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Implementation of the Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility (TPSR) model with secondary school pupils in physical education: a scoping review

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ABSTRACT

Context: The Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility (TPSR) model, developed by Don Hellison (2011), is an educational model designed to address behavioural and social issues among young people. The aim of this study is to evaluate the potential benefits of implementing the TPSR model in Physical Education (PE) classes for secondary school pupils aged 11 to 18.

Methodology: A scoping review of the scientific literature was conducted, based on a search for systematic reviews and primary studies in the PubMed database and the Google Scholar search engine, covering the period 2010–2024. Studies involving adolescents aged 11–18 years and implementing the TPSR model in PE were included. Two independent authors sorted and analysed the selected articles in order to synthesise the results relating to the benefits of the TPSR model on students' personal and social responsibility.

Results: The results indicate a notable improvement in personal and social responsibility among secondary school pupils following the implementation of the TPSR model in PE. The improvement in personal and social responsibility depends on three main levers: the duration and quality of

implementation, teacher training and support, and the choice of measurement tools, all of which are modulated by the cultural and school context.

Conclusion: The TPSR model offers significant benefits for the development of personal and social responsibility and for improving the social climate among students. Successful integration requires adaptation to specific educational contexts, implementation of the TPSR model and long-term training of teachers in this model, and selection of the appropriate measurement tool. Further research is needed, particularly in regions where the model is still not widely implemented, such as France, in order to fully explore its potential and overcome the methodological challenges associated with assessing long-term transfer.

BACKGROUND

Don Hellison (1938–2018) developed the TPSR educational model in the late 1970s in response to the educational challenges faced by young people from disadvantaged backgrounds in Portland, United States (Buišić & Đorđić, 2018). Observing an increase in violence, academic difficulties and a growing disaffection with physical activity, Hellison undertook a reconceptualization of PE teaching. His pedagogical model, presented in his 1985 book Goals and Strategies for Teaching Physical Education, aimed to combat violence and indiscipline while promoting the transfer of learned behaviours into everyday life. He explicitly recognised the poverty, racism and violence that his students brought with them to the gym (Hellison, 2003). The TPSR model was designed specifically for PE, which Hellison considered a privileged vehicle for transmitting values and personal development, beyond mere physical or athletic performance. Its central objective is to promote the acquisition of life skills—such as ethics, discipline, values, and social justice—that students are encouraged to internalise and apply in their daily lives. The model encourages young people to identify and develop their personal resources and latent qualities. More specifically, the TPSR model enables young students to become aware of qualities that already exist within them but are not yet visible or fully utilised.

Subsequent work has further developed the foundations laid by Hellison (Buišić & Đorđić, 2018; Compagnone, 1995; Cutforth, 1997; Georgiadis, 1990; Kahne et al., 2001; Kallusky, 2000; Lifka,

1990), highlighting the beneficial effects of the TPSR model on self-control, effort, cooperation and sense of responsibility. All of these authors have contributed to the dissemination of the TPSR model in the United States of America. More recent research has specifically explored its application in the context of PE (Cecchini et al., 2003, 2007; Escarti et al., 2010; Manzano-Sánchez et al., 2019; Manzano-Sánchez, 2023).

Initially developed for at-risk youth in school settings, the TPSR model has gradually been adapted to a variety of audiences and environments. For example, Carreres-Ponsoda et al. (2021) applied this model in a football club for adolescents aged 14 to 16 with no particular risk profile. Various researchers have contributed to the evolution of the model (Diedrich, 2014; Metzler, 2005; Petitpas et al., 2005), which has promoted its dissemination in many countries.

The TPSR model has spread far beyond its origins in the United States, with widespread implementation in many parts of the world. It is currently used in 31 countries (Figure 1). However, this spread is accompanied by considerable heterogeneity in terms of implementation methods, intervention contexts and target audiences. While its implementation is expected to continue, compliance with the model's fundamental principles may become increasingly difficult to guarantee due to the many adaptations introduced by teachers (Gordon & Beaudoin, 2020b).

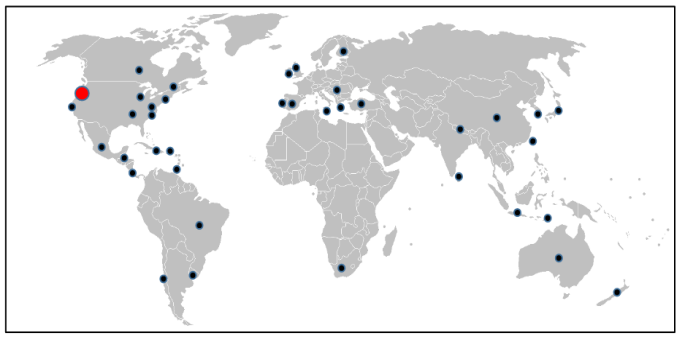

Figure 1: Locations where the TPSR model is proposed (Gordon and Beaudoin, 2020)

In America, Hellison's lectures in Canada promoted its dissemination, which was continued by researchers through presentations and publications as part of the Health Outdoor and Physical Education (HOPE) programme, directly inspired by Hellison's work (Kell & Forsberg, 2014). Beaudoin's team in Quebec played a central role in the emergence of the model (Beaudoin et al., 2014; Beaudoin et al., 2015). In Latin America, its implementation is growing significantly in countries such

as Brazil, Mexico, Haiti, Uruguay, Chile, Belize, Costa Rica and Trinidad and Tobago (Gordon & Beaudoin, 2020b).

In Europe, programmes based on the TPSR model have been developed in Spain, notably around the leading figure of Escarti et al. (2010, 2012), as well as in Portugal, Greece, Malta, Scotland, Ireland, Turkey, Finland and Serbia (Buišić & Đorđić, 2018). Spain stands out in particular for the existence of a structured and active academic group working on the TPSR model, as evidenced by a significant number of publications (Gordon & Beaudoin, 2020b), supported in particular by visits from Dave Walsh (2003) and Paul Wright (2008).

The Asia-Pacific region is an important hub for research on the TPSR model, particularly in New Zealand under the leadership of Gordon (2010), South Korea (Lee & Choi, 2015), Taiwan (Pan et al., 2019) and Indonesia. Australia also supports the integration of the TPSR model into school PE teaching, due to its recognised beneficial effects (Gordon & Beaudoin, 2020b). New Zealand has a long history of implementing the TPSR model in secondary PE, reinforced by visits from Hellison and Walsh in 2001 and 2004 (Gordon & Beaudoin, 2020b).

PRINCIPLES OF THE TPSR MODEL

The TPSR model can be defined as a ‘programme based on a model in which students must learn to be responsible for themselves and others in order to interact socially in an appropriate manner’ (Manzano-Sánchez et al., 2019). The sessions were organised into four parts according to Hellison (2011): Awareness discussion; Responsibility in action; Group reflection meetings; Self-assessment of responsibility.

When pupils integrate the principles of the TPSR model, they learn to control themselves, make responsible decisions and act independently. This allows the teacher to give fewer instructions and promote more flexible classroom management. At the same time, pupils no longer just look after themselves, but also actively contribute to the well-being and harmony of the group.

According to several studies (Buišić & Đorđić, 2018; Carreres-Ponsoda et al., 2021; Hellison, 2003), the implementation of TPSR pedagogy revolves around three key elements: the five levels of responsibility, nine specific teaching strategies, and a rigorously defined session structure.

1) The first element is the five-level scale of personal and social responsibility developed by Hellison, which students are expected to progress through in order to become socially competent adults:

- **Level 1 – Self-control/Respect for others:** According to Hellison (2011), this level forms the basis of the TPSR model. Pupils begin to understand that their individual desires are part of a collective framework in which each member has a place. When faced with conflict, they learn that violence is not an acceptable solution and that peaceful alternatives exist. They are thus encouraged to respect established rules and adopt constructive conflict resolution strategies.
- **Level 2 – Effort/Participation:** Students are encouraged to motivate themselves and make sustained efforts. They must adopt a positive attitude towards new activities, cooperate with their peers and actively participate in sessions. This includes persevering in the face of difficulty, striving for progress and participating without constant supervision from the teacher — all signs of emerging responsibility.
- **Level 3 – Self-regulation/Personal responsibility:** At this level, students are 'visibly more motivated' (Buišić & Đorđić, 2018) and become more independent. They actively participate in the tasks set and contribute to the smooth running of the lesson, in particular by independently managing the equipment or activity areas. Their commitment may also be demonstrated by voluntarily joining a sports club. They are able to set personal goals, whether simple (e.g. staying motivated in the face of repetition) or more ambitious.
- **Level 4 – Empathy/Helping others:** This level involves the development of altruism, listening skills, sensitivity to others and supportive behaviour, such as peer tutoring or taking collective initiatives. At this level, students demonstrate a genuine spirit of camaraderie, for example by ensuring that no one is left out when forming teams. They are able to work voluntarily in pairs or groups, actively support their partners and invest themselves in collective tasks with a view to mutual progress. They then adopt a leadership role in the service of the group.

- **Level 5 – Transfer:** This final level corresponds to the ultimate goal of the TPSR model: transferring the behaviours learned in PE to other areas of daily life (in the classroom, at home, with family, in the community). The student then becomes a true role model. The success of this transfer demonstrates the deep integration of the values, principles and discipline conveyed by the TPSR model. Students are thus able to consistently demonstrate, in a variety of contexts, behaviours characterised by consideration for others, self-control, peaceful conflict resolution and social engagement.

2) The second element is based on nine specific teaching strategies that teachers or coaches must implement as part of the TPSR model programme:

- **Be a role model:** Teachers must adopt a respectful attitude in their actions and communication, thus embodying a role model for students.
- **Explicitly define expectations:** Teachers clearly express their expectations throughout the school year regarding objectives, skills, attitudes and behaviours. They emphasise the idea of individual progress and highlight successes linked to personal responsibility.
- **Providing opportunities for success:** This strategy aims to ensure that every pupil has the opportunity to participate constructively in activities, succeed in them and see tangible progress.
- **Encouraging social interaction:** The teacher incorporates games and challenges into sports sessions that promote cooperation, teamwork and collective problem-solving, thereby contributing to the development of social responsibility.
- **Delegation of responsibilities:** The teacher assigns specific tasks or roles to students, thereby facilitating the organisation and management of activities. Students actively participate in the running of the session and commit to fulfilling their assigned roles, developing both personal and social responsibility.
- **Promoting leadership:** Teachers encourage, value and enable students to take on leadership roles. Students can then demonstrate their skills, guide their peers and promote cooperation within the group, with a view to empowering them.
- **Giving students choice and a voice:** This strategy consists of offering students the opportunity to make individual choices and participate in group discussions. Teachers actively seek out

their preferences and opinions. Students can thus select different tasks and discuss topics that are important to them or to the group in a supportive environment. The aim is to encourage dialogue, listening and acceptance of different points of view and needs (personal and social responsibility).

- **Involvement in assessment:** Students play an active role in assessing sports sessions and the teaching-learning process. They ensure that everyone progresses towards a higher level of personal and social responsibility by adopting behaviours that are in line with the teacher's expectations and conducive to their own development.
- **Transfer:** The teacher provides concrete examples and challenges aimed at facilitating the transfer of healthy attitudes, skills and habits developed in sport to other areas of the pupils' daily lives. This process involves discussions about the pupils' behaviour and thoughts, enabling collective discussion of responsible or inappropriate behaviour and the joint development of solutions to limit undesirable behaviour.

3) The third and final element is the standard structure of the session. It is essential that each lesson follows the same structure in order to provide students with a stable framework. This consistency allows students to better understand expectations, anticipate challenges and progress more effectively in their learning. The basic format of a session includes the following steps (Gaëlle Le Bot et al., 2023):

- **Informal discussion time:** establish a climate of trust, listening and kindness; allow pupils to express their physical, emotional and cognitive state.
- **Presentation of the lesson topic:** brief discussion to inform pupils and introduce a topic related to social skills (effort, respect, initiative, etc.).
- **Activity:** conduct the lesson using student-centred teaching approaches that promote choice, responsibility, cooperation and collective conflict resolution.
- **Group discussion:** review of the achievement of objectives, analysis of behaviour and feelings; linking to other contexts of life (school, family, community).
- **Individual reflection:** reflective activity on one's own behaviour, shared in a group or recorded in a reflective journal.

GAPS AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Since its creation in the 1980s, the TPSR model has been widely studied and applied in the field of PE. Existing research has shown its positive effects on the development of personal and social responsibility among students of different ages, genders and socio-cultural backgrounds. However, two major limitations should be highlighted. On the one hand, the results are scattered: most studies focus on specific dimensions or particular contexts (targeted sports activities, extracurricular programmes, disadvantaged groups), which prevents a comprehensive and systematic assessment of the benefits of the TPSR model for secondary school students as a whole. On the other hand, there is a weakness in the comparisons, as few studies examine the actual extent of the model's effects by explicitly comparing it to traditional approaches or control groups that did not benefit from the programme.

Several questions therefore remain: What specific benefits does the TPSR model offer secondary school pupils (11-18 years old) compared to their peers who are not following this programme? What is the measurable extent of its effects on the various dimensions of personal and social responsibility? What implementation conditions maximise its effectiveness in a school setting?

This study therefore aims to determine whether the implementation of the TPSR model leads to a significant improvement in personal and social responsibility among secondary school pupils, compared to pupils of the same age who do not participate in this type of programme.

METHOD

STUDY METHDOLOGY

This study was conducted using the PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) model as presented by Gedda (2015). The research protocol strictly followed the PRISMA checklist.

We only included articles published between 2010 and March 2024, in order to ensure that recent data was taken into account while covering a sufficiently long period to analyse major trends and developments in the field. The free research databases used to identify studies were **PubMed** and

Google Scholar. For each search, a Boolean strategy was applied using the following MeSH descriptors: ("*physical activity*" OR "*physical education*" OR "*sports*") AND ("*TPSR*") AND ("*school*" OR "*secondary*" OR "*high school*" OR "*middle school*") AND ("*personal responsibility*" OR "*social responsibility*") AND ("*English and spanish")* on google scholar et ("*physical activity*" OR "*physical education*" OR "*sports*") AND ("*TPSR*") AND ("*school*" OR "*secondary*" OR "*high school*" OR "*middle school*") AND ("*personal responsibility*" OR "*social responsibility*") on PubMed.

Only publications written in English and Spanish were selected because much of the research on the TPSR model is published in English and studied by Spanish researchers.

ELIGIBILITY CRITERIA

Studies were included only if they met certain criteria related to the objectives of our research (Figure 2). More specifically, we selected studies that met at least one of the following **PICO** (Population – Intervention – Comparison – Outcome) criteria:

- **Population:** secondary school pupils (middle school and high school), 11 to 18 years old;
- **Intervention:** implementation of the TPSR model in PE classes;
- **Comparison:** group of pupils of the same age with no educational intervention other than the TPSR model in PE;
- **Outcomes:** effects on at least one of the five levels of personal and social responsibility.

In accordance with the PRISMA guidelines by Moher et al. (2009), the protocol incorporates a four-phase selection scheme (Figure 2).

DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

At the end of the selection process, eleven articles were selected and analysed in detail (objectives, methodology, results, bias). These articles are divided as follows: nine cohort studies (Sánchez-Alcaraz et al., 2012; Sánchez-Alcaraz et al., 2013; Balderson & Martin, 2011; Jacobs et al., 2022; Escartí et al., 2010; Gordon, 2010; Manzano-Sánchez et al., 2019; Manzano-Sánchez, 2023; Patah et al., 2020), one systematic review (Pozo et al., 2016) and one randomised trial (Umegaki et al., 2017).

METHODOLOGICAL QUALITY

Two independent authors sorted the articles according to eligibility criteria. The selected studies were then analysed to determine the changes observed in personal and social responsibility among adolescents, with a view to producing a general summary. In the event of discrepancies in decisions regarding study selection, a third author was consulted to resolve the issue.

STUDY CHARACTERISTICS

After the selection process, the collected publications were coded to capture various characteristics (Table 1), including the author (year), type of study (systematic review, experimental, quasi-experimental, case study), methodology used (mixed: interviews, questionnaires, standardised scales, checklists), the gender of the participants (girls and boys), the sample size (3 to 1,800), the age of the participants (11 to 18 years old), the result, the comparison, the country of publication (Japan, Spain, United States, Indonesia, New Zealand), and the duration of the TPSR-based programmes measured in weeks (2 to 96).

To evaluate the effectiveness of the TPSR model, various methodological approaches were used. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect qualitative data on the perceptions of teachers and students (Table 1). These methodological tools (Table 1), used alone or in combination, made it possible to collect quantitative and qualitative data in order to evaluate the personal and social dimensions targeted by the TPSR model.

RESULTS

Initially, 416 articles were identified using a database and search engine. However, following the selection process, only eleven articles were retained for final analysis. A qualitative synthesis of these studies was then carried out (Figure 2).

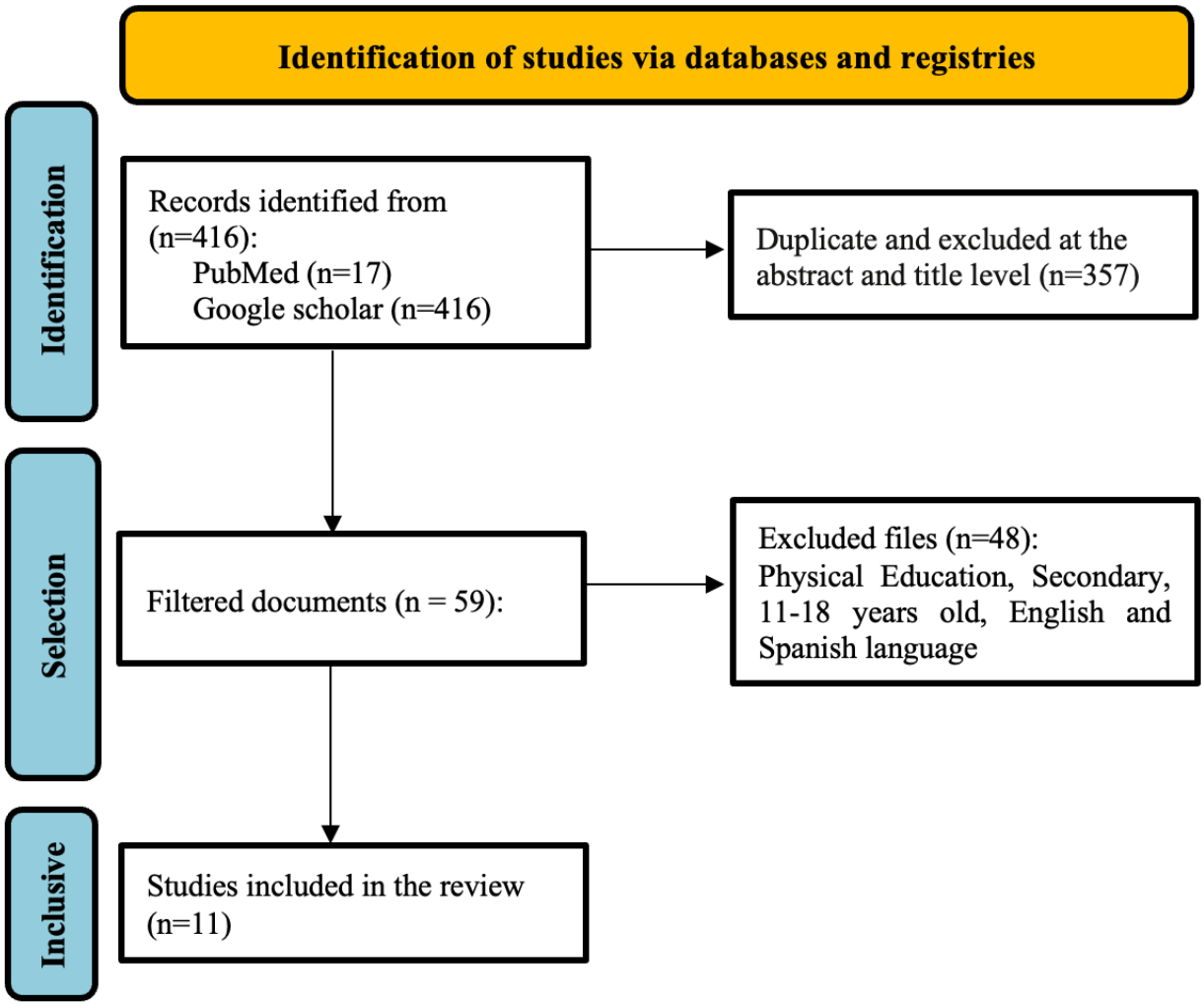

Figure 2: Flow diagram of included studies

TABLE 1 – CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDIES INCLUDED IN THE REVIEW

Reference	Type of study	Methodology	Gender	Participants	Age	Results	Comparison	Country	Duration
Balderson & Martin, 2011	Experimental	Mixed QCBS F:0.5; S:2	G	3	11-14	Decrease in their antisocial behaviors and improve on PSR	The effects of the intervention on students who exhibited multiple	United States	2

							antisocial behaviours		
Escartí et al., 2010	Quasi-experimental	Mixed MSPSE F:30	F/G	42	11-12	Improvement on PR in students who have dropped out	Comparison with traditional apprenticeship	Spain	48
Gordon, 2010	Case Study and Quasi-Experimental	Mixed Observation HR: 0.3 - 1	F/G	93	13-15	Improvement on PSR	Comparison with traditional apprenticeship	New Zealand	24
Jacobs et al., 2022	Experimental	Mixed TARE 2.0 F:2; S:2	F/G	122	11-14	Improvement on PSR	The effects of the intervention on the perception of SRP learning	United States	4
Manzano-Sánchez et al., 2019	Quasi-experimental	Mixed QSSP FI:5; C:3	F/G	85	14-18	Improvement on PR, motivation and satisfaction of needs	Gender Comparison in Psychological Needs	NM	32
Manzano-Sánchez, 2023	Quasi-experimental	Mixed PSRQ; ECVA-12 F:30	F/G	252	12-16	Improvement on PSR	Comparison with traditional apprenticeship	NM	24
Patah et al., 2020	Quasi-experimental	Mixed TARE; SRSC	F/G	416	13-14	Improvement on PSR	Comparison with traditional apprenticeship	Indonesia	-
Pozo et al., 2018	Systematic review	Qualitative / Quantitative / Mixed	F/G	1800	NM	Improvement on PSR	NM	NM	6 - 96
Sánchez-Alcaraz et al., 2012	Experimental	Mixed Kindl-R F:30; S:5	F/G	809	11-15	Improving quality of life and on the PSR	Comparison with traditional apprenticeship	Spain	16
Sánchez-Alcaraz et al., 2013	Experimental	Mixed QSSP F:30; S:5	F/G	186	11-16	Improvement on PSR	Comparison with traditional apprenticeship	Spain	12
Umegaki et al., 2016	Experimental	Mixed KiSS-18; Self-Assessment Card	F/G	107	14-18	The TPSR model has not facilitated the maintenance of social skills but has promoted their acquisition	Based on the transfer and partial maintenance of social skills	Japan	8

NM: Not mentioned; **PSR:** Personal and social responsibility; **SR:** Social responsibility; **PR:** Personal responsibility; **Duration:** Duration of the intervention in weeks; **F:** Female; **G:** Male; **Age:** Age in years; **CSBQ:** Child Social Behaviour Questionnaire (Warden et al., 2003); **MSPSE:** Multidimensional Scales of Perceived Self-Efficacy (Bandura, 1990, 2001); **TARE 2.0:** Tool for Assessing Responsibility-based Education (Escartí et al., 2015); **PSRQ:** Personal and Social Responsibility Questionnaire (Escartí et al., 2011); **TARE:** Tool for Assessing Responsibility-based Education (Wright & Craig, 2019); **KiSS-18:** Kikuchi's Scale of Social Skills (Kikuchi, 1988); **SRSC:** Student Responsibility Self-Check (Suherman, 2014); **ECVA-12:** Evaluating the Personal and Social Responsibility model for Promoting Values in Students (Rodriguez et al., 2021); **Kindl-R:** Kindl-R Health-Related Quality of Life Questionnaire focusing on personal and social dimensions; **self-assessment card:** card listing the categories in the responsibility levels table; **F:** Training in number of hours; **FI:** initial training in number of hours; **S:** number of sessions; **C:** number of training cycles; **FC:** continuing training during the year.

METHODOLOGICAL QUALITY

The methodological quality of the eleven studies included was assessed using both qualitative and quantitative analyses (Table 2). The qualitative assessment was based on three main criteria: selection bias, information bias and analysis bias. The quantitative assessment focused on the four elements of the PICO framework, article quality and level of evidence.

The results showed that, according to the quantitative analysis, all eleven studies were classified as being of "low critical quality", while the qualitative assessment classified them as being of "medium critical quality". The assessors reached a consensus on the methodological quality of the studies analysed.

TABLE 2: ASSESSMENT OF THE METHODOLOGICAL QUALITY OF THE INCLUDED STUDIES

Criteria / Studies	Balderson &	Escartí et	Gordon, 2010	Jacobs et	Manzano-Sánchez	Manzano-	Patah et al., 2020	Pozo et al., 2018	Sánchez-Alcaraz	Sánchez-Alcaraz	Umegaki et al., 2017

	Martin, 2011	al., 2010		al., 2022	et al., 2019	Sánchez, 2023			et al., 2012	et al., 2013	
Quantitative bias											
Selection - Randomization	/	Yes	/	/	No	No	No	/	/	/	No
Selection - Homogeneous criteria	/	Yes	/	/	NA	NA	Yes	/	/	/	NA
Selection - Loss Rate	/	NA	/	/	NA	NA	NA	/	/	/	15%
Information - Group Similarity	/	Yes	/	/	Yes	NA	Yes	/	/	/	NA
Information - Blind Implementation	/	No	/	/	No	No	NA	/	/	/	No
Information - Blind Assessor	/	No	/	/	No	No	Yes	/	/	/	No
Information - Ethics Committee	/	Yes	/	/	Yes	Yes	Yes	/	/	/	Yes
Analysis - Appropriate Statistics	/	Yes	/	/	Yes	Yes	Yes	/	/	/	Yes
Analysis - P-values	/	Yes	/	/	Yes	Yes	No	/	/	/	Yes
Analysis - Effect size	/	No	/	/	No	No	No	/	/	/	Yes
Analysis - Confidence interval	/	No	/	/	No	No	No	/	/	/	Yes
Analysis - Similar Intervention Time	/	Yes	/	/	Yes	Yes	Yes	/	/	/	Yes
Qualitative bias											
PICO - Population	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
PICO - Intervention	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

PICO - Comparison	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
PICO - Results	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Scimago Index of the journal	NA	Q4	Q1	Q1	Q2	Q1	NA	Q1	Q3	Q2	NA
Level of evidence	Cohort study	Cohort study	Cohort study	Cohort study	Cohort study	Cohort study	Cohort study	Systematic review	Cohort study	Cohort study	Randomized Trial

Q = quartiles of scientific journal rankings: **Q1** (top 25% of journals), **Q2** (second quartile), **Q3** (third quartile), **Q4** (bottom 25%), **NA** = (Not Available) unranked.

Although all of the articles included in this study met the selection criteria and presented satisfactory levels of reliability in terms of the results extracted, many studies using quantitative methods have certain limitations. These include, in particular, the impossibility of implementing a double-blind protocol for the implementation of the TPSR model among participants and evaluators. However, we do not believe that these limitations significantly compromise the reliability of the results, given the intrinsic difficulty of establishing such blinding in studies evaluating the TPSR model.

IMPACT OF THE SELECTED STUDIES ON PERSONAL AND SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

The implementation of the TPSR model in secondary school PE classes has had positive effects on the development of personal and social responsibility in adolescents. Overall, the majority of the studies reviewed show significant improvements in both dimensions of responsibility, confirming the robustness of the TPSR model in promoting students' overall development. For example, the work of Escartí et al. (2010), Gordon (2010), Sánchez-Alcaraz et al. (2013), Balderson and Martin (2011), as well as Manzano-Sánchez (2023) and Pozo et al. (2016), highlight simultaneous progress in personal and social responsibility. However, these positive results vary according to the methodological and contextual specificities of each study.

Thus, Escartí et al. (2010) in Spain conducted a 48-week intervention with 30 hours of in-depth training for teachers, suggesting that the duration and quality of preparation are essential conditions for maximising the effectiveness of the TPSR model. Similarly, Sánchez-Alcaraz et al. (2013) and Manzano-Sánchez (2023) confirm the importance of this initial 30-hour training, with the second study

also using the ECVA-12 questionnaire, which provides a detailed assessment of progress on both dimensions. On the other hand, Gordon (2010) in New Zealand shows that the model can also be effective despite much less ongoing training (0.3 to 1 hour), suggesting that cultural adaptation and local dynamics can compensate for limited training conditions. For their part, Balderson and Martin (2011) in the United States highlight the effectiveness of the TPSR model with boys exhibiting antisocial behaviour, emphasising the relevance of the model in targeted educational contexts.

Finally, the choice of measurement instruments also seems to play a decisive role in highlighting effects. Indeed, different studies have relied on a variety of tools: the MSPSE (Bandura, 1990, 2001) in Escartí et al. (2011), the Child Social Behaviour Questionnaire (CSBQ; Warden et al., 2003) in Balderson & Martin (2011), observation grids in Gordon's study (2010), and the PSRQ (Escartí et al., 2011) in those of Sánchez-Alcaraz (2013) and Manzano-Sánchez (2023). This diversity illustrates that conclusions may vary depending on the tool used, as each instrument highlights specific aspects of personal and social responsibility.

However, some research highlights different effects depending on the dimension studied. Manzano-Sánchez et al. (2019) showed an improvement in personal responsibility but no significant improvement in social responsibility, while Umegaki et al. (2016) observed the opposite: no significant improvement in personal responsibility, but a significant improvement in social responsibility. Similarly, Jacobs et al. (2022) also highlight a significant improvement in social responsibility. These contrasting results emphasise that the effects of the TPSR model depend largely on how the system is designed and applied. Indeed, methodological conditions directly influence the observed effects: overly limited duration and intensity, as in Umegaki's study (2016), lead to unstable results, whereas a structured framework with well-defined sessions, as in Jacobs' study (2022), promotes significant improvement. Similarly, teacher training and support play a decisive role: initial training supplemented by regular follow-up, as in Manzano-Sánchez (2019), can encourage the development of individual autonomy, without however guaranteeing the transfer to social responsibility.

The tools used also influence the perception of results: questionnaires (PSRQ, KiSS-18) and observation instruments (TARE 2.0) do not measure exactly the same dimensions of responsibility.

Furthermore, the cultural and educational context strongly shapes the adoption of the model: in Japan, the brevity of the interventions and organisational changes in the control group limited the effects (Umegaki, 2016), while in Spain, a more structured implementation integrated into the school curriculum produced more targeted effects (Jacobs, 2022; Manzano-Sánchez, 2019). Thus, the effectiveness of the TPSR model depends on the duration of the intervention, teacher training, the assessment tools used and the context in which it is implemented. In order to develop both personal responsibility and social responsibility, it therefore appears necessary to adapt the system to the specific characteristics of each school and cultural environment.

Furthermore, some studies indicate insignificant improvements. This is the case in Sánchez-Alcaraz et al. (2012), where the results, measured using the Kindl-R Health-Related Quality of Life Questionnaire focused on personal and social dimensions, did not reach statistical significance despite positive trends. This highlights that the type of questionnaire can influence the level of significance compared to Sánchez-Alcaraz et al., 2013, which uses the SPRQ.

Finally, the study by Patah et al. (2020) shows that the effects of the TPSR model are not systematically positive: a significant improvement was observed for personal responsibility, while no effect was found on social responsibility. These results suggest that, in the Indonesian context, the model, although effective in many educational environments, requires specific pedagogical adjustments to simultaneously address both dimensions of responsibility. Furthermore, the combined use of different measurement instruments — the TARE (Wright & Craig, 2019) and the Student Responsibility Self-Check (Suherman, 2014) — highlights that conclusions may vary depending on the tool used, thus reinforcing the importance of methodological choice in evaluating the effects of the TPSR model.

Overall, these results confirm that the TPSR model is a promising approach for developing adolescent responsibility in PE, but these effects are not systematic. They depend on three main factors: the duration and quality of implementation, teacher training and support, and the choice of measurement tools, all of which are influenced by the cultural and educational context.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this scoping review was to assess the benefits of implementing the TPSR model in PE classes for secondary school pupils. The results of the selected studies confirm overall that the TPSR model is an effective pedagogical framework in this regard.

A NUANCED EFFECT ON PERSONAL AND SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

The main conclusion of our review is that implementing the TPSR model is associated with an improvement in personal and social responsibility among students aged 11 to 18. This result is consistent with those of the systematic review and meta-analysis by Sánchez-Miguel et al. (2025). These authors show that interventions based on the TPSR model produce a statistically significant but modest effect on personal ($g = 0.38$) and social ($g = 0.20$) responsibility. These effect sizes, although positive, indicate that the TPSR model is not a miracle solution. Rather, it appears to be a reliable educational tool, the impact of which depends on certain conditions: the duration and quality of implementation, the training and support of teachers, and the choice of measurement instruments.

Furthermore, the moderate heterogeneity reported by Sánchez-Miguel et al. (2025) ($I^2 = 59.39\%$ for personal responsibility; $I^2 = 51.50\%$ for social responsibility) reveals significant disparities between studies. It explains why some studies observe gains in social responsibility but not in personal responsibility. This variability suggests the existence of moderating factors (e.g., context, student profile, or teaching methods) that influence the effectiveness of the TPSR model.

This study also highlights a gender-related effect. Boys seem to benefit more from the TPSR model, possibly due to higher initial motivation in PE. However, the duration of exposure to the programme appears to be a determining factor: long-term implementation in schools generates more lasting and extensive benefits than short-term interventions, which are often limited in their effects (Merino-Barrero et al., 2019). Since our scoping review highlighted the need for context-specific pedagogical adjustments, as well as at least 30 hours of training to enable teachers to fully embrace the model and effectively support students in developing their psychosocial skills, and since long-term implementation in schools shows lasting effects (Merino-Barrero et al., 2019), a school-wide approach could foster a more comprehensive, consistent and supportive environment. This would help to

strengthen the development of responsibility, particularly among girls, since according to Sánchez-Miguel et al. (2025), boys seem to benefit more from the TPSR model.

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Level 5 of the TPSR model: transfer (i.e. the ability to apply behaviours learned in class outside of PE lessons) has only recently been studied. The literature shows that this transfer, which focuses mainly on PE, is difficult to develop in teaching practice, probably due to the methodological complexity of long-term follow-up. This highlights the importance of establishing a consistent learning environment across the school (Gaëlle Le Bot et al., 2023).

Finally, a recurring theme in the most rigorous recent analyses is the need for methodological reinforcement. Although the TPSR model has been in existence for over forty years, the evidence base would be considerably strengthened by a greater number of large-scale, high-quality randomised controlled trials (RCTs). These studies are essential for establishing clearer causal links, limiting bias, and exploring the model's effects on a wider range of psychosocial and educational indicators (Sánchez-Miguel et al., 2025). This reinforces our findings on the persistence of measurement instrument choice.

CONTEXTUALIZE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE TPSR MODEL: PSYCHOLOGICAL MECHANISMS AND PEDAGOGICAL FOUNDATIONS

Responsibility has both a moral and ethical component, linked to choosing appropriate behaviours and respecting values such as justice, solidarity and integrity; and an emotional component, which involves empathy, respect and concern for others, in other words attitudes and emotions that are essential for relational and prosocial engagement. It is precisely this affective dimension that justifies the use of the

concept of “affective pedagogy” (Kirk, 2020, p. 151). To understand why the TPSR model produces consistent, albeit modest, effects, it should therefore not be viewed solely as a behaviour management tool, but as an educational approach explicitly aimed at developing social-emotional skills (Kirk, 2020). This perspective is consistent with the idea that certain educational models are intentionally designed to promote affective learning outcomes—such as motivation, self-concept, emotional responses, or resilience—rather than viewing them as mere side effects of physical practice (Casey & Kirk, 2020). The TPSR model perfectly illustrates this concept: its focus on responsibility, respect and concern for others simultaneously engages ethical values and affective processes. This dual dimension is essential, as outcomes such as enjoyment, self-esteem and a sense of belonging are strongly correlated with young people's mental health and psychological well-being (Kirk, 2020).

The psychological driver behind the effectiveness of the TPSR model can be powerfully illuminated by Self-Determination Theory (SDT), a major theoretical framework for human motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The key pedagogical strategies of the TPSR model, as formulated by Hellison (2011), concretely reflect the satisfaction of the three fundamental psychological needs highlighted by SDT: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The link with the TPSR model becomes explicit when we examine how its pedagogical strategies directly address these psychological needs.

- **Autonomy:** The need to feel in control of one's choices and actions is directly supported by teaching strategies such as ‘Giving choice and voice,’ which encourage active student participation, encourage them to express themselves, and allow them to take on leadership roles or participate in their own assessment. When a pupil chooses a task or contributes to the development of class rules, their sense of control and engagement in the learning process is strengthened.
- **Competence:** The need to feel effective and capable of meeting challenges is addressed through the teaching strategy ‘Provide opportunities for success,’ which encourages teachers to offer tasks appropriate for all skill levels. Level 2 of the TPSR model, which focuses on effort and participation rather than performance, also contributes to this. Positive feedback highlighting effort and progress reinforces students' sense of mastery and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), which is confirmed by numerous studies (e.g. Carreres-Ponsoda et al., 2021; Escartí et al., 2010).

- **Social connection:** The need to feel connected to others and valued is nurtured by teaching strategies such as 'Encouraging social interaction' and 'Modelling respect,' as well as by the fundamental principle of creating a positive and trusting relationship between teacher and student (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The emphasis on mutual support and teamwork (level 4) directly promotes a sense of belonging.

By analysing the TPSR model through the lens of SDT, a clear causal chain can be used to explain the observed effects. The process begins when teachers implement specific strategies (e.g. delegating responsibilities, offering choices) (Escartí et al., 2012). These strategies explicitly target each psychological need identified by SDT: they increase autonomy by giving students choices and responsibilities, reinforce competence by offering appropriate challenges and constructive feedback, and promote social connection by encouraging mutual respect, cooperation, and peer support. These strategies foster a learning climate that consistently satisfies the fundamental psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Satisfying these needs increases self-determined motivation, strengthens student engagement, and improves students' self-perceptions, such as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Carreres-Ponsoda et al., 2021). This positive motivational and psychological climate then facilitates the adoption and consolidation of expected behaviours in terms of personal and social responsibility, such as greater self-control, increased commitment or prosocial actions (Escartí et al., 2010; Sánchez-Miguel et al., 2025).

This mechanistic understanding is essential in teacher training. It is not limited to teaching what TPSR model strategies are, but also sheds light on why they work, showing how the satisfaction of fundamental psychological needs through TPSR model strategies directly leads to the effects observed in students, thus allowing for contextual adaptation of the model without compromising its fundamental psychological principles (Sánchez-Miguel et al., 2025).

Furthermore, the TPSR model fits philosophically and practically within the framework of Positive Youth Development (PYD). Unlike deficit-focused approaches—which aim to 'correct' problematic behaviours—PYD takes a resource-based perspective, aiming to develop individual strengths (e.g., values, social skills) and protective factors (e.g., supportive relationships) (Damon, 2004; Escartí et al., 2010). The TPSR model reflects this philosophy by using physical activity as an intentional lever to cultivate life skills, a positive identity, and a sense of responsibility towards oneself and others—

principles at the very heart of PYD (Escartí et al., 2010; Manzano-Sánchez & Valero-Valenzuela, 2019).

These motivational mechanisms explain the effectiveness of the TPSR model in the classroom, but transferring them to everyday life remains the main challenge of Level 5.

The transfer challenge (Level 5): from the gym to everyday life

Achieving Level 5 — i.e. transferring responsibility learning 'outside the gym' — appears to be a persistent and major challenge. This level is regularly presented as the ultimate goal and main justification for the model; however, it remains the most difficult to implement, observe and validate empirically (Gordon, 2010; Gordon & Doyle, 2015). This difficulty is partly methodological: it is complex to track students' behaviour over the long term and in various life contexts. It also results from a deeper pedagogical obstacle that is often overlooked.

A key obstacle to achieving Level 5 is the implicit—and rarely questioned—assumption held by many teachers that transfer occurs automatically once values have been taught. Gordon and Doyle (2015) refer to this idea as the 'Bo-Peep theory' of transfer: "let them do it and they'll come back " (p. 157). However, this assumption is incorrect. Decades of research show that close transfer (to similar tasks and contexts) is common, while distant transfer (to new and dissimilar situations) remains rare without explicit and deliberate teaching (Gordon & Doyle, 2015). Some teachers even adopt the TPSR model primarily as a classroom management tool, relegating the transfer of life skills to an 'extra' accessory rather than the central purpose of the model (Gordon & Doyle, 2015).

Overcoming this obstacle requires a pedagogical shift: moving from passive hope to an active and intentional process of teaching transfer. The 'Good Shepherd' framework proposes 'guiding' students to explicitly establish links between their PE learning and the rest of their lives (Gordon & Doyle, 2015, p. 158). This involves integrating transfer-oriented strategies into the design of lessons from the outset:

- **Hugging (promoting close transfer):** bringing the learning context as close as possible to transfer situations, explicitly highlighting these similarities. Example: during reflection time, invite students to discuss the communication skills needed to succeed in a team game and

compare them to those required for a group project in history (Gordon & Doyle, 2015; Manzano-Sánchez & Valero-Valenzuela, 2019).

- **Bridging (promoting distant transfer):** conduct more abstract metacognitive work to help students decontextualize a principle and apply it in another setting. Teachers can guide this process through analogies—for example, 'What does "making an effort" in this exercise look like when you're doing your chores?'—encouraging students to generalize principles and think deeply about their actions (Gordon & Doyle, 2015).
- **Preparation for Future Learning (PFL):** this advanced framework considers transfer not as the application of past knowledge, but as preparation for future learning. The educational objective becomes teaching students how to learn in a new environment: identifying key people and resources, formulating relevant questions, and drawing on their previous experiences to navigate a new situation (Gordon & Doyle, 2015).

In order to fill the gap in the literature regarding concrete examples for Level 5, Table 3 summarizes these strategies in a practical framework: it can be used by researchers to design and evaluate transfer-focused interventions, as well as by practitioners wishing to transform this abstract objective into a tangible pedagogical practice based on proven techniques.

TABLE 3: FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING FOR STRATEGIES TO FACILITATE AND EVALUATE THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THE LEVEL 5 OF THE TPSR MODEL (TRANSFER)

Name of strategy	Type of transfer	Pedagogical objective	Examples of implementation
Hugging	Near transfer	Create explicit similarities between PE activities and other contexts in pupils' lives	Discuss the communication skills common to both team sports and history projects
Bridging	Far transfer	Help pupils generalize a principle and transfer it to a different context	Use analogies to link efforts made in PE to those required in domestic tasks
PFL	Preparation for future learning	Teach pupils how to learn in new contexts by drawing on their past experiences	Learn to identify key resources, ask relevant questions and

			transfer learning to new situations

PRACTICAL IMPLEMENTATION: LOYALTY, TEACHER TRAINING AND THE FRENCH SYSTEMIC CONTEXT

The potential benefits of the TPSR model do not automatically materialise; its effectiveness depends heavily on the quality and fidelity of its implementation (Casey & Kirk, 2020; Kirk, 2020). Faithful implementation requires strict adherence to the fundamental philosophical and pedagogical components of the model: building positive and caring relationships between teachers and students, integrating the five levels of responsibility into teaching content, explicitly teaching transfer, and truly empowering students by sharing decision-making power (Escartí et al., 2012).

Such high-fidelity implementation is virtually impossible without comprehensive teacher training and ongoing professional support. The literature shows that the most effective TPSR programmes are almost always based on solid, high-quality initial training. This typically includes an intensive training course (e.g., 30 hours) covering the theoretical foundations of the model and including role-playing to practise TPSR strategies, followed by ongoing professional development, such as bi-monthly seminars allowing teachers to discuss obstacles encountered, share successes, and maintain their commitment (Escartí et al., 2012; Toivonen et al., 2019). This ongoing investment in teachers' competence and confidence is a prerequisite for achieving positive results among students (Lee & Choi, 2015).

The articles included in this scoping review highlight the limited dissemination and lack of substantial research on the TPSR model in France. On the one hand, the studies included in this review do not focus on French contexts, reflecting the still limited local evidence base. On the other hand, the expansion of the TPSR model in other French-speaking countries has been largely driven by the work of Ms. Beaudoin, who is collaborating with Paul Wright on the validation of French versions of the TPSR model instruments (Gordon and Beaudoin, 2020). She also organised a symposium on the TPSR model at the 10th ARIS conference in Lille in 2018, marking the first presentation of the model at a French-speaking conference on special education (Beaudoin et al., 2018). This reflects the recent emergence of the TPSR model in the French educational context.

This situation can be explained by a systemic friction between the philosophy of the TPSR model and the traditional structures of the French national education system.

- **Barriers to implementation:** Historically, the French education system has been highly centralised, with a uniform national curriculum and teachers employed as civil servants (Mangez & Cattonar, 2015). Teaching methods have traditionally been teacher-centred, based on the direct transmission of knowledge, rote learning, and rigorous standardised assessment on a 20-point scale, in which excellence is rare and average performance is the norm. This top-down approach, focused on knowledge and authority, is ideologically at odds with the spirit of the TPSR model, which is student-centred, bottom-up and process-oriented, and values empowerment, co-decision-making and emotional development.
- **Facilitating factors and systemic entry points:** Despite these obstacles, the French system is not set in stone. Since the 1989 framework law, several educational reforms have introduced principles that potentially pave the way for teaching models such as the TPSR model. The emphasis on a 'student-centred system', the organisation of schooling into multi-year cycles based on skills rather than content alone, and the widespread use of personalised support measures (PPRE: personalised educational success programme, PAP: personalised schooling project, PPS: personalised schooling project) reflect a shift towards greater differentiation and individualisation (Mangez & Cattonar, 2015). These measures, which require teachers to adapt their teaching methods to the diversity of their students, are very much in line with the relational, individualised and flexible approach of the TPSR model.

This analysis invites us to move beyond a binary opposition between the TPSR model and the French system, by considering a more nuanced path to integration. The TPSR model can be presented as an operational educational lever serving the goals of national reforms. While the Ministry of National Education calls for a more "student-centred" approach and the development of "social and methodological skills", many teachers find themselves without concrete models for making this transition from a tradition of directive teaching (Cornu, 2015). The TPSR model offers a structured, evidence-based framework for meeting these expectations.

Thus, promoters of the TPSR model in France can position the model not as a foreign ideology that breaks with the system, but as a practical solution that helps teachers meet the requirements of the common core of knowledge, skills and culture. The growing interest in this model, illustrated by its inclusion in French master's degree programmes and the emergence of a body of French-language research, shows that this convergence is already underway (Le Bot et al., 2023; Beaudoin et al., 2014; 2015). More recently, the work of Gaëlle Le Bot et al. (2023), focusing on accountability practices and the TPSR model, is actively contributing to its dissemination in France, opening up new perspectives for the adoption and evaluation of the model in the French-speaking educational context.

SCOPE FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION

This research has several implications for the field of PE. From a pedagogical perspective, it provides PE teachers with a structured, evidence-based model for developing students' psychosocial skills, with the nine teaching strategies offering an operational framework that can be directly applied in a school setting. It also highlights the importance of teacher training, emphasising that specialised preparation (30 initial hours supplemented by ongoing support) is crucial to ensure faithful implementation of the TPSR, with direct implications for initial and continuing PE training programmes.

In terms of education policy, the study reinforces the argument in favour of a more holistic approach to physical education, aligned with the development of psychosocial skills, and proposes concrete ways of adapting the model to the specificities of the French context. Furthermore, the identification of methodological gaps—such as the absence of randomised controlled trials, limited transfer assessment, and a lack of longitudinal studies—opens up promising prospects for strengthening the evidence base for the TPSR model.

Finally, in terms of pedagogical innovation, the TPSR model is a credible alternative to traditional approaches focused on motor performance, offering a genuine “pedagogy of affect” that responds to contemporary educational challenges.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations from the literature highlight several conditions necessary to maximise the impact of the TPSR model in physical education and sports. First, the duration and intensity of interventions appear to be decisive: the most robust effects are observed in long-term programmes, such as Escartí's (2010) 48-week programme, while interventions that are too short, such as Umegaki's (2016), limit the consolidation of social learning.

Secondly, teacher training and support are essential levers. Substantial initial training, around 30 hours (Escartí, 2010; Sánchez-Alcaraz, 2013; Manzano-Sánchez, 2023), combined with regular monitoring and ongoing support (Manzano-Sánchez, 2019), promotes fidelity of implementation and therefore the effectiveness of the model.

Furthermore, adaptation to the cultural and educational context is essential: in New Zealand (Gordon, 2010) and Indonesia (Patah, 2020), the effectiveness of the TPSR model depends on targeted pedagogical adjustments, and it can be particularly relevant in specific environments, such as with pupils exhibiting antisocial behaviour (Balderson & Martin, 2011). It is also recommended that a consistent and supportive environment be established to promote the progressive development of levels 1 to 5 of the TPSR model.

Finally, it is recommended to diversify the measurement instruments (PSRQ, TARE 2.0, ECVA-12, observations) in order to capture the complexity of the effects, and to ensure that individual autonomy and social cooperation are stimulated simultaneously in order to balance the two dimensions of responsibility.

STUDY LIMITATIONS

Analysis of the included studies highlights several major limitations. First, the methodological quality of the primary studies is concerning: all are classified as ‘critically low quality’ according to the quantitative assessment, which considerably weakens the robustness of the conclusions, despite the authors' acknowledgement of this issue.

Secondly, significant methodological heterogeneity is observed, linked to the diversity of study designs, measurement instruments and populations, which limits the possibility of rigorous

quantitative synthesis and prevents the performance of a meta-analysis capable of accurately quantifying the effects of the TPSR model. The issue of sample size and representativeness is also a weakness: only eleven studies were selected from the 416 initially identified, suggesting either overly restrictive inclusion criteria or a still limited empirical evidence base for the TPSR model.

Furthermore, the assessment of transfer, corresponding to Level 5, remains insufficient: although this level is recognised as a major challenge, no concrete methodological solution is proposed for monitoring transfer in the long term, which limits the practical applicability of the recommendations. Finally, potential publication bias is not discussed: the predominance of studies reporting positive effects raises questions about the representativeness of the results presented. Overall, these limitations highlight the need to strengthen methodological rigour and empirical evaluation in future research on the TPSR model.

RESEARCH PERSPECTIVES

Several areas of research deserve to be explored in order to strengthen understanding and effectiveness of the TPSR model. First, it seems essential to develop rigorous methods for evaluating the transfer of long-term learning, particularly beyond the school context, in order to measure the lasting impact on students' daily lives. Conducting a meta-analysis would also be a key step in accurately quantifying the effects of the TPSR model by synthesising data from various existing studies. Furthermore, increasing sample sizes would improve the representativeness of the results and strengthen the robustness of the conclusions. Finally, it is crucial to consider solutions that promote recognition and acceptance of the TPSR model in order to overcome cultural or systemic barriers that may limit the adoption of teaching models requiring greater flexibility and a student-centred approach. A school-wide approach can create a consistent and supportive environment. It thus promotes the development of personal and social responsibility in both girls and boys. Future research should go beyond the question: "Does the TPSR model work better for boys or girls? ' Instead, it should ask: “Under what specific implementation conditions, and with what results, do we observe different effects according to gender? ” These perspectives pave the way for methodological and practical reinforcement of the TPSR model, while consolidating its legitimacy in the field of education.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to evaluate the potential benefits and favourable conditions for implementing the TPSR model in PE classes for students aged 11 to 18, based on a review of the scientific literature. The results indicate that the TPSR model has significant positive effects on the development of personal and social responsibility in secondary school students when implemented in a school setting. The studies analysed suggest that the model is effective for both genders, although slightly more pronounced effects can be observed in boys.

One of the major contributions of this review is that it highlights the persistent challenge of fully evaluating Level 5 of the TPSR model—namely, the transfer of responsibilities to everyday life—a difficulty likely linked to the methodological complexity of long-term follow-ups.

Despite its successful dissemination in many countries, the implementation and recognition of the TPSR model in France remains limited. This limited adoption can be explained by cultural or systemic barriers to educational models that require a high degree of flexibility and a student-centred approach.

However, the TPSR model offers significant benefits in terms of developing personal and social responsibility, particularly among students with behavioural difficulties. Its successful integration into schools may require structural adjustments or even the broader application of its principles to subjects other than PE. Given the limited number of studies in the French context, further empirical research is essential to support and guide the adaptation and implementation of the TPSR model within the French education system. This research should aim to provide concrete examples of implementation, develop rigorous methods for evaluating level 5 transfer, and explore possibilities for broader integration of TPSR model principles.

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