

INDIANA

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Moving into the Future

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JOURNAL

Indiana AHPERD Journal

Volume 41, Number 3

Fall 2012

Indiana Association for
Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance

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Moving into the Future

Message from the President

President's Message

Hello to all my fellow IAHPERD members

As we all begin the start of another new year after a summer of preparation; I hope that you were all able to get a chance to rest, recuperate, and recharge as well.

To keep all members up to date, I need to let you know about our April Board of Director's meeting. At that time, we had a strategic planning session to help us move and guide us as we move into the future. As part of this step into the future, we reviewed the mission statement of IAHPERD. We took the old statement, dug into it and came out this revised mission statement. The new mission statement reads as follows: **The mission of IAHPERD is to enhance the credibility of the disciplines within our association through advocacy, professional development, and research-based pedagogies resulting in healthier communities.** I know that I speak for the entire Board of Directors when I say that we all feel this is a powerful statement that will guide us as we move into the future. It truly speaks to what we as a profession hope to accomplish.

In September, one of the main items of business before the Board of Directors will be to vote on a revision of the constitution/by-laws. The proposed changes are to change the Advocacy Committee into a Council with voting priveleges, combining the Middle School and High School Physical Education councils into the Secondary Physical Education Council and combining the Aquatics Council and the Recreation Council into one as the Recreation Council. We will also be looking at some other potential changes at that time as well.

I want to remind everyone about the upcoming Regional Events this year. Again the dates and locations are: October 12 at Vincennes University, October 13 at Decatur Central High School in Indianapolis, October 19 at Indiana Wesleyan University and November 2 at Purdue University. There are many wonderful sessions at each location and I encourage you to make an effort to attend at least one if not more than one as each site has completely different offerings. Also connected with two of the regionals will be SPARK Middle School Training sessions. The two sites will be Indiana Wesleyan and Purdue. Further information will be posted on our website and sent to members via e-mail.

We will be meeting in February to start the process of planning the 2013 State Convention. I urge anyone that would like to get involved with IAHPERD to get

in contact with Missy Harvey, our president-elect, who will take over the presidency in December or myself. There is ample opportunity for everyone to serve on a council or committee as we are always looking for new voices and ideas. This also means that if you have ideas for presentations or would like to make a presentation yourself; please let the two of us know or let the one of the Council/Committee Vice Presidents know your ideas.

Speaking of December that is the time when I will transition to past-president making this the last President's Message that I will be writing. I want to let everyone know that it has been an honor to serve as president of this fine organization. I have been privileged to represent our organization at several major events and that has been a wonderful feeling. I know that IAHPERD will be in good hands as I pass the baton of leadership to our incoming president Missy Harvey and her leadership team.

In conclusion, I want to wish everyone the best as we move into the 2012 – 2013 year with all the changes and challenges that we know will present themselves.

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THE Indiana AHPERD JOURNAL IS REFEREED.

Students
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IAHPERD INFORMATION FOR JOURNAL

IAHPERD has sent numerous e-mails since the January of 2012. Several are coming back as undeliverable since the address is a school address and the school has IAHPERD filtered out. Please check your SPAM folder to see if indianaahperd@aol.com or inahperd@inahperd.org is in there and work with your school to change that and see that our communications are reaching you. Another solution is to send your home e-mail to: inahperd@inahperd.org for an update.

Thanks!

Attention IAHPERD Members

As an association, in the future more of our communications will be done through e-mail. If you did not receive an e-mail in January or February from: indianaahperd@aol.com or inahperd@inahperd.org – please update your e-mail address.

This may be done by e-mailing your current e-mail, name, and address to:

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Any questions? Contact Karen Hatch, Indiana AHPERD Executive Director at the above e-mail or by telephone at:

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Thanks for keeping the IAHPERD membership records up-to-date.

Future AAHPERD National Conventions

2013

April 21-27
Charlotte, North Carolina



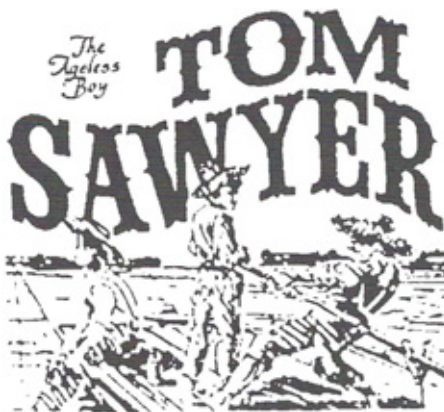
Truly a dynamic city, the changing face of Charlotte will surprise you. Walk along the bustling streets of Center City, step aboard the Historic Charlotte Trolley in South End, or stroll along the tree-lined streets of Dilworth to experience the warmth and Southern hospitality that visitors to the Queen City have come to know.

2014

April 21-27
St. Louis



Meet me in St. Louis, the gateway to the west. Here you can take in the view from the top of the Arch, America's tallest manmade monument, observe nature's power at the confluence of the Missouri and Mississippi rivers. You can get up close and personal with the Clydesdales and tour the historic Anheuser-Busch brewery, or cheer for one of the home teams, including baseball's Cardinals, the Rams football or the Blues hockey team. In the evening enjoy some authentic blues and jazz at one of many St. Louis night spots.



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Commentary Has Physical Education in Indiana Missed the Mark?


Recently I read with interest StudentsFirst founder Michelle Rhee's "sounding the alarm" commentary on the "harmful policies" in our educational system; but, I was somewhat surprised that she did not mention reforming physical education as a **KEY** element for our future success ("Olympic effort for education," The Forum, Wednesday, August 1, 2012, US Today).

It is very apparent we are witnessing in America another generation of our sedentary children becoming increasingly obese, at high risk for diabetes, negative body image, and self-esteem, and the schools are plagued by attention-deficit disorder, as well as other psychological problems. It is clear, based on John Ratey and others, that consistent physical exercise (activity) effectively prevents and often reverses these and other chronic conditions.

How can Hoosiers not invest massively in physical education (physical activity) to assist our current and future students and prevent our pre-schoolers and kindergartners from becoming statistics? How can Hoosiers not use our sizable fund of knowledge in exercise and physical activity and its benefits to tailor physical education (physical activity) to individual interests, sensitivities, and capabilities. What do you think would happen to the focus and grades of an 8-year-old boy (my grandson's age) if you forced him to sit at his desk or if we incorporated physical activity into his day for two hours? Could the industrialized nations that ranked better than the USA simply have outdone us by strengthening the mind-body experience?

On at least two occasions I have written about what I have called the "physically illiterate physical educator". Most physical educators graduated in the past two decades have left school without the tools in their tool kit to teach and perform a variety of physical activities and sport skills either individual or team. They have come to college without the skills and not acquired the skills in college and left without the skills needed to facilitate physical activity for the youth of America at no fault of their own. We, the collegiate physical educators, have failed them. The current younger professors in physical education-teacher education programs are as "physically illiterate" as the students they are working with. The professors of the "baby boom era" (those who graduated in the 60's and 70's) are quickly approaching retirement along with their physical activity and sport skills. The younger professors are more concerned about being exercise physiologists, motor behaviorists, and pedagogists rather than physical activity and sport skills specialists. Physical educators need to decide the direction to go to rectify the inactivity problems that are rampant with youth of today.

It is time to begin the reform of physical education (or physical activity). It needs to begin in the teacher preparation programs and the national professional organizations. The emphasis needs to focus more on health and wellness through a variety of physical activities. We as physical educators (or physical activity facilitators) need to become the **GO TO PEOPLE** nationally as well as locally when it comes to solving these types of problems related to the youth of America.



The secret of getting ahead is getting started. The secret of getting started is breaking your complex overwhelming tasks into small manageable tasks, and then starting on the first one.

— Mark Twain

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NOTIONS FROM YOUR EDITOR...



We Jump. We Shoot. We Save!



HEART HERO

Diego, age 8

"I've always known that my heart is different because my mom and dad have always taken me to the heart doctor. Doctors are going to switch the two bottom pieces of my heart around. Helping people with different hearts is important so doctors can find cures for kids like me!"

Hoops For Heart a national education and fundraising event created by the American Heart Association and the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. Middle school students have fun playing basketball while becoming empowered to improve their health and help other kids with heart-health issues. And it's a great way to satisfy the physical education standards as determined by the National Association for Sport and Physical Education and the American Association for Health Education.

Funds raised through Hoops For Heart give back to children, communities and schools through the American Heart Association's work:

- Ongoing discovery of new treatments through research
- Advocating at federal and state levels for physical education and nutrition wellness in schools
- CPR training courses for middle and high school students

Hoops For Heart helps students:

- Learn the value of community service and contribute to their community's welfare
- Join with other children to help kids who have heart problems
- Develop heart-healthy habits while being physically active
- Learn basketball skills they can use for the rest of their lives
- Earn gift certificates for free school P.E. equipment from U.S. Games

With your support, we can help protect and improve children's health. Your efforts to educate your students and raise funds for research and outreach are vital to improving kids' lives.

Call 1-800-AHA-USA1 or visit heart.org/hoops to get your school involved.



American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance

AHPERD is a proud program partner of Hoops For Heart.

2013 National Physical Education Institute: Press Release

For Immediate Release
Contact: Artie Kamiya, Co-Chair
Phone: (919) 818-6486
E-Mail: Artie@greatactivities.net

National PE & Health Experts to Discuss Obesity Prevention at UNC Asheville

(Durham, North Carolina) – The Great Activities Publishing Company is pleased to announce that advanced work on the 2013 National Physical Education Institute is now under way. Held at the campus of UNC Asheville during the week of July 29 – August 2, 2013, this event will focus attention on how our country's public schools can more effectively use their resources to foster new strategies for implementing stronger fitness, health, and obesity prevention programs for K-12 children and youth.

Background: Modeled on recommendations and strategies supported by the national Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), the National Physical Education Institute will feature an elite cadre of keynote speakers and session presenters from across the United States.

"The magnitude and sophistication of the National PE Institute reflects a new chapter in the on-going fight to address our nation's childhood obesity epidemic," states Artie Kamiya, co-chair of this new on-going national event. "It is imperative that all school districts begin to re-double their efforts if our state and country are to keep competitive in this new global economy."

National Experts: "The National PE Institute was developed to help point out how obesity and unhealthy lifestyles have become a weighty problem for the North Carolina economy and the nation as a whole," cites Dr. David Gardner, Executive Director of the North Carolina Center for Health and Wellness. "We are pleased to build upon the efforts of our successful 2012 PE Institute where over 300 K-12 physical education leaders from across the United States joined forces with an elite group of education and fitness experts that included Dr. Bob Pangrazi, Dr. George Graham, Dr. Stevie Chepko, Dr. Dolly Lambdin, Dr. Jayne Greenberg, and Shellie Pfohl, Executive Director of the President's Council for Fitness, Sports and Nutrition."

More Information: Additional information about the 2013 National PE Institute is now available online at www.nationalpeinstitute.com. When visiting this website, you will be able to see highlights from the 2012 PE Institute, the ABC-TV news clip, and can sign-up for our "Friendly Reminder" e-mail service to remind individuals to attend this outstanding event.

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Time: 9am-4pm

Date: November 2

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The Educational Machine: The Influence of Bureaucratized Education on Teachers

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Abstract

The modern, American educational system has grown into a large, multilayered bureaucratic intuition. Control in this system is divided among local, state, and federal governments in a way that limits the amount of autonomy teachers have over their classroom practices. Referred to here as the educational machine, the American system of education has grown to deprofessionalize and deskill its teachers. From a Marxist perspective, this article explores the impact of the educational machine on the teaching workforce. Using an industrial metaphor, schools will be explored as knowledge-producing factories in which teachers act as the cogs that turn the wheels of the educational machine. The ways in which the machine is perpetuated through teacher socialization will also be explored. Finally, opportunities for teacher resistance and educational change will be presented along with some concluding comments.

Key Words: Marxism, capitalism, bureaucratic education

The Educational Machine:

The Influence of Bureaucratized Education on Teachers

Although best known for their writings on communism, the works of Karl Marx and Frederick Engels (Tucker, 1978) more generally provide a critique of capitalist ideals in response to the French and Industrial Revolutions. As both academics and political figures, Marx and Engels championed the working class citizen and fought against the dogmas of the church; tyrannies of the state; decrees of political parties; and the blind, unmonitored operation of economic institutions. As a form of conflict theory, Marxist perspectives view social order as the product of the domination of one social class over another (Ritzer & Goodman, 2004). Specifically, domination by the owners of the means of production, the bourgeois, over the proletariat, who, beyond their personal possessions, own only their labor power (Tucker, 1978). Thus, Marxist theories tend to focus primarily on the disadvantage and oppression that result from economic relationships

between classes. In contemporary American society, classes are defined in terms of positions within social relations of production (Wright & Perrone, 1977). For example, the relationship between a manager and salaried laborer in a factory.

The majority of Marx and Engels' (Tucker, 1978) work examines the social position of factory workers and their relationship to the owners of the means of production (i.e., capitalists). According to Marxist theory, human beings have a natural desire to reach a point of self-actualization in which they are able to see the outcomes of their labors represented in the work they produce. This can be viewed as a sense of satisfaction that one feels when completing a project or building something by hand. Marx believed that people are motivated to pursue work that leads to self-actualization. However, in the modern, capitalist system of production, the work one does is increasingly specialized so that the relationship of the worker to the product becomes fragmented. Rather than assembling an entire product, the worker focuses on creating a specific element of that product. Since workers create parts rather than the whole, they become alienated from their labor. They have no control over what they produce and derive increasingly less self-actualization from their work.

Important to Marx and Engel's sociological theories is the relationship of power to ideology (Bowles & Gintis, 1976). Essentially, those in power create, shape, and perpetuate the values and belief systems that become prominent in any given society. As a result, social rules and conventions emerge that advantage the dominant or ruling classes and oppress the interests of all other social groups. The state and all of its appendages are used as tools of the ruling class. Ironically, those in power are typically also well positioned to end disadvantage and inequality, but it is often in their best interest to maintain the status quo as it directly benefits their individual interests. Although the writings of Marx and Engels' relate more directly to a previous era of civilization, several of the concepts they introduced over 150 years ago are still relevant to contemporary society. One particular extension of

Marxist theory has been to the realm of education and the ways in which schools function to perpetuate the status quo in society.

Marxist Theory and Education

The application of Marxist theory to education is not a novel endeavor. Bowles and Gintis (1976) provide a compelling argument for the ways in which schooling in capitalist America replicates inequality and oppression in social life. They argue that the primary function of schooling is to prepare workers to fit into the standing capitalist structure. In a sense, schools neither add to nor subtract from the degree of inequality and oppression, but instead reproduce and legitimate it. As noted by Bowles and Gintis, "the U.S. educational system...cannot foster... patterns of personal development and social equality...The schools are destined to legitimate inequality, limit personal development to forms compatible with submission to arbitrary authority" (p. 59). Beyond the work of Bowles and Gintis (1976), scholars operating from a Marxist-feminist perspective note that schooling reproduces a sexual as well as economic division of labor in the family and workforce (Acker, 1987). Schooling is used to teach young girls to be submissive and obedient while boys are taught to be authoritative and opinioned.

While institutions of schooling have a definitive and lasting impact on the children whom they receive, teachers are also influenced by the experience of education. The complex, bureaucratic, hierarchal, and rationalized structure of schooling in capitalist America – referred to here as the educational machine – can strip power from the hands of the teachers and influences the ways in which they conduct their daily work. As part of the machine, teachers are placed in the paradoxical position of having to implement school policies and procedures that may not be of their creation and are at times counter to the best interests of their students.

Although some teachers are able to exercise their sense of agency and employ social strategies that allow them to resist the influence of the educational machine, many other succumb to bureaucratic domination. As will be discussed, this is evidenced in the way in which innovative practices taught during preservice training tend to be washed out by the realities of school life and replaced with more traditional pedagogies (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981). Using a Marxist approach, the discussion will be necessarily provocative as it will call into question several aspects of the status quo in the American educational system. The true purpose of this manuscript is to stimulate the reader to more carefully reconsider the taken-for-granted nature of public education in the United States and the impact it has on school teachers.

The Development of the Bureaucratized School

Since its inception, formal education in the United States has undergone several structural changes. In the early years, education was a local initiative. Communities hired school teachers who directed small, one-room school houses. However, as the country continued to grow,

such an organization became increasingly less practical. By the middle of the 19th century, industrialization and the creation of the American city required that schools expand in order to accommodate the increasingly large cadre of urban youth. This required that states take a more prominent role in overseeing education as the need to get children off of the streets by rapidly increased the size and number of schools (Kliebard, 2004). State involvement became institutionalized when, in 1918, every state in the union adopted policies to mandate free, public elementary school education (Sleeter & Stillman, 2009).

Through the first half of the 20th century, the federal government remained uninvolved in American education. Since the U.S. Constitution did not specify the federal government's role in education, it was left to state control. However, this changed in the mid-1960s when fear driven by the Sputnik-era and the perception that the United States was falling behind other countries in math and science prompted increased national attention on education (Kliebard, 2004). Eventually, congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, which provided federal support and oversight for education. It also established the foundation for the bureaucratic structure that continues to persist today.

Since its inception, ESEA has been reauthorized several times. The most recent iteration, made by the George W. Bush administration, is known as No Child Left Behind (US Department of Education, 2002). With No Child Left Behind came the culture of high stakes, standardized testing that continues to shape the face of American education. States that align with the policies and procedures outlined in No Child Left Behind are eligible to apply for federal education funding and resources. As a result of this federal legislation, contemporary education is no longer just a local or state issue. It is heavily influenced by federal policies and funds that create a more uniform version of education that was observed prior to the passage of ESEA. This has been perpetuated through the recent Race to the Top initiative in which the Obama administration has promised additional federal funds for states that comply with federal mandates and meet prescribed benchmarks (US Department of Education, 2009). Thus, while states and localities continue to have some flexibility in determining the specific curricula and instructional practices that are implemented, their decisions are directed and regulated by federal policies that impact education on a national level.

Hierarchical Relationships in Education

The involvement of the federal government in education significantly altered the teaching-learning process. What began as an interchange between teachers and students under the relatively loose accountability of local communities has become a multi-layered, hierarchal national institution (Apple, 1988). Modern education positions students within classrooms regulated by teachers, teachers within schools regulated by administrators, schools within districts run by school boards, districts within state departments of education led by superintendents, and state departments within the larger, federal department of

education headed by the secretary of education. The federal government outlines general policies that must be followed by the state, which sets the policies for the districts, so on down to the teachers and students in classrooms. Each level is responsible for those it supersedes, but accountable to those under which it serves.

As a result of this hierarchical arrangement, teachers, the leaders of the classroom, hold relatively little power or autonomy over their instruction (Macdonald, 1995). At the local level, power is centralized in the district administrative offices to which teachers report (Sinclair, Ironside, & Seifert, 1996). Teachers are analogous to middle managers in the factory system. Theoretically, their primary role is to promote learning through the implementation of policies and procedures for instruction that are developed above them in the educational hierarchy. These are approaches to instruction that teachers often do not have a hand in shaping. Rather, the instruction is crafted by the educational machine and delivered to them for implementation. Through this process, teachers become increasingly deskilled as technical control procedures are infused into the school curriculum (Apple, 1988; Macdonald, 1995).

At the extreme, basal readers and scripted reading programs require teachers to recite lessons verbatim from instructional materials (Baumann & Heubach, 1996). In such situations, teachers have no ownership over instruction because it is not their instruction. They become alienated from the instruction they provide as it is impossible for them to see themselves in their work. This sentiment is captured by Melinda, a preservice teacher in Stooksberry, Schussler, and Bercaw's (2009) study, who discusses her impressions of education after her student teaching:

One of my biggest fears in wanting to become a classroom teacher is that teaching seems like it has become so *prescriptive*. The amount of materials and workbook activities and technological toys practically take care of the teaching... Therefore, *it is really teaching?* I look at those [published] units and *I feel something die inside*... As a teacher I need to develop my own skills and bring my unique personality to my teaching, not the [publishing] company's ideas, or whoever they may be. (p. 725, emphasis added).

When teachers become divorced from the process of teaching – the process of knowledge production – they lose their ability to exercise their agency as educators (Sinclair, et al., 1996). The act of teaching is no longer a self-actualizing experience as the stratification teachers derive from their work is diminished. The skill and art in teaching can evaporate and are replaced by mundane, boring repetition and recitation (Apple, 1988, 2000). Teachers are stripped of their individuality and become deprofessionalized cogs in the educational machine. The role is not to design instruction, but to implement “teacher

proofed” instructional materials designed by people they may not even know and mandated by the bureaucracy.

The School-Factory

If teachers are cogs in the educational machine, than schools are the factories in which they work. The cellular organization of classrooms (Lortie, 1975) positions teachers within confined spaces that inhibit their mobility and restrict their actions. Their breaks are prescribed and limited to preparation and lunch periods, and they are typically not permitted to leave the school building during the day without permission from the administration. Like the factory worker clocking in and out of work on a time card, during the school day, teachers have only limited control of their time. For the most part, it is managed for them by the administration and school schedule. There are obvious exceptions to this rule, but the fact remains that teaching schedules have relatively little flexibility. Classes begin and end with a bell regardless of whether or not the teacher is ready to begin or end class.

Research has indicated that teachers are physically and intellectually isolated from one another (Macdonald, 1995; Stroot & Ko, 2006). They are typically the only adults in their workspace and their primary interactions are with children. Relationships do develop between teachers, especially those who teach similar grade levels or content areas and have adjoining classrooms. However, interactions are limited to time before and after the school and during short breaks throughout the day. Rarely are teachers provided the time to engage in pedagogical discussions with colleagues or share teaching philosophies, strategies, and advice (Lortie, 1975).

Despite physical boundaries, communities of practice (Brown & Duguid, 1996) do emerge among educators. Through these learning communities teachers are able to learn from and motivate one another, which has a proven positive influence on student achievement (DuFour & Eaker, 1998). However, their formation is typically intentional and rarely do learning communities simply sprout up organically. Such serendipity is limited by the educational machine. The organization of the school environment tends to alienate the teacher from their peers and inhibits the development of a collective conscious among educators (Lortie, 1975).

Like management in the factory, the presence of administrators in the school building holds teachers accountable for performing their duties. Although not always present in the classroom, in many cases the long-arm accountability to administrative structures ensures that teachers perform the responsibilities required of them (Jordell, 1987). Teachers are primarily responsible for the transfer of knowledge through interaction with their students. However, as discussed previously, they do not control their classrooms. Instead, the power of the educational machine is channeled through the teachers in the form of policies developed above them in the hierarchy of schooling. In many situations it is expected that teachers will institute the programs dictated to them by the administration without question. In other instances,

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teachers may have more flexibility to implement policies and instructional procedures that they believe will be best for students. However, even that flexibility is at the discretion of the administration. Teachers only have the ability to exercise the autonomy that is granted to them by the holders of power in the educational bureaucracy. Just as quickly as autonomy is granted it can be stripped away and replaced with administrative or government mandates.

Within the school-factory, teachers *help* to create a specific commodity – the development of human capital in young people (Coleman, 1988). The word help is emphasized as no one teacher is solely responsible for shaping the identity of any single student – teachers operate on a production line. In the elementary grades students usually spend a year with the same teacher and are then shuttled down the line to the next teacher waiting to continue the production process. During secondary education the rate of production and the number of cogs used in production are increased as children are shuttled from classroom to classroom and teacher to teacher several times throughout the same day. After students are passed along, teachers turn to receive the next students from the teachers who preceded them on the production line. Rarely are they able to build meaningful, long-term relationships with their students and rarely can they proclaim true ownership over a student's success (Chelladurai, 1985).

Marx describes the creation of a commodity as being the combination of the labor power of several factory workers, which makes it difficult for specific workers to identify the role they play in shaping the whole (Tucker, 1978). Since teachers play only a small role in the development of human capital in any single student, they too may find it difficult to identify the results of their labor. No single teacher can truly claim to have shaped the identity of any particular child because no single teacher is solely responsible for that student's education. As a result, teachers may find it difficult to see themselves in their work. This is not to say that teachers do not have an important impact on their students. To the contrary, evidence indicates that individual teachers have the potential to play an important role in student learning and achievement (Rockoff, 2004). It is the teacher's relationship with the students that is in question presently. If these relationships are underdeveloped than teachers will likely lack the type of work experiences that result in self-actualization. Without these types of experiences, the degree to which teachers feel alienated may be intensified.

Perpetuation of the Educational Machine

Bowles and Gintis (1976) describe the ways in which education in a capitalist society perpetuates the stratification of society and prepares students to work for the owners of the means of production. For education to serve this function it must be transmitted through the cogs that act as the labor force in the educational machine – the teachers. The structure of occupational socialization theory (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b) can be used to explain the way in which teachers are prepared to fulfill their roles as cogs in the machine. Occupational socialization can be divided into

three phases that explain “all kinds of socialization that initially influence persons to enter the field of...education and later are responsible for their perceptions and actions as teacher educators and teachers” (Lawson, 1986, p. 107). These phases are acculturation, professional socialization, and organizational socialization.

Acculturation accounts for the ways in which teachers are socialized in the schools they attend as children and adolescents. During this time, they interact with teachers, administrators, and guidance counselors and develop initial impressions of the role and purpose of education in society. Using Bowles and Gintis' (1976) framework, during this phase of socialization prospective students are inculcated with the values and ethic of capitalist education that act to perpetuate the status quo. They are taught to sit in place, only answer questions when called upon, and submit to the authority of the educational machine as expressed through the teacher (Jackson, 1968). They also experience the structure of the school day and the cellular organization of the classroom. The values and norms they learn during this time help to shape prospective teachers' definitions of education and are later incorporated into their classroom practices (Lawson, 1986).

During professional socialization, teaching recruits are taught how to fill the occupational role of teacher through preservice preparation programs. It is during this time that the values and norms related to the structure and function of education that began to sprout during acculturation take root. Preservice teachers are taught what it means to be part of the educational machine and are molded by university programs into the type of cogs needed to run the machine. That is, beyond content, these programs teach prospective educators to submit to the hierarchical authority of the machine and to develop policies and practices for their classrooms in accordance with the structure of education. Once on the job, organizational socialization begins. During this time, values and norms of the educational machine are further ingrained in the teacher's identity through interactions with fellow teachers and school and district administrators. State and federal policies and programs further the socialization of teachers both directly and indirectly via the influence they have on local policies.

Zeichner and Gore (1990) describe the way in which the realities of school life “wash out” innovative practices learned during preservice training so that the teacher adopts a more traditional, custodial approach to education. Through a similar process, socialization into the school also has the potential to wash out the teacher. With the influence of growing rationalization and continued deprofessionalization, socialization can strip away the joy of teaching and leave only the teacher as a cog – the productive force of the educational machine. The bureaucratic nature of the educational machine dehumanizes the teacher and further reduces the self-actualization they derive from their work. Although they may at first resist the power of socialization, the results seem inevitable: fall in line with one's place in the bureaucracy or get forced to the margins of education. Through this process of socialization, the

educational machine perpetuates itself. It tends rewards those who embrace its mission while silencing those who resist. Some teachers are able to assert their sense of agency in the face of the machine. However, the road for these educators will likely not be as smooth as it is for those who comply with the educational bureaucracy. This is a topic toward which we will turn later in the paper.

Proletarianization of the Teaching Force

Teachers are typically viewed as members of an established profession. However, our discussion to this point may call such a conclusion into question. Shaw's (1987) model for professionalization outlined the ways in which skills, knowledge, and social and personal qualities become prerequisites for professional autonomy. The members of a profession must attain certain benchmarks of competence in their fields and are then granted a degree of freedom in the ways in which they approach their work. However, when teachers lose control over the technical and ideological aspects of their work, it can be indicative of a process of proletarianization (Derber, 1983). The proletarianization process is marked by increasingly disempowering work practices and "an increased division of labour; the separation of conception and execution of tasks, including the tendency to routinize high level tasks; increased controls over each stage of the labour process; increased volume of work; and the downgrading of skill levels" (Densmore, 1987, p. 135).

Through the process of proletarianization, teachers become engulfed in the structural, hierarchal division of labor. Their work ceases to be about asking critical questions related to the education of children (e.g., which instructional strategy is best) and transforms into implementing practices and instructional procedures defined as "best" by entities that supersede them in the educational hierarchy (Apple, 1988). Teachers are forced to yield their autonomy and submit to the bureaucratic authority of the educational machine.

In an investigation of the lived experience of Australian physical education teachers, Macdonald (1995) noted tensions between professionalism and proletarianism that contributed to teacher dissatisfaction and attrition. Specifically, she found several factors to contribute to dissatisfaction among the teachers in her sample: lack of status, repetitive nature of teaching, limited ability to make decisions, administrative surveillance, and an unprofessional staffroom culture. In the conclusion of her paper, Macdonald (1995) notes that the teachers were most satisfied when they felt as if they had the ability to exercise their autonomy as educators and least satisfied when their decisions were situationally constrained by administrators and policymakers. The former sentiment would be indicative of a professional culture whereas the latter is more indicative of one that has become proletarianized.

Many young teachers graduate from their teacher education programs as inspired prospective professionals only to have their dreams and aspirations crushed by the educational machine. As was the case for the teachers

in Macdonald's (1995) study, when opportunities to exercise professional knowledge and decision making are overshadowed and controlled by the educational machine, teachers may have a difficult time finding satisfaction in their work. Macdonald (1995) found that many educators who remained in teaching and accepted their position among the proletariat did so with a distain that decreased the enjoyment and self-actualization they derived from their work.

For some teachers, the realities of teaching do not match the ways in which they conceptualized the profession (Stokking, Leenders, Jong, & Tartwijk, 2003). Such experiences contribute to the high levels of burnout, and dissatisfaction noted in the teaching profession (Burke & Greenglass, 1993; Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kington, & Gu, 2007; Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998). As a result, while many individuals enter teaching in order to work with children, after being exposed to the realities of the educational machine, many transition out of the profession (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). Others remain in teaching because of a perceived lack of alternatives (Day, et al., 2007; Jackson, 1968; Lortie, 1975). In this light, teachers do not look so different than the disenfranchised factory workers described in Marx and Engels' (1978) writings in the middle portion of the 19th century. Capitalism and the bureaucracy it breeds leads to alienation and the degradation of the human spirit regardless of the epoch in which it develops. This position is substantiated by the work of Apple (1988) who noted that the process of deskilling and proletarianization in education is analogous to that which has occurs in my other blue-, pink-, and white-collar jobs.

Resisting the Powers of the Educational Machine

Up to this point, the messages conveyed throughout the majority of this essay have been notably bleak. However, while the educational machine affects the lives and careers of teachers in import ways, it would be naïve to assert that teachers cannot resist its influence. Rather, teachers have the ability to exercise their sense of individual agency in deciding how they will respond the messages and policies conveyed by administrators and government officials. As will all types of socialization, socialization into and through the educational machine is necessarily a dialectical process. As noted by Schempp and Graber (1992), a dialectical view of socialization involves "a contest of social thesis against individual antithesis" (p. 331). In other words, teachers play an active role in deciding which elements of their socialization they will incorporate into their worldview and which they will reject or incorporate with strong reservations. This sense of agency that is gained through the process of dialectics provides teachers with an autonomy that even the educational machine cannot destroy – the autonomy of the mind. While the machine may be able to hold some influence on the behaviors and actions exhibited by teachers, it cannot directly control their thoughts.

As a result of the dialectical process of socialization, teacher can employ several different social strategies when confronted with messages and mandates from the

educational machine (Lacey, 1977). The first, internalized adjustment, occurs when the teacher adopts the policies and procedures dictated by policymakers and administrators as their own. These teachers truly believe that the type of education emphasized by the machine is the most desirable for children. They hold no reservation and, in a sense, have become a true part of the educational machine. On the other hand, strategic compliance is marked by teachers who perform the desired behavior, but with reservations. These teachers may believe that what they are being asked to do is not in the best interest of the children in their classes, but they see no other option than to comply. In these situations, teachers' overt actions may be controlled by the educational machine, but they retain reservations and look for opportunities for safe resistance and opposition.

The third social strategy, strategic redefinition, is the riskiest for teachers as it involves an active attempt to change the status quo. Like strategic compliers, these teachers believe that the educational machine is wrong, but rather than stopping at thought, they attempt to convince others around them that the policies and procedures they are being asked to implement are flawed. Along some may experience minor successes, by in large those who attempt to redefine the status quo are likely to experience opposition from the machine. However, the success or failure of these attempts at redefinition is not what is important. What is important is that, while teachers as a group may be viewed as the cogs that perform the work of the educational machine, as individuals, teachers still have the ability to choose the way in which they will meet the demands and requirements of their jobs.

Conclusion and Final Thoughts

The purpose of this paper was to demonstrate the impact of rationalized, bureaucratized education on teachers. The discussion has uncovered how the hierarchical structure of American education, although rational, is not necessarily good for teachers. It has the potential to strip them of their individuality and creativity and turn them into cogs in the production of human capital via education. In short, it can remove the art from teaching and replace it with repetitive, factory-like labor. In line with Marxist theory (Tucker, 1978), this results in a decrease in the self-actualization and alienates teachers from their work.

In discussing the historical development of capitalism, Marx and Engels (Tucker, 1978) predicted that the oppression of the proletariat would reach a critical mass, which would lead to socialist revolution and the overthrow of the rationalized, bureaucratic capitalist structure. In its place, the proletariat will coalesce and assume the public ownership of property. In education, we need a similar revolution. Teachers must regain control of the process of teaching. For this to happen, they must develop a collective class consciousness. The logical place for revolution to begin is in state and national teachers' unions, but these organizations tend to concern themselves more with technical issues such as teacher pay than with the daily lived experiences of teachers. When California threatened to implement value-added analysis measures of teacher

effectiveness and link them to pay, the union struck back (Felch, Song, & Smith, 2010). However, you do not typically hear stories about unions speaking out against what Jackson (1968) characterized as the daily grind of teaching – the day to day ways in which the educational machine tears away at the hearts and souls of teachers.

The silence of the unions on these matters is obvious when one realizes that the unions are a de facto part of the machine. They operate within the paradigm of capitalistic bureaucracy and know no other reality. Questioning the machine would mean questioning the structure of the unions themselves. So, if not initiated by the unions, where will the revolution begin? Bowles and Gintis (1976) provide part of the answer to this question in their discussion of education. Schools, like other social institutions, facilitate the perpetuation of capitalist ideals in a capitalist society. Changes to the structure of schooling within the capitalist frame of reference will still result in the perpetuation of the system – capitalism cannot be combatted with another version of capitalism. Or, as noted by Bowles and Gintis (1976), "the people of the United States do not need a doctor for the moribund capitalist order; we need an undertaker" (p. 61). The only way that the nature of education can change is through a transformation of the greater social structures that surround schooling. It is this same sentiment that Robert Pirsig (2005) discusses in the following excerpt from *Zen and the Art of Motorcycle Maintenance*:

But to tear down a factory or revolt against a government or avoid repair of a motorcycle because it is a system is to attack effects rather than causes; and as long as the attack is upon effects only, no change is possible. The true system, the real system, is our present construction of systematic thought itself, rationality itself, and if a factory is torn down but the rationality which produced it is left standing, then that rationality will simply produce another factory. If a revolution destroys a systematic government, but the systematic pattern of thought that produced that government are left intact, then those patterns will repeat themselves in the succeeding government. There's so much talk about the system. And so little understanding. (p. 102).

Research on education and physical education in Brazil (Da Matta, Hemphill, & Richards, 2011; Jennings & Da Matta, 2007, 2009) provides insight into how structural changes at the macro-level of a society can affect education. After the fall of the military dictatorship the educational system in Brazil was decimated. Paulo Freire (1998) described the schools as "empty" – when the military dictatorship left they took everything with them (p. 73). The newly formed Brazilian government raised education from the rubble and redefined it in a way that supported the social and political democracy it sought to foster on a national scale. As opposed to being authoritarian and oppressive, today's educational system in Brazil seeks to be inclusive and supportive of democratic participation.

Some evidence shows that Brazil has been at least partially successful in democratizing education (Jennings

& Da Matta, 2007, 2009). Schools are now forums for democratic discourse and students and teachers have the opportunity to participate in open elections of school principals (Jennings & Da Matta, 2007; Myers, 2008). This example is used to demonstrate the process of social change, not necessarily to draw value judgments on its end product. What it does provide is hope for transformation. When provided with the correct circumstances and political climate, teachers as well as other workers may be able to once again realize self-actualization in their work by cutting the bureaucratic tethers of alienation that currently hold them in positions of subservience.

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2012 Regional Workshops

Instead of a state conference, Indiana AHPERD will host a series of all day workshops around the state. Members and HPERD professionals are encouraged to attend one or more of the workshops as each has a different line up of sessions and presenters.

Professional Service Points will be available for attending sessions.

Past President, Lisa Angermeier (IUPUI) is the Regional Workshop host.

Register

Registration will be through the mail only. Forms and complete workshop information will be available on the IAHPERD web site in early August. Forms will be available for download to register and outline the sessions offered at each location.

The deadline to pre-register is September 30. Registration fees include lunch. Registrations received after the September 30th date will NOT include lunch. Registrations sent via the US Postal Service MUST be postmarked no later than September 30. After this date, you will be assessed the onsite fees and your registration WILL NOT include lunch.

Workshops at a Glance

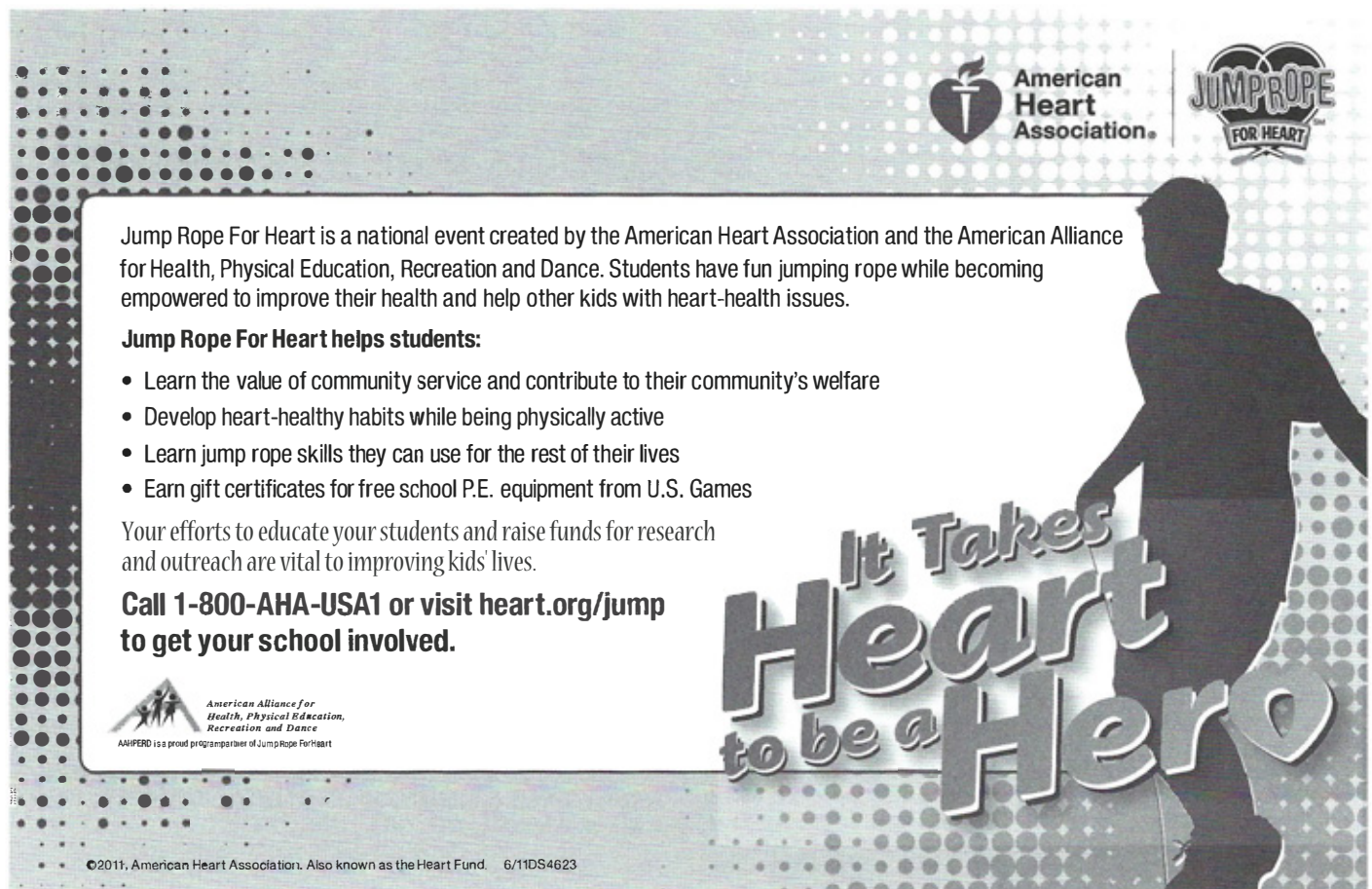
Friday, October 12 at Vincennes University (Vincennes)
17 sessions offered; CFP networking lunch
Workshop runs from 9:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m.

Saturday, October 13 at Decatur Center High School (Indianapolis)
15 sessions offered; CFP networking lunch
Workshop runs from 8:30 a.m. to 4:00 p.m.

Friday, October 19 at Indiana Wesleyan University (Marion)
19 sessions offered; CFP networking lunch; SPARKS training
Workshop runs from 9:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m.

Friday, November 2 at Purdue University (West Lafayette)
30 sessions offered; CFP networking lunch; SPARKS training
Workshop runs from 8:30 a.m. to 4:00 p.m.

To learn more, go to www.inahperd.org.



The graphic features a background of a grid of dots. In the top right corner, there are logos for the American Heart Association (a heart with a flame) and Jump Rope For Heart (two hearts forming a rope). The main text is enclosed in a white box with a black border. To the right of the box is a silhouette of a person jumping rope. At the bottom right, the slogan 'It Takes Heart to be a Hero' is written in a large, stylized font.

American Heart Association.

JUMPROPE FOR HEART

Jump Rope For Heart is a national event created by the American Heart Association and the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. Students have fun jumping rope while becoming empowered to improve their health and help other kids with heart-health issues.

Jump Rope For Heart helps students:

- Learn the value of community service and contribute to their community's welfare
- Develop heart-healthy habits while being physically active
- Learn jump rope skills they can use for the rest of their lives
- Earn gift certificates for free school P.E. equipment from U.S. Games

Your efforts to educate your students and raise funds for research and outreach are vital to improving kids' lives.

Call 1-800-AHA-USA1 or visit heart.org/jump to get your school involved.

American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance
AHPERD is a proud program partner of Jump Rope For Heart

It Takes Heart to be a Hero

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“The Gentle Art of Catching & Throwing”

By Artie Kamiya (artie@greatactivities.net)

Background: Even if you’re a novice or “seasoned” physical education teacher, you may enjoy learning about a few more teaching cues for catching and throwing! For example, the following three cues:



- “Watch” (track the ball)
- “Reach” (extend your hands towards the ball)
- “Give” (absorb the force of the ball by bringing it into your body)

can be used when teaching your students how to

catch. Or

- “Elbow high, watch it fly!”
- “Elbow low, it’ll go slow”

can prove to be useful for helping your students to remember to lead with their elbow when performing an overhand throw. In the same manner, the following instructional skill cues for catching and throwing can also be used.

Skill	Skill Elements/Teaching Cues
 <p>CATCHING</p>	<p>Description: Catching is a skill where the hands are used to control an object like a ball, Frisbee, or beanbag.</p> <p>Essential Elements: The student should remember –</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. ___ Body faces the incoming throw 2. ___ Knees bent, feet shoulder-width apart 3. ___ Thumbs face together for balls above the waist, thumbs face away for balls below the waist 4. ___ “Soft” hands reach for ball, absorb the impact, bring ball toward chest
 <p>THROWING</p>	<p>Description: Throwing is a skill where the hand(s) is used to propel an object like a ball, Frisbee, or beanbag.</p> <p>Essential Elements: The student should remember –</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. ___ Body sideways, non-throwing shoulder faces the target 2. ___ Elbow high 3. ___ Step in opposition 4. ___ Rotate hips with follow-through

Other Catching Cues: Here’s a few more catching cues for your consideration:

- “Eye on the ball” (Watch the ball)
- “Ball’s above the waist - say ‘hello’” (Fingertips up – thumbs in)
- “Ball’s below the waist – take it low” (Fingertips pointed down – thumbs out)
- “Don’t delay - Make the play” (to encourage students to throw the ball after catching it)

Other Throwing Cues: And a few more simple throwing rhymes and cues to consider:

- “The shoulder points,” (Side to intended target)
- “Swing your elbow high,” (Swing your elbow up and back)

- “Step and turn,” (Step with opposition and rotate your hips)
- “Watch it fly!” (Follow-through with throwing arm across body)

About the Author: Artie Kamiya is the author/editor of the *Teaching PE Power Standards Curriculum Guides* for Grades K-2, 3-5, 6-8, and High School. Please feel free to contact him at Artie@greatactivities.net to share your favorite instructional cues. He will be back with additional assessment tips in future issues of this publication!

Building Self-Confidence: Implementing a Psychological Skills Training Program

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Moving Into the Future

Abstract

Athletes participating in all levels of sport experience extraordinarily high levels of stress, expectations, and physical challenges. The basketball player must achieve a delicate balance between physical control and aggression. Psychological indices of successful performance such as concentration, confidence, anxiety management, self-esteem, and hardiness deteriorate as an athlete increasingly experiences psychological and physical stress. This optimal psychological state of arousal for basketball players can be recognized as a player's flow state. A practical guide for coaches to apply psychological skills training to develop player confidence is missing. This article and short review of literature will discuss confidence and the fundamental skills necessary to build confidence in practice and competition while offering suggestions to coaches for proper application of these concepts to the high school basketball player.

Key words: basketball, mental game, periodization

Introduction

When first taking the court with a beginning-level basketball team, it is important for a coach to focus on teaching the most basic of skills, such as dribbling the ball. After players have a reasonable understanding of that skill, the coach's pedagogical emphasis can progress to more advanced technical skills such as passing, shooting and playing defense. But, coaching basketball involves much more than helping a young athlete deliver crisp passes, make long range jump shots, and protect the ball from defenders. The position of "coach" provides an individual with a special opportunity to make a difference in many other areas of young athletes' lives and can be instrumental in developing player confidence. Basketball players are not only taught the basics of the game, but the coach's impact can extend far beyond how to set a screen or take a jump shot. The powerful words a coach delivers to an athlete may stick with a player for the rest of his or her life. The coach must be good at motivating the

athletes with the use of colorful inspiring language, giving the players the courage to overcome difficulties, and encouraging players to enhance self-confidence. But, confidence can be a difficult quality to bolster, in part because there are several psychological indicators of confidence in relation to physical performance, past and current experience, and other perceptions of one's abilities (Williams, 2010). Building maximum levels of self-confidence is critical to achieving optimal performance or what is commonly referred to as a state of flow.

Realizing an optimal arousal and focus state is a commodity for successful basketball players. The optimal state for a basketball player can be referred to as a "flow" state or being in the zone (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Whereas most basketball coaches are quite adept in training the necessary sport skills and physiological systems, many coaches lack a proper framework for addressing psychological components (Judge, Bell, Bellar, & Wanless, 2010). One of the challenges of coaching basketball is the necessity of balancing goals and objectives to constantly changing conditions. Performers and coaches both set goals, yet these goals are often solely outcome oriented rather than performance or process based. Examples of outcome goals are often indicative of beating an opponent or record. Although designed as a means of achieving peak performance, outcome goals can often cause anxiety for performers due to the high challenge and relatively uncontrollable nature of competition. On the contrary, performance and process goals are more effective because they are based on aspects within the performers' control (Judge, Bell, Bellar, & Wanless, 2010). Process goals allow athletes to more easily accept the challenge while avoiding being burdened by feelings of anxiety. Also, the acceptance of process goals can also deter boredom by offering effective challenges. An effective process goal could be to execute a certain skill three efforts in a row, or to complete a certain skill by the end of the week. Process goals should encompass every facet of training

including physical and mental goals, and practice and weight training goals (Judge, Bell, Bellar, & Wanless, 2010). It is important to reinforce the previous examples of process goals, awareness of optimal arousal levels, providing situations for feedback, and establishing pre-performance routines. Research has labeled this effective merging of challenge and skill as intrinsic motivation. Intrinsically motivated athletes strive to master the task at hand, seek challenges, enjoy competition, and focus on the fun of the sport (Weinberg & Gould, 2006).

Self-confidence is a very important aspect of everyday life, yet so many individuals struggle to develop it (Manktelow & Carlson, 2011). Self-confidence can be defined as “the feeling of self-worth that determines how valuable and competent we feel” (*Building Self-Esteem through Sport*, 2011). There is a consistent correlation between an individual’s self-confidence and the success they achieve in life and in sports. A self-confident athlete will approach different situations involving themselves and their sport performance in a different way than someone who lacks confidence. Athletes with high assurance in their capabilities (confidence); approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided (Bandura, 1977). Further, an athlete who has a positive self-esteem will be much more equipped to cope with wins and losses in sports and in life. An athlete who has a positive self-esteem believes in their abilities and never gives up.

Determining and allocating coaching time, energy and personnel to meet variable, unpredictable demands continues to severely challenge a coaches’ ingenuity. Confidence is important to successful performance as well as the athlete’s personal growth (Williams, 2010: p. 306). Coaches play a very critical role in enhancing their athlete’s self-confidence and self-esteem. A positive, respectful coach, who keeps the sport in perspective, is a key component to creating a positive sports environment for athletes (*Building Self-Esteem Through Sport*, 2011). It is also important to realize that coaches need to have a well-designed psychological skills training program (PST) in place. This program will help the athletes’ self-confidence to continue to grow as well as improve their performance by learning to control their thoughts and cognitions effectively (Williams, 2010: p. 362). Recognition of the need for a theoretical framework reflecting the periodization of psychological skills is easily accepted intellectually – however, the practicalities of putting this framework together for basketball coaches have not yet been fully realized (Judge, Bell, Bellar, & Wanless, 2010). Thus, coaches and sport psychology consultants must work together to properly implement mental periodization plans. It is important to not introduce all mental skills at once. Instead, it would be more beneficial to introduce the mental skills in stages along with the periodized training plan (Judge, Bell, Bellar, & Wanless, 2010). The purpose of this article and short review of literature is to discuss confidence and the fundamental skills necessary to develop elevated confidence in practice and competition while

offering suggestions to coaches for proper application of these concepts to high school basketball players.

The Problem: Lack of Self Confidence

Lack of self-confidence has been a rather serious issue with many girls’ basketball programs over the past several years. Athletes who doubt their capabilities often shy away from difficult tasks which they view as personal threats. This self-doubt contributes to low aspirations and weak commitments to the goals they choose to pursue (Bandura, 1977). Low individual self-confidence is a common phenomenon; entire teams have also suffered from low self-confidence for quite some time as well. When these teams are faced with difficult tasks, they dwell on their personal deficiencies, on the hurdles they must overcome, and on various adverse outcomes rather than concentrating on how to achieve a successful performance (the process) (Bandura, 1977). One of the contributing factors to overall low self-confidence for many teams has been the inability to have a successful season (ie. win and loss record or winning a major championship). For example, although over the past several years the number of wins has exceeded their losses, teams still tend to buckle under pressure and self-destruct when it comes to the big games such as conference and sectional games. An important goal for a coaching staff is to try and implement strategies to improve the self-confidence and self-worth of the athletes and the team. The implementation of a psychological skills training program (PST) would greatly benefit most teams and would hopefully lead to overall improved self-confidence levels helping athletes to achieve the success they have worked so hard to achieve.

Building Self-Confidence

Athletes’ subjective states and experience are often neglected by coaches due to an emphasis on performance and competitive outcomes. Self-confidence falls under the category of “Foundational Skills.” Foundational skills are the most basic skills that represent qualities that are simplistic in nature, but these necessary psychological skills underpin the basis of the PST program. Foundational skills include achievement drive, self-awareness, productive thinking, and self-confidence. The foundation must be stable or the whole building or in the case of basketball the team collapses. As mentioned previously, self-confidence is an essential component of sport performance, but also plays an important function in behaviors outside of sports and physical activity (Williams, 2010: p. 306).

Before initiating the PST program it would be necessary to first identify the following: factors contributing to the low self-confidence, who will implement the PST program, when it will be implemented, what will the PST program entail, and how will the program be evaluated. Many factors contribute to low self-confidence of the team. One of the main factors for many teams is the inability to win the “big ones.” As an example, a female team has been more successful in the past several years than any other team in the school history, but when push comes to shove, they are unable to mentally pull it together before and during

big games and at sectional times. A couple of the members of the team are notorious for allowing certain situations (untimely foul, missed clutch free throw, turnovers) to shake their confidence. No matter how much the motivation the coach and fellow teammates give the athletes, they are not able to mentally recover. This is when prior experience with mental training exercises would help out tremendously.

Cognitive psychology theory (Beck, 1979, Ellis, 1973) has taught us the relationship between our thoughts, feelings, physical states, and behavior. Too often negative self-talk plagues an athlete's confidence making a situation even more difficult than it might otherwise appear. "Self-Talk" modification is one very effective way to correct thinking errors that hinder performance of an activity. Confident self-talk for athletic performance is characterized by the following:

According to Reardon (1992), positive self-talk includes a focus on process variables and technical aspects of training and competing, rather than product or outcome, winning or losing. A focus on the present moment time dimension (what can I, am I doing now to enhance performance) rather than being distracted by future worrying (will I get a personal best, what if...) or past failures (I should have...If only I had...). Composure and appropriate level of arousal, rather than tension, worried thoughts, and anxious over-arousal are important for success. Striving for that effortless state of mind instead of trying too hard is a coach's dream (Reardon, 1992).

"Self-Talk" modification is one very effective way to correct the thinking errors that hinder both performance and "flow" enjoyment in athletic endeavors (Reardon, 1992). If you are thinking about what you don't want, you vastly increase your chances of producing undesirable outcome or over-reacting (ie. becoming very tentative). This "negative imagery rehearsal" results because it is impossible to "not imagine" something without having a clear picture in mind of what you don't want (Reardon 1992).

Another type of positive reassurance can come in the form of mental rehearsal and imagery (Hanton & Jones, 1999; Orlick, 1990). Athletes will imagine going through their performance in the optimal way they would like it to go as vividly as they can. Through this imagination, they can draw on all senses: sound, sight, touch, taste, smell, and kinesthetic with an external focus (watching themselves from the audience) or internal focus (imagining as if they are actually performing). The effect of mental rehearsal appears to be that it provides a form of neuromuscular programming so that the performer is more likely to automatically behave in the preferred way during the actual performance (Roland, 1997).

Another contribution to routines includes the practice of allowing athletes to choose pre-competitive music. Research has indicated possible benefits of the use of music in a variety of capacities including within pre-competition routines to help regulate arousal and concentration (Karageorghis, & Lee, 2001). Music has also shown to

help athletes directly with reaching flow states (Pates, Karageorghis, Fryer, & Maynard, 2003). Results from Mesagano, Marchant, and Morris (2008) revealed that the inclusion of music helped facilitate performance in basketball free-throw shooting by decreasing public self-awareness and distracting thoughts (Mesagano, Marchant, & Morris, 2008). Within the availability of portable music, athletes can chose any type without distracting others. The implementation of a set "play-list" is an important aspect of building confidence and alleviating anxiety. In the sport of basketball, music can be utilized during the general warm-up in practice and before games and can be a valuable asset if utilized properly.

Implementing a Psychological Skills Training Program

There are many activities that could be included in the PST program to help enhance or improve the self-confidence of the athletes. There are a few prerequisites that should be discussed with the athletes prior to beginning any PST exercises. First, having them understand the interaction of the thoughts they have and how they affect their performance is a critical step. Athletes need to realize that confident thoughts translate into a confident performance. Encouraging honest self-awareness is another important factor. From the previous example, the female athletes need to dedicate themselves to being aware of what they tell themselves, when self-talk occurs, and what the results of the self-talk will be (Williams, 2010: p. 309). Athletes need to understand how they internally respond to events (both good and bad) that occur in their life or on the court. Finally, they should maintain a "consistently constructive thinking process." This will help them have a better chance of their participation in basketball resulting in feelings of optimism, and enthusiasm (Williams, 2010: p. 311).

The activities that will be included in PST program ideally will center on establishing pre-performance routines, imagery, learning to control and use positive self-talk, utilizing thought stoppage, and building affirmations. This type of mental rehearsal can be an effective way to build self-confidence, reduce anxiety and increase skill development. The PST activities and the appropriate training phase (ie. preparation, pre-competitive, competitive) to implement each activity are listed in Table 1.

Table 1:
Activities in a Psychological Skill Training Program

Activity	Training Phase
Establishing pre-performance routines	Preparation
Developing imagery utilizing highlight videos	Competitive
Learning to control and use positive self-talk	Preparation
Utilizing thought stoppage	Pre-Competitive
Building affirmations	Pre-Competitive

Pre-performance routines are likely to enrich performance by removing distractions and aiding performers transfer thoughts from task-irrelevant to task-relevant cues (Bell, Finch, & Whitaker, 2010). The pre-shot routine can be found in several sports including golf, basketball, tennis, and baseball (see Figure 1). The bulk of pre-performance

routine inquiry has examined behavioral consistencies that consist of specific movement patterns before and during the implementation of skills (e.g., dribbling a basketball, golf practice swings, etc.) (Czech, Ploszay, & Burke, 2004). The most common application of the pre-performance routine is the free throw shot in basketball (i.e. bouncing the ball a certain number of times, taking a deep breath and using a specific and consistent technique as they shoot) (Bell, Finch, & Whitaker, 2010). For example, Czech, Ploszay, and Burke (2004) studied the behavioral consistency of pre-shot routines in basketball free throw shooting. According to Czech et al., 2004, results were not significant between the routine or non-routine group; however, the investigators reported a six percent increase in the free-throw percentage as the behavioral regularity of the pre-performance routine improved. The pre-shot routine ideally helps the basketball players' performance because it keeps their shooting mechanics consistent. The purpose of a pre-performance routine is to put oneself in an optimally aroused, confident, and focused state immediately before as well as during execution (Weinberg & Gould, 2006). By blocking out negative thoughts and external distractions and developing personalized and meaningful self-regulatory techniques, performers should be able to direct their emotions, thoughts, and movements in a way that creates ideal inner harmony (Weinberg & Gould, 2006). Therefore, usage of a consistent pre-shot routine should make basketball players feel comfortable with obstacles or hazards that would allow them to block out negative thoughts and external distraction as they go through an organized pre-shot routine (Czech, Ploszay, & Burke, 2004). The goal is for every player on the team to have developed their own tailor-made process for bringing their physical, cognitive and psychological preparation to fruition on to the basketball court. The pre-performance routine can be captured electronically and be included as part of a player's individual highlight video which will be discussed in the next section.



Figure 1: The free throw shot in basketball can benefit from the use of a pre-performance routine.

Today, it is hard to imagine life without computers or mobile electronic devices that have become so commonplace over the last few decades with the proliferation

of multimedia technology. Access to electronic information and communication technology is widely available and can be a vital part of the PST program. One avenue to enhance the imagery sessions is to create a highlight video of successful past play. A quality highlight video can be assembled without expensive equipment and easily transferred to an athlete's mobile device. This imagery tool can serve as compilations of specific skills, competition, and personal bests and can include music of the athletes' choice. Templin and Vernacchia (1995) created highlight films of specific basketball players' performances and set the videos to inspirational music (Templin & Vernacchia, 1995). Players watched themselves throughout the season and although causal relationships were not established, performance increased for most players involved in the study. The video is played often enough to provide the athlete an avenue to visualize their own success before and during games when video is not readily available. After the athlete has become proficient with imagery, coaches can later implement a series of "what if" scenarios: unplanned game situations that may include unforeseen obstacles. Athletes should be taught to use imagery to help cope with late starts, poor conditions, tough opponents, unfair officiating, and minor mishaps so they are prepared for the "uncontrollables" during the games. Weekly imagery sessions where the girls will be able to go back and remember how they reacted to a situation are helpful. Let the players have ownership in the process by encouraging them to talk through the proper way the situation should have been handled. Keeping a journal where athletes can record situations or circumstances paired with thoughts and feelings is another avenue to continue to build confidence.

Lastly, an athlete's self-talk during this phase is also important for the process of building confidence. Self-talk involves all the internal dialogues that a person has with themselves. It includes the instructions, reinforcements, or the interpretation of feelings that are ongoing in his mind. It can be a great asset when it comes to enhancing your self-confidence and performance (Williams, 2010: p. 311). Negative self-talk can be destructive and lead to lower self-esteem and depression. In the former female team example, a team goal was to have planned self-talk sessions teaching athletes how to utilize self-talk to control their moods and attention, and use it as a form of "self-instruction" working on changing bad habits they have developed (Williams, 2010: p. 314).

Effectively monitoring self-talk requires a focus on the positive aspects of performance, which in turn reaffirms positive self-talk (Reardon, 1995). Developing statements that remain positive and focused on the task at hand are important for reinforcing positive self-talk. As Gill (2000) points out, one strategy encourages athletes to develop pre-planned statements to help produce positive thoughts and images (Gill, 2000). Athletes can develop and experiment with various statements in practice such as "I am mentally tough", "It's no big deal", and/or "stay relaxed." Self-instructions or instructional self-talk, can likewise be used during practice sessions to build a technical habit or

immediately before a performance to serve as a technical cue (Feltz & Landers, 1983).

Thought stoppage goes hand and hand with self-talk. It is one method used to help control the negative thoughts and feelings that typically follow a bad individual performance or game. The goal of thought stoppage is to first identify the unwanted thought and it uses a trigger (the word "stop" perhaps, or a physical action, such as slapping the floor) to interrupt this unwanted thought. This will then teach the athletes how to recognize these negative thoughts. In order for thought stoppage to work, however, athletes must be willing and motivated to stop them (Williams, 2010: p. 318). This will probably take some time, as it is not always easy in the heat of a game to just turn off the negative thoughts that arise. Issues such as bad officiating, poor sportsmanship by the other team, or a poor performance can often trigger these types of thoughts. It is important for the coaching staff to encourage athletes to let go of these issues that are out of their control and focus on what they can do to change the outcome of the game or situation.

Affirmations are "statements that reflect positive attitudes or thoughts about "one-self." Coaches should encourage athletes to develop affirmation statements that will mirror positive thoughts or attitudes about themselves. In their journals, athletes should be asked to create a "self-esteem list" which will include all of their attributes, strengths, and positive qualities. They should also create a "success list" that will be comprised of the success they have achieved thus far in their sport. The goal of these two lists is to use the athlete's own personal history (attributes and successes) to help them to relive or revisit previous successful experiences. They will then hopefully realize how capable they are and how deserving they are of achieving success (Williams, 2010: p. 327).

At the high school level, the resources or funds to hire an AASP certified sports psychologist are not available. So the implementation of the PST program would be in the hands of the head coach and staff. The staff would begin the PST program during the off-season (transition phase), pre-season (pre-competitive), and continue on a slightly smaller scale during the competitive season (Judge, Bell, Bellar, & Wanless, 2010). It is common for many athletes to participate in spring sports, but the hope is that the athletes would continue to practice these exercises throughout the post-season and maybe even apply them to their other sports.

Evaluation is necessary for the success of the PST program. The PST program should be evaluated several times throughout the season the first year it is implemented and then on a yearly basis in the subsequent years. The evaluation process will provide the coaching staff with the information needed to assess the effectiveness of the different parts of the PST program. It will also give the coaches the necessary feedback regarding areas that maybe were not covered or provide suggestions for areas that need to change. Finally, the evaluation will help the staff determine if they achieved the goals set for the program

(Williams, 2010: p. 377). Each of the athletes would be asked to anonymously fill out a program evaluation form at the end of the season. The form would include areas such as their assessment of the value of the program, whether they found the activities beneficial, whether they practiced the skills learned, and suggestions for change. The staff, throughout the season will perform an ongoing assessment to look for signs of improvement in the overall self-confidence of the girls and team.

Positive self-talk and positive images are the hallmarks of confident athletes. Positive self-confidence is a vital element of success not only in sport, but also in life. A substantial amount of time is spent in an internal conversation with ourselves, and what we are thinking directly affects our feelings and behaviors (Bandura, 1977). Negative thoughts will lead to a poor performance and attitude most often resulting in a lower perceived self-confidence. A confident athlete is a successful athlete. A well-prepared confident athlete does not occur by accident. It is a result of developing certain thinking habits and practicing positive self-talk and utilizing a variety of psychological skills (Williams, 2010: p. 306). An affective PST program will help not only each individual athlete develop a stronger and higher self-worth, but will also improve the overall self-confidence of the team.

Conclusion

All coaches strive for the ability to have their athletes perform in an uninhibited, relaxed, skillful manner. Various personalities, team chemistries, motivations, and attitudes coalesce to create a series of variables to juggle. With the session plan in hand, the coach steps out on to the court and begins practice. Implementing and successfully executing the plan may very well be the biggest challenge. It does not matter what is on paper if the coach cannot relate to the athletes. Understanding each individual athlete and knowing what motivates him or her is the crucial stride to building confidence and a subsequent great performance. Inadequate mental preparation can easily overcome and undermine an excellent physical technical preparation. Flow, or as many experts in the field term as "being in the zone," is the goal of athletes and coaches alike (Reardon, 1992). Introducing a plan to train the psychological skills along with the physical skills throughout the year will take the guessing game out of performing to the best of an athlete's ability when it counts in big games. Although this paper has focused specifically upon building confidence for high school girls' basketball, the basic psychological concepts and practices noted have application to numerous other sports. Other sports can benefit from development of a psychological training plan that is sequenced and unfolds in harmony with the physical training plan.

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“Best Practices in Physical Education”

By Artie Kamiya (artie@greatactivities.net)

Background: As more and more schools and school districts begin to establish K-12 physical education programs that reflect best practices for grading and student assessment, a wide variety of positive strides have been taking place. These typically include the following four items:

1. Establishing grade level outcomes (or “benchmarks”) for physical education aligned to State PE Standards,
2. Implementing on-going formative assessments aligned to these grade level outcomes,

3. Using “PE Progress Reports” to share with parents and school administrators, and
4. Grading student progress on grade level outcomes and moving away from traditional methods of grading students (i.e., “dressing out,” participation, etc.).

Example: Seen below is a sample PE Progress Report that incorporates all four “best practices.” This sample “PE Progress Report” format is currently being used by numerous school districts across the United States.

4th Grade Physical Education Progress Report

Student Info	School Info	Grade	Rubric	Point Conversion
Student: Shay Williams Grade: 4th Grade Year: 2011-2012 Period: 5th PE Teacher: John Bentley	Southview Elementary 61 Broadway Blvd Jacksonville, FL Phone: (828) 723-1234 Fax: (828) 723-2345	A = 93-100 B = 86-92 C = 78-85 D = 70-77 F = 0-69	4 = Exceeds 3 = Consistently 2 = Sometimes 1 = Seldom 0 = Rarely	4 = 10 Points 3 = 9 Points 2 = 8 Points 1 = 7 Points 0 = 6 Points

Physical Education Grade Level Standards	1st Q	2nd Q	3rd Q	4th Q
(4.1) Demonstrates changes in speed with different pathways, levels, and directions in game-like settings (e.g., catching a football pass on the run).	3	3	3	3
(4.2) Performs a series of basic square dance steps.	3	3	3	3
(4.3) Demonstrates how to throw to a stationary partner, while moving, at varying distances.	2	3	3	3
(4.4) Demonstrates how to combine manipulative skills (i.e., catching, dribbling, and passing to an open player) with partners and in drills.	2	3	3	3
(4.5) Demonstrates the five manipulative skills showing all elements with partners, drills, and lead-up games.		2	3	3
(4.6) Understands all five health related fitness assessments and the associated exercises that develop muscular strength, endurance, and flexibility in a variety of muscle groups.		3	3	3
(4.7) Participates in numerous bouts of MVPA for >20 minutes during and outside of school and understands the accumulative effect of physical activity.		2	2	3
(4.8) Utilizes a simplified version of the Perceived Exertion Scale (PES) while participating in a variety of selected MVPAs.			2	3
(4.9) Demonstrates the concept of target heart rate and how to monitor it with and without technology.			3	3
(4.10) Understands all five obesity prevention health behaviors.			2	3
(4.11) Uses praise and other types of encouragement appropriately.	2	3	3	3
(4.12) Accepts responsibility for one’s own performance without blaming others.	2	2	3	4
Point Conversion for 4.1-4.10	36	61	87	90
Converted Percentage for 4.1-4.10	85%	87%	87%	90%
Sportsmanship Bonus Points (4.11 and 4.12)	5	5	6	7
Total Percentage Obtained	90%	92%	93%	97%
Grade Obtained	B	B	A	A

Closing: Interested in changing your school’s PE grading and assessment practices? If so, please consider attending the 2013 National PE Institute. The PE Institute will take place from July 29-August 2, 2013 in beautiful Asheville, North Carolina. For more information, please see the PE Institute website - <http://www.nationalpeinstitute.com>.

About the Author: Artie Kamiya is the author/ editor of the *Teaching PE Power Standards Curriculum Guides* for Grades K-2, 3-5, 6-8, and High School. Please feel free to contact him at Artie@greatactivities.net to share your favorite assessment tips. He will be back with additional assessment tips in future issues of this publication!

Is There a Relationship Between a Child's Physical Fitness and Academic Scores?

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Abstract

The purpose of this research proposal was to examine the relationship between academics and physical fitness levels. Participants' physical education FITNESSGRAM scores and their end of Course Assessment (ECA) scores from algebra were studied. As education budgets are being cut nationwide, physical education continues to be one of the first programs looked at to cut at many schools. The hypothesis was that there would be a positive relationship between ECA scores and FITNESSGRAM scores. Participants were male and female students ages 14-15 located in a rural town in northern Indiana who were enrolled in both physical education and algebra at the end of the 2010 school year. They participated in the six areas of the National FITNESSGRAM test while in physical education class. They also took ECA for algebra at the end of the year as mandated by the state of Indiana. Their scores were then gathered from the school and analyzed using SPSS software. Results of the correlation yielded a correlation coefficient of .206, indicating a significant but weak, positive relationship between the FITNESSGRAM and ECA scores.

Key Words/Phrases: ECA Zero Hour PE, FITNESSGRAM, Polar TriFIT, PACER

Introduction

Physical inactivity and obesity are staggering problems among youth of today. Children's activity levels are decreasing while their body fat percentages are increasing. What if there was a relationship between our children's physical fitness levels and their academic test scores? A positive relationship would demonstrate that physical fitness can improve both health and grades. This would also provide support for physical education programs to be kept in schools. Schools have long been rated on academic performance. This is determined by standardized test scores. Schools have tried many different approaches to raise test

scores. One of these ways is cutting elective classes such as physical education, art and music. With school budgets being cut nationwide, and a strong push for higher test scores, physical education is in danger of being cut from many schools. There are not a lot of arguments that schools should not look at ways to increase their test scores, but some argue that cutting physical education would be detrimental to students' test scores and health. This study examined both ECA and FITNESSGRAM scores to determine if there was a relationship between the two.

Statement of the Problem

As school budgets are being cut nationwide, physical education is being targeted as something that can be dropped from the curriculum. Schools are "graded" on students' scores on standardized tests in math and English and when it comes down to it; scores are what matter to the administration and parents. Since the time of the ancient Greeks, it has been believed that physical activity is linked to intellectual abilities (Tomprowski, Davis, Miller, & Naglieri, 2007). It has been noted that students are less active now than their counterparts 50 years ago (Baily, Armour, Kirk, Jess, Pickup, & Sandford, 2007). The National Action Plan for Comprehensive School Health states that a healthy child is a child who will learn better and that no academic program can make up for the deficiencies in a child's health (Symons, Cinelli, James, & Groff, 1998).

Recently, algebra scores have fallen so low at Northridge High School that it is now a Title I school. It just finished its first year of Title I and is trying to find ways to correct these low academic scores. At the same time, officials are looking at cutting physical education to save money and to give students more time in the classroom. This study will help provide administrators with information on the relationship between academic achievement scores and physical fitness scores.

Research Hypothesis

There is a direct correlation between FITNESSGRAM scores and End of Course Assessment (ECA) scores.

Review of Literature

There has already been an interest in studying the topic of academic ability and physical ability. Carlson, Fulton, Lee, Maynard, Brown and Kohl (2008) realized that physically inactive youth have an increased rate of obesity and chronic disease. The researchers also believe that there is a direct correlation between physical activity and academic achievement. For example, in their study the researchers found that there was a positive correlation between academic achievement and time spent in physical education, especially in girls. Fox, Barr-Anderson, Neumark-Sztainer, and Wall (2010) also thought that there was a connection between physical activity and academics. Fox and his researchers studied students and evaluated them based on their GPA and physical activity. They also found a positive correlation between the two.

The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between academics and physical fitness scores among high school freshmen. The relationship will be tested using the FITNESSGRAM and ECA Assessment Test. When looking for sources of information, the primary goal was to find sources that studied both physical fitness and academics in some form. The main source for the studies was Watson Library's journal database. While looking through the sources, many secondary sources led to primary sources.

Early Research

There has been a lot of research concerning physical activity and academics done in the last five years; however, there were few studies on these subjects conducted prior to 2005. From 1984 to 2005 there were only 14 articles published that looked at associations between academics and physical activity. Taras (2005) did a literary review of these sources and found that some did have a significant but weak correlation and others had no correlation at all.

The majority of early studies focused on sports performance/involvement and academics. Dexter (as cited in Taras, 2005) ran a study between sports knowledge, sports performance, and academics. The subjects were given a subjective grade by their physical education teachers on their abilities in sports and their knowledge of sports. The focus was placed on game sports, instead of athletics. The researcher then looked at academic achievement in math and English by taking the scores of students' graduation examinations. The subjects came from 17 different schools. A weak but positive correlation between sports performance and academic scores was found.

Fisher and Juszczak (1996) also looked at the relationship between sports and academics. The researchers gave anonymous surveys to 838 urban students in high school physical education classes. The survey asked about their academic performance and sports participation. No direct correlation was found (as cited in Taras, 2005).

The only significant relationship that was found between sports and academics was in a study done by Field and Sanders in 2001. The researchers gave a survey to 89 senior students on exercise habits (daily to rarely) and academic performance. The students were then separated into high and low exercise groups. Academic performance was determined by GPA. After running data on GPA, it was discovered that the students who were in the high exercise group had higher GPAs (as cited in Taras, 2005).

In 2005, five researchers decided it was time to look past athletic participation, and look to the level of athletic participation in regards to academic achievement (Miller, Merrill, Melnick, Barnes, Farrell, & Sabo, 2005). The researchers looked at the different dimensions of athletic involvement. More specifically, gender, race, the jock identity and athlete status were examined. Students were asked questions about sports participation to determine if they were an athlete or non-athlete. The athletes were then asked questions about their perception of themselves in sports and if they considered themselves an athlete or a jock (Miller et al., 2005).

The results showed several key differences in regards to gender and GPA. Female athletes scored a higher GPA than non-athletes. Female jocks had a significantly higher GPA than female athletes. Black male jocks had a significantly lower GPA than did the black athletes. The grades of the male jocks did not differ significantly from the grades of the male non-athletes (Miller et al., 2005). Researchers also noted that the main significance was depended on race, gender and athletic involvement.

Research Findings

In the past 30 years, there has been a lot of talk about whether there is a relationship between physical activity and academics. With school budgets being cut, many schools have looked at whether physical education is a necessary program to keep. In addition, focus has continued to be placed on how to keep high academic scores in our schools. Researchers have sought to find a link between physical fitness and academics in hopes to support health and academics both.

Prior to 2005, there were not many published studies on the relationship between physical activity and academics. However, in the last five years there have been many studies, some of which have focused on sports participation, physical education, and other basic physical activity. One such study was done by Roberts, Freed and McCarthy. It examined the relationship between aerobic fitness, obesity and standardized test scores in children. The majority of these studies evaluated academics with regard to standardized tests or GPA.

The majority of research evaluating physical fitness has used surveys as a way to collect data. Other studies used assessment tools such as the FITNESSGRAM to evaluate areas of physical fitness. Some of the researchers divided subjects into categories by race and others by gender. When divided based on gender, research showed a greater relationship between academics and physical activity in girls rather than in boys.

Overall, there has been conflicting research done on the subject of physical activity and academics. In the research using the FITNESSGRAM as a tool for physical fitness, research findings show a greater significance between physical fitness and academics compared to studies using self-reported physical activity data. In addition, recent studies have shown a more significant relationship between physical fitness and academics than studies in the past.

Research Differences

Many researchers have examined the relationship between physical fitness and academics. Some researchers have focused on physical education, while others have focused on physical activity and still others on sports participation. In regards to academics, most researchers have used standardized test scores or GPA.

As stated previously, research by Roberts, Freed and Macarthy, and many others have shown positive associations between some form of physical activity and academic scores. There has also been research that has not found any relationships. The majority of the research that has not found any correlation used self-reported surveys.

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between FITNESSGRAM physical fitness scores and End of Course Assessment scores for algebra I. The independent variable of this study was the students' scores obtained using the FITNESSGRAM. The dependent variable of this study was their grade on an assessment of knowledge test (ECA) in algebra I.

The FITNESSGRAM was used as a tool to measure physical fitness and its correlation to academic achievement. The FITNESSGRAM was utilized as a way to break down physical fitness tests into six categories for evaluation. It was used by Chomitz et al. (2009), with the MCAS, which tests mathematics and English. There was a significant relationship found. Indiana's End of Course Assessment Test also evaluates mathematics and English. For that reason, it would be interesting to see if similar results would be found by using the ECA as a variable. While there has already been similar research done, there have been many conflicting findings. Proposed is a test similar to Chomitz et al., for the purpose of adding to those findings that positively link physical fitness with regard to the FITNESSGRAM and academic achievement on standardized tests.

Research Design

A correlational research design was used in this study. "A correlational study is a scientific study in which a researcher investigates associations between variables," (Correlational Study, n.d., p.1). This study tested the hypothesis that FITNESSGRAM scores and ECA scores are positively related. It is important to note a weakness of correlational studies. When a positive correlation is reached, this does not mean that high FITNESSGRAM scores cause high ECA scores. A positive correlation means that the two are positively related to each other; it does not show that they directly influence each other. This relationship indicates that students with high FITNESSGRAM scores tend to have high ECA scores also (Gay et al., 2009).

Setting and Participants

The target population for this study was all freshmen students at Northridge High School. The assessable population was all freshman students at Northridge High School who were in physical education and algebra I for the 2009-2010 school year. The students were all ages 14 to 15 and included both males and females. There were 223 students total; the breakdown was 110 males and 113 females. The students' racial makeup was 92% White, non-Hispanic, 3% Asian, 2% Multiracial, 1% Black, 1% Hispanic. The students predominately came from middle to upper class families. Seventeen percent of the students were on the free or reduced lunch program. All of the data from students that were present for FITNESSGRAM tests and ECA testing were used for the study.

Instrumentation

The FITNESSGRAM was used by teachers at Northridge to assess students' fitness level. This was an appropriate instrument because it was a way to test a participant's level of fitness using six different tests. The six areas tested were: PACER, back saver sit and reach, body mass index, pull ups, trunk lift and push ups.

For the FITNESSGRAM assessment, each student who participated in all six tests was included in the study. Each test had an established standard for a student's "Healthy Fitness Zone". Each student received a score of zero on the test if they did not meet the Healthy Fitness Zone and a score of one if they did. There were six possible points. The FITNESSGRAM has been used in numerous studies. One of these studies compared the results of the FITNESSGRAM to MCAS standardized scores (Chomitz et al., 2009). Another study used FITNESSGRAM and studied its relationship to the CST Language and Reading scores of children (Roberts, Freed, & McCarthy, 2009).

The second instrument used in this study was the End of Course Assessment (ECA) in algebra I. Indiana adopted this test as their way to assess students' knowledge at the end of the algebra I class. They also have ECAs for Biology I and English 10. The test is administered online at school. It comprises two sessions, each 55 minutes in length. One session allows for the use of a calculator and the other session does not. The ECA includes all eight Indiana State Standards for algebra I.

The ECA is appropriate for this study because it appropriately assesses the knowledge of each student at the end of their algebra I class. Students across the state are required to take this exam, so it also makes the study relevant to other Indiana schools. In addition, the fact that all students are required to participate assures that participants in the study will all be taking the test.

There is not current research that shows the validity or reliability of this instrument. It is, however, used across the entire state. This instrument is used in Indiana as a way for advanced placement at the collegiate level and must be passed in order to meet the state graduation requirements. It aligns with all eight of the state standards and is designed to assess the learning that occurs in a given year.

Treatment of Data

The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 15.0 for Windows software. This program is appropriate because it allows the researcher to run a wide variety of statistical analyses. A Pearson product-moment correlation was ran on the FITNESSGRAM scores and ECA scores.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The sample population was $n=312$. The sample population consisted of Northridge High School freshmen students who were enrolled in physical education and algebra I for the 2009-2010 school year. The students were all ages 14 to 15 and were male and female. Of the sample, 223 (71%) of the students fully completed the FITNESSGRAM test and the algebra I ECA.

Of the 223 students, the breakdown was 110 males and 113 females. The students' racial composition was White, non-Hispanic (92%), Asian (3%), Multiracial (2%), Black (1%), Hispanic (1%). The students predominately came from middle to upper class families. Seventeen percent of the students were on the free or reduced lunch program.

Statistical Analysis

A one tailed Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between the ECA and FITNESSGRAM scores. The two variables were weakly correlated, $r(221)=.206$, $p<.01$. Therefore, the conclusion is that there is a significant, positive relationship between the two variables (see Table 1). Both FITNESSGRAM scores and ECA scores for research subjects are related. However, because a coefficient test was run, it cannot be said that one causes the other. It can be stated that there is a positive relationship between FITNESSGRAM scores and algebra I ECA scores for freshmen at Northridge High School.

Table 1

Correlations Between ECA and FITNESSGRAM Scores

		ECA	FITNESSGRAM
ECA	Pearson Correlation	1	.206(**)
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.001
	N	223	223
FITNESSGRAM	Pearson Correlation	.206(**)	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.001	
	N	223	223

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship between the variables of FITNESSGRAM scores and algebra I ECA scores existed in the freshmen population of students enrolled in algebra I and physical education at Northridge High School. This relationship is important because of the focus schools have been placing on test scores. School budgets are being cut nationwide, and physical education is often one of the first programs cut. This research helps to show schools that there is

a relationship between test scores and students' fitness scores. Physical education is a place where students get activity and learn to use their bodies. This research now shows that there is a relationship between this class and academics.

Current literature has also found positive relationships between academics and physical fitness. Unfortunately, there has not been a lot of research done using standardized tests and the FITNESSGRAM. In addition, the researcher was not able to find any published research on Indiana's standardized ECA and the FITNESSGRAM. Lack of previous research using both of these variables was one reason they were chosen. The findings show that there is a positive relationship between the two scores. The researcher believes that this could be because of many reasons. One of these reasons could be that the students who performed at higher levels in the fitness and academic test were students who cared about doing well and therefore tried hard at both. Another reason for the correlation could be the increased stimulation created to the brain from physical activity. Physical activity has also been shown to improve self-esteem and self confidence which could both be reasons for higher test scores.

It is important to note that the sample population at Northridge High School is rather homogeneous. Additionally, the researcher hoped to get results from 75% of the sample population. Only 71% of the population had full results. The researcher would like to know what the results would look like with a more diverse population, such as the entire county.



Implications for Future Research

Many researchers have sought to find a link between physical fitness and academics. This study was designed to test the relationship between the two. A positive relationship was found, this could help in the defense of keeping quality physical education programs in schools. Quality physical education programs not only help keep students active, but they also teach kids how to use their bodies and the importance of physical activity and wellness. While more research would need to be ran on more diverse populations, this research serves as a solid starting block.

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Students will gain valuable experience interacting with the professional community as they discuss the issues, trends, and impacts related to sport event management; finance, economics, and budgeting; marketing and promotions; sponsorship and sales; facility planning, design, and management; legal aspects and risk management; sport media and communications; broadcasting and journalism, policy development and governance; public relations, and tourism in amateur and professional settings.

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Please send electronic submissions to Dr. Kimberly J. Bodey at Kim.Bodey@indstate.edu. If you have questions, contact Dr. Bodey at 812-237-2186. **DEADLINE:** Friday, September 28, 2012 @ 11:59PM EST

The *Sport Management Scholarship Showcase* proposal should include the following:

1. Presentation title (10 words or less)
2. Speaker(s) contact information
 - Name(s)
 - Institution
 - Email address(es) – include for each author
 - Faculty Sponsor
3. Short description (≤ 50 words - printed in Showcase program)
4. Abstract (300-500 words - printed in upcoming IAHPERD Journal)
5. Primary content area (indicate one of the following): (a) event management; (b) finance, economics, and budgeting; (c) marketing and promotions; (d) sponsorship and sales; (e) facility planning, design, and management; (f) legal aspects and risk management; (g) sport media and communications; (h) broadcasting and journalism, (i) policy development and governance; (j) public relations, (k) tourism, and (l) other.
6. Category (indicate one of the following): (a) undergraduate – original research, (b) undergraduate – management applications, (c) graduate – original research, or (d) graduate – management applications
7. Format (indicate one of the following): (a) poster/slides – wall mounted, (b) poster/slides – (3 fold) table mounted, (c) model – table mounted, and (d) laptop computer - table mounted.

The ABC's of Collegiate Compliance in NCAA Athletics

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Note: This is an excerpt from Chapter 10, Compliance in Collegiate Athletics, in Sawyer & Judge 2012. *The Management of Fitness, Physical Activity, Recreation and Sport*, Sagamore Publishing. This excerpt is reprinted with the permission of Sagamore Publishing.

Abstract

Compliance is the act of conforming to or adhering to certain rules and regulations set forth by many organizations, companies, or associations. Compliance is necessary in order to maintain order, fairness, and in some cases safety. Over 1,000 higher education institutions across the United States belong to an association, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). The NCAA requires its members to adhere to rules established by the membership. A compliant atmosphere must be maintained, which is often achieved through the athletic compliance office or certain personnel designated on each campus. Specific duties of each institution's compliance department vary between institutions. However, each has the responsibility of assuring their coaches, staff, student-athletes, boosters, and university personnel abide by the rules and regulations of the NCAA as set forth in each division's manual.

The National Collegiate Athletic Association

Founded in 1906, the NCAA is a diverse, voluntary, unincorporated Association composed of four-year universities and colleges, conferences, affiliated associations, and other educational institutions from across the United States. It has grown to become the largest amateur organization in the United States related to the regulation of intercollegiate athletics.

History

The NCAA was originally established to address safety issues involved in the sport of football. Football started becoming a very dangerous game in the early 1900's as mass formations and gang tackling (now outlawed) caused a multitude of serious injuries and deaths.

President Theodore Roosevelt urged the creation of an association in charge of ensuring athletic safety in amateur sports. He called for two White House conferences: The first in early December, 1905, where representatives from thirteen colleges made changes to football rules. The second took place on December 28th, 1905, at which time sixty-two members founded the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States (IAAUS). Three months later, on March 31, 1906, the IAAUS constitution was ratified.

In 1910, the IAAUS renamed itself the NCAA. This association acted as a discussion group and rule-making body until 1921 when it held its first national championship. The first championship held was in men's outdoor track and field. The first NCAA Men's College Basketball Championship tournament (5,500 fans in attendance) was at Northwestern University's Patton Gymnasium in Evanston, Illinois in 1939. That year, Oregon beat the Ohio State Buckeyes 46 to 33 in the final game to win the national championship.

As the NCAA grew, issues such as television rights and post-season play interference with academics dominated collegiate play. An important reform to control these issues occurred in 1951. Walter Byers was named executive director of a newly founded national headquarters in Kansas City to deal with NCAA expansion issues. In 1973 the NCAA created three Divisions of membership: I, II, and III, as well as subdivisions. Some schools at the Division I level are either in the Football Bowl Subdivision (formerly 1A) or the Football Championship Subdivision (formerly I-AA), while others do not have football at all. Each Division has its own manuals consisting of operating bylaws. The NCAA sponsors a wide variety of individual and team sports for both men and women. Higher education institutions sponsor various sports based on their demographics and financial capabilities for example.

Prior to 1980 the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (A.I.A.W.) governed women's collegiate sports in the United States. The NCAA started to include women championships in 1980.

Invited Article: The ABC's of Collegiate Compliance in NCAA Athletics

By 1982 however, all divisions of the NCAA offered national championship events for women's athletics and most members of the AIAW joined the NCAA.

NCAA Division I

Division I (DI) member institutions must sponsor a minimum of fourteen sports, with a minimum of seven sports for men and seven for women (or six for men and eight for women) with two team sports for each gender. Both men's and women's playing seasons have to be represented. DI institutions must meet minimum financial aid awards for their athletics program. Maximum financial aid award limits may not be exceeded as well. Institutions have contest and participant minimums for each sport as well as various types of scheduling criteria. For sports other than football and basketball, DI schools must play 100 percent of the minimum number of contests against DI opponents. Anything over the minimum number of games has to be fifty percent at the Division I level. Currently, there are more than 300 NCAA Division I member institutions throughout the United States.

Football Championship Subdivision and Football Bowl Subdivision

Schools sponsoring football are classified as either Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) or Football Championship Subdivision (FCS). FBS schools usually have elaborate programs and large budgets. FBS teams must meet minimum attendance requirements (average 15,000 people in actual or paid attendance per home game) which must be met once in a rolling two-year period. FCS teams do not need to meet minimum attendance requirements.

NCAA Division II

Division II (DII) institutions must sponsor a minimum of five sports for men and five for women (or four for men and six for women). Two team sports for each gender and each playing season must be represented by each gender. Contest and participant minimums for each sport as well as scheduling criteria, similar to DI, exist as well.

DII football and men's and women's basketball teams must play at least fifty percent of their games against Division II or Football Bowl Subdivision or Football Championship Subdivision opponents. Attendance requirements for football and basketball do not exist. However, there are maximum financial aid awards for each sport that DII institutions must not exceed. These institutions' enrollments are generally more regionally-based and typically feature a number of local, regional and in-state student-athletes. The majority of student-athletes within this division pay for school through a combination of scholarship money, grants, student loans and employment earnings. DII athletics programs are typically financed within the institution's budget just as other academic departments are on campus. There are just over 300 NCAA Division II member institutions throughout the United States.

NCAA Division III

Division III (DIII) institutions must sponsor at least five sports for men and five for women, with two team sports for each gender, and each playing season represented by each gender. There are minimum contest and participant

minimums for each sport. Division III student-athletes do not receive athletic aid from the athletic department. The athletic department is funded just as any other department on campus is. There are more than 400 NCAA DIII member institutions throughout the United States.

Organizational Authority

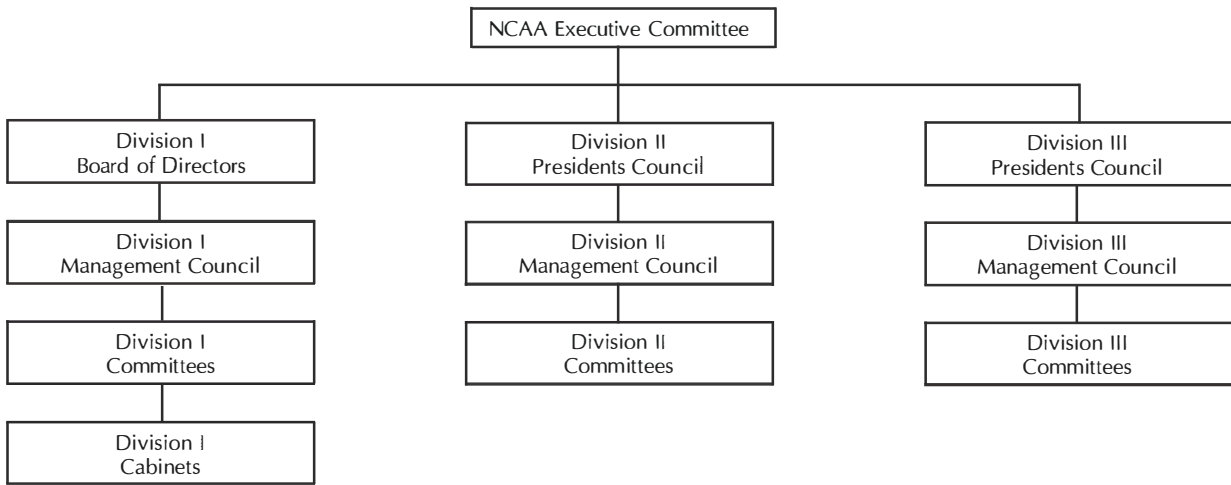
Each of the three divisions has their own organizational structure and authority; representatives from the separate governing bodies form the NCAA Executive Committee, the governing umbrella over all three divisions. Although the divisions maintain separate structure, the organization of each is similar. August 1, 1997 marked the beginning of this new division-specific structure, a four-level approach for Division I and three-level approach for Divisions II and III. A group of institutional Chief Executive Officers (CEO's), college presidents, manages all legislation in each division. This reform raised the influence and involvement of college presidents throughout intercollegiate athletics. The difference between divisions for this particular tier is only in name: Division I members define this group as the Board of Directors, while Division II and III members refer to it as the Presidents Council.

Each division's legislature covers a wide range of affairs; a committee developed to aid the decision-making process of the Board of Directors and Presidents Council. This group also provides information to the Board or Council as advisors. Each division calls this group the Management Council, but Division III athletics strayed from the other two divisions by allowing college presidents and student-athletes to serve on the council. The Management Council of each division receives information from lower committee reports covering specific division activities. DI and DII institutions only allow athletics administrators and faculty athletics representatives. The Faculty Athletics Representative (FAR) is a person at an NCAA institution that has been designated by each institution's president to serve as the liaison between the athletics department and the NCAA. They are representatives of the institution in conference and NCAA affairs. Duties of the FAR are determined by the institution. They must be faculty members in order to serve as this representative.

Cabinets and committees complete the four tier structure for Division I athletics. Cabinets are in charge of one specific area such as eligibility or academics. Committees report to the Cabinets. Committees may have jurisdiction over one particular sport or rules within each specific area. For Divisions II and III, committees exist to report to Management Councils and investigate specific areas. The Board of Directors and Presidents Councils are not the only individuals who may officially vote on policy. Direct representation from the member institutions has a vote as well. Division I legislation allows one vote to each conference, not just each institution, while Divisions II and III still allow one representative from each institution to vote. See Table 1 for an example.

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Table 1: NCAA Organizational Structure



Conferences

The three Divisions of the NCAA have associations and conferences that belong to each. Conferences are a group of institutions that share an active membership with the NCAA to compete in national championships and a conference membership to compete in conference championships. Member conferences must have a minimum of six member institutions (to be recognized as a voting member conference of the NCAA). Reasons for institutions to join a conference include: revenue sharing or financial capabilities, television contracts, corporate sponsorship, regional and geographic affiliations, and scheduling advantages. Each Division has their own conference affiliations.

The Compliance Office

Each NCAA member institution has a compliance office or designee on campus responsible for assuring compliance with NCAA, conference and institutional rules and regulations. Typical positions within a compliance office may be: Associate Athletic Director for Compliance or Assistant Athletic Director for Compliance, Compliance Coordinator, and Compliance Assistant. Some departments have graduate assistants and internship positions available. Larger institutions typically have 5 - 15 staff members; whereas, smaller institutions have between 1-5 staff members. The structure and duties of the office may be divided by sport or by bylaw (e.g., eligibility, financial aid, etc.). Each office is operated differently. Leaders of the department are required to have at least a bachelor's

degree and some a master's degree; however, a law degree is preferred. Three to five years of working experience in compliance is also required for such leadership positions.

Job Descriptions

Each institution's president is responsible for maintaining "institutional control" of its intercollegiate athletic department. The compliance office is charged with the daily task of ensuring that institutional control is maintained. It is the compliance office's responsibility to implement policies, procedures and educational efforts to maintain compliance with all NCAA, conference and institutional rules and regulations. A system of checks and balances between various departments on the institution's campus, as well as periodic external and internal audits are part of the responsibility of the compliance office. Compliance offices, by their very nature, work and collaborate with various areas on campus. See Figure 1 below for an example. Major areas of focus include, but are not limited to, the following:

- Amateurism
- Eligibility
- Extra Benefits
- Financial Aid
- Recruiting

The NCAA Division I Manual has more than 300 pages; therefore, compliance offices spend the majority of their time monitoring and educating to prevent rules violations from occurring. Compliance offices strive to be pro-active versus re-active.

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**Figure 1:
Departments Compliance Offices Work With**



An infraction is a violation of the rules. Infractions in the areas mentioned above occur when coaches, student-athletes, prospective student-athletes, and boosters break the rules. Lack of institutional control and failure to monitor are two serious issues that occur when institutions do not have systems in place. The rules and regulations were created to maintain an even playing field for everyone. When rules violations do occur, athletic programs and institutions can face harsh penalties depending on the violation. Penalties include, but are not limited to, the following:

- A prospective student-athlete or student-athlete may lose their eligibility for a period of time or indefinitely
- Decrease in total number of recruiting opportunities for coaching staff
- Financial penalties
- Loss of scholarships
- Loss of victories
- Probation

Daily and Weekly Activities

The compliance office has three primary functions on a routine basis: Monitoring, enforcing, and educating. Compliance is responsible for monitoring and ensuring that all coaches, staff, student-athletes, boosters and institutional employees abide by all applicable rules and regulations. Monitoring may be conducted in a variety of ways. One method employed is the use of paper forms. For example, some institutions post compliance forms on their athletic website and refer coaches to the site in order to retrieve the correct form. Most compliance offices are “form-driven.” If there is a rule, there is usually a corresponding form that must be filled out. Enforcement is another primary responsibility of a compliance office. Enforcement of rules and regulations is done a daily basis. See Figure 2 below for

an example. Upon discovery of a possible infraction, the compliance staff inquires of the specifics to determine what type of violation has occurred, if any, and the severity of it. If a violation has occurred, it must be documented properly and sent to the conference office of which the institution is a member and/or to the NCAA directly, depending on the nature and severity level of the infraction.

Compliance offices spend a large amount of time monitoring the academic eligibility of both prospective student-athletes and currently enrolled student-athletes. The NCAA has high expectations of student-athletes and it is their responsibility to maintain certain academic standards.

Prospective student-athletes wishing to compete at a Division I or II institution must register with the NCAA Eligibility Center (formerly known as the Clearinghouse). This is a process by which students register with their demographic information, high school information, sport information, SAT/ACT test scores, as well as answering amateurism questions. Students must meet the NCAA Eligibility Center’s academic requirements in order to be deemed a “qualifier.” A qualifier is a PSA who meets all NCAA initial eligibility requirements and may practice, compete, and receive athletic aid starting their first year in school; whereas, a “non-qualifier” cannot and must serve one year in residence at the institution he/she attends.

To be deemed a qualifier, a high school student must meet the following requirements: Successfully pass the following courses which are approved by the NCAA Eligibility Center: four units of English, three units of math, two units of social science, two units of natural/physical science, one additional math/English/natural-physical science, and four additional units of any courses approved (typically a foreign language). The student must also take either the ACT or SAT test. The Eligibility Center uses the best scores, from each time the test is taken, from each category (verbal and reading for example) to compile a score. Then, a sliding scale is used to determine what test score or core course GPA must be attained in order to be deemed a qualifier. See Appendix Y for an example sliding scale. The scale is subject to change due to new legislation being passed.

Continuing Eligibility

Institutions in all divisions must determine and certify the academic eligibility of each student-athlete who represents the school on the field of play. Institutions are responsible for withholding academically ineligible student-athletes from competition. First and foremost, SA’s must be enrolled full-time (12 hours for undergraduate or 9 hours graduate) in order to practice, compete or receive athletic aid.

Division I student-athletes are given five years to graduate while receiving athletically related financial aid. DI student-athletes must complete 40 percent of their degree coursework by the end of their eighth full time semester. They must complete 60 percent by the end of their third year and 80 percent by the end of their fourth year. All DI student-athletes must earn at least six credit

hours each term to be eligible for the following term and must meet minimum grade-point average requirements related to the institution's own grade point average (GPA) standards for graduation. Football student-athletes must pass 9 hours in the fall in order to be eligible to play in the first four games in the next fall. Those 9 hours must be degree applicable if he is in his fifth full-time semester or after. Lastly, each SA must earn 18 hours of credit each academic year in order to be eligible the following fall semester. There are a variety of exceptions, exemptions and caveats, too numerous to explain here, that may also apply in certain situations as well.

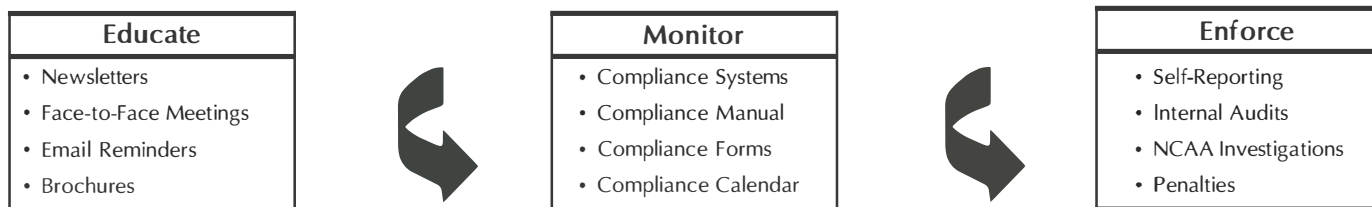
Student-athletes who are declared academically ineligible must either regain eligibility themselves by remedying their deficiency (e.g., GPA, degree credit hours, etc.) or obtain a waiver from the NCAA through a legislative relief process before they are allowed to compete. This would include waivers based upon mitigating circumstances outside of the student athlete's control that impeded the student athlete's ability to perform well academically and thus causing an eligibility deficiency.

Division II student-athletes must complete 24 hours of degree credit each academic year to remain eligible

for competition. At least 18 of those hours must be earned between the start of fall classes and spring commencement at a student-athlete's institution (six hours may be earned in the summer). All DII student-athletes also must earn at least six credit hours each full-time term to be eligible for the following term. In addition, Division II student-athletes must earn a 1.8 cumulative grade-point average after earning 24 hours, a 1.9 cumulative grade-point average after earning 48 hours, and a 2.0 cumulative grade-point average after earning 72 hours to remain eligible. Student-athletes are given 10 semesters of full-time enrollment in which to use their four seasons of competition, provided they maintain academic eligibility. Student-athletes must complete their four seasons of competition within the first 10 semesters or 15 quarters of full-time enrollment.

While there are no minimum national standards for establishing or maintaining eligibility in Division III, student-athletes must be in good academic standing and make satisfactory progress toward a degree as determined by the institution. DIII student-athletes must be enrolled in at least 12 semester or quarter hours, regardless of an institution's own definition of "full time."

Figure 2: Daily Activities of Compliance Staff



Salary Ranges

The salary ranges for compliance staff varies from one institution to another. Typically larger institutions that have more sports have more staff and money to pay their staff. Benefits a compliance officer may receive include but are not limited to the following: healthcare, dental, and a courtesy vehicle, for example. Here is an example list of positions and salaries.

- Associate/Assistant Athletic Director for Compliance: \$36,000 - \$98,000
- Compliance Coordinator: \$24,000 - \$39,000
- Compliance Assistant: \$24,000 - \$30,000
- Compliance Graduate Assistant: \$400 - \$800/month
- Compliance Intern: typically unpaid and done for experience or practicum hours

The NCAA is the largest and oldest association managing intercollegiate sports. The NCAA is an organization comprised of about 350 employees. It is responsible for holding 89 national championships in 23 sports (all sports except FBS football). More than 400,000 student-athletes compete in DI, DII, and DIII at over 1,000 colleges and universities in the NCAA. Each year, more than 49,000 student-athletes compete in NCAA Championships in all three division's sports. It is the responsibility of the compliance office to ensure a compliant environment. Systems are in place to help prevent violations from

occurring. Educational efforts are made to be proactive. Although the compliance office makes all attempts to ensure compliance is maintained, violations still occur.

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Large Classes – Little Motivation: An Activity Block Solution

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Large Classes- Little Motivation: An Activity Block Solution

Large classes and little motivation...sound familiar? Unfortunately those terms describe many of the physical education classes around the state, particularly those at the secondary level. Decreasing your class size is beyond the ability of this article, but we can share one idea that helped change the motivation level of students at one middle school. The solution is using Activity Blocks to allow students to work on their own or in pairs to achieve the daily learning task/objectives.

First, we need to better understand why students might have low motivation levels. We have already identified one problem...large classes. Traditional skill development and game formations mean students are either waiting in line or on public display both of which are big de-motivators. Second, it is developmentally appropriate for adolescents to need and want choice as they are exploring and building the adult version of themselves. Large classes and traditional teaching methods, however, often lead teachers to provide class structures where

students have few choices. We know secondary students do not always make good choices but that is an even better reason to consider a teaching method that provides for student choice within very clear, teacher established boundaries. Let students be empowered by and learn from making choices while you are there to provide guidance. Motivation also comes from a feeling of competence and Activity Blocks allow students to identify areas of success and also areas in which they need work. Finally, secondary students are motivated by peers and social interaction yet we often spend most of our class time trying to make students be quiet and not interact with friends. Activity Blocks provide a way to structure that student social need and use it to motivate students to complete tasks together.

So how do Activity Blocks work? For ease of discussion we will use 3x3 blocks as our examples although in actual practice we sometimes use much larger blocks. The number of blocks and specific tasks are dependent on program goals, student ability, equipment, space, and class size. Figure 1 is an example of an Activity Block focused on skill.

Figure 1: Basketball Skill

1. For 30 seconds, from the lay up cone, complete as many right hand lay-ups as you can & record.	2. Using the BEEF method (balance, eyes, elbow, follow through) shoot & record the # of free throws you can make out of 10.	3. Take 5 pull-up bank shots from left side of goal & record # made:
4. Shooting from the 3 point range (3 spots), record how many 3 pointers you make at each spot out of 3 attempts:	5. See who can do the most figure 8 dribbles with no errors	6. With your partner (or to the wall) see how many chest passes you can complete in 45 seconds & record.
7. Complete lane slides for 45 seconds in the defensive slide position. Who can do the most?	8. With your partner (in the indicated space) play 3 sets of 30 seconds of dribble tag. (trying to knock the dribble away from partner while keeping yours) Record the winner's name:	9. Using a cross over dribble, weave through the cones- dribbling down & back – 5 times

Each of the squares corresponds to a clearly marked activity area where the challenge should occur. We sometimes set these up as stations around the exterior of the gym and at other times use a numbering system on the cells that corresponds to a numbered cone in the gym. For example, #5 above directs students to station #5 where a small space

off the center court is used for the ball handling challenge. Notice the variety of challenges offered to students. Some are personal challenges [e.g., How many 3 pointers can you make?], others are partner challenges [e.g., Who can do the most figure 8 dribbles?] while others are cooperative challenges [e.g., How many passes can you and

your partner complete in 45 seconds?]. The variety of skills and challenges combined with movement around the gym allows students to make choices and keep moving all within the very clear boundaries established by the teacher for what should be happening in class.

This activity block allows students to move at their own pace (within reason!) while staying on task with the learning target and objectives. The challenges and Activity Block can also be turned into an overall game to increase student motivation as Figure 2 shows. In Tic-Tac-To(ne) students are required to complete physical fitness challenges to earn an opportunity to mark off a block on their scorecard.

FIGURE 2: Tic-Tac-To(ne)

Who can...

Do the most jump ropes in 30 seconds?	Do the most consecutive push-ups in 30 seconds	Hold the super man position the longest
Balance longest in the tree pose?	Arm wrestle	Can do the most pullups or flexed arm hang the longest?
Most side-to-side ski jumps in 30 seconds?	Wall sit the longest?	Most curl ups with correct form?

Once a student gets a tic tac to(ne), they may go for "most wins", or you could have a second tic tac to(ne) card made with different activities that they could then complete. In this particular example student pairs stay

together for the whole game. At the start of this game we encourage students to choose wisely and select a partner that can challenge them physically. Other times we want more student interaction and require students to change partners for every challenge or at least 3 times in a lesson.










Another way to use the Activity Blocks to enhance student learning is to mix physical and cognitive challenges. Figure 3 gives an example of an Activity Block that offers different types of challenges and promotes academic literacy. Sticking with our basketball example from earlier, we have mixed basketball rules and strategies with skills.

Figure 3: Basketball Skills and Rules

How long can you dribble two basketballs at the same time?	Play your partner in a game of "I-T". (rock paper scissors to see who starts) Record who wins.	Perform the official signal for travelling and double dribble.
Chest pass to partner from end line to free throw line. Then "CLOSE OUT" on your partner.	Explain to your partner the difference between zone & man to man defense.	Do the Mikan drill for 10 seconds. Go again and try to beat your score.
What is an offensive charge and who signal will the official make if it happens?	Dribble down and back. Perform a jump stop and triple threat position at the half court line.	Free throw challenge...can you or your partner make the most out of 5?

If working with younger children or students with language readiness challenges, a visual form of the Activity Block is a great instructional tool as figure 4 demonstrates.

Figure 4: Visual Activity Block

 Soccer Station	 Volleyball Station	 Hitting off the Tee Station
 Striking station	 Basketball Station	 Football Toss
 Gymnastics station	 Floor hockey station	 Speed stack station

In addition to providing a motivating structure for classes, Activity Blocks provide a good opportunity for assessment. We often use a self or peer assessment as part of our Activity Block lessons. For example, after completing the basketball Activity Block (Figure 1), students could be asked to complete the following assessment on NASPE Standard #5 (Exhibits responsible personal and social behavior that respects self and others in physical activity settings.):

Basketball Assessment

Give your partner a grade related to their fair play. Were they kind when winning or losing? Did they play by the rules? Write one sentence with a compliment, and one with a suggestion for improvement.

Partner name: _____ Grade (5): _____

Compliment: _____

Suggestion: _____

In Figure 2, Tic-Tac-To(ne), the focus is on fitness which was selected to meet NASPE Standard #4

(Achieves and maintains a health-enhancing level of physical fitness). We might ask our students the following questions:

Today we worked on a national learning standard, fitness. If you were evaluating yourself as "Exceeding standard, meeting standard, or not meeting standard" on each component what would you say you were? Give 3 examples of evidence of the grade you earned.

1. Strength
2. Flexibility and Balance
3. Cardiovascular

The assessment information could be used in their wellness notebooks as part of their portfolio, as data to judge the effectiveness of a teaching style, or as an academic literacy assignment. Additionally the Activity Blocks can be used as a measure of effort. Tell students that a student providing good effort in class today should complete at least 10 blocks and that is how effort points will be awarded today.

As you can see, this concept can be used with just about any content to meet many purposes, including our ultimate purpose of meeting students' needs and promoting learning. Our students love Activity Blocks because they are making their own choices, training each other, participating, cooperating, playing fairly, working on fitness, learning to move correctly and showing in many ways how they value P.E., fitness and health. Meanwhile, our faculty members are happy as students are more motivated and engaged and we are meeting NASPE program guidelines for providing adequate time for practice, skill development, and feedback, and maximizing opportunities for all students to learn and be physically active with minimal to no waiting time. Activity Blocks can't make your classes any smaller but they can allow you and your students to engage in positive ways with the content and each other to create a more positive learning environment.



Hoops For Heart is a national event created by the American Heart Association and the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. Students have fun playing basketball while becoming empowered to improve their health and help other kids with heart-health issues.

Hoops For Heart helps students:

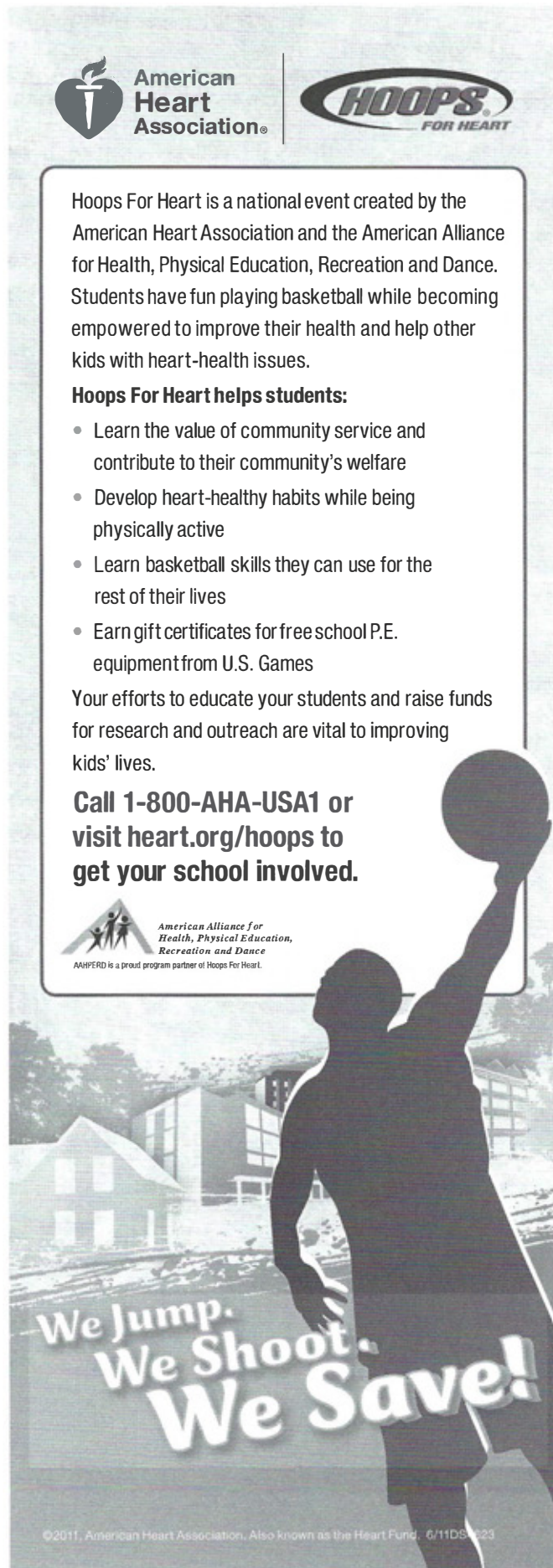
- Learn the value of community service and contribute to their community's welfare
- Develop heart-healthy habits while being physically active
- Learn basketball skills they can use for the rest of their lives
- Earn gift certificates for free school P.E. equipment from U.S. Games

Your efforts to educate your students and raise funds for research and outreach are vital to improving kids' lives.

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ABC's of Fundraising

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Note: This is an excerpt from Chapter 26, Fundraising Principles, in Sawyer & Judge, 2012. *The Management of Fitness, Physical Activity, Recreation, and Sport*. Sagamore Publishing. This excerpt is reprinted with the permission of Sagamore Publishing.

Abstract

All organizations have the need for additional funds beyond the normal revenue sources (i.e., membership fees, ticket sales, guarantees, post-season opportunities, radio and television contracts, concessions [food, merchandise, and parking], franchising, licensing agreements, sponsorships, etc.) There are, of course, many legitimate and logical reasons why additional funding is needed to support programs, such as program expansion, facility renewal or expansion, inflation, changing priorities, increase in unemployment with markets, and a decrease in the purchasing power of the consumers within the markets. Without successful fundraising programs, exciting promotions, and an excellent public relations program, the organization could be forced to reduce or eliminate marginal programs and sport teams, layoff personnel, reduce hours of operation, or close facilities. Therefore, it is imperative for sport managers to develop strong programs in fundraising and promotions. An effective, efficient and successful fundraising program will allow the organization to grow and prosper in today's very competitive financial environment. Fundraising is the art of soliciting money for charitable organizations, schools, colleges/universities, political parties, and many other worthy projects and organizations. Many organizations define fundraising as anything that increases revenue, including: concessions, deferred giving, donations, grants, merchandising, licensing, promotions, and sponsorships.

Guidelines for a Fundraising Program

One of the biggest errors made by novices as well as experienced fundraisers is to seek something new, different, and unique when it would be far better to adopt a program that has been successful. Why reinvent the wheel? The challenge should not be to originate activities but to be creative in the implementation of those things that have produced results elsewhere. There are a multitude of events and projects that are appropriate for fundraising activities.

It is vital that an overall plan for fundraising be developed using the following guidelines: (1) fundraising must be program specific, (2) a prospect list must be developed, (3) an accounting system must be established, (4) an acknowledgement and follow-

up system must be devised, (5) a timetable must be established, (6) the organization will do better if it is classified as a non-profit (not-for-profit) 501 (c)(3) tax-exempted corporation, (7) a board of directors must be formed and a legal binding contract be drawn requiring the board to review and monitor funds periodically, (8) the overall plan should have short- [one to two years] and long- [three to five years] range goals and objectives, (9) the goals and objectives (projects) should be prioritized, (10) all activities, policies, and procedures should be kept simple, (11) an attorney and certified public accountant should be involved in the early phases of the fundraising program, (12) in selecting projects, choose those that are cost-effective and appropriate for the organization to sponsor, and (13) a training program should be established for staff and volunteers to prepare them for the tasks and a formal and informal means of appreciation needs to be established for all volunteers and community members.

Addressing Preliminary Issues

A fundraising program is a major commitment for any organization. Therefore, it is very important for the manager to be able to answer the following questions in detail: Is there a definable financial need? Can fundraising activity meet the program's needs? Is this the only way, or the best way, of meeting the needs? Is the program itself worthy of support? Is there adequate and competent leadership activity? Are there sufficient volunteers? Is there an organization support infrastructure capable of achieving the successful conclusion of the fundraising effort? Is there a support organization in existence? Could this organization be recognized as the official representative of the athletic program in terms of fundraising? Is there a positive reputation and image of the support organization in the eyes of the various constituencies?

Other questions to be considered: How much will it cost to raise the desired amount? What are the downside risks and liabilities? Will the program be cost-effective in terms of money, time, effort, personnel, and other resources? Are the necessary resources available? What are the requirements in terms of time to reach the objective(s)? Can the objectives be reached in that time? What legal matters will be of concern (i.e., incorporation, tax exempted status, mailing permit, taxes, special permits, insurance, etc.)? Can the end results stand up to close scrutiny of various constituencies? Is the financial and political climate conducive to success?

Resources Necessary to Conduct a Successful Fundraising Program

Fundraising, if not planned properly, can be a resource drag. There are a number of resources necessary for conducting any fundraising project. These usually include: time, personnel (i.e., internal/external and paid/volunteer), equipment (i.e., computers, printers, fax machine, filing cabinet), supplies (i.e., paper, stationary, envelopes, file cards, file folder, postage), facilities, reputation and image of the organization, the organization's past accomplishments and achievements, seed funding to start projects, and other non-personnel (i.e., members, students, parents, community members, friends of the organization).

Key Components of a Fundraising Program

There are seven components of a fundraising program. Each of the components must be integrated in order to develop a successful program. The components are the following:

What:

The establishment of a mission, purpose, and function statements, development of short- and long-term goals and objectives, and prepare appropriate strategies to implement the action plans within a suitable time frame.

Where:

Fundraising should take place in many venues inside as well as outside the organization (see Table 1).

Why:

No fundraising program or project should be developed unless there are justifiable needs that can be utilized in the development of the case statement [a case statement is an embellished need statement].

When:

Fundraising, like fruit, is time-sensitive and there are good times and bad times in every community to mount a fundraising campaign, a time should be carefully chosen that allows for maximum penetration into the community, the campaign should be designed in time-sequenced events that follow an established priority of importance, and the most commonly implemented fundraising efforts are one-time events, repeatable projects, and annual events that are either one-time or repeatable projects.

By Whom:

A key to any fundraising program's or project's success is the people involved. There must be involvement of paid staff, volunteers (i.e., members, students, parents, community leaders, friends of the organization), and other external sources.

Categories or vehicles of giving:

There are a number of categories utilized in fundraising projects, including major donor programs, capital programs (i.e., building campaign), annual scholarship appeals, annual giving campaigns for the total program, annual special events or projects, annual giving campaigns for special purposes, annual giving campaigns on an unrestricted basis, deferred/planned giving (i.e., proceeds from life insurance or wills), memorial giving programs (i.e., in memory of someone), gifts-in-kind (i.e., donations of professional time or equipment), and general endowment programs;

Feasibility:

The manager and fundraising committee need to develop an assessment process for evaluating all projects or events to determine: how successful a project or event might be, whether or not to proceed with the project or event, and what should be done to improve the project or event before it is repeated.

Committees Used in Fundraising Projects

Not many fundraising projects are undertaken without a number of key committees, particularly to support public school and not-for-profit fundraising efforts. These committees may be composed of both paid staff and volunteers. The most commonly utilized committees are: (1) site selection, (2) publicity and promotion, (3) equipment and supplies, (4) finance, (5) refreshments and hospitality, (6) invitation and program, (7) ticket, (8) decorations, (9) prizes, (10) security, (11) cleanup, and (12) project assessment.

Examples of Fundraising Events

There are many events that can be used for fundraising by organizations; the only thing that limits a manager is his/her imagination. Here are a few suggestions of fundraising events: athletic contests, clinics/workshops, youth sport camps/clinics, fun nights, team/individual athlete photos, flea markets/consignment sales, car washes, swim-, walk-, run-, bike-a-thons, invitational tournaments, novelty athletic events (i.e., Harlem Gobletrotters, King and His Court, donkey baseball/soft-ball), craft and hobby shows/sales, rummage/white elephant/garage sales, shows (i.e., baseball cards, musicals, etc.); exhibitions, bazaars, festivals, fairs, and carnivals, rodeos, celebrity and regular golf tournaments, hole-in-one contests, card and board games, excursions, house/garden tours, fashion shows, professional wrestling events, haunted houses, Christmas and Santa Claus workshop, ghost dinners, celebrity roasts, dances, sponsoring camping, boating, or recreational equipment shows, athletic hall of fame, auctions, road races, meet the coaches lunch/breakfast, Monday night football club, wine and cheese/ice cream socials, reunion of championship teams, alumni games, pancake breakfast/Jonah's fish fry, and meet the team night with a barbecue and annual pig roast.

Fundraising Support Groups

Fundraising support groups, such as athletic or band booster clubs, are very useful tools in the fundraising arsenal. These groups are composed of members, parents, and community supporters who are all volunteers.

There are seven steps in the establishment of support groups, including: (1) recognition of the need for such a group, (2) communication with management, board members, and/or appropriate school officials, (3) consultation with representative of various internal and external constituencies, (4) establishment of general principles and guidelines for the support group, (5) recognition of potential pitfalls that should be avoided (i.e., overzealous boosters, selecting proper accounting methods, establishment of priorities, relationship between

support group and organization, planning for continuity),(6) dissemination of information about the organization and its purpose, and (7) determination of the organizational structure of the group through the establishment of articles of incorporation, bylaws, and rules of operation.

Contributors to fundraising usually receive some kind of benefit for their donations. These benefits might be any of the following or a combination of the following: preferred parking, complimentary or reduced ticket prices or the privilege to purchase tickets in a particular location, special event ticket priority, dinner and banquet seating priority, plaques or other gift items to recognize donors, invitations

to special events, VIP lounge privilege membership card, periodic newsletters, press guide(s), and other publications, mention and recognition in game programs, away game ticket priority, travel with specific teams, access to press box or special areas for special teams and/or events, specific apparel to identify donors and contributors, a private booth for home contests or events, auto decals, free golf at college/university course, free or reduced membership in college/university health/wellness center, scholarship named after donor, building named after donor, dinner to honor donor, and perpetual award given in donor's name.

Table 1: Common Models Used in Fundraising

The most commonly used models for fundraising are:

- person-to-person solicitation,
- single-person cultivation,
- door-to-door solicitation,
- telephone solicitation (telemarketing),
- contest of chance (i.e., 50/50 drawing, raffle, lottery, casino nights)
- social media (i.e., Facebook, Twitter, web site, etc.), and
- direct mail solicitation



Guidelines for Authors

This journal is published in May, September, and February by the Indiana Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance. Articles that share opinions and ideas, as well as those based on serious scholarly inquiry are welcomed and encouraged. Each article scholarly article is reviewed by the editor and at least two reviewers who are selected on the basis of areas of interest and qualifications in relation to the content of the article.

Preparing Manuscript

Manuscripts are to conform to the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA; 6th ed.) style. To facilitate the review process, the author(s) should use double-spaced type and include line numbers as well as page numbers. Papers must not exceed a total of 28 pages including references, charts, tables, figures, and photographs. There should be an abstract not to exceed 500 words. Further, all charts, tables, figures, and photographs will be after the references. Papers deviating from the recommended format will not be considered until they are revised.

Electronic Submission

Electronic submission of manuscripts is required at thomas.sawyer@indstate.edu . The manuscript order is: (1) blind title page, (2) abstract, (3) key words, (4) text, (5) references, (6) author notes, (7) footnotes, (8) charts, (9) tables, (10) figure captions, and (11) figures. The cover letter will be a separate file. Including author(s) name and affiliation and contact information of corresponding author.

Cover Letter

The cover letter must include all contact information for the corresponding author, and employers of the remaining authors. The following statements must be included in the cover letter:

- "This manuscript represents results of original work that have not been published elsewhere (except as an abstract in conference proceedings)."
- "This manuscript has not and will not be submitted for publication elsewhere until a decision is made regarding its acceptability for publication in the Indiana AHPERD Journal."
- "This scholarly inquiry is not part of a larger study."
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List multiple authors in the order of proportionate work completed. Also indicate research reports supported by grants and contracts. Include biographical information on all authors (title, department, institution or company, and full address).

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The author must provide a signed statement certifying that the article has not previously been published or submitted for publication elsewhere either in identical or modified form.

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- Spring Issue – Feb. 15
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My, what changes could be wrought
If you'd just send it in.

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