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Indiana Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance Affiliated with American Alliance for HPERD

# INDIANA AIHPERD JOURNAL

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

NUMBER 1 VOLUME 45 **WINTER 2016** 

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# IMPORTANT JOURNAL INFORMATION

#### Indiana AHPERD

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IAHPERD greatly appreciates you for keeping your membership records up-to-date.



# MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT





GARY SANDERS
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# CHANGING SCENE: COME ALIVE

#### Dear Fellow IAHPERD Members,

Good Day, Indiana! Here is hoping you all had a wonderful holiday season. Plus we are all back teaching and coaching by now.

For this report I am going to reflect on my theme for 2016 and the goals which were passed out at the 2015 state convention. (These seem to be changing every time we have a meeting.) My theme for 2016 is: **CHANGING SCENE: COME ALIVE!** After Karen Hatch asked me to be the next Indiana President, I woke up in the middle of the night and thought what can I use for my theme. It occurred to me that I would use the title of my Master's Thesis: The Changing Scene.

My advisor, Mrs. Irmal Fagan, (May she rest in peace.) at Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO suggested I try the theater. This led me down the road to Denver, CO where this experimental theater was located. The Changing Scene was owned and operated by the husband and wife team of Munt and Brooks. They were two adventurous modern dancers from New York. During my historical study I had the pleasure of observing, attending and interviewing dancers, actors plus directors of their productions. For us the Changing Scene has happened with our national name change and reorganization: SHAPE AMERICA.

Now for the second part of the theme: **COME ALIVE!** This came from the summer SHAPE America Leadership Conference in Greenville, South Carolina.

**Speaker: Jen Ohlson**, President of Interactive Health and Technologies from Texas, presented a Spirit System. This system has become the most connected software platform in Physical Education across the country. The words Come Alive, were in her brochure. I had underlined them figuring I may use them in the near future. So I have.

#### Goals

1. Restart the College and University Day (in progress) this has been absent for a number of years at our Leadership Conference. The meeting has usually been done every other year. If you would like to be part of this 2016 event please contact Sheli Plummer, VP of Higher Education: <a href="mailto:mrplummer@bsu.edu">mrplummer@bsu.edu</a>.

#### Date: February 26, 2016, McCormick's Creek, 9 am.

- Continue our positive state conventions. I hope we continue to offer you interesting educational programs for your Health and Physical Education curriculums.
- 3. Work toward our state becoming more of a family. When I arrived to teach at St. Joseph's College in Rensselaer, IN, I became an IAHPERD member right away. (Lisa Hicks and LeAnn Haggard got me introduced to our councils to start with.) However, I felt a disconnect with other members of the state organization. In order to pull members together, we are going to try a social outing in 2016 at the convention. In hopes of getting to know each other better.
- 4. Continued increase in our state and council membership. An increase in membership seems to be a topic not only here in Indiana, but also in surrounding states as well. We have an interesting item that will help all of our members coming up. (More on this in the next report.)
- 5. Continued support for the *Jump Rope/Hoops for Heart Projects*. These are a huge money maker for our state association.

I hope you would continue to support these programs. Or you might like to try having a *JRFH/HFH* program at your school.

Contact Sunni Rossi at the American Heart Association: <u>sunni.rossi@heart.org</u> or Doug Atkinson: <u>doug\_atkinson@nobl.k12.in.us.</u>

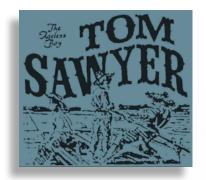
## Thank You!



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# Editor's Notion Page

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# What is in a Name?

Thomas H. Sawyer, Ed.D.
Professor Emeritus. Indiana State University

#### The real question is what and who does IAHPERD represent in 2016.

Generally when we see a name of an organization it tells the reader what the organization represents. Such as the Indiana Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (IAHPERD), tells the reader this is an association of professionals who represent health education, physical education, recreation, and dance.

The real question is what and who does IAHPERD represent in 2016.

Recreation, and Dance is no longer accurate and is confusing to many including legislators. The name is no longer accurate, since recreation (and park) professionals are no longer represented. It is and has always been confusing to legislators and others. It does not lend itself to marketing its membership.

IAHPERD represent Astreamlined Association and a stronger centralized focus on Health in 2016.

and Physical Education will bear fruit in the future for the Association.

Many years ago IAHPERD represented aquatic professiona

ed aquatic professionals, athletic trainers, athletic directors, coaches, health educators, dancer educators, physical educators, park and recreation professionals, and recreational sport professionals. However, today the Association has slowly narrowed its focus to health and physical education causing other professionals (aquatic professionals, athletic administrators, athletic trainers, coaches, recreation professionals, sport management professionals, etc.) to leave for other organizations that better met their needs.

Should the name of the Association remain IAHPERD or should it be changed to reflect the members it represents and advocates for now in Indiana? I am not suggesting that it change its name to SHAPE Indiana. I am one who strongly opposed the name of the national organization to SHAPE America. We are not a society. We are an association that represents the health and physical educators in Indiana. The name Indiana Association for Health, Physical Education,

## Well, what should it be called?

Here are a few possible names to consider:

- Indiana Association for Health and Physical Education (IAHPE)
- Health and Physical Education Association of Indiana (HPEAI)
- Indiana Health and Physical Education Association (IHPEA)
- Association for Health and Physical Education of Indiana (AHPEI)

Further, I would suggest that IAH-PERD narrow its focus to concentrate on providing Advocacy, Products/ Programs, and Services (APS) for Indiana health and physical educators. It should no longer attempt to provide APSs for coaches and sport managers. We can no longer provide what these two groups need and we should not attempt to meet their need. This Association is a HEALTH and PHYSICAL EDUCATION association. We should be proud of it and STOP trying to be

everything to everybody.

The Association, whatever it's name is in the future, needs to reorganization to provide APSs to health and physical educators only. Under the umbrella of physical education I would include aquatics and dance. These are important aspects of k-12 physical

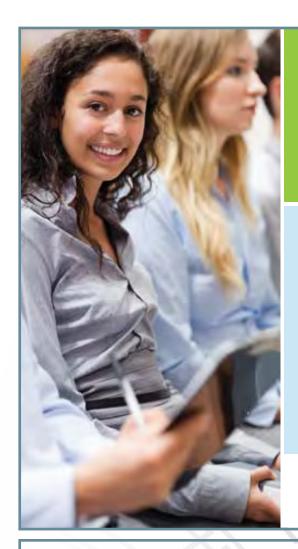
education programs and should not be ignored. In fact, they should be expanded. We can no longer support coaches (they have their own organizations to support them)

nor sport and sport management they will soon form their own regional organization. Therefore, the Association should consider the elimination of the following structures – sport council, sports management council", and possible aquatic and recreation council as well".

A streamlined Association and a stronger centralized focus on Health and Physical Education will bear fruit in the future for the Association.

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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# BALL STATE + ONLINE



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"Their experience at the highest levels of the sport gives students an insider's perspective that they might not otherwise have," says Gilreath.

Soon after finishing her master's, Gilreath became assistant track and field coach at Indiana State University. In her first two years as coach, one of her athletes captured first in the 20 lb. weight throw and third in the shot put at the NCAA Track and Field Championships. That same athlete later participated in the World University Games in Kazan, Russia, where she advanced to the final round in the shot put.

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# DEVELOPING PARENTS INTO TEAM CHEERLEADERS

TONYA L. SAWYER
COMPLIANCE COORDINATOR

THOMAS H. SAWYER
PROFESSOR EMERITUS

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Support and assistance from parents can be very useful; however, through lack of awareness, some parents can weaken the effects of coaching, reducing the benefits the sport experience can provide. This lack of awareness and negative influence can be minimized if parents understand the role of coach, the purpose and objectives of the program, and the responsibilities they have in assisting the team run smoothly.

The most effective way of communicating the purposes and needs of a sport program is through a preseason orientation meeting for parents and student-athletes. The preseason orientation meeting can be used to teach parents the rules and regulations of the game, provide details about the season, and provide a setting for collecting and distributing important information.

Further, at the preseason orientation meeting, the coach has the opportunity to ask for assistance and discuss other items that are specific to the team. A meeting for parents is also an excellent way for them to get to know you and each other. A face-to-face meeting and a few short remarks go a long way toward uniting coaches and parents in a cooperative endeavor that benefits the student athletes. Many potential problems can be eliminated by good communication that begins before the first practice.

#### PRESEASON ORIENTATION MEETING FOR PARENTS AND STUDENT-ATHLETES

The preseason meeting should be held just prior to the beginning of the season, preferably a week to ten days before the first practice. It should be held on a weeknight or Saturday morning. This is a key meeting make sure it is scheduled at a time most convenient for the parents.

The meeting should be held at the school in a classroom, which has availability of a chalk or grease board, and electronic media equipment. It should be easy to locate and close to a parking area. Refreshments are optional but a nice touch. The meeting should last no longer than 60-90 minutes. It is the coaches' responsibility to start the meeting on time, keep it moving along, and finish reasonably close to the specified ending time. Finally, it is important that the student-athletes attend this meeting.

The orientation meeting should be announced through a personal letter, to the parents from the coach. The letter should include an invitation to the meeting outlining the date, time, and place of the meeting, directions to the meeting space, and an RSVP request. The letter should include brief statements about the objectives of the meeting, its importance, and the parents' responsibility for attending. Included in the letter should be an agenda for the meeting. The invitation letter should be mailed two weeks prior to the meeting. A follow-up phone call would be useful also utilizing a telephone-calling-tree of returning parents.

Finally, have all parents complete a registration form and sign in on the meeting evening. The registration form should collect the following demographic data: name, address, phone numbers, e-mail address, employment information (e.g., position, organization, address), who to call in an emergency, preferred hospital, family physician, and a short questionnaire requesting volunteers for a variety of tasks to assist the coach (e.g., maintaining team and individual statistics, preparing healthy snacks for team trips, preparing refreshments for the orientation meeting, organizing a phone-calling-tree, talking pictures of the team, players, and actions shots, preparing bi-weekly newsletter [see sample newsletter below], raising money, etc.).



#### SAMPLE AGENDA PARENTS' ORIENTATION MEETING

- Welcome (e.g., Head Coach, Athletic Director, and/or Principal)
- Introductions (coaches and parents)
- Opening remarks (review of previous season and a preview of the upcoming season)
- Male coaches coaching female athletes o4r female coaches coaching male athletes
- Coaching philosophy
- Parents' role as team cheerleaders
- Discussion regarding sportsmanship and what is expected of parents and student-athletes
- Goals of the team and program for upcoming season
- Outlining practice routines and practice schedule for the season
- Outlining the game schedule for the season (e.g., arrival for a home game, travel schedule for away games, travel policies and procedures, directions to away game sites, etc.)
- Medical examination forms are distributed
- Risk of injury and Safety
- Waivers and release to participate forms are distributed and signed
- When injury happens (i.e., common types of injuries, common types of treatments, policies and procedures for return to competition, emergency medical treatment release form discussed and distributed, etc.) (covered by athletic trainer if available)
- Injuries, rehabilitation, and return to play
- Equipment needs
- Academic monitoring
- Determining who is on the team and what level (e.g., Freshman, junior varsity, or varsity)
- A discussion regarding playing time
- How awards are determined (e.g., varsity letters, most valuable, most improved, etc.)
- Student-Athletes' responsibilities
- Coach-parent relations
- Questions and answers
- Closing

#### SAMPLE PARENTS NEWSLETTER

Hello, welcome to Terre Haute South Vigo Braves 1995 Girls Soccer Team. We are excited to start the 3rd season of Girl's soccer. We have 15 games scheduled for the season and there will be post-season opportunities including sectional, regional, semi-state, and state tournaments.

The preseason parents' newsletter has been prepared to: (A) outline team goals for the 1995 season, (B) assist parents in communicating with the coaches, (C) provide sports nutrition information for mothers to help their student-athlete(s), (D) furnish information relating to water and fluid use, (E) encourage parents to be positive, (F) dispense the 1995 schedule, and (G) provides parents with the Number 1 priority for them to observe.

#### Parental Tip

Nothing is really worth doing unless you are enjoying yourself and having FUN. Life is too short to do something you do not enjoy or have FUN doing. FUN is the key to enjoying sports. So relax and let your daughter have FUN playing soccer.

It is her time to shine.

#### **GOALS**

The team goals for the season are:

- to have FUN,
- to teach new skills,
- to improve skills,
- to develop excitement for competition,

- to cultivate team spirit,
- to improve sport-related fitness,
- to generate an appreciation for quality soccer competition,
- to teach sportsmanship,
- to develop an understanding, and appreciation of winning and losing, and
- to generate individual goals for each player
- relating to his/her sport fitness level, skill level,
- team spirit, and sportsmanship.

#### **COMMUNICATION LINK TO COACHES**

All communication should be directed to Head Coach. He encourages all parents to contact him whenever there are any questions relating to the team. If there are injuries that continue to cause your daughter problems, please contact the Athletic Trainer for advice on treatment. When a student athlete is injured, she will be told what to do to treat and rehabilitate the injury by the Athletic Trainer. If you have questions relating to injuries, please feel free to call the Athletic Trainer. We appreciate your assistance in making sure that the student-athlete follows through with the suggested treatment.

#### **SPORT NUTRITION TIPS**

This section has been prepared to assist mothers in improving the student-athlete's diet in order to improve her energy output. Yes, I am painfully aware that this is an impossible task at best.

- 1. Furnish a variety of natural foods.
- 2. Reduce the amount of commercial foods consumed.
- 3. Provided foods rich in calcium and iron. Skim or low fat and other low-fat dairy products are excellent sources of calcium. Iron is found in lean meats, dark leafy vegetables, and enriched whole grain products.
- 4. Protein consumption should range between 10 and 15 per cent of the total caloric daily intake or between 75 and 125 grams. Figure the exact amount of protein needed, divide the body weight by 2.2 then multiply by 1.6 and round off to the nearest whole gram. Four ounces of lean meat, fish, or poultry, together with two glasses of skim milk, will actually provide approximately 45 grams. If this is combined with plant foods high in protein, such as whole grain products, beans and peas, and vegetables, protein needs can be easily met.

#### Parental Tip

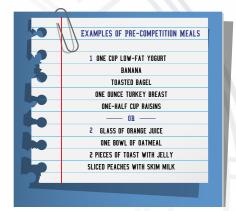
If in doubt always use ice. Keep small freezer bags available to be filled with ice. NEVER put the ice directly on the skin. The ice should be applied for at least twenty minutes. Yes, it will hurt for the first few minutes then the area will becomes numb and the pain subsides.

- 5. The bulk of the diet should be composed of complex carbohydrates at least 60 percent carbohydrate of which 60 per cent should be complex carbohydrates. Foods considered as complex carbohydrates are vegetables, fruits, whole grain products (breads and cereals), and legumes (beans and peas).
- 6. Provide sugar and simple carbohydrates in moderation. Try to eliminate candy, cookies, doughnuts, cakes, pies, etc.. It would be extremely helpful to eliminate or at least reduce the consumption soda pop especially those high octane drinks Coca Cola, Pepsi Cola, Mountain Dew, Dr. Pepper! The sugar content of these drinks combined with caffeine provide a quick high followed by a deep depression very bad for athletic performance.

#### Parental Tip

Please do not allow your daughter to eat the following prior to practice or competition: (1) Greasy foods, such as fast food burgers and French fries, (2) soda of any kind, (3) candy or other food products high in sugar, and (4) products with caffeine included (e.g., coffee, tea, chocolate).

- 7. Prepare a low fat diet say goodbye to fast food hamburgers, French fries, hot dogs, luncheon meats, sausage, and bacon, etc. . Also try to eliminate the use of whole milk, ice cream, real butter, commercial baked goods, animal oils, and peanut butter. Check food labels for main ingredients that indicate fat, oil, shortening, lard, coconut/palm oil, monoglycerides, diglycerides, triglycerides, sterate, and palmitate.
- 8. Broil, bake, or microwave foods. Limit frying. If you must use oil in your cooking, try to use monosaturated oils such as olive or peanut oil.
- 9. Furnish more fish, particularly white fish.
- 10. Normally, it would be suggested to use salt and sodium in moderation. With athletes, it is necessary to retain fluid, particularly on hot and humid days; therefore, it is recommended that salt be used regularly on the student-athletes foods.
- 11. Since most teenagers do not eat a well-balanced diet, it is recommended that the boys be furnished with a one-a-day multi-vitamin with iron. Further, you should stress the con- sumption of vegetables (deep yellow and dark green leafy) and fruits (deep orange). Some examples are carrots, peaches, squash, sweet potatoes, cabbage, broccoli, cauliflower, and brussels sprouts.
- 12. Furnish fewer foods with questionable additives such as artificial colors, artificial flavors, etc..
- 13. A few principles are suggested for the pre-game meal. The pre-competition meal should:
  - Allow the stomach to be relatively empty at the start of competition;
  - Help avoid a sensation of hunger;
  - Help minimize gastrointestinal distress; provide for an adequate amount of body water;
  - It should be eaten at least two to three hours before activity; and
  - A meal high in complex carbohydrates (starches) such as spaghetti or pancakes is preferred (The likes and dislikes of the student-athlete should be considered.) and a choice of several dishes is suggested.



#### WATER BALANCE TIPS

This information is provided to assist the student athlete in maintaining her water balance during practice and competition. Adequate water intake is very critical for athletes. Perhaps nothing produces so detrimental an effect on performance as rapidly as does dehydration.

- 1. Under moderately active conditions, approximately one liter of water is required for each 1,000 calories of food consumed daily. Thus athletes on 3,000-5,000 calorie-a-clay intake should consume at least 3 to 5 liters. When high heat and/or humidity adds to metabolic heat of exercise, additional amounts of water are required.
- 2. A few principles of sound water intake are as follows: a. Ensure that the student-athlete is well hydrated during the weeks and days prior to competition.
  - In the hours before activity, the athlete should take in additional fluid, especially in hot weather.

- During practice or competition, the athlete should consume water only on a regular basis. The student athlete should not attempt to load up before and after practice or competition.
- Sport drinks (e.g., Gatorade and others) can be important in replenishing glucose, potassium, chloride, and sodium. The sport drink should be ingested at least 90 minutes prior to practice or competition and again after practice or competition.

It should be noted, however, that water intake should be the first priority, and that water loss will begin to affect performance before electrolyte (sodium, chloride, potassium) loss. In addition, the high concentration of glucose in sport drinks will pull additional water from the tissues to balance higher concentrations of blood glucose. The solution to this problem is to dilute the sport drink with water, or merely restrict fluid intake to water only.

#### Parental Tip

Please provide your daughter with a water container of at least 1 gallon capacity (e.g., such as a used Gatorade, milk, or juice container) to take to EACH practice and competition. Make sure her name is clearly visible on the container(s). We DO NOT allow athletes sharing water containers which contain each person's germs, for fear of spreading illnesses.

#### PARENTS CAN BE A POSITIVE SPORTS CONNECTION

As coach and I travel around the state presenting INDIANA LANSE - HOW TO SURVIVE COACHING WORKSHOPS, the number "1" question often asked by young and older coaches is "How do I get the parents to be positive assets to my program?" Parents can be great positive reinforcers. They can also be negative "time bombs" that can go off at any time. There have been many instances when coach and I have worked hard for weeks to develop self-confidence and self-esteem in a player to have a parent in his/her frustration say or do something negative which either destroys or neutralizes our work. You want to talk about frustration—that is real frustration for both the student-athlete and us.

The following are a few suggested strategies for parents to positively reinforce their student-athlete:

- 1. Show a genuine and positive interest in your student athlete's athletic endeavors.
- 2. Think. Is what you are about to say likely to encourage your daughter or will your words simply put them on the defensive?
- 3. Understand. Have you put yourself in your daughter's position to try to understand why they have taken a certain position or clone a certain thing? Could you perform a difficult skill under pressure without ever making any errors?
- 4. Communication tips
  - Communicate the problem, not the solution,
  - keep communicating even when tensions rise,
  - avoid sarcasm, irony, and put downs,
  - be consistent with your verbal and nonverbal communications, and
  - be positive in your resolve.
- 5. Parents should help children practice sports skills.
- Parents should not critical of other players or the coaches. If there seems to be a problem, take the time to communicate with the coach.
- 7. Parents must be good sportsmen. You are a role model for your children, try to act like one.
- 8. Yes, officials make mistakes but so do athletes, coaches, and parents. Attempt to be a positive role model and not belittle the officials. Believe it or not, they try to do the best job they are capable of. Take it from a twenty year officiating veteran (football, soccer, basketball, track, swimming, baseball, and softball); it is not an

- easy task. It should be noted that Terre Haute needs more good officials maybe you would like to put your energies to good use this season. Rather than be critical of the officials, become one.
- 9. Many times the results of competition are not always positive. As adults, we need to be positive with kids even when we lose and are frustrated and disappointed. Our competitive season schedule has been designed to provide the athletes with the highest quality of competition. We have some games that we should win without question, some that will be great challenges and chances are we will not win, and at least 50% where we have a 50-50 chance of winning.
- 10. There are too many variables that affect whether one team wins or loses on any given day for any of us to predict the results. Our major goals are to have fun, improve skill and sport fitness level, develop team spirit, and experience a good competitive schedule. If we win more than we lose, that will be the icing on the cake ... not the cake. The cake will be the accomplishments of each and every team member collectively.
- 11. We challenge you to be a positive soccer parent and help us have another FUN season.

#### PRACTICE SCHEDULE

Pre-Season begins Monday, August 8 at 8:00 am sharp. Location: The pre-season practices will be held at the Vigo County Soccer Association fields at the Fairgrounds.

During the pre-season and before school starts the practice schedule will be as follows:

August 8 - 12	(Monday - Friday)	8:00-9:30am 5:00 - 6:30pm
August 13	(Saturday)	9:00am -10:00 am
August 15 - 19	(Monday - Friday)	

The schedule for this year, like last year, has a number of double headers scheduled with games scheduled at 10 and 2, and 12 and 4. This being the case, it is important to begin acclimatizing the athlete to these heat stress conditions; therefore, this week's schedule has been designed to do just that.

August 15	8:30-10:00	4:30-6:00
August 16	9:00-10:30	4:00-5:30
August 17	9:30-11:00	3:30-5:00
August 18	10:00-11:30	3:00-4:30
August 19	10:30-12:00	2:30-4:00
August 20	Saturday	12:00-1:30

Season: M-F 4:00-5:30 Saturday 10:00-12:00

#### Parental Tip

- 1. Please do not request to transport your daughter to the game site. It is important for them to be with the team prior to the game for psychological and motivational reasons.
- 2. Provide your daughter with a container of Gatorade (or other sport drink) to be consumed after the contest, and two if there is a double header.
- 3. If you are going to provide your daughter transportation home after the away contest, please inform us prior to game day. We WILL NOT ALLOW the athlete to travel with any one but you.
- 4. If you are not going to the away game, please provide us with a notarized document giving us permission to have your daughter treated at the hospital if necessary. This document should include the name of insurance company and all necessary account and ID numbers.
- 5. The schedule will have an estimated time of arrival at the high school after the away match; please try to be there at that time to pick up your daughter. We will greatly appreciate your assistance in this matter.

#### THE 1995 SEASON SCHEDULE

The 1995 season schedule will be available before the end of the pre-season practice sessions. All athletes should he at the field 45 minutes prior to game time for all home meets. LOOK CAREFULLY at the schedule for departure times for away meets. The bus will leave from the High School at the schedules time. These times have been calculated for a precise arrival time allowing the team adequate warmnp.

#### INHERENT RISKS IN PLAYING SOCCER

Unlike football, soccer has very few inherent risks of injury. However, we think it is important to point out these risks. The inherent risks are as follows:

- heat exhaustion
- 2. heat stroke
- 3. heat cramps
- 4. head and neck injuries
- 5. broken legs
- 6. sprained ankle
- 7. torn knee ligaments or cartilage
- 8. sprained knee
- 9. shin splints
- 10. broken foot
- 11. facial injuries
- 12. eye injuries
- 13. stress fractures
- 14. lower back injuries

Finally, parents all student-athletes MUST have a completed physical and waiver form. The IHSAA rules will not allow us to allow them to participate in practice without one. Every student-athlete must have completed 10 practices (days) before she can compete in a scheduled contest.

This year the school physicals for the athletes will be held at Regional Hospital at SCORE on July 30 from 1-2. The cost is \$7.00 as last year. You do not have to use this SCORE for the physicals; you may go to your family physician.

#### XYZ HIGH SCHOOL SOCCER TEAM NUMBER 1 PRIORITY OF PARENTS

The number 1 priority of parents should be that their children have **POSITIVE AND PRODUCTIVE ATHLETIC EXPERIENCES.** The responsibilities of parents seem to fall into two distinct areas: support and understanding. When parents lose sight of these prime concerns, problems can develop.

#### SUPPORT

Parents should SUPPORT their children. As I travel around the state and talk with parents, teachers, administrators, and coaches about parents and the problems they can cause, the following suggestions come to light:

**Basic Support:** Parents should do the best they can to help their student-athlete(s) in such areas as:

- 1. **Nutrition** assist them in choosing the right foods and encourage the use of multiple vitamins.
- 2. **Proper Rest** an adequate amount of rest (sleep) is essential during the athletic season; parents need to establish rules to guarantee appropriate amounts of the sleep for the student-athlete.
- **3. Transportation** provide or arrange for rides to and from practices and games.
- **4. Spending money** when appropriate, assist the student athlete with school and social expenses.
- 5. Time management student-athletes today have many responsibilities from family to school to work to social activities to playing a sport. Parents need to assist them in managing all these responsible.

sibilities so they can stay focused on their personal goals.

<u>Support by Caring:</u> The following are a few examples of ways parents can show their children that they truly are concerned for them:

- 1. Always keep the child's best interests in the forefront.
- 2. Always be aware of the child's needs, feelings, and concerns.
- Honestly assess the child's ability or potential and work to instill true confidence rather than false confidence which can lead to negative experiences. Always try to be interested in the progress and improvement of the student athlete.
- 4. Attend as many of their games as possible. Obviously parents need to be there to support their children. They also need to be there to support the team.

#### **Understanding**

Parents need to strive to understand what their role is in an athletic program. That includes, but is not limited, to the parents need to UNDERSTAND:

- 1. The role of interscholastic athletics is to develop, among other things, an environment which is fun to be in, camaraderie, a positive attitude relating to fitness and exercise, and life-long lessons such as self-discipline, hard work and improvement, the value of meeting set goals (challenges), the value and power of teamwork, stress management, and competitive sportsmanship.
- 2. The various points of view of all involved with the team such as the point of view of the student-athlete, their own, of other student-athletes and their parents, and of the coach.
- 3. How to motivate their children to achieve their full potential by assisting in setting realistic and attainable goals and being aware of the kinds of things that have positive and negative effects on the student-athlete and the team.
- 4. The concept of being part of a team, which includes understanding the fragile nature of a team and its members (team chemistry), that team attitude has no place for selfish players with selfish attitudes, and team success is based on group effort, and individual achievements are fine as long as the team remains the number 1 priority.
- 5. What constitutes acceptable or reasonable behavior and what does not, such as what actions/behaviors by parents are in the best interest of their children, and what avenues/options are open to parents if they are concerned with the progress of their children or of the team?

#### **PROBLEMS**

After twenty-five years of dealing with, observing, and being a parent, the following problems come to mind when I mix parents with athletics:

- Loud, obnoxious, unsportsmanlike behavior. Such actions are an embarrassment to the student-athlete, coach, school, and community. These actions are unnecessary, not acceptable, and a lousy role model for the student athlete.
- 2. Neglect by the parent(s) such as failing to not support the basic needs of the student-athlete, not becoming involved, showing no concern, and not understanding their student-athlete.
- 3. Becoming overly critical of their student-athlete, the team, or other players on the team, the coach, the officials, and other parents. We all know griping and complaining are contagious, and these negative behaviors rarely bring about positive change or good will.
- 4. Overstepping or going too far. Parents simply are not responsible for such things as game strategies, program philosophy, berating of players, evaluation of players or officials, and deciding on playing time for players.

Parents can be very positive forces in their children's lives if they support them by caring and not trying to live their lives for them. The student-athlete should be participating because he or she wants to have

fun and learn to play a sport and not for their parents or the coach. Parents and coaches are there to facilitate the student-athletes, needs in a given sport, and to develop a supportive sporting environment which is conducive to having fun and building a competitive attitude.

Parents, we are here to assist your student-athlete in learning how to play and enjoy the game of soccer. We need your assistance in this effort as well. Join us in developing a fun enriched wholesome athletic environment. We welcome your support and strongly discourage your non-support.

#### **TEAM GOALS**

The key to a successful sport season is a sound set of team and linked individual goals. The goals established each year must be reachable but not easily attainable. Since 1980 there has been a great deal of research completed by many sport sociologists and psychologists relating to the best goals for sport teams at all amateur levels of participation. According to Coakley (2014) and Sage and Eitzen (2012) research clearly indicates that the following goals should be the core goals for any sport team:

- to have fun,
- to improve skills and learn new skills,
- to be on a team and to make new friends, and
- to succeed or win.

These are not the only goals. These are the fundamental goals for success in sport as well as other walks of life.

Most educators, pediatricians, sport sociologists and psychologists, and parents consider these to be healthy goals that coaches should help student-athletes achieve. Parents should be informed of the primary goals of the team and of the amount of emphasis that will be placed on achieving these goals and how they can encourage the development of these goals at home as well.

Other areas that should be addressed are policies on eliminating players, missing practices, and recognizing players through awards. The coach may be asked to answer many questions about how he/she will function as a coach.

Weinberg and Gould (2012) suggest some examples are:

- How much emphasis will be placed on having fun?
- How much emphasis will be placed on winning?
- How will playing time be determined?
- What will be the minimum standards established to continue playing on the team?
- How will the selection standards be established?
- Will players be allowed to compete if they missed the last practice before a game?
- How will student-athletes be disciplined?
- Will players receive trophies or other material rewards?
- How much emphasis will be placed on rewards?
- Are the rewards given only to good performers or are they given to all participants?

#### **UNDERSTANDING THE SPORT**

Many times spectators (parents and others) boo officials, shout instructions to players, or contradict the coach because they do not know the rules or strategies of the sport. This is particularly true if the rules of play have been modified for younger age groups (e.g., high school, college, international, or professional). Informing parents about basic rules, skills, and strategies may help those who are unfamiliar with the sport and will prevent some of this negative behavior.

The information may be presented in the form of a film, brief explanation, demonstration of techniques, and/or rule interpretations. In addition, parents could obtain rules of the game off the Internet. Finally, coach with a local official could hold a 60-90 minute rules clinic prior to the beginning of the season to cover the rules and outline the rules changes for a particular season. The four stakeholders that influ-

ence sport the most are coaches, student-athletes, parents, and officials. Having all the stack holders present to learn more about the game will only serve to improve the final outcome for the sport.

#### RISK OF INJURY AND SAFETY

Parents should be told what they can expect in terms of possible injuries their student-athlete may incur in the sport. Failure to inform parents of potential injuries is the most frequent basis for lawsuits involving coaches and players. Parents should clearly understand that generally the injuries are confined to bruises, but that there is a possibility for broken bones, torn ligaments, and other serious injuries. The coach should prepare a diagram outlining information on types and sites of injuries in the sport. This information should be reviewed with the parents. Inform the parents about the required medical examination before their student-athlete can participate. The coach should have these forms available for the parents and establish a deadline for their return to the coach. Describe for the parent what will be done to prevent injuries and assure them that the playing/practice area and equipment will be checked to help keep players safe and free from exposure to hazards. If the school has employed an athletic trainer ask them to be part of the meeting to discuss these issues as well.

Lastly, the school's policy of accident insurance should be described. Inform parents if the program maintains athletic accident coverage or whether parents are required to provide insurance coverage for injuries that happen during their child's athletic participation. This is an excellent time to discuss with the parents the "Emergency Medical Treatment Release Form" which you would like for them to sign and have notarized. This form would be used when the student-athlete is injured seriously enough to be treated at either a local or distant hospital when the parents are not available to sign the necessary forms or provide the insurance information required by the hospital before treatment will be initiated. Finally, have the parents provide medical history information in order to handle an emergency. The coach should have the parents complete this form as well. The coach should keep these forms and bring to all team functions. These forms will provide information to guide actions in an emergency.

#### ATHLETES' ROLE

The "Bill of Rights for Young Athletes," reminds adults that the student-athlete's welfare must be placed above all other considerations. The student-athletes and their parents must realize, however, that along with rights, they must meet certain responsibilities.

Student-athletes must be responsible for:

- being on time at practices and games with all of their equipment,
- cooperating with coaches and teammates,
- putting forth the effort to condition their bodies and to learn the basic skills, and
- conducting themselves properly and living with the consequences of inappropriate
- behavior.

These responsibilities should be discussed with parents and student-athletes so they may be reinforced at home. The responsibilities are not just for sport but for life as well. Student-athletes should use these are core responsibilities of a good citizen.

The "Bill of Rights for Young Athletes" was drafted in 1977 by the Youth Sports Task Force of the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance. The bill includes the following ten rights:

- Right of the opportunity to participate in sports regardless of ability level.
- Right to participate at a level that is commensurate with each child's developmental level.
- Right to have qualified adult leadership.
- Right to participate in safe and healthy environments.
- Right of each child to share in the leadership and decision-mak-

- ing of their sport participation.
- Right to play as a child and not as an adult.
- Right to proper preparation for participation in the sport.
- Right to an equal opportunity to strive for success.
- Right to be treated with dignity by all involved.
- Right to have fun through sport.

#### PARENTS' ROLE

Parents of student-athletes must assume some responsibilities associated with their participation on a sport team. Coakley (2014) and Sage and Eitzen (2012) indicated there are ten key responsibilities of parents. These responsibilities should be clearly outlined to the parent by the coach.

#### They are:

- Encourage sport participation, do not pressure and allow the student-athlete to choose whether to play or not play.
- Understand why the student-athlete wants to participant and then support him/her in the participation.
- Establish limits of sport participation and those limits should be based on the student-athlete's emotional and physical abilities.
- Ensure that the sport environment is safe for participation and the coach is qualified to provide guidance through the sport experience.
- Assist in teaching the student-athlete how to win and loss.
- Encourage the student-athlete to work with the coach to establish realistic performance goals and to be a team player.
- Let the coach do the coaching and support the coach in his/her decisions.
- Support the coach when the student-athlete is disciplined.
- Assist the student-athlete to understand the value of sport teaching some very important lessons for future life.
- Volunteer your assistance to the coach and team when requested.

Parents should also be sensitive to fulfill the commitment they and their student-athlete have made to the team. This often requires that parents displace other important tasks in order to get their student-athlete to practice on time, publicly support the coach, encourage all the players (opposing team as well) to give their best effort, reward players for desirable efforts, and participate in the social events of the team. Finally, if called upon, parents should be willing to assist the coach to carry out some of the many tasks required to meet the needs of the team. The coach, should anticipate and identify tasks that he/she will need assistance with, these should be presented to the parents at the orientation meeting.

It is surprising how many parents will volunteer to help if the tasks are well-defined. The coach may not be able to anticipate all the tasks. However, by developing an expectation of shared cooperation at the orientation meeting, parents who are not initially called upon for assistance are more likely to provide help as the need arises.

Sometimes parents falsely assuming the responsibility as coach. They may attempt to direct the play of the athletes during practices and games. This type of action by a parent can and does undermine the coach's plans for the team. It may also create a conflict in the mind of the athlete as to which set of instructions to follow. The coach must stop this type of parent involvement immediately. The coach must inform parents that their public comments should be limited to praise and applause and that he/she will be prepared to coach the team. There are many ways to coach student-athletes and different strategies that can result in success. The coach should inform parents that, if they disagree with the coaching, he/she will be open to their suggestions when they are presented in private.

According to Sawyer and Gimbert (2014), many of the not-forprofit youth sport organizations in America subscribe the following parent "code of conduct":

# agree wil...

- Not force my student-athlete to participate in sports.
- Remember that student-athletes participate to have FUN and that the game is for them not me.
- Inform the coach of any physical disability or aliment that may affect the safety of my student-athlete or the safety of others.
- Remain in the spectator area during games.
- Not advise the coach on how to coach.
- Learn the rules of the sport and the policies of the league.
- Be a positive role model and encourage good sportsmanship.
- Not make derogatory comments to coaches or officials.
- Never ridicule or yell at my student-athlete or other participant for making a mistake or losing a competition.
- Always praise my student-athlete or other participant for a good play.
- Not try to coach my student-athlete during the contest.
- Never question, discuss, or confront coaches at the game field, and will take time to speak to coaches at an agreed upon time and place.
- Emphasize skill development and practices and how they benefit my student-athlete over winning.
- Promote the emotional and physical well-being of the athletes ahead of any personal desire I may have for my student-athlete to win.
- Not drink alcohol at contests or come to a contests having drunk too much.
- Demand a sports environment for my student-athlete that is free from drugs, tobacco, and alcohol.
- Show interest, enthusiasm, and support for your student-athlete.
- Be in control of my emotions.
- Teach my student-athlete that doing one's best is more important than winning, so that my student-athlete will never feel defeated by the outcome of a game or his/her performance.
- Praise my student-athlete for competing fairly and trying hard, and make my student-athlete feel like a winner every time.
- Assist when asked by coaches or officials.
- Thank coaches, officials, and other volunteers who conducted the event.
- Finally, I agree that if I fail to abide by the aforementioned code, I will be subject to disciplinary action that could include, but is not limited to the following:
  - Verbal warning by official, head coach, athletic director, and/or principal
  - Written warning
  - Parental suspension with written documentation of incident kept on file by school
  - Parental season suspension

Finally, the word "parents" represents the following:

P = Praising, A = Accepting, R = Respectful, E = Encouraging, N = Nurturing, T = Teaching, and S = Supporting.

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# HIGH SCHOOL ACADEMIC STANDARDS: Why a Minimum GPA is Important

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#### **Introduction**

The challenges faced by student—athletes are a growing concern in today's society. Beyond heightened academic requirements, student—athletes face a multitude of tasks including weight training, practice, film review, and travel for competition. This makes the student life very complex. As a result, to assist all students, states have adopted the Common Core (Common Core State Standard Initative, 2010) in attempt to level the educational field, prepare students for college rigor and their chosen career field. Meanwhile, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) has also increased its initial eligibility rules to insure its incoming student—athletes are ready for college rigor and athletic participation (NCAA, 2014). However, the state and NCAA academic requirements are different, specifically when referring to GPA requirements. As a result, this leaves the student—athlete potentially unprepared for the academic rigors and challenges that lie ahead in college.

Venezia and Jaeger (2013) noted that "many studies over the past ten years have documented the disconnect between what high school teachers teach and what postsecondary instructors expect with regard to students' preparation for first-year credit-bearing courses in college" (p. 119). Therefore, the Common Core was developed to assist high school students in preparing for their future careers and to help prepare students for college rigor (Common Core State Standard Initiative, 2015). At the time of this study 43 states in the United States had adopted the Common Core as their curriculum standard (Common Core State Standard Initiative, 2015; Stewart, 2012; Ujifusa, 2014). Yet, even with the additional academic standards placed on high schools with the Common Core, the interscholastic-level athletic eligibility and graduation requirements still do not meet the GPA initial eligibility requirements deemed necessary by the NCAA for success in college. Student–athletes wishing to participate at the Division I level must earn a combined SAT or ACT sum score that matches the core course grade-point average and test-score sliding scale (NCAA, 2015a). The minimum sliding scale GPA that can be earned is a 2.0. Although the Common Core assists in the completion with rigor of some required courses deemed necessary by the NCAA, it does not mandate a GPA requirement. This means that those student–athletes that wish to move into the college arena are potentially not meeting the incoming NCAA academic requirements and left unprepared for the rigor of college academics.

#### PURPOSE OF STUDY

The purpose of this study was to provide a thorough analysis of the 50 state high school activity/athletic associations' interscholastic academic requirements compared to the NCAA Division I (DI) initial eligibility GPA standard. This comparison determined whether a true academic preparation gap regarding GPA requirements exist between the interscholastic and intercollegiate level.

#### **METHODOLOGY**

This research was conducted as a qualitative study by performing a document analysis. Documents from each of the 50 United States were obtained from the official state athletic associations online. Like the states, the NCAA Division I initial eligibility academic requirements were accessed through the online handbook. The GPA requirements were compared to determine if there was a difference in GPA requirements for athletic participation.

#### **RESULTS**

Findings from the 2014 GPA study. The research showed that only seven of the 50 states (14%) had a GPA requirement to be eligible for play. These states included Alaska, Arkansas, California, Florida, Nevada, New Mexico, and Utah. Although the specific GPA number was not analyzed, it should be noted that all states with a GPA requirement declared a 2.0 minimum GPA.

When specifically looking at the seven states that required a GPA minimum, four of the seven states (57.1%) mentioned that the GPA minimum had to be accumulated in the previous semesters. The remaining three of the seven states (42.8%) allowed the students to use the minimum GPA in the previous grading period alone. In addition,

two of the seven states (28.5%) stated that the student may not accumulate more than one "F" when he or she obtained the minimum GPA in the previous semester or grading period. Although the GPA requirement details were not analyzed, the NCAA's minimum allowable GPA for core courses is a 2.0. Therefore, the states that have declared a GPA requirement are in line with the NCAA initial eligibility requirements specifically regarding the minimum GPA.

Findings from the 1995 GPA study. When analyzing data from the Sawyer (1995) study, a total of six out of 50 states (12%) required their student—athletes to complete a minimum GPA to be eligible for play. The full range of minimum GPA's among the states ranged from 1.5 to 2.0. It should be noted that the state of Florida required students to "comply with the minimum grade point average required by the state statute during the immediately preceding school year" (Florida High School Activities Association, 2014, p. 28). Even though the state did not mention a minimum GPA number, the state is still counted in the data. The purpose of this study is not to analyze the GPA number minimum, but the presence of the requirement.

Findings from the 2014/1995 comparison. When comparing the 1995 and 2014 state GPA statistics, in 1995 six states (12%) required a minimum GPA compared to the seven states (14%) that required a minimum GPA in 2014. This is a 2% increase in the number of states that required a minimum GPA. All of the states that required a GPA minimum during 1995 still required a GPA minimum in 2014 excluding West Virginia that elected to remove their GPA requirement. Between 1995 and 2014, Louisiana and Arkansas increased their GPA requirements to a 2.0 minimum. In addition, two states, Utah and Nevada, added the minimum GPA requirement to their academic requirements by 2014. The remaining 42 states (84%) experienced no change in their

academic requirement regarding a minimum GPA. The average GPA requirement in 1995 was 1.82. The average GPA requirement in 2014 was 2.0. This is a 0.18% increase from 1995 to 2014.

From 1995 to 2014 the NCAA experienced no change in its minimum GPA. During 1995 the NCAA required that student-athletes earn a minimum 2.0 cumulative GPA. However, by 2014 the NCAA declared that student-athletes must earn a minimum of a 2.0 GPA within their core classes. Although the GPA minimum did not change, how the GPA is calculated was changed. As a result, student-athletes' GPAs should be reviewed to see the classes that are composing their GPA. Students need to be sure that they are doing well in their core courses rather than looking at their GPA as a whole. Even though the NCAA did not experience an increase in their minimum GPA requirement, the interscholastic level did experience an increased in the number of states requiring a minimum GPA.

Based on this data, it can be concluded that between 1995 and 2014 the NCAA had not increased its GPA requirement although the new requirements for calculation of the GPA may impact the eligibility of some students. However, only six states required a GPA for eligibility in 1995, and only seven states required a GPA for eligibility in 2014. Five of the states that had the GPA requirement in 1995 were still among the same states that had a GPA requirement in 2014. This means that the states have only experienced a 2% increase in the number of states requiring a GPA for eligibility. As a result, there is a difference in the 2014 NCAA initial eligibility standards regarding a GPA requirement compared to the GPA requirement within the 50 United States.

#### **DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

NCAA Division I presides over 350 institutions of higher education and a large body of students (over 170,000 athletes) that hold their student–athletes to high academic expectations upon entering college and throughout their time within athletics (NCAA, 2015b). It is stated in numerous ways by the intercollegiate level that students at the interscholastic level in general are coming into college not fully prepared for the academic rigors facing them (Jolly, 2008). Therefore, understanding the current interscholastic academic standards provides a key indicator of the academic preparation happening at that level. The preparation of these students is imperative to their success at the intercollegiate level and within the DI parameters.

The presence of a GPA requirement at the interscholastic level does not simply exist to show a correlation in academic requirements between the interscholastic and intercollegiate level, it further compliments the educational performance both levels are attempting to achieve. The presence of a GPA requirement compliments the Common Core by insuring that students meet a certain level of academic rigor. The Common Core provides the standards for the material that should be covered but not the cognitive proficiency level that should be demonstrated by each student as they progress through each school year. The presence of a GPA requirement holds students accountable to meeting the proficiency levels outlined by the Common Core. Allison et al. (2007) suggested the presence of a minimum GPA to provide a clear academic efficiency level student's must meet. As a result, the students increase their academic performance and potentially increase graduation grades, standardized test scores, and enhance their opportunities for higher education. Further, Allison et al. (2007) indicated this assists in meeting the desired increase in academic success across all educational levels (pp. 8-9). In addition, Allison et al. (2007) explained that interscholastic athletics is seen as a better route to life by the youth (pp. 11). By increasing the interscholastic academic requirements for eligibility, better life routes through academics and athletics will be revealed to the youth (Allison et al., 2007). By not challenging high school students academically, they may not recognize their academic abilities (Allison et al., 2007). Therefore, states that have minimal to non-existent academic requirements are allowing "all of these critical scholastic eligibility questions to be answered by local schools and school districts which affords the opportunity to have a great deal of inconsistency in the academic eligibility standards within these states" (Allison et al., 2007, pp. 11).

Dewey makes it clear that the student and curriculum are a conjoined unit, not separate units that should be thought about individually (Kliebard, 1995). Therefore, by placing a GPA requirement in policies for athletic eligibility at the interscholastic level we are insuring that students are progressing through the academic proficiency levels embraced by that the Common Core and building the sound academic foundation needed to successful in career or college opportunities. This assists the students in not only meeting the desired academic performance within the high school but further prepares athletes for college athletics. A minimum GPA requirement is not just the implementation of another academic requirement, but a standard to build the academic skills students need for future success.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

The presence of a minimum GPA would help bring the interscholastic and intercollegiate academic requirements into alignment. Based on the data in this study, the presence of a GPA requirement is the scarcest state academic requirement for eligibility. The data shows that currently only 14% of the states impose a GPA requirement, leaving a very big difference in the state and NCAA initial eligibility requirements. Therefore, by setting a GPA standard for eligibility, states would come into a better alignment with the NCAA. However, states that specifically set their GPA minimum to a 2.0 would put their athletes in the best stance to meet the minimum GPA for NCAA initial eligibility standards.

#### **CONCLUSION**

It is stated in numerous ways by the intercollegiate level that students in general are coming into college not fully prepared for the academic rigors they will be faced with (Jolly, 2008). Therefore, it is imperative that policy makers understand the tie between athletics and academics, and how these conjoining units work together in the development of students. The placement of additional academic requirements at the interscholastic level is not to simply make the interscholastic and intercollegiate level academic requirements comparable but to increase the academic performance of our students as a whole. Therefore, it is up to the interscholastic policy makers to further educate themselves on the additional benefits of increased academic requirements and motivate academic change within the athletic arena.

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## LEADERSHIP STYLES IN COACHING: FINDING THE RIGHT BALANCE

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#### **ABSTRACT**

A coach is a significant leader in an athlete's sport experiences. The ways in which a coach interacts with an athlete can greatly affect the athlete's personal experience with sport. Coaches have the freedom to adopt their own coaching style, and thus they should consider the potential positive and negative aspects of different leadership styles they may consider, and ultimately use. Previous research indicates that qualities of a cooperative coaching style can lead to higher desire levels within athletes, as well as prompt greater participation and continuation in sport. The purpose of this article is to discuss leadership styles in coaching. This information on leadership styles can be helpful for coaches who are developing and/or continually refining their own style of leading athletes.

*Keywords: Coaching style, cooperative, sport experience* 

#### **INTRODUCTION**

While lessons learned in English, history, math, and science are significant, the teachable moments and lessons learned on the pitch, playing fields, swimming pools, throwing rings, tracks, and gymnasia of our schools in terms of delayed gratification, discipline, perseverance, time management, and team work are also vital to the overall growth of each participating student.-athlete (Judge & Gilreath, 2009). Clearly, participation in sport plays a big role in the educational process and a means to promote learning. In the eyes of an athlete, an effective coach is someone to admire, gratify, and imitate. Essentially, a coach is a role model and leader presented with an opportunity to set a benchmark for the athlete's past, current and future sporting experiences. Related to this process, many individuals elect to become a coach because of their understanding of the value of participation in athletics, their previous experiences as an athlete, and because of their experiences with their own previous coaches. These past experiences with his or her previous coaches often prompt a novice coach to highly resemble their most influential former coaches when leading his or her current athletes. This role of mentor identification, in turn, contributes to the development of schools of common thought, otherwise known within sport contexts as 'Coaching Trees.' In short, while each coach will have his or her own distinct coaching style, there is a commonality in how previous experiences shape the leadership orientation of most coaches, as well as influence the sporting experiences of each subsequent generation of athletes. In short, leadership style in coaching matters a great deal in contemporary sport.

According to Merten (2008), the three most widely used coaching orientations are command, submissive and cooperative styles (p. 8). Merten details that in the cooperative coaching style, an adult leader/coach and a youth establish a set of goals together as an interdependent team (p. 2). They then set forth to work together toward meeting these established goals. In contrast to a cooperative coaching style, command coaching relies upon a more authoritarian approach rather than a concerted, flexible, one. The coach in the command leadership style, in a sense, more clearly oversees all aspects of training and competition according to his own ideal rather than an ideal set between the coach and his or her players. Submissive coaching represents a marked contrast to command coaching; the team members make the decisions and the coach holds little authority in this orientation to leading athletes and teams. Despite the varying styles of coaching, cooperative coaching tends to employ a more positive communication style by the coach and healthier relationships between the coaches and athletes, which seems to be a favorable outcome, particularly as it relates to fostering long term participation in sport and lifelong adherence to regular physical activity.

Lockwood (2008) writes that too many coaches at the high school level and above tend to rely primarily upon authoritarian or command coaching methods, utilizing a style of direct instruction and the expectation that the player or players execute the given instruction in a highly task-specific fashion. Because of its direct and targeted nature, command coaching is generally viewed as a negative coaching style that contributes to the erosion longitudinally of player participation in a sport. Further describing negative consequences of an authoritarian leadership approach, McPartlin (2010) writes that the command coaching style, heavily reliant upon negative instruction and/or reinforcement, often hinders the players' performance because they tend have a higher anxiety levels about pleasing the coach, less enjoyment of the sport, and a less chance of improved overall sport-specific skill over time. McPartlin also states that a coach's language and presentation of attitude can have positive and negative effects on athletes. Words and non-verbal communication can encourage athletes, or they can create barriers that hinder trust, performance and communication between the coach and player or throughout the team. For these reasons, having a positive, cooperative coaching style and leadership philosophy becomes crucial to coaching effectively. More widespread exhibition of a cooperative coaching style would likely result in more athletes remaining engaged in a sport for longer periods, as well as lessen the number of athletes who withdraw from the sport due to frustration with a given coach's leadership style. The purpose of this article is to discuss leadership styles in coaching. This paper briefly describes recent literature on coaching styles within the sport science (coaching) literature, reporting it for the practitioner in the field.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

Recent sport science (coaching) literature shows that cooperative style coaching is necessary for athlete development (Thompson, 2003). Denison (2011), details that the term cooperative coaching has a long history in sport psychology and coach education literature, and has been researched extensively using a variety of scientific approaches. According to McPartlin (2010), a cooperative coach teaches his players to care for one another, honor the game, and understand that the sporting experience is all about encouraging one another to become better individuals and players. McPartlin (2011) also writes that the cooperative coach primarily emphasizes effort and learning, thus, the players tend to much less fear making mistakes, as well as typically displaying have higher levels of confidence and self-efficacy.

In earlier research by Weinberg and Gould (2003), authors identify the six steps to cooperative coaching as:

- 1. Provision of successful experiences,
- 2. Delivery of rewards on performance,
- 3. Usage of verbal and nonverbal praise,
- 4. Variance of content and sequence of practice drills,
- 5. Involvement with participants in decision making, and
- 6. Establishment of realistic performance goals.

According to McPartlin, these steps are among several ways that a coach can be positive and promote higher intrinsic motivation levels within his or her athletes, thus leading to overall better team cohesion. In analyzing the six steps to cooperative coaching, McPartlin further explains that a coach can be assured that by following the six steps for cooperative coaching, he or she will have a positive effect on numerous aspects of his or her team, such as: lesser pre-competitive anxiety, more favorable athletes' perception of the coach, more desirable power of the words a coach uses, and stronger relationship to win-loss success. In contrast, McPartlin emphasizes that athletes who do not receive enough social support or positive reinforcement tend to exhibit higher sport-related stress, lesser enjoyment of sport pursuits, and increased risk of athletic injury.

Cooperative coaching and its benefits to the overall well-being of an athlete draw light to its value in the outcomes the coach is trying to elicit among his or her athletes. Coaches should therefore unquestionably be trained formally on the foundational tenets of a cooperative coaching style and then to regularly engage in its practice. The backbone of cooperative coaching begins with the principle that coaches are educators of life skills, in addition to instructors of proper performance. An example widely known of this principle is John Wooden's Pyramid of Success, which details philosophical building blocks for succeeding in basketball and in life (2009). Trottier (2014) writes that to teach life skills, coaches must adopt a coaching philosophy that emphasizes first and foremost the development of the person within a life skills development process. As a result, the development of a coaching philosophy presents a force and reason for cooperative coaching. Denison (2011) explains that for coaches to become a positive force for the development of ethical, healthy, and developmentally appropriate coaching practices, they need to consider how their problem-solving strategies have been formed, not in direct response to some objective and indisputable reality, but through the complex interplay of history, traditions, and subjective interpretations of what constitutes a problem and what seems to work. In addition, Denison explains, that for coaches to become a positive force for the development of ethical coaching practices, they must continually examine and reflect upon their problem-solving approaches, and the effects this has upon not only their beliefs but also upon how to coach most effectively.

It takes time, then, for one through this process of continual examination and reflection to become an effective cooperative coach. Denison (2011) deepens this argument by explaining that effective coaching should not be seen as a stage of development or a point to reach after a set period of time; it should not follow a number of specific experiences, even if those experiences include guiding a team to a world championship or coaching an Olympic gold medalist. Rather, effective cooperative coaching should be a never-ending process of learn-

ing, discovery, and self-transformation. To get to their optimal level, then, coaches must continue to explore and develop different problem-solving strategies and effective methods to reinforce the desired behaviors and sport-specific outcomes within their athletes. According to McPartlin (2010), most researchers suggest that 80 percent to 90 percent of feedback given to athletes should be through forms of positive reinforcement, in order to truly improve behavior deemed deficit. Positive reinforcement certainly may be delivered verbally through the instructions and feedback coaches regularly provide their athletes, but it also comes in the form of being a coach who conveys a high degree of personal character and integrity, cares for his athletes, and avoids using punishment to reinforce lessons during training or competition. McPartlin states that when negative reinforcement is used, it not only adversely affects an athlete's enjoyment of the sport, but team cohesion and overall success as well.

Fundamentally, cooperative coaching is a form of, and relates directly with, positive psychology. By definition, positive psychology is the study of the conditions and processes that contribute to the flourishing or optimal functioning of people, groups, and institutions (Linley, 2007). Perspectives on the integration of positive psychology and coaching psychology, proposed by Linley and Harrington (2005) identified three primary reasons as to why positive psychology and coaching psychology 'fit.' First, they are both concerned with the enhancement of performance and wellbeing. To elaborate, coaching may have no equal among professions when it comes to the purpose of stimulating performance, and it also typically places a high premium on prompting well-being among participants. Second, they focus on the positive attributes of human nature, and thus, to an extent, have challenged practitioners to think about their fundamental assumptions about human nature. Coaches who employ this tenet, for example, might tend to frame opponents on the season schedule as "noble others", capable of bringing out the best in the performance in their own athletes and teams during the heat of competition, rather than "adversaries" who their athletes and teams must relinquish in "battle". Third, when done effectively, both positive psychology and coaching attend to people's strengths and what they do well (Linley, 2007). Coaches who rely on this principle, then, tend to focus on the positives of an athlete's or team's capacities, rather than dwelling on the things that they cannot do well.

#### PRACTICAL APPLICATION

From the perspective of the athlete (player) and his or her overall athlete development, feedback from the coach is highly important because it is one way in which the player is made aware (educated) of his or her strengths and weaknesses. Feedback on the athlete's movement behavior can be offered in one of two ways: negatively or positively. As a result, negative feedback is associated with negative reinforcement whereas positive reinforcement is associated with positive feedback. Lockwood (2008) states that general positive feedback can be used to support the effort of athletes and create a positive learning climate. Positive performance feedback, in contrast, can be used to provide specific information about what was done appropriately. Lockwood additionally notes that positive feedback is prescriptive, meaning that this feedback provides valuable information to an athlete regarding how to correct movement faults and ultimately improve performance. Moreover, it is important that coaches use a variety of positive and prescriptive verbal cues to communicate information to young athletes in a way that allows them to be receptive, rather than defensive, thus creating a positive learning experience. Overall, positive performance feedback leads to an increased chance of success in training and competition. Research indicates that implementing an environment which supports a youth's personal success is associated with a variety of positive performance outcome measures, including increased effort and intrinsic motivation.

For young athletes, in particular, the coach is one of the most prominent role models in the athlete's life, particularly at the time of their sport participation. Coaches, athletes, and parents should be aware of a coach's style and how it may have a positive or negative impact on the athlete's experience in sport, as well as on their overall development (not only physically but mentally, emotionally, socially, etc.). McPartlin (2010) states that today, more than ever, it is important for coaches to be a positive role model for athletes who are growing up in society, and for coaches to employ affirmative teaching methods in practice and games. To illustrate, research done by Smith, Smoll, and Gurtis (1979) demonstrated that athletes who play for positive oriented coaches clearly like their teammates better, enjoy their athletic experience more, like their coaches more, and experience greater team cohesion. Moreover, McPartlin's article noted that empirical studies suggests that since a relationship exists in sports between coaching behaviors and athlete emotions , a cooperative coach who provides social support may better provide a buffer to the anxiety an athlete might feel in practice and competitive situations.

Practically speaking, coaches must be relatable to their athletes, given that they are teaching life skills in addition to sport-specific skills. The best teacher is one who can relate well common instances in life, in ways that the students find meaningful. Trottier (2014) states that when teaching life skills, it is important for coaches to account for the specific culture and subculture of the sport, the coaching environment, the demands of the sport, the characteristics of the athletes, and their own personal values when making connections between events encountered in a sport-specific context and life on the whole. As a result,"relatability" between the coach and the athlete enhances the athlete's overall experience, as the coach essentially serves as the mediator between the athlete and what the athlete experiences within the sport. Dworkin and Larson (2006) state that sports are typically beneficial experiences, but can also have potentially harmful consequences, such as when athletes encounter negative interactions with peers, favoritism by coaches, performance anxiety, and high stakes, stress events; each of these variables can influence the particular experience of the young athlete. Thus, it stands to reason that the coach has the greatest single influence on this experience. In fact, according to Trottier, it is recognized that the coach is a particularly key agent for learning healthy socialization behaviors during the period of adolescence. Current research pertaining to both command and cooperative coaching styles demonstrates that cooperative coaching styles better predict the athlete's experience and, eventually, the coach's interest in a given sport. It can be concluded through a review of recent sport science literature that a cooperative coaching style leads to higher measures of intrinsic motivation development and desire to continue with a sport. As stated by Horn (2001), coaches who provide higher levels of instruction during training (in contrast, for example, to more instruction) are likely to be associated with increased perceived competence and intrinsic motivation within the athletes. Conversely, coaches who consistently ignore athletes' attempts at improved performance provide no, or possibly even negative competence, information to these athletes. This, in turn, tends to have a negative impact on the athletes' level of intrinsic motivation, which, in particular, is the driving force behind one's ability to provide leadership in group sport contexts.

It is possible that other coaching behaviors, or factors directly under the control of the coach, may also impact his or her athletes' levels of intrinsic motivation (Horn, 2001). According to Turman (2001), a number of researchers have addressed the impact success has on athletes' perceptions of and preferences for their coaches' leadership styles: this author also notes that behaviors such as the coach's leadership style and feedback patterns are highly important influences on shaping athletes' perceptions of the coach's effectiveness. To illustrate more fully, one particularly important aspect associated with the process of establishing effective leadership is the impact time spent together has on the relationship that develops between leaders and their subordinates, as subordinates tend to possess higher perceptions of leader effectiveness when they believe their leader is accessible Each of these coaching behaviors have the capacity to influence the experiences of athletes (either positively or negatively), as well as the development of coaching trees when these athletes themselves elevate into coaching positions.

#### Conclusion

In closing, the leadership style of a previous coach or coaches is the prime component in the development of a coach who relies primarily on cooperative leadership methods; this process begins historically, and transforms through a chain of previous cooperative coaching experiences (e.g., a coaching tree). So, again, the main component to an athlete's (and, essentially a coach's) development as a competitor and overall person, starts with a cooperative coach. Although every coach will have his or her own distinct and unique style of coaching, each coach will need to resemble the qualities of a cooperative coach in order to be most successful, in the short and long terms. Essentially, a coach is a role model, leader, and powerful figure that every athlete may strive to emulate. As a cooperative style coach, one should strive to mold athletes who could potentially go on to become cooperative style coaches themselves.

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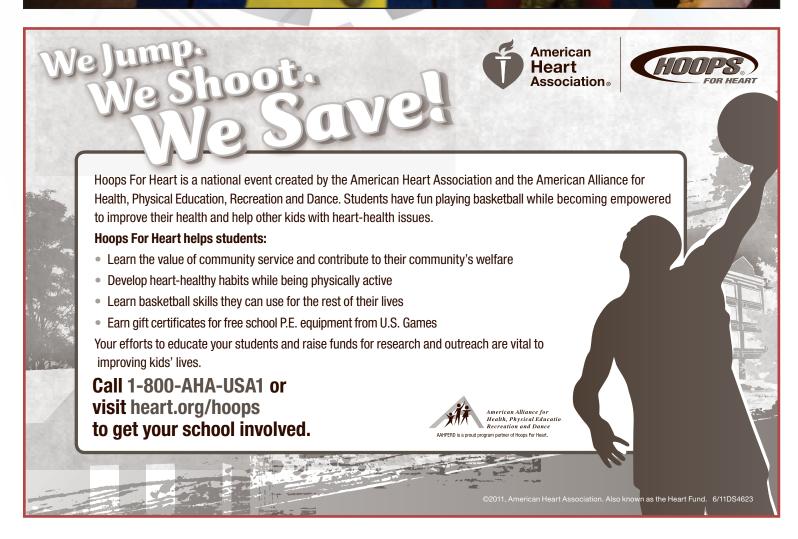
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# PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGH SCHOOL FOOTBALL PLAYERS

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#### **ABSTRACT**

The most important component of any training program for athletes is a valid and reliable testing battery. Tests chosen should match the demands of the sport the athlete is participating in, and be routinely repeated to measure progress and the effectiveness of the program. The physical performance characteristics of American collegiate football players were described in 1991 and 2007. Indirectly, studies like these and others have increased the number of high school athletes participating in strength and conditioning programs. However, to date data has not been published regarding upper, lower body strength and lower body power using a large group of high school football athletes. The purpose of this investigation was to determine the strength and power capabilities of high school aged football players training year round under the supervision of experienced strength coaches. Testing data was analyzed over a five-year period. The best 1 RM bench press, back squat, deadlift, incline press and vertical jump, for each athlete, within each year were analyzed. Established testing protocols were strictly followed for each measurement.

Keywords: High school, football, performance testing

The physical performance characteristics of American collegiate football players were described from a collection of 981 athletes at 40 NCAA Division I schools in 1990 (Fry & Kraemer, 1991). A follow-up study in 2004 of 797 athletes at 37 NCAA Division 1 institutions revealed significant differences among 50 of the 88 variables examined (Secora, Latin, Berg, & Noble, 2004). Moreover, size, strength, and power characteristics were related to position and level of play with starters and players of Division I or top-ranked teams exhibiting superior performance. One of the proposed elements suspected to account for the differences in these studies is the impact of high school strength and conditioning programs (Secora et. al, 2004). In fact, Williford et al. (1994) concluded that high school players had similar strength values to previously tested college athletes.

An increasing number of high school football players have followed the lead of college athletes and participate in strength and conditioning programs in hopes of earning a college scholarship. However despite the obvious differences in maturation and training experience, no comprehensive description of the physiological attributes of high school football players exists. Based on the limited information available on high school football athletes, it has been confirmed that physical attributes, such as size, strength, and power are also important determinants of performance at this level of play (ref).

In a related study, Baker (2002) characterized rugby players from high school to professional status and also reported that strength and power measures were related to achievement level. As expected, body mass was higher in the older and more experienced athletes, however, there was no difference among the 3 high school groups. Interestingly, relative strength (strength per kilogram of body mass) also increased with age, indicating that beyond growth and maturation, strength training was also responsible for the improved physical qualities. Moreover, compared to nonresistance-trained players, resistance-trained high school athletes were stronger.

Consequently, characterizing high school athletes could help coaches focus on variables that are important for football performance and should be addressed based on the specific needs of players with mixed hormonal/maturation levels and playing experience. In addition, gathering information about this group of athletes can assist in selecting and preparing these players for higher levels of competition.

Therefore, the aim of this study was to collect data about the physiological characteristics of a large sample of high school players that may play an important role in football success.

#### **METHODS**

Over the course of five years at three high schools hundreds football athletes were routinely tested on various performance parameters by two National Strength and Conditioning Association (NSCA) Certified Strength and Conditioning Specialists (CSCS). Tests were conducted in the weightrooms and gymnasiums, and on the fields of the various high schools. Data were collected on grades 9-12 for the following measurements: a) strength-bench press, back squat, deadlift, and incline press; b.) power- power clean and vertical jump; c) speed- 36.6 meter (m) sprint, and d) change of direction speed- T-test. While players were often tested more than once during the year (post-season, off-season, and pre-season) only the highest value achieved during the year (July1- June 30) was used for analysis.

All strength tests were administered using the NSCA recommended warm-up protocol (Baechle, 2006) prior to a one-repetition max (1RM). Strength testing was scheduled to include only one of the tests per day, and separated by a day when examining similar areas of the body (ie. back squat and deadlift) to limit the effects of fatigue. Power clean was also tested using the same protocol. Vertical jump testing was completed following a warm-up that included various exercises targeting the lower body. Athletes were allowed three jumps following the measurement of their standing reach height. All tests utilized the Vertec measurement system. Due to limited access to outdoor facilities and inclement weather fewer tests of speed and agility were conducted. Two or three trials were used for the 36.6 meter sprint and T-test (Pauole, Madole, Garhammer, Lacourse, & Rozenek, 2000).

SPSS was used to determine mean and standard deviation values for each tested item. The results were also further analyzed by grade level (9-12) using a one-way ANOVA. Significant differences were then examined using post hoc analysis and using a Bonferroni correction. It was also possible to describe longitudinal trends in performance across grade levels for a sub-sample of athletes who were tested each year in most if not all of the tests in the battery. Significance level was set at 0.05.

#### RESULTS

Table 1 shows the strength measurements for players in grades 9-12. The data is presented as descriptive in nature due to unequal samples sizes between grades. However, the differences in mean values indicate very similar values between the back squat and deadlift across grades and overall. An approximately 20% difference between bench press and incline press scores

is also noted.

*Table 2* shows the speed, power, and change of direction speed (CODS) values for players in grades 9-12. These measurements are also descriptive due to un-equal samples.

Table 3 shows the relative strength and power measurements for bench press, back squat, deadlift and power clean. Descriptive statistics indicate relative strength values greater than 1 for bench press and greater than 1.5 for squat and deadlift.

#### **DISCUSSION**

The purpose of this study was to determine the performance characteristics of a large sample of high school football players with the goal of comparing the results to a small sample (n=18) of state championship winning players (Williford et. al, 1994). Two general comparisons can be completed. The first comparison is the examination any differences in bench press, squat, 36.6 m sprint, and vertical jump greater than ten years following the data reported by Williford et. al (1994). The second comparison is one between starters on a championship caliber team from Alabama and a large group

of football players from schools from a single north-central county in West Virginia. In addition, alternative strength measurements (incline press and deadlift), are presented for the first time in this population of football ath-

letes. Power (vertical jump and power clean), and CODS (T-test) results are also presented for the first time.

The teams tested for from this study compare favorably to the smaller sample of starting players who were described as "successful high school football players" (Williford, p. 859, 1994). Our sample is also from three successful high schools. Each made the playoffs (only the top 16 by class) during the years the testing was completed and one won the state championship in three out of five years. The significant difference is the size of the populations being tested. Our sample represents a much broader view of a high school football program including freshman, and junior varsity playing athletes as well as non-starters at the varsity level. Due to this more heterogeneous sample it is not too surprising that the bench press and squat values are 34.13 kg and 37.65 kg lower, respectively. Interestingly, the 36.6m sprint and vertical jump measurements

are much closer. The average 36.6m sprint was 0.4 seconds slower, and the vertical jump was on 1.71 cm less in our athletes. Also of interest was the comparison of the area from which the state demographics from which the athletes resided.

Historically, the state of West Virginia has not produced a large number of division 1 players. In fact, during final year this data was collected West Virginia produced only 15 division 1 players including four from the three schools tested for this data. During a similar time the state of Alabama produced more than 200 division 1 players. This disparity is startling, but it appears the strength and conditioning programs at these three programs are adequately preparing the small percentage of division 1 prospects while they are still in high school to

physically match-up with athletes from Williford's sample from Alabama. In a larger sample but unreferenced (Hoffman, 2006) table of high school football players percentiles were determined for bench press, squat, and power

clean. When comparing the results from our population the mean bench press value for the 9th and 10th grades falls at the 55th percentile, while the mean for 11th and 12th graders is just above the 60th percentile. The squat mean values were between the 40th (9-10th) and 55th (11-12th) percentiles.

Grade	Bench Press (kg)	Back Squat	Deadlift (kg)	Incline Press (kg)
Mean <u>±</u> S.D.	70.50±21.19	112.42 ± 27.20	107.37 ± 31.90	52.77±14.09
	64	58	41	9
Mean±S.D.	92.60±17.22	140.71±30.66	141.56 ± 28.90	74.81 ± 13.37
	58	45	28	12
Mean±S.D.	103.88 ± 24.15	156.56±32.50	150.76±30.07	85.71 ± 13.17
	72	44	33	14
Mean±S.D.	103.48 ± 19.64	159.09 ± 30.02	155.99±29.93	83.58±12.70
N	32	14	11	9
Mean±S.D.	91.47±24.75	136.45±35.35	133.25±36.15	75.57±17.92
	::			
N	226	161	113	44

might be expected that similar magnitude of changes would have been seen with more suitable training facilities for year-round development. This study did not limit the data collected on the athletes to bench press, squat, 36.6m sprint and vertical jump. There are

alternatives to the strength measurements and characteristics of power and CODS have yet to be published in this population.

The 36.6 m speed means for our athletes

fell between the 20th (11-12th) and 30th

(9-10th) percentiles. In the training envi-

ronment available to each of the schools

it was very difficult to do dedicated sprint

work. Without access to track or field surfaces during the winter and spring

months, speed development was limited

to late off-season programming. Vertical

jump was the final variable with compar-

ative data with both Williford (1994) and

more recent samples (2006). The means

for this sample are equivalent to the 30th

percentile for 9th and 10th grades and

45th percentile for grades 11 and 12.

While the percentiles from this sample

were on the low end of the scale it was

encouraging that increases were made

seen across the high school careers of the

athletes on all variables except speed. It

Additional strength measurements were also included in the performance profile (Table 1). The incline bench press and deadlift have not be published for this population and are not frequently used to evaluate strength even though they are often used as primary multi-joint exercises in programming. Of interest from this investigation is the fact that the mean difference between the back squat and deadlift was less than 4kg. This will allow coaches to program with accurate 1RM numbers for both lifts, and if time does not allow to test both the 1RM's can be used interchangeably. This is not the case for bench press and incline bench press. The mean difference was nearly 16kg (82% of bench

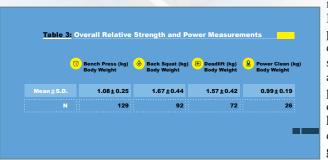
max) lower in the incline press. Again this allows for more accurate programming of intensity without having to test both lifts; and certain positions like offense and defensive line techniques are more similar to the incline bench press that the flat bench press.

Power was also tested using the power clean. Values for this test were

not reported by Williford (1994), but Hoffman (2006) offers unreferenced percentiles for high school football players. The power clean means from our sample were much lower (30th, 9-10th and 35th, 11-12th) related to the sample presented in Hoffman (2006). Each of the programs sampled for this study had just begun to regularly use the power clean to enhance performance in programming routines, and the initial focus was therefore on technique.

The last component of the battery administered to the population was the T-test. Data for this CODS has not been previously reported in high school football athletes. The most popular CODS test utilized at all levels





of football is the pro-agility (Ebben & Blackard, 2001). While neither of the tests ideally resembles football-specific movements, however, the T-test incorporates a variety of movements (sprint, side-shuffle, and back pedal) used by various positions on the field. The design of position-specific is needed to better evaluate football athletes at all level once these CODS tests are validated true agility tests including reaction would even further assess the requirements of each position. These elements of physical training are often secondary at the high school level due to time restraints and the requirement to increase an athlete's size and strength. Based on the development of both of these factors across grades, specific CODS and agility should be more significantly integrated into resistance training during appropriate phases of programming.

In addition to the absolute strength and power measurements, relative values were determined for the first time in this population. These values are more representative for this population due to the effect of maturation. When evaluating progress improvement, it must be discernible from natural growth and strength gains with maturation.

The importance of this data set is to further advance the quantity and quality of information available to coaches who are working with high school football players. Standards for comparison are very limited in competitive athletics and especially at the high school level. The goal for this investigation is to provide a greater sample-size and update the data that was available since the previous reports. There is a need for additional quality data collection and publication by current individuals responsible for testing and training high school football athletes. As more and younger athletes participate in weight training programs more frequent updates to the physical characteristics of high school football athletes will be needed.

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# Perceptions of Beneficial Behavior: The Impact of a Sport-Based Positive Youth Development Initiative

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#### **ABSTRACT**

Positive Youth Development (PYD) refers to the practical means of guiding psychosocial maturity in children and adolescents through the reinforcement of life skills (Wilson, Liu, Kermer, Zumbo, & Beaychamp, 2012). Implementation of PYD in youth-centric programs like after-school programs and youth sports has seen gains in children's life skills such as empathy-related responding, pro-social behavior, and peer acceptance. The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of a 10-week positive youth development curriculum that had been infused into a youth dance academy with eighteen girls aged six to fifteen in a Midwest U.S. town. Specifically, the researchers explored dancers' ratings of the climate created by coaches during the PYD program and the modeled behavior (i.e., teaching style) of the coaches over the course of the curriculum. Significant findings were not found for pre-post changes in climate or teaching; however, dancers reported increased discussion of PYD-related concepts within, and outside of, the sporting context.

Keywords: program climate, values-based curriculum, sport psychology, coaching

Positive Youth Development (PYD) refers to a practical means through which adolescents and children are reinforced with constructive psychosocial regimens founded upon theory, research, and public policy (Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, & Lerner, 2005). PYD offers a foundation for children to become pillars of beneficial social norms as they mature in life (Sherrod, 2007). As a result, participants of PYD based programs are shown to have improvements in social skills, interpersonal relations, and other proficiencies associated with positive growth (Gano-Overway et al., 2009; Weiss & Duncan, 1992). Fostering positive psychological and social maturation, through the internalization of specific concepts, is the crux of PYD and is accomplished positive adult interactions (Madsen, Hicks, & Thompson, 2011) and positive climate (Wright & Li, 2009).

First, positive adult interaction refers to how significant adults such as parents portray constructive behaviors to children and adolescents. Significant adults include nonfamily adults like teachers and coaches (Camire, Forneris, Trudel, & Bernard, 2011; Kunter et al., 2013). The constructive behaviors of significant adults can be seen in acceptance, support, and practice of constructive social norms (Leffert et al., 1998). These constructive behaviors also include: a) encouraging and reinforcing positive educational habits (Beachboard, Adkison, & Li, 2011), b) subtle cues of pro-social actions (Martinsson, Myrseth, & Wollbrant, 2012), and c) positive sportpersonship at sporting events (Arthur-Banning, Wells, Baker, & Hegreness, 2009). This beneficial conduct can curb the negative actions of children as practicing reinforced positive social norms can reduce risk behavior (Leffert et al., 1998).

Youth have a strong tendency to emulate behaviors of significant adults (Slavich & Zimbardo, 2012). As youth receive the benefits of positive adult interactions, they are more likely to perform construc-

tive behaviors for others (Avgitidou, 2001). Positive adult interactions are greatly influential in the transfer of PYD within youth programs (Camire et al., 2011; McDonough, Ullrich-French, Anderson-Butcher, Amorose & Riley, 2013; Whitley & Gould, 2010).

Secondly, the climate of a youth-focused program is an important component to PYD (Fraser-Thomas & Cote, 2009). Youth-focused programs are environments where children and adolescents can engage with other youth and practice reinforced behaviors (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Loncazk, & Hawkins, 2004). Interactions within youth-focused programs are not always efficacious, but the climate of a program can aid in developmental experiences (Fry et al., 2012). These developmental experiences encompass such ideas as youth feeling safe and supported (Perkins & Noam, 2007), feeling free to make mistakes and learn from them (Scales, Benson, Leffert, & Blyth, 2000), and implementing the emulated behaviors of significant adults (Vierimaa, Erickson, Cote, & Gilbert, 2012).

PYD-based curricula provide behavior and climate suggestions for implementing personnel that reinforce the growth of constructive psychosocial traits (Catalano et al., 2004; Perkins et al., 2007; Vierimaa et al., 2012). It is in the reinforcement of these psychosocial traits that PYD-based curricula have found a foothold in youth environments like after-school programs (Bailey, 2006), physical education (Morton, Keith, & Beauchamp, 2010), and youth sport programs (Sanford, Duncombe, & Armour, 2008; Weiss, Bolter, Bhalla, & Price, 2007), are arenas of maturation and established trademarks within the youth experience.

The effectiveness of PYD in youth-centric programs, like after-school programs and physical education classes, have been researched over the years but youth sport programs have garnered particular interest within recent literature (Flett, Gould, & Lauer, 2012;

Vierimaa et al., 2012). This may be due to youth sport programs, with a focus on PYD, offer more opportunities for fostering self-efficacy, pro-social behavior and personal and social responsibility in contrast to individuals participating in other extra-curricular activities such as music education or dramatic arts (Carreres Ponsoda et al., 2012; Harris & Witt, 2012).

Within youth sport organizations, the deliberate application of PYD concepts can be seen through the behaviors of significant shareholders and affective contexts (Wright & Li, 2009). Words of empowerment and constructive feedback from significant adults in PYD youth sport programs facilitate positive gains for youth athletes (McDonough et al., 2013). In a similar fashion, opportunities for skill building, active learning, psychological safety, and positive social norms are portions of affective contexts within PYD youth sport programs (Perkins et al., 2007). PYD youth sport programs develop beneficial psychosocial propensities in youth athletes due to beneficial behaviors of significant adults and affective contexts.

Attention to PYD concepts, regard for climates of youth sport, and cognizance of behaviors of significant adults in youth sports have been associated with such athletes' gains in psychosocial maturity as amelioration of declines in emotional well-being (Fry et al., 2012), fostering of positive mental well-being (Madsen et al., 2011) and increase in physical activity (Wright & Li, 2009). Further, PYD youth sport programs have been associated with promotion of pro-social behavior (Gano-overway et al., 2009), social responsibility (McDonough et al., 2013), and a sense of community (Carreres Ponsoda et al., 2012). These gains reflect the deliberate and purposeful application of PYD concepts in youth sport programs. Although youth sport programs have the potential for intentional positive youth development, many programs do not have a deliberate focus on fostering these behaviors (Fraser-Thomas, Cote, & Deakin, 2005).

In fact, the climate of a youth sport program can even be detrimental to the growth of youth by providing a context for excessive stress and negative self-perceptions (Fraser-Thomas & Cote, 2009). The lack of attention to PYD can manifest in reports of negative behaviors from coaches and parents (Shields, Lavoi, Bredemeier, & Power, 2007). PYD curriculum breaks this trend in youth sport by offering a method to deliver practical applications within program curricula and reinforcing coach and parent behaviors that foster safe and supportive environments.

Researchers have investigated the perceptions of program climate and the behavior of significant adults in these youth-centric establishments and findings support the hypothesis that there is a relationship between climate, modeled behavior, and the promotion of PYD. However, few researchers have studied the perceptions of program climate and modeled behavior over time in these youth-centered programs (Lerner et al., 2005). The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of a positive youth development curriculum that was infused into the activities of a local youth dance studio. Specifically, the researchers explored children's ratings of the climate created by the coaches in the program and the modeled behavior (i.e., teaching style) of the coaches over the course of a season.

#### **METHODS**

#### **PARTICIPANTS**

Thirty female, mostly Caucasian, recreational youth dancers (ages 6-15 (M =10 years; s = 1.9) were recruited from a youth dance club in the Midwest that featured classes and techniques for recreation and competition including ballet, tap, jazz, and hip hop as well as cheerleading and gymnastics. Because of the multiple surveys and data collection points, 16-18 participants were included in analyses.

Four female coaches, who led or co-led at least most of the practices for the season, participated, as well (100% of possible participants). Coaches' ages ranged from 21 to 30 years old ( $M=26;\ s=4.03$ ) and 3 described themselves as Caucasian while the other described herself as African-American. Each coach participant had coached for at least 8 years overall ( $M=11;\ s=2.75$ ) and at least 2 years ( $M=8;\ s=4.92$ ) with the current youth dance organization.

#### **INTERVENTION**

The intervention, Values Through Sport program (VTS, <a href="http://valuesthroughsport.com/">http://valuesthroughsport.com/</a>), is a value-based curriculum that is infused into the sport-specific framework of a youth sport organization. VTS features five values (i.e., confidence, determination, teamwork, respect, and responsibility) that are each discussed for two designated weeks of the season. VTS was developed through a two-semester immersive learning course at Ball State University. VTS was designed to reach each part of the athletic triangle, with the focus on the athlete, throughout the season. Athletes receive education about the values but it is imperative that significant stakeholders understand the depth of their responsibilities throughout the intervention. Therefore, the VTS program includes guidelines for coach and parent meetings to assist with fostering their investment in the program. The VTS program also includes educational resources for both the coaches and parents, based on Responsible Sports (responsiblesports.com).

The researchers disseminated the VTS curriculum to the head program administrator on a weekly basis for use within the dance program's practice schedule. The curriculum consisted of lesson plans, or value activities, which were sport-related drills and the impetus for teaching the values along with discussion questions to make practical applications apparent to the youth athletes. Coaches were asked to dedicate approximately 5 minutes of 1 practice a week to lead the weekly activity. Additionally, coaches were asked to use teachable moments during practices and competitions to highlight application of the weekly value. Teachable moments consist of unplanned learning opportunities, which occur during practices. Finally, coaches were asked to distribute values cards for their athletes to take home. These values cards provided discussion questions and suggested home activities that parents could use to reinforce the value of the week.

#### **INSTRUMENTS**

Youth participants completed a demographic questionnaire, the Caring Climate Scale (CCS; Newton et al., 2007), the Transformational Teaching Questionnaire (TTQ; Beauchamp et al., 2010), and an assessment of VTS. Coaches completed a demographic survey and intervention manipulation check.

Athlete demographics. The demographic questionnaire included items related to participants' gender, age, race/ethnicity, and number of years participating with the current sport organization.

**Perceptions of caring climate.** Newton et al. (2007) constructed the CCS in order to evaluate youth's perceptions of a caring environment or an "inviting, safe, supportive" environment that is based on respect and value in physical education classes. The CCS includes 13 items, such as, "In PE class, students are treated with respect" and "In PE class, students feel safe." For this study, the researchers changed the "PE class" moniker to "practice", "students" to "athletes", and "teacher" to "coach". The questions range on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). A mean score near 1 indicates that an individual does not find her climate to be caring while a mean score near 5 reflects that an individual perceived her climate to be caring in nature. All of the items developed for the scale were provided by exercise psychology professionals and determined to have content validity by sport and exercise psychology experts and it was determined to be internally consistent, with a with a Cronbach alpha coefficient a = .92 (Newton et al., 2007).

Transformational teaching styles. The TTQ Student Rater Version (TTQ-SR) was used to assess how the participants view the teaching style of their coaches. The TTQ-SR has four subscales: a) Idealized Influence; b) Inspirational Motivation; c) Intellectual Stimulation; and d) Individualized Consideration. All items are answered on a 5-point Likert scale from 0 (Not at all) to 4 (Frequently). Higher averages on individual sub-scales reflect participants' perceptions of more frequent transformational teaching behaviors in coaches. TTQ-SR examples include "...shows that she cares about me" (Individualized Consideration), "...treats me in ways that build my respect" (Idealized Influence), "demonstrates that s/he believes in me" (Inspirational Motivation), and "encourages me to look at issues from different sides"

(Intellectual Stimulation). The TTQ-SR statements have the prefix of "My Physical Education Teacher" but for this study, the researchers replaced this prefix with "My Coach". Additionally, researchers replaced "students" with "athletes" and "in the class" with "on the team". The scale was determined to be internally consistent by the developers, with a Cronbach's alpha over .85 for each of the subscales (Beauchamp et al., 2010).

Intervention assessment for athletes. Youth participants were asked to complete a program assessment form. Questions included "How often have you heard the league values talked about at practice or competition?", and "How often do you and your parents talk about these values at home?" Items were answered on a 4-point Likert scale from 1 (Every practice/Every Week) to 4 (Never).

Coach demographic questionnaire. Coaches completed a demographic questionnaire. The descriptive questionnaire was developed by the researchers in order to obtain pertinent participant information. The questionnaire included items related to the participants' gender, age, race/ethnicity, and years of coaching experience.

Coach intervention manipulation check. Coaches were asked to complete a survey to assess how well the coaches adhered to the program. Questions included "How easy did you find it to apply the curriculum during practices and competitions?", "How often did you discuss the values curriculum at practice & competition?", and "How often did you use the discussion questions at the end of the lesson plans?" Items were answered on a 4-point Likert scale from 1 (Very clear/Very easy/With every practice/With every lesson plan) to 4 (Not applicable/Never).

#### **PROCEDURE**

Prior to data collection, approval was sought from the researchers' university Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the study. Upon approval, the lead researcher held a meeting with the most senior administrator of the youth dance club. After approval from the administrator, a request for participation was made to coaches, and coaches who agreed to participate were given a consent form to complete. Once coaches felt comfortable with the project, the lead researcher approached the team parents about allowing their children to participate in the study. The document sent home with parents explained the VTS program and requirements of the study. Once parents had given consent concerning the participation of their child(ren) in the study, the youth athletes were invited to provide assent. Each athlete and coach was assigned unique codes in order to keep data confidential. Paper-pencil questionnaires were administered to athletes and coaches before practice at four time-points throughout the winter/spring season with data collection taking ten to fifteen minutes (see Table 1).

#### **DESIGN AND ANALYSIS**

This study employed a quasi-experimental repeated-measures design. The longitudinal design allowed for analysis of repeated measures over time in order to examine the impact of an independent variable (i.e., exposure to the values-based curriculum) on dependent variables (the CCS & TTQ). SPSS Version 21 was used to check data for normality and analyze descriptive information. To answer the research questions, the researchers employed five One-way Repeated Measures ANOVA ( $\alpha$  = .05) to analyze each dependent variable, the CCS and the 4 subscales of the TTQ. The researchers also assessed the Coach Intervention Manipulation Check and the VTS Assessment for Athletes to review the application of the PYD program. Participants who missed one or more time points of data collection were excluded from the analysis of the specific questionnaire. Depending on the dependent variable, 15 to 18 participants were included in the analysis.

#### RESULTS

Means and standard deviations for all dependent variables as a function of time are presented in *Table 2*. All scales and subscales were found to be internally consistent with the current sample: a) Caring Climate scale,  $\alpha=.935,$  b) Idealized Influence (II) subscale of TTQ ,  $\alpha=.618,$  c) Inspirational Motivation (IM) subscale of TTQ,  $\alpha=.699,$  35 Indiana AHPERD

e) Intellectual Stimulation (IS) subscale of TTQ,  $\alpha$  = .830, and the f) Individualized Consideration (IC) subscale of TTQ,  $\alpha$  = .762.

#### **INTERVENTION EFFECTS**

The researchers employed a One-Way Repeated Measures ANO-VA, utilizing the averages of participants' scores for the dependent variables over the course of four data collection point. For the CCS, results were statistically insignificant,  $F=.152,\,p>.05$  (.884),  $\eta 2=.011,\,n=15.$  Mean scores across four data points for the II subscale were statistically insignificant,  $F=.322,\,p>0.05$  (.739),  $\eta 2=.019,\,n=18.$  Mean scores for the IM subscale across four data collection points were statistically insignificant,  $F=.732,\,p>0.05$  (.496),  $\eta 2=.044,\,n=17.$  Mean scores for the IS subscale across four data collection points were statistically insignificant,  $F=1.044,\,p>0.05$  (.365),  $\eta 2=.065,\,n=16.$  Mean scores for the IC subscale across four data collection points were also statistically insignificant,  $F=.310,\,p>0.05$  (.727),  $\eta 2=.018,\,n=18.$ 

#### **INTERVENTION ASSESSMENT**

Manipulation checks occurred during Week 6 and Week 9. Youth participants were asked, "How often have you heard the league values talked about at practice or competition?" For this particular question, there was a 4-point Likert scale featuring 1 (Every Practice), 2 (Most practices), 3 (Some practices), and 4 (Never). For the first assessment, youth indicated that during most instances, they heard the VTS values being talked about at practice or competition (M = 1.95, s = .41). This perception of value discussion was also supported during the second manipulation check (M = 2.00, s = .75). Youth were also asked, "How often do you and your parents talk about these values at home?", with a 4-point Likert Scale with choices 1 (Every week), 2 (Few times a month), 3 (Less than once a month), and 4 (Never). Youth participants indicated that they talked with their parents about the VTS values a few times a month (M = 2.78, s = .83). These observations of value discussion at home were supported in the second manipulation check (M = 2.22, s = .65).

Coaches were asked, "How easy did you find it to apply the curriculum during practices and competitions?" with a scale of 1 (Very Easy), 2 (Somewhat Easy), 3 (Not Easy), and 4 (Not applicable). Coach participants indicated that application of the VTS curriculum was very easy to implement in practices and competitions (M=1.00, s=.00) and this perception was supported in the second manipulation check (M=1.00, s=.00). The VTS assessment goal of having 90% of coaches find the curriculum easy to apply was achieved as 100% of coaches expressed as such. Coaches indicated that they were very easily able to recognize "teachable moments" suggested in lesson plans during the first manipulation check (M=1.00, s=.00; Possible range 1-4) and during the second manipulation check (M=1.25, s=.50).

However, coach participants reported that they only used the discussion questions with some lessons plans (M = 3.25, s = .96; Possible range 1- 4) and this behavior continued in the second manipulation check (M = 3.25, s = .96). Additionally, coach participants reported never using the value cards (M = 4.00, s = .00; Possible range 1- 4) and this behavior was replicated in the second manipulation check (M = 4.00, s = .00). This observation was well below the VTS goal of 80% of coaches distributing value cards as 0% distributed the value cards.

#### **DISCUSSION**

PYD is a recent movement dedicated to strengthening the psychosocial progression of children and adolescents (Lerner et al., 2005). Although numerous youth-centered arenas can assist with development (Larson, Hansen, & Moneta, 2006), youth sport has gained traction as the most influential context for PYD (Weiss et al., 2007). Within youth sport, program climate (Gano-Overway, 2009) and coach behaviors (Harris et al., 2012) outline the experiences of children and adolescents. Thus, the purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of a positive youth development intervention in a youth sport program upon these two instrumental facets of PYD.

The first research question was designed to explore the impact

of the VTS program on the youth dancers' perceptions of climate or perceptions of an "inviting, safe, supportive" environment based on respect and value. It was hypothesized that throughout the program, athletes' ratings of program climate would increase because youth, in caring climates, have been shown to be more likely to regulate and regiment positive mental states (Gano-Overway, 2009) than youth who are not in a caring climate. Specifically in youth sport programs, creating a caring climate has been found to foster positive mental well-being

in young athletes (Fry et al., 2012). However, the results of the current study did not support the hypothesis, as participants' scores on the scale marked a lack of notable differences over the course of the 10-week data collection process. Ratings of program climate, from the first measurement, before the introduction of the intervention, remained consistently high over the course of the data collection time-points.

The second research question explored the impact of the intervention on youth athletes' perceptions of teaching behaviors, with the hypotheses that youth ratings of coach transformational teaching behaviors would increase over the course of the PYD curriculum. Perceived coach behaviors (e.g., teaching styles) are important be-

cause they have been shown to be best predictors of sport behaviors in youth (Shields et al., 2007). When considering physical activity with youth, displays of transformational teaching represents an important predictor of health-enhancing cognitions and behaviors (Morton et al., 2010; Wilson et al., 2012). The lack of significant changes in these variables can likely be best explained by a ceiling effect with the reported dependent variable scores, the pre-existent caring climate promoted

**Collect 1** 

Collect 2

**Collect 3** 

4.44 (s = .67)

4.38 (s = .71)

4.33 (s = .62)

4.38 (s = .63)

Note: CCS possible range 1-5 and TTQ possible range 0-4

by coaches, or the lack of consistent application of the VTS program by the coaches.

Within the CCS and TTQ data, a ceiling effect became apparent after the first and second data collection point and continued as a trend throughout the study. Youth participants consistently agreed with statements highlighting the caring nature of their sport program's climate. The ceiling effects seen in these datasets could be explained by the construction of the scale, social desirability, age, and sample size.

**First**, the construction of the CCS could explain the ceiling effects seen in the data. In the present study, the researchers found the questionnaire to have a Cronbach's alpha of .94. Within questionnaire-based research, Cronbach's alpha designations above .7 imply that sets of questions are internally consistent to the point of possibly being redundant (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The participants in the study could have positively evaluated one aspect of their climate, and because of redundancies in the questionnaire, exaggerated the positive

impact of other aspects of their climate. **Second**, social desirability could also explain the ceiling effects in the data. Significant adults like coaches can influence the behaviors and tendencies of children and adolescents (Avgtidou, 2001; Slavich & Zimbardo, 2012). Children and adolescents in sports can feel the need to be accepted by coaches and evaluate the behaviors of their coaches as caring or transformational regardless of whether the coach's behavior is up to those standards.

**Third,** age could explain the ceiling effects in the TTQ data. In the present study, participants had an average age just over 10 years old and ranged in age from 6-15. Although the TTQ was created for elementary-aged subjects and beyond, the questionnaire was designed for

> evaluation of physical education courses. The participants in this particular sample may not have been able to understand the application of statements concerning idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration in their youth sport context.

> Additionally, the ceiling effect could also be a function of the small sample size. With only 15-18 participants that qualified for data analysis, trends in the longitudinal data were not reflective of the general youth sport population. A larger sample may have shown divergent tendencies in the

> In regards to a lack of significance in the results, the pre-existent caring climate promoted by the coaches in the youth sport pro-

gram and a dearth of impact in the application of the VTS program could explain the outcome. In the youth sport program, the participants had interactions with four coaches. As stated earlier, each coach had coached for at least 8 years overall and at least 2 years in the current youth sport organization. With this kind of experience with youth sport, it is very possible that coaches had developed and sustained a climate predicated on caring and nurturing interactions that may have

Ind. Consider.

muted the VTS curricu-

Furthermore, the experience of coaches may have influenced the athletes' report of high scores as well as the coaches' inconsistent application of the program material. Youth participants reported that they talked about the values with their parents a few times a month. Although the VTS program asks for some materials (e.g., value cards, newsletter) to be sent home, each organization can tailor the

3.71 (s = .50)3.52 (s = .69)3.53 (s = .71)3.54 (s = .65)3.55 (s = .55)3.64 (s = .45)3.68 (s = .58)3.34 (s = .59)3.53 (s = .57)3.60 (s = .64)3.50 (s = .77)3.58 (s = .59)curriculum to their comfort level. Coaches indicated that they did not

Intellectual

**Stimulation** 

send materials home and yet, youth reported conversations about the values outside of the youth sport context. This conflicting information could be explained by coaches with extensive experience. These coachers are able to highlight and discuss PYD values without necessarily using a constructed curriculum. Inconsistent application of the PYD curriculum did not deter youth participants from speaking about PYD values outside of sport because these PYD values are already embedded in the culture of the youth dance program.

participants also indicated that they were very easily able to recognize

Variable consideration of the VTS curriculum was also apparent in other portions of the manipulation checks. Coach participants indicated that application of the VTS curriculum was very easy. Coach

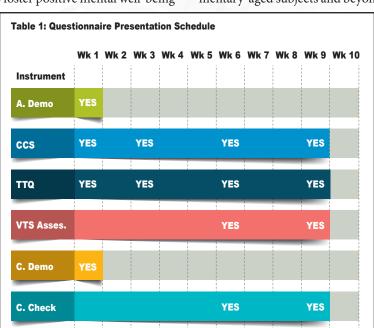


Table 2: Caring Climate Scale and Transformational Teaching Questionnaire Mean Scores

Inspirational

**Idealized** 

3.47 (s = .59)

3.53 (s = .56)

3.58 (s = .59)

3.54 (s = .63)

natural moments outside of the VTS curriculum where a program value could be discussed or mentioned. These two observations highlight strengths of the VTS program and support the experiences of youth participants who reported continued discussion of PYD-related concepts outside of the designated curriculum time frame.

However, coach participants also reported that they only used the discussion questions with some lessons plans. Additionally, coach participants reported never using the value cards. Within the VTS framework, value cards carry a curriculum value and are meant to be taken home. As stated earlier, the lack of consistent curriculum-driven discussion and take-home materials did not deter youth athletes from considering the program values outside of the sporting context. Still, youth athletes may not always carry on these conversations without continued reinforcement so it is imperative that the administrators of VTS pursue means of assuring discussion questions and value cards are utilized consistently.

#### IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

This study evaluated program climate and teaching styles in a youth sport program infused with a PYD curriculum. As youth mature in life, their participation in sport will decline for numerous reasons. However, the tenets of PYD provide beneficial psychosocial foundations as these youth become more active members of society. The ability of PYD programs to garner discussions about PYD-related concepts and values is the catalyst behind the lifelong positive development of youth.

Although the current study has provided some insight into the impact of a sport-based PYD initiative, it is important to remember the factors that can influence ratings of a youth sport climate and youth sport coaches' teaching styles. Future researchers could explore implementation of a PYD program in a recreational youth sport program as opposed to the competitive youth sport program that was utilized in this study. The presence of competition could influence how participants view PYD, the climate of the youth sport program, and the teaching styles of their coaches. Additionally, future researchers could compare the implementation of a PYD program to a control youth sport program that did not receive the PYD program to evaluate just how much of an impact PYD-focused programs have on the perceptions of youth athletes.

Also, future researchers could examine other portions of the introduction of a PYD program. Program climate and the teaching styles of coaches are important but they do not represent all of the aspects of the manifestation of PYD. Future researchers should explore differing notions that influence the progress of PYD. Finally, future researchers should strongly consider the addition of a qualitative piece to the assessment of PYD-related concepts. Applied projects, like PYD-focused programs, can be difficult to quantify in traditional paper-pencil questionnaires. A qualitative methodology could better capture the nuances in participants' experiences that are not captured in a purely quantitative evaluation.

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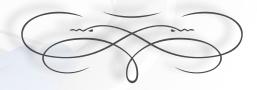
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# FIND US ON SOCIAL MEDIA





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