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ACHPER®
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Editorial

Rick Baldock
Editor in Chief

Welcome to the first edition of the newly named **Active + Healthy Journal.** ACHPER has launched the Active + Healthy Journal (previously the Active + Healthy Magazine) for the following reasons:

- it allows researchers and academics to potentially gain greater recognition for their work when published; and
- it also enables our readers to engage with research and contemporary thinking through a potentially greater number of authors.

We welcome the submission of articles for peer review, along with our regular process and trust that this component of our publication will add to the Journal's value for the profession and for you as a reader. Should you or a colleague wish to write an article for the Journal then please see the **'Information for Authors'** page for further information on submitting an article.

Our efforts to improve the quality of learning are entwined with the competency and confidence of our teachers. With the recent introduction of Australian Curriculum: Health and Physical Education (AC:HPE) to most jurisdictions in Australia there is a need to support health educators and physical educators with not only the content of the new curriculum but also relevant pedagogies and teaching approaches that will enable teachers to engage and immerse students in health education and themovement culture.

In this Special Edition, Guest Editor Peter Hastie of Auburn University, USA (an Australian working overseas after teaching in Queensland schools) has done a wonderful job in presenting a contemporary and comprehensive insight into teaching Physical Education through a Sport Education approach.

This edition begins with a wonderful article where Peter Hastie and Tristan Wallhead outline the essential features of the Sport Education model, as told by a teacher to an inquiring principal. The authors identify the key aspects upon which Sport Education is based, and show how it is different from simply taking interschool or community sport directly into physical education.

In the second article, 'Pursuing physical education outcomes through Sport Education', Pill and Williams argue that the Sport Education model provides a more authentic, educationally meaningful and equitable learning of sport within physical education. They also explain how the Sport Education model delivers the tenets of Teaching for Effective Learning (TfEL), how it provides for Key Ideas and capabilities of the AC:HPE while at the same time affording an authentic middle schooling pedagogy.

In the third article of this edition Hastie and Wallhead discuss how to design a Sport Education season. In this paper, they provide a decision tree to assist teachers to design seasons of Sport Education. They conclude the article by examining ways in which a season of Sport Education can be made particularly festive through the creation of various culminating events.

In the fourth article of this edition Tristan Wallhead introduces some potential strategies that can be used by a teacher to facilitate more effective student coaches in Sport Education.

Next, Pill and Harvey discuss the development of competent players in Sport Education and the close association between technical and tactical skills of players. They also provide examples of how sporting competency can be assessed using authentic game play assessment tools.

In 'Competition formats for use during Sport Education', Peter Hastie discusses the importance of developmentally appropriate competition as an important characteristic of Sport Education that allows students to have beneficial competitive experiences. In particular, he examines two different types of competition formats that can be used to create an engaging season of Sport Education for students.

In his article, 'Promoting equity and social responsibility within Sport Education', Cláudio Farias argues that Sport Education is highly favourable to the development of positive responsibility and more equitable and inclusive learning contexts. In this paper, he offers an integrated evidence-based analysis of the development of positive responsibility, inclusion, and equitable learning environments within Sport Education while also highlighting the socio-cultural and structural constraints to the development of such goals.

Todd Layne provides suggestions for using Sport Education with the early primary years. He suggests that choosing an appropriate class, an appropriate motor skill, as well as how to manage team and duty roles is a great way to introduce the Sport Education approach to younger students. In addition, Layne provides steps towards implementation that support teachers to maximise the benefits of the model with younger students.

In the final article for our Special Edition on Sport Education, Peter Hastie returns to discuss ways in which classroom content can be infused in legitimate and meaningful ways into a season of Sport Education. He states that the key to success in implementing interdisciplinary strategies within Sport Education lies in identifying the natural links between the physical education content and the content of other subjects.

I am sure that you will find the nine article of this double edition a useful guide to inform your teaching in Physical Education and I trust that these documents will provide a valuable stimulus to your renewed attempts to provide a Quality HPE program at your school or university.

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Guest Editorial

Peter Hastie
Guest Editor

While the Sport Education model was the brain child of the notable American professor Daryl Siedentop, one of the foremost authorities in physical education research, it was in Australia and New Zealand in the early 1990s where the model was truly tested within national studies. Lead by Ken Alexander, Andrew Taggart and their team at Edith Cowen University in Perth, the views of many teachers and students was that Sport Education could become an exemplary context for pursuing a broader range of learning outcomes than physical education has traditionally sought and achieved, and that many teachers' disappointment with the nature and quality of interactions with students can be overcome, in turn enhancing their 'quality of working life'.

While study of the model has somewhat stalled for a number of reasons down under, these initial projects promoted researchers to look at the more specific elements of Sport Education and examine in detail whether it could indeed produce competent, literate, and enthusiastic sports players. We now have an extensive body of evidence (from over 100 research papers), that Sport Education, when taught well by committed teachers, can indeed produce the goods. Students who have experienced both traditional teacher-directed games instruction and the more autonomy supportive format of Sport Education show a distinct preference for the latter, suggesting it to be more motivating, inclusive, and engaging.

With this in mind, we return to Australia with a series of papers that are designed to help teachers once again experience the "spring in their steps" that was reported by so many when Sport Education was part of the professional learning landscape. We hope that special edition provides sufficient information so that readers will be enticed to at least get their feet wet and see for themselves the positive responses of students, many of whom have previously seemed disinterested or amotivated by engagement in physical education.

Peter can be contacted at **hastipe@auburn.edu** should readers have any questions.

Call for Reviewers for the Active + Healthy Journal

ACHPER is seeking professionals interested in serving on our volunteer Editorial Review Board for the Active + Healthy Journal for the remainder of 2017 and in 2018. Peer reviewers are responsible for providing feedback to the Active + Healthy Journal Editor in Chief about the merits of submissions in terms of quality and contribution to the Health and Physical Education profession. Reviewers are expected to write reviews in a timely, collegial, and constructive manner. Maintaining the Active + Healthy Journal of the highest quality depends on reviewers with a high level of expertise and an ability to be objective, fair, and insightful in their evaluation of manuscripts.

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Sport Education: A model for engaging teachers and students

Peter Hastie
Auburn University (USA)

Tristan Wallhead
University of Wyoming (USA)

In this introductory paper, we outline the essential features of the Sport Education model, as told by a teacher to an inquiring principal. The key purpose of the paper is to identify the key aspects upon which Sport Education is based, and also to show how it is different from simply taking interschool or community sport directly into physical education. The paper finishes with a brief discussion of the notion of the competent, literate, and enthusiastic sports player – the fundamental goal of Sport Education

Dr. Jacobs, the principal at a high school in a small country school, had heard of this buzz travelling around his school about something called 'Sport Education'. He'd heard from teachers about the unusually high levels of student engagement in physical education lessons, and how Ms. Jones had transformed a 'difficult' eighth-grade class into a group of invested and committed students. Curious, Dr. Jacobs decides to take a visit to Ms. Jones' class to see Sport Education for himself. The following scenario is a snapshot of what transpired.

> *The students entered the gym and immediately disperse to different locations, which have been designated as their 'home courts'. One student, who we learn is the 'fitness leader', leads her team through a series of exercises, which she has prepared prior to class. Another student from this team has collected badminton shuttles and racquets from the equipment area, and is giving these to the players in his team. Once the warm-up is completed, the students begin to practice overhead clears with a partner. Meanwhile, Ms. Jones is meeting with the coaches of the six teams in the class and is reviewing some of the challenges she saw during matches the lesson before. Ms. Jones asks each coach in turn to identify what they saw as the main area of need for their own team. She then provides a task sheet to each coach based upon their response. The coaches now go to lead their teams in a practice.*
>
> *After 15 minutes of team practice, Ms. Jones announces to teams to 'go to your match courts and get started'. She also tells them that 'the scoreboard clock will start in two minutes so I expect everyone to be ready'. On arrival at courts one and two, doubles teams from 'The Blue Bananas' and 'The Back Alley Bandits' take their positions for play, while players from 'The BAD Minions' take their places courtside in roles of scorekeepers, umpires and statisticians.*
>
> *At the end of the lesson, all teams return to their home areas, the equipment managers have returned their inventory, and the day's umpires gather in front of the class. In turn, each of these umpires announces the score for their match, reports the fair play points awarded to each team, and announces the player who receives the matches' 'super shuttle' award for the most amazing play of the day.*

Dr. Jacobs is suitably impressed and returns to his office, determined to speak to Ms. Jones about this Sport Education. This lesson didn't mirror his own experiences in physical education and he was interested to learn more about the ideas behind this format. What were the key features within it that led to such student enthusiasm and engagement? The rest of this paper will provide answers to that question.

What was the genesis of Sport Education?

The idea of Sport Education was first brought into light by Daryl Siedentop, an American professor of physical education with extensive experience in teaching effectiveness research. After spending what he described as countless hours observing physical education classes, he came to the conclusion that 'even when taught effectively, were not interesting or challenging enough to inspire students' (Siedentop, 2002, p. 411). To Siedentop, lessons of sport within physical education lacked a level of *authenticity*, by which he meant that the essential features of sport that lead to its attractiveness were rarely being incorporated within physical education. Sport-based lessons in physical education failed to resemble the exciting and engaging experiences that students, either participated in outside of school, or watched on television. What was missing were those elements that gave meaning to the learning of skills, of competing in matches, and being part of a team. Without meaning there is little reason to be motivated, and hence classes become particularly 'casual', with modest if any gains in learning, and the whole event becoming somewhat 'no sweat' (Siedentop, Doutis, Tsangaridou, Ward, & Rauschenbach, 1994).

Meaningful sport in Physical Education

To Siedentop, sport when conducted in interschool or club situations has six key features that give it meaning. These features are seasons, affiliation, formal competition, culminating events, record keeping, and festivity.

Seasons

Rather than short units, sports are conducted as seasons, where there is enough time to develop skill and game competencies, to experience the ebbs and flows of competition and to work towards an end goal. When Dr. Jacobs asked Ms. Jones about the length of her badminton unit, she replied that 'I'm extending over three

regular units because first, I want them to have enough time to play a good game – rather than stopping just as they start to 'get it'. It's when you see you're making progress and can play decently that you really get motivated to learn and persist'. Dr. Jacobs' then asked if the students didn't get bored doing the same thing over and over. This brought a smile to Ms. Jones whose polite response was 'they're actually not doing the same thing over and over… they train, they umpire, they play, and most of all, they're showing a real commitment to improving in skill and game play'.

Affiliation

In Sport Education, students become members of teams at the start of a season and retain their team affiliation throughout the season. All practices and contests are completed as teams, and as such, these groups take upon particular identities through team names, colours, chants and even mascots. Dr. Jacobs had wondered aloud about these teams called 'The Back Alley Bandits' and 'The BAD Minions', asking how long they stayed together and about how students would get along being together for such an extended period. 'What if, he asked, there were a few students who struggled to cooperate with each other and caused problems in their teams. Do you move these to other teams?' Ms. Jones noted there is potential for challenging group dynamics in any team format used in physical education. She continued however, to remind him that that the idea of persisting teams is derived 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 within a persistent group. 'After all' she pointed out, 'a player in the AFL doesn't play for Carlton this week, Collingwood the next, and the West Coast Eagles the one after. It's the whole idea of working together to find ways to get along and be successful that are some of the best lessons learned'.

Formal competition

Sport seasons are typically defined by a series of matches interspersed with practice sessions. More significant is that the results of these matches actually *count* for something, such as towards a premiership or team title. The inclusion of formal competitions within physical education provides opportunities for planning and goal setting that create the context for pursuing important outcomes that have real meaning for students. Dr. Jacobs was curious as to how the students were handling the competitiveness of the season, asking 'How do they handle the winning and losing part of things? You know you have some characters in that class'. Ms. Jones replied: 'Put it this way – I explain to the students that competition is closely tied to the *pursuit of competence*. I am constantly reinforcing the idea that we need two teams to play a game – if no one shows up, you don't have a game. The purpose of an opponent is to give

you an opportunity to test yourself'. She continued, 'That being said, in our league the champion teams are determined by factors other than simply win-loss. We have fair play points, team role points, and bonuses for out of class play'.

Record keeping

Records are used to enhance the sporting experience, providing feedback for individuals and groups. The simplest record is the game score, but other in-game variables are fundamental for setting future goals (winners, points accumulated). 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). 'I noticed there were students who looked like they were keeping scores and statistics in your class' noted Dr. Jacobs. 'What do you do with these, and wouldn't they rather be playing than watching?' 'Funny you should say that' replied Ms. Jones. 'In fact, many students have told me one of the most fun parts of the season is watching other teams play. They say you get ideas about how you'd play them yourself when you're the opponent'. She continued, 'Actually, I've been impressed by the level of commitment of the students when they keep records, as I've been motivated myself when they come to me at lunch time and ask to see their updated ratings for serving and winners'.

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, basketball championships, etc.) create the opportunity for festival and celebration of accomplishments, a significant characteristic of play and sport. 'So I notice you've made a request for an excursion to the local sports centre in a couple of weeks. Does that relate to this badminton unit (sorry, season)?' asks Dr. Jacobs. 'Certainly', replies Ms. Jones. 'We want to have a series of semi-finals and finals to crown the class champions, and the only way we can pull that off in the time we have is to use a larger venue. It will also allow us to invite parents and other interested parties to attend'.

Festivity

Sport competitions are occasions for festivity, from the major festivals associated with the Olympic Games 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. Teams develop identities (names, colors, uniforms), records are publicised and other rituals and traditions are honoured. 'You'll be getting an invitation yourself, to the finals' noted Ms. Jones. 'The students have made a list of dignitaries they'd like to occupy the VIP section next to the championship court'. 'I wouldn't miss it' replies Dr. Jacobs, 'but tell me, what I saw in your class looked a lot more 'busy' than what you'd see during club sport, and there was only you to manage it all. How does that work?'

Sport Education is not, however, a direct simulation of institutionalised sport

Ms. Jones then spent some time helping Dr. Jacobs see how her Sport Education program differs in three distant ways from inter-school or community sport. First of all, there is an underlying commitment to participation, in that 'everyone plays – all the time'. Unlike on the weekend when some get to play the whole game while others might not even see the field, in Sport Education, the competitions are between small teams so that everyone is playing. Second, the games are modified to make them developmentally appropriate. You won't see an 11-a-side soccer season, nor a 5-a-side basketball series of matches. Rather, the rules, equipment, and playing dimensions are adjusted to match the demands of the game to the skills of the players. Small-sides games see considerably more action by individual players, enhancing motivation as well as a level of accountability for team members to give their best efforts with respect to improvement. Finally, in Sport Education, students take upon roles other than that of player. Ms. Jones reminds Dr. Jacobs of the various responsibilities he would have seen at the beginning of her lesson. 'There were fitness leaders, equipment leaders and coaches, all completing tasks getting their teams ready to play'. She continued, 'And during the games, I didn't have to officiate as the students had been trained to keep score and keep statistics'. 'And how has it worked?' asks Dr. Jacobs, noting he saw high levels of investment.

Ms. Jones answers, 'When students fulfill these roles responsibly, several important outcomes are achieved. First, they become more responsible for their own learning, and as such, my usual role of class manager and traffic policemen takes a significant back seat. I can now offer much more individual help to the students who need it'.

Meeting the goals of Sport Education

Dr. Jacobs was suitably impressed with the features of Sport Education described by Ms. Jones. The student-centred features of Sport Education reminded him of the peer teaching and cooperative learning approaches used by his classroom teachers when they were teaching reading. He reflected that the students seemed to engage fully with the tasks when they were given responsibility and were dependent on each other for group success. As he pondered this pedagogy, he asked Ms. Jones, 'So how do these features of Sport Education contribute to important learning goals in physical education?' Ms. Jones responded that 'These features are designed for students to, not only develop competency, but to also develop their literacy and enthusiasm for sport. The students develop sufficient skills and knowledge to play the game, but they also *want* to play because they have come to value the experiences and enjoyment derived from playing. Through the season they also come to understand and value the rules and traditions of badminton and learn to distinguish between good and bad practices in that sport'. By achieving these objectives, it is hoped that these same students will develop attitudes that will make them more informed participants in adult sport cultures.

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About the Authors

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Tristan Wallhead is a professor of Physical Education Teacher Education in the Division of Kinesiology and Health at the University of Wyoming, USA. After learning how to implement Sport Education as a high school teacher in England he continues to conduct research on its effect on student motivation for physical education and physical activity.

Pursuing physical education outcomes through Sport Education

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The teaching of sport and sport-related games are integral components of Australian physical education programs. The question confronting teachers of physical education is not whether sport is a component of physical education but why particular pedagogical models should guide the construction of curricula and the enactment of teaching. We argue that the answer is that models such as the Sport Education model facilitate a more authentic, educationally meaningful and equitable learning of sport within physical education. To support this argument, we explain how the Sport Education model delivers the tenets of Teaching for Effective Learning (TfEL) and how it provides for Key Ideas and capabilities of the Australian HPE Curriculum. We conclude by suggesting Sport Education as a curriculum connector for authentic middle schooling pedagogy.

Sport-based physical education has historically been the dominant form of physical education in Australia and many other countries. Indeed, sport in the guise of physical education has been discussed as a historical cornerstone of the subject, playing a major role in the education of young people as an institutionalised form of physical activity. In Sport Education, sport teaching in physical education is seen as being a more authentic, rich and in-depth (Siedentop & Tannehill, 2000; Callcott, Miller & Wilson-Gahan, 2015) than other sport teaching approaches.

The benefit of the Sport Education approach is that it caters for a wide range of ability levels and allows students to have some degree of autonomy in what they are taught. In this paper, we position Sport Education within the contemporary educational construction of the Health and Physical Education (HPE) learning area, and the associated discourses about quality physical education (QPE) and Sport Education as 'pedagogical work' (Tinning, 2008).

Sport Education as QPE

The Future of Sport in Australia (Australian Government, 2009) noted that Australian schools have historically played a key role in introducing students to sport and developing pathways to community sport. This connection between schools and sport is unsurprising, given the afore mentioned point that sport is the main movement form in Australia and in most Western countries. It is therefore foreseeable that the teaching of sport and sport-related games are integral components of Australian physical education programs. The question confronting teachers of physical education is not whether sport is a component of physical education but *why* particular pedagogical models should guide the construction of curricula and the enactment of teaching (Penney, 2006). We argue that the answer is that models such as the Sport Education model facilitate a more authentic, educationally meaningful and equitable learning of sport within physical education. Authenticity, meaning and equity speak directly to the quality of educational experience (Pill, 2011). A framework through which to consider the concept of QPE is the Teaching for Effective Learning (TfEL) framework (South Australian Government, 2015). This framework has three dimensions for quality teaching. They are - Creating safe conditions for rigorous learning; Develop expert learners; and, Personalise and connect learning.

Creating safe conditions for rigorous learning

The Sport Education model fosters this element of TfEL through three elements – game modification, team affiliation, and role responsibilities. Game modification is emphasised for the design of games suitable to the participation level of the learners. Also included in this element is an emphasis on the use of small-sided games. Small-sided games maximise game participation and foster greater volumes of game engagement, which in turn promotes a greater amount of game play for enhanced game learning opportunity (Aguiar, Botelho, Lago, Macas, & Sampaio, 2012).

Team affiliation is the element of Sport Education where students remain on the same team for the duration of the Sport Education season. Since the Sport Education model includes learning in three areas – game competence, game knowledge, and game engagement, each member of the team has multiple avenues to demonstrate not only value to the team but also their learning in, through and about sport. The avenue for facilitating this range of benefits is the role responsibilities. Roles can include coach, publicist, statistician, team manager, or competition/event

manager. Each team member takes on a role that contributes to the team (such as, player + coach), or the class environment through membership of a committee (such as, player + event manager). The social support from peers within a co-constructed class culture requires the teacher of physical education overtly cultivate supportive rather than competitive behaviours.

Develop expert learners

The Sport Education model fosters this element of TfEL by foregrounding the intellectual quality of Sport Education seasons, particularly in the development of game competency where players 'game sense' is emphasised. Highlighting the development of players' knowledge for enhanced game related decision-making indicates student engagement. This kind of engagement allows higher order thinking processes to occur that are involved with solving in-the-moment problems associated with sport as a complex and dynamic performance context. The teaching for competence beyond a narrow definition of movement techniques allows players to demonstrate 'game sense'. For example, there are expectations for student competence in their role responsibility and in coming to understand the socio-cultural significance of sport through the historical and cultural constructions of the sport encountered. Placing students in peer coaching leadership roles also contributes to the development of a higher level of 'game sense' and more expert learners.

Personalise and connect learning

The Sport Education model fosters this element of TfEL by promoting a pedagogical shift in content and assessment from a narrow focus on sport taught as techniques to learning and applying movement skills in the development of competent sport players. The negotiation of role responsibilities to fulfil the co-constructed nature of the learning context, whereby the teacher facilitates the development and implementation of a season of sport with input from the students personalises the learning more so than other approaches to the teaching of sport. Since Sport Education outcomes include game competency, literate and engaged sport participants, assessment necessarily includes physical, cognitive and affective dimensions of learning.

Students who may not be able to develop the movement skill competencies to the level expected can still demonstrate successful learning through the expression of knowledge and understanding. For example, learning achievement can be demonstrated in the broader socio-cultural context of the history and culture of the given sport (literate sport participants) and through successful completion of role-responsibilities (engaged sport participants). Sport Education makes the learning of sport significant in physical education because students are able to connect the relevance of the learning context to the 'real world' of community sport.

Another dimension to consider in framing QPE is the suitability of the learning experience (DECS, 2004). Penney, Clarke & Kinchin (2002) and Drummond and Pill (2011) explain that physical education is relevant when it involves building bridges between what occurs in class and engagement in sport beyond the school setting. This kind of linkage enables physical education to have meaning 'beyond the school gate'. Sport Education therefore acts as a potential connect between the learning of sport in physical education and the requirements of sport provision as a structured form of physical activity in community settings. Thus Sport Education provides a context for learning in physical education that has meaning 'beyond the school gate', both at the time and in the future. This is achieved through the experience of role responsibilities as they connect students to possible avenues of sport engagement in addition to the role of 'player', and roles that are available once a playing career is finished or are no longer possible.

Australian Curriculum Health and Physical Education (ACHPE)

In the Australian context, a standardised national curriculum for HPE exists. At the core of ACHPE is the acquisition of movement skills and concepts to enable students to participate in a range of physical activities – confidently, competently and creatively, as a foundation for lifelong physical activity participation (Australian Curriculum, 2016a). Sport is an essential focus area of ACHPE across the continuum of learning from Year 3 to Year 10 (Australian Curriculum, 2016b).

Five Key Ideas (Australian Curriculum, 2016c) ground the ACHPE. Table 1 lists these concepts and provides examples of how each idea may find expression in a Sport Education unit. The focus area of sport fits into the Movement and Participation strand of the ACHPE. This strand consists of three sub-strands: Learning through Movement, Understanding Movement, and Moving Our Body. This Arnold (1979) construction of learning in physical education has been applied to contemporary sport teaching in physical education as sport literacy (Pill, 2010; Drummond & Pill, 2011). Sport literacy expands the idea of ability in physical education from a narrow capacity centred on technique reproduction to a broader appreciation of sport knowledge. The three sub-strands of the Movement and Participation strands of the ACHPE expressed through the lens of sport literacy consist of:

Learning through movement

Developing through sport social, cognitive, moral and emotional learning.

Understanding movement

Developing the ability to recognise that sport is structured in certain ways to bring about certain things.

Moving our body

Developing the competence to move efficiently and effectively in the game.

A narrow conceptualisation of knowledge as sport techniques and competence as ability centred on athleticism means that other learning possibilities that could engage the broader range of abilities, competencies, learning needs and interests of students positioned at the periphery of sport in physical education. The consequence is that sport teaching in physical education is largely decontextualised to the real world of sport as a cultural and vocational construction. As such, sport taught in

Table 1. ACHPE Key Ideas and their expression in a Sport Education unit

PE Key Ideas	Example from a Sport Education Unit of Work
Valuing movement	Developing player 'game sense'.
Take a strengths-based approach	Enabling participants to work with expressions of competence in addition to that of player through role responsibility requirements.
Focus on educative purposes	Helping students make sense of sport as a socio-culturally constructed movement context by incorporating key features of community sport in the PE context.
Include a critical inquiry approach	Creating 'literate' sport consumers by exploring sport as an evolving socio-cultural construction.
Health Literacy	Can be incorporated into Sport Education through the exploration of sport related health issues: such as, sport gambling, sport injuries, etc.

physical education is culturally irrelevant and isolating for many students. The expansion of the knowledge base within considerations of ability and competency through Sport Education provides the possibility that sport can be a context for educating in, through and about sport while providing the potential for more affirming experiences for those students traditionally marginalised within physical education.

The ACHPE Student Achievement Standards covering the Movement and Participation Strand seem particularly suited to Year 9-10 physical education. The requirement to demonstrate attributes such as leadership, collaboration, fair play and ethical behaviour are consistent with expectations in Sport Education. The skill of providing feedback to improve self and others' movement competency is typical of the coaching role expected of students in Sport Education. Examining the role sport plays in the lives of Australians and investigating how this has changed over time is consistent with the Sport Education aim to develop literate sport participants.

The Australian Curriculum charges all learning areas with the development of **General Capabilities** that equip young people to live and work successfully in the complex and changing circumstances of twenty-first century life (Australian Curriculum, 2016e). Again, the Sport Education model provides an opportunity for authentic embedding of the General Capabilities in physical education through Sport Education's pursuit of competent, literate and engaged sport participants.

The Australian Capabilities General Capabilities and examples of their expression in a unit of Sport Education are shown in Table 3.

Conclusion: Sport Education as 'pedagogical work'

Tinning (2008) proposed that sport pedagogy should allow teachers to seek the multiple connections, to 'join the dots' so to speak, between the various orientations of the field. The Sport Education model provides particular potential to connect the following domains of learning.

- The affective domain of engagement and personal meaning making;
- The physical domain consisting of developing sufficient competency to be able to play;
- The cognitive domains of understanding the tactical dimension of game play decision making and the historical and contemporary significance of the construction of sport in all its forms in society; and,
- The social domain of learning to work together to achieve a successful season of sport in physical education.

Table 2. ACHPE Student Achievement Standards and Content Descriptions for Year 9/10 (Australian Curriculum, 2016d)

ACHPE Student Achievement Standards – Year 9/10

Students demonstrate leadership, fair play and cooperation across a range of movement and health contexts. They apply decision-making and problem-solving skills when taking action to enhance their own and others' health, safety and wellbeing. They apply and transfer movement concepts and strategies to new and challenging movement situations. They apply criteria to make judgments about and refine their own and others' specialised movement skills and movement performances. They work collaboratively to design and apply solutions to movement challenges.

Content Descriptions – Year 9/10

- Devise, implement and refine strategies demonstrating leadership and collaboration skills when working in groups or teams
- Reflect on how fair play and ethical behaviour can influence the outcomes of movement activities
- Provide and apply feedback to develop and refine specialised movement skills in a range of challenging movement situations
- Examine the role physical activity, outdoor recreation and sport play in the lives of Australians and investigate how this has changed over time

Table 3. Australian Curriculum General Capabilities developed through Sport Education in physical education

General Capability	Example from a Sport Education Unit of Work
Literacy	Team newsletters.
Numeracy	Team and competition statistics.
Information and Communication Technology Capability	Use of tablets for video game performance to enable video reviews.
Critical and Creative Thinking	Developing tactical as well as technical dimensions of game skill – 'game sense'. Problem solving in the capacity of carrying out role responsibilities.
Personal and Social Capability	Interpersonal and intrapersonal skills involved in role responsibility collaborations within teams and with committee members from other teams.
Ethical Understanding	Applying principles of fair play, and codes of conduct during Sport Education seasons.
Intercultural Understanding	Investigating sports role as agent in inter-cultural development and peace.

Sometimes overlooked in the Sport Education discussion is the possibility for Sport Education to position physical education centrally in middle school curricula as a curriculum connector. **Middle Schooling** philosophy suggests curriculum integration as a distinguishing feature of middle schooling. Through a Sport Education season, cross-curriculum integration is possible in ways not authentically possible in most other learning areas. For example, a season of sport in physical education delivered via Sport Education can connect with Humanities and Social Sciences through investigation of the cultural, political and historical features of countries that compete in the sport. A season of Sport Education can integrate with Mathematics through the computational use of sport performance data gathered during the season. Integration with English can occur by examination of sports reporting as a genre and the task of developing media reports and interviews during a season of Sport Education. The physics of the sport chosen for the Sport Education, the biology of human movement and the physiological responses by the body to regular physical activity such as sport participation can integrate science with physical education during a Sport Education season. In Home Economics, textile and clothing connections are possible through the design and production of playing uniforms to enhance the team affiliation dimension of a Sport Education season. Sport Education as 'pedagogical work' contains intriguing possibilities for integrating the domains of learning in physical education. In addition, Sport Education allows physical education to be positioned as the curriculum organiser for integration across the middle years of schooling learning areas.

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Designing a Sport Education season… Key factors to consider

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In this paper, we take a teacher through the decision tree that has been found to be helpful when designing seasons of Sport Education. Starting with curricular factors such the selection of the sport, and the length of a season we move to more pedagogical factors such as the allocation of students to teams, the development of roles as well as the progression of the content. Finally, we examine ways in which a season of Sport Education can be made particularly festive through the creation of various culminating events

Attempting to implement any new form of teaching requires forethought and planning related to the key aspects of the pedagogies that need to be included. For many teachers, the Sport Education model represents a significant pedagogical shift in terms of their role in class management, organisation and task presentation. To facilitate this transition it is important that the teacher considers several 'key factors' in the design of a Sport Education season. These key factors should include curricular decisions such as the selection of the sport or activity and the length of the season, but also pedagogical decisions related to developing festivity and how to facilitate student management and learning when they are placed in instructional roles. This article provides some specific guidelines on points to consider in making these curricular and pedagogical decisions.

CURRICULAR FACTORS

Selection of sport or activity

The first task is to select the sport or activity you wish to use for the season. Siedentop advocates for the use of the UNESCO concept of 'Sport for All' which recognises many forms of physical activity as 'sport'. By consequence, it is possible to complete seasons of Sport Education in activities such as dance, orienteering, weight lifting or swimming as it is to plan for seasons of team sports such as netball, volleyball or softball. All that changes with the selection of sport are the more appropriate ways to organise teams and competitions (see paper on competition formats for details).

In selecting an appropriate sport to use within a Sport Education season the teacher needs to be aware of the three factors of class size and experience, teaching space and available equipment, and game modifications. These factors are identified in Figure 1.

Class size and experience. The number of students in a class and their

Figure 1. Selecting an appropriate sport to use within a Sport Education season.

experience with the selected activity will need to be taken into account. In the first case, class size has an influence on the *number of teams* you will include for the season. It is generally recommended for team sports formats that you make an odd number of teams as this will allow for teams to play while one team officiates.

The students' experience with your chosen sport will also have an impact on the number of teams as well as game modifications. For sports that are newer to the students it is perhaps better to have fewer, but larger teams. Using this format, it would be easier to include some form of graded competition (where there are two skill divisions) allowing for more developmentally appropriate game play (see paper on competition formats for details).

Space and equipment. One key factor in the decision to include a sport is the extent to which you can provide students with quality opportunities for practice and game play. For example, a class of 24 students can comfortably complete a tennis or badminton league with only four courts (4 doubles matches plus 2 officials at each court). However, the same number of students would need three volleyball courts to engage in a 3 v 3 season.

Equipment issues are also relevant in selecting an activity. While there is less equipment needed during match play, what is critical is that each team has sufficient resources to engage in appropriate practice, where all players have sufficient opportunities to improve.

Modifying the game. A modified game is one where the number of players, rules, equipment, and length of contexts are adapted to suit the skills and experiences of the players who will be participating. Decisions about the extent to which the game is modified will be influenced by the factors already noted, that is, number of students, player experience and the availability of space and equipment.

Length of the season

Of all the features of Sport Education, the one that is considered the most critical is the amount of time allocated to a season (Siedentop, Hastie, & van der Mars, 2011). From a teacher's perspective, there is much more to get accomplished during a Sport Education season in terms of accommodating new pedagogies. However, it is the voices of students who have repeatedly suggested that they have 'more opportunities to practice', 'play in more games', and achieve 'more learning' (Gutierrez, Garcia-Lopez, Hastie & Calderon, 2013; Hastie & Sinelnikov, 2006). As a result, the gold standard seems to be 18-20 lessons of 45 minutes for students in middle or high school, or 15 lessons of 30 minutes for those in primary grades. Both of these allocations are flexible given local constraints, but should be viewed as best-case scenarios. In gauging the length of the season the three factors of curricular requirements, lesson length, and the frequency of lessons need to be considered. These factors are identified in Figure 2.

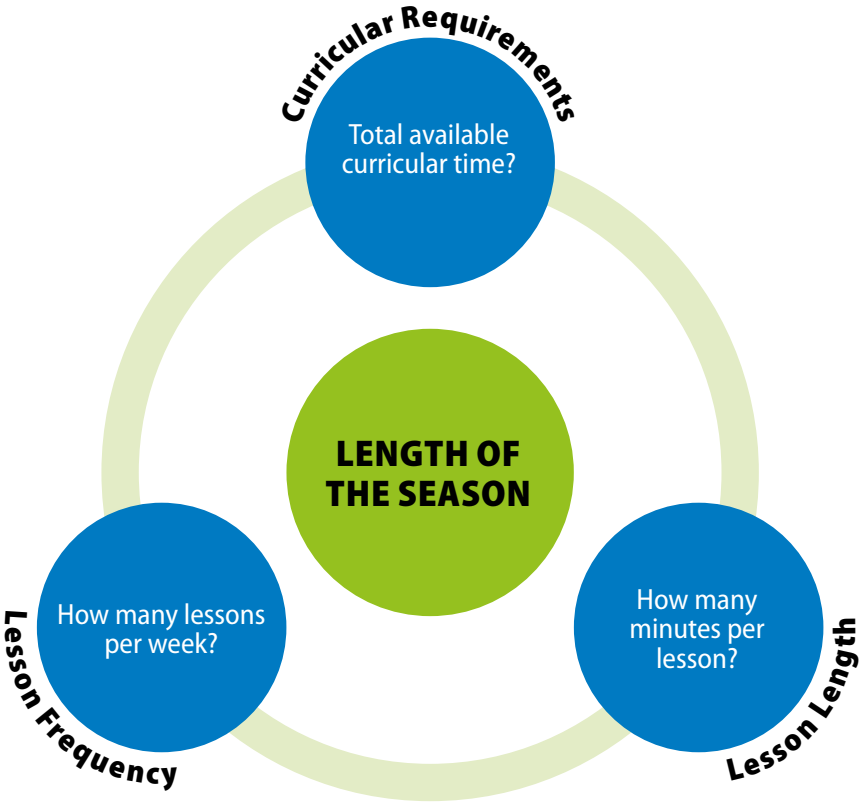

Figure 2. Gauging the length of the season.

Curricular requirements. In very few cases are teachers given total independence in making curricular decisions about content, or the time they wish to spend in teaching specific content. For example, a national time allocation of 80 hours per year was used as a guide by writers during the development of the Australian Curriculum: Health and Physical Education. However, in this case, decisions regarding time allocation for each learning area remain a responsibility of the states and territories.

Lesson length. The length of an individual lesson has implications for a number of features of season design. During early lessons, decisions will need to be made about how long the teacher plans for direct instruction about content, and how much of the lesson will be given over to teams for independent practice. Later in the season, lesson length will dictate how many games are played. In most primary settings, it is possible to complete two 10-minute games (including transitions) within a 30-minute lesson. For students in higher grades, with longer lessons, not only can matches be extended, but the number of games can also be increased.

Lesson frequency. The number of lessons per week will also have a significant impact on season length. For example, in a district where students participate in daily physical education, it is possible to complete a 20-lesson season in just one month. This allows for more seasons to be completed within a curriculum program and allows for other activities conducted using a different instructional model or teaching approach. On the other hand, where teachers have only two lessons available per week, a single Sport Education season might occupy the majority of an academic term.

Pedagogical factors

Teams and roles

Central to Sport Education is the idea of the 'team'. In Sport Education, students become members of teams early in the season and stay with that same team throughout the season. This idea of team membership and the consequential forms of affiliation have been found to be a particularly attractive component of the model for students. For example, at the primary level, MacPhail, Kirk and Kinchin (2004) showed distinct investments by students in relation to their sense of identity and involvement as members of a persisting group. At the high school level, Wallhead, Garn, and Vidoni (2013) suggested that prolonged exposure to Sport Education develops students' social bonds by promoting peer social approval for participatory behaviours within the model. Subsequently, these social bonds strongly predicted students' perceived relatedness to peers and their enjoyment of the Sport Education experience.

There are three factors that need to be taken into account when creating teams. These are the mechanism for team selection, the choice of roles that students will perform within their teams, and the responsibilities associated with each of these roles. These team creation factors are identified in Figure 3.

Team selection. While there are many different ways in which students can be allocated to teams, it is critical that teams are as evenly matched as possible. This is to create competitions where the outcomes are uncertain, thereby promoting investment and motivation to improve. It is also important to consider factors beyond skill level as important in creating even teams. Attention should be given to issues of gender where they may have an effect on performance, as well as being aware of student social status in facilitating leadership and social development within teams.

The simplest format of team selection is where the teacher allocates students to teams prior to the season. In this way, team announcement can take place in the very first lesson and details of team identity and affiliation can take place as the season begins. There are cases, however, where the teacher involves students in the selection process. Students can often provide valuable insight into factors such as student social status, or in the case of a new activity, details about which students participate in that sport outside of school.

At times it may be necessary to delay team selection until there has been a few introductory instructional lessons. This is particularly the case where the sport is new to most students and the teacher does not have a good 'read' on the varying levels of skill. In activities such as swimming or gymnastics, teachers will often have students complete a few tasks and together with a group of students, use the rankings or ratings of these performances to select teams.

Team roles. A guiding principle of Sport Education is to involve students in the conduct of the sport experience. As a result, teachers create a number of different sport-based roles, which can relate to either the functioning of teams or the conduct of competitions. Research tells us that there are high levels of student engagement in these non-playing roles, and that students report they enjoy taking on such responsibilities (Hastie, 1996). Examples of the most common types of roles include coach, equipment manager, fitness leader, referee and team publicist, although this list is by no means exhaustive. No matter which roles are included, the responsibilities associated with each role need to be clearly defined. Specific time should

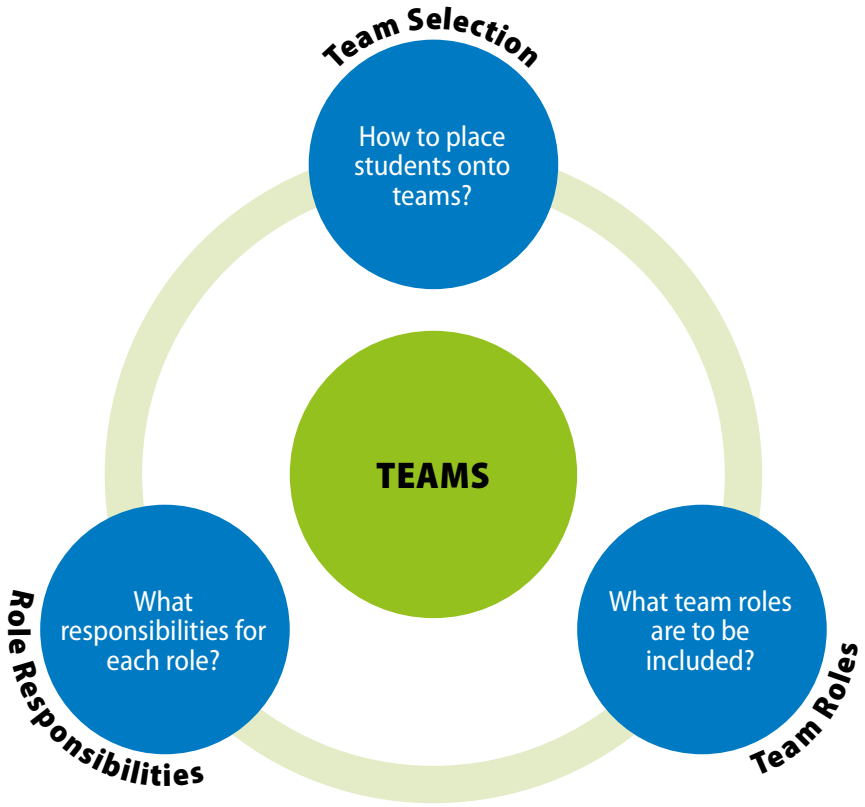

Figure 3. Creating teams.

be allocated in the season plan to help train students in the roles they will be taking.

Planning for a student-centered pedagogy

While seasons take place under the overall leadership of the teacher, the inclusion of these student roles shifts some of the responsibility for learning to peers (Wallhead & O'Sullivan, 2007). As a result, the teacher not only needs to plan the managerial and instructional tasks involved in a season, but also has to plan ways to support students in taking responsibility for many of these tasks.

There are four factors that need to be taken into account when planning for class management and student learning in Sport Education. These relate to class routines, content development, instructional support, and assessment. These planning factors are identified in Figure 4.

Class routines. Effective teachers have strong class managerial capabilities and allocate time for students to learn lesson protocols. Table 1 lists a number of these protocols which need to be planned for, practiced, and mastered within a season.

Table 1. Class routine protocols.

Protocol	Points to consider
Entry into the gym or play area	What are the location of team home areas and relevant equipment?
First activity	What are the responsibilities of students with various roles? e.g. captains to meet with teacher, fitness leaders to conduct warm ups, managers to collect equipment etc.
Transition from practice to matches	How do teams identify where they will go? What does the allocated officiating team do? What do teams do with their practice equipment?
End of matches	What is the process for acknowledging the other team? What are the responsibilities of the officiating team? e.g. complete score sheets, award fair play points, return game equipment etc.
End of class	To what extent does the teacher debrief the lesson? Do officiating teams formally announce match results?

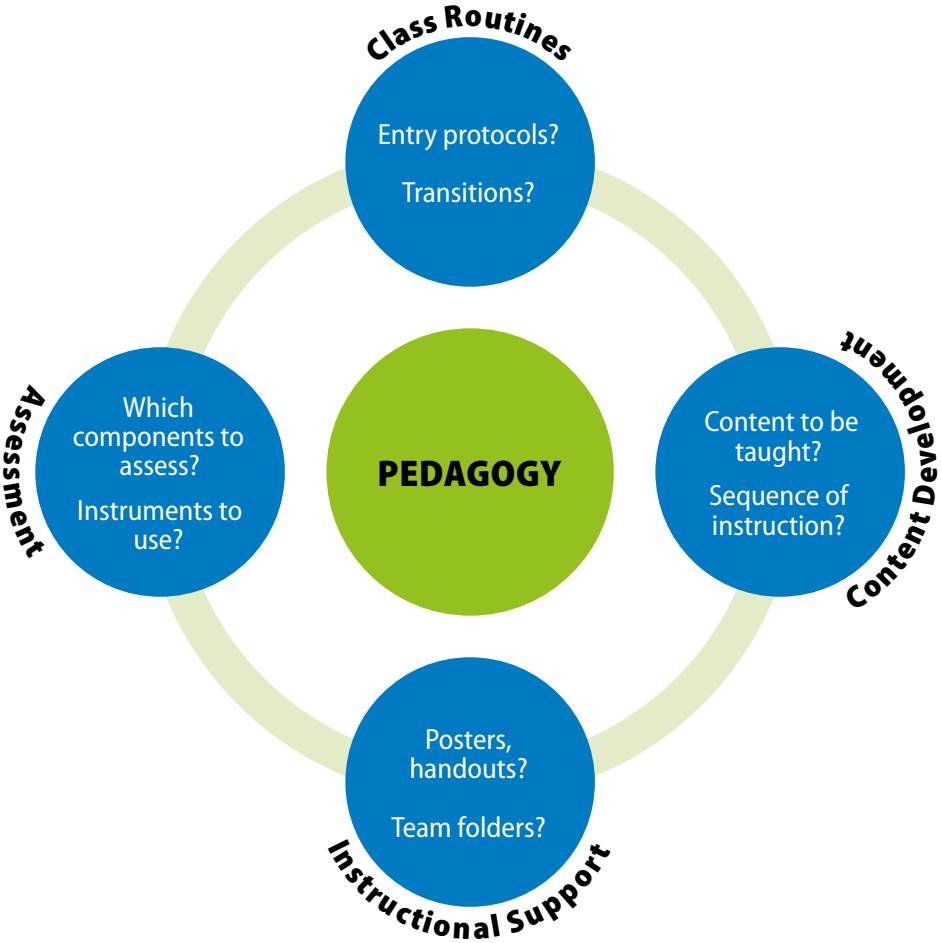

Figure 4. Planning for class learning and student management in Sport Education.

Content development. There are four key tasks the teacher needs to consider with respect to content development. As mentioned earlier, the first challenge is to select the sport and identify appropriate game modifications. Second, the teaching of relevant techniques and tactics need to be planned in order that the students can 'play a good game'. At this point, the teacher will also need to decide on the extent to which student-coaches will be responsible for leading instruction with their teams (see paper on developing effective student coaches for more specific guidelines). It should be noted that the responsibilities of coaching and officiating are difficult for many beginners, even when modified game rules reduce decision-making requirements. As a result, time needs to be allocated to practicing these roles prior to the consequential games that count towards a season championship.

Once all of these elements have been identified, the final task is to plan for the sequence of learning activities. Questions will include the number of days necessary for practice as a whole class and within teams before games begin, the time needed to practice games where officiating teams can

become competent, the time to be allocated for formal competition, as well as the culminating event. This process is similar to putting together a jigsaw puzzle, with pieces moved from place to place as more important components are consolidated.

Instructional support. While the teacher in Sport Education does hand over some responsibility to students during a season, it is important to remember that the teacher's role is not simply to create the season plan and then let students practise and play games. In particular, there is the need to intervene and work deliberately with student-coaches and officials to improve their performance. As such, instructional supports such as task cards, team folders, or skill posters will need to be planned for and prepared. In particular, students and student-coaches will need specific help from the teacher in learning the tactical concepts related to the selected sport.

Assessment. Given Sport Education involves students in all of the learning domains (cognitive, affective and psychomotor), there are possibilities available for assessment (both teacher led and self-assessments by students) throughout all phases of a season in ways which Penney, Clarke, Quill and Kinchin (2005) describe as 'authentic, individualised and active' (p.?). As such, the teacher will need to identify the formative and summative assessments that are to be included in a season. The burden for collecting this data however, does not lie totally on the teacher. For example, students can be trained to gather game performance data to complement those obtained from scorekeepers. Likewise, peer assessments of referee performance and of fair play behaviors can also be recorded as part of the end of game protocols. By consequence, the teachers in Alexander and Luckman's (2001) survey of Australian primary and secondary physical education teachers believed they had more time for assessment and that the model allowed them to more accurately capture outcomes and enhance learning.

Festivity

While in the community sports setting festivity surrounds competition, and is an integral part of sports, it is this dimension that is most lacking when sport is taught in traditional physical education classes. This is significant in that the festive aspect of sports is often what makes the experience significant to the participants. While placing students into persisting teams can promote a sense of affiliation, and the adoption of team names, colours, mascots and cheers help to contribute to festivity, it is the season championship and the culminating events that contribute most significantly to the motivation for intense practice and game play leading up to the final competitions (Kinchin, MacPhail, & Ni Chroinin, 2009). In fact, the study of Sinelnikov and Hastie (2010) suggested that the students' strongest and most detailed memories were of those features that provide Sport Education participants with what is termed 'authentic experiences', these being the final competitions as well as the culminating events.

The two factors which need to be considered with respect to festivity include the organisation of the final rounds of competition and the culminating event. These factors are identified in Figure 5.

Season championship. In planning for the championship, it is important to identify all activities that contributed to the team earning points towards the championship. The beauty of Sport Education is that the teacher is not limited to using only win/loss records as is the case in youth sport outside school. Scores from fair play reports, role performances and team affiliation are examples of points that can be added (and sometimes surpass) to the team competitive total. Whatever points are utilised it is important that the teacher clearly describes the various point values and some form of league table or poster is created to keep students informed of point standings.

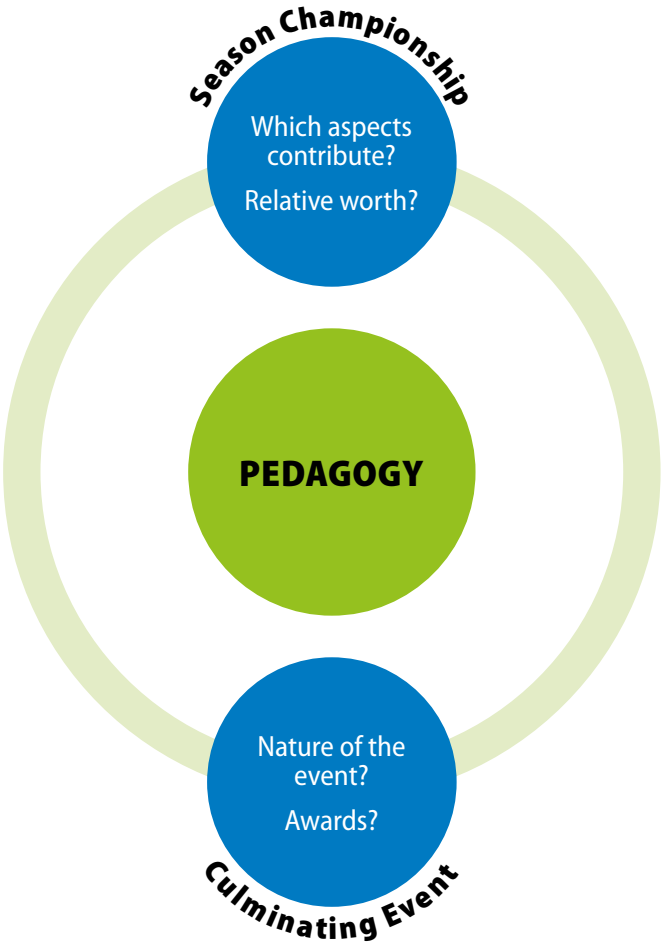

Figure 5. Festivity considerations.

Table 2. Planning the culminating event.

Issue	Question	Implications
What is the nature of the event?	Will there be one final competition for each class, or will it be more grade level oriented?.. or even school wide?	If the event spans regular lesson time, how will other class teachers be asked to cooperate?
Who will attend?	Will your event involve personnel from beyond the classes involved?	Who gets to select these guests? Who initiates the invitations?
What roles will nonplaying students take during the event?	Who will officiate the final games? Are they any new roles specific to the event (e.g. commentators, videographers)?	How do plan to select officials for these roles?
What awards will be given?	What aspects of the season do you want to promote?	Will there be costs involved in the preparation of awards? Who do you plan to present the awards?

Culminating event. The culminating event should be perhaps the most festive of all days of a season. Like the major sporting finals across the world, the event seeks to crown the champion team and is usually accompanied by celebrations that are not part of everyday competition. These celebrations should be designed to involve all students, and recognise the efforts of as many students as possible. Hence, in planning the culminating event, there are a number of questions that need to be considered. Table 2 provides these questions and some possible solutions.

Summary

The focus of this article was to highlight key curricular and pedagogical factors to consider when designing a Sport Education season. In learning to teach with a new pedagogical model the old adage of 'if we fail to plan…we plan to fail' seems to run true. The disappointment of trying and failing with a new teaching approach such as Sport Education can be prevented with careful consideration of the chosen sport, length of season, and the management and instructional support requirements of effectively facilitating students' success in their newly adopted roles.

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Developing effective student coaches in Sport Education

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University of Wyoming (USA)

The Sport Education Model adopts a student-centred instructional approach where students are asked to take on roles and responsibilities other than that of player. One critical role for the development of student knowledge and performance is that of the student coach. This article introduces some potential strategies that can be used by the teacher to facilitate more effective student coaches in Sport Education. These include: (i) selecting student coaches, (ii) delineating coach expectations, (iii) providing guided-practice on basic pedagogical skills, (iv) developing student coach independence and problem-solving capacities, and (v) developing an accountability for coaching performance. The use of coaches' seminars is also introduced as a method of increasing coaching effectiveness.

Early large-scale trials of Sport Education in Physical Education Program (SEPEP) in Australia in the mid-1990s brought about renewed teacher enthusiasm that the model could deliver on many of physical education's espoused goals. Despite this enthusiasm, teachers were somewhat sceptical of the effectiveness of a model which relinquishes much of the responsibility for the delivery of content to students, be it skill execution or tactical decision-making. Alexander and Luckman (2001) revealed that a majority of secondary teachers using SEPEP were more critical of students' performance, especially in relation to their effectiveness in the role of student coach. Teachers' perceived that some coaches may be quality players but are not able to provide quality practices for their students (Hastie, 2000), or were unable to provide the quality of feedback needed by peers to develop skill competency (Carlson, 1995). For those of us who have worked with beginning physical educators and their initial struggles in effectively developing content, these perceptions were perhaps not surprising. Secondary-aged students placed in the role of a peer coach within Sport Education may initially be excited by the prospect of 'coaching' their team to season success, but are unlikely to have the content knowledge or pedagogical skills necessary to be effective in their newly found instructional role. Recent research and practice has begun to provide insights into how to develop coaching effectiveness in Sport Education (Araujo, Hastie & Mesquita, 2016; Farias, Hastie & Mesquita, 2016; Wallhead & O'Sullivan, 2007). Siedentop (1998) initially suggested that roles in Sport Education were best learned, 'through a combination of instructional strategies including direct instruction, co-operative small-group work, peer-teaching and conflict-resolution mechanisms' (p. 19). This article provides an elaboration of Siedentop's ideas and provides six potential strategies that teachers can use to better prepare their students to effectively fulfil the role of team coach. These strategies are described in a sequential order that teachers could follow as they progress through a single, or multiple seasons of Sport Education.

Strategy 1: Selecting the student coach

An initial challenge faced by the teacher in Sport Education is how to select the student coaches for each team. How this selection is accomplished can be critical to whether the student coaches are accepted by peers and allocated some level of authority within the newly formed teams. Very often teachers will select the coaches of each team based upon their perceptions of the students' prior experience of the sport or their potential leadership qualities. For initial experiences of Sport Education this may be an appropriate strategy as the teacher has a clearer understanding of the responsibilities of the student coach. The ongoing challenge of this approach is that teachers' may have a lack of knowledge of the social dynamics of the group and whether the student coach will be accepted. This issue may be more prevalent in secondary physical education settings where students are not as familiar with many of their classmates.

An alternative approach is to accommodate the student social system within the selection process by giving the team more voice and informed choice about who will ultimately be their coach. This can be accomplished by embedding some team forming tasks during the early stages of a Sport Education season. These team forming tasks could include Cooperative Learning activities (Casey & Dyson, 2012), which emphasise positive interdependence, such that students have to work together to solve a movement problem. This type of task provides students an opportunity to evaluate the leadership and communication skills of their teammates and make a more informed choice on the suitability of specific members of the team to fulfil the role of student coach. Student feedback suggests that the allocation of roles within teams is often influenced by social status (Brock, Rovegno & Oliver,

2009), however, with the inclusion of cooperative learning tasks they have an opportunity to evaluate the suitability of themselves or their peers to the role before making their decision.

Strategy 2: Delineating coach expectations

The discussion of the different roles within Sport Education should be accompanied by a clear explanation of the specific responsibilities associated with each role. The use of role contracts is useful in this process and has been advocated by recent editions of the guide to Sport Education (Siedentop, Hastie & van der Mars, 2011). These contracts serve a dual purpose in developing effective coaches. First, the students are made aware of exactly what the coaching role entails, which may include responsibilities prior to, during, or even after the lesson. With a clearer understanding of role expectations the students can make an informed choice of whether they are interested in taking on the role of team coach. Second, the contracts provide a specific teacher accountability for role performance that can be referred to, or reinforced throughout the season. Figure 1 provides an example of a student coach contract that could be handed out and explained to the teams after they have been formed. This contract includes expectations of role responsibilities and some guidance on how these duties should be enacted. As the Sport Education season progresses or if coaching issues arise the teacher can use the contract to clarify or reaffirm role expectations.

Despite the purposeful descriptions of role responsibilities, students are likely to come into Sport Education with prior conceptions of how these responsibilities should be enacted. These conceptions have likely been shaped by their youth sport experiences, however, these perceptions of how a coach interacts may not always align with the teacher's educational goals for the Sport Education season. Sport Education has the overarching goals

COACH CONTRACT

As team coach I agree to:

- Attend all coaching briefings.
- Lead the team in practice sessions.
- Be enthusiastic and organised conducting practices.
- Provide help and advice to players during practices.
- Listen to player's opinions and ideas for practices and games.
- Make sure ALL players are given equal opportunities to practise and participate.

Name: _____ Signature: _____

Figure 1. Example student coach role contract.

of developing competent, literate and enthusiastic performers, without necessarily the emphasis on winning and some exclusionary practices that may have been experienced in youth sport (Siedentop et al., 2011). Clarification of the purpose of the student coach in achieving these educational goals is often required. The teacher needs to make it clear that the role of a student coach is to facilitate the problem-solving aspects of the team as they progress through the season and that you will provide them the progressive support they need to achieve this goal (Farias et al., 2016). The student coaches also need to understand that becoming an effective coach takes practice, reflection and effort, and may take multiple seasons to accomplish.

Strategy 3: Provide guided-practice on basic pedagogical skills

The first study specifically focusing on coach effectiveness in Sport Education found that students often lack the basic pedagogical skills to effectively provide feedback or organise task modifications to facilitate peer learning of higher order content (Wallhead & O'Sullivan, 2007). The development of coaches' initial pedagogical knowledge should include guidance-based instruction by the teacher that models organisational behaviours that can be imitated. Whole class demonstrations provided by the teacher are useful for the student coaches to copy with their team.

The teacher could also model and reinforce effective coach feedback by giving specific error-detecting feedback cues that could be used once the coaches have set up the learning task. These learning cues should be visually represented and referenced by placing them on an individual coaching task card. Figure 2 provides an example of a coaching task card that includes organisational components of the task and specific error-feedback cues associated with performance of a touch rugby 2v1 pass and support task. With access to technology, this task card could be enhanced by providing a video clip of a successful execution of the 2v1 pass and support task and making it accessible to the student coach or team on a tablet device.

Strategy 4: Developing student coach independence and problem-solving capacities

As student coaches become more proficient in organising their peers and are able to identify errors and propose more appropriate solutions, they are ready to develop more independence from the teacher. This independence should be encouraged by progressing to less prescriptive teacher support strategies. One example of a less direct teaching strategy is the use of a coaches' corner or coaching brief.

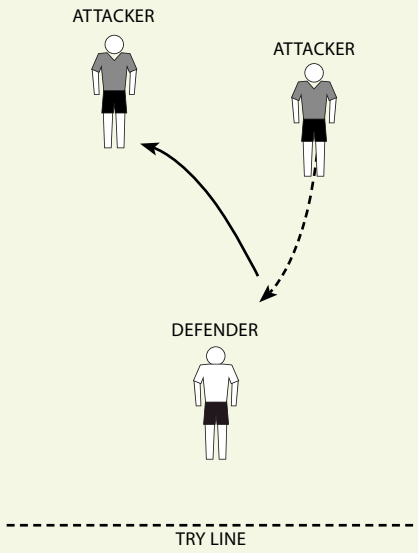
In this brief, the student coaches for each team are gathered by the teacher and provided a short explanation of the expectations of the upcoming practice tasks. Dependent on the teaching context, this coaches' brief could occur prior to the start of the lesson, or during the initial tasks such as the fitness warm-up. It should revolve around knowledge scaffolding and adopt a more problem-based approach to subsequent learning tasks. Student coaches should be provided with the organisational structure of the upcoming task, but also presented with potential task modifications and feedback cues that are designed towards scaffolding question prompts (Farias et al., 2016). The 2v1 pass and support task illustrated in Figure 2 provides an example of sample task modifications that could be included in this stage of coach development. Options such as a fake pass by the ball carrier or reduced limitations placed on the defender would advance the students understanding of touch rugby game problems.

As the task progresses the student coach should be encouraged to use questioning, rather than direct feedback statements for prompting teammates' comprehension of these game problems. Using this approach makes the student coaches more aware of different instructional strategies and also facilitates their teammates towards a greater self-monitoring of their performance (van de Pol, Volman & Beishuizen, 2010). The task card presented in Figure 2 provides examples of sample question prompts that could be used by the coach to scaffold knowledge of using overload attacking situations. These examples include, 'When should we look to make a pass in touch rugby?' and 'What should the support player do once they receive a pass?' These types of discovery-based coaching strategies serve to restructure the type of instructional interactions that go on between student coaches and teammates. By asking peers to formulate answers to these questions the coaches create a dialogue between team members which begins to share the responsibility for learning. As teammates develop a greater understanding of the game there is also more potential for them to help others in the group and as such devolve some of the coaching responsibilities among the group (Farias et al., 2016).

Strategy 5: Developing an acccountability for coaching performance

The accountabilities for role performance set up by the teacher is critical to the progress of the student coach and how they facilitate the problem-solving aspects of coaching. Early in a Sport Education season it may be necessary to establish an overt accountability system that rewards specific coaching behaviours. For example, during the guided-practice stage of coach development these could include overt reinforcements, such as extra team points for coaches who are providing congruent feedback to their teammates during practice. This public recognition of specific coaching behaviours, not only reinforces good role performance for the individual coaches, but also clearly demonstrates to the class how valuable you consider their performance (Siedentop et al., 2011).

As the teacher progresses to a less-prescriptive facilitation role, they need to foster specific strategies and accountabilities that encourage coach-led dialogue with teammates. One example of this is for the teacher to be purposeful in creating moments



Task Goal: Pair of attackers try and score past the single defender to score past the try line

Organisation:
Groups of three players
All players wear tags
Attackers in pairs
One defender defending try line (middle of grid)
One ball per pair of attackers

Potential Task Modifications:
Allow ball carrier to fake pass
Allow defender to move forward/backwards

Coaching Feedback Cues:
"Run forward quickly and take the space the defender gives you"
"Support player keep distance and don't get in front of ball carrier"
"Ball carrier look where you are passing"

Scaffolding Questions:
Q: When should we look to make a pass in the game?
Q: What is a good support position for the ball carrier?

Figure 2. Example coaching task card: Touch Rugby 2v1 pass and support task.

in the lesson for student coaches and their teammates to discuss solutions to game problems. This can occur during game contexts by using 'coaches time-outs', where participating coaches and teams are allowed a brief period of time to discuss their current solutions to game problems and what they could change before restarting the game. The teacher needs also to be aware of their feedback behaviours and how it influences the dynamics of student coaching. If the teacher provides specific cues directly to players during team practice this will often 'silence' the student coach, as they will perceive that the lesson is reverting back to a more teacher-directed approach. Teacher scaffolding prompts and questions directed to the coach will likely initiate more coach feedback or dialogue with their teammates.

Strategy 6: Coaches' seminars

For the teacher who is interested in developing more advanced student coaching strategies there is the potential for a coach education program that extends beyond the confines of the lesson or a single season of Sport Education. Coaching seminars are one example of a strategy that has been used to great effect in developing more skilled student coaches in Sport Education (Araujo et al., 2016; Farias et al., 2016). These seminars occurred outside of lesson time and included the student coaches having the opportunity to watch video footage of themselves coaching and discussing their effectiveness to formulate strategies for change. These type of seminars work well when students have the opportunity to serve as coach over multiple seasons of Sport Education and, as such, develop some foundational pedagogical knowledge that can be refined through practice and reflection. The supplemental time required for the regular use of this type of coach education strategy may be beyond the constraints of the teachers' school day, however, providing an opportunity for coaches to watch themselves coach and reflect on their interactions with their teammates can be a powerful learning experience.

Conclusion

Within the student-centred instructional approach of Sport Education, developing effective student coaches is critical to the success of the model. Using progressive coach education that clearly delineates coaching expectations and moves from guidance-based support strategies towards creating opportunities for dialogue between coaches and teammates will increase the capacity of the coach to facilitate the problem-solving aspects of the team. This progress should be viewed as a curricular goal, with student coaching viewed as a process that is developed over multiple seasons of the model (Araujo et al., 2016; Farias et al., 2016; Wallhead & O'Sullivan, 2007).

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Developing competent players in Sport Education

One of the three overarching aims of the Sport Education model is game competency. Competency is a multi-faceted ability comprising perception, decision-making, and at-action motor ability to successfully meet the performance demands of the moment in play. In this paper, we explain how to position teaching for game competency attainment within the Sport Education model, as well as how the teacher may assess game competency.

One of the three overarching aims of Sport Education is the development of competent players. In the common multi-activity physical education model, the focus of competency development in physical education is often the mastery of sport techniques (Kirk, 2010). Competency, however, is a multi-faceted ability comprising perception, decision-making, and at-action motor ability to successfully meet the performance demands of the moment in play. These links between the technical and tactical skills needed for effective game play performance are unlikely to be developed through isolated repetitive drill practices (Pill, 2016).

In Sport Education, consistent with an understanding of sport competency as the close association between technical and tactical skills, 'the primary focus is on developing game sense' (Siedentop, Hastie, & van der Mars, 2011, p. 26). Used here, game sense refers to the decision-making and action competency resulting in players making good decisions and executing those decisions with effective coordination and control of motor actions (den Duyn, 1997). As a result, it is critically important to design game rules and game modifications that suit the ability levels of the students.

Developing thinking players occurs most effectively in game-based practice situations (Charlesworth, 1994; Pill, 2016). This is because the game-replicated environment of game-based practice combines the use of techniques as tactical solutions to the in-context demand of the dynamics of the game moment. The reproduction of game-like and simulated situations as practice is more likely to result in transfer of learning from practice to play (Pill, 2013, 2016). Fortunately, the structure of Sport Education allows for opportunities for teams to engage in practice games where the win/loss outcome is not critical, and where teams can discover aspects of their play that need improvement.

Alexander and Penney (2005) have introduced the idea of a coaching 'clinic' as a way of addressing individuals' and/or teams' struggles with either the technical or tactical demands of the games they are playing. On clinic days (which are interspersed throughout the season), teams will participate in a small-sided game that re-enacts a problem observed by the teacher during previous matches. In many cases, these games create an offensive overload situation (e.g. 4 vs. 2, or 2 vs. 1) that is designed to exaggerate certain tactical demands of the game. In this way, aspects of 'setting up an attack' or 'defending critical areas' become more apparent to students and help them appreciate key aspects of successful play. During these clinic games, the teacher is actively involved in asking questions such as 'what should we do in this situation?', or 'how did your action help or hinder your team in that last play'? A sample tactical problem for a net-wall game can be found in Table 1.

Following the clinic game, two options are available. The first is for time to be spent on refining certain aspects of technique that would help in overall game performance, while the second option is for teams to negotiate with other teams to play a second game where they can consolidate the lessons learned from the practice game. In the first case, if a basketball team decides it needs to improve its rebounding and blocking out, or a Frisbee team decides it needs more practice in throwing long passes, specific instruction can be provided directly by the teacher, or led by the student-coach. In some cases, a specific aspect of the movement chain is isolated on the premise this will result in an improved technical model. For example, the action of punt kicking can be isolated and regressed to a standing drop punt kick focussed on a ball release. In this example, the closed practice may be progressed in complexity from the simplicity of stand and kick, to walk and kick, then

Table 1. An example of teaching technical and tactical components as complimentary.

The learning intention: A Tactical problem	Understand how to set up to win a rally by opening up space on the other player's court
Focus	Understand the concept of opening up (creating) space
Modified game 1	**Singles rally on short length and wide (using doubles line) court**
Examples of game-based questions	What is the tactical advantage of moving your opponent? What is the tactical advantage of hitting to space? How do you place the shuttle to move your opponent? How do you manipulate force as well as placement to move your opponent or hit to space? Into what spaces can you hit the shuttle? Where is the hardest place from which your opponent can play a return hit?
Modified game 2	**Singles rally on long (using doubles court end-line) and narrow half-court**
Examples of game-based questions	What is the tactical advantage of moving your opponent? What is the tactical advantage of hitting to space? How do you place the shuttle to move your opponent? How do you manipulate force as well as placement to move your opponent or hit to space? Into what spaces can you hit the shuttle? Where is the hardest place from which your opponent can play a return hit?
Conclusion	How do you hit the shuttle to open up (create) space on the other players court?

run and kick as control of the release improves.

Alexander and Penney (2005, p. 296) noted that it may not always be the teacher who decides the focus of activities during clinics. Instead, 'teams may request that particular tactics or techniques be placed on the practice schedule for the day. For example, players with a strong background in a sport may suggest particular tactical or technical solutions to problems they have identified. These can become a focus of the teams' activities for all or part of the clinic.'

Pritchard and McCollum (2009) developed a similar modification of Sport Education which they named the Sport Education Tactical Model (SETM). While the SETM uses the play-teach-play pedagogy used in Alexander and Penney's clinics, the difference is that nearly all of this instruction occurs in the pre-season phase that precedes the formal competition stage. In the SETM, students play a modified game that has as its core a tactical problem. Following play the teacher leads students in a question-and-answer session, which is followed by a related skill practice and in some cases, a second game.

Assessing performance in game play

As we have explained earlier, the nature of games and sport is such that participants are engaged in a constantly changing environment, continually requiring planning and effective problem-solving. By consequence the use of standardised technical skill rating and testing instruments in closed and open drills ignores the dynamic, chaotic and changing situations associated with game play (Richard & Griffin, 2003). While technical skill tests may be appropriate for assessing initial coordination and control, they are less appropriate for assessing game play competency. Competency assessment in Sport Education should therefore, appropriately take into account both the technical and tactical aspects exhibited during game play. To assess this game sense, it is appropriate to consider instruments that collect evidence during both on-the-ball and off-the-ball play. Two validated instruments of game sense in physical education are the Game Performance Assessment Instrument (GPAI) (Mitchell, Oslin, & Griffin, 2013) and the Team Sport Assessment Procedure (TSAP) (Gréhaigne, Richard, & Griffin, 2005). Both of these contain the advantage of having the game performance criteria transparently available to students and the association of the concepts to be taught embedded within the assessment variables (Harvey, 2007). This assessment protocol provides benefits to both the player and the assessor (Brown & Hopper, 2006).

The GPAI (Figure 1) has seven identifiable game components for measurement and codification. The identified game components encompass both on–the-ball and off–the-ball game performance. Physical education teachers select the components to observe according to the type of game, the context of the game and the desired learning focus. As both effectiveness of skill execution, skill and tactical decision making and support movements are measured and codified, the GPAI theoretically both rewards and illuminates the totality of game performance, not just who is the most technically aligned player (Pill, 2008). Moreover, the game components embedded in the GPAI mean it can be adapted and used in a range of games, such as invasion, net-wall, and striking/fielding.

Additionally, by coding appropriate/efficient and inappropriate/inefficient

INVASION GAME PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT

Student_____Class_____Observation Date_____

Game_____

GAME COMPONENTS

1a. Skill Execution: The student passes the ball accurately (ball reaches the intended target)

Score: _____

1b. Skill Execution: The student receives the ball cleanly

Score: _____

2a. Off the ball Support: The student consistently attempts to move into position to receive a clear pass or moves to create space by spreading for the player with the ball to run forward

Score: _____

2b. Off the ball Support: The student consistently attempts to communicate using visual cues and verbal cues that they are free to receive a pass

Score: _____

DIRECTIONS: Observe the selected player(s) for 5-8 minutes, observing only performance related to the above game components.

CODE: E= Effective A= Appropriate I = Inappropriate/Ineffective

After the observation period, give each player a score from 1(always) 2(mostly) 3 (sometimes) 4 (rarely) 5 (never) on each component.

Team/Players	1a. Skill Execution Passing		1b. Skill Execution Receiving		2a. Off the ball Support Movement		2b. Off the ball Support Communication	
	E	I	E	I	A	I	A	I

Figure 1. An example of a GPAI (adapted from Mitchell & Oslin, 1999).

Table 2. Game components forming the GPAI instrument (Mitchell & Oslin, 2002)

BASE	Appropriate return of a performer to a 'base' position between skill attempts.
DECISION MAKING	Making appropriate decisions about what to do with the implement during a game.
SKILL EXECUTION	Efficient execution of the selected skills.
SUPPORT	Provides appropriate support for a team-mate with the implement by being in position to receive a pass.
GUARD / MARK	Appropriate guarding/marking of an opponent who may or may not have the implement.
COVER	Provides appropriate defensive cover, help, or back-up for a player making a challenge for the implement.
ADJUST	Movement of performer, either offensively or defensively, as necessitated by the game.

instances of the different game components seen in Table 2, teachers can compute an *index* for each component (i.e., appropriate decisions made/appropriate decisions made + inappropriate decisions made x 100).

Finally, the appropriate/efficient and inappropriate/inefficient instances of the different game components can be summed to provide an overall *game involvement score*, while a holistic *game performance* score can be computed by summing scores of the individual indices, thus taking into consideration the balance between efficiency and inefficiency of the performer (i.e., decision making index + skill execution index x 100).

The TSAP assesses game play through the direct involvement of students in the collection of assessment evidence as part of the learning process. It is based on two features of game performance; 1. How a player gains possession and, 2. How a player disposes possession. Specific behaviours (see Figure 2) related to these two features are observed and coded. Unlike the GPAI, which attempts to cover the totality of game behaviour, the TSAP focuses on offensive on-the-ball motor skill and tactical invasion game behaviour. However, it must be noted that off-the-ball game play behaviours are not explicitly coded in TSAP. For example, if players on a team are not receiving many balls, this may be due to a lack of off-the-ball movement skill or poor passing execution. After using the TSAP in invasion contexts, it was amended to be used in net-wall games (Gréhaigne, Richard, & Griffin, 2005). Like the GPAI, the TSAP affords the teacher to compute a volume of play (VP), and efficiency index (EI) and, from these two components an overall performance score (PS; see Table 3). While no normative criterions exist for student VP, EI, or PS, the teacher can possibly create PS 'levels' (i.e., beginning, developing and secure) based on their class scores.

Observational Variables: Operational Definition

A. Gaining possession of the ball

1. **Conquered Ball (CB)**
   A player is considered having conquered the ball if he/she intercepted it, stole it from an opponent or recaptured it after an unsuccessful shot on goal or after a near loss to the other team.
2. **Received Ball (RB)**
   The player receives the ball from a partner and does not immediately lose control of it.

B. Disposing of the ball

1. **Lost Ball (LB)**
   The player is considered having lost the ball when he/she loses control of it without having scored a goal.
2. **Neutral Ball (NB)**
   A routine pass to a partner that does not truly put pressure on the other team.
3. **Pass (P)**
   Pass to a partner that contributes to the displacement of the ball towards the opposing team's goal.
4. **Successful Shot on Goal (SS)**
   A shot is considered successful when it scores or one's team retains possession of the ball.

The computation of performance indexes and performance score:

Volume of play index = CB + RB

Efficiecy Index = $\frac{CB + P + SS}{10 + LB}$

Performance Score = (Volume of play / 2) + (efficiency index x 10)

Figure 2. TSAP invasion game behaviours (Richard, Godbout, & Griffin, 2002)

Peer assessment of game performance during Sport Education

Testing of the TSAP has demonstrated that students at the Grade 5-8 levels are capable of using the TSAP with a moderate to good level of precision and interobserver reliability, this being more so as the grade level increases (Richard, Godbout, & Gréhaigne, 2000). Given that Sport Education involves students in several roles, it is more than reasonable to include 'game play coders' as a legitimate role in any season. In fact, in some Spanish schools, teachers have trained all of their students to use the players from one non-playing team to code the performance of one student during games of modified handball.

Conclusion

Research on Sport Education with teachers has shown that despite many physical education teachers scepticism (Alexander, 1994, Alexander

& Luckman, 2001; Alexander, Taggart, & Medland, 1993) students' game skills and game play improve (Hastie, Sinelnikov, & Guarino, 2009), due to the capacity of the students to become more familiar with the interaction between technical and tactical knowledge (Alexander, Taggart, & Thorpe, 1996; Grant, 1992). Moreover, using a game-focused teaching approach can additionally provide teachers with the ability to take advantage of transfer from units of work with similar tactical problems (i.e., basketball and soccer/volleyball and badminton) (Mitchell, Oslin, & Griffin, 2013). It is important that potential improvements in game play performance be documented using authentic game play assessment tools such as the GPAI and TSAP, which can be accomplished using peers in non-playing roles such as 'game play coders'.

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Competition formats for use during Sport Education

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In this paper, we examine the different types of competition formats that can be used to create an engaging season of Sport Education for students. Two main formats are discussed as the most appropriate. In the first, the 'progressive competition format', teams participate in what might be called a 'training camp' where they practice, learn the rules, and learn how to officiate. This is followed by a series of lessons in which teams play informal games, where the scores do not count towards the league table, and where the focus is on developing competency in officiating and in maximising team function. Finally, the teams play in a formal competition, where game results are formally recorded in a league table together with other elements (such as fair play) that the teacher sees as relevant. The second format is called the 'event model', in which the sport is conducted as a series of independent events. In these cases, teams intersperse practice and competitions, and accumulate points based upon their performance in each of the events, which are used to calculate rankings for season ending championships.

Throughout Australia and across the world, the champions in various sports tend to be crowned in two ways. The first is following a season in which teams play weekly matches to place them in a certain ranking, which is followed by a finals series.

Examples in Australia include the four football codes, the Australian Netball League, the Women's and Men's National Basketball Leagues, and the Sheffield Shield and Women's National Cricket League to name a few. In these leagues the same game is used across the sport season, and there are no variations in rules throughout. Rugby in the Tri-Nations always consists of the 15-a-side format, while the cricket formats (Big Bash or Sheffield Shield) retain the same playing number. We describe these seasons as following a 'progressive competition format', with the typical progression running as shown in Figure 1.

The second common competition format is what occurs when the sport is conducted as a series of independent events. Examples include the various tours for tennis and golf, athletics and swimming, as well as motor racing. In these cases, athletes accumulate points based upon their performance in each of the events, and these are used to calculate either rankings or qualification for season ending championships. It is within these events where prize money, medals, and trophies are typically distributed after each event, rather than at the end of the completed season. We describe these seasons as following an 'event model', with the typical progression running as shownin Figure 2.

Both of these formats are appropriate for use in seasons of Sport Education. Moreover, the teacher designing the season has complete freedom to make modifications to the game form, the

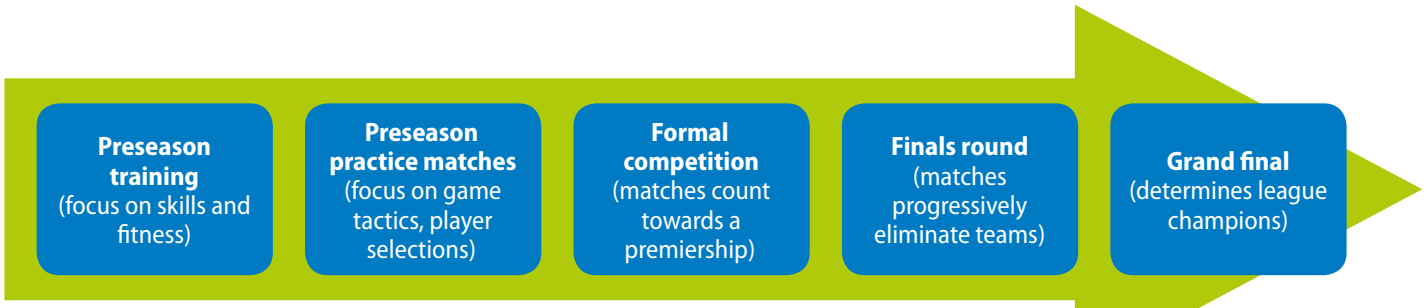

Figure 1. Typical 'progressive competition format'.

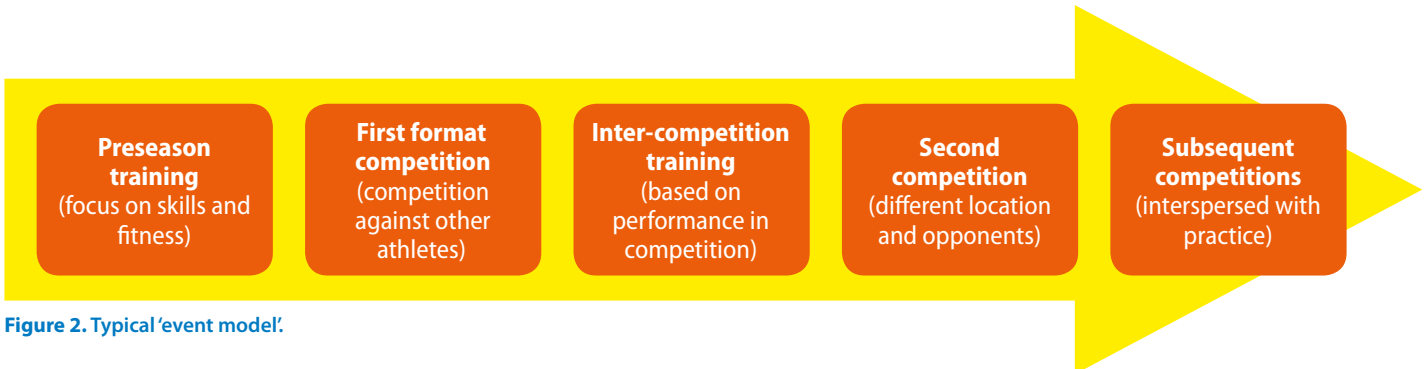

Figure 2. Typical 'event model'.

rules, and the number of days allocated to practice, practice competitions, and formal competitions. However, as noted earlier in the introductory paper to this special issue, Sport Education is not a direct replication of formal sport competition into physical education.

As it relates to the design of competition, the first guiding principle in Sport Education is that all students get *equal opportunity to play,* which is typically achieved through the use of small-sided games in which students get equal opportunity to learn position play. The second guiding principle of competition is *an emphasis on the team*, and all competitions are first and foremost *team* competitions. Even in those sports characterised as 'individual' such as golf, tennis or athletics, within Sport Education each player's performance counts towards a team score. There is still place, of course, for individual place winners, runners-up and the like to be recognised. However, the champion team, best officiating team, the team with the most fair play points, or the teams with the best statistics will be recognised more than an individual scoring leader.

The third guiding principle is that where possible, competition should be *graded*. By graded we mean that competitions are arranged that match students of similar skill level against one another, and in some cases, even the game forms are different across the competition levels. It is not uncommon for school and sports clubs to have an A, B, and even a C team who play against their equivalent during competitions. Likewise, some sports leagues have a number of divisions which attempt to match players according to their experience and skill level. This situation is even more relevant within physical education, where the diversity of student skill, interest and background in a sport will be even greater. Recent research on Sport Education has shown that graded competition produces a number of positive outcomes for all students. Hastie, Ward, and Brock (2016) specifically revealed higher levels of success, engagement and playing efficiency by both higher and lower-skilled students when they played in graded competitions.

Progressive competition formats

The most familiar (and simple) progressive competition format is one that follows the template shown in Figure 1. Teams are formed and then undergo a series of lessons in which they practice, learn the rules, and learn how to officiate. This is followed by a series of lessons in which teams play informal games, where the scores do not count towards the league table, and where the focus is on developing competency in officiating and in maximising team function. Finally, the teams play in a formal competition, where game results are formally recorded in a league table together with other elements (such as fair play) that the teacher sees as relevant. Table 5.1 provides a sample from a basketball 3 vs 3 season (Hastie & Sinelnikov, 2006).

While this format would be most familiar with students who follow sports competitions such as the AFL or the Netball league, they are limited in terms of gradually introducing the complexities of game play across the length of the season. As a result, some teachers have designed seasons in which the matches become progressively more tactically and technically advanced. One example of a soccer season is provided in Table 5.2. Here, the season begins with a 2 v 2 competition, with a team of six dividing into three sub-teams, graded by skill and experience, so that students of similar abilities compete against each other. Each team's result however, counts equally towards the overall score. Later, the competition progresses to 3 v 3 and then finally as a single team playing 6 v 6.

Table1. Basketball season plan.

Lesson	Content	Teacher's role	Students' roles
1	Introduction Rules to the game Beginning skills	Class leader	Participant
2	Skills testing Team announcement	Present team lists Discuss roles Discuss fair play	Determine team roles Decide on team name
3-7	Whole class instruction Team practices	Class leader	Participant Student-coach
8-10	Pre-season practice games	Head coach	Player Student-coach
11-15	Formal competition	Head coach Programme manager	Player Student-coach Officiating team role
16-17	Play-offs	Program manager	Player Student-coach Officiating team role
18	Championship game Awards presentation	Program manager Master of ceremonies	Player Student-coach Officiating team role

Table 2. Soccer season plan.

Lesson	Content	Competition format	Game rules
1	Introduction Rules to the game Beginning skills		
2	Skills testing Team announcement		
3-5	Techniques and skills of 2 v 2	Within team practice	
6-8	2 v 2 competition	2 v 2 Duty team players referee Scorekeepers keep simple performance statistics	Score by trapping the ball directly on an end line. This can be from a pass or a player dribbling the ball to the line and trapping it.
9-10	Techniques and skills of 3 v 3	Within team practice	
11-13	3 v 3 competition	3 v 3 Games will now consist of 6-players with two referees and two scorekeepers	Score by: dribbling through a gate (2 cones) pass through a gate to a team mate (see Figure 5.1)
16-18	Techniques and skills of 6 v 6	Within team practice	
19-21		6 v 6 Games will now consist of 12-players with two referees and two scorekeepers	Score by sending the ball into a goal. Teams may have a formal goalkeeper
22	Championship game		

The progressive competition format can also be built around changes in the size of the competition space, the equipment used, and other features which make the specific sport/activity progressively more advanced. For example, a beginning competition in tennis might use short rackets, softer balls, and the service line moved closer to the net. As students get more experienced and confident, a subsequent competition can change any or all of those features.

The event model

In the event model, students typically compete by themselves but all their performances count towards a team collective score. During the earliest part of a season, students would work on developing the techniques and fitness levels required for successful participation in competition. For example, in a golf season, students will practice driving, chipping and putting skills, while those in a gymnastics season will take time learning routines on the beam, the floor and perhaps the vault. In the early stages of this format, student-coaches will help their team members in specific skill tasks, or in determining who will represent the team in the various events. For example, in the first competition in golf, there might be a putting competition, a chipping competition and a driving competition, with different players representing each team. Likewise, in the first swimming competition, different students will represent their teams in 25, 50, or 100 metre races. Points are added from all team members to determine the team score. The example in Table 5.3 shows how a fitness season was organised around three separate competition events, where the results of each counted towards a season championship.

In the event model, the bulk of the season focuses on a series of team competitions. It is here that the teacher is given particular flexibility in designing the competitions. In some cases, there can be a continuation of specialty performances, where players represent their teams in different events (such as in athletics, gymnastics, or swimming). Alternately, events may be run in the form of 'relay' competitions, where all members compete, but their total times/scores are added. This is a suitable format for seasons of cross-country running or orienteering as examples. Finally, there may be a variation in cases where performance is affected by size and strength (e.g. weight lifting). In this variation, all team members will compete in the same events (e.g., bench press, clean and squat), but against those in their same weight division. Sweeney, Tannehill, and Teeters (1992) provide an example for a girls' high school class. In their case, a class of 31 girls was divided into seven teams, and four weight divisions were created. Weekly challenges were held leading to a final competition. The final competition was a team event in which the total weight lifted by a team across all events and weight divisions was used to determine the competition champion.

Table 3. Fitness season plan.

Lesson 1 Intro to the season Concept of challenges Announce teams (based on earlier fitness test scores) Complete team sheets (team names, colours, mascot etc.)	**Lesson 2** Muscular strength and endurance lesson Focus on MSE knowledge (reps, sets, overload) Discuss sample exercises	**Lesson 3** MSE team practice Examining different activities they enjoy and can do	**Lesson 4** Aerobic lesson Focus on aerobic fitness knowledge (HR zones, intensity) Discuss sample exercises	**Lesson 5** AER team practice Examining different activities they enjoy and can do
Lesson 6 Introduce Challenge 1 (Head to Head) Team practice and training Begin designing first challenge	**Lesson 7** Team practice and training Refine and finalise challenge	**Lesson 8** Challenge 1 practice run Focus on scorekeeping	**Lesson 9** Challenge 1 formal competition Head to head competition between teams (winner scores 5 points)	**Lesson 10** Introduce Challenge 2 (The Until Challenge) Team practice and training
Lesson 11 Team practice and training	**Lesson 12** Team practice and training	**Lesson 13** Challenge 2 practice run Focus on scorekeeping	**Lesson 14** Challenge 2 formal competition Points distributed in order to team completion	**Lesson 15** Introduce challenge 3 Team practice and training
Lesson 16 Team practice and training	**Lesson 17** Team practice and training	**Lesson 18** Challenge 3 practice run Full Cross-fit circuit to determine cut off times	**Lesson 19** Challenge 3 formal competition Full Cross-fit circuit with cut off times	**Lesson 20** Present awards and final festivity

Culminating events

All authentic sporting experiences end with a culminating event. The Super Bowl of American football and the final of the World Cup soccer competition draw millions of viewers across the world. In Australia, all AFL aficionados are aware of grand final day occurring on 'the last Saturday in September'. These events are not exclusive to the highest levels of professional sports. Most junior leagues too, have finals matches that lead to the confirmation of the premiership winners.

Consistent with its focus on inclusion, in Sport Education the end-of-season event represents the culmination of the sporting experience with one critical difference. In most sports leagues, only the two best teams get to participate in this final activity. In Sport Education, the focus is on festivity and of *full participation of all teams*. Both competitive and social outcomes are celebrated and shared among the students in the class. As a result, the end-of-season event need not be only on the final day of the competition round. Championships and other end of season competitions can be spread over several days. While there may be a championship game in a tournament, there should also be games to decide the minor placings (third, fifth, seventh etc.)

Culminating events can take many forms. Some classes treat the occasion as purely a social one, while others include some activity relating to the season's competition. In all cases, however, the focus should be on the *festive* nature of the event. As Kinchin, MacPhail, and Ni Chroinin (2009) note, most teaching makes no reference to festivity and that its absence contributes to the incomplete and inauthentic teaching of sport in many schools. To that end, they refer to Scheibler (1999) who claims '…in the festival, the focus is not directed to the individual but to their participation in something [an event]…the festival celebration is shared; participation is a sharing in an event' (p. 151-2).

In developing the culminating event, it is worthwhile to consider the key features of a festival that Eichberg (2006) suggest revolve around space, time and atmosphere. Table 5.4 provides a description of these elements and how they are relevant to the planning of a culminating event.

Table 4. Factors to consider when designing a festival.

Element	Particulars
Space	Location of the festival and how it is organised
Time	When is the festival planned
Energy	The practices that give the festival a particular atmosphere
Relations	The people in attendance at the festival and the relationships between them
Objectivation	What results come out of the festival

Space. While most culminating events take place on school grounds, there have been examples where larger venues are necessary, particularly when many classes (or even multiple schools) are taking part. In some cases, schools were able to conduct their festive day's competitions at an elite sporting venue, one not otherwise available for public use.

Time. While most individual lessons within a Sport Education season take place within scheduled class times, culminating events, by their very nature, will take longer to complete. As a result, there will need to be negotiations between the physical education and classroom staff, and in some cases, the school administration.

Energy. The festive nature of the event is limited only by the imagination of the teachers and students involved in its planning.

Relations. A wonderful way to promote the event, and concurrently advocate for the physical education program, is to involve those from outside the regular physical education classes. At a minimum, classroom teachers, school administrators and parents and friends can be formally invited. Further, some teachers and sport boards have invited the local press to their celebrations, and have garnered newspaper coverage of the final day's activities. Others have produced a highlights video and shown these together with a special guest speaker at a special 'players' breakfast' (Siedentop, Hastie, & van der Mars, 2011).

Objectivation. There is almost no limit to the awards and the format of those awards that can be given at the culmination of a Sport Education season. As noted, since the goals of the model go beyond skillful play, the awards should reflect those goals. While it is certainly legitimate to honor the most outstanding team, other components of a season such as fair play, membership of committees, skill improvement and team work should also be recognised.

Conclusion

Developmentally appropriate competition is a fundamentally important characteristic of Sport Education, and by consequence, designing the appropriate format is the link that allows students to have those beneficial competitive experiences. In this paper the two most common formats (progressive and event model) have been presented as examples which can be used to accommodate any range of sports or activities that might be used. What is central to these formats is the idea that whatever the format of competition, any of them should involve all students equally. The idea of graded competition is included in order to show how matching contests based upon student abilities makes for a better and more enjoyable learning and competing experience for students.

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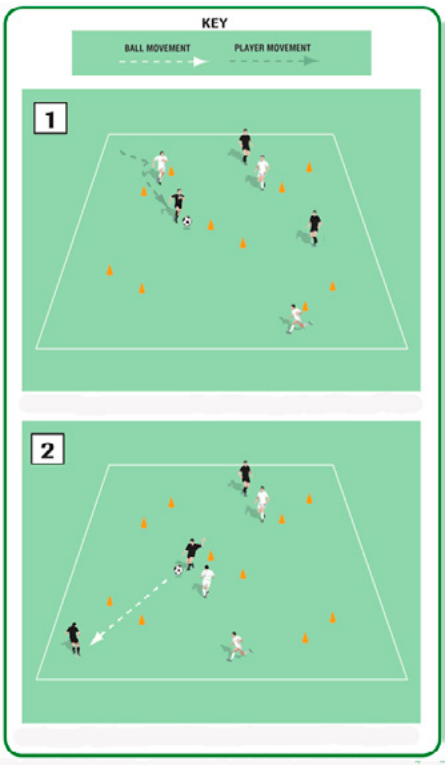

Figure 3. Scoring by dribbling or passing through gates.

Promoting equity and social responsibility within Sport Education

Cláudio Farias
University of Bedfordshire (UK)

Sport Education is highly favourable to the development of positive responsibility and more equitable and inclusive learning contexts. This paper offers an integrated evidence-based analysis of the development of positive responsibility, inclusion, and equitable learning environments within Sport Education. It also highlights the socio-cultural and structural constraints to the development of such goals, and points out four practical pedagogical interventions for proactive development of inclusion, equity, and positive responsibility in Sport Education. These interventions are listed as: (i) developing positive and responsible membership; (ii) developing positive and responsible peer leadership; (iii) designing developmentally appropriate and cooperation-facilitative learning activities; and (iv) reshaping the meaning of 'winning' for legitimating different levels of participation and membership.

One of the key features of Sport Education is that it is built on strong statements of democratic and student-centred practice. As such, the pedagogical features of Sport Education (affiliation, competition, records, role performance, festivity, culminating event) are drawn from the healthy features of community-based sports. In Sport Education, the competition feature and goal-oriented format of the activities (when students practice tactical skills that will solve problems encountered during their participation in the league competition matches) and the accountability systems built-into the learning activities (on-going records), assign authenticity, cultural relevance, and sense of purpose to the structure of the content learned. In addition, the responsibilities inherent within role performance (e.g., coaches, referees, captains, scorekeepers, and managers) and student-led team practice and managerial activities, provide a potential context for cooperative work, shared decision-making, and face-to-face interaction. This also offers the opportunity for students to plan, practice and benefit from the social development opportunities that accompany membership in a persistent group (Dyson, Griffin, & Hastie, 2004).

Alongside to the development of competence and enthusiasm, Siedentop (1994) envisioned Sport Education to have a democratic, inclusive and participatory focus (sustainable development of a healthy sporting culture: sports literacy). Therefore, teachers are expected to create a *positive learning environment* where students are given the opportunity to engage in the community of practice of sport as legitimate peripheral participants in a variety of roles other than that of players (e.g., coaches, referees, etc.), thereby leading to a more complete understanding of the sporting culture. The learners' trajectories to full participation in the life of their teams develop through participation in small-sided games where everyone participates equitably and in which the secondary rules of games are modified and developmentally matched to the abilities of students. The total experience is envisioned to embed formalised processes for the development of fair-play behaviours and of the social (responsibility, perseverance, loyalty, and teamwork) and moral (honesty and mutual respect) properties of the sporting experiences (Harvey, Kirk, & O'Donovan, 2014).

Development of personal and social responsibility, inclusion, and equitable learning environments within Sport Education

In the past twenty-years, more than 80 data-based studies have supported the positive impact of Sport Education in the development of competence, enthusiasm, and literacy (Araújo, Mesquita, & Hastie, 2014; Hastie, Martinez, & Calderón, 2011; Wallhead & O'Sullivan, 2005). Within this body of research, strong (15 studies) to moderate (18 studies) support has been given to the aspirations of Sport

Education to the development of inclusion, equity, personal and social responsibility, and values (Harvey et al., 2014).

For example, as a result of participation in Sport Education, students appreciate the value of inclusion (e.g., Clarke & Quill, 2003; Kinchin, 2001) of those students frequently discriminated against (development of empathy), built leadership responsibility and teamwork skills (development of assertiveness) (e.g., García-López & Gutiérrez, 2015), lower skilled students believed they had equal opportunities for performance improvement (e.g., Hastie, 1998), and students of different gender and skill levels engaged evenly in motor tasks (Hastie & Sinelnikov, 2006). Furthermore, students committed to the principles of Sport Education (e.g., Alexander & Luckman, 2001; Hastie, 2000; Hastie & Buchanan, 2000), increased fair-play behaviours (Hastie & Sharpe, 1999; Vidoni & Ward, 2009), and developed an ad hoc sense of social justice (e.g., Kinchin & O'Sullivan, 2003).

Potential temporal, socio-cultural, relational, and structural constraints to inclusion, equity, and development of positive responsibility

Despite the wide positive impact of Sport Education on learners' positive development highlighted in the literature, it is unlikely that mere participation of children in single isolated seasons will automatically facilitate the emergence of the ethical dimensions of participation in sport. A number of contextual, relational, or structural 'forces' may emerge in the gym, either enabling or restricting the access of more timid, lower-skilled, or less dominant boys and girls to full participation in the learning experience (Farias, Hastie, & Mesquita, 2017).

In some sites of implementation of Sport Education, a series of deeply rooted conceptions about sporting expectations related to pervasive gender stereotypes ('girls can't play sports') (Parker & Curtner-Smith, 2012), situated relational hierarchies dictated by socioeconomic and popularity status ('dominant students ruling the selection of which pupils are suited to carry out particular roles') (Brock, Rovegno, & Oliver, 2009), and negative cultural influences stemming from participation in community-based sports transported into the gym by dominant boys and girls ('participation goals silenced by immediate success and winning goals') (Farias et al., 2017), exerted a negative influence in equity and inclusion achievement.

Concurrently, building positive relational and leadership interactions, and self-determined cooperation and peer-teaching behaviours is not necessarily an automatic outcome of pupils' affiliation in persistent team membership. For example, the intervention of Vidoni and Ward (2009), while showing evidence of a decrease in 'harmful behaviours' during a season, found little progress in 'helpful behaviours'. Likewise, in the Sport for Peace project, Ennis (1999) found no long-term changes in students' attitudes towards the exclusionary practices of sport. Furthermore, recent research showed that specific structures of content development used by the teachers might also be influential in the development of responsible team membership. For example, Farias et al. (2017) found that the premature introduction of a large number of informal competition games was shown to have a detrimental effect on the time available for students to practice as a team, also limiting the opportunities available for head-to-head and peer-teaching interactions.

In fact, the development of inclusive team goals and membership has proved to be a slow, laborious, and time-consuming process that evolves across pupils' participation in consecutive seasons of Sport Education. On the one hand, there seems to be a complex interrelatedness between the trajectories of student participation, development of mutual trust, and acceptance of individual differences and levels of membership, and the on-going restructuring of power relations within teams and consequent sharing of knowledge and investment of dominant and higher-skilled students in more inclusive team goals (Farias et al., 2017). Moreover, despite Sport Education's potential for ethical development, the teacher needs to enact explicit pedagogical applications that facilitate inclusion and responsibility, 'so they are taught and not just caught' (Harvey et al., 2014, p. 118). Teachers are urged to be sensitive to ethical goals and to 'put structures in place' (e.g., promote 'formal' student engagement in debates-of-ideas, developmentally appropriate game-play, developing positive leadership) that will proactively capitalise on the inclusive opportunities embedded in the Sport Education curriculum features and created learning environment.

Pedagogical strategies for explicit and proactive development of inclusion, equity, and positive responsibility in Sport Education

The following section provides a guide on potential action strategies that teachers can use when pursuing a more equitable learning context and development of positive responsibility within Sport Education. Each section includes a potential set of practical pedagogical applications teachers can proactively put in place. Figure 1 provides an executive summary of the focus, strategies and related evidence-based implications and potential benefits.

Developing positive and responsible membership. Recently, Harvey et al. (2014) proposed the celebration of the '***Ethical contract***' and the constitution of '***Sports panels***' as potential pedagogical applications for equity and responsibility development in Sport Education. The '*Ethical contract*' consists of a formalised agreement signed by the pupils and the teacher at the entry of the Sport Education season. The set of regulative rules negotiated with the students will establish the 'guides and ends of right action' and respective ruling standards and expectations for students' daily conducts. From

an equity and responsibility point of view, such benchmarks may include respect, courtesy, positive recognition/praise, peer-teaching, inclusiveness, balanced participation, fair-play, hard work, positive attitudes, quality of role performance, etc. While sieved pedagogically by the teacher's mediation, it is essential that students have an active role in the elaboration of these norms, as this will exert a positive pressure towards the accomplishment of the intended goals. At the end of the day, students will have to deal with the consequences of their actions in accordance with the rules they have established. It is imperative that students are given the opportunity to systematically appraise the accomplishment of the ethical contract's goals, as this will provide them with the opportunity to constantly revisit their conceptions of equity whilst acknowledging the progression in their levels of responsibility.

Any breaches in the ethical contract can be discussed within a '*Sports panel*' that is constituted by representatives of each of the teams participating in the league competition. The teachers should encourage the Panel members to engage in '*debates of ideas*'1 aimed at reflecting on their own and others' actions, thereby converging in the construction of collective meaning of an intended end (e.g., how the class conceives of inclusiveness and its implications to the way individual playing time is to be set within the teams). A specific period of time may be allocated for these meetings at the end of the lessons (post-lesson briefings), or alternately, the pupils' Sport Education experience can be extended beyond the gym gates through participation in meetings taking place at lunchtimes. While the guides and ends of inclusive membership (ethical contract) can form a basis for the debates, teams are then notified of the decisions made via the season's noticeboard. A further advantage of the Panels is that it locates the resolution of conflicts at the micro-level of peer interactions, thus attenuating the more pronounced teacher-student hierarchical asymmetry often present in more teacher-centred learning contexts (Metzler, 2011). The integration of the '***inclusion caretaker***' as one of the student roles can operate as a supplementary strategy. Students rotate in the daily monitoring of discriminatory occurrences and levels of equity and at the end of each lesson they are responsible for reporting to the panel in conformity, and/or record the events in the main class score chart.

Based on the objectives established for the lesson (e.g., equity goals, development of team strategy goals, etc.), the teachers can also integrate specific ***schedules for students' face-to-face interaction*** into the pacing of content development. For example, establishing 2-minutes short breaks at each task transition (e.g., game-skill practice-return to game) will prompt students to debate, on-the-spot, about their on-going game problems and needs improvement-targets, levels of equitable participation in the activities, or emerging exclusionary or discriminatory interactions. This will arguably help students develop knowledge on each other's personal features and game skills, build a common 'domain of interests' (e.g., improving the game quality of the team and consequently the possibility for winning the league games), foster their commitment to invest in more inclusive team goals, share their repertoire of knowledge, and mutually engage in the learning process of all teammates.

Developing positive and responsible peer leadership. The devolution of power occurring from the teacher to the students assuming the role of coaches requires that teachers implement strategies designed specifically for mediating the leadership interactions between the student coaches and their teammates. Therefore, it is essential that student coaches develop ***positive leadership skills*** that will help them embrace an active and facilitatory role in the creation of a positive culture and equitable interactions within their teams. One such mediation strategy may include stimulating the student coaches to deepen their knowledge of each team members' strengths and weaknesses, urging them to ***facilitate the building of relationships between teammates*** (e.g., in volleyball, encourage a teammate who performs poor overhead passing to seek help from a particular teammate who has mastered that technique). Further, the student coaches may need to be taught about particular *basic instructional strategies*. Two of such strategies may be, '***teaching by invitation***' (e.g., encouraging teammates to select the level of difficulty of the volleyball skills to be used: opting between executing the underarm serve, rainbow toss, or overhead passing, or to serve closer to or further away from the net) and ***self-monitoring processes*** (e.g., asking teammates to count and mentally record their own progression on the number of overhead passes they can execute in a row). Such strategies have been proven efficient for increasing students' ability to take responsibility for their own learning progression and to assume peer-teaching responsibilities more proactively (Farias et al., 2017).

Designing developmentally appropriate and cooperation-facilitative learning activities. Specific modifications applied to the content development format of the activities and configurations of group work are key aspects to empower students in the construction of their participation in the activities and stimulate the sharing of knowledge between teammates.

In a first stage of team development, where students are still constructing a voluntary disposition towards inclusiveness (Ennis, 1999), the *activation of 'compulsory participation'* may be an efficient strategy to secure that those lower-status and lower-skilled girls and boys have equitable opportunities to participate in the activities. One possible strategy is to ask students to design their own rotation systems and display a formal

1 In parallel to Gréhaigne, Wallian, and Godbout's (2005) 'debate of ideas' settings where students are encouraged to reflect on game problems hindering their performance and cooperatively design appropriate plans of action to overcome them.

participation schedule in the season's noticeboard. For example, setting the rotation schedules (e.g., the substitute players rotate at every 2-minutes of game-play), by taking into account the number of team members (e.g., four students per team) while aligning it with the number of participant players (e.g., 3-a-side games) and the games duration (e.g., 8-minute games), will result in equitable participation of all participants (i.e., all four team members play for 6-minutes).

One important way of facilitating students' access to more full participation in the activities, is the focus placed on performance development through the *critical changes posed to the goals, content and structure of the instructional tasks* (i.e., rules, space, numbers of players, and degree of defensive pressure). The modification of the playing areas and game rules to match game demands to the ability level of less-skilled players may include: (i) changing the scoring systems to facilitate equitable on-the-ball participation (three points awarded if all players touch the ball before a goal attempt); (ii) establishing safety areas on the court where students can refine basic skills within the game (e.g., dribbling and passing), pass the ball safely, and gain confidence before engaging in game interactions against opponents; (iii) or individual adjustments applied to the level of defensive pressure (e.g., no interception allowed during players' dribbling for scoring) (Farias, Mesquita, & Hastie, 2015).

However, it is critical that an optimum level of challenge is also offered to students of higher skill level to prevent the feeling of being relegated simply to 'knowledge resources' used exclusively for the learning benefit of the lower-skilled students. The teachers can set specific players match-up at different sites of competition events (*Graded competition*: 'Division A' and 'Division B'), where more challenging game conditions and sophistication of game-play are demanded to the higher-skilled boys and girls. Indeed, recent research on Sport Education focusing on the effects of participation in graded competition matches showed high level of engagement rates and playing efficiency of both lower- and higher-skilled students while playing against peers of similar skill level (Hastie, Ward, & Brock, 2017).

More importantly, this creates a context where students of all genders and ability levels have the opportunity to offer a valid contribution to the teams' championship cumulative scores. The inclusion of girls in 'Division A' teams, and the public recognition of their successful participation in game-play in sports usually associated to males (e.g., football), has helped break gendered stereotypes and reshape power relations in particular physical education contexts previously dominated by boys. This can also be applied inversely, by addressing activities culturally associated to females (e.g., acrobatic gymnastics), embedding creative (i.e., students are asked to design their own choreographies) and motivational structures (i.e., 'The Olympic meetings'), where mixed-gender cooperation is stimulated (e.g., partner balance challenges). The perceptions of cooperative and inclusive efforts paying off have prompted dominant students to reinforce their commitment to nurturing and cooperative practices towards establishing more inclusive team goals (Farias et al., 2017).

In borrowing from the learning structures of Cooperative Learning (Dyson & Casey, 2016), different *configurations of group work* can be used to foster a sense of mutual responsibility towards common goals and the bonding of teammates previously less connected. Imagine a season of volleyball centred on the development of proficient game-play in 2 vs. 2 games in which students are assigned in pairs to work together on their tactics, skills and strategies. Similarly, a structure such as Pairs-Check-Perform (Kagan, 1992) can be used with each student given responsibility as either an observer (provides praising and feedback) or performer (executes the skills). After agreement is reached on the performers' accomplishment of task goals, students swap roles. In the main, a context is created where students need to develop deep knowledge on their partners' weaknesses and strengths, where relationships are weaved and strengthened, and where the sharing of knowledge is vital for the pairs thriving as micro-teams within the main team.

(Re)Shaping the meaning of 'winning' for legitimating different levels of participation and membership.

The featuring of lessons in Sport Education as competition matches and team training sessions, the accountability processes embedded in the instructional system through record keeping, and the celebration of teams' achievements in the culminating event, are the features that most energise the students to generate a common domain of interests and to coalesce into a community of learners (Farias et al., 2017).

A potential advantage of Sport Education over alternative pedagogical approaches is its embedded hard-wired features for sustained construction of the ethical contract (Harvey et al., 2014). Namely, the introduction of a '***class score chart***' provides a tangible way for students to visually and more authentically map the teams' on-going

progress and achievements. The score chart cumulatively aggregates the various entries of the daily records taken by students while in their roles (statisticians, scorekeepers, inclusion caretakers, team managers, etc.), culminating in the teams' final score for the season. It is up to the teacher to choose which learning outcomes to highlight. For the sake of authenticity and game-play development, the chart should contain descriptors related to performance development, such as the number of ball possessions, shots at goal, goals scored, ball recoveries, tackling, or goalkeeper saves. The teams can use this information to provide a goal-oriented purpose to the selection of the skills and activities to be worked in each lesson or to individualise the teams' strategy.

Additionally, a high ratio over the final score apportioned to fair-play, festivity, inclusiveness, equity, effort, and role performance scores will convey to students the notion that winning and accomplishing is far more comprehensive than simply overcoming opponents in the playing court. In this case, the entries in the daily records and in the main score chart need to be aligned. For example, the league competition scorekeeper sheets may include an explicit section to evaluate fair-play (e.g., 1 point scored for each of the behaviours: respect the referee's decisions, praise the teammates, shake hands with their opponents, etc.) or a 1-5 Likert-like scale for scoring role performance that will feed directly into the main score chart.

Granting '***awards'*** for individual and group achievements during the culminating event in addition to merely winning the matches is another pedagogical application that can promote and facilitate learning of ethical behaviour by legitimating the value of different levels of participation and membership. Sport Education not only provides the opportunity to recognise the best and most talented players, but also to reward other levels of success and highlight the qualities of other students. The *diploma* for the player that 'most improved', 'best sportsperson', or the 'most inclusive team' are good examples of how to reduce pressure on the girls to 'be like the boys' and 'always do it perfectly the first time' (Ennis, 1999, p. 40).

Conclusion

It can be quite laborious to dismantle deeply rooted conceptions about sporting expectations based on gender stereotypes, pre-established status hierarchies and negative cultural influences of community-based sports that some students transport into the physical education settings and that influence negatively equity and inclusion. However, Sport Education contains features embedded in its curriculum that are highly favourable to the development of positive responsibility and more equitable and inclusive learning contexts. It is critical, nonetheless, that teachers are aware of the potential impediments ingrained in the complex interplay of pupils' relational and power interactions and that they act proactively to put the right structures in place for positive development to occur.

A number of aspects need to be safeguarded when planning and delivering Sport Education seasons. Developmentally appropriate practice that encompasses the learning needs of all students, both lower- and higher-skilled, and formal and explicit opportunities for head-to-head debate will arguably foster the commitment of students to invest in more comprehensive team goals and thus, share their repertoire of knowledge and mutually engage in the learning process of less skilled teammates. Furthermore, action should be taken to explicitly legitimate different levels of valuable participation within teams by placing equal emphasis on effort, equity, responsibility, and competence improvements. Given the critical role of student coaches in providing momentum to the development of activities in Sport Education, these students must be taught explicitly about specific strategies of positive leadership. Developing the ability to connect the interests of various members and cultivate a nurturing climate are fundamental skills that need explicit training.

In any pedagogical approach aiming at positive development, students need to be made explicitly aware of how they can benefit directly from their participation in the sporting experience and of the value of converging efforts towards more equitable and democratic team goals. This is the principal avenue for promoting student's commitment and investment, in the fullest sense, leading toward inclusion, cooperative work, and a diverse array of achievement within their teams.

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Strategy	Description	Evidence-based implications and potential benefits
Focus: Developing positive and responsible membership		
Ethical contract	A formalised agreement signed by the pupils and the teacher at the entry of the Sport Education season. It sets the 'regulative' rules negotiated with the students that establish the 'guides and ends of right action' and ruling standards and expectations for the daily conducts	At the end of the day, students will have to deal with the consequences of their actions in accordance with the rules they have established The systematic reflection on the accomplishment of the ethical contract's goals, provides the opportunity to constantly revisit conceptions of equity and progression in their levels of responsibility Students converge in the construction of collective meaning of equity and responsibility Locates the resolution of conflicts at the micro-level of peer interactions, thus attenuating the more pronounced teacher-student hierarchical asymmetry
Sports panel	Is constituted by representatives of each of the teams participating in the league competition. The Panel members engage in debates of ideas aimed at reflecting on their own and others' actions	
Inclusion caretaker	Students in this role rotate in the daily monitoring of discriminatory occurrences and levels of equity and at the end of each lesson they are responsible for reporting to the panel and record the events in the main class score chart	
Formal schedules for students' face-to-face interaction	Specific moments for head-to-head debate are integrated into the pacing of content development: For example, establishing 2-minutes short breaks at each task transition (e.g., game-skill practice-return to game)	Encourages students' on-the-spot debate about their on-going game problems and needs improvement-targets, levels of equitable participation in the activities, or recently emerged exclusionary or discriminatory interactions Help students develop knowledge on each other's personal features and game skills, build a common 'domain of interests', fosters commitment to invest in more inclusive team goals, sharing of knowledge, and mutually engage in the learning process of all teammates

Strategy	Description	Evidence-based implications and potential benefits
Focus: Developing positive and responsible peer leadership		
Developing positive leadership skills	The teachers implement strategies designed specifically for mediating the student coaches/ teammates interactions. Examples: (i) Learning to facilitate the building of relationships between teammates (ii) Peer-teaching by invitation (iii) Peer-teaching of self-monitoring processes	Increment on students' ability to take responsibility for their own learning progressing and to assume peer-teaching responsibilities more proactively
Focus: Designing developmentally appropriate and cooperation-facilitative learning activities		
Active 'compulsorary participation'	Students design their own rotation systems Modifications of the playing areas and game rules to match game demands to the ability level of less-skilled players	Assures equitable participation in a very transparent way The lower-skilled students develop skills and confidence leading to enhanced participation in game-play
Graded practice and competition	The teachers set specific players match-up at different sites of competition events ('Division A' and 'Division B'), where more challenging game conditions and sophistication of game-play are demanded of the higher-skilled boys and girls	Higher-skilled players feel they are not being 'mere' as 'knowledge resources' Promote high level of engagement rates and playing efficiency of both lower- and higher-skilled students Students of all genders and ability levels have the opportunity to offer a valid contribution to the teams' championship scores
Cooperative configurations of work	Students are assigned in pairs to work together on their tactics, skills and strategies (2 vs. 2 volleyball, football, badminton) Pairs-Check-Perform: can be used with each student given responsibility as either an observer (provides praising and feedback) or performer (executes the skills)	Students develop deep knowledge of their partners' weaknesses and strengths, bond, and share knowledge and motivation
Focus: (Re)Shaping the meaning of 'winning' for legitimating different levels of participation and membership		
The class score chart	The score chart cumulatively aggregates the various entries of the daily records taken by students while in their roles (statisticians, scorekeepers, inclusion caretakers, team managers, etc.), culminating in the teams' final score for the season	Legitimates the value of different levels of participation and membership alongside with winning Provides a tangible way for students to visually and more authentically map the teams' on-going progress and achievements Provides goal-oriented purpose to the selection of the skills and activities to be worked in each lesson Creates a mastery-involving climate (no pressure on the girls to 'be like the boys')
Awards	A diploma is granted to the 'most talented players' but also to players that 'most improved', 'best sportsperson', or the 'most inclusive teams'	

Figure 1. Pedagogical strategies for explicit and proactive development of inclusion, equity, and positive responsibility in Sport Education.

Sport: Team handball																
Team:			**Lesson number:**													
Scoring items																
Preparation/organisation of the learning tasks *																
Equipment management/safety *																
Equity in game-play participation *																
Inclusive/Peer-teaching behaviours *																
Team game-play records	sT1	sT2	sT1	sT2	sT1	sT2	sT1	sT2	sT1	sT2	sT1	sT2	sT1	sT2	sT1	sT2
Ball possession																
Number of successful passes																
Number of ball losses																
Number of shots on goal																
Goals scored																
Individual Role-play scoring*/game-play scoring	RS	G	RS	G	RS	G	RS	G	RS	G	RS	G	RS	G	RS	G
Student	Role lesson *	Role special*														
Observations: * scored 1 to 5 (5 max.); sT1/sT2 (sub-team 1 and 2) RS: role-play scoring; G: goals scored Role lesson: referee, equipment manager… Role special: coach, sports director, inclusion caretaker…																
Sub-total lesson scoring:																
Total season scoring:																

Figure 2. Team score chart template.

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Sport Education in the primary grades

Todd Layne
University of Memphis (USA)

While a profusion of research has shown the effectiveness of Sport Education, some still question the appropriateness of the model within the early primary years. In this paper, readers are provided with suggestions for using Sport Education with the early primary years. Specifically, these relate to the issues of choosing an appropriate class, an appropriate motor skill, as well as how to manage team and duty roles. In addition, implementation steps will be provided to direct teachers towards maximising the benefits of the model with younger students.

In their review of research on Sport Education, Hastie, Martínez and Calderón (2011) determined that 82% of empirically based, peer reviewed articles, focused on sixth through twelfth grades. While research was being conducted in primary schools (see MacPhail & Kinchin, 2004; Mowling, Brock, & Hastie, 2006; MacPhail, Gorely, Kirk, & Kinchin, 2008; Hastie, Sluder, Buchanan, & Wadsworth, 2009), no studies at that time had been conducted in the early primary years. Given that students participating in a Sport Education season for the first time need to be able to move towards a student-centered learning environment, it remains a legitimate question as to the suitability of Sport Education for children in the early primary years.

While the amount of completed research on Sport Education in the primary grades is limited, recent studies have produced positive results. For example, Layne and Hastie (2016) demonstrated that second grade students could work independently of the teacher and maintain high levels of engagement and responsibility throughout a Sport Education season. In addition, the teachers in that study commented how the model supported their classroom goals of developing the character trait of responsibility through the provision of roles within tasks. Similar to these findings, Martínez, Calderón, and Hastie (2012) also reported high level of independence and the development of game strategy in a cohort of Spanish third grade students.

These findings suggest there is great potential for implementing Sport Education in the primary grades. The intent of this paper is to provide a resource for how to implement Sport Education within the primary years and how the various components of the model can be implemented to meet the needs of younger children. These considerations include a number of factors that have proven to be helpful when adopting the model within the primary grades.

Choose an appropriate class

Siedentop, Hastie, and van der Mars (2011) suggested that a teacher's first iteration of the model should be attempted with a class that presents positive behaviour and an eagerness for learning. This initial level of personal responsibility will aid the students' transition towards adopting roles and being provided more voice and choice in the physical education setting.

Choose an appropriate motor skill

Many primary students will be at a stage where they have yet to master all of their motor skills, with most children's performance levels falling within the category of 'emerging' and requiring continued development. Table 1 details a list of skills which could be considered as emerging in the early years of schooling (Graham, Holt-Hale, & Parker, 2013). These categories of fundamental movement skills can either be presented in isolation, or combined to develop modified games. Layne and Hastie (2014), for example, designed a season of target games that involved underhand throwing, overhand throwing and kicking for second grade students, and developed a game called 'SwirlBall' (Layne & Hastie, 2014) in which underhand throwing was the primary skill used during game play.

Choose appropriate roles

From the beginning research on Sport Education, students have found enjoyment in the completion of team and duty roles (Hastie, 1996; MacPhail et al., 2008; Sinelnikov & Hastie, 2008; Layne & Hastie, 2016). Many of these roles and tasks can be configured for easy adoption by students in the early years. Layne and Hastie (2016) chose three team roles to be completed by team members. These included poster supervisor, set-up supervisor, and fitness leader. Each team had a maximum of six members so that each role was completed by two students. The poster supervisor was responsible for bringing the poster to class, and taking it back to their classroom when class was complete. The set-up supervisor was responsible for setting up their team's team practice area each day they came to class. Figure 1 shows the task card given to the set-up supervisors that depicts how they were to prepare their team's practice area. The fitness leader was charged with collecting a warm-up card from the teacher and leading his or her team through a series of exercises. As the children moved through the

Table 1. Emerging skills in the early years (Graham, Holt-Hale, & Parker, 2013).

Locomotor	Manipulative	Non-manipulative
Jumping and Landing Leaping Skipping (hopping, galloping, running, and sliding, should be mastered by the end of kindergarten)	Overhand Throwing Catching Dribbling with Hands Dribbling with Feet Kicking Underhand Volley Striking with Short Implement Striking with Long Implement	Jumping Rope Balance Weight Transfer Rolling Combining Weight and Balance Transfers

season, the fitness leaders were given more responsibility for selecting the exercises to be performed during the warm up.

While team related tasks are easily manipulated to match the developmental abilities of students, officiating roles can be more complex, and require careful consideration of appropriate demands. For example, the officiating tasks required of the second grade students in the target games season limited students simply to keeping score of one other student's performance. Further, the teacher had given all students the opportunity to practice these scoring tasks within their teams before any inter-team formal scoring. The idea of time is also important. In Layne and Hastie's (2014) study, the fourth grade students' active involvement in their officiating roles, and their level of refereeing success improved across the duration of a 14-lesson season.

Implementation Steps

To effectively implement a Sport Education model with primary grades requires careful planning considerations and a sequence of implementation steps is required.

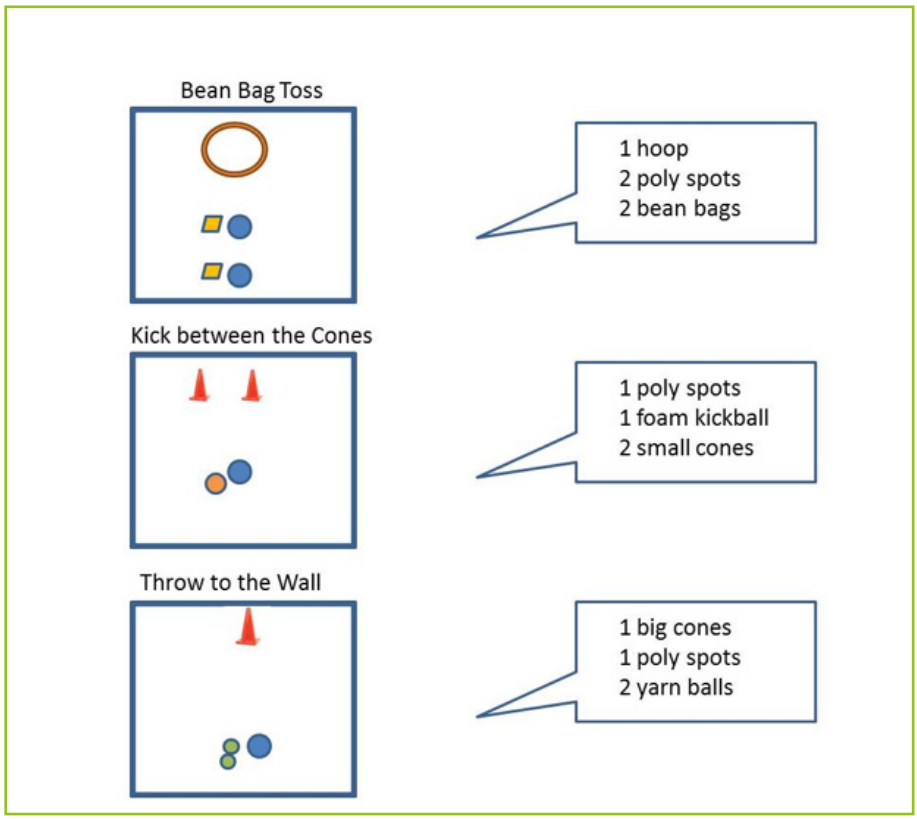

Figure 1. Task card provided to set-up supervisors.

Create materials

It is suggested that you create a home centre for each team. This would consist of a full size poster board (of various colors to distinguish teams) which would highlight team members, points earned by the team, team effort chart, and a picture of the team mascot created by team members. Figure 2 shows an example of a 'team board'.

The team board is a great way to promote team festivity and pride. In addition, you have the option to include items that you believe would be beneficial for your students. This may include a team photo, photos of team members in action, or a completed team writing task assignment. Ultimately, the goal is to have a common area where the team can meet at the beginning of class and

Figure 2. Example of a 'team board'.

at other times during the season.

It is also important to create other materials in preparation for the Sport Education season. For example, a class scoresheet at the entrance to the gym can remind students of where their team stands in the class rankings. Finally, in order to help with understanding and simplifying record keeping an assessment sheet for competitions allows students to monitor their progress through the season's games. Figure 3 provides an example of a scoresheet used during the target games season. In this example, the students name, team color, and points earned are recorded. The performer received 5 attempts, with scores of 0, 1, or 2 awarded based on the result of their attempt.

Design management protocol

Addressing students concerns and questions can require a lot of time of the teacher (Layne & Hastie, 2016). It is important to have proper procedures in place for students to follow when this occurs. For example, second grade students were successfully taught a three step procedure when they had a concern or question during their target game season. These were (i) can it be resolved by discussing with a team member? (ii) if you can wait for a resolution, please post your problem on the board for the teacher to address later, (iii) if it needs to be answered now, please raise your hand and the teacher will assist you shortly. Although this is only a suggested protocol, it can save the teacher valuable lesson time and embed some of the management responsibilities to students.

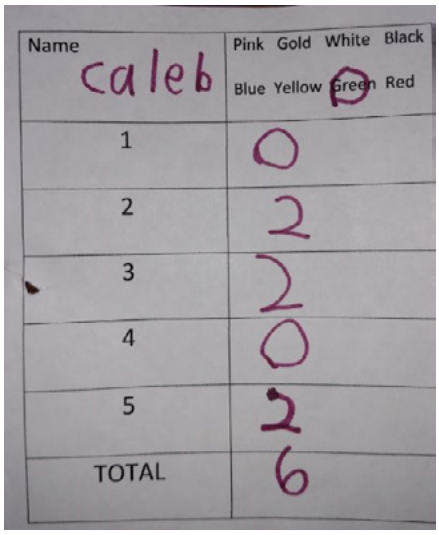

Figure 3. Scoresheet for target game performance.

Small teams

Layne and Hastie (2016) created teams that required each team role to be shared by two students. While this approach can be appropriate, there is the potential for students to not have enough responsibility or to be unclear as to when it is their time to complete the task. Team roles should be simple and should only require students to complete 1-2 tasks per lesson, and by consequence, team numbers should be based on the number of roles that are available.

Recognition

Most students enjoy being recognised for their achievements. One of the six key features of the Sport Education model is festivity. At the end of each season students are recognised for their team accomplishments and sometimes, individual accomplishments. It is suggested that recognition be given to primary students each day of the season. As previously mentioned, the team poster provides an opportunity to recognise individual/team points earned and overall individual effort. At the end of each class, the teacher can highlight the team that provided great effort as well as completing their team tasks. In addition, teams that displayed positive behavior should be applauded for their efforts. During the competition phase of the season individuals/teams can be recognised for their overall skill success. Finally, at the end of the season, student excitement is at a high due to the opportunity to be recognised in front of their peers, teachers, parents, and administrators. The goal is to provide encouragement with the hope that student's enthusiasm will remain, or even increase, as they transition into their next Sport Education experience.

Involve classroom teachers

The classroom teacher can be a positive influence for students during their time in physical education. In cases where physical education is delivered by specialist teachers, finding ways to involve their classroom teacher can provide a variety of benefits. First, it promotes the physical education curriculum to other teachers within the school. Second, the classroom teacher can support positive behavior in physical education. If a teacher holds the students accountable for their actions in other classes, students tend to want to impress their teacher and not let them down. Third, developing a collaborative relationship with classroom teachers opens the door for other academic integration during physical education.

Promote fair play

Sport Education is grounded in the concept of fair play, which makes it an effective vehicle for introducing primary aged children to a healthy perspective on competition (Layne, 2014). In nearly all versions of the model with younger children, teachers will include a fair play point system. Here, the officiating team will rate the performance of the playing teams with respect to their accomplishment of fair play goals. It should be mentioned that the more effective peer assessments are those that reward students for positive behaviours, rather than only rewarding students for the absence of negative ones. For example, Hastie and Sharpe (1999) found that following the introduction of specific fair-play interventions that focused on the presence of specific target behaviours, significant improvements in student compliance, positive interpersonal interactions, and leadership were achieved. Table 2 provides a sample fair play evaluation that can be used across a number of primary grades.

The flexible way in which seasons can be designed (especially with respect to the components that make up a league table) allows the teacher

Table 2. Fair play evaluation.

Team Name	YES	NO	Team Name	YES	NO
Did this team do their best to play by the rules and respect the officials?			Did this team do their best to play by the rules and respect the officials?		
Did the players on this team encourage each other?			Did the players on this team encourage each other?		
Did the players on this team shake hands with their opponents after the game?			Did the players on this team shake hands with their opponents after the game?		

to contextualise winning and focus more on the positive achievements of individuals and teams. For example, many teachers will provide space within the season scoring system for the accomplishment of a team's administrative duties such as returning equipment, completing scoresheets correctly, or doing their warm up as a team.

Conclusion

Even with the popularity of Sport Education as an instructional approach (Wallhead & O'Sullivan, 2005; Hastie et al., 2011) and the projected plan for growth (Hastie & Wallhead, 2016), there remains great potential for the Sport Education model within the primary grades. Although many teachers have experienced success implementing Sport Education with upper primary grades, there remains a lack of use with early primary grades. Teachers may perceive that this age group are not ready for a shift towards a more student-centered pedagogy and the implementation of student roles and responsibilities. This paper provides a resource for teachers on how to adjust the model to accommodate the needs of early primary aged students. The use of student-centered models of instruction, such as Sport Education, with this age group remains relatively unexplored and it hoped that this paper provides a stimulus for greater implementation and evaluation of the benefits of the model for the primary grades.

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Integrating classroom content within Sport Education

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This paper focuses on ways in which classroom content can be infused in legitimate and meaningful ways into a season of Sport Education. The key to success in implementing interdisciplinary strategies within Sport Education lies in identifying the natural links between the physical education content and the content of other subjects. The most effective approach has been on following a 'parallel design', in which teachers sequence their lessons to correspond to lessons in the other discipline. That is, the content itself does not change, but is coordinated so that both subject areas are taught concurrently. The steps in planning this form of partnered season are presented. Finally, suggestions are made for the ways in which the various artifacts produced during a season of Sport Education can be taken back to the classroom to reinforce content learned in other subjects.

The idea of the integration of academic subjects is not new. The findings that integrated curriculum programs provide prodigious support for the position that students in these programs perform better on standardised and program-developed assessments of achievement than do students in traditional classrooms is also not new. However, when trying to decipher the impact of integration, one has to understand that a number of different degrees of integration can exist depending upon the levels of connection around a particular topic, theme, concept, problem or issue. These connections have been described as 'fusion, multidisciplinary, and interdisciplinary' (Drake, 2007) or 'connected, shared, or partnered' (Purcell-Cone, Werner, & Cone, 2009). In the second case, a 'connected' example would involve showing students the location of the Philippines when first introducing tinikling. In a 'shared' case, the teacher would continue to discuss the genesis of tinikling and its representation of the Philippino crane as it dances in the rice fields. In social studies, students may learn more about agricultural societies and rice farming. Finally, in a 'partnered' case, the focus might be on sustainable agriculture, with students exploring how various forms of farming and pest eradication affect the environment. To revisit our example, the tinikling dances are said to mimic the movement of the tinikling heron as it dodges bamboo traps set by farmers.

No matter the terminology, one of the major pitfalls facing attempts to integrate lies in the trivialising of specific content. In particular, there can be a lack of congruence between what classroom content is introduced (in good faith) in physical education and the content written into the formal curriculum. As a case in point, a fourth-grade physical education teacher might ask each team to create a drawing or painting of their team mascot in Sport Education, when instead the appropriate art content is to produce two- and three-dimensional works using a variety of traditional and digital processes, materials, subject matter, and techniques. The same might apply in sixth-grade, where nontraditional media and techniques such as torn-paper collage, weaving, wire sculpture, and clay reliefs are the media listed.

The key to success in implementing interdisciplinary strategies within Sport Education lies in identifying the natural links between the physical education content and the content of other subjects. It is thereby recommended that the first step for the physical educator is to seek the advice of the classroom teacher who has familiarity with the curriculum guides they use in planning.

The concept of 'Parallel Design' of curriculum integration

In a parallel design, teachers sequence their lessons to correspond to lessons in the other discipline. That is, the content itself does not change, but is coordinated so that both subject areas are taught concurrently. This maintains the validity of each area while simultaneously relating studies in one subject with the other. Placek (1992) describes this organisation as 'separate but contributing.'

The organising framework for a parallel curriculum involving Sport Education has a strong emphasis on the idea of affiliation which has been shown to foster affective and social development across seasons (MacPhail, Kirk, & Kinchin, 2004). The following scenario from Siedentop, Hastie, and van der Mars (2011) provides one example.

> *A class of students is participating in a season of soccer, while at the same time is studying Europe in social studies. As a result each of the teams in this Sport Education soccer season takes an affiliation with one European country. The soccer team name is taken from a premier league team in their adopted country. Students are required to not only take the name of this team, but also adopt the team colors, mascot and the city they represent within*

that country. As a special project, the team writes to the chambers of commerce of these cities (or searches the internet) to get details about the history, geography and economics of the city and country.

A further example from Siedentop et al. (2011) provides how a parallel design could be incorporated into a season that follows the event model format.

Students in social studies are focusing on reading and drawing maps, with a particular emphasis on the concept of scale. In this case the concurrent Sport Education season is a cross-country running season. Using a typographic map of the school grounds, the students plan various courses for use during each Fridays' cross-country team competition. Each week a different team will act as the host team and plan the route. The students not only design the course using the school map, but also determine the distance of the course using the scale on the map. The students check the accuracy of their scale drawing by physically checking the length of the course with a measuring wheel. The organising team hands out maps of the course two days before competition, so that all teams can walk or run the course in order to become familiar with the geography and determine their strategy.

Returning to the idea of affiliation being the initial link between the content areas, a number of physical education teachers are now using team names as the starting point. Two examples are provided. In one school, each of the seven physical education classes from grades two through five represented a particular biome. Sometimes referred to as ecosystem, these biomes included 'deserts', 'tundra, 'tropical rainforests', 'deciduous forests', 'grasslands', 'freshwater', and 'oceans'. Within each of these classes, the teams consisted of 'birds', 'mammals', 'reptiles', 'fish', 'amphibians' and 'arthropods'. As a result, the students in the 'birds' team from the 'tundra' biome had to

research for an appropriate mascot. The same applied to all combinations (reptiles – desert; fish – grasslands etc.). The same organising framework was used by another teacher where students represented Native American tribes from different regions of the United States.

In all seasons, each animal classification or tribe had its own poster board within the multipurpose activity room that served two roles. First, students could make volitional contributions in the form of photos or drawings of their adopted team. Second, the poster boards were also the sites where students posted their weekly assignment reports. These reports were linked directly to the state course of study for life sciences or social studies, with the classroom teachers providing the physical education teacher relevant challenge questions. For example, in the biome project, general questions included if the animal was cold blooded or warm blooded, what it eats, and/or where it was located in the world. Other grade-level specific examples included questions such as 'feathers, fur, scales… what covers your animal?' (2nd grade), or 'who eats who within your biome' (4th grade). Each team was also required to construct a three-dimensional model of its animal (in any medium), using help from parents and/or the school's art specialist. These were then placed on display in the multipurpose activity room. Completing knowledge tasks and bringing mascots to class were part of the formal scoring system for this season. As noted, earlier in this special issue, teachers have significant latitude in how they determine the season champions. For example, athletic competitions are not the sole determinants of team success, and factors such as fair play, responsible behavior, officiating performance and contributing to class goals can become elements contributing to league standings. The following stages are involved in this process.

Steps in planning a partnered Sport Education season

The following section provides a step-by-step regression of how to create a Sport Education season that can reinforce classroom content while promoting team affiliation and connectedness.

Determine the subject area and identify key elements of classroom work

In this beginning phase, the physical education teacher connects with the classroom teacher to determine which area of their curriculum is in particular

need of reinforcement. At the same time, the teachers negotiate the extent of time that will be allocated in both subject areas for specific research and/or reporting of results. That is, how often will the teacher provide the physical educator with content challenges, how often will the classroom teacher allocate specific time for research, and how often will the physical educator provide time for students to update their poster boards. Where the classroom teacher also acts as the physical education teacher, there is considerably more flexibility in this process.

Determining the organising framework for team affiliation

In the biome project, the consistent teams were the various animal species (birds, reptiles, etc.), with each team then having responsibility for selecting its sub-species depending upon its habitat. In another season completed by the same teacher, the focus was on maths. Here the central team names represented the key content domains of that curriculum, namely: 'fractions', 'money', 'time', 'measurement', 'operations', and 'geometry'. In this case, team names had to reflect the tenet of the topic, resulting in 'Bad Credit', and 'Bouncing Checks' as two examples.

Determining the academic tasks and the level of contribution by teams

In the biome project, all teams received the same question, and the task was to apply it to their particular animal. The fourth grade task of determining 'who eats who and who gets eaten by who' is one example. Within the maths season, however, the tasks were specific to each content area, with the 'fractions' teams receiving different questions from those in the 'operations' groups. A further difference was that the life sciences tasks were team tasks, while the maths questions were delivered to each student. In this example, while this created more work for the teacher in terms of marking, there was a stronger level of within-team accountability for the completion of the work.

The teacher who used the Native American organising theme used a combination of both these strategies. First, the same set of questions was given to all teams, but individual students were responsible for completing the different topics. Examples in this case included identifying shelter, cultures, games and sports, as well as food. As students fulfilled their responsibilities, their artifacts were added to their team poster board and points for completion were awarded.

Determining the contribution of classroom tasks towards the league table

It is recognised that accountability drives whatever task system is operating in classrooms, and in physical education this applies equally. Without accountability, there in fact is no instructional task, and students will work only at the level they are motivated to work at. On the other hand, when there are rewards or consequences for certain levels of performance, student compliance is higher. If the teacher wishes for the integration of academic tasks to be considered valuable and important by students, the products of their work need to 'count' towards the season championship and hence be part of the season league table. The teacher has complete flexibility in determining the point values of these tasks, as well as deciding if group or individual contributions are required.

Integrating the organising theme into the culminating event

There are numerous ways in which aspects of the organising theme can be included within the culminating event. Some of these from various iterations of biome seasons are listed below. It is important to consider that these seasons are done using gymnastics as the physical education content, and as such involve several transitions where teams are moving between different apparatus, and different students are changing from competitor to judge roles.

1. Having students dress as mascots of their animal
2. Incorporating interviews during transitions where selected students are questioned about their animal
3. Quiz questions to teams about various animal features.

In his most recent season, the teacher used the app named 'Kahoot!' to provide an extra challenge to those students who were not competing

or judging during a particular rotation. Kahoot! is a free game-based learning platform, where multiple-choice questions are projected onto a large screen. During gameplay, the questions and up to four multiple choice answers are displayed on the main screen. Every answer corresponds to a distinctive color and shape. On the screen of the participants' devices, there are at most four rectangles with the color and the shape on each, and the students click or tap on the rectangle representing the correct answer. Each team was issued with an I-pad and responded to various multiple-choice questions taken from the team poster boards. Following each question, the app provides the correct answer and percent correct answers, current team scores, and the current team rankings.

Taking Sport Education artifacts back to the classroom

One of the features of Sport Education is the amount of data that is generated. For example, there are scoresheets, statistical records, and match reports from each game that is played. Likewise, there are game rules, playing areas and equipment that are part of the sport or activity. All of these can be used by classroom teachers to reinforce content from various subject areas. Table 1 provides but a few examples.

Table 1. Possible translations of Sport Education content to the classroom.

Sport Education Artifact	Classroom area	Application
Match statistics	Mathematics	***Fractions or percentages*** (relative contribution to team score by each player) ***Graphing*** (team aggregate archery score over time) ***Operations*** (creating equations using multiplication and addition of team scores)
Game rules		***Geometry*** (identifying shapes of spaces on the court of field) ***Measurement*** (calculating areas and perimeter of playing spaces, or volumes/ weights of game equipment)
Match reports	Language arts	***Speaking and listening*** (recounting key moments from game play) ***Speaking and listening*** (interviewing players and officials from games) ***Writing*** (focus on advanced punctuation using quotes) ***Writing*** (preparing a press release using headlines and bylines)
Heart rate data	Science	***Biology*** (estimation of aerobic capacity)
Weight training data		***Anatomy*** (how the body adapts to strength training in terms of muscle changes, flexibility, and the impact of strength training on metabolism) ***Physics*** (identification of types of levers used)
Gymnastics routines		***Physics*** (examination of forces affecting motion and stability)

Summary

There are endless possibilities for teaching across different subject areas using Sport Education, as the model is grounded in the idea of persisting small groups who work together to complete challenges. The key to this integration, however, is remaining true to the appropriate content of both subject areas, and at the same time, not trivialising either. Done well, the collaboration can produce a 'whole' that is greater than the sum of its parts. Done poorly, the content of both physical education and the classroom subjects can be distinctly compromised. The best chance for success exists where there is a significant commitment from all the stakeholders.

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