theories and models within psychology which try to explain our behaviour, emotion and thoughts. Each theory contributes something different and increases our understanding.

Therefore, basically psychologists start out with a hypothesis or idea, which they then test. This idea is the basis for empirical research.

## **Neurobiological approach**

Some psychologists maintain a close link with the discipline of physiology: they perceive the brain and nervous system as the main key to human behaviour, and tend to study the relationship between psychological events (what happens in the mind) and biological events (what happens in the body). Many neurobiologists believe that thought and feelings result from the actions of nerves and the nervous system in the body. For instance, they argue that dreams are the result of activated neurological patterns or random firing of nerve cells.

## **Behavioural approach**

Another fairly conservative approach is that of behaviourist psychologists. The founder of this school of thought, J. B. Watson, was the father of the science of psychology (though not of the study of psychology). He argued that if psychology was to be scientific, it must focus exclusively on human behaviour. Watson did not think psychologists should speculate on the unobservable workings of our minds, as they could not be studied scientifically. Watson's approach still has a strong following due to its practical applications, eg. In reducing phobias and so on.



## **Cognitive approach**

Cognitive comes from the Latin *cognito*, meaning to Apprehend or understand. The cognitive approach developed largely as a reaction to the behavioural approach. Cognitive psychologists argue that individuals do not passively respond to stimuli, but actively process information in their brain before responding to the information. They are interested in what happens in the mind between the stimulus and the response. They look at topics such as perception, memory, thought, language and attention. They try to explain behaviour in terms of these mental processes. Cognitive psychology is used in many different ways, such as suggestions on how to improve our memories, improving performance in situations that require concentration, such as air traffic controllers and so on

## **Psychoanalytical approach**

One of the most fascinating and influential approaches to human behaviour is psychoanalysis, developed by Sigmund Freud. Where the above approaches were formulated on the basis of mainly experimental studies, Freud based his theories upon intensive case studies of a considerable range of patients.

Psychoanalysis focuses on unconscious mental activities. According to Freud, much of the individual's observable behaviour is influenced by wishes, desires or fears which the individual has learned to suppress because they are not socially acceptable. As the child develops and learns that some feelings and desires are disapproved of, these wishes, desires and fears are buried deep in the mind, leading to the development of the unconscious. According to Freud, these unconscious impulses still find expression though as dreams, fantasies, slips of the tongue, symptoms of mental illness, as well as in artistic expression, and the individual's psychological history plays an immense role in particular behaviour patterns. All of the approaches previously discussed adhere firmly to the scientific principles of objectivity -the human individual is perceived as a passive object of

analysis rather than an active agent of his/her own destiny. On the one hand, behaviourists claim that human behaviour is largely shaped by environmental stimuli; and on the other hand psychoanalysts claim that behaviour is shaped by unconscious impulses beyond the individual's control.

### **Phenomenological approach**

Because of the demand that psychology be accepted as a scientific discipline, many theorists tended to forget that the subject of their study is the human being, who (unlike the atom or a virus) has self-awareness, freedom of choice, a personal value system, and most of all, a desire to be understood, to gain self-knowledge, and to grow spiritually. It is these neglected aspects of human behaviour that the phenomenologist chooses to emphasise. For these reasons, phenomenological psychology is often called humanistic psychology.

### **Eclectic approach**

Although the above approaches have been discussed in isolation, it is important to note that modern psychologists rarely align themselves with one approach exclusively. They are more likely to incorporate

aspects of several theories into their approach. This is called the eclectic approach.

**The Many Disciplines of Psychology**

Psychology is not one discipline but rather a collection of many sub disciplines that all share at least some common approaches and that work together and exchange knowledge to form a coherent discipline (Yang & Chiu, 2009). Because the field of psychology is so broad, students may wonder which areas are most suitable for their interests and which types of careers might be available to them. Table 1.3 "Some Career Paths in Psychology" will help you consider the answers to these questions.

Some Career Paths in Psychology

Psychology field	Description	Career opportunities
<b>Biopsychology and neuroscience</b>	This field examines the physiological bases of behaviour in animals and	Most bio psychologists work in research settings—for instance, at universities, for the federal government, and in private research labs.

	humans by studying the functioning of different brain areas and the effects of hormones and neurotransmitters on behaviour.	
<b>Clinical and counselling psychology</b>	These are the largest fields of psychology. The focus is on the assessment, diagnosis, causes, and	Clinical and counselling psychologists provide therapy to patients with the goal of improving their life experiences. They work in hospitals, schools, social agencies, and in private practice. Because the demand for this career is high, entry to

	treatment of mental disorders.	academic programs is highly competitive.
<b>Cognitive psychology</b>	This field uses sophisticated research methods, including reaction time and brain imaging to study memory, language, and thinking of humans.	Cognitive psychologists work primarily in research settings, although some (such as those who specialize in human-computer interactions) consult for businesses.
<b>Developmental psychology</b>	These psychologists conduct	Many work in research settings, although others work in schools and community agencies to help

	research on the cognitive, emotional, and social changes that occur across the lifespan.	improve and evaluate the effectiveness of intervention programs such as Head Start.
<b>Forensic psychology</b>	Forensic psychologists apply psychological principles to understand the behaviour of judges, attorneys, courtroom juries, and others in the	Forensic psychologists work in the criminal justice system. They may testify in court and may provide information about the reliability of eyewitness testimony and jury selection.

	criminal justice system.	
<b>Health psychology</b>	Health psychologists are concerned with understanding how biology, behaviour, and the social situation influence health and illness.	Health psychologists work with medical professionals in clinical settings to promote better health, conduct research, and teach at universities.
<b>Industrial-organizational and environmental psychology</b>	Industrial-organizational psychology applies psychology to	There are a wide variety of career opportunities in these fields, generally working in businesses. These psychologists help select employees, evaluate employee



	<p>the workplace with the goal of improving the performance and well-being of employees.</p>	<p>performance, and examine the effects of different working conditions on behaviour. They may also work to design equipment and environments that improve employee performance and reduce accidents.</p>
<p><b>Personality psychology</b></p>	<p>These psychologists study people and the differences among them. The goal is to develop theories that explain the psychological</p>	<p>Most work in academic settings, but the skills of personality psychologists are also in demand in business—for instance, in advertising and marketing. PhD programs in personality psychology are often connected with programs in social psychology.</p>

	<p>processes of individuals, and to focus on individual differences.</p>	
<p><b>School and educational psychology</b></p>	<p>This field studies how people learn in school, the effectiveness of school programs, and the psychology of teaching.</p>	<p>School psychologists work in elementary and secondary schools or school district offices with students, teachers, parents, and administrators. They may assess children's psychological and learning problems and develop programs to minimize the impact of these problems.</p>
<p><b>Social and cross-cultural psychology</b></p>	<p>This field examines people's interactions</p>	<p>Many social psychologists work in marketing, advertising, organizational, systems design,</p>

	<p>with other people. Topics of study include conformity, group behaviour, leadership, attitudes, and person perception.</p>	<p>and other applied psychology fields.</p>
<b>Sports psychology</b>	<p>This field studies the psychological aspects of sports behaviour.</p> <p>The goal is to understand the</p>	<p>Sports psychologists work in gyms, schools, professional sports teams, and other areas where sports are practiced.</p>

	psychological  factorsthat  influence  performance  in sports,  including the  role of  exercise and  team  interactions.	
--	---	--

**4.0 Conclusion.**

Psychology is the scientific study of mind and behaviour. Although it is easy to think that everyday situations have commonsense answers, scientific studies have found that people are not always as good at predicting outcomes as they often think they are. The hindsight bias leads us to think that we could have predicted events that we could not actually have predicted. Employing the scientific method allows

psychologists to objectively and systematically understand human behaviour.

## **5.0. Summary**

In this unit, you have learnt Psychology is the study of behaviour at different levels of explanation, ranging from lower biological levels to higher social and cultural levels. The same behaviours can be studied and explained within psychology at different levels of explanation.

Psychology became more objective as more sophisticated scientific approaches were developed and employed. Cognitive psychology, evolutionary psychology, and social-cultural psychology are some important contemporary approaches. You have also learnt that there are a variety of available career choices within psychology that provide employment in many different areas of interest.

## **6.0 Tutor-Marked assignment**

- 1 Define psychology
2. Explain four approaches to psychology
3. Describe five psychology fields and their career opportunities

## **7.0 References**

Benjamin, L. T., Jr., & Baker, D. B. (2004). From séance to science: A history of the profession of psychology in America. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson.

Harris, J. (1998). The nurture assumption: Why children turn out the way they do. New York, NY: Touchstone Books;

Pinker, S. (2002). The blank slate: The modern denial of human nature. New York, NY: Penguin Putnam.

Wegner, D. M. (2002). The illusion of conscious will. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Fiske, S. T. (2003). Social beings. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Hunt, M. (1993). The story of psychology. New York, NY: Anchor Books.

James, W. (1890). The principles of psychology. New York, NY: Dover.

Dennett, D. (1995). Darwin's dangerous idea: Evolution and the meanings of life. New York, NY: Simon and Schuster; Tooby, J., &

Cosmides, L. (1992). The psychological foundations of culture. In J. H. Barkow & L. Cosmides (Eds.), The adapted mind: Evolutionary

psychology and the generation of culture (p. 666). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Buss, D. M. (2000). The dangerous passion: Why jealousy is as necessary as love and sex. New York, NY: Free Press.

Gould, S. J., & Lewontin, R. C. (1979). The spandrels of San Marco and the Panglossian paradigm: A critique of the adaptationist programme. In *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London (Series B)*, Vol. 205, pp. 581–598).

Moore, B. E., & Fine, B. D. (1995). *Psychoanalysis: The major concepts*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Watson, J. B., Rayner, R. (1920). Conditioned emotional reactions. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 3(1), 1–14; Beck, H. P., Levinson, S., & Irons, G. (2009). Finding Little Albert: A journey to John B. Watson's infant laboratory. *American Psychologist*, 64(7), 605–614.

Skinner, B. (1957). *Verbal behavior*. Acton, MA: Copley; Skinner, B. (1968). *The technology of teaching*. New York, NY: Appleton-Century-Crofts; Skinner, B. (1972). *Beyond freedom and dignity*. New York, NY: Vintage Books.

Libet, B. (1985). Unconscious cerebral initiative and the role of conscious will in voluntary action. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 8(4), 529–566; Matsushashi, M., & Hallett, M. (2008). The timing of the conscious intention to move. *European Journal of Neuroscience*, 28(11), 2344–2351; Wegner, D. M. (2002). *The illusion of conscious will*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Soon, C. S., Brass, M., Heinze, H.-J., & Haynes, J.-D. (2008). Unconscious determinants of free decisions in the human brain. *Nature Neuroscience*, 11(5), 543–545.

Aarts, H., Custers, R., & Wegner, D. M. (2005). On the inference of personal authorship: Enhancing experienced agency by priming effect information. *Consciousness and Cognition: An International Journal*, 14(3), 439–458.

Dijksterhuis, A., Preston, J., Wegner, D. M., & Arts, H. (2008). Effects of subliminal priming of self and God on self-attribution of authorship for events. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 44(1), 2–9.

Wegner, D. M. (2003). The mind's best trick: How we experience conscious will. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 7(2), 65–69.



Bartlett, F. C. (1932). *Remembering*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ilardi, S. S., & Feldman, D. (2001). The cognitive neuroscience paradigm: A unifying met theoretical framework for the science and practice of clinical psychology. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 57(9), 1067–1088.

Byrne, D. (1969). Attitudes and attraction. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 4, pp. 35–89). New York, NY: Academic Press.

Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. *Human Relations*, 7, 117–140.

## **Unit II. Sports Psychology and Psychological factors effecting Physical Education**

### **CONTENTS**

1. 0Introduction

2.0 Objective

30. Main content

### **3.1 Sport Psychology**

3.1.1History of sport psychology

3.1.2. Importance of sport psychology

3.1.3The field of sport psychology and how it can help you as an athlete, parent of an athlete, or as a coach

3.2. Psychological factors effecting sports

4.0. Conclusion

5.0. Summary

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

7.0 References

## **1.0 Introduction**

Sport psychology is the scientific study of people and their behaviours in sport contexts and the practical application of that knowledge. Sport psychologists identify principles and guidelines that professionals can use to help adults and children participation and benefit from sport and exercise activities in both team and individual environments. Sport psychologists have two objectives in mind: (a) to understand how psychological factors affect an individual's physical performance and (b) to understand how participation in sport and exercise affects a person's psychological development, health and well-being.

## **2.0. Objective**

At the end of the unit, you would be able to

1. Define sport psychology and narrate briefly the history of sport psychology
2. Explain psychological factors that are affecting sports

## **3.0 Main content**

### **3.1. Meaning and definitions of sport psychology**

Sport psychology is a relatively new field world-wide, and has the potential to provide valuable services to coaches, teachers, and

student athletes in schools, beginning as early as elementary school. Broadly defined, sport psychology is a science-based specialization with a body of knowledge that provides professional services to children, adolescents, and adults interested in improving their quality of life through exercise and sport. Since its inception, but particularly during the past decade, sport psychology services have primarily been utilized at the professional, Olympic, and collegiate levels to help athletes and coaches enhance performance and personal development

### Definitions

Sports psychology was defined by Singer (1978) as “the science of psychology applied to sport.” Sports psychologists provide two major types of services: performance enhancement as a competitive strategy and counselling for a variety of issues affecting the athlete. Although not all athletes have access to a qualified sport psychologist, much can be learned from the available research. (Singer, 1986)

The European Federation of Sport Psychology (FEPSAC)(1996) produced such a broad definition, which, slightly simplified, reads, ‘Sport psychology is the study of the psychological basis, pro-cesses

and effects of sport.’ This of course begs the questions, what is sport and what is psychology? Although many athletes would insist that sport necessarily includes an element of competition, the term ‘sport’ is used, both in the FEPSAC definition of sport psychology, and throughout this book, in the broadest sense, including any physical activity for the purposes of competition, recreation, education or health. Psychology is often defined as ‘the science of mind and behaviour’ (Gross, 2005). Later in this chapter, we can take a brief overview of psychology and begin to learn how to think critically and creatively about psychological theory and research.

### **3.1.1 A brief history of sport psychology**

Sport psychology has existed in some form for almost as long as psychology itself. The first recorded study in sport psychology took place at the close of the nineteenth century. Norman (1898) performed what is often cited as the first experiment in social psychology as well as the first in sport psychology. Norman (1898) investigated the phenomenon of social facilitation, in which performance is affected by the presence of others .He demonstrated that cyclists tended to cycle faster when racing against other cyclists than they did alone. Triplett

did not pursue further sport-related research, however, and it was not until the 1920s that the discipline of sport psychology was formally established.

### **3.1.2 Importance of sports psychology.**

The importance of sports psychology are as follows (Rohit, 2017)

#### **3.1.2.1. Enhancement of Physiological Capacities**

Sports psychology plays a very unique role in the enhancement of physiological capacities such as strength, speed and flexibility etc., Motivation plays a major role in the enhancement of physical capacity of sport persons. It is well-known as well as an established fact that psychological capacities or powers can increase physiological capacities of individuals.

#### **3.1.2.2. Learning the Motor Skills**

According to Rohit (2017), sports psychology plays its major role in the learning of motor skills. Motor skills learning depend on the individual's level of readiness, i.e., physiological readiness and psychological readiness. Physiological readiness in children is development of the necessary strength, flexibility and endurance as well as the development of various organ systems so that they may

perform motor skills required in the activity. Psychological readiness is related to the learner's state of mind. It means the desire and willingness to learn the particular skill. In psychological readiness, sports psychology plays an important role. Sports psychology is also helpful in the cognitive stage, the social-active stage and the autonomous stage of motor skill learning.

#### **3.1.2.3. Understanding the behaviour of athletes**

Sports psychology helps in understanding the behaviour of athletes or sportspersons engaged in competitive sports. Coaches also come to know the interest, attitude towards physical activity, instincts, drives and personality of sportspersons. It does not play its role only in understanding of behaviour but it also plays its role in medication of behaviour in various sports situations. (Rohit ,2017)

#### **3.1.2.4. Controlling the emotions**

Sports psychology plays a very important role in controlling the emotions of sportspersons during practice as well as competition. Generally, these emotions may bring spontaneous changes in the behaviour of sportspersons. These are anger, disgust, gear, negative self-thinking and feeling of ownership, etc. If these emotions are not

controlled well in time, the performance may be decreased. Sports psychology plays a vital role at such juncture. It helps in balancing the arousal of emotions which further improves the performance. (Rohit,2017)

#### **3.1.2.5. Preparation of athletes' psychologically for competitions**

Sports psychology also plays its role in preparation of athletes psychologically for competitions. Intact, it has become a trend to give psychological tips to athletes or team players before and after the competitions. That is why; sports psychologists' services are required with a national level and international level terms. They create the will 'to win' in the players. (Rohit, 2017)

#### **3.1.2.6. Role in the emotional problems of sports persons**

Stress, tension and anxiety are natural during practice period and competitions or tournaments. There may be some other emotional problems such as depression, frustration, anorexia and panic etc. The knowledge of sports psychology may be helpful in such situations. Techniques of relaxation and concentration for stress management can be applied on sportspersons who are under such problems. (Rohit, 2017)



3.1.3The field of sport psychology and how it can help you as an athlete, parent of an athlete, or as a coach (Rohit, 2017).

#### 3.1.3.1. Sport Psychology Helps You Understand Yourself as an Athlete

You need to have mental strategies for learning, practice and performance factors. Sport psychology gives you the methods and approaches to become aware of what you need so you and your coach can craft custom interventions.

#### 3.1.3.2. Sport Psychology Helps You Work Better With Your Parents

Your parents should be part of your success team, at least at some level. It does not necessarily mean they should coach you, but it would be nice to have a solid relationship with them, and excellent communication skills so they can assist you in your career.

#### 3.1.3.3. Sport Psychology Helps You Work Better With Your Coaches

Your coach is perhaps the most important person on your team. You need a great working relationship with this person. Sport psychology can help you create this relationship, and nurture it.

#### 3.1.3.4. Sport Psychology Helps You Navigate Your Sport Career

There are many blind alleys, pitfalls and false paths in a sport career. Sport psychology helps you create a vision for success, and goals and objectives, so you can execute that master plan.

#### 3.1.3.5. Sport Psychology Helps You Prepare Your Mind

It is critical that you know how to prepare mentally and emotionally for lessons, practices and performances. Sport psychology helps you devise a customized mental readiness process that helps you transition from your normal work, school or social worlds into the special world of competition.

#### 3.1.3.6. Sport Psychology Helps You Concentrate So You Can Enter the Zone

attention control is psychologist-speak for concentration or focus. Sport psychology helps you create strong control over where and how you place your attention so you can concentrate on the proper attention cues, and you are able to block out unwanted, distracting cues.

#### 3.1.3.7. Sport Psychology Helps You Bounce Back From Set-Backs

It is critical that you become resilient to the inevitable problems and set-backs that competitive sport brings. You need solid mental toughness that helps you refocus, reset and re-energize for what is to come.

#### 3.1.3.8 Sport Psychology Helps You Increase Motivation and Drive

Successful athletes who have long careers fuel them with exciting goals, a vision for the legacy they want to leave, and dreams of how they want to play. Sport psychology helps you craft engaging goals that create positive energy within you, so you have huge amounts of drive and determination to achieve your potential.

#### 3.1.3.9 Sport Psychology Helps You Handle Stress and Pressure

One of the major ways sport psychology helps you is through stress reduction in learning and performance. While some stress is inevitable and natural, levels of stress that is excessive damage performance. Sport psychology helps you manage stress and turn it into success.

#### 3.1.3.10 Sport Psychology Helps You Handle the Paradox of Success

An issue that every athlete faces at some time is the paradox of success. As you become more successful, there are more pressures and more distractions pulling at you. Sport psychology helps you address these; stay focused, and helps you continue to sustain your best performances.

### **3.2 Psychological Factors**

Physical discipline has always been the major focus of training in the exercise and sport world, but more recently, research has turned its eye to the mind as a tool that may facilitate the ability to overcome physical limitations and help performance. Coaches and others both within and outside of the exercise arena have often acknowledged the importance of the mental discipline of imagery or visualization as a major factor in improving performance, whether it is in sport and exercise, business or physical rehabilitation.

### **3.2.1 Imagery**

Imagery is a mental discipline tool that is sometimes used to improve performance and technique, facilitate focus and motivation, to alter arousal and anxiety, to rehearse various situations and even to facilitate healing for the injured or infirmed. Imagery, visualization, mental rehearsal, etc. refer to “creating or recreating an experience in the mind” (Weinberg & Gould). Some see Imagery as nonsense, but it is widely known that many elite athletes have incorporated its use into their training with the hope that it will help them perform at their best.

Perhaps less known, is the fact that imagery is now being adopted in physical therapy practice (Gould, 2007).

Psychological skills have long been considered an integral part of what makes an athlete successful at elite levels. Perhaps one of the most widely researched and popular intervention strategies to date has been the use of mental imagery, which has been defined as a psychological activity that evokes physical characteristics of any object, person, or place that is absent from our perception. White and Hardy (1998) suggest that through imagery “we can be aware of ‘seeing’ an image, feeling movements as an image, or experiencing an image of smell, taste or sounds without experiencing the real thing”. Furthermore, they distinguish imagery from dreaming because “we are awake and conscious when we form an image”. Meta analyses examining the influence of imagery training on performance have found moderate

### **3.2.1.1 Key Elements to Consider Using Imagery:**

Use all of your senses: The better and more detailed the image, the better your body can understand what it has to do. You need to make sure you are adding in not only what you see; but also what you hear, smell, taste, and what you feel.

You are in control: You need to be able to control the images you create in your mind. You control the movements and the outcome.

You want to make sure you are only visualizing the positive.

Consistent practice: Just as with physical training, mental training should be done habitually. It should become a regular part of your practice schedule. You need to make the commitment and take the time to utilize this skill. It's your choice to make this a priority or not. Practice is always in season, your mind is your practice field any day, any time, any place — it is always accessible.

Real time: If you participate in a sport that is timed (track, swimming, speed skating, skiing, figure skating, etc.), your imagery of a particular race should be equal to the time of the actual event.

External vs. internal imagery: You can visualize from either an internal or external perspective. For the most part, it is best to try and be the person actually going through the motions so that you have a keen awareness of how it feels to do things the correct way. External imagery (as if you are a spectator or watching a video of yourself) is good for error correction, this way you can see what it is you are actually doing wrong, as would your coach.

### Mental Imagery

Mental imagery involves the athletes imagining themselves in a specific environment or performing a specific activity. The images should have the athlete performing these items very well and successfully. They should see themselves enjoying the activity and feeling satisfied with their performance. They should attempt to enter fully into the image with all their senses. Sight, hear, feel, touch, smell and perform, as they would like to perform in real life.

Mental Imagery can be used for:

**To see success:** Many athletes “see” themselves achieving their goals on a regular basis, both performing skills at a high level and seeing the desired performance outcomes

**To motivate:** Before or during training sessions, calling up images of your goals for that session, or of a past or future competition or competitor can serve a motivational purpose. It can vividly remind you of your objective, which can result in increased intensity in training.

**To perfect skills:** Mental imagery is often used to facilitate the learning and refinement of skills or skill sequences. The best athletes “see” and “feel” themselves performing perfect skills, programs, routines, or plays on a very regular basis.

**To familiarize:** Mental imagery can be effectively used to familiarize yourself with all kinds of things, such as a competition site, a race course, a complex play pattern or routine, a pre-competition plan, an event focus plan, a media interview plan, a refocusing plan, or the strategy you plan to follow

**To set the stage for performance:** Mental imagery is often an integral part of the pre-competition plan, which helps set the mental stage for a good performance. Athletes do a complete mental run through of the key elements of their performance. This helps draw out their desired pre-competition feelings and focus. It also helps



keep negative thoughts from interfering with a positive pre-game focus.

**To refocus:** Mental imagery can be useful in helping you to re-focus when the need arises. For example, if a warm-up is feeling sluggish, imagery of a previous best performance or previous best event focus can help get things back on track. You can also use imagery as a means of refocusing within the event, by imagining what you should focus on and feeling that focus, (Forgarty, 1997).

### **3.2.2 ATTENTION**

After it was revealed that the concepts of association and dissociation were important factors in endurance sports these concepts quickly were found to be applicable to a broader range of sports. It is obvious that attention plays a crucial role in performing well in sport. Every sport enthusiast will have witnessed an event where a moment of inattention made the difference between winning and losing for an individual or team. The ability to focus and sustain attention determines the success of athletes in their sports (Pollock, 1977).

Attention is the cognitive process of selectively concentrating on one aspect of the environment while ignoring other things.

Attention has also been referred to as the allocation of processing resources. Athletes are dependent upon a constant supply of attention

### **3.2.2.1 Attention Control Theory in Sport Psychology**

Psychologists who work in the area of sport and exercise psychology developed the theory of attention control to help understand what psychological factors underlie optimal performance in sports competition.

#### **Optimal performance and Attention**

- Issues- The practical goal of attention control theory is to try to come up with a set of training techniques to support those mental skills that underlie optimal performance.
- Goal Setting- Csikszentmihalyi(1975), in his book “Flow: The Psychology of Optimal Experience,” says flow, the psychological experience which underlies peak performance, requires good goal setting skills.
- Arousal Control: The Yerkes-Dodson law says that optimal performance is supported by a level of arousal that’s “just right.” Too little or too much arousal negatively affects performance.

Concentration and Focus- Often when an athlete fails to performance, or “chokes,” it’s because of a lack of sufficient concentration and focus at a critical moment. Attention control theory is concerned with understanding the attention factors that underlie optimal performance.

- Psychological Recovery from Injury: When an athlete is injured, especially during a performance season, the injury is not only physical but also psychological
- Psychological consequences of injury: The negative psychological consequences of injury can be loss of confidence and fear of further injury. Attention control theory is concerned with finding the best way to help an athlete psychologically recover from injury.

### **3.2.3 GOAL SETTING**

The first skill goal setting was introduced by Locke (1968). He presented a model of motivation based on conscious goals and intentions. After that goal setting became one of the most popular motivational techniques for improving performance and productivity. (Jackson, 1992).

According to Locke's goal setting theory task performance is regulated directly by goals an athlete consciously sets to achieve (Locke & Latham, 1985). Goals can be seen as immediately regulating human action (Weinberg, 1994). Through the goal setting process the athlete can become motivated to focus his behaviour and monitor progress or goal attainment, (Burton, 1992).

Difficulty is an aspect in which goals can differ. A difficult goal is defined by Locke (1991) as a goal set at a level at which no more than 10% of participants can achieve. Locke and Latham (1985) found that difficult goals that are unrealistic to achieve should not be set because they could lead to continuous failure, decrease motivation and hence to worse performance. But it seems to push the performance of athletes if they set challenging goals. A study revealed that elite athletes set

more challenging, yet realistic goals than their less skilled rivals (Weinberg, 1993).

Another aspect in which goals can differ is the temporal nature (short-term or long-term) of the goals. Short-term goals result in longer-lasting self-regulated behavioural changes and provide the athlete with immediate incentives and feedback about his performances. Long-term goals on the contrary are often aiming too far into the future to maintain effort and attention of an athlete. Research shows that a combination of short and long-term goals yields the greatest performance improvements as compared to long-term goals or short-term goals alone. (Latham, 1985)

### **3.2.3.1 Role of Goal Setting in Sports:**

Setting goals in sports is important, as it encourages you to continue to improve and gives you a standard measurement of your progress.

- **Short-Term**

Short-term goals give athletes a chance to focus on one particular game, or even one particular moment or aspect of a game.

- **Long-Term**

Having a goal for an entire season would be considered a long-term goal. Setting a long-term goal can provide you with a good measure of your progress throughout the season.

- Sense of Direction

Goals give you a sense of direction, and provide you with motivation to improve in a number of areas.

- Performance Goals

Instead of focusing on the result, performance goals focus on the work that it takes to get to that particular result.

- Outcome Goals

Outcome goals are the opposite of performance goals. While the work that it takes to meet a goal is very important, outcome goals focus on the result of the work put in and not the actual work.

### **3.2.4 ANXIETY**

Anxiety is an emotional state, represented by a feeling of dread, apprehension, or fear. In humans, this can be defined by description using language. This topic will be expatiated on in module four

### **3.2.5 MENTAL-PREPARATION**

An increasing number of athletes and coaches are turning to sport psychologist's services to learn how to improve performance and cope with competitive pressure. A great deal of research has been addressed to the study of mental training procedures applied to the athletic setting and, as a consequence, considerable scientific and experiential knowledge has been gained, particularly starting from the 1980s. This knowledge was then translated into practical suggestions for competitors, for example teaching them how to control arousal and concentration, cope with competitive stress and, ultimately, achieve peak performance (Feltz, 1989).

Benefits of Developing and Using a Mental Preparation Routine

#### **3.2.4.1 Benefits of mental preparation includes:**

Attain an Ideal State or "Zone": The primary benefit or purpose of a mental preparation plan is to get the athlete in a "mental state" that seems to relate to success performance for individual.

High self-confidence: Success breeds confidence! When an athlete is able to see and feel past and future successes as part of her mental preparation, confidence is not far behind. Imaging a successful

upcoming race is the “dress rehearsal” to the real deal - - visualizing a great performance enhances the athlete’s belief that they can really do it.

**Control of Mental Energy:** As was discussed in an earlier chapter, it is critical to manage mental energy so the athlete is not too flat or too manic. During preparation, athletes can listen to certain songs on their Walkman to get jazzed about racing or image a relaxing scene to slow their racing thoughts. Such strategies can be a purposeful part of a mental routine to manage mental energy.

**Effective Focus:** A mental preparation routine can help the swimmer focus on important aspects of her performance. Technical cues (“explode off the blocks” “hold your streamline”) or images (“torpedo”) can be integrated into preparation to direct attention where it needs to be (as opposed to having one’s focus on unproductive or negative things).

**Comfort in Structure:** A mental routine can be a ‘security blanket’— something to turn to in the stressful moments leading up to the competition. It is a mental routine they can use whether they are swimming in a dual meet or at Olympic Trials; to bring consistency to



their preparation and their performance. To a degree, a mental preparation routine can help take the “environment” out of the performance (for athletes who tend to be negatively affected by competitive environments).

Engage the Mind: The mind is a valuable commodity. And, when purposefully recruited and engaged, the athlete has the additional support of positive emotions, feelings, and thoughts. Athletes should make wise use of all the resources at their disposal.

#### **3.2.4.2 Mental Preparation and Performance in Team Sport**

Psychological preparation for sport is an essential aspect of successful sports performance at all levels. Elite sports performers make great use of psychological techniques before, during and after sports performance, both consciously and unconsciously. The higher the level of competition, the greater the psychological demands on the performer(s). Indeed many sport psychologists would argue that psychological preparation for sports performance is the most important part of sports performance.

## **4.0 Conclusion**

Sports psychology plays a very vital role in enhancing the performance of sportspersons. It deals with the various mental qualities such as concentration, confidence, emotional control and commitment etc., which are important for successful performance in sports and games.

Although still in its infancy, this field already has much to offer. Many research findings have still not been communicated to the player and coach in an easily available format. Much knowledge is just waiting to be tapped.

## **5.0 Summary**

In this unit, you have learnt sport psychology helps you to know how psychological factors such as imagery, attention, goal setting, anxiety and mental preparation affect performance and how participation in sport and exercise affect psychological and physical factors. You have also learnt that instruction and training of psychological skill for performance improvement, applied sport psychology may include work with athletes, coaches, and parents.

## **6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment**

- 1 Define sport psychology
2. Highlight the role of sport psychology
3. Explain five ways the field of sport psychology and how it can help you as an athlete, parent a of an athlete, or as a coach
4. Describe psychological factors and their impact on sport performance

## **7.0 References**

Rohit, A.B.(2017). Importance of sports psychology in physical education and sports: International Journal of Yoga, Physiotherapy and Physical Education, Volume 2; Issue 5; September 2017; Page No. 215-218.

Deci, E. &Ryan, R.(1985). Intrinsic Motivation and Self-determination in Human Behavior, New York: Plenum.

Csikszentmihalyi M. (1975). Beyond Boredom and Anxiety, San Francisco, CA: Josey-Bass.

Wikipedia, Sports Psychology

Vealey, R.S.(2005)Goal mapping: In R.S. Vealey, (Ed)., Coaching for the Inner Edge Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology, 149-177.

Locke, E. & Latham, G. (1985). The application of goal setting to sports. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 7:205-222.

Gould, D. (2006). Goal setting for peak performance. In J.M. Williams, Ed., *Applied Sport Psychology: Personal Growth to Peak Performance*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, 240-259.

Kyllo, L. &Landers, D. (1995) Goal setting in sport and exercise: A research synthesis to resolve the controversy. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 17:117-137.

Monsma, E.(2007) *Principles of Effective Goal Setting*.

Weinberg R. S. & Daniel, G. (2011). *Goal Setting. Foundation of Sport and Exercise Psychology*. Myles Schrag. Courier Printing, 350-351.

Vealey, R.S.& Greenleaf, C.A. (2006). Seeing is believing: Understanding and using imagery in sport. In Williams, JM Ed., *Applied Sport Psychology: Personal Growth to Peak Performance*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, 306-348.

Marks D. (1983). Mental imagery and consciousness: A theoretical overview. In A. Sheikh Ed. *Imagery: Current Theory, Research and Application*. New York: Wiley, 96-130.

Holmes, P.S.& Collins, D.J.(2001) The PETTLEP approach to motor imagery: A functional equivalence model for sport psychologists. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*. 13(1):60-83.

Weinberg, R.(2008) Does imagery work? Effects on performance and mental skills. *Journal of Imagery Research in Sport and Physical Activity*. 3(1):1-21.

Ravizza, K. & Hanson, T.(1995) *Heads up baseball: Playing the game one pitch at a time*. Lincolnwood, IL: Masters Press, .

Vealey RS.(2005) thinking. In Vealey, RS.(Ed.), *Coaching for the Inner Edge*. Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology, 201-224.

Hamilton R.A., Scott, D., & MacDougall, M.P. (2007) Assessing the effectiveness of self-talk interventions on endurance performance. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 19:226-239.

Bower, G. H.(1981) Mood, memory; *American Psychologist*. 36(2):129-148.

Bandura A. (1997) Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control. W. H. Freeman and Company: New York.

## **Unit III Meaning & Nature of Learning, Laws of learning, type of learning curve**

### **CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objective

3.0 Main content

3.1 Meaning and Nature of Learning

3.2. Laws of Learning

3.3. Types of Learning curve

4.0. Summary and conclusion

5.0. Tutor-marked Assignment

6.0 References

### **1.0 Introduction**

Learning is a key process in human behaviour. All living is learning. If we compare the simple, crude ways in which a child feels and behaves, with the complex modes of adult behaviour, his skills, habits, thought,

sentiments and the like- we will know what difference learning has made to the individual.

In this unit, you are going to learn the definition and the concept of learning, laws of learning, and types of learning curve.

## **2.0 Objective**

By the end of this unit students will be able to:

1. Define and explain the concept of learning
2. Understand the relevance of theories of learning
3. Describe the types of learning

## **3.0 Main Content**

### **3.1 Definition and Concept of Learning**

Learning is defined as “any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of practice and experience”. This definition has three important elements.

- a. Learning is a change in behaviour—better or worse.
- b. It is a change that takes place through practice or experience, but changes due to growth or maturation are not learning.
- c. This change in behaviour must be relatively permanent, and it must last a fairly long time.

Definitions vary between disciplines and have merit and utility in different experimental circumstances. By appreciating the situational advantages of these different perspectives, and by describing how the term is being employed in a specific context, scholars of learning can minimize confusion within fields of study and facilitate the meaningful translation of studies of learning across the disciplines.

#### Learning as a change in behaviour

Learning is commonly defined as behavioural change. Early on, Skinner (Mazur, 2013)), promoted this approach by arguing that, because learning is usually determined by assessing behavioural change, defining learning as the behavioral change or altered behavioural outcome per se eliminates the need for speculative inference about (hidden) underlying processes. Likewise, De Houwer, Rescorla, 1988)) has more recently advocated for defining learning as RS behavioural change because this “functional” approach is more verifiable and generalizable than mechanistic definitions, which require direct knowledge of internal processes. Similar functional definitions of learning are most common in disciplines that focus on



the evolution of behavioural outcomes and their consequences, including evolutionary and ecological research

**3.1.2 Conceptual Definitions:** Learning As the Processing Of Information or Experience Psychology “We can divide all learning into (1) learning by trial and accidental success, by the strengthening of the connections between the sense-impressions representing the situation and the acts—or impulses and acts—representing our successful response to it and by the inhibition of similar connections with unsuccessful responses; (2) learning by imitation...”(Thorndike ,1911, 2000).

“Learning is a relatively stable unspecified change within an organism that makes a change in behaviour possible; that is due to experience; and that cannot be accounted for in terms of reflexes, instincts, maturation, or the influence of fatigue, injury, disease or drugs”(Chance 1979).

“Learning refers to the process by which an animal (human or non-human) interacts with its environment and becomes changed by this experience so that its subsequent behaviour is modified”( Hall 2003)

“The process of acquiring new and relatively enduring information, behaviour patterns or abilities characterised by modification of behaviour as a result of practice, study or experience”(Breedlove et al 2007).

“In a representational theory of learning, the brain computes a representation of the experienced world, and behaviour is informed by that representation. By contrast, in associative theories of learning, which dominate neurobiological thinking, experience causes a plastic brain to rewire itself to make behaviour better adapted to the experienced world, without the brain’s computing a representation of that world” (Gallistel 2008) “learning is a process of change that occurs as a result of an individual's experience” (Mazur 2013).

“Learning is a process by which an organism benefits from experience so that its future behaviour is better adapted to its environment”(Rescorla 1988)

### **Cognitive Psychology**

“Learning is any process that modifies a system so as to improve, more or less irreversibly, its subsequent performance of the same task or of tasks drawn from the same population.”(Langley and Simon, 1981)

"...learning is conceived in terms of the storage of information in memory as a consequence of any experience the individual might have had."(Medin, 2001).

"Learning and memory involve a series of stages. Processes occurring during the presentation of the learning material are known as "encoding" and involve many processes involved in perception. This is the first stage. As a result of encoding, some information is sorted within the memory system. Thus, storage is the second stage. The third (and final) stage is retrieval, which extracting stored information from the memory system."(Eysenck and Keane2010).

"The [incidental] acquisition of knowledge about the structural properties of the relations between objects or events"( Buchner and Wippichor 1998))

### **3.1.3 Learning Defined As Behavioural Change**

"[...] the acquisition, maintenance, and change of an organism's behaviour as a result of lifetime events" (Pierce and Cheney 2008)

"[...] more or less permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of practice"( Kimble 1961)

“[...] change in behaviour that occurs as the result of practice”  
(Dewsbury 1978)

“[...]specific and only partly reversible change [in behaviour], often related to a positive or negative outcome”. “Experience can change behaviour in many ways that manifestly do not involve learning”  
(Staddon 1983)

“[...]changes in the behaviour of an organism that are the result of regularities in the environment of that organism”( De Houwer et al. 2013).

3.1.3 Learning Defined As Changes in Behavioural Mechanisms “[...] the process by which a relatively stable modification in stimulus-response relations is developed as a consequence of functional environmental interaction via the senses”  
(Lachman 1997) [47]

“[...]an enduring change in the mechanisms of behaviour involving specific stimuli and/or responses that results from prior experience with those or similar stimuli and responses”(Domjan 2010)

“[...]a long-term change in mental representations or associations as a result of experience” (Omrod 2012)

### **3.2 Nature of Learning:**

3.2.1 First of all, learning is a continuous process that starts at mother's womb and continues throughout the life of an individual.

3.2.2 So it involves all those experiences and training of an individual that'll help him to produce changes in his behaviour or modifications of behaviour.

3.2.3 Since it is purposeful and goal oriented activity, therefore in case there is no purpose or goal there is also no learning.

3.2.4 Furthermore, it is a very comprehensive process which covers all domains of human behaviour- cognitive, affective and psycho motor.

3.2.5 It is certainly a universal process. In human beings it is not restricted to any particular age, sex, race or culture. Hence it is for all.

3.2.6 It is also an adjustment process. Lastly it is meant for solving problems.

### **3.3 Theories of Learning:**

3.3.1 Trial and Error Learning Theory:

This theory was developed by an American psychologist EL Thorndike (1874-1949). According to him learning is a gradual process where the

individual will make many attempts to learn. The essence of this theory is-as the trials increase, the errors decrease.

According to this theory when an individual is placed in a new situation, he makes a number of random movements. Among them, those which are unsuccessful are eliminated and the unsuccessful ones are fixed. Thorndike studies the character of trial and error learning in a number of experiments on cats-using a box which he called 'puzzle box'. In one of the experiments a hungry cat was placed in the box and the door was closed which could be opened by pressing a Latch. A fish was placed outside the box in a plate.

The cat could see this fish. The cat was given 100 trials-ten in the morning and ten in each afternoon for five days. The cat was fed at the end of each experimental period and then was given nothing more to eat until after the next session. If, succeeded in opening the door in any trial by chance, he went to eat food (fish). A complete record was made of the cat's behaviour during each trial.

In the beginning the cat made a number of random movements like biting, clawing, dashing, etc. gradually in subsequent trials the cat

reduced the incorrect responses (errors), as it was in a position to manipulate the latch as soon as it was put in the box.

### 3.3.2. Operant Conditioning:

This method of conditioning was developed by an American psychologist BF Skinner. This theory is also known as ‘Instrumental conditioning’ because the animals use certain operations or actions as instruments to find solution. Skinner conducted his famous experiment by placing a hungry rat in a box called after his name ‘Skinner box’. This box was containing a lever and a food tray in a corner of the box. It was so arranged, that the animal was free to move inside the box, but the pressing of the lever would get the animal a pallet of food in the tray as reinforcement.

Arrangement was also made to record the number of pressings of the lever by a mechanical device. It was found in the beginning that the rat pressed the lever occasionally and used to get food as reinforcement for each pressing.

Gradually, as the animal learnt the pressing of lever would give some food, it repeated the responses very rapidly. This rapid increase in

pressing the lever is the indication of the animal conditioned to get food.

Reinforcement which is the most important aspect of this experiment is divided into two types: positive reinforcement is used in reward training. Negative reinforcement-like punishment is used to stop undesired responses or behaviours. Operant conditioning is useful in shaping undesirable behaviour and in modification of behaviour.

### 3.3.3 Learning by Insight:

Learning by perceiving the relationship in the scene and understanding the situation is insightful learning. This theory was developed by a psychologist known as Wolfgang Kohler, who belonged to Gestalt school of psychology.

Kohler conducted his most famous experiments on chimpanzee called Sultan. In the experiment, Sultan was put in a cage and a banana was placed at some distance outside the cage. Then the chimpanzee was given two sticks, so constructed that one stick could be fitted into another and make the stick longer. The hungry Sultan first attempted with its hands to get the banana. Then he took one of the sticks and tried to pull the banana nearer, then tried with other stick,



but failed to reach it. By this effort, the chimpanzee became tired and left the attempts to reach banana and started playing with sticks. While playing so, one of the sticks got fitted into the other and the stick became lengthier. Immediately Sultan became elated and pulled the banana with this long stick and ate it. This ‘sudden flash of idea’ to reach food with longer stick was called as ‘Insight’, by Kohler. He concluded that the occurrence of insight to find solution to a problem is possible by perception of the whole situation. It is here the method of insightful learning is very useful. Because it involves many higher mental processes such as thinking, reasoning, intelligence, etc.

#### 3.3.4. Experiential Learning (Carl Rogers):

Rogers distinguished two types of learning: cognitive (meaningless) and experiential (significant). The former corresponds to academic knowledge such as learning vocabulary or multiplication tables and the latter refers to applied knowledge such as learning about engines in order to repair a car. The key to the distinction is that experiential learning addresses the needs and wants of the learner. Rogers lists these qualities of experiential learning: personal involvement, self-initiated, evaluated by learner, and pervasive effects on learner. To Rogers,

experiential learning is equivalent to personal change and growth.

Rogers feels that all human beings have a natural propensity to learn; the role of the teacher is to facilitate such learning.

This includes:

- (1) Setting a positive climate for learning,
- (2) Clarifying the purposes of the learner(s),
- (3) Organizing and making available learning resources,
- (4) Balancing intellectual and emotional components of learning, and
- (5) Sharing feelings and thoughts with learners but not dominating.

According to Rogers, learning is facilitated when:

- (1) The student participates completely in the learning process and has control over its nature and direction,
- (2) It is primarily based upon direct confrontation with practical, social, personal or research problems, and (3) self-evaluation is the principal method of assessing progress or success. Rogers also emphasizes the importance of learning to learn and an openness to change.

### **3.3.5. Bloom's Revised Taxonomy of Cognitive Learning**

This was created in 1956 by a committee under the leadership of educational psychologist Dr Benjamin Bloom to promote higher forms of thinking in education, such as analysing and evaluating concepts, processes, procedures, and principles, rather than just remembering facts (rote learning). It is most often used when designing education, training, and learning processes. The committee identified three domains of educational activities or learning.

- Cognitive this covers mental skills (knowledge).
- Affective this includes growth in feelings or emotional areas (attitude or self).
- Psychomotor these are manual or physical skills.

### **3.4 Types of Learning:**

Individual behaviour is manifested at three levels such as cognitive level, affective level and psycho motor level. As such there are three types of learning and these are cognitive, affective and psycho motor learning.

**3.4.1 Cognitive:** Cognition refers to the processing of information about the environment that is received through our senses.

Accordingly, cognitive learning process involves learning of concepts, principles, rules etc. Moreover cognitive learning is concerned with the intellectual aspects of the mental process. The six levels of learning in this domain are:

3.4.2 Knowledge: It is the ability to recall or recognize or identify facts, ideas as well as information available in the surrounding.

3.4.3 Comprehension: Comprehension or understanding is the ability of a child to know how does a thing work.

3.4.4 Application: It is the practical level of knowledge as well as understanding.

3.4.5 Analysis: In this stage student analyse what he knows, understands and found through application.

3.4.6 Synthesis: In this stage what is analysed is synthesized in sequential and meaningful manner.

3.4.7 Evaluation: In this stage the value of the process and product is assessed.

3.4.8 Affective: It is concerned with ones feelings as well as emotions. That is to say it refers to the changes in interests, attitudes, and values and development of appreciation and adequate adjustment.

3.4.9 Psychomotor: It deals with abilities and skills which are physical in nature but activated by mental process. For example- touching, using tool, drawing, swimming and cycling etc

### 3.5 Factors affecting learning:

A number of factors affect the learners learning. Among these the most important are:

**3.5.1 Personal factor:** Various personal factors of a person that affects the learning process are-

- (a) Personal fitness
- (b) Free form fatigue as well as boredom,
- (c) Drill and practice,
- (d) Age and experience

3.5.2 Methods of Teaching: Methods of teaching also affects the learning process. Therefore, methods are designed in accordance with the individual difference and needs of students would be more fruitful.

3.5.3 Psychological or temperamental factor: Psychological or temperamental factor affects learners learning includes-

- (a) Goal or interest of learner to learn
- (b) Interest and motivation

- (c) Attitude and aptitude.
- (d) Emotional Conditions,
- (e) Guidance and counselling, and
- (f) Mental Health

3.5.4 School or environmental factors: Various environmental factors also affect learners learning. For instance-

- (a) Physical facilities
- (b) Teaching method
- (c) Administrative skills,
- (d) Method of discipline
- (e) Coordination between home and school.

3.5.5 Society: Since man is a social animal. Hence, every society possesses certain aims, objectives, ideals, values, custom and tradition, culture etc. Therefore, we can say the society helps an individual in the socialization process. It helps an individual to acquire certain qualities and values such as mercy, love, honesty, truthfulness, ethics cooperation

## **4.0 Conclusion**

Learning is a change in behaviour either better or worse which takes place through practice or experience but not due to growth or maturation. This change in behaviour must be relatively permanent constant practice reduces errors during learning and positive rewards will reinforce learning. Learning takes a number of processes such as thinking, reasoning and intelligence. Experimental learning is more meaningful than cognitive learning.

## **5.0 Summary**

In this unit, you have learnt that learning can be defined as a processing of information or experience, or a behavioural change, or as changes in behavioural mechanisms. Also you have been taught the theories of learning such as Trial and Error Learning Theory, Operant Conditioning, learning by sight, experimental learning and Bloom's Revised Taxonomy of Cognitive Learning.

## **6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments**

- 1 Define learning and explain its concept based of different definitions
2. Highlight the nature of learning and factors affecting learning
3. Analyse three theories of learning

## 7.0 References

Thorndike, E.L. (1911) *Animal Intelligence*. Macmillan

Chance, P. (1979) *Learning and Behaviour*. Wadsworth Publishing Company

Hall, G. (2003) *Psychology of learning*. In *Encyclopedia of Cognitive Science* (Nadel, L., ed), pp. 837–845, Nature Publishing Group.

Breedlove, S.M., et al. (2007). *Biological Psychology an Introduction to Behavioural, Cognitive and Clinical Neuroscience*. Sinauer Assoc.

Gallistel, C.R. (2008). *Learning and representation*. In *Learning theory and behavior*. Vol. 1 of *Learning and memory: A comprehensive reference*, 4 vols. (J. Byrne Editor) (Menzel, R., ed), pp. 227-242, Elsevier

Mazur, J.E. (2013) *Learning and Behavior* (7th ed.). Pearson

Rescorla, R.A. (1988) *Behavioral studies of Pavlovian conditioning*. *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.* 11, 329-352

Langley, P.& Simon, H.A. (1981) *The central role of learning in cognition*. In *Cognitive Skills and their Acquisition*. (Anderson, J.R., ed), pp. 361-381, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates



Medin, D.L., et al. (2001) Cognitive Psychology. Harcourt College Publishers

Eysenck, M.W. & Keane, M.T. (2010) Cognitive Psychology a Student's Handbook. Psychology Press

Buchner, A. & Wippich, W. (1998). Differences and commonalities between implicit learning and implicit memory. In Handbook of Implicit Learning (A.L.Vaccarino, , ed), pp. 3-46, Sage Publications

Pierce, W.D. & Cheney, C.D. (2008) Behavior Analysis and Learning. Psychology Press

Kimble, G.A. (1961) Hilgard and Marquis' Conditioning and Learning. Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Dewsbury, D.A. (1978). Comparative animal behavior. McGraw-Hill

Staddon, J.E.R. (1979) Operant behavior as adaptation to constraint: Journal of Experimental Psychology: General 108, 48-67

Lachman, S.J. (1997) Learning is a process: toward an improved definition of learning. Journal of Psychology 131, 477-480

Domjan, M. (2010) The Principles of Learning and Behavior. Wadsworth

Omrod, J.E. (2012) Human Learning. Pearson

## **Module Four**

In module three you have learnt that learning is the modification of behaviour through experience and training and also is a process which

improves our efficiency of working and making adjustments. Therefore, we can say it is a process which can be inferred from the change in performance. Furthermore it does not happen all at once, but builds upon, and this is saved by their previous knowledge. There are some basic factors of it which includes:-  
(a) Arousal;(b) Motivation;(c) Reinforcement;(d) Stimulus response association.

In this module, you are going to learn about some of the above mentioned factors that aid learning. This module comprise of three units. They are as follows:

Unit I. Motivation

Unit II. Arousal and Anxiety

Unit I. Motivation

## CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Meaning & Definition of Motivation
  - 3.2 Theories of Motivation

### 3.3 Motivational Techniques

### 4.0 Conclusion

### 5.0 Summary

### 7.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

### 7.0 References

## **1.0 Introduction**

Psychologists seek to uncover the reasons underlying our experiences of wanting to, needing to or ‘just doing’ things. In this chapter, we can examine some basic types of human motivation, theories about specific motivators and research findings concerning what motivates us to participate and succeed in sport. Although there has been an enormous amount of research into how motivation can be improved in those already participating in sport, rather fewer studies have examined what motivates people to choose to take up sport. Ashford et al (1993) interviewed 336 adults at a community sports centre in Leicester about why they participated in sport, and what they enjoyed about it. Four main motivations emerged, physical well-being, psychological well-

being, improvement of performance and assertive achievement, the last meaning to accomplish personal challenges and to gain status.

2.0. By the end of this chapter, you would be able to:

1. Define motivation
2. Explain the role of motivation in sports
3. Describe the types and methods of motivation
4. Understand the importance of motivation in sports

3.0. Main content

### **3.1 Meaning & Definition of Motivation**

Motivation is at the heart of many of sport's most interesting problems, both as a developmental outcome of social environments such as competition and coaches' behaviours, and as a developmental influence on behavioural variables such as persistence, learning, and performance. (Duda, 1989). Motivation is an internal energy force that determines all aspects of our behaviour; it also impacts on how we think, feel and interact with others. In sport, high motivation is widely accepted as an essential prerequisite in getting athletes to fulfil their potential. However,

given its inherently abstract nature, it is a force that is often difficult to exploit fully.

The briefest definition of motivation is ‘The activation of goal-oriented behaviour’ . . . to create enthusiasm and incentive, and generate the desire for action. Often connected to a goal-oriented outcome, these definitions of motivation can apply to groups, individual or to the self.(Duda,1989)

### **3.1.1Types of Motivation**

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

An important distinction in types of human motives is that between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

Extrinsic motivation results from external rewards. Intrinsic motivation comes from within the person. Both extrinsic and intrinsic motives are important in sport, and sport psychologists can work with both extrinsic and intrinsic motives to improve the performance of the individual.

Intrinsic motives for taking part in sport include excitement, fun, love of action and the chance to demonstrate and improve our skills, all the reasons that we enjoy sport.

Extrinsic motives can come in the form of trophies, prizes and less tangible rewards such as praise and status.

The behaviour of coaches had the strongest effect on intrinsic motivation. Students whose coaches spent more time on technical instruction tended to display significant increases in their intrinsic motivation during the year. By contrast, those whose coaches threw their weight about experienced a decline in intrinsic motivation.(Matt,2006).

### **The additive principle**

Generally, we tend to come to sport motivated more by intrinsic than extrinsic factors. However, extrinsic motivators have been used in an attempt to boost intrinsic motivation. The additive principle states that athletes low in intrinsic motivation can have their motivation boosted by adding some extrinsic motivation.

### **3.2 Theory of Motivation**

3.2.1 One of the most popular and widely tested approaches to motivation in sport and other achievement domains is self-determination theory.

This theory is based on a number of motives or regulations, which vary in terms of the degree of self-determination they reflect. Self-determination has to do with the degree to which your behaviours are chosen and self-initiated. The behavioral regulations can be placed on a self-determination continuum. From the least to the most self-determined they are motivation, external regulation, interjected regulation, identified regulation, integrated regulation and intrinsic motivation. (Matt, 2006)

1. A motivation represents a lack of intention to engage in behaviour. It is accompanied by feelings of incompetence and a lack of connection between one's behaviour and the expected outcome. For example, an a motivated athlete might be heard saying, 'I can't see the point in training any more – it just tires me out' or 'I just don't get any buzz out of competition whatsoever'.



Such athletes exhibit a sense of helplessness and often require counselling, as they are highly prone to dropping out.

2. **External and interjected** regulations represent non-self-determined or controlling types of extrinsic motivation because athletes do not sense that their behaviour is choice and, as a consequence, they experience psychological pressure. Participating in sport to receive prize money, win a trophy or a gold medal typifies external regulation. Participating to avoid punishment or negative evaluation is also external. Introjections are an internal pressure under which athletes might participate out of feelings of guilt or to achieve recognition.

3. Identified and integrated regulations represent self-determined types of extrinsic motivation because behaviour is initiated out of choice, although it is not necessarily perceived to be enjoyable. These types of regulation account for why some athletes devote hundreds of hours to repeating mundane drills; they realize that such activity will ultimately help them to improve. Identified regulation represents engagement in behaviour because it is highly valued, whereas when behaviour becomes integrated it is in

harmony with one's sense of self and almost entirely self-determined. Completing daily flexibility exercises because you realize they are part of an overarching goal of enhanced performance might be an example of integrated regulation. (Matt, 2006)

4. **Intrinsic motivation** comes from within, is fully self-determined and characterized by interest in, and enjoyment derived from, sports participation. There are three types of intrinsic motivation, namely intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation. Intrinsic motivation is considered to be the healthiest type of motivation and reflects an athlete's motivation to perform an activity simply for the reward inherent in their participation. (Matt, 2006)

### 3.2.2. **Content Theories of Motivation**-Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

When motivation theory is being considered the first theory that is being recalled is Maslow's hierarchy of needs which he has introduced in his 1943 article named as "A Theory of Human

Motivation”. According to this theory, individual strives to seek a higher need when lower needs are fulfilled. Once a lower-level need is satisfied, it no longer serves as a source of motivation. Needs are motivators only when they are unsatisfied. (Matt,2006)

- a. In the first level, physiological needs exist which include the most basic needs for humans to survive, such as air, water and food.
- b. In the second level, safety needs exist which include personal security, health; well-being and safety against accidents remain.
- c. In the third level, belonging needs exist. This is where people need to feel a sense of belonging and acceptance. It is about relationships, families and friendship. Organizations fulfil this need for people.
- d. In the fourth level, self-esteem needs remain. This is where people look to be respected and to have self-respect. Achievement needs, respect of others are in this level.
- e. In the top-level, self-actualization needs exist. This level of need pertains to realizing the person’s full potential.

### **3.2.3. Alderfer's ERG Theory**

Alderfer (1969) simplified Maslow's theory by categorizing hierarchy of needs into three categories:

1. Physiological and Safety needs are merged in Existence Needs,
2. Belonging needs is named as Relatedness Needs,
3. Self-esteem and Self-actualization needs are merged in Growth Needs

### **3.2.4. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory**

Frederick Herzberg introduced his Two Factor Theory in 1959. He suggested that there are two kinds of factors affect motivation, and they do it in different ways:

3.2.4.1 Hygiene factors: A series of hygiene factors create dissatisfaction if individuals perceive them as inadequate or inequitable, yet individuals will not be significantly motivated if these factors are viewed as adequate or good. Hygiene factors are extrinsic and include factors such as salary or remuneration, job security and working conditions.

3.2.4.2 Motivators: They are intrinsic factors such as sense of achievement, recognition, responsibility, and personal growth.

The hygiene factors determine dissatisfaction, and motivators determine satisfaction. Herzberg theory conforms to satisfaction theories which assert that “a satisfied employee tends to work in the same organization but this satisfaction does not always result in better performance”. In other words, satisfaction does not correlate with productivity.

### **3.2.5. McClelland’s Achievement Need Theory**

In his book named as “The Achieving Society”, McClelland (1961) identified three basic needs that people develop and acquire from their life experiences. These are as follows:

3.2.5.1 Needs for achievement: The people who have a high need for achievement seek achievement and try to attain challenging goals. There is a strong need for feedback as to achievement and progress, and a need for a sense of accomplishment. The people who have a high achievement need likes to take personal responsibility.

3.2.5.2 Needs for affiliation: The people who have a high need for affiliation needs harmonious relationships with people and needs

to be accepted by other people. (People-oriented rather than task-oriented).

3.2.5.3 Needs for power: The people who have a need for power want to direct and command other people. Most managers have a high need for power.

Although these categories of needs are not exclusive, generally individuals develop a dominant bias or emphasis towards one of the three needs. Entrepreneurs usually have high degree of achievement needs.

**3.2.6. Incentive Theory-** Incentive theory suggests that employee will increase her/his effort to obtain a desired reward. This is based on the general principle of reinforcement. The desired outcome is usually “money”.

### **3.3 Motivational techniques for coaches and athletes**

#### **3.3 1. Goal setting**

Goal setting is the process of systematically planning ways to achieve specific accomplishments within a certain amount of time. Research suggests that goals should be specific, measurable, difficult but attainable, time-based, written down, and a combination of short-term

and long-term goals. A meta-analysis of goal setting in sport suggests that when compared to setting no goals or "do your best" goals, setting the above types of goals is an effective method for improving performance. According to Monsma (2007), short-term goals should be used to help achieve long-term goals. Monsma also states that it is important to "set goals in positive terms by focusing on behaviours that should be present rather than those that should be absent." Each long-term goal should also have a series of short-term goals that progress in difficulty. For instance, short-term goals should progress from those that are easy to achieve to those that are more challenging. Having challenging short-term goals will remove the repetitiveness of easy goals and will give one an edge when striving for their long-term goals.

3.3.2. Imagery (or motor imagery) can be defined as using multiple senses to create or recreate experiences in one's mind. The more vivid images are; the more likely they are to be interpreted by the brain as identical to the actual event, which increases the effectiveness of mental practice with imagery. Good imagery, therefore, attempts to create as lifelike an image as possible through the use of multiple senses (e.g., sight, smell), proper timing, perspective, and accurate

portrayal of the task. Both anecdotal evidence from athletes and research findings suggest imagery is an effective tool to enhance performance and psychological states relevant to performance (e.g., confidence). This is a concept commonly used by coaches and athletes the day before an event. (Matt, 2006)

### 3.3.3. Pre-performance routines

Pre-performance routines refer to the actions and behaviour's athletes use to prepare for a game or performance. This includes pregame routines, warm up routines, and actions an athlete will regularly do, mentally and physically, before they execute the performance. Frequently, these will incorporate other commonly used techniques, such as imagery or self-talk. Examples would be visualizations done by skiers, dribbling by basketball players at the foul line, and pre shot routines golfers or baseball players use prior to a shot or pitch. These routines help to develop consistency and predictability for the player. This allows the muscles and mind to develop better motor control.



### **3.3.4. Self-talk**

Self-talk refers to the thoughts and words athletes and performers say to themselves, usually in their minds. Self-talk phrases are used to direct attention towards a particular thing in order to improve focus or are used alongside other techniques to facilitate their effectiveness. For example, a softball player may think "release point" when at bat to direct her attention to the point where the pitcher releases the ball, while a golfer may say "smooth stroke" before putting to stay relaxed. Research suggests either positive or negative self-talk may improve performance, suggesting the effectiveness of self-talk phrases depends on how the phrase is interpreted by the individual. However, the use of positive self-talk is considered to be more efficacious and is consistent with the associative network theory of Gordon Bower and the self-efficacy tenet within the broader Social Cognitive Theory of Albert Bandura. The use of words in sport has been widely utilized. The ability to bombard the unconscious mind with one single positive phrase, is one of the most effective and easy to use psychological skills available to any athlete.

### **3.3.5. Using extrinsic rewards**

The key aspect in using extrinsic rewards effectively is that they reinforce an athlete's sense of competence and self-worth. Thus, a reward should be informational in nature rather than controlling. If a reward comes to be controlling, it can significantly undermine intrinsic motivation. For a reward to be informational, it is advisable that it has relatively little monetary worth (i.e. it is a token reward), such as a 'woman of the match' or 'athlete of the tour' title. Also, the reward should be presented to an athlete in front of all potential recipients with some emphasis placed on the prestige associated with it.

## **4.0 Conclusion**

Human motivation is complex, and it has been addressed by a series of theories. Contemporary research shows that intrinsic motivation is the more important factor for most participants in sport, and that in most cases adding extrinsic motivation reduces rather than enhances overall levels of motivation. In a classic theory, Maslow has produced a broad spectrum of human motives in an attempt to describe the entire range of human motivation. The main usefulness of Maslow's approach is in illustrating the breadth of motives for taking part in sport.

## **5.0. Summary**

In this unit, you have learnt that meaning and definition of motivation and also learnt some basic types of human motivation, theories about specific motivators and research findings concerning what motivates us to participate and succeed in sport.

## **6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment**

1. What is meant by motivation?
2. List and explain the types of motivation
3. Evaluate the usefulness of Maslow's hierarchy of needs
4. Describe motivation techniques for coaches and sport participants' importance of achievement orientations.

## **7.0 References**

Chase M (1998). Sources of self-efficacy in physical education and sport: *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 18, 76–89.

Cox, R. (2001) *Sport psychology: concepts and applications*. Boston, MA, McGraw-Hill.

Harwood, C.& Biddle, S. (2002). The application of achievement goal theory in youth sport: In i. Cockerill, (ed.) *Solutions in sport psychology*. London, Thomson Learning.

Weinberg, R.& Gould, D. (1995) Foundations of sport and exercise psychology. Leeds, Human Kinetics.

Wolfson S (2002). Reflections on past events: the role of social cognition in sport: In I. Cockerill, (ed) Solutions in sport psychology. London, Thomson Learning.

Rohit, B. A.(2017) Importance of sports psychology in physical education and sports: International Journal of Yoga, Physiotherapy and Physical Education, Volume 2; Issue 5; Page No. 215-218

Pargman, A. D. &Tenenbaum, G. (2003). Critical elaboration and empirical investigation of the cusp catastrophe model: a lesson for practitioners. Journal of Applied Sport Psychology 15, 144–159.

Cox R (2001) Sport psychology: concepts and applications. Boston, MA, McGraw-Hill.

Moran A (2004) Sport and exercise psychology: a critical introduction. London, Routledge.

Mullins, J. (1993). Victory in sight. New Scientist Supplement. October, 4–9.

Monsma, E. (2007). Principles of Effective Goal Setting.

Williams, J. (ed) (1993). Applied sport psychology. Toronto, Mayfield.

Matt, J.(2006)Sport Psychology: A Student Handbook, Routledge  
Taylor & Francis Group, London and New York

## **UNIT 2 AROUSAL AND ANXIETY**

### **CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Meaning & Definition of Arousal

3.1.1 Effects of Arousal on Performance

3.1.2 Theories of Arousal

3.1.3 Arousal and Sport Performance

3.2 Meaning and Definition of Anxiety

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References

### **1.0 Introduction**

Arousal is the issue in sport psychology because physical and technical performances depend on the level of performer's arousal. However, arousal is determined by psychological processes such as emotions,

which, in turn, depend on higher cognitive functions like thoughts. Arousal reflects general physical and psychological activity. In this unit, you will learn the definition and theories of arousal, the role of arousal in sport performance.

## **2.0 Objective**

By the end of the unit, you would be able to:

1. Define key terms including arousal and anxiety
2. Distinguish between state and trait anxiety and between cognitive and somatic anxiety
3. Understand the influences on arousal and anxiety, including both situational and individual factors
4. Describe and evaluate theories of the relationship between arousal and performance, including drive theory and the inverted-U hypothesis
5. Describe and evaluate theories of the relationship between anxiety and performance.

## **3.0 Main Content**

### **3.1 Meaning & Definition of Arousal**

Arousal may be defined as ‘a general physiological and psychological activation varying on a continuum from deep sleep to intense excitement’ (Gould & Krane, 1992). When we are bored, relaxed or asleep, we are in a state of low arousal. When excited, angry or anxious, we are in a state of high arousal. You can see from this that being in a state of high or low arousal is not in itself necessarily a pleasant or unpleasant experience. On the other hand, anxiety is by definition an unpleasant sensation. Weinberg & Gould (1995) have offered the following definition of anxiety: ‘a negative emotional state with feelings of nervousness, worry and apprehension associated with activation or arousal of the body’ (p 264). We can thus think of anxiety as an unpleasant state of high arousal (Matt, 1989).

Arousal is often linked to anxiety. Anxiety is a negative emotional state with feelings of worry, nervousness and apprehension that is associated with the arousal and activation of the nervous system. (Murphy, 2018)



### **3.1.1 Effects of Arousal on Performance**

According to Murphy (2018), arousal has two kinds of effects on performance.

First, it increases muscle tension and affects co-ordination. Too much tension is detrimental to performance.

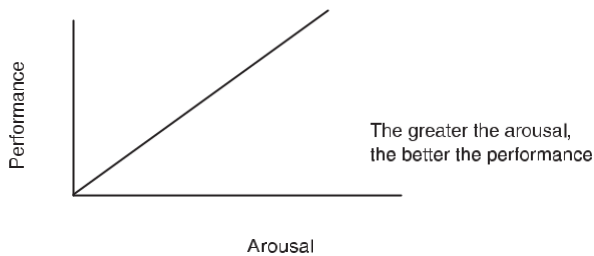
Second, arousal affects attention. Therefore, attention can become either too narrow with too much arousal, or too broad with too little arousal which makes person to pay too much attention to his/her environment.

### **3.1.2 Theories of Arousal.**

The following are the theories of arousal as states by Murphy (2018). They are as follows: Drive Reduction Theory; Inverted U Theory; Multidimensional Anxiety Theory; and Catastrophe Model

#### **3.1.2.1 Drive Reduction theory**

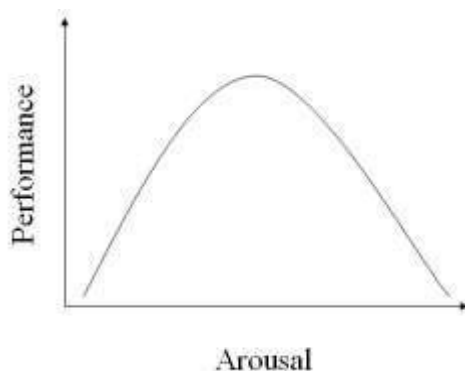
Drive theory was proposed by Hull (1943). The theory itself is complex, but its application to sporting performance is relatively simple.



According to drive theory, three factors influence performance: complexity of task, arousal and learned habits. The greater the arousal, the more likely we are to adopt the dominant response to a situation, that is, our habit. Provided the task is a simple one and our dominant response is the correct one, the higher is our arousal, the better will be our performance; that is,  $\text{performance} = \text{arousal} \times \text{habit}$ .

### 3.2.1.2 Inverted-U hypothesis

By the 1970s, psychologists were dissatisfied with drive theory and had turned to the inverted-U approach to explain the relationship between arousal and performance (Matt, 1989).



The inverted-U hypothesis was originated by Yerkes & Dodson (1908). The idea is that for every task there is an optimum level of arousal. Performance peaks at this level and drops off above and below it. The optimum level of arousal for a task depends on the complexity of the skill required to carry out that task. For a complex task involving fine motor skills, such as potting a ball in snooker, low levels of arousal are preferable. For gross tasks such as weightlifting, the optimum arousal level is much higher. Optimum level of arousal emerged in the top four factors affecting both batsmen and bowlers (the others being self-confidence, a pre-match routine and following a performance plan). Like drive theory, the inverted-U hypothesis has important applications in sport psychology. By looking at how fine the motor skills required for a particular sport are, we can then seek to optimise the arousal levels of competitors in that sport. Thus, we may recommend relaxation procedures to lower the arousal levels of darts and snooker players whilst recommending 'psyching up' exercises for weight-lifters and rugby players.

### **3.2.1.3 Multi-Dimensional Anxiety Theory**

Theory distinguishes between somatic and cognitive anxiety (Murphy, 2018).

Cognitive anxiety is worrying and negative thoughts while Somatic anxiety reflects physiological elements of the anxiety that develops directly from autonomic (nervous system) arousal. This is perceived as ‘butterflies’ in the stomach, tense muscles, sweating and nausea.

The theory makes two predictions:

- 1) There is a negative linear relationship between cognitive anxiety and performance
  - 2) There is an inverted U relationship between somatic anxiety and performance
- Multidimensional Anxiety theory suggests that somatic anxiety should decline once performance begins but cognitive anxiety may remain high if self-confidence is low.

### **3.2.1.4The catastrophe model**

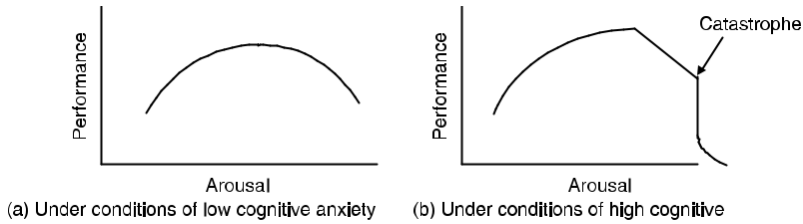
Fazey & Hardy (1988) rejected the assumption of the inverted-U hypothesis that a small change in arousal will bring about a small change in performance. Instead, they pointed out that when athletes are experiencing high cognitive anxiety (that is, they are worried), a small

increase in arousal beyond the optimum level can cause a massive fall in performance.

Under conditions of low cognitive anxiety, that is, when the athlete is not particularly worried, the inverted-U hypothesis holds true. However, when cognitive anxiety is high, there comes a point just above the optimum level of arousal where performance drops off sharply. This represents a performance catastrophe.(Matt,1989)

Murphy (2018) summarizes the catastrophe model thus:

- 1) Cognitive anxiety (worry) has a positive linear relationship with performance when physiological arousal is low
  - 2) Cognitive anxiety will have a negative relationship with performance when physiological arousal is high;
  - 3) When cognitive anxiety is low, physiological arousal has an inverted U-shaped relationship with performance;
  - 4) When cognitive anxiety is high, increased levels of physiological arousal lead to a catastrophic drop in athletic performance.
- Furthermore, once this catastrophic drop in performance has occurred, a large reduction in physiological arousal is required to bring performance back on to a higher level, again.



### 3.2.2 Meaning and Definition of Anxiety

Anxiety is an emotional state, represented by a feeling of dread, apprehension, or fear. In humans, this can be defined by description using language.

Weinberg & Gould (1995) have offered the following definition of anxiety: ‘a negative emotional state with feelings of nervousness, worry and apprehension associated with activation or arousal of the body’

#### **Cognitive and somatic anxiety**

Martens et al (1990) distinguished between two aspects of anxiety. When we are anxious, we experience the physiological changes associated with high arousal, including increased heart rate and blood pressure, ‘butterflies’ in the stomach, faster breathing and flushed face. These effects are similar (though not identical) to the physiological effects of excitement and anger. We call the experience of

physiological changes associated with anxiety somatic anxiety (from the Greek soma meaning body).

Somatic anxiety can be measured directly by physiological means, or indirectly by self-rating inventories. Direct physiological measures include urinalysis, galvanic skin response (GSR) and blood pressure testing. Elevated levels of certain hormones released when we are anxious (such as adrenalin) can be detected in urine. We also tend to sweat more when anxious. This can be detected by a GSR meter, which measures the electrical conductivity of the skin .The more we sweat, the better conductor our skin becomes. Our blood pressure also increases when we are anxious, and this can be measured by a sphygmomanometer.

Cognitive anxiety refers to the anxious thoughts that accompany somatic anxiety. Anxious thinking involves worries, self-doubts and images of losing and humiliation. A number of studies have examined how cognitive anxiety and somatic anxiety change before a sporting event. Swain & Jones (1993) followed 49 field and track athletes, measuring both the frequency and intensity of their cognitive and somatic anxiety on four occasions (2 days, 1 day, 2 hours and 30

minutes) prior to an important competition. They found that both cognitive and somatic anxiety increased before the event, the most dramatic increase being in the frequency of anxious thinking immediately before competition.

Once competition begins, it is commonly believed that somatic anxiety declines sharply, whilst cognitive anxiety fluctuates, depending on how the event is going. Therefore, many researchers have proposed that errors during performance are due to cognitive anxiety, and not somatic anxiety. Cox (1998) proposed that cognitive anxiety is negatively related to performance – as cognitive anxiety increases, performance declines. However, in the Swain & Jones (1993) study, several athletes reported that they needed a degree of cognitive anxiety in order to perform well. Since it is very difficult to measure cognitive anxiety during sport, we can estimate the frequency and intensity of anxious thinking only whilst athletes are performing.

### **State and trait anxiety**

Another important distinction was made by Spielberger (1966) between state and trait anxiety. Trait anxiety refers to anxiety as an aspect of personality. A person high in trait anxiety will be frequently



anxious, almost irrespective of the situation. Eysenck believed that some people are generally more anxious and moody than others because they are genetically programmed to react more to potential threats in their environment. Martens et al (1977) developed a self-rating inventory called the Sport Competition Anxiety Test (SCAT), designed to measure trait anxiety related to sport.

State anxiety refers to the emotional state of anxiety (cognitive and somatic), typically experienced prior to and during competition.

### **Factors inducing anxiety**

How anxious we feel at any time is a product of both our individual psychological make-up and the characteristics of the situation we find ourselves in. Therefore, when looking at why someone is anxious, we need to take into account both situational and individual factors (Matt, 1989).

## **Situational factors**

### **Event importance**

The more important a sporting event is, the more stressful we are likely to find it. It is probably true to say, for example, that most footballers would find themselves more anxious competing in the World Cup than in a 'friendly'.

### **Expectations**

It seems likely that both high and low expectations can be linked to anxiety. In the 2004 European Championships, it was said by many that England had to cope with very high expectations that they would win. It seems likely that in the end this contributed to their downfall. By contrast the winners, Greece, as first-time qualifiers, had far less pressure on them to succeed. Individuals as well as teams can be adversely affected by the pressure of high expectations. Too much pressure from teachers, coaches and family can add tremendously to competitive anxiety.

## **Individual factors**

### **Trait anxiety**

Some people are prone to suffer more anxiety than others, whatever the situation. This can be explained by genetics, but also by experience. Social learning theorists might explain trait anxiety as having been learned from adults in childhood. The psychodynamic view emphasises the importance of early family relationships, and the fact that those who experience early trauma or family disruption may afterward suffer chronic anxiety. Individuals high in trait anxiety are likely to see competition as particularly stressful.

### **Performance concerns**

One way in which we vary as athletes is the manner in which we are concerned about our performance. Too much in the way of perfectionism or concern over our image as opposed to our achievement is associated with high anxiety. Hall et al (1998) found that high levels of perfectionism were associated with cognitive anxiety in secondary school runners.

## **Locus of control**

Locus of control describes the extent to which we believe that we are in control of our lives. The concept was developed by Rotter (1966). Research in a number of contexts has found that individuals low in locus of control is generally more vulnerable to anxiety and stress. There is a range of psychometric tests available to assess locus of control.

## **4.0 Conclusion**

Arousal, anxiety and stress are distinct though related concepts. Arousal and anxiety can affect sporting performance, although some of these relationships are complex, and are mediated by the situation, the sport and the individual characteristics of the athlete. There are two major theories of the relationship between arousal and performance. Drive theory suggests that the greater the arousal, the better the performance. The inverted-U hypothesis, by contrast, suggests that an optimum level of arousal and performance will decline above or below this. Both theories have important applications.

5.0 In this unit, you have learnt that ‘a general physiological and psychological activation varying on a continuum from deep sleep to

intense excitement is known as arousal and that arousal increases muscle tension and affects co-ordination and attention. Theories of arousal such as Drive Reduction Theory, Inverted U Theory, Multidimensional Anxiety Theory and Catastrophe Model were discussed with you. You have also been told that anxiety is an unpleasant sensation which be cognitive or somatic. You are also told that anxiety as an aspect of personality is called trait while State anxiety refers to the emotional state of anxiety (cognitive and somatic), typically experienced prior to and during competition. You have also learnt that anxiety product of both our individual psychological make-up and the characteristics of the situation we find ourselves in.

## 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Distinguish between cognitive and somatic anxiety.
2. Describe how cognitive anxiety affects performance.
3. What kinds of factors determine the amount of anxiety an athlete experiences?

Explain how drive theory can be used to understand the relation-ship between arousal and performance.

## 7.0 References

Cohen A, Pargman D & Tenenbaum G (2003) Critical elaboration and empirical investigation of the cusp catastrophe model: a lesson for practitioners. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology* 15, 144–159.

Cox R (2001) *Sport psychology: concepts and applications*. Boston, MA, McGraw-Hill.

Moran A (2004) *Sport and exercise psychology: a critical introduction*. London, Routledge.

Mullins J (1993) Victory in sight. *New Scientist Supplement*. October, 4–9.

Williams J (ed) (1993) *Applied sport psychology*. Toronto, Mayfield.

Murphy, C (2018) *Introduction to sport psychology: sportwatch*

Matt, J (1999), *Sport Psychology: A Student's Handbook*, Routledge, London and New York

