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GAHPERD *Journal*

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Mission Statement

GAHPERD, Inc. is a non-profit organization for professionals and students in related fields of health, physical education, recreation and dance. GAHPERD, Inc. is dedicated to improving the quality of life for all Georgians by supporting and promoting effective educational practices, quality curriculum, instruction and assessment in the areas of health, physical education, recreation,



Message from the Editor:

In this issue of the GAHPERD Journal, you will find specific content to help you grow as a professional. The issue includes teaching tips from the health, physical education, and dance divisions; and three peer-reviewed manuscripts, each from a different area of expertise in theory, practice, and research. The peer-reviewed articles are from the University of West Georgia (2) and Valdosta State University (1).

In addition to the peer-reviewed practical and research articles in this current issue, you will also find additional information pertaining to Georgia AHERD and our profession, with various highlights throughout.

Special thanks to Brack Hassell, Dave Martinez, Jana Forrester, Doris Morris, Christine Johnson, Babs Green, and Stephanie Lawson for submitting additional content included in this issue.

Finally, on this page you will find the latest additions to the Georgia AHPERD Executive Board. If you have comments, please contact me at bheidorn@westga.edu

Editor
Dr. Brent Heidorn
University of West Georgia

Mission Statement

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*Age is no barrier.
It's a limitation you
put on your mind.*



Jackie Joyner-Kersey

GAHPERD Executive Board:

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Bridgette Stewart bstewart@westga.edu

President-Elect

Brian Devore briangahperd@comcast.net

Past-President

Brent Heidorn bheidorn@westga.edu

Executive Director

Kim Thompson kthompson.gahperd@att.net

Parliamentarian

Jeff Johnson jeffj@westga.edu

Advocacy Coordinator Co-Chair

Jana Forrester

jana.forrester@carrollcountyschools.com

Dave Martinez dave.martinez@cherokee.k12.ga.us

VP-Dance

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VP-General and VP-Elect

Cindy Slayton cincslay@hotmail.com

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VP-Health and VP-Elect

Doris Morris dorism@westga.edu

Christine Johnson johnsonc@westga.edu

VP-Physical Education and VP-Elect

Babs Greene bgreene4@gsu.edu

Christy Crowley ccrowley@bryan.k12.ga.us



Members at Large

Southeast: Tommy Gibbs

George.gibbs@sccpss.com

Metro: Kaci Roberts

kaciroberts@westminster.net

Northeast: Cate Hernandez

gajumpers@yahoo.com

Southwest: Brack Hassell

hassellbs@troup.org

Northwest: Amy Young

ayoung@paulding.k12.ga.us

Journal Editor

Brent Heidorn bheidorn@westga.edu

Webmaster

Brian Devore briangahperd@comcast.net

JRFH and HFR Coordinator

Emily Adams em.adams@mindspring.com

Chair, Awards Committee

Amy Aenchbacher

amy.aenchbacher@cherokee.k12.ga.us

Co-Liaison, GA DOE

Therese McGuire tmcguire@doe.k12.ga.us

Mike Tenoschok Tenoschok@aol.com

The Georgia Association
for Health, Physical
Education, Recreation
and Dance

Highlight: GAHPERD Executive Board Member **Member at Large—Southwest** **Brack Hassell**

Brack has served as a physical education teacher to K-5th grade students at Ethel Kight Elementary School in LaGrange, GA since 2010. He holds a Master's degree in Health and Physical Education from Georgia State University and a Bachelor of Science in Education from the University of Georgia. He was selected as the Teacher of the Year for his school in the 2013-2014 school year.

Brack is currently the GAHPERD Member at Large for Southwest Georgia. He coaches high school cross country and middle distance track runners. Brack also enjoys running ultra marathons and has completed two 100-mile races. When he isn't teaching, coaching or running he is chasing after his beautiful wife and two small children.

Brack can be reached at the following email address:

hassellbs@troup.org



!! SAVE THE DATE !!

GAHPERD Southeast District Workshop



Health and Physical Education Workshop

May 3, 2016
8:00am-4:00pm

Valdosta State University

PE Complex

Registration fee: \$25.00

On-Line Registration Ends April 26, 2016

When registration opens you will find detailed information (maps, hotels, parking, on-line program, etc.) **at the link below:**

<http://www.gahperd.org/southeast-district-workshop.html>

Participants will receive a free one-year membership to GAHPERD, lunch, and an opportunity to receive 1 PLU!

Possible topics will include: Activities for large classes with little to no equipment, edTPA for mentors, curriculum development, and new and exciting activities to use in your gymnasiums and/or outside.

****PLUs will be credited within 3 weeks (by May 24, 2016) to those who complete a summary/reflection within the time limit of one week following the event. The evaluation/reflection will not take a lot of time, but it will provide evidence of how the participants plan to use the information.

Email Dr. Sonya Sanderson for more information: slsanderson@valdosta.edu

SAVE THE DATE!

Southern District/Louisiana AHPERD

January 10-13, 2017

Baton Rouge, Louisiana—Crowne Plaza

Come enjoy pre-conference workshops, General Session speaker, over 100 activity and lecture sessions and “Louisiana Night”!



Stay tuned for program proposal information and conference updates at:

<http://www.shapeamerica.org/about/districts/southern>

Laissez les bon temps rouler!
(Let the good times roll!)

Call for Research Posters
SHAPE America Southern District Conference
January 10-13, 2017 Baton Rouge, Louisiana

The SHAPE America Southern District Research Council invites submissions of abstracts of research papers to be considered for presentation at the SHAPE America Southern District Conference, to be held **January 10- 13, 2017 in Baton Rouge, Louisiana.**

☐ Abstracts must be submitted electronically

☐ The deadline for submissions is **September 5, 2016**. Late or incomplete submissions will be returned to the author without review.

☐ Members of the SHAPE America Southern District Research Council will review the abstracts. The lead author will be notified of acceptance or rejection of the proposal before **November 1, 2016**.

☐ *Abstracts submitted must not have been presented or published previously nor should they be simultaneously submitted for consideration at other conferences.*

☐ Submission of abstracts is open to all researchers regardless of SHAPE America membership. Authors who agree to present an accepted paper are responsible for seeing the paper is presented at the convention, and must be members of SHAPE America and register for the convention.

Abstract Guidelines for Poster Presentation Submissions

☐ After the title of the abstract, list author's names and institutional affiliations (no departments) in order they should appear (e.g., Nancy L. Thigpen, University of Florida, and Louis Williams, South Carolina State University).

☐ Abstracts should be a **maximum of 400 words**, 12-point Times New Roman font, single-spaced, and one single paragraph with no hard returns or indents.

☐ Abstracts should include: (a) background information, a statement of the problem/purpose of the study, and its significance or rationale for the study, (b) information on the methods, procedures, and data analysis in sufficient detail, (c) a summary of the findings that provides a clear description of the results and discussion of their relevance.

Directions for Submission

☐ Send an email message to Cam Kerst-Davis at: 77cam77@att.net

☐ In the body of the message, indicate:

1. the name of the lead author or contact person and her/his affiliation 2. additional author's names and affiliations 3. the title of the abstract 4. the email address of the lead author/contact person 5. the research area or review panel for the proposal selected from one of the following: Biomechanics, Dance, Exercise Physiology/Fitness, Health, Leisure/ Recreation, Measurement, Motor Behavior, Pedagogy, Sport and Exercise Psychology, Sociological/Historical Aspects of Physical Activity, Special Populations, Sport Management/Administration, Sports Medicine. 6. **Include the abstract as an attachment in Microsoft Word.**

Additional Notes

The SHAPE America Southern District Research Council also seeks Council members who would be willing to serve as reviewers of abstracts. If you would like to volunteer for this service, please send an email message to Cam (77cam77@att.net) and provide the following information: (a) name, (b) email address, and (c) area of research expertise (select from one of the areas listed above in #5 of the directions to authors).

SPARK SPEAKERS BUREAU FANTASTIC 5 WORKSHOPS!

The SPARK Speakers Bureau makes it easy to bring a dynamic and inspirational trainer to your district or school. That's right! A select group of content experts who are superstar presenters (some former SHAPE TOYS) are ready to travel to your school and conduct one of these full-day workshops for you and your colleagues in 2015! Contact us and we'll talk about what you want your teachers to know and be able to do, then customize the training to meet THEIR needs. Here's our Fantastic 5 topics to choose from:



Physical Education Technology - R U Mad for iPad?

Magical MVPA Maximized!



Common Core and YOU: Making Connections

Maybe it's OK to Eat & Run?



I'd Rather Chew Aluminum Foil than Teach Dance!

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Speak Out Day March 2, 2016



Key Talking Points

Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA)

Title 1 and Title 2 Professional Development

CDC School Health Index

Whole School, Whole Community, Whole Child

Evaluation of physical education teachers

Contact Georgia AHPERD President-Elect
Brian Devore for more information
(briangahperd@comcast.net)



Georgia AHPERD Speak Out Day participants pictured with Georgia Representative Jody Hice. Left to right: Kevin Hunt, Brack Hassell, Dr. Jackie Lund, Rep. Hice, Greg Kirkland, and Brian Devore



Georgia AHPERD Speak Out Day participants pictured with Georgia Representative Buddy Carter. Left to right: Brian Devore, Rep. Carter, Dr. Jackie Lund, and Brack Hassell

2015-2016 Georgia AHPERD Advocacy Committee

Dave Martinez and Jana Forrester

Dave Martinez

Dave is an adapted physical education specialist for the Cherokee County, Georgia School District (CCSD). He advocated for and created the first “official” APE program for the CCSD during the 1999-2000 school year. Dave has been a dedicated Special Olympics coach and local program co-coordinator for the Cherokee County community for 17 years. In 2006, Special Olympics, Georgia selected Dave as the Outstanding Coach of the Year. In 2008, he was selected as Georgia AHPERD's and Southern District's Adapted Physical Education Teacher of the Year. In 2009 he was selected as the National Adapted Physical Education Teacher of the Year. In 2015 he was honored with the William A. Hillman Distinguished Service Award from the National Consortium for Physical Education for Individuals with Disabilities. He is a nationally certified adapted physical education specialist, certified disability sport specialist, and ACSM certified inclusive fitness trainer. Dave currently serves as the Georgia State Coordinator of the Adapted Physical Education National Standards (APENS) Committee and as a team leader of SHAPE America's Adapted Physical Education/Activity Special Interest Group.

Jana Forrester

Jana Forrester is the physical education teacher at Providence Elementary School in Carroll County. She received her Bachelors and Masters degrees in physical education from Auburn University. She has been teaching and coaching for over 18 years. In 2014, Jana was selected as Temple Middle School's Teacher of the Year. She is an active member of GAHPERD and has previously served on the Executive Board as the West District Representative.

Differentiation in Physical Education—Submitted by Jana Forrester

With such an emphasis on differentiation with TKES, it has become an "iffy" situation in the gymnasium. Often times administrators don't really know how to look for differentiation in the gym. Not only are the administrators at a loss, sometimes the teachers are as well. All professional learning on differentiation is modeled for classroom instruction. The PE teacher needs to be able to turn that into how it should look in the gym. Usually an administrator wants visual documentation of progress. This can be accomplished through skills assessments, such as quick checklists. Once a teacher has administered a pre-assessment check list, then the teacher can group children accordingly. The group that needs extra assistance can get one on one or small group instruction, with the teacher, or sometimes a peer can help. The groups that are on or above target can be provided extensions, so that they may move to the next level with their skill level. Once the skill has been taught and extended, then the teacher can give the post assessment checklist to document improvement. This would provide data for the teacher, as well as, documentation for the administration. What we need is more professional learning for both teachers and administrators on differentiation in the gym.

Advocacy Column

March 2016

As you may know, a complete battery of fitness assessment is mandated for all students in grades 4-12 in physical education programs in Georgia, measured by the FITNESSGRAM. At times however the FITNESSGRAM may not be a valid assessment for some children with disabilities. Further, some physical educators may struggle with finding a valid way to measure and celebrate the fitness levels of their students with disabilities. The Presidential Youth Fitness Program website may be the solution they need. The Presidential Youth Fitness Program website has made the Brockport Physical Fitness Test (BPFT) available for FREE download. The BPFT is a criterion-referenced health-related test of physical fitness, appropriate for use with young people with disabilities. Visit <http://www.pyfp.org/assessment/free-materials.shtml> for a free copy. In addition, the Presidential Youth Fitness Program will recognize students with disabilities who score in the adapted fitness zone (AFZ) on the BPFT. Visit <http://www.pyfp.org/recognition/student.shtml> for details.



The National Consortium for Physical Education for Individuals with Disabilities Interscholastic Sports/Athletics for Students with Disabilities committee developed a position statement that was passed by the membership on July 17th, 2015. It promotes equity for all students seeking to engage in school-based extracurricular activities, specifically sports and athletics. Go to http://www.ncpeid.org/files/NCPEID_Position_Paper_for_Interscholastic_Sport_for_SWD.pdf



Special thanks to Dave Martinez for submitting the content on this page

Journal Submission: How do I submit an article to the GAHPERD Journal?

Publication Guidelines

The GAHPERD Journal is a peer-reviewed professional journal intended to meet the needs of health, physical education, recreation, and dance professionals in Georgia. It is also intended to be a forum for the discussion of new ideas and pertinent issues facing the profession. Before submitting a manuscript to *The GAHPERD Journal*, please be mindful of the following:

- Manuscripts submitted to The GAHPERD Journal must not be submitted to other publications simultaneously.
- Manuscripts with practical implications for educators at all levels are given priority.
- Acceptance is based on originality of material, significance to the profession, validity, and adherence to the prescribed submission requirements.

Manuscript Preparation

Manuscripts should be double-spaced, including all references and quotations, formatted for 8-1/2" x 11" pages, using Times New Roman 12-point font. Manuscripts should be word processed in accordance with the following guidelines:

- Prepare the manuscript in Microsoft Word and submit it as an e-mail attachment.
- Number all pages and lines throughout.
- Submit all tables, photographs and figures as separate documents, not within the body of the manuscript.
- Limit the manuscript to approximately 8 to 12 pages.
- Include a cover page with the title of the manuscript, full name(s) of the author(s), academic degrees, positions, and institutional affiliations. List the corresponding author's address, telephone number, and email address.
- The writing should be simple, straightforward with clear, concise, and logically presented concepts. Use examples, capture the readers' interest, and stimulate the audience's thinking.
- Keep paragraphs short.
- Have a colleague review the manuscript prior to submission.
- Review all references as the authors are responsible for accuracy. For reference style, follow the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA-6th edition).
- Submit graphs, charts, and tables separately. Clearly label and title all illustrations according to APA guidelines.
- Photographs are encouraged. When submitting photographs, be sure they are digital and at least 300 DPI in a jpg format.

Manuscript Submission

Send all manuscripts to Dr. Brent Heidorn at bheidorn@westga.edu. Manuscripts will be acknowledged by email when received.

The Review Process

The Publications Editor will distribute all manuscripts to three members of the Editorial Board for peer-review.

Publication

Copyright: Accepted manuscripts become the property of the Georgia Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. Upon request, authors receive permission to reprint their own articles. The GAHPERD Journal is listed in the Physical Education Index.

Manuscript Tracking Policy

Manuscripts undergo a blind review using criteria of accuracy and applicability to the practical concerns of the target audience. Authors will receive manuscript acceptance, revision or rejection letters via email in about six weeks. Authors asked to revise their manuscripts will be informed how much time they have for resubmission, always given at least two weeks. Upon acceptance, the Publications Editor will send a formal acceptance email to all corresponding authors whose manuscripts have been accepted for publication. The Publications Editor will select publication dates for all manuscripts based on an established editorial calendar. Authors will be notified in advance, and edited manuscripts will be submitted to authors for comments prior to publication.

American Heart Association Award Winners

Jump Rope For Heart and Hoops For Heart Award Winners



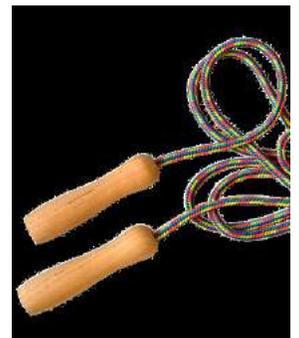
The American Heart Association is pleased to announce the winners of the 2014-2015 National Jump Rope For Heart (JRFH) and Hoops For Heart (HFH) Awards. Each year, the American Heart Association staff members nominate exemplary physical education teachers, school administrators and students who have gone above and beyond in implementing Jump Rope and Hoops For Heart in their schools, helping to advance the American Heart Association's mission of "building healthier lives, free of cardiovascular diseases and stroke."

- **Outstanding JRFH Coordinator:** Renee Kruss, Bernard Zell Anshe Emet Day School, IL
- **Outstanding HFH Coordinator:** Jodie Schuller, Chase County Elementary School, NE
- **Outstanding Team of the Year:** Emily Adams and Beth Finnegan, Kennesaw Elementary School, GA

These awards recognize volunteers who have coordinated successful events at their schools, utilizing creativity, passion and community involvement.

- **Top JRFH School Rookie of the Year:** Westgate Elementary School, Arlington Heights, IL
- **Top HFH School Rookie of the Year:** Rooster Springs, Austin, TX

These awards recognize exemplary first-time participating schools.



Tips from the Health Division

Putting out the Smoke

Who is at risk?

The CDC states that tobacco use begins and is established primarily during adolescence. Almost 9 out of 10 cigarette smokers have tried a cigarette by the age of 18. Males tend to have higher usage percentages than females. Current middle and high school students who smoke cigarettes has declined, however, use of other tobacco products has increased. Electronic cigarettes (e-cigarettes) are very popular among middle and high schoolers. According to the American Lung Association there is still a lot we don't know about this product. It is unregulated by the FDA and as such there are no safety checks that are applied to e-cigarettes.

What is an electronic cigarette?

This is a fairly new product that delivers nicotine into the lungs by way of an aerosol, the same way as cigarette smoke. There is very little research on the health effects of long-term use of e-cigarettes. One dangerous aspect of e-cigarettes is the fact that they can be advertised on television or any other media outlet. This could contribute to increased use among adolescents.

Myths and Facts about E-cigarettes:

Myth: E-cigarettes are safe.

Fact: Since it is unregulated, we don't know. Studies have found toxic chemicals in the cigarettes.

Myth: E-cigarettes don't have nicotine.

Fact: Almost all do – including those products that claim they don't.

Myth: E-cigarettes can help you quit.

Fact: FDA has not found e-cigarettes to be effective in quitting.

Myth: E-cigarettes aren't for kids.

Fact: E-cigarette use among middle and high schoolers tripled from 2011 to 2013.

Myth: E-cigarettes produce no secondhand smoke.

Fact: The vapor exhaled contains carcinogens. Little is known about the potential harm.

As health educators we should be clear with our students that smoking in general is dangerous. We need to educate them that e-cigarettes contain nicotine which is a highly addictive substance, a stimulant and a drug. We should inform them of the cancer-causing chemicals that have been found in e-cigarettes.

If you are not familiar with e-cigarettes or their packaging, we encourage you to examine the products online so you are clear on what e-cigarettes and their cartridges look like. This will help you identify them and be more informed should you come across any.



Special thanks to Doris Morris and Christine Johnson for submitting the content on this page



Top 10 Reasons to Use a Tactical Games Approach in Physical Education

1. Students like it!

Do your students come into the gym asking, “When can we play the game?”? This instructional model gets them into the game right away. Class begins and ends with a situated game – engaging students from the beginning.

2. Supports differentiation

The tactical games instructional model provides the teacher with the perfect opportunity to match students’ ability levels with varying levels of tactical complexity. Your “athletes” are challenged with more complicated strategies and tactics, while lower skilled students focus on more basic game concepts.

3. Promotes self-efficacy

Even students with a minimum skill level have the opportunity to gain confidence in their ability to use those skills in game play. No longer are students limited to practicing skills in isolation.

4. Addresses all learning domains

In addition to developing psychomotor skill competencies, students are involved in teamwork (affective) and learn to make tactical decisions (cognitive).

5. Offers transferability

Tactical problems are similar for each game category. Once students understand the tactic of supporting the ball carrier in soccer, they can apply that same knowledge to other invasion games, like basketball or field hockey.

6. Easy to assess

A Game Performance Assessment Instrument (GPAI) allows the teacher or peer observer to readily measure the player’s ability to effectively use a specific skill and make appropriate decisions during game play.

7. Maximizes MVPA

The tactical approach to teaching naturally increases students’ MVPA, as more time is allotted for activity. Wait time is minimized as all students are engaged in small-sided games for most of the class period.

8. Accommodates large classes

By placing students in smaller groups (teams) large classes become more manageable. Game play and practice tasks are performed within the group, which promotes student engagement.

9. Aligns with national standards

The tactical games model is strongly aligned with GA PSC standards 1 and 2.

10. Easy to learn

Physical education teachers find this approach to teaching incorporates many principles they already apply in coaching situations.

References

- Metzler, M. (2011). *Instructional Models for Physical Education, 3rd ed.* Scottsdale, AZ: Holcomb Hathaway.
- Mitchell, S., Oslin, J., and Griffin, L. (2013). *Teaching Sport Concepts and Skills: A Tactical Games approach for Ages 7 to 18, 3rd ed.* Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Special thanks to Babs Green, VP-Physical Education, for submitting the content on this page



Tips from the Dance Division

Dance like nobody's watching!

Essential Question: Why do we dance?

My answer 30 years ago would have been...we dance to celebrate and have a good time at birthday parties, weddings, skating rinks, or other celebrations. I still believe these are good answers to this question, but now know there are so many more answers to this question. As a young child, I have great memories of dancing with my family at home, taking dance lessons at a studio, and later taking those dance skills and creating dance routines for my cheer squad in high school. (Do not hate me because I was a cheerleader;-) I have also come to the realization that some people do not like to dance and that makes me sad. Why do people not like to dance? I have heard people say that they do not feel comfortable dancing, they are self-conscious, and are scared that someone would make fun of them. They did not have positive experiences dancing as a child growing up, and never danced with their families. I love to dance and want to change the way people view dance. I challenge everyone to do more dancing! Everyone should get out on the dance floor and have FUN dancing and socially interacting with each other. People should dance like nobody is watching!

Essential Question: Why do we teach dance?

Dancing is a great way to make exercise FUN! The physical and mental aspects of dancing help students learn better. Dancing hits all of our national standards. For example:

Standards 1 and 2 - Dancing involves skill. Bodies are moving to music and we work on hand-eye coordination, eye-foot coordination, rhythm, and timing.

Standard 3 - Dancing works on fitness components by making muscles and bones stronger. Physically, dancing to music warms up your muscles, speeds up heart rate, increases blood flow to all body parts, and wakes up your brain. If dancing is performed for an extended period of time with high intensity steps, it can get students in the Target Heart Rate Zone and improve Aerobic capacity. Calories are burned as we dance to help maintain a healthy Body Mass Index. We know that the brain becomes engaged when we exercise and crossing the midline of the body is extra stimulating to the brain. The brain also releases endorphins creating a "natural high".

Standard 4 - Students work socially with others. They follow rules and directions.

Standard 5 - Many students find enjoyment in this type of physical activity. The result is a happier, more positive person who will be ready to learn.

Continued on the next page...

Tips from the Dance Division

Dance like nobody's watching! (Continued from the previous page)

Essential Question: How long have people been dancing?

I love to hear my students answer this question. Here are some of their answers: 5 years, a decade, since the 1980's, a hundred years, and then finally someone will give me the answer that I am looking for. Do you think there has been music and dancing around forever? I think people have been dancing from the beginning of time. People created music with their hands and bodies before there were musical instruments. People danced to record history before there was paper. The first written dance steps were recorded on walls by the Egyptians. We have come a long way since then and dancing has changed through the years, but it is still alive and well in our society. We have gone from dancing around a camp fire, to dancing in front of a T.V., to using video games like Wii and Just Dance videos. The way we are able to listen to music is amazing and the technological advances in dance videos have completely changed dance. If you do not like to teach dance, never fear because the new age is here to help you. You can project dance videos from a projector onto a wall in your gym and let the students follow along. There are great websites out there. Here are a few examples:

Brain Break Activity Websites

Intelleboost has short brain break activities for students to follow.

<http://intelleboost.com/>

GoNoodle: <https://www.gonoodle.com/> or www.healthteacher.com

Adventure to Fitness-register today at www.adventuretofitness.tv provides 30 minutes lessons that are based on Common Core Science and Social Studies Standards(ES Only) \$90/year

Power Up for 30 <http://www.georgiashape.org/powerupfor30.html>

JAM (Just-a-minute) school program provides short brain breaks for school and it is free!

Go to www.healthtips.com

Strong 4 Life videos-Go to www.choa.org/child-wellness/Strong4lifeprograms where you will find healthy tips/exercises on videos for kids in the classroom or Youtube.com. or

www.Strong4forlife.com

www.youtube.com

Special thanks to Stephanie Lawson
for submitting the content on this page



Promoting Health and Physical Activity Among College Students

Christine Knoll

University of West Georgia

When striving to promote physical activity and healthy lifestyles, today's college students present a unique set of challenges. As a result, physical education teachers and coaches, wellness coordinators, college/university instructors, and other stakeholders must consider these challenges when advocating for additional amounts of physical activity among students. The purpose of this article is to describe recent experiences from the perspective of a college/university physical activity instructor, with the intent of helping all of us recognize the challenges and possible solutions for promoting behavior change.

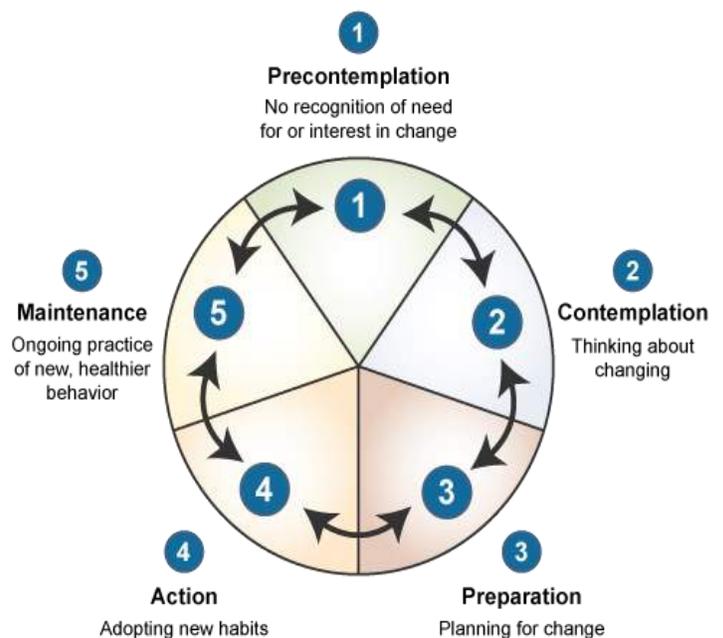
College students arrive on campus with a wide variety of backgrounds in physical activity and are at different stages of their fitness journeys, if they are motivated for physical fitness at all. In the past, they may have been a member of a sports team or club with coaches dictating when to be at practice and what exercises to complete. They may have had parents or guardians who encouraged them to eat healthy and even provided the well-balanced meal. As new college students, this generation has lost a measure of accountability for their physical activity and they may be faced with limited resources of obtaining food or the space to prepare meals. On the opposite end of the spectrum, some students may have grown up without any individuals to model healthy lifestyle choices for them and these college-aged students often do not recognize a need for change. In addition, the current generation of students is accustomed to technology and convenience, which in many cases, further contributes to the increasing

amounts of unhealthy food choices, and the decreasing amounts of physical activity.

During this time of transition into adulthood, students must learn how to make their own healthy eating choices, set aside time for exercise, and balance the requirements of school, work, and social life. If we can help them instill good habits and routines during this critical time, then they are more likely to continue this pattern beyond their college years and maintain a sustainable healthy, physically active lifestyle.

By applying the Stages of Behavior Change Model (Prochaska, DiClemente, & Norcross, 1992), we can identify ways to promote health and physical activity to college students. The Stages of Behavior Change Model is described in the next several paragraphs, including real-life situations (see Figure 1).

Figure 1.



Pre-contemplation

In the pre-contemplation stage, there is no motivation to change a behavior and the individual may not even realize or acknowledge that a change is needed. The process of change can begin with educating students about the benefits of an active lifestyle and the health risks associated with a lack of physical activity. Focusing on the benefits that relate to this age group can help the facts resonate. For example, awareness of the mental focus and memory retention benefits of physical activity and how this can help them perform better in their academics would be more motivating to a college student than the benefit of preventing osteoporosis. Although preventing osteoporosis is still a benefit of physical activity, it may be one that is too far in the future to be meaningful or motivating.

Contemplation

In the contemplation stage, individuals realize that they have a problem behavior and will begin thinking about making a change in the near future. Ideally, the information and knowledge gained through health education (if students are taking a wellness course) will begin the decision making process for the students by making them aware that there is a need to be healthy. At this point, they will seek out the opportunities on campus for involvement and perhaps investigate the many ways to incorporate physical activity into their daily lives.

Assistance with time management can prove to be helpful in encouraging students to change. Many of them believe that they do not have the time to exercise. However, giving them tips on completing workouts in a small time frame or bodyweight exercises that they can do at home can change this mindset.

Providing information for both the pre-contemplation and contemplation phases could be achieved in a variety of formats. For example, instructors can:

- provide short workshops for students (e.g., no more than 30 minutes in length and offered at a variety of different days and times);

- develop new media by offering these workshops and the information provided through a virtual or online component to aid in reaching a larger audience whose schedule does not allow for them to attend an in-person event;

- post social media messages including quick facts, sample workouts, or words of encouragement; and

- post signs on campus, specifically in parking lots and near elevators, to encourage walking or taking the stairs. Fun tips can be added, such as an estimated number of calories students would burn by walking the stairs.

Preparation

In the preparation stage, individuals are ready to change and develop an action plan. Considering college-aged students, campuses should offer a variety of different opportunities for activity to support this change. These should be appropriate for individuals of all levels of fitness and appeal to a range of interests, from those seeking recreational fitness to those wanting a more competitive sport environment. Several departments within the college or university can provide these opportunities for student involvement.

University recreation departments can offer group fitness classes, weight room facilities, club and intramural sports, and outdoor recreation trips. These departments also have the capability of offering several types of incentive programs to increase participation and provide students with the extrinsic rewards they may find motivating. Examples include:

- Developing a point system where students earn “points” for attending a group fitness class or an outdoor recreation trip and can turn in their accumulated points for a prize, such as a shirt or water bottle;

- Develop challenges for students to participate in month long fitness “challenges” with a friend or team, have their names posted on a leaderboard, and compete for a prize; and

- Implement group training where students join a training group specifically working towards a

goal or end result. The goal could be anything from weight loss to completion of a 5k mud run.

A physical education department could also be involved by offering semester long health and physical activity classes. These classes would not only provide activity opportunities for students but also provide valuable content knowledge, safe practices, and mastery of skill components. In many cases, the students are motivated by the fact that they are earning college credits and a grade that will factor into their transcript and grade point average. These classes will typically conduct beginning and ending fitness and body composition measurements, which then provides objective results and proof of progress. In addition, due to the nature of the class(es), timely attendance and participation is critical. Students are able to have the accountability that many are missing and seeking to stay on track towards their fitness goals.

Marketing of these educational and activity opportunities to the student body in an effective and timely manner is key. Other than the standard flyers, emails, or social media posts, holding classes in visible areas of campus will spark an interest and allow students to see the class in action. Collaboration among departments and instructors can also lead to extra credit opportunities for student involvement or integration of these components into course curriculum.

Action and Maintenance

In the action stage, the individual is implementing the new healthy behavior. In the maintenance stage, the individual is working towards staying on track with this behavior until it becomes part of his/her life. It is important to note that not all students will follow this path as laid out and that many will have setbacks. Awareness and acknowledgement that this is normal and part of the process will help prevent discouragement for the students.

Conclusion

When the healthy behavior has become a part of the students' lives and there is no temptation to return to the old behavior, then the behavior change has entered the termination stage and is complete. However, due to

a variety of both internal and external factors, healthy behaviors often need to be revisited and adjusted periodically. For example, while a certain exercise regimen may provide desired body composition results for a time, our bodies' ability to adapt will cause a need to introduce new exercises to the routine. Periodic re-evaluation by the university departments of the programs offered will also help avoid plateaus and maintain progress towards participation and successful healthy behavior change.

If we understand the importance of helping others through the Stages of Behavior Change Model, we can effectively promote health and physical activity among the college student audience. In addition, the principles can be applied to any age group. For K-12 teachers, YOU can be the model of healthy lifestyle choices for the next generation as their behaviors are forming. Health education can be incorporated into physical education and physical activity lessons, and the same extrinsic and intrinsic rewards that were used for the college students can be a motivation for these younger students as well. Finally, by encouraging healthy behaviors for the younger generation now, we are building a strong foundation to continue these behaviors into the future.

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Christine Knoll is an instructor in the Department of Leadership and Instruction at the University of West Georgia, in Carrollton, GA.

For additional information pertaining to this article, please contact Christine Knoll at cknoll@westga.edu

edTPA for Physical Education Mentor Teachers: An Overview of edTPA
Matthew A. Grant & Sonya L. Sanderson
Valdosta State University

Abstract

Teacher candidates in the state of Georgia are now required (fall 2015) to pass a national teacher assessment portfolio known as the education Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA). This is one of the many requirements (pass GACE content tests, pass GACE ethics assessment, and pass their Education Preparation Provider program's student teaching requirements) needed to earn their induction certificate to teach in Georgia public schools. This assessment is completed during the student teacher's clinic experience (student teaching) for a total of three to five lessons or three to five hours of instruction. For mentor teachers to be more supportive of teacher candidates completing the edTPA tasks, they should become familiar with this assessment's requirement. This article is the first of a two-part series focused on giving physical education mentor teachers insights into the requirements and themes of the edTPA. More specifically, this article provides an overview of the edTPA and discusses ways that mentor teachers can better support teacher candidates during their student teaching semester.

Keywords: edTPA, teacher assessment, certificate requirement

edTPA for Physical Education Mentor Teachers: An Overview of edTPA

This is the first of a two-article series focused on providing mentor teachers a basic understanding of the requirements and themes of the education Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA). Beginning in the fall semester of 2015, the Georgia Department of Education (GaDOE) and Professional Standards Commission (GaPSC) implemented a statewide policy requiring teacher candidates in Education Preparation Provider (EPP) programs to pass a national teacher assessment portfolio known as the education Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA). The Stanford Center for

Assessment, Learning and Equity (SCALE) and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) partnered together to craft and deliver this national teacher assessment program that uses an authentic capstone portfolio for evaluating the planning, instruction, and assessment skills of teacher candidates (SCALE, 2015a). This assessment is completed during the student teacher's clinic experience (student teaching) for a total of three to five lessons or three to five hours of instruction. A successful teacher candidate must demonstrate a readiness to teach in these three areas by achieving Georgia's statewide passing score, which is one requirement for teacher candidates who seek to earn their induction certificate to teach in Georgia public schools.

The adoption of a consequential passing score resulted from several years of implementation, pilot studies, and analysis within the universities that educated teacher candidates on how to prepare, complete, and ultimately pass this portfolio assessment. The trickle-down effect of this requirement also impacts the type and depth of support needed from physical education mentors within P-12 schools. This effect means that mentor teachers within the state must have a working knowledge of the requirements of edTPA in order to help teacher candidates successfully collect the evidence of their planning, instructing, and assessing P-12 students. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to provide an overview of the edTPA assessment requirements and discuss supporting teacher candidates to mentor teachers¹.



Assessment Overview

The edTPA consists of three tasks: planning, instruction, and assessment (See Table 1). Illustrated as a cycle of teaching, these three tasks represent the major skill sets of teachers (SCALE, 2015c). Within each task, teacher candidates are required to compile evidence of and reflect upon their execution of these skill sets. The presentation of these materials should make up a portfolio that showcases the abilities of the teacher candidate to create plans for, instruct students within, and assess student proficiencies during a learning segment (3-5 lessons or 3-5 hours of instruction). For the field of physical education, national scorers² use this evidence to assess teacher candidates through the application of 15 rubrics (5 rubrics for each task) on a scale of 1 to 5 with “5” representing an accomplished teacher, “3” characterizing a beginning teacher, and “1” showing areas of deficiency³. Prior to starting the edTPA, SCALE and AACTE provide teacher candidates with various sources of information⁴ and instruction to help them navigate the creation of their edTPA. Based on that information, the following is a quick overview of each task and ways that a mentor teacher can help.

Task 1 - Planning

Teacher candidates begin the planning process by creating a learning segment. This process includes the writing of a central focus—a general objective that encapsulates the intended outcomes of the learning segment—and lesson plans using specific objectives that connect with standards and learning tasks (i.e., activities). These lessons should build upon one another, connect domain learning, address student needs, encourage the use of academic language (see Academic Language section), and assess student learning in order to develop proficiencies in the psychomotor, cognitive, and affective domains. Further, teacher candidates will need to consider the students’ prior academic learning and personal, cultural, and community assets or experiences when planning the learning segment.

Teacher candidates must submit evidence of their planning as well as answer prompts from a com-

mentary template on their rationale and reflection on the process of planning. For mentors, this means that a teacher candidate in one’s gymnasium might need several pieces of information and support in collecting some data. First, the teacher candidate will need to complete a Context for Learning Template. This prompts the teacher candidate to describe the type of school, details about facilities, description of the course, and, most importantly for rubric two, identification of IEP/504 students and their needs. This can be done in an interview format, but, as with all documents for edTPA, a mentor teacher cannot review, critique, or help write any materials or documents (i.e., lesson plans or commentaries) that teacher candidates will submit for scoring. Second, the teacher candidate might ask his/her mentor teacher about the students’ previous academic learning or their personal, cultural, or community assets or experiences. The intent is to talk about what the students should know and what they experience as it relates to the focus of the learning segment. For instance, if the learning segment teaches soccer, mentor teachers might let the teacher candidate know which students play the sport, the value of the sport in the community, and if there is a cultural value place on it for some students. If a mentor teacher does not know the answers to these questions, mentors could allow the teacher candidate to ask the students prior to planning for the learning segment.

Task 2 – Instruction

Teacher candidates must instruct the students using the lesson and assessment plans they created. To fulfill the requirements, evidence must show a physical and emotionally safe environment where the students follow rules and routines and appropriate time on task for the development of competencies in at least the psychomotor domain. Instruction should include learning tasks in which the three domains of physical education are taught along with the academic language. Teacher candidates should teach using cues or prompts and demonstrations or explorations as well as provide individual and group specific, corrective feedback. The final consideration for the teacher candidate is to select three

focus students who represent the various levels of proficiency in the class. These students will be specifically addressed in the final task in order to show how the teacher candidate assessed, supported, and planned for each level of students.

To collect the necessary evidence of this skill set, each lesson should be video recorded. Therefore, a video recorder will need to be in the gymnasium or outside on the fields. The teacher candidate will use this footage to select video clips of his/her teaching of students that sufficiently demonstrates various aspects of responsible teaching (See Table 1, rubrics 6 to 9). In support of this task, the mentors might need to help the teacher candidate process permission from parents and/or guardians in order to have the P-12 students video recorded. Secondly, mentor teachers can help in setting up and monitoring the video recorder. That said, the teacher candidate is responsible to provide a video recorder or any other materials in this task. The mentor teacher is not responsible for tasks. Additionally, the teacher candidate must submit a commentary for the instruction task, which does not need the support of the mentor teacher.

Task 3 – Assessment

The final task requires the teacher candidate to analyze the collected data, present those results, and provide the next steps in the students' learning of the selected skills. The teacher candidate will summarize the results of data collection to encapsulate the learning of the students throughout the learning segment. Within the process, the teacher candidates will submit evidence of and commentary surrounding the use of feedback and supports for using that feedback by the class and the three selected focus students in Task 2. Additionally, as part of the commentary for Task 2, teacher candidates will describe the tasks in which the P-12 students used academic language. Finally, based on the data analysis, the teacher candidates will construct a next step for P-12 student development to reach or further learning segment outcomes.

Like the other two tasks, all aspects of the assessment task will be supported with evidence. Unlike the other tasks, all data were collected during the instruction of the learning segment. This means mentors cannot help the teacher candidate with this task because it entails the data analysis, selection of direct evidence, and the writing of commentary. Outside of allowing a teacher candidate access to a copier or scanner for digitizing documents, the teacher candidate must work alone.

The edTPA process seems quite complicated when it is first presented—each overview paragraph might seem overwhelming or confusing initially. The hope of this section was to help mentor teachers understand what teacher candidates must navigate when creating their edTPA and, more importantly, the type of support that might be provided by mentor teachers. That said, there is a word of caution. A mentor teacher cannot provide advice, supply materials, review documents, critique instruction, edit video, or provide help outside of the above-mentioned supports. If there is a question as to the appropriate support, the mentor teacher should not provide support until he/she has contacted the university supervisor for guidance.

Discussion

The edTPA is a national teacher assessment using an authentic capstone experience portfolio designed for evaluating the planning, instruction, and assessment skills of teacher candidates. As explained above, each task has specific requirements. Task 1 requires the completion and submission of lesson plans, teaching materials, assessments, task commentary, and a context for learning. In Task 2, teacher candidates must video record instruction, create video clips to demonstrate instruction competencies, and write a commentary about decisions made during instruction. Finally, Task 3 requires the presentation of an analysis of a formative/summative assessment and evidence-based supports for the learning of the class, which includes strengths and weaknesses of the whole class and groups of students with similar needs. Within this task, teacher candidates will write a commentary, provide additional evidence of

feedback, and use of academic language by P-12 students.

At first, these requirements can be overwhelming. They seem specific and demanding for teacher candidates and, as a result, the mentor teachers. The good news is that mentor teachers do not need to fully comprehend all the nuances of edTPA to support teacher candidates, but they should understand the type and depth of support they can give. Here are a few guidelines for providing appropriate help:

First, outside of the edTPA portion of the clinical practice, mentor teachers will still offer support as they always have to teacher candidates for successful completion of student teaching (i.e., classroom management, instructional strategies, teaching methods, etc.). For instance, mentor teachers will continue giving constructive feedback to teacher candidates dealing with professionalism, communication, planning, and delivery of lessons on a daily basis. Further, they will continue collaborating daily with teacher candidates. This encourages professional dialogue that will provide benefits for both veteran teachers and teacher candidates. These types of supports are unchanged outside of the edTPA. During the edTPA learning segment, mentor teachers should not provide feedback to the teacher candidate that could change the planning, instruction, or assessment of P-12 students. These could include, but are not limited to, suggestions for improving lesson plans, updating teaching materials, encouraging more feedback, correcting classroom management, changing student assessments, or proofreading any documents or materials. All of the work submitted must be the creation of the teacher candidate with no help outside of the suggestions outlined in this article.

Second, in support of edTPA, a teacher candidate might ask questions about the past academics of the class, physical education course details (i.e., schedule or texts required), or demographics of the school. For these types of questions, the mentor teacher should feel free to help. It is suggested that mentors orally answer these types of questions during an interview in which the teacher candidate takes notes. If a teacher candidate has

a question that is not part of the document entitled “Context for Learning”, mentor teachers should check with the teacher candidate’s supervisor before answering the question.

Finally, it might be beneficial for mentor teachers to review this article with the teacher candidates in order to evaluate their readiness and make plans for the completion of the edTPA. Issues such as when the teacher candidate will teach the learning segment, how to best video the class, permission slips for video recording, or other supports such as the context for learning could be discussed well in advance. Therefore, having the teacher candidate read this article with the mentor teacher might facilitate a productive conversation about edTPA and discussion on how to fit it in the clinical experience.

Teacher candidates need support from their mentor teachers dealing with edTPA as they enter future placements. Understanding the requirements of edTPA is a learning process for mentor teachers. Like any other change to a curriculum or certification prerequisites, each time a mentor teacher helps a teacher candidate with the edTPA his or her comprehension of this assessment will be strengthened. If questions arise about appropriate support, mentor teachers should ask university supervisors questions if they have specific areas of concern when it comes to edTPA and its requirements. Remember, mentor teachers do not have to understand everything about edTPA to successfully support teacher candidates; they simply need to understand what assistance teacher candidates can and cannot receive. The more that mentors understand about the edTPA process the more they can guide their teacher candidates.

Matthew A. Grant is an Assistant Professor and
Sonya L. Sanderson is an Associate Professor at
Valdosta State University.

For additional information pertaining to this
article, please contact Matthew Grant at
matgrant@valdosta.edu

Table 1

edTPA Requirements Overview

Tasks	Rubrics	Focus	Focus
1 – Planning	1	Developing competencies	Skill development in all domains
	2	Supporting varied student learning needs	Differentiation
	3	Using knowledge of students	Past academic performance and student experiences
	4	Identifying and supporting language	Academic language
	5	Assessing and monitoring student learning	Assessment plan
2 – Instruction	6	Learning environment	Safety, routines/rules, rapport with students
	7	Engaging students in learning	Learning tasks in all domains
	8	Strengthening student competencies	Corrective feedback and differentiation
	9	Teaching with subject-specific pedagogy	Cues/prompts and demonstrations/ explorations
	10	Analyzing teaching	Changes to learning tasks
3 – Assessment	11	Analysis of student learning	Evidence-based analysis/differentiation
	12	Providing feedback	Corrective feedback and focus students
	13	Student use of feedback	Specific supports for students to use feedback and focus students
	14	Analyzing student language use	Evidence of students using academic language
	15	Informing instruction	Next steps through developing learning tasks

Note. This is adopted from the documents created by SCALE (SCALE, 2015c, 2015d).

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Demography of Race, Socio-Economic Status (SES) and High School Athletic Participation

Kenneth, C. Teed¹ & Scott R. Johnson
University of West Georgia¹

Abstract

Examining a population's culture, ethnicity, social grouping (to include SES) and academic performance may yield pertinent information which may explain athletic participation of high school students. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the demography, social class, and academic performance of approximately 25,000 secondary school students who participated in the National Longitudinal Education Study (NELS). The present study was delimited to students who participated in intramurals and/or interscholastic athletic activities during the 10th- and/or 12th- grades. Specific research hypothesis examined ethnicity, gender, athletic participation, socioeconomic status (SES), and academic performance. Results indicated males participated in athletics at a higher rate than females (60% vs. 40%). Female athletic participants scored slightly higher nationally than males on academic performance. Participants' residence in the United States does not influence the rate of athletic participation. SES scores are not related to gender; they do appear to be related to the racial make-up of the athletes. African American and Hispanic sport participants scored lower on a composite SES score than Caucasian athletes, who appeared to be much more affluent. Further research is needed to further evaluate the changing shift of populations and the subsequent effects they have on who participates in sport.

Demography of Race, Gender, Socio-Economic Status (SES) and High School Athletic Participation

Most high schools in the United States offer some form of extracurricular activity (e.g., music, academic clubs, and sports) (O'Brien & Rollefson, 1995). Approximately, seventy to eighty percent of all high school students participate in some type of extracurricular activity (Hoffman, 2006; Carnegie Corporation,

1992; Office of Educational Research and Improvement [OERI], 1986). Lewis (1992) and Wendall (1979) indicated participation rates for school sponsored extracurricular activities are higher than community-based extracurricular activities. O'Brien and Rollefson reported athletic activities draw the largest participation rates (42%), followed by performing arts (28%), and academic clubs (26%). An estimated 7.2 million high school students participated in athletic activities during the 2005-2006 academic year (National Federation of State High School Associations [NFHS], n.d.).

Historical Overview of Extracurricular Activity Participation

Many educators were opposed to extracurricular participation prior to 1900 (Gholson & Buser, 1983; Marsh & Kleitman, 2003). Gholson and Buser (1983) revealed these educators believed the purpose of schooling was entirely academic (i.e., the pursuit of knowledge). Extracurricular activities are time-consuming, require effort, and utilize resources which otherwise might be devoted toward the improvement of academic achievement (Sedlak, Wheeler, Pullin, & Cusick, 1985). Therefore, extracurricular participation in other activities was discouraged and not approved within the educational system's framework. For example, fraternities and sororities met secretly and hidden from educators, while the boy scouts were conducted outside of the school institution (Gerber, 1996).

However, Gerber (1996) explained almost a complete reversal in educators' attitudes has taken place during the 20th century. Today, educators promote extracurricular activity participation due to the influence these activities have on an individual's overall development (Gerber; Gholson & Buser). Extracurricular activities allow students the opportunity to learn numerous life skills. Teamwork, individual and group responsibility, physical conditioning, competition, and develop a sense of community would be such an example (O'Brien & Rollefson). Stevens and Peltier (1994) concluded student participation in extracurricular activities enhanced leadership, responsibility, and perseverance. Also, Zaff, Moore, Papillo, and Williams (2003) suggested extracurricular participation may increase students' level of

volunteerism and civic service.

In addition, participation in extracurricular activities can provide students an avenue to apply their academic skills (e.g., Mathematics, English) in various settings (e.g., athletic and business environments) (O'Brien & Rollefson). Participation in extracurricular activities may increase students' sense of engagement or attachment to their school (Finn, 1993; Lamborn, Brown, Mounts, & Steinberg, 1992). Specifically, status derived from social, academic, or athletic achievement in extracurricular activities may enhance an individual's interest in school (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1990).

Also, Holland and Andre (1987) concluded, "opportunities and context provided by secondary schools also influence adolescent development" (p. 437). Holland and Andre explained success or failure in both academic and athletic activities associated with the degree of encouragement provided for these activities influence adolescents' self esteem, aspirations, and values. Hence, schools provide a structural framework for peer interactions while students participate in academic and athletic activities (Holland & Andre). Therefore, "through the pattern of extracurricular activities schools allow or disallow, facilitate or inhibit, and the pattern of tangible and intangible rewards provided for participation in activities, schools influence personality development and socialization" (Holland & Andre, p.437).

Additional factors (e.g., parental and peer influences and encouragement from teachers) have also been associated with a drastic change in the participation rates of extracurricular activity among youths (Coleman, 1959, 1961; Holland & Andre, 1987). Thus, researchers are continuing to analyze the relationship between personal development and extracurricular participation at the high school level (Broh 2002; Gerber, 1996; Lisella & Serwatka, 1996).

Theoretical Perspectives

The value of extracurricular activity participation in secondary schools has long been debated in the United States. The influence of students participating in extracurricular activities during their high school years has produced many theoretical perspectives. Most of

these perspectives are based on the early work of noted social scientist James Coleman (1959, 1961). These proposed theoretical perspectives attempt to identify the benefits or pitfalls of extracurricular participation among high school students. Specifically, does extracurricular participation promote or impede an individual's personal development during adolescence and beyond?

Coleman believed greater involvement in extracurricular activity necessitates a decreased involvement in academic pursuits. Based on this proposition, Coleman's "*zero-sum model*" implies a person who devotes more time to extracurricular participation will be diverting attention from his or her academic work. In other words, time dedicated to participation in extracurricular activities is believed to divert students from their scholastic goals (Camp, 1990). Therefore, academic performance is negatively affected by extracurricular participation (i.e., athletics).

Coleman's argument regarding athletic participation relied on his findings that athletic participation was the main determinant of social status (i.e., prestige) of male high school students (Fejgin, 1994; Coleman 1959, 1961). Coleman (1961) also proclaimed high schools vary in value climate, so the status derived from social, academic, or athletic achievement may vary depending on the value placed on each activity. Thus, when a student views an activity (e.g., athletics, clubs) as rewarding either socially, academically, or athletically and the school places a high value on this activity (i.e., promotion), the likelihood of the individual participating in this activity increases (Coleman, 1961).

Since educators and the public have begun to critically examine the relationship between secondary schools and extracurricular activity participation, Holland and Andre (1987) concluded available research examining extracurricular participation provides educators with evidence relationships between participation and personality/social characteristics exist. Specifically, Holland and Andre believed extracurricular activity participation can play an important role in the school's contribution to each adolescent's development. However, causal relationships between extracurricular participation

and adolescent development could not be determined.

Holland and Andre explained the perspective in which an individual will develop regarding extracurricular activities varies with the values and goals a student has for schools. Therefore, the “*academic perspective*” of schools focuses on the pursuit of academic excellence and transmission of formal knowledge. Additionally, extracurricular activities provide a means of relaxation or fun, but are clearly unimportant to the primary purpose of school systems. Counterbalanced to this position, Holland and Andre proposed the “*developmental perspective*” in which school systems should provide “experiences that further the total development of individual students” allowing both non-academic programs and academic programs to be facilitators in the development of the individual (Holland & Andre, p. 438).

Finn (1989) developed the “*participation-identification model*” which emphasizes positive outcomes are maximized to an optimal level if the student continues to participate in school-relevant activities. According to Finn, extracurricular activities may potentially contribute to the student’s sense of identification with school. Marsh’s (1992) “*commitment to school*” hypothesis supported Finn’s “*participation-identification model*” and revealed identification with school and school values are enhanced by total extracurricular activity participation. Specifically, Marsh postulated extracurricular activity participation increased academic self-concept, which in turn enhanced school performance.

In addition, Marsh (1993) developed the “*identification/commitment model*” which indicates sport participation can potentially increase a student’s identification, involvement, and commitment with his/her school. Thus, the “promotion of participation in sport is likely to have positive effects across a wide variety of educationally relevant outcomes for a diversity of students” (Marsh, 1993, p. 38). Furthermore, Finn (1993) and Lamborn, Brown, Mounts, & Steinberg (1992) indicated extracurricular activity participation may provide students with a higher sense of engagement or attachment to their school.

Brown (1988) believed the effect of extracurricular participation and adolescent development is different among students with different social or intellectual backgrounds. Therefore, gender may be another factor influencing adolescent development (Marsh, 1993).

Hanson and Kraus (1999) indicated the number of female participants in high school athletics has increased from approximately 250,000 in 1970-71 to 1.86 million in 1989-90 to 2.36 million in 1996-97. Today, approximately 3 million girls are participating in high school athletics in the United States (National Federation of State High School Associations [NFHS], n.d.).

Due to the increase in extracurricular activity participation of girls, Hanson and Kraus (1998, 1999) noted the importance of determining gender effects on athletic participation. Marsh (1993) discovered various theoretical theories have investigated the role of the female athlete (see Goldberg & Chandler, 1989; Melnick, Vanfossen, & Sabo, 1988). Results have shown multiple roles may potentially be complimentary and athletic participation may improve broadly defined academic outcomes (e.g., school grades and educational aspirations) (Marsh, 1993).

Specifically, Goldberg and Chandler (1989) assessed student’s perceptions of commitment to athletic and academic role-identities. Results revealed males (54%) and females (53%) would like to be remembered as outstanding students; whereas males (53%) and females (34%) would like to be remembered as outstanding athletes. Additionally, males (32%) and females (20%) would like to be remembered as both outstanding athletes and outstanding students.

Since it is apparent some individuals would like to be remembered as both an outstanding student and athlete (i.e., student-athlete), Synder (1985) and Snyder and Spretizer (1990) examined the effects of a “*multiple role theory*” on extracurricular participation. This multiple role theory assumes adolescents will “*take-on*” the roles of student and athlete. Synder (1985) and Snyder and Spretizer (1990) exclaimed multiple roles may be complimentary and may lead to energy expansion.

While extracurricular participation may lead to future success and higher levels of school identification, an individual may be influenced to participate in extracurricular activities by their own individual identity within our society and the potential of role confusion (Chandler & Goldberg, 1990). Social roles are associated with certain expectations about a person's actions and behaviors as well as the obligations that accumulate within this person as a function of these roles (Kitchener, 1988). Role confusion may occur when an individual experiences: 1) multiple roles with conflicting role expectations; 2) performance expectations that are unrealistic or beyond their reach; or 3) various status groups (e.g., parents) within the social framework with conflicting values and interests (Chandler & Goldberg, 1990). Thus, role confusion may lead to lowered self-esteem and increased susceptibility to peer group pressures. For example, an individual may or may not participate in extracurricular activities because of societal pressures.

Due to the development of male and female extracurricular programs within secondary educational systems, a major change regarding sport participation for American adolescents has occurred (Thirer & Wright, 1985). As previously mentioned, researchers have proposed effects of participation in sport should vary with the characteristics of the individual, the peer group, or the school system (Coleman, 1959, 1961; Goldberg & Chandler, 1989). Thus, many researchers have postulated the following question, "do all students gain similar benefits from extracurricular participation" (Broh 2002, McNeal, 1999).

Race and Sport

Once again, Brown (1988) believed the effect of extracurricular participation and adolescent development is different among students with different social or intellectual backgrounds. In addition, Nixon (1984) determined Americans generally believe high school athletics help white males to obtain corporate jobs and promotions, encourage poor black males to go to college,

and foster character development which in turn spawns achievement in adult life.

Interestingly, Lisella and Serwatka (1996) concluded eighth grade minority males had higher participation rates than white males in athletic activities. However, cause and effect relationships could not be determined in the present investigation. Additionally, these higher levels of extracurricular participation do not necessarily produce higher levels of academic achievement (Lisella and Serwatka). Lapchick (2000) explained times have changed within today's society and our youth are forced to balance life and death instead of academics and athletics.

Rehberg and Schafer (1968) indicated benefits from extracurricular participation in sport are the greatest for those students who have some educational aspirations of attending college. Picou (1978) proposed mechanism(s) through which participation in sport influences educational aspirations are different for black and white athletes. For example, Picou found athletic achievement predicted academic achievement performance for white students and the educational aspirations of black students. Specifically, Picou acknowledged athletic achievement allowed white students to associate with a college-oriented peer group. Therefore, this association produced an "indirect" effect on educational aspirations. On the contrary, athletic achievement provided a "direct" effect on the educational aspirations of black athletes.

Holland and Andre (1987) explained a "direct effect" occurs when an individual is participating in an activity. Holland and Andre indicated the "direct effect" process is influenced by: 1) the success which the individual achieves via participation in an activity; 2) the material and social reinforcements the individual receives from activity participation (e.g., parents, peers, teachers, and community); 3) skills acquired from activity participation; 4) social comparison and/or attributes made by the individual; 5) changes in peer groups; 6) exposure to different value systems; and 7) developmental aspects of an individual's life (e.g., responsibility).

Therefore, athletic participation may lead to direct social reinforcements and a sense of accomplishment (Holland and Andre).

This “direct effect” of extracurricular activity participation may also be attributed to ethnic differences in support groups. Hays and Mindel (1973) concluded blacks are characterized, more than whites, by having a larger number of educational significant others. Picou indicated coaches may be an influential support for black athletes. Picou’s results may be enmeshed within a socio-psychological mechanism which may be associated with black athletes’ educational aspirations (Edwards, 1973). Edwards (1973) explained athletic achievement may improve self esteem/self concept of blacks because of the traditional status bestowed sports achievement in the black community.

Edwards (1980) noted traditionally blacks have believed the only hope of escape for themselves has come from military enlistment or a successful athletic career. Thus, Edwards (2000a) indicated black families have encouraged their children to achieve athletic excellence and often neglected other areas of personal and cultural development.

Hoberman (2000) revealed over-identification with athletes and their athletic abilities limits the development of black children by inhibiting their quest for academic achievement. Nonetheless, Harrison (2000) stated “African American males will continue to be channeled in three venues with little resistance from mainstream institutions: 1) athlete; 2) entertainer; and 3) criminal” (p. 39). Harrison explained three factors comprise the framework of this systematic channeling: 1) consistent and historic continuance of promoting black athletic superiority and intellectual deficiency; 2) mass media efforts to promote the notion that sports is “the promise land” and the most accessible way for blacks to gain social and economic mobility; and 3) the lack of black role models in occupations outside of the athletic venue (e.g., physician, attorney) not to mention leadership occupations within the sports world (e.g., general manager, franchise owner).

Edwards (2000b) concluded over the next thirty years the black male is increasingly going to be turning in his athletic uniform for a jail uniform. Edwards indicated many young black athletes come from the “lower echelons of black society.” Thus, a high number of these individuals have disengaged themselves from every institutional structure within our society besides sports (Edwards, 2000b). Edwards supported his views by revealing young blacks drop out of school in disproportionately high numbers, experience staggering rates of unemployment, and are increasingly becoming affiliated with gangs. However, after controlling for race, socio-economic status, gender, and employment, McNeal (1995) and Yin and Moore (2004) indicated extracurricular participation in athletics significantly decreased the likelihood of students dropping out from school.

Surprisingly, Hanson (2005) explained a majority of research concerning race and sport has evaluated differences between African Americans and Whites (Eitle & Eitle, 2002) or African Americans, Hispanics, and Whites (Cogan & Petrie, 1996). Therefore, it is apparent “racial ideology encourages people to see the world in terms of black and white. Many people learn to use a form of racial profiling as they try to make sense of people, actions, relationships, and social life” (Coakley, 2004, p.290). Without question, future investigations should examine the effects of sport participation on a variety of ethnic groups.

Overview of the National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS:88)

NELS:88 is an extensive nationally-representative longitudinal investigation designed to provide researchers and educators with trend data concerning individuals’ transitions from elementary school and beyond post-secondary institutions or the work force. Specifically, in 1988, approximately 25,000 eighth grade students, their parents, their teachers, and their school principals participated in NELS:88. Follow-up data collections were conducted in 1990 – First Follow-Up (i.e., 10th grade), 1992 – Second Follow-Up

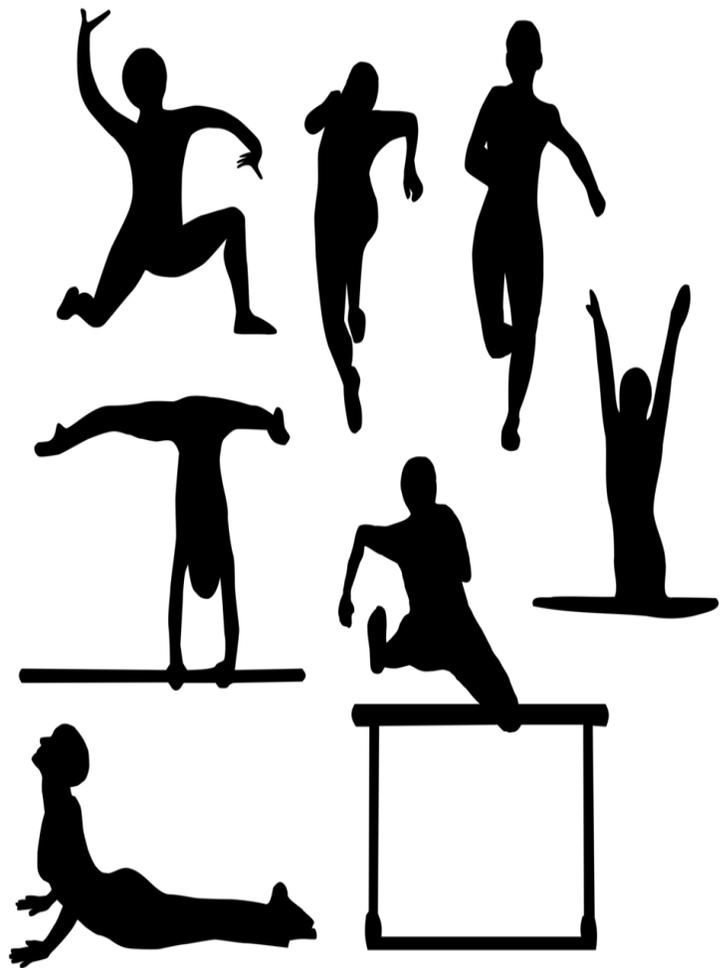
(i.e., 12th grade), 1994 – Third Follow-Up (i.e., 2 years post secondary), and 2000 – Fourth Follow-Up (i.e., 8 years post secondary), respectively.

Goldsmith (2003) utilized the First Follow-Up (1990) to assess extracurricular participation rates of African Americans and Whites in a variety of sports (e.g., football, baseball, swimming, cheerleading). Interestingly, differences in participation rates were not associated with the sporting activities schools offered. Therefore, Goldsmith explained “the relationship between SES, race, and culture is complex” (p. 152). Results indicated racial effects do exist concerning the type of sports African Americans and Whites play. Specifically, Whites’ higher SES and residing in a “nonpoor neighborhood” allow these individuals to participate more in swimming, soccer, and baseball. African Americans participate more in basketball due to strong racial effects (i.e., larger racial differences in schools with proportionately more African Americans and in schools with more racial hierarchy).

Hanson (2005) analyzed the sport participation rates of Asian American women students from the 8th through 12th grades. Results revealed Asian American women participate in sports as much as (if not more) than their Hispanic, African American, or White female counterparts. However, Asian American women participate in these athletic activities in different qualitative ways. Specifically, Hanson indicated Asian American women are more likely to participate in football and soccer in comparison to other female ethnic groups.

Utilizing NELS:88 data from Base Year (1988), First- and Second Follow- Up collections (1990 & 1992), Dawkins, Williams, and Guilbault (2006) assessed the relationship between sport participation and drug use among Black and White students. Results determined sport participation was negatively associated with cigarette and marijuana use for Black and White students. However, sport participation was negatively associated with alcohol use for Black female students.

Based on the previous literature, the purpose of the present investigation is to extend the research of extracurricular activity participation in the U.S. secondary



school systems. The present study examined a number of hypotheses. These being:

Hypotheses

- It is hypothesized that those students that participate in extracurricular sport will not be equally distributed. It is suggested that a definitive pattern will emerge when looking at the Race of the participant.
- It is hypothesized that females (Race) will not present a differentiated pattern of participation.
- High Socio-economic status background participants will participate in greater numbers in High School athletics than those with lower socio-economic scores.
- It is expected that there will be a relationship between the interaction of Race and SES level of those secondary students that participate in extracurricular sport.

Methods

NELS Data Set

The National Educational Longitudinal Study (NELS) is a data set that represents 3.1 million students in the United States. A sample of 25,000 students were measured in four distinct follow-up periods. Grade 10 (2 years), Grade 12 (four years), (c) 2 years post-secondary school (6 years). Students, their teachers, parents and school administrators were all used as data sources. The study was conducted by the NCES National Center for Educational Statistics (Federal Department of Education).

The Department of Education (National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.) documents report that this study collected data directly from the students on a number of areas. These being (a) school information, (b) work, and home experiences; (c) educational resources and support; (d) parents and peer perceptions about education; (e) neighborhood demographics; (f) occupational and post secondary educational goals; (g) and other student perceptions, (h) information about smoking, alcohol, drug use and extracurricular activities. Further data collection included achievement tests in reading, social studies, mathematics and science. This data was gleaned from the student questionnaires. Supplemental data was also collected from transcripts and data collected from parents, teachers and school administration personnel.

Sample Delimitations:

This study was delimited to nine thousand seven hundred and eighty (N = 9,780) high school students who participated in secondary school athletics.

Purpose of the current study:

The purpose of this study was to investigate the demography of Race and Socio-Economic Status and their effect on high school athletic participation. The ability to discern this information from such a large data set that was representative on a national scale sought to provide a more accurate insight into the social and educational landscape of this educational cohort. It was hoped that this data, in addition, to be more representative than smaller studies would seek to provide greater

clarity about current social paradigms and provide a meaningful platform to address areas that could improve the participation of all social and racial groups in sport.

Statistical Analysis:

After controlling for probability sampling weights (SES, Race and Gender) a number of inferential and descriptive techniques were used to answer the research questions posed in this study. It was important to interface with the NCES (Department of Education) to consult on the weights and the data set in order to complete this study.

Key Variables:

A number of key variables central to this research investigation are presented in order to better understand the data and research process that was done.

Athletic Participation:

The data was recoded to identify all those students who participated in 10th grade and 12th grade.

SES (Socio-Economic Status):

The SES variable was calculated using the NCES quartile data. Five items comprise the variable. The father's educational attainment, mother's educational attainment, father's occupation, mother's occupation, and family income were used to create data for the SES variable.

Gender and Race:

Gender is a very straight forward data point. Race was measured as a self-report data that ranged across a number of discrete ethnic groups. These being: (a) Asian, Pacific Islander, (b) Hispanic, (c) Black, not Hispanic, (d) White, not Hispanic, and (e) American Indian/Alaskan.



Sample Weights:

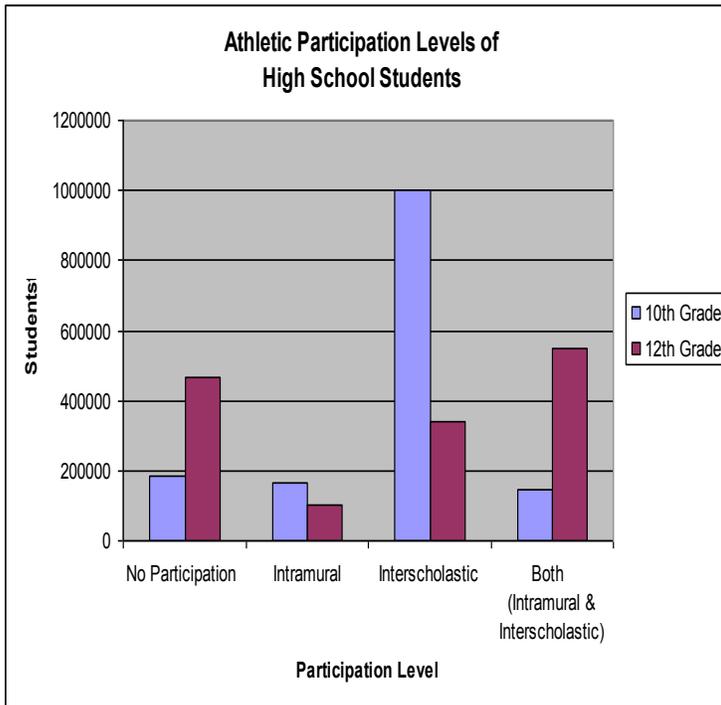
A sample of 25,000 8th grade students were used as representative sample of a national population. Weights for each year of data collection were constructed. Panel weights were developed for repeated measures.

Results

Athletic Participation

Figure / Table 1 highlights the participation over 10th and 12th grade by category. Noteworthy is the dramatic drop in interscholastic from grade 10 to 12 and subsequent increase in Intramural and interscholastic.

Figure 1: Athletic Participation Levels of High School Students during the 10th- and 12th- grades.



Race

The 10th - and 12th - grade athletic participation rates for high school students among various ethnic groups is displayed in Table 2. High school athletic participation rates appear to be consistent for all ethnic groups during 10th and 12th grade. However, athletic participation rates slightly decreased from 10th to 12th grade. All ethnic groups participated in high school sports at rates similar to the racial demography of the compiled U.S. Census population data. African Ameri-

cans did not participate in high school athletics at a larger rate in comparison to their respective U.S. Census population information. African Americans were slightly under represented in high school athletics in comparison to the overall NELS Base Year nationally representative sample.

Race and SES

The relationship between socio-economic status (SES) and Race for 10th grade- and 12th grade- students' athletic participation is shown on Table 3 and Table 4. Hispanics and African Americans participating in high school athletics during both the 10th and 12th grades were more likely to come from a lower SES (i.e., Quartile 1 or 2) background. Approximately 42 percent of Hispanics participating in high school athletics during the 12th grade were from the lowest SES quartile. Asians participating in high school athletics during both the 10th and 12th grades were more likely to come from the highest SES quartile (i.e., Quartile 4). Almost 40 percent of Asians who participated in high school athletics during the 12th grade came from the highest SES quartile. Less than 10 percent of Whites participating in high school athletics during both the 10th and 12th grades reported coming from the lowest SES quartile.

Race and Gender

The relationship of the gender of secondary school students across various ethnic groups who participated in athletics during the 10th - and/or 12th - grade is presented in Table 5 and Table 6. Results indicated males in all ethnic groups participated in high school athletics at a higher rate in comparison to females from the same ethnic group during the 10th - and 12th - grade. Within each ethnic group, participation levels remained consistent from 10th to 12th grade. However, the overall high school athletic participation rates slightly decreased from 10th to 12th grade across all racial groups. This indicates that once a student begins athletic participation few drop out regardless of race.

Table 2 (10th grade and 12th grade)

Athletic Participation by Race

Race	Grade 10	Grade 12	Base Year Sample % (weighted)
Asian, Pacific Islander			
Population Estimate	63473	62940	3.5
Population Estimate %	4.3	4.3	
Hispanic			
Population Estimate	123510	121250	10.4
Population Estimate %	8.3	8.3	
Black, Not Hispanic			
Population Estimate	183923	181434	13.2
Population Estimate %	12.4	12.5	
White, Not Hispanic			
Population Estimate	1098135	1074950	71.6
Population Estimate %	74.0	73.9	
American Indian			
Population Estimate	15387	14414	1.3
Population Estimate %	1.0	1.0	

(10th grade) ($\chi^2 = 17031.982$), $df = 4$, $p < .0001$

(12th grade) ($\chi^2 = 16971.803$), $df = 4$, $p < .0001$

Table 3

Population Estimates of 10th graders by Race and Socio-Economic Status Quartile

Race	Socio-Economic Status Quartile			
	Quartile 1	Quartile 2	Quartile 3	Quartile 4
Asian, Pacific Islander				
Population Estimate	7957	10434	14205	24799
Population Estimate %	12.5	16.4	22.4	39.1
Hispanic				
Population Estimate	48439	30171	21116	15252
Population Estimate %	39.2	24.4	17.1	12.3
Black, Not Hispanic				
Population Estimate	55566	56415	42982	23119
Population Estimate %	30.2	30.7	23.4	12.6
White, Not Hispanic				
Population Estimate	113756	255028	299382	413209
Population Estimate %	10.4	23.2	27.3	37.6
American Indian				
Population Estimate	4336	5176	4384	1119
Population Estimate %	28.2	33.6	28.5	2.4

Race and Athletic Participation

Table 7 and Table 8 described the ethnicity of high school students who participated in athletics during the 10th - and 12th - grade. Analyses revealed above 50 percent of all ethnic groups participated in “interscholastic sports only” during the 10th grade. Seventy percent of Whites participated in “interscholastic sports only” during the 10th grade. Within all ethnic groups, students’ athletic participation rates shifted away from participating in “interscholastic sports only” during the 12th grade. In other words, students either increased or decreased their athletic participation rates. Specifically, individuals participated in “interscholastic and intramural” athletic activities or “did not participate” in high school athletics at all. Even though the overall participation rates from 10th to 12th grade decreased, the amount of students participating in “interscholastic sports only” decreased from 67 percent to 23 percent from 10th to 12th grade, respectively.

Table 4

Population Estimates of 12th graders by Race and Socio-Economic Status Quartile

Race	<u>Socio-Economic Status Quartile</u>			
	Quartile 1	Quartile 2	Quartile 3	Quartile 4
Asian, Pacific Islander				
Population Estimate	11485	12117	14497	24164
Population Estimate %	18.2	19.3	23.0	38.4
Hispanic				
Population Estimate	50512	28538	23950	15159
Population Estimate %	41.7	23.5	19.8	12.5
Black, Not Hispanic				
Population Estimate	55556	55447	46185	23059
Population Estimate %	30.6	30.6	25.5	12.7
White, Not Hispanic				
Population Estimate	105289	248387	305807	411882
Population Estimate %	9.8	23.1	28.4	38.3

Socio-Economic Status (SES) and Race

Table 9 and Table 10 presented the ethnicity and SES of high students who participated in athletics during the 10th - and 12th - grade. Results determined, during the 10th grade, approximately 60 percent of Hispanics and African Americans indicated they were from SES Quartiles 1 and 2 (i.e., the two lowest SES quartiles). In addition, during the 10th

Table 5

Population Estimates of 10th graders by Race and Gender

Race	<u>Gender</u>	
	Male	Female
Asian, Pacific Islander		
Population Estimate	38195	25277
Population Estimate %	60.2	39.8
Hispanic		
Population Estimate	77809	45701
Population Estimate %	63.0	37.0
Black, Not Hispanic		
Population Estimate	115468	68455
Population Estimate %	62.8	37.2
White, Not Hispanic		
Population Estimate	655758	442378
Population Estimate %	59.7	40.3

grade, approximately 40 percent of both Asians and Whites were from the highest SES quartile (i.e., Quartile 4). Also, over 50 percent of Asians and Whites who participated in high school athletics reported being from the Quartiles 3 and 4 combined (i.e., the two highest SES quartiles) during the 10th grade. Asians from SES Quartile 1 increased their athletic participation rates during the 12th grade in comparison to their 10th grade participation. However, all other ethnic groups' athletic participation rates by SES remained consistent during the 12th grade.

Race, Gender and Academic Performance

Figure 2 shows the breakdown of race by gender of those students who participated in athletics on a composite math reading score.

First, our hypothesis pertaining to the participation rates of individuals from various ethnic groups was rejected. Specifically, high school athletic participation rates appear to be equally distributed across all ethnic groups within the sample. Therefore, a definite pattern for athletic participation during the 10th- and 12th- grade did not emerge based on an individual's race alone. Interestingly, African Americans participated at a slightly lower rate than the U.S. Census population data. Apparently, the notion that a majority of African Americans participate in high school athletics is not supported within the NELS data. A reason for these lower participation rates may lie

Table 6

Population Estimates of 12th graders by Race and Gender

Race	Gender	
	Male	Female
Asian, Pacific Islander		
Population Estimate	38690	24250
Population Estimate %	61.5	38.5
Hispanic		
Population Estimate	76949	44302
Population Estimate %	63.5	36.5
Black, Not Hispanic		
Population Estimate	114378	67056
Population Estimate %	63.0	37.0
White, Not Hispanic		

Table 7

Population Estimates of 10th graders by Race and Participation Level

Race		Participation Level			
		None	Intramural	Interscholastic	Interscholastic & Intramural
Asian, Pacific Islander					
Population Estimate	10108	11799	33539	8026	
Population Estimate %	15.9	18.6	52.8	12.6	
Hispanic					
Population Estimate	19860	17114	75325	11211	
Population Estimate %	16.1	13.9	61.0	9.1	
Black, Not Hispanic					
Population Estimate	29268	23387	114170	17097	
Population Estimate %	15.9	12.7	62.1	9.3	
White, Not Hispanic					
Population Estimate	120098	108689	763064	106284	
Population Estimate %	10.9	9.9	69.5	9.7	
American Indian					
Population Estimate	2765	2960	8359	1302	

within the opportunities to take part in high school athletics. Future research investigations should be conducted in order to better understand the reasons and surrounding factors that would increase athletic participation in secondary schools. The NELS data allows for a rich data source to be used as a tool to better understand the dynamics of demography as they apply to athletic participation.

Conclusions

Based on the present investigation's results, the investigators concluded:

- A) High school athletic participation rates appear to be equally distributed across all ethnic groups within the sample.

Therefore, educators and policy makers should continue to make certain high school athletics receive adequate funding in order for individuals from all ethnic backgrounds to have opportunities to play sports. If these opportunities to participate exist, then individuals from diverse ethnic backgrounds may develop social skills which will allow them to successfully communicate with a diverse

population. Specifically, individuals may learn how to communicate effectively with others from different ethnic backgrounds. High school athletic participation may provide individuals a chance to gain social perspectives from teammates as well as opponents. Thus, it is important to realize high school athletics have the potential to assist individuals with their overall personal development.

- B) Within their ethnic groups, African Americans and Hispanics from lower SES backgrounds participate in high school sports at higher rates.

The aforementioned participation rates for African Americans and Hispanics may be attributed to the pursuit of the

“American Dream.” Specifically, individuals from these ethnic backgrounds may believe high school athletic participation is one of a few “perceived to be realistic” ways of gaining wealth and status in our society. Therefore, if there is a perception of minimal access to higher education aspirations, individuals from lower SES backgrounds may believe gaining an athletic scholarship may be one a limited number of ways to gain admission into a university/college. If this notion is validated, then it is apparent as to the reason why SES would play an integral role in high school athletic participation for some ethnic groups.

C) Males who participate in high school athletics (over all ethnic groups) do so at a higher rate.

D) Females, within all ethnic groups, scored higher on the reading/math standardized test.

Since high school athletics is incorporated within the secondary educational system, it is important to provide athletes (i.e., students) with opportunities to develop into scholars. Based on the aforementioned results, it appears females, within all ethnic groups, performed slightly higher than males on the 12th grade composite Reading/Math exam. Hence, educators must work with these athletic participants, both male and female, in order to make certain everyone is developing their intellectual skills in the classroom prior to excelling in athletic competitions.

Future research investigations should continue to examine all high school students (athletes and non-athletes) in the United States.

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Table 8

Population Estimates of 12th graders by Race and Participation Level

Race	Participation Level			
	None	Intramural	Interscholastic	Interscholastic & Intramural
Asian, Pacific Islander				
Population Estimate	20247	5967	12896	23830
Population Estimate %	32.2	9.5	20.5	37.9
Hispanic				
Population Estimate	40652	10494	19575	50530
Population Estimate %	33.5	8.7	16.1	41.7
Black, Not Hispanic				
Population Estimate	62222	10253	30443	78515
Population Estimate %	34.3	5.7	16.8	43.3
White, Not Hispanic				
Population Estimate	336194	74178	275089	389489
Population Estimate %	31.3	6.9	25.6	36.2
American Indian				
Population Estimate	5119	905	2300	6090
Population Estimate %	35.5	6.3	16.0	42.3

(12th grade) ($\chi^2 = 13746.055$), $df = 12$, $p < .0001$

Table 9

Population Estimates of 10th graders by Socio-Economic Status Quartile and Race

Socio-Economic Status Quartile	Race				
	Asian/Pac. Isle.	Hispanic Hispanic	Black, non-Hispanic	White, non-Alaskan	Amer. Indian
Quartile 1					
Population Estimate	7957	48439	55566	113756	4336
Population Estimate %	3.5	21.1	24.2	49.4	1.9
Quartile 2					
Population Estimate	10434	30171	56415	255028	5176
Population Estimate %	2.9	8.4	15.8	71.4	1.4
Quartile 3					
Population Estimate	14205	21116	42982	299382	4384
Population Estimate %	3.7	5.5	11.2	78.4	1.1
Quartile 4					
Population Estimate	24799	15252	23119	413209	1119
Population Estimate %	5.2	3.2	4.8	86.5	.2

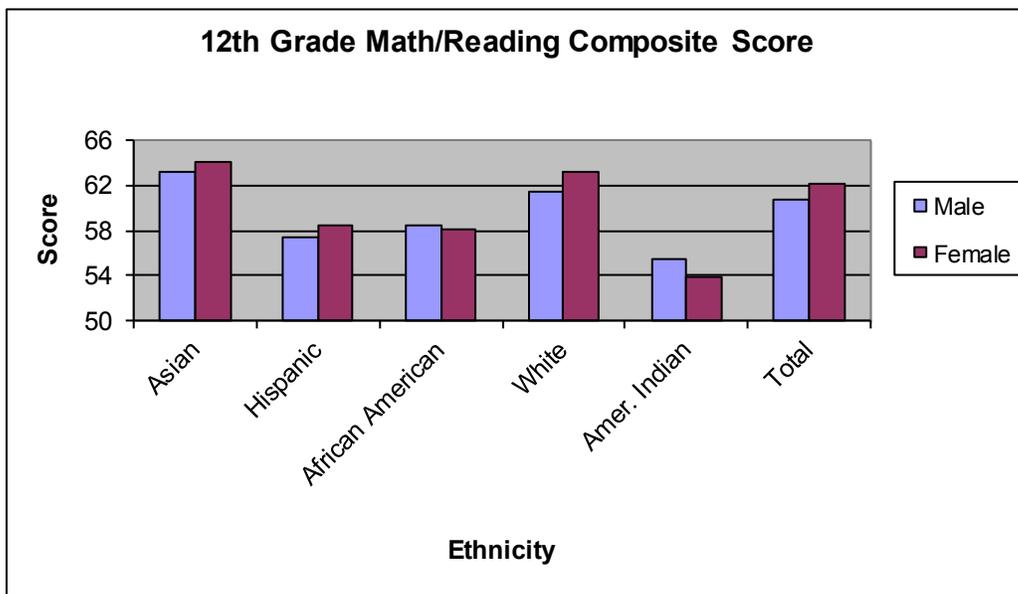


Table 10

Population Estimates of 12th graders by Socio-Economic Status Quartile and Race

Socio-Economic Status Quartile	Race				
	Asian/ Pac.Isle.	Hispanic	Black non- Hispanic	White	Amer. Indian/ Alaskan
Quartile 1					
Population Est.	11485	50512	55556	105289	3980
Population Est. %	5.1	22.3	24.5	46.4	1.8
Quartile 2					
Population Est.	12117	28538	55447	248387	4838
Population Est. %	3.5	8.2	15.9	71.1	1.4
Quartile 3					
Population Est.	14497	23950	46185	305807	4492
Population Est. %	3.7	6.1	11.7	77.4	1.1
Quartile 4					
Population Est.	24164	15159	23059	411882	1103
Population Est. %	5.1	3.2	4.9	86.6	.2

Figure 2: 12th grade Math/Reading Composite Score.



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Kenneth C. Teed is an Assistant Professor in the Sport Management Program in the Department of Leadership and Instruction at the University of West Georgia in Carrollton, GA.

For additional communication pertaining to this article, please communicate with Kenneth Teed at kteed@westga.edu



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