

The cover of the journal 'JOPERD' features a photograph of two soccer players' legs. The player on the left is wearing blue socks and black cleats, with one foot resting on a black and white soccer ball. The player on the right is wearing red socks with white stripes at the top and black cleats. The background is a green grass field.

JOPERD

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Sport Education

**Individualizing
Exercise**

**Early Correction
of Movement Errors**

Sport Education

Introduction

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FEATURE EDITOR

As sport education gains in popularity as a curriculum and instruction model, it may provide the needed impetus to put physical education firmly back on its feet in today's schools. The past several decades have seen a marked change in state and local laws requiring physical education within a child's schooling. Generally, the trend has progressed from daily required physical education for all children to our current status of a limited number of hours per week or credits per year in physical education. In some states physical education is being eliminated entirely from the required school curriculum. This trend resulted from a number of factors, including education reform efforts, criticism of teacher preparation, and economic uncertainty to name a few. This suggests that we, as physical educators, must take an active role in developing sound programs and promoting them to students, parents, teachers, and administrators (Tannehill & Zakrajsek, 1993). At the same time, physical educators themselves have expressed concern about the quality of physical education as it is delivered in our nation's schools.

What is being done in the name of physical education? Educational reform has begun to affect the physical education curriculum and the learning goals and objectives that guide them, leading to a number

of recommendations for change. Ennis (1992) directs us to the National Association for Sport and Physical Education outcome standards and their application to physical education learning goals; Hellison (1996) prompts physical education teachers to respond to the personal and social needs of students; Vickers (1992) bids us to develop more academically based programs to ensure our place in the total school curriculum; and Placek (1992) suggests that we move beyond "teaching students motor skills, games, sports, and fitness activities" to a fully integrated physical education.

One aspect of physical education that is taught almost universally across all levels is sports and games. Siedentop (1994) suggested that sport is not taught well in most physical education programs. Typically, we see physical educators teaching sport skills removed from the actual game. Students can be seen practicing sport skills in isolation with little emphasis given to strategies or how to incorporate them into a game. Recently, Siedentop (1996) broached the question, "What should students learn in the name of physical education today and what are the most effective ways for teachers to help them achieve those learning outcomes" (p. 248). He builds his discussion around current education topics such as outcomes-based education and alternative assessment using the sport education curriculum and instruction model as a means of providing authenticity to the sport experience within our program.

The intent of this feature is to build a case for designing and redesigning physical education as it is taught in schools and to place sport education at the forefront of the redesign. In order to do this, it is imperative that attention be given to physical across the spectrum, in school physical education at the elementary level through high school, in the training of preservice teachers, and in educating veteran teachers to the benefits of this model.

Each article will provide support for sport education as a curricular and instructional model, supply data on its status in schools, describe the positive impact it has had on children and youth as they experience sport in authentic ways, and discuss the challenge it has put back into teaching for veteran teachers.

In the first article, Siedentop discusses the purposes of sport education and its educational and developmental nature and clarifies how the curricular and instructional characteristics of the model support them. Alexander, Taggart, and Luckman provide support for sport education as a curricular and instructional model by sharing the impact it has had on physical education at the secondary level in New Zealand and Australia. This model was adopted in New Zealand and Australia as a means of overcoming some of the same types of problems plaguing physical education in the United States. The next four articles describe various aspects of sport education, including benefits inherent in the model, "how to's" relative to implementation, the role of teacher education programs in promoting sport education, and the necessity of delivering physical education through innovative, authentic programs. Hastie gives a synopsis of the benefits that have been reported when using the model to deliver physical education to children and youth. Two articles highlight the way sport education has been incorporated across the physical education curriculum and present a set of guidelines for teachers on how to develop and implement sport education into new or existing programs. Bell provides insight for the elementary level, while Jones and Ward share their perspective for the secondary level. Collier, who has had remarkable success at including sport education in the undergraduate curriculum and in student teaching, explores the variety of methods that might be used to teach prospective teachers how to build and deliver a

curriculum framed by sport education. In the final article, Knop and Pope link all the articles by focusing on the design, redesign, dissemination of sport education with specific emphasis on the benefits to children and youth as they experience what, in the past, had been limited to elite athletes in school or community sport programs. It is our hope that you will gain insight from this set of articles to inform the design and delivery of physical education using the Sport Education Curriculum and Instruction Model.

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Sport Education

What Is Sport Education and How Does It Work?

DARYL SIEDENTOP

Sport education is a curriculum and instruction model designed to provide authentic, educationally rich sport experiences for girls and boys in the context of school physical education (Siedentop, 1994). Sport education has an important *curricular* implication; that is, it cannot be fitted easily into a short unit, multiactivity program. Sport education also has important *instructional* implications; that is, its purposes are best achieved through combinations of direct instruction, cooperative small-group work, and peer teaching, rather than by total reliance on directive, drill-oriented teaching.

Basic Features

Sport education has six key features, which derive from how sport is conducted in community and interschool contexts (i.e., they derive from the authentic form of the activity within the larger culture). These features are seasons, affiliation, formal competition, culminating events, record keeping, and festivity.

Seasons. The "unit" in sport education is often two to three times longer than typical physical education units. The operational assumption here is that less is more or that

fewer activities covered in greater depth result in better educational outcomes than can be realized in the more typical, short unit, multiple-activity format.

Affiliation. Students become members of teams at the start of a season and retain their team affiliation throughout the season. Students plan, practice, and compete as a team. This feature also derives from evidence that suggests that much of the social meaning derived from sport experiences, as well as a large part of the personal growth often attributed to positive sport experiences, is intimately related to affiliation with a persisting group.

Formal competition. Sport seasons are typically defined by a schedule of formal competition interspersed with practice sessions. The affiliation and formal competition features combine to provide the opportunity for planning and goal setting that create the context for pursuing important outcomes that have real meaning for students.

Culminating event. It is in the nature of sport to find out who is best for a particular season and for others to mark their progress in relationship to that outcome. Culminating events (track and field finals,

volleyball championships, etc.) create the opportunity for festival and celebration of accomplishments, a significant characteristic of play and sport (Siedentop, 1981, 1994).

Record keeping. Records (shots on goals, points scored, times, blocks, steals, assists, etc.) provide feedback for individuals and groups. Records help to define standards and are fundamental to defining goals (reducing turnovers, improving times in a race, placing higher in a round-robin competition). Records also help to define sport traditions locally (6th-grade record for the long jump, 9th-grade team record for fewest points allowed per game in basketball).

Festivity. Sport competitions are occasions for festivity, from the major festivals associated with the Olympic Games to the Friday night festival of a high school football game to the family festival of a children's soccer game. In sport education, teachers and students work together to create a continual festival that celebrates improvement, trying hard, and playing fairly (posters, team colors, player introductions, award ceremonies, videotaping).

It should be noted that none of these features is typically present in

physical education. Instead, physical education is most frequently presented as a smorgasbord curriculum of short units. Students often do not know what will transpire in a class when they enter the teaching space. Team membership changes within lessons. The total experience is lacking in festivity.

Sport education is not, however, a direct simulation of institutionalized sport. It differs in three distinct ways: participation requirements, developmentally appropriate competition, and diverse roles. It remains authentic even though modified to fit the purposes of an educational setting.

Participation requirements. In sport education all students are involved at all times. This requirement affects the size of teams (small-sided teams are standard), the nature of competitions (no elimination formats), culminating events (all players/teams are involved), and playing time and position play (all students play equally and have equal opportunity to learn position play).

Developmentally appropriate competition. Sport forms used in sport education are matched developmentally to the abilities of students. Adult forms of games are not used. Small-sided games with modified rules, spaces, and equipment are typical. While playing hard and fairly to win is stressed, the dominating "ethic" of sport education is to take part fairly and to improve individual and team performance.

Diverse roles. In sport education, students learn diverse roles, whereas in sport (and typically in physical education) they learn only the performer role. In sport education, all students learn the performer, referee, and scorekeeper roles for each sport. Other roles, such as coach, manager, trainer, statistician, publicity officer, and sports board member are rotated as seasons and sports change. When students fulfill these roles responsibly, several important outcomes are achieved. As students learn roles and become more responsible for their own sport

experiences, the managerial and "traffic-director" role for the teacher diminishes. Also, students acquire knowledge and develop attitudes that will make them more informed participants in adult sport cultures.

Instructional Characteristics

Successful sport education relies on several instructional characteristics. While the model does not require that a particular form of instruction be used at all levels, by all teachers, for all sports, evidence (Carlson, 1995; Grant, 1992; Hastie, 1996; Siedentop, 1994) suggests similarities among successful trials of the model. These are managerial routines, duty teams, peer teaching, cooperative planning, and successful conflict-resolution mechanisms.

Managerial routines. Regardless of the educational model, effective teachers carefully teach and allow students ample time to practice managerial routines (Siedentop, 1991). The managerial routines that are most salient to successful implementation of sport education are use of home spaces assigned to teams; entry routines that often involve team skill practice at their "home court" or "home field"; timed competitions that start and stop on signal; timed transitions between contests to rearrange competitors, referees, and scorekeepers (typically the task assigned to team managers or coaches); and routines through which scorekeepers turn in records to coaches or statisticians, who then will compile them and have updated records ready for the next class session.

Duty teams. Many successful sport education applications use the concept of "duty team." A normal-sized class of 24 to 32 is divided into three teams. For any given scheduled competition time, two of the teams will compete while members of the third team provide the referees and scorekeepers. For example, in a three-versus-three volleyball competition, each class team might have three

3-person teams competing. Matches might take eight to ten minutes. When the "Strikers" teams are competing against the "Aces" teams, the members of the "Diggers" teams are refereeing and keeping score at all courts. In the next match, the Diggers will compete and the Aces will serve as the duty team.

Peer teaching. Sport education relies on coaches taking an active role in instruction with members of their teams. Coaches lead skill practice. A significant amount of peer teaching takes place because all team members are working toward a common goal in which the performance of all team members will contribute to the success of the team. Evidence suggests that the peer-teaching feature of the model is well liked by students and valued by teachers for the outcomes it seems to produce (Grant, 1992).

Cooperative planning. Coaches work with their teams to plan who will compete together on small-sided teams. Teams discuss skill and strategy issues that arise throughout the season. Teams create their own names and in some cases create a team uniform. All of this requires cooperative planning. Teachers often work with the coaches to discuss methods for making planning sessions go smoothly and successfully.

Conflict-resolution mechanisms. With students on teams for the duration of a season, conflicts will arise. Conflicts arise within teams and then between teams during competitions. Conflict-resolution mechanisms are necessary and become important aspects in the sport education format. Students should be taught appropriate and inappropriate ways to respond to referee decisions, and these behaviors should be enforced. (Most sport education models use fair play points and yellow/red card violation signals that result in championship point deductions for their team when players react inappropriately.) With children, simple mechanisms such as "odds and evens," or "paper, scissors, rock" can be used

to resolve team disputes or disputes between teams. Most high school models in Australia and New Zealand include an elected student sports board that resolves conflicts within and among teams.

Goals and Objectives

Sport education has three primary goals. It seeks to help students become competent, literate, and enthusiastic sports persons (Siedentop, 1994).

A *competent* sports person has sufficiently developed skills and understands and can execute strategies appropriate to the complexity of play so as to be able to participate as a knowledgeable games player. Compared to typical physical education approaches, sport education emphasizes strategic play more than isolated skill development. Small-sided games are often used to teach gradually more complex skills and strategies together. A soccer season

might start with one-versus-one competition in which dribbling, tackling, shooting, and defensive space are emphasized, to be followed by a two-versus-two competition in which passing and trapping are added as skills and floor balance and tandem defending are introduced as tactics. A three-versus-three or four-versus-four competition would then extend the focus to include triangle attacking; goalie play; and rotating, help defense.

A *literate* sports person understands and values the rules, rituals, and traditions of sports, has learned to distinguish between good and bad sport practices, and is developing the willingness to act on that knowledge to improve the practice of sport. Such persons are in short supply in the larger adult sport culture, and this goal represents the most optimistic long-term outcome for students who experience sport education.

priate to their stage of development.

- Share in the planning and administration of their sport experience.
- Provide responsible leadership.
- Work effectively within a group toward common goals.
- Appreciate the rituals and conventions that give sports their unique meanings.
- Develop the capacity to make reasoned decisions about sport issues.
- Develop and apply knowledge about umpiring, refereeing, and training.
- Decide voluntarily to participate in community and after-school sport.

As this feature will show, reliable evidence suggests that these objectives can be realized in diverse situations at many levels of physical education—but they require a change in the business-as-usual approach to organizing and delivering the physical education program.

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An *enthusiastic* sports person participates in sport as part of a physically active lifestyle and acts in ways that serve to preserve, protect, and enhance the sport culture to make sport more accessible to more individuals.

Through participation in sport education, students can achieve the following objectives:

- Develop skills and fitness specific to particular sports.
- Appreciate and be able to execute strategic play in sport.
- Participate at a level appro-



Pilgrims Progress

The Sport Education Crusade Down Under

KEN ALEXANDER

ANDREW TAGGART

JAN LUCKMAN

Daryl Siedentop (1982) introduced Australians to the sport education concept. In a keynote address to the 1982 VII Commonwealth and International Conference on Sport, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, in Brisbane, Australia, Siedentop argued that sport education should replace what has traditionally been referred to as the multiactivity curriculum model in secondary physical education. Fifteen years later, in large part as a result of the efforts of the Sport and Physical Activity Research (SPARC), sport education is being established as an innovative curriculum model, increasingly used as a component of upper elementary and secondary school physical education programs. Following a curriculum project involving more than 80 Australian schools during 1993 to 94, the sport education concept was developed in teacher reference format as the Sport Education in Physical Education Program (SEPEP) (Alexander & Taggart, 1995). Reprinted in book form in

1997, it has been hailed as an "exciting possibility...[that questions] the relevance of teaching these [sporting] skills in a decontextualised way which bores children to tears" (Kirk, 1996, p. 26).

Australian and New Zealand Sport Education Projects

The first projects (in nine Western Australia schools) occurred in 1993 following a workshop that shared the results of a successful sport education project for 10th-grade students in 88 New Zealand schools (Grant, 1992). A second project began a year later in Western Australia conducted by Edith Cowan University's SPARC (Alexander, Taggart, Thorpe, & Medland, 1994). The two workshops that launched these new projects both featured the work of teachers who had been part of the initial project. Based on reports of teachers' work with sport education during 1994, the Australian Sports Commission's Aussie Sport Unit funded a national project involving

53 teachers (Medland, Thorpe, Taggart, & Alexander, 1995).

Finding a Place for Sport Education in Australian Physical Education

In Australia, sport education is one of a number of curriculum models from which physical education programs may be constructed. Others include outdoor education, social development, dance, fitness, and multiactivity models (Siedentop, Mand, & Taggart, 1986). Despite debates about the potential of sport to be miseducative, we continue to promote sport education because of its educative potential in a number of areas of learning and also because of the cultural significance of sport.

A Senate inquiry (Senate, 1992) and others conducted by the Directorate of School Education (1993) and the Minister for Education (1994) investigated physical education and described it as a marginal subject. As a result of these inquiries, development of national and state curricula for all school subjects has

meant that a new focus has emerged for physical education. The curriculum documentation for physical education has begun to favor program models capable of effectively pursuing the social and emotional development of children without compromising the development of their motor skills. The student-centered features of the sport education model have allowed it to lay strong claim to contemporary educational relevance.

Sport education has been linked, in the SEPEP teacher materials (Alexander & Taggart, 1995), to "Key Competencies" highlighted by the Australian Education Council (1992). These were developed to enhance education and training opportunities in the postcompulsory school years. Sport education in the Australian SEPEP module includes student roles that are modeled on employer job description formats, allowing teachers to challenge students to apply for positions of responsibility within the sport education season.

Sport Education in Operation

Australian sport education research has found that project teachers have voluntarily initiated ongoing school-based staff and curriculum development work, undertaken widespread program restructuring, and reported improved outcomes for many lower-skilled students and positive findings for many students' social skills. Students have reported a strong preference for sport education over the traditional teacher-directed mode of program delivery (Medland, Thorpe, Taggart, & Alexander, 1995). The model has also positively affected the career expectations of secondary preservice student teachers (Alexander, 1995).

Carlson (1995) studied the impact of sport education on low-skilled players. Students reported that they believed that greater peer support occurred during the sport education season than during their traditional

physical education classes and that they were experiencing greater success, not only in skill development, but also in the area of social development, responsibility, and decision making (Carlson, 1995; Medland, Thorpe, Taggart, & Alexander, 1995). Curnow and Macdonald (1995) studied the implications of sport education for girls in elementary schools and concluded that the model had the potential to address the principles of equity and inclusivity as stated in national curriculum documentation (Curriculum Corporation, 1994). However,

education. In art, students design posters, covers for their journals, and team sheets. In technology class, they do word processing in which they help to generate publicity by writing information for the school newsletter. Language and communication were emphasized during the sports board discussions and assemblies about sport education, in match reports, and by coaches and student referees who explained the modified game rules. In research skills, especially for coaching, the students went to the library to find different types of skills they could

Students reported that they believed that greater peer support occurred during the sport education season than during their traditional physical education classes

Curnow and Macdonald did warn that this potential would be reached only where resources for inclusively oriented staff development and weekly timetable allocations for sport education were adequate. Other studies have described sport education's potential in areas such as assessment (Taggart, Browne, & Alexander, 1995), elementary school physical education (Taggart, Medland, & Alexander, 1995), and social development (Carlson & Hastie, 1997; Hastie, 1996).

Some of the most exciting developments in sport education have occurred in elementary schools. Classroom generalist teachers have found themselves well placed to integrate the events of the sport education season with a wide range of activities in the classroom. Classroom teachers have provided numerous examples of how sport education promoted integration with fifth-, sixth-, and seventh-grade students. In health education the outcomes of cooperation, conflict resolution, and small work groups were compatible with the team aspects of sport

teach and drills they could use in practices. In math they were drawing up their schedules, calculating standings, and interpreting the results. Physical education specialists need to consider their role as a curriculum leader responsible for collaboratively working with teachers to explore integrated, thematic teaching through the medium of physical activity.

Tracking the Spread of Australian Sport Education

Tracking the path of a curriculum innovation like sport education is difficult. Little information exists about the nature and extent of its adoption because there are few mechanisms to assess the use of particular curriculum models within school physical education programs. While evaluations of state and national projects have proven the model a viable curriculum option, staff development programs, conference presentations, and publications have spread news of the model widely. This spread is increased further as teachers change schools, professional associations disseminate