

## CHAPTER

# 7

## High School and Youth Sports

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### ■ INTRODUCTION

Consider the following statistics as reported in 2010:

- More than 650,000 boys and girls ages 7 through 18 participated on more than 50,000 teams sanctioned by the American Youth Soccer Organization (AYSO) ("History of AYSO," 2009).
- Pop Warner Little Scholars, Inc. sponsors more than 5,000 teams in eight weight/age classifications for 240,000 football players, along with programs for 160,000 cheer and dance team members ages 5 through 16 (Pop Warner Little Scholars, Inc., 2009).
- Nearly four and a half million young men and more than three million young women participated in high school athletics during the 2008–2009 school year ("2008–09 High School Athletes," 2009).

- More than 2 million coaches have been certified by the National Alliance for Youth Sports (NAYS), more than 65,000 families have gone through the NAYS's parents' program, and more than 2,000 administrators have earned their certification credentials through NAYS's Academy for Youth Sports Administrators (National Alliance for Youth Sports, 2010).

Tables 7-1 and 7-2 show the most popular high school sports by participant, as compiled by the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFHS) (see the "Governing Bodies" section of this chapter) in 2009 and participation totals over the previous three decades.

In addition, the following studies indicate that athletics provide positive influences in the lives of adolescents at a crucial juncture of their lives:



**TABLE 7-1** Top 5 Boys' and Girls' High School Sports by Participants, 2008–2009

Boys' Sport (Number of Participants)	Girls' Sport (Number of Participants)
Football–11 man (1,113,062)	Basketball (444,809)
Basketball (545,145)	Outdoor Track and Field (457,732)
Outdoor Track and Field (558,007)	Volleyball (404,243)
Baseball (473,184)	Softball–Fast pitch (368,921)
Soccer (383,824)	Soccer (344,534)

Source: 2008–09 High School Athletics Participation Survey, 2009.

**TABLE 7-2** Total Participants in High School Sports in 1971, 1986, 2002, 2009

Year	Total Male Participants	Total Female Participants
1971	3,666,917	294,015
1986	3,344,275	1,807,121
2002	3,960,517	2,806,998
2009	4,466,224	3,114,091

Source: Participation in high school sports increases again: Conforms NFHS commitment to stronger leadership. (2006). National Federation of State High School Associations. Retrieved on October 24, 2006, from <http://www.nfhs.org/web/2006/09.participation.aspx>; 2008-09 High School Athletics Participation Survey, (2009).

- Students who spend no time in extracurricular activities are 49% more likely to use drugs and 37% more likely to become teen parents than those who spend one to four hours per week in extracurricular activities.
- A 2006 research project published by the Center for Information & Research on Civic Learning & Engagement (CIRCLE) found that 18- to 25-year-olds who participate in sports activities while in high school were more likely than nonparticipants to engage in volunteering, regular volunteering, registering to vote, voting in the 2000 election, feeling comfortable speaking in a public setting, and watching news (especially sport news) more closely than nonparticipants (Lopez & More, 2006).
- According the College Entrance Examination Board, music students scored about 11% higher than nonmusic students on

the 2001 SAT. Students with coursework/experience in music performance and music appreciation scored higher on the SAT than students with no arts participation. Students in music performance scored 57 points higher in the verbal area and 41 points higher in math, and students in music appreciation scored 63 points higher on verbal and 44 points higher on math (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2008).

So what do all these facts and figures mean? The conclusion is that school and youth sports are arguably the most influential sport programs in the United States today and directly reflect the importance people in the United States place on involving youth in sport activities. While professionals working in school and youth league sports do not garner the limelight and national prominence as do sport management



professionals, to work in this industry segment means significant and important challenges and substantial personal rewards. A coach, official, or administrator at this level never lacks for responsibilities, and every day brings a fresh set of issues to tackle to ensure that the educative framework of youth athletics is maintained. To work in this segment is to make a difference in the lives of youth in North America.

## HISTORY

The recognition of the positive educational and developmental aspects of athletic participation is not a recent phenomenon. The history of youth athletic participation predates the signing of the Constitution and the formation of the United States. Native Americans played a game that French Jesuit priests called "lacrosse," because players used a stick that resembled a bishop's cross-shaped crosier. European settlers brought tennis, cricket, and several early versions of what would become baseball, and Africans brought to the United States as slaves threw the javelin, boxed, and wrestled. Despite all this, formally organized athletic participation, particularly those programs run under the auspices of secondary educational institutions, did not emerge until the mid-nineteenth century (Swanson & Spears, 1995).

### School Athletics in the Nineteenth Century

In 1838, educator Horace Mann noted that in an increasingly urbanized United States, outdoor recreation space was becoming scarce and children were at risk of physical deterioration. Urban populations were doubling every decade due to steady country-to-city migration as well as immigration from Europe. In response to the common popular appeal of baseball in the nineteenth century, schools and other agencies began to promote the sport to aid in solving

broad social problems such as ill health and juvenile delinquency (Seymour, 1990).

**Private schools** in the United States were the first to provide athletic participation opportunities. At many schools, activities were informal and organized by students with little oversight from faculty or administrators. The Round Hill School in Northampton, Massachusetts, was the first institution known to have promoted the physical well-being of its students as part of its formal mission and curriculum. The school's founders appointed a German, Charles Beck, as their instructor of gymnastics, making him the first known physical education instructor in the United States. Many other early U.S. private schools followed the model of elite English boarding schools such as Eton, Harrow, and Rugby, where athletic programs were more formalized (although still managed by students) but intended to promote the ideal of "muscular Christianity," creating gentlemen who were morally and physically able to go out and take on the challenges of modern life. Campus-based club teams focused on intramural-type play, which formed the early models of competition in the United States. In 1859 the Gunnery School in Washington, Connecticut, became the first school to feature games against outside competition in athletic programs actively encouraged and promoted by an administrator, school founder Frederick Gunn. Students who attended the school at the time noted that students were required to play baseball, and that Gunn "encouraged and almost compelled every kind of rational exercise as part of his scheme of character-building" (Bundgaard, 2005, p. 74). In 1878, St. Paul's School in Concord, New Hampshire, hired the first full-time faculty member specifically to coach team sports, and in 1895, Phillips Exeter Academy, also in New Hampshire, appointed the first permanent faculty member as Director of Athletics (Bundgaard, 2005).



Educators at established **public schools** were slow to embrace the value of exercise and play, whereas private schools recognized it much earlier. As at the collegiate level, students organized the games. Interscholastic athletics, much as with the collegiate system after which they were patterned, were seen by students as not only an outlet for physical activity but as a vehicle for developing communal ties with classmates and alumni.

The acceptance of University of Chicago educator John Dewey's theories encouraging games helped to hasten the incorporation of athletics into school curricula. The State of New York required every public school to include an adjacent playground; citywide school baseball tournaments were held in the 1890s in Boston and in Cook County, Illinois; and students from several Boston area public and private schools formed the Interscholastic Football Association in 1888 (Hardy, 2003; Wilson, 1994). Concurrently, statewide high school athletic associations in Illinois and Wisconsin were formed to coordinate interscholastic competition.

### School Athletics in the Twentieth Century

During the first two decades of the last century, youth athletics were popular vehicles through which newly formed secular government organizations sought to combat the proliferating ills of urban life. The social and political efforts of

educators aligned with the **Progressive Movement**, touting athletics as a tool to prepare for the rigors of modern life and democracy and to assimilate immigrants into American culture. They promoted child welfare by advocating for increased playground space, such as the development of year-round play spaces in Los Angeles in 1904 and in Chicago's congested South Side in 1905. Progressives also promoted formalized public school athletics as an antidote to regimented physical education curricula based on the German tradition of body-building through repetitious exercise (Dyreson, 1989).

Emerging city, state, and parochial school athletic associations coordinated competitions in baseball, track, and rifle shooting and emphasized sportsmanship and academic integrity. As a result of the movement promoting athletics as a critical part of the educational experience, government-funded educational institutions eventually assumed the administration and provision of the vast majority of athletic participation opportunities for youth in the United States (Vincent, 1994).

In the period during and immediately after World War I (1914–1918), school sports for males were promoted as a source of physical training for the armed forces without directly encouraging militarism. Sports were also seen as a means to develop social skills such as cooperation and discipline, which were valued by an increasingly ethnically diverse and industrial



High School Football and Girls' Basketball Teams



society. Sports also boosted student retention and graduation rates—important considerations, because in 1918 only one-third of grade school students entered high school, and only one in nine graduated (O'Hanlon, 1982).

During this period athletics became entrenched in schools, and educators took control of athletics from students. But concerns from educators about their ability to administer and teach in an athletic capacity had been voiced since the 1890s. Individuals such as Dr. Dudley Sargent, James Naismith, and Amos Alonzo Stagg made significant contributions toward meeting the burgeoning instructional and curricular development needs. While students initially organized most teams, by 1924 state associations managed high school athletics in all but three states.

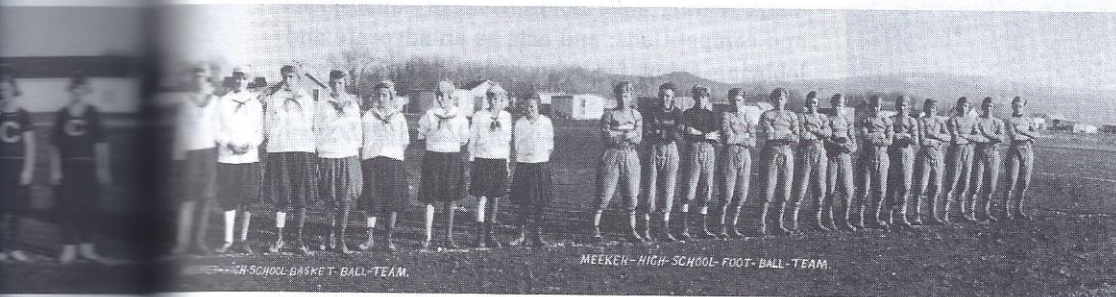
### Nonschool Youth Sport Organizations

Athletics promoted by **nonschool agencies** emerged in various locations in the United States nearly simultaneously. The most prominent private agency to promote youth athletics was the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA). Protestant clergyman George Williams founded the YMCA in England in 1844, and the organization established itself in the United States in 1851 to attract urban youth to Christianity through athletics. By 1900, the YMCA had grown to include 250,000 members (this number

would double by 1915) at 1,400 branches, with a national athletic league under the direction of Dr. Luther H. Gulick (Putney, 1993). The Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), established concurrently with the YMCA, began offering calisthenics in its Boston branch in 1877 and opened a new gym there in 1884. By 1916, 65,000 women nationwide attended gym classes and 32,000 attended swimming classes sponsored by the YWCA (Cahn, 1994).

From the 1930s through the 1950s, YMCA branches were opened in suburban areas that allowed female members to join as determined by local policies. Family memberships were made available in an effort to retain and attract members. In the 1960s, the organization's leadership faced the issue of whether to reestablish its Christian evangelical elements and drift away from promoting its athletic programs, even as the exercise-seeking membership grew to over 5.5 million in 1969. The YMCA chose to emphasize individual values and growth which dovetailed nicely with individual personal fitness goals (Putney, 1993).

The financial calamities of the Great Depression of the 1930s launched unprecedented governmental involvement in recreation. Private companies and businesses cut back on the athletic participation opportunities they had sponsored before the economic downturn, and government agencies were asked to fill the void. The Works Progress Administration (WPA)





provided funds (\$500 million by 1937) and labor for field and playground construction, and city recreation departments provided "schools" for athletic skill instruction and league coordination (Seymour, 1990).

Local government fostered participation as well. In 1931, 107 teams entered Cincinnati's boys' baseball tournament, and in 1935, 75 teams of boys under age 16 played in a municipal baseball league in Oakland, California (Seymour, 1990). Many significant private and parochial youth sport organizations were also initiated during this period, including American Legion Junior Baseball in 1925, Pop Warner Football in 1929, the Catholic Youth Organization (basketball, boxing, and softball) in 1930, the Amateur Softball Association in 1933, and Little League Baseball in 1939.

## ■ GOVERNANCE

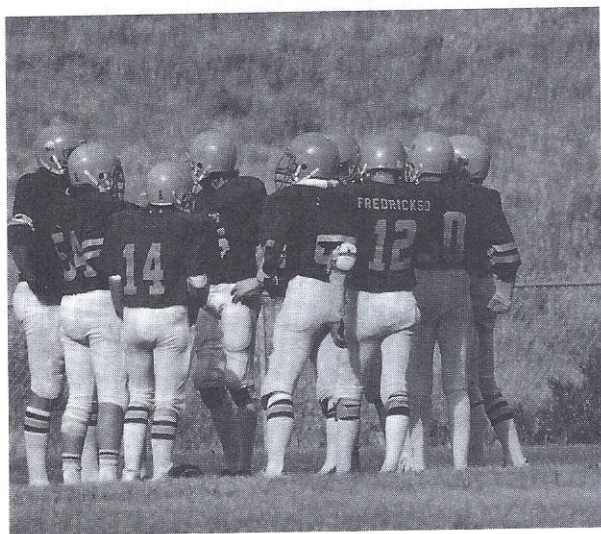
The administration of school and youth sports is primarily a local affair, with most policy and procedural decisions made at the district, school, or youth league level. However, the existence

of local, state, and national **governing bodies** ensures the running of championships, coordination of athlete eligibility, dissemination of instructional information, and implementation of certain coaching and administrative certification programs. Governing bodies also create and maintain stated rules and guidelines and apply them to all affiliated athletic programs equitably and consistently.

### The National Federation of State High School Associations

The National Federation of State High School Associations (NFHS), a nonprofit organization headquartered in Indianapolis, Indiana, serves as the national coordinator for high school sports as well as activities such as music, debate, theater, and student council. NFHS encompasses all 50 individual state high school athletics and activity associations as well as the District of Columbia and a number of affiliate members. NFHS represents more than 11 million participants in more than 19,000 high schools, as well as coaches, officials, and judges through the individual state, provincial, and territorial organizations. In addition to compiling national records in sports and national sport participation rates, NFHS coordinates officials' certification; issues playing rules for 17 boys' and girls' sports; prints eight million publications annually, including officials' manuals and case books, magazines, supplemental books, and teaching aids; holds national conferences and competitions; and acts as an advocate and lobbying agent for school-based youth sports. NFHS also maintains a high school Hall of Fame (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2010).

Three facets comprise the organizational structure of the NFHS. The legislative body, the National Council, is made up of one representative from each member state, provincial, or territorial association. Each council member





has one vote, and the council meets to conduct business twice each year. The administrative responsibilities are handled by the 12-member board of directors, elected by the National Council from professional staffs of member associations. Eight board members are elected to represent one of eight geographic regions, with the remaining four chosen on an at-large basis. The board of directors approves the annual budget, appoints an executive director, and establishes committees for conducting association business. NFHS has a paid administrative and professional staff of 50, including the current executive director, Bob Gardner, named to the post in 2010 (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2010).

Other professional organizations and services offered by or affiliated with the NFHS include:

- The National Interscholastic Athletic Administrators Association (NIAAA), made up of 5,000 individuals responsible for the administration of high school athletics
- The NFHS Coaches Association, comprised of 30,000 member high school coaches
- The NFHS Officials Association, which includes 130,000 member officials who benefit from liability insurance and skills instruction
- The NFHS Spirit Association, formed in 1988 to assist members and coaches of cheerleading, pompom, and spirit groups (Little League Baseball, Inc., n.d., 2010)

### State Associations

The NFHS model is typically replicated at the state level by **state associations**. State associations, which are also nonprofit, have a direct role in organizing state championships and competitions in athletics and activities and are the final authority in determining athlete eligibility. The scope of activities, size of full-time

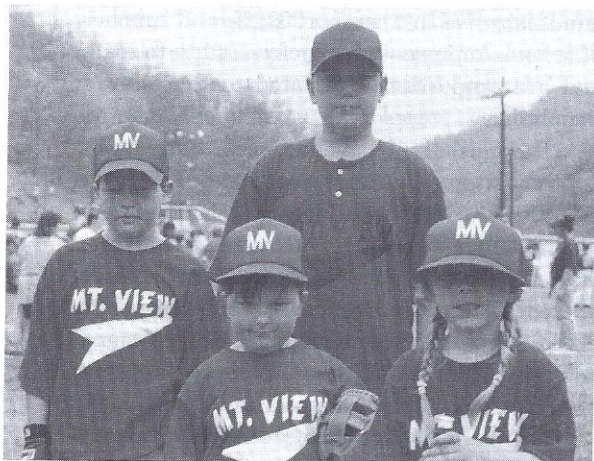
administrative and support staff, and number of schools represented vary from state to state and are proportionally related to that state's population.

The legislative business of state associations is administered in much the same manner as the NFHS, with several general meetings each year attended by one voting representative from each member institution. While championships and competitions are administered by the associations, committees consisting of coaches and administrators perform most of the actual duties associated with the events, including determining criteria for selection of event participants, event management, and the general rules pertaining to regular season competition.

### National Youth League Organizations

**National youth league organizations** focus administrative efforts on promoting participation in a particular sport among children. The activities and duties of these organizations are illustrated by examining one such association, Little League Baseball, the best-known youth athletic organization in the United States. Factory worker Carl Stotz founded Little League Baseball in 1939 as a three-team league in Williamsport, Pennsylvania. The organization, initially for boys ages 9 through 12 (girls were admitted in 1974), grew to 867 teams in 12 states over the next decade. By 1963, Little League boasted 30,000 teams in 6,000 leagues on four continents. In 2002, 2.8 million children ages 5 to 18 in 105 countries participated in t-ball, baseball, and softball at four age-group levels and for children with mental and physical disabilities. Little League requires strict adherence to administrative guidelines, including standardized field size and use of uniforms, formalizes rosters composed via the draft system, and promotes its ability to provide adult supervision and safe play (Little League Baseball, Inc., 2010; Little League Baseball, Inc., n.d.).





Little League governance structure is organized on four levels: local, district, region, and international. Each league program is organized within a community that establishes its own boundaries (with total population not to exceed 20,000) from which it may register players. A board of directors guides each local league and is responsible for the league's day-to-day operations. Ten to twenty teams in a given area usually comprise a district. The District Administrator organizes district tournaments. The District Administrator reports to the Regional Director, of which there are five in the United States, and four internationally. All Little League operations are led by the president and Chief Executive Officer (CEO; Stephen Keener), who reports to a Board of Directors comprised of eight District Administrators elected to rotating terms by their colleagues at the periodic International Congress. There are 110 full-time league employees and a million volunteers worldwide (Little League Baseball, Inc., 2010).

## ■ CAREER OPPORTUNITIES

There are many similarities in the employment opportunities in school and youth league sports.

What follows is a brief listing of the roles critical to the operation of school and youth league sports, including major job functions and responsibilities.

### School Athletic Director/League Director

Supervising a school athletic program or youth league includes responsibilities such as hiring, supervising, and evaluating coaches; coordinating nearly all facets of contest management, including the hiring and paying of officials and event staff; setting departmental/league training and disciplinary policies; determining departmental/league budgets; overseeing all associated fund-raising; determining and verifying game scheduling and athlete eligibility; transmitting relevant publicity; and handling public relations. In addition, most school athletic directors do not have the luxury of devoting their whole working day to this job. Most must also coach, teach, perform other administrative roles, or do some combination of all three.

**Youth league directors** must sometimes perform their duties on a completely voluntary basis, without compensation or work release time. Compared to coaches, **school athletic directors** have less direct involvement with athletes and perform their duties less publicly, but these administrators by no means have a less important role in successfully managing an athletic program. Some of their major responsibilities and concerns are risk management, insurance, employment issues, sexual harassment, gender equity, and fund-raising.

The job description for a school or youth league coach is indeed demanding. **Coaches** face complex human resource management issues, deal with constant and extreme pressure to perform successfully, and work long and irregular hours for low (or no) pay. Significant knowledge of injuries and physical training, equipment, and bus-driving skills are also highly recommended. High school coaches in most states are also



required to pass certain certification requirements, many of which are delivered through the NFSH. For example, coaches in Kansas must pass a coaching education certification course (waived for coaches who are also certified classroom teachers) and a sport first aid course within one year of hiring (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2008).

Because injuries inevitably occur in athletic activities, **trainers** and **physical therapists** are critical for school and youth sport operation. Most school districts and state associations require medical personnel and emergency medical transportation to be present at football games or other high-risk contact sports, while the dictates of youth leagues vary. Most schools and leagues do not have the personnel or financial resources to provide trainers or medical personnel (paramedics, certified athletic trainers, emergency medical technicians, physicians) for all contests, and such personnel are infrequently provided for practices. Providing adequate medical treatment for injured athletes significantly reduces the risk of litigation against coaches, schools, and leagues and can reduce injury rates by 41%. However, because 62% of injuries occur during practices and training (PRWeb, 2010), some schools are looking to contract trainers or medical personnel to be present at all times and to set up year-round training and fitness programs.

Schools and leagues can contract trainers from a local hospital, physical therapy center, or fitness club. The position can also be linked to internal jobs such as a classroom or physical education teacher, school doctor or nurse, or athletic administrator. Such programs benefit the school athletic program and can provide a student-trainer with an educational opportunity. Salaries for this position vary widely, depending on the employment status (part-time or full-time) and the other job responsibilities linked to the post.

### Officials and Judges

**Officials** and **judges** are vital to the proper administration of school and youth athletics, and they share much of the public scrutiny associated with coaches and administrators. Officials are employed by schools and leagues but are considered independent contractors because the school or league exhibits no supervisory capacity over officials. Depending on the locale, officials may require certification from national, state, and local sanctioning organizations to gain approval to work in interscholastic events. Most youth leagues rely on volunteers with such accreditation to officiate contests. While this aids in the logistical operations, the use of such unprofessionalized personnel can leave a league liable for litigation for the actions of these individuals. Officials possess a significant amount of control over game administration and supervision. In game situations, officials usually have the responsibility and authority to postpone and cancel games due to inclement and dangerous weather situations, and they are responsible for controlling rough and violent play. At this level, officials work on a part-time basis as compensation is not sufficient to cover full-time employment. Officials are also responsible for submitting their income figures to the IRS for tax purposes.

## ■ APPLICATION OF KEY PRINCIPLES

### Management

#### ■ PROGRAMMATIC GOALS

Critics of highly organized youth athletics often cite that such activities create increased pressure to win and rob children of the opportunity to create and initiate their own play and competition. Professional physical educators and organizations such as the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance (AAHPERD) decried the “win at all



costs" approach as early as the 1930s (Berryman, 1978). Today, these concerns continue with many examples, some of which impact the health and safety of participants. Consider the case of linemen on the football team at Brockton (Massachusetts) High School, a perennial power in that state. In 1972, the team won a regional championship, and the average height and weight of the offensive line was 6', 210 pounds. Twelve years later, another championship squad offensive line averaged 5'11", 199 pounds (and these numbers were probably high, as longtime Brockton head coach Armond Colombo confessed he often inflated the size of his linemen for listing in game programs. In 1984, Colombo's center was 5'6", 170, and he stated, "Therefore he went to 200. And that's the truth" [O'Brien, 2008, p. A4]). But in 1996, the same group on another championship team averaged 6'2", 268, and in 2008, 6'3", 262. While it is true that football players, especially linemen, have always been large, a recent study published by the American Medical Association and the *Journal of Pediatrics* found that children who play football are overweight and obese at rates far exceeding those who do not play. Another study of nearly 3,700 high school football linemen in Iowa found that 45% were overweight and nine percent would be classified with severe adult obesity. A second study of 650 Michigan players aged 9 to 14 found that weight problems began before players reached high school, and that 40% of the study group were obese (O'Brien, 2008).

So what is the cause of this "growing" trend? One coach put it succinctly: "[These players] are just obese. It's not that their hugely muscular . . . They're overweight for the same reason that 80 percent of the rest of the country is overweight. Their diets have been horrible their whole lives. They eat French fries and McDonald's food" (O'Brien, 2008, p. A8). Other studies have shown that overweight and

obese players suffer injuries at a higher rate than slimmer teammates, especially in terms of ankle injuries. From the players' perspective, they need to get bigger to be successful and for the possibility to play in college and earn an athletically related aid award. Brockton's aptly named Khaldun Brickhouse (6'7", 300 pounds, down 30 pounds from the summer before his senior year) wanted to play "for any school that will take me. I want to go NCAA Division I, though" (O'Brien, 2008, p. A8). Andrew Knowlton, a player at St. John's Prep in Danvers, Massachusetts, felt pressure from peers: "All the older guys tell you, 'You've got to lift. Got to eat. Eat right, but eat a lot.' So there's pressure from everyone" (O'Brien, 2008, p. A1). In response, Knowlton bulked up from 200 to 293 pounds by his senior year, lifting weights six days a week and eating five or six times a day. The mother of another Brockton player, who weighed 265 as a sophomore, said, "He tells me to pray about (gaining weight) all the time. He really, really wants to go to college and play football, and I want him to do that, too" (O'Brien, 2008, p. A4).

Concerns do arise about participants who train and play too much and the injuries that can result from this hyper-intensive focus. Studies of U.S. high school athletes indicate boys suffer more injuries than girls, but that is in part explained by football and the fact that boys still outnumber girls in participation percentages. Studies also show, however, that girls are more likely to suffer chronic knee pain, stress fractures, hip and back pain, and concussions (Sokolove, 2008).

The injuries that stand out in the comparison between boys and girls are anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) tears, which occur five times more often in girls and young women. The injury is problematic because of the short-term and long-term effects on athletic careers. As described by writer Michael Sokolove:



*The ACL is a small, rubber band-like fiber, no bigger than a little finger, that attaches to the femur in the upper leg and the tibia in the lower leg and stabilizes the knee . . . An ACL doesn't tear so much as it explodes, often during routine athletic maneuvers . . . After an ACL pulls off the femur, it turns into a viscous liquid. The ligament cannot be repaired; it has to be replaced with a graft, which the surgeon usually forms by taking a slice of the patellar tendon below the kneecap or from a hamstring tendon. One reason for the long rehabilitation is that the procedure is really two operations—one at the site of the injury and the other at the donor site, where the tendon is cut . . . The mystery is why a knee works properly for many years—through game after game, practice after practice, long season after long season, for tens of thousands of repetitions—and then, without warning, a tiny but crucial component suddenly malfunctions . . . If you are the parent of an athletic girl and live in a community that bustles with girls playing sports—especially the so-called jumping and cutting sports like soccer, basketball, volleyball and lacrosse—it may seem that every couple of weeks you see or hear about some unfortunate young woman hobbling off the field and into the operating room (2008, pp. 56, 59).*

Sokolove goes on to speculate that, based on the statistics and studies, the average high school girls' soccer team will experience four ACL injuries over the course of four years. Part of the explanation of this phenomenon is physiological: estrogen makes women more flexible but ligaments more lax, and higher fat levels in females force them to train longer to get stronger (high levels of testosterone in males allows them to add muscle much easier). Wider hips also make more women knock-kneed, which

contributes to the ACL stress. One researcher commented, "The big concern for me is the girl down the street who wants to play soccer on the rec team or the travel team. They're ripping their knees up . . . and we're really on the up curve of this, because it's still relatively recent that girls played sports in these large numbers . . . So if you think we have a problem now, 10 years from now we'll have a much bigger problem" (Sokolove, 2008, p. 60).

This epidemic is also explained by social and individual factors. Janelle Pierson, a soccer player at St. Thomas Aquinas High School in Fort Lauderdale, Florida, who sustained ACL injuries to both knees before her senior year (and would injure her left knee again later), had to wear a heavy brace on her right knee after her second year, but played in a first-round playoff game against the wishes of her parents. "You have to learn to deal with pain, because if you don't you'll never get to play," she said. "This is my last year, and I want to win the state championship" (the school had previously won 10 such titles) (Sokolove, 2008, p. 56). Others are playing in pursuit of opportunities to play in college, like the football linemen discussed previously. Those athletes specialize in soccer at an early age, play year-round, and participate in regional club tournaments, where teams play a dozen or more matches over the course of several weeks in multiple locations. Anson Dorrance, longtime and successful head soccer coach at the University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill, described the issue this way: "Now everybody's got a tournament . . . So now girls are going somewhere every two or three months and playing these inordinate number of matches . . . They were overplayed and never rested" (Sokolove, 2008, p. 76). According to Sokolove, much of the involvement in girls' sports has less to do with the stereotypical hard-driving parents, and more to do with the choices of the girls. As Janelle Pierson's father noted,



"We've raised these girls to be headstrong and independent . . . We had no idea what we were getting into. She started playing with a local team, just once or twice a week, then began playing with a travel team, and after that it just builds up. It's where all your leisure time goes. It becomes your social set" (Sokolove, 2008, p. 76). Sport psychologist Colleen Hacker puts responsibility back on the parents. "I don't think anybody's saying, 'Honey, how do we screw (our kids) up tomorrow?' But the attention, judgment and objectivity that parents bring to their work lives and other spheres of importance, they don't bring to their kids sports" (Sokolove, 2008, p. 76).

#### ■ PERFORMANCE EVALUATION AND SUPERVISION

Coaches are the principal supervisors of the athletic activities of their teams and it is their responsibility to provide and ensure a reasonably safe environment for all participants. A coach's performance will be assessed through issuing proper equipment, maintaining issued equipment, ensuring all participants have had physical examinations and been found fit to participate, and maintaining the various necessary forms of documentation (confirmation of physical status, confirmation of eligibility, proof of insurance, parent permission to participate). In terms of the actual play of participants, coaches are responsible for organizing drills, ensuring physical mismatches are minimized, maintaining safe practice and playing grounds, suspending practice or play during dangerous weather conditions, and monitoring locker rooms during the time preceding and following activities. In play situations, coaches must monitor activities to be sure student-athletes are not performing in an improper and dangerous manner that might harm themselves and/or other participants.

#### ■ EVALUATING COACHES

Each given all the focus of performance evaluations outlined above, schools often fail to follow even the most basic of procedures. This occurred in 2010, when Wally Covell, head baseball coach at Lawrence High School in Fairfield, Maine, had to endure a session of criticism in an open public meeting without being present to address the concerns. Several weeks before the 2010 season, Covell, a high school and college coach in Maine for 55 years and a member of the state's Baseball Hall of Fame, had coordinated with the program's booster club to order personalized uniforms for the upcoming season (school budgetary policies dictated that virtually all equipment and uniforms were paid for by team booster clubs and not the school). Returning players were contacted by team captains and money was collected for payment. The parent of a junior varsity player, however, chose to interpret the actions as a determination that the 2010 roster had already been determined, and complained to the school's athletic director Bill McManus, principal Pam Swett, and Superintendent Dean Baker. Several meetings were held between the administrators and Covell, and the money collected was returned to address the concern of the parent.

However, at a meeting of the school's board of control a week before preseason practice was scheduled to begin, where the contracts of all spring sports coaches were to be voted on by the board members, the parent appeared at the open meeting and publicly denounced Covell and his coaching techniques, calling the 75-year-old's methods "old and outdated." Covell, who had been named conference coach of the year two seasons previous, was not alerted of this beforehand, but several team members had caught wind of the action ahead of time and attended the meeting and spoke on his behalf. No evidence of Covell's job performance could be



provided by the athletic director (AD), because Covell had never had any form of performance review during his six years of employment at the school. The school board ultimately voted to approve the entire slate of spring coaches on a vote of 6–3 with one abstention. As a result, Covell was charged with creating a formal player evaluation sheet that he and his assistant would complete for each prospect during preseason practice. The player whose parent complained about the process was never evaluated, however, because he decided to try out for the school's tennis team instead.

Covell was unable to complete the season when another parent (the president of the booster club) complained to the AD of Covell's disciplining of his son after the player's inattentiveness during a postgame meeting after a loss to Cony High School of Augusta. Athletic Director McManus told Covell he would be suspended two games for his actions, but Covell opted to resign instead (Covell made a public statement that the resignation was due to the health of his wife, who would die of congestive heart failure several weeks later) effectively ending his coaching career at Lawrence, still without a formal performance review from his AD.

### Financial Concerns

While school and youth sport organizations are not-for-profit enterprises, this does not mean that associated programs are not concerned with controlling costs and maintaining balanced budgets. This issue has been particularly problematic since 2008, as the global economic recession has meant that many school and youth programs across the United States have severely curtailed athletic offerings in light of reduced funding from local and state sources. For example, in 2009, the South-Western City Schools district, which serves part of Columbus, Ohio, and nearby towns (and is the state's sixth

largest school district), cancelled all athletic activities. The move saved the district, which had been facing budget shortfalls for years (a total of \$22 million in reductions with 330 positions reduced since 2006), a total of \$2.5 million. The action was forced after a proposed tax increase was rejected for the third time by local voters in an August 2009 referendum. The district expects its better athletes at Grove City High School to transfer to other schools (Garcia, 2009).

Other schools facing cuts have resorted to finding other resources for the funding necessary to operate programs. At Dixon (California) High School (located 20 miles southwest of Sacramento, described by one student as, "There's a Wal-Mart and that's about it" [Ortiz, 2009, p. 2A]), the school system decided in February 2009 to cut all sports for the upcoming school year, a move that impacted 600 of the school's 1,243 students. However, the district school board reconsidered the move in May 2009, and provided \$110,000 (down from \$280,000 the previous year) for basic funding after parents, booster groups, and community members worked to close the budget gap (Ortiz, 2009). Through fundraisers, the provision of student transportation by parents, and reduced playing schedules, Dixon High kept all 17 of its existing programs, and even added boys' and girls' water polo. However, coaching stipends were not reinstated, forcing many coaches to leave their positions, while those who remained did so without pay. Of the transportation element, a district official commented, "It's a challenge in lots of ways. If you have a team of 40, that's a lot more organizational work. It creates greater liability. There are a series of forms the kids have to fill out, the drivers have to fill out. There's proof of insurance needed, medical consent forms for kids for treatment in case of accidents. It's a lot of management" (Ortiz, 2009, p. 2A).

Other schools facing similar cuts, such as Brighton (Michigan) High School, have in-



stituted pay-to-play fees. The school fields 98 teams in 32 sports—a high total—but receives only enough funding from its district to cover 38% of the \$1.5 million necessary to operate its programs. School AD John Thompson notes that the remaining \$930,000 is covered by fundraising and activities fees. Student-athletes pay \$175 per sport, with the fee for a third sport waived, and also pay a transportation fee ranging from \$30 to \$75. Fees are waived for those who demonstrate financial hardship. Of the system, Thompson says, “Unfortunately, one day sports will be out there for people who have money. We can say we’ll take care of those without money, but I can tell you it will be the kids with talent. The average kid is going to be left behind” (Garcia, 2009, p. 2A).

State associations have also made adjustments to their sponsored activities to control costs. For the 2009–2010 academic year, the New Mexico Activities Association (NMAA) changed its state championship format in five sports. For example, the girls’ volleyball (the NMAA does not sponsor boys’ volleyball) and softball tournaments have gone from double-elimination to single-elimination, saving a night in hotel costs for some teams. Boys’ and girls’ soccer tournaments have dropped pool play for tournament seedings, saving a week’s worth of travel and hotel costs. Baseball and boys’ and girls’ tennis tournaments have also been curtailed by a week. NMAA assistant executive director Robert Zayas said that the precise amount saved by the moves is difficult to calculate due to varying roster sizes and travel distances. “Eliminating even just one night is significant when you consider the costs of meals, bus drivers, gas, hotels, and other expenses” (Ruibal, 2009, p. 2A). The NMAA is also looking to hold down its expenses (on a budget of \$3 million raised from dues, championship gate receipts, and sponsorships—each accounting for about a third of the total), cutting back on professional

expenses such as travel to the annual meeting of the NFHS (Ruibal, 2009, p. 2A).

## Marketing

### ■ CORPORATIONS PROFITING FROM SCHOOL AND YOUTH SPORTS PARTICIPATION

Most of you are well aware of the impact of ESPN on the national and international sports landscapes and are probably also aware that ESPN’s parent company is the Disney Corporation. Disney is also impacting the school and youth sports world through its Wide World of Sports Complex in Lake Buena Vista, Florida. In 1997, Disney Sports Enterprises created a \$100 million sports facility to lure athletes and coaches and to steer more tourists to its Orlando-area theme parks. Today, the complex encompasses two field houses, eight outdoor fields, four baseball diamonds, six softball diamonds, a track-and-field venue, a cross-country course, ten tennis courts, and a 100-lane bowling center on 220 acres, and it hosts more than 180 events year-round in 50 different sports. In 2008, 15,000 boys and girls aged 9 to 18 from more than 900 teams from across the United States and around the world played at the facility in the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) national championships in baseball and basketball. Disney has a formal alliance with AAU, which hosts 70 of its 250 championships at the site. The complex has also become a training facility for many high school teams during spring break vacations, as 670 teams with 12,000 athletes travelled there during a ten-week period in 2008 (Smith, 2008).

In all, more than 2 million young athletes—an average of 250,000 a year—have competed at the complex. Disney officials claim they do not know the percentage of competitors and their families who buy theme park passes, but they do cite the fact that 85% of participants would



not otherwise visited the Disney parks. As for the associated revenue, AAU president Bobby Dodd says three AAU teams stayed for nearly two weeks at a cost of \$4,500. The parent company Walt Disney Co. reported total revenues from parks and resorts to be \$2.7 billion in 2008 (Smith, 2008).

### ■ EXPANDING PARTICIPATION OPPORTUNITIES

In an effort to reach more students, some state associations have been exploring whether to add new activities for high school students. Such has been the case recently in Illinois, where the Illinois High School Association (ISHA) investigated adding competitive bass fishing to its sanctioned sports and championships. According to ISHA director Marty Hickman, "We think interscholastic participation is good for kids, and we think with bass fishing we'll possibly reach some kids who haven't been participating in IHSA activities in the past" (Temkin, 2007, sect. 3 p. 10). When the ISHA authorized the possibility of adding the sport, schools from across the state expressed interest, as did several companies seeking to become sponsors. Such sponsor support is vital because the ISHA would need that revenue to sustain any state-wide competitions. Terry Brown, a writer for the Web site BassFan.com, a daily media service covering the sport, noted that sponsor interest is "about turning a 16-year-old into a die-hard who buys equipment or a boat." Mike Mulligan, an avid fisherman and biology teacher at Taft High School in Chicago who attended Gordon Tech (another Chicago high school), is more focused on the potential educational benefits of the sport. "I think it's something the kids need," he said. "Especially in the city . . . I noticed it when you take kids to (local forested areas), and you see the expressions of their faces . . . That's what we are doing as instructors in the life sciences, getting them to

appreciate the outdoors and become stewards themselves" (Temkin, 2007, p. 10).

### Ethics

#### ■ USE OF PERFORMANCE ENHANCING SUBSTANCES

Roger Clemens. Barry Bonds. Lance Armstrong. These names are familiar to many of us because of the recent attention focused on the alleged use of performance enhancing substances and techniques at the professional sport level, both in the United States and in international events such as the Olympic Games and cycling. While obtaining these substances is often illegal, there are ethical considerations associated with their use, namely, the health risks and the unfair advantage gained by those who use over those who are clean.

These issues have impacted school and youth sports, as seen in 2008 when Bobby J. Guidroz, sheriff of rural St. Landry Parish, Louisiana, announced an undercover investigation of area gyms that produced the area's largest ever anabolic steroid drug bust. Ten arrests were made, including two former high school football players. One unconfirmed tip indicated two coaches in the area encouraged players to use steroids. Of the arrests, Guidroz said, "I think there's more steroid use, after talking to my investigators, in sports activities, than originally thought" (Longman, 2008, p. B10).

Across the country, efforts are being made to test for and detect the use of such substances, but testing efforts are, in the words of *New York Times* reporter Jere Longman, "expensive, scattered, and full of loopholes," and "experts question methods frequently used to inform athletes about the health hazards and ethical considerations of doping" (Longman, 2008, p. B10). Law enforcement personnel across the country also cite the fact that some parents



allow or encourage the use of these substances to improve player performance. Some reports indicate substance use is declining, but many experts dispute this, claiming that use is being significantly underreported. Charles Yesalis, a former Penn State University professor and expert on performance enhancing drugs, stated: "We could well be past the point that—unless something dramatic happens, like 20 kids dying—of doing anything about this. I'm not sure people want to take care of this problem . . . The few states that have instituted testing systems have set them up to fail. It's mainly to make coaches and parents feel good" (Longman, 2008, pp. B10, B13). Illinois, New Jersey (which only tests postseason competition participants), and Texas (random unannounced testing, but none during the summer) have mandatory testing of high school participants. New Jersey reported two positives out of 1,000 athletes tested between 2006 and 2008, and Texas reported only two out of 10,000 in 2007, in a program that cost \$3 million. Because of the loopholes, many call these protocols not drug testing but IQ testing, meaning that anyone seeking to beat the tests could figure out when to stop doping to avoid detection (Longman, 2008).

Many cite cost as the biggest factor in testing. Florida ended its program in 2008 after state budget cuts. Individual tests can cost as much as \$300. In St. Landry Parish, the six public high schools can test 10% of their athletes three times a year for recreational drugs, and one of those tests can be focused on detecting performance enhancing substances. Parish AD Donnie Perron favors enhanced education because of the cost of testing (Longman, 2008).

Studies also show that even with testing, high school athletes were not deterred from using these substances, because teenagers often feel impervious to risk and enjoy challenging authority, coupled with the fact that so few athletes were tested with little frequency. The co-author of the study, Dr. Linn Goldberg, also

recommends increased education to deal with these ethical challenges and said that \$15 million has been earmarked for such programs under the 2004 federal Anabolic Steroid Control Act, but that none of the dollars in funding have yet been made available (Longman, 2008).

### ■ GENDER EQUITY

Most sex discrimination challenges in high school athletics have been based on state or U.S. Constitution equal protection clauses, state equal rights amendments, Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, or a combination thereof. Gender equity is a flashpoint of controversy for schools but is less so for youth leagues, unless they depend on municipal funding or utilize public facilities. Administrators are responsible





for ensuring that athletic programs treat boys and girls equally. The NFHS states as one of its legal foundations for the administration of high school athletics that interscholastic athletic programs must demonstrate equity or substantive and continuous progress toward equity in all facets of girls' and boys' athletics.

However, even though Title IX is the law of the land, certain factors influence how girls play. A recent study indicated that in suburban locations, girls play sports at essentially the same rate as boys, but in urban areas only 36% of girls surveyed describe themselves as moderately involved athletes. Some of this difference can be attributed to money, as schools struggle with resources to sustain basic programs. Another factor is that many urban families, often recent immigrants and lower-income, see the benefits of participation for their sons but not for their daughters, and that girls have more responsibilities in the areas of family care, such as babysitting. The work schedules of players' parents also means that often no one gets to games to see their children play (Thomas, 2009).

All of these factors have come into play for the girls' basketball team at Middle School 61 (MS 61), a public school in the Crown Heights section of the New York City borough of Brooklyn. For one road game against Public School 161 in the Bronx, head coach Bryan Mariner had to borrow his nephew's car to drive his team through snarled city traffic to the game—with only five players—and paid the cousin of his best player \$2 to cover her babysitting responsibilities for the afternoon. He also had to stop during the trip and convince the father of one player that it was safe to travel to the Bronx after the parent caught up to the car in traffic and wanted to pull his daughter off the trip. Once they made it to the school, they found out the game had to be cancelled because the other team didn't have enough players (Thomas, 2009).

There are also very real financial disparities between suburban and city girls' programs. At

MS 61, Mariner asks his players to contribute \$80 for uniforms, transportation, and other expenses. Only half could pay in full, with most paying \$1 or \$2 at a time. Most nearby suburban middle schools on Long Island have a full complement of programs and children can play at no cost. Participants are so plentiful that many schools field separate teams for seventh and eighth graders, with some schools playing extended games so that all participants can get into games. Coaches are paid as much as \$5,000 a season. Mariner's salary was \$2,500 (Thomas, 2009).

These differences mean that the level of play at MS 61 is somewhat ragged. Girls sometimes dribble the wrong way and often miss layups. Some are good enough to play in high school, such as Olivia Colbert, who competed in a city-wide girls' tournament at Hunter College. When Olivia later gained acceptance to a local private parochial high school, there was concern over whether her mother, a single mother working as a school crossing guard, could afford the \$5,600 tuition (Thomas, 2009).

## Legal

### ■ ENFORCING PARTICIPATION RULES AND CODES OF CONDUCT

In April 2010, officials from the Yarmouth (Maine) School District sought to discipline a 16-year-old female lacrosse student-athlete who had violated the school's honor code by appearing on her Facebook page along with four other students holding a can of Coors Lite beer. When school officials obtained a copy of the image, each of the five students was questioned by Yarmouth High School assistant principal Amy Bongard, and the female lacrosse player admitted to drinking the beer, a violation of the school's honor code, a four-page document that students must sign to participate in all school co-curricular activities. The code demands that



### **CASE STUDY: Cardinal Ruhle Academy: National Champions?**

In 2002, after 14 years as athletic director (AD) at Green Valley District High School, Derron Damone had taken a job at Cardinal Ruhle Academy (CRA), a private Catholic high school of 350 boys, located in Akropolis, a fading industrial city of 75,000 people. CRA was just a few miles from Green Valley, but light years apart in every other way. It had a strict dress code, a traditional curriculum focusing on math and science (along with religious education), a 70-year-old building that had seen better days, and a mix of students, many of whom were first generation immigrants from Central America, Russia, and Somalia, and some of whom traveled more than two hours on the city's transportation system to attend. Sixty-five percent of the school's students were ethnic minorities.

When he took the job, Damone had been charged by CRA's head, Monsignor Gennaro (Jimmy) DiNapoli, to improve the school's profile and enrollment (which had been falling due to concerns about the school's dangerous surroundings and fallout from the clergy sex-abuse scandals that had rocked the U.S. Catholic church) through expanding its athletic programs, specifically boys' basketball. At that point, he learned the school was about to undertake a significant fundraising campaign (with a goal to raise \$40 million) to refurbish its crumbling facilities. The creation of a nationally ranked boys' basketball team was going to be part of the public relations campaign to generate interest amongst alumni and prospective students. The move to create a nationally prominent program had gone well. CRA had sent several players to top National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I men's basketball programs, and even had one player currently in the NBA, DeRay Higgins, who played collegiate one year and then entered the NBA draft. Higgins, unfortunately, had brought some unwanted attention as well. In the last few years, "high school" institutions have sprouted up across the United States: Lutheran Christian Academy and Rise Academy in Philadelphia; Boys to Men Academy in Chicago; God's Academy in Irving, Texas; One Christian Academy in Mendenhall, Mississippi; and Stoneridge Prep in Simi Valley, California, among others. Some of these "schools," none of which has been accredited by the appropriate state education oversight organizations, have actual classes, although often for only two hours a day, but their students in most cases are all African-American male basketball players looking to become eligible to play in college. At least 200 players have been deemed academically eligible by the NCAA in the last decade by enrolling in such "schools" (Thamel, 2006b; Thamel & Wilson, 2005).

In the summer of 2006, the NCAA released a list of 16 schools from which it would not accept graduated students as academically eligible, and another 22 that would be subject to ongoing review. Lutheran Christian, along with several others mentioned above and other well-known boys' prep hoop powers such as Fork Union Military Academy and Oak Hill Academy in Virginia, and Bridgton Academy in Maine, were among the schools identified (Thamel, 2006a). In 2008, the Association's High School Review Committee denied approval for Charis Prep, located in Wilson, North Carolina, after reviewing the school's curriculum and visiting the site. The committee cited concerns over a lack of quality control or organized curriculum structure. The ruling meant that Charis graduates could not use core courses earned at the school, grades, or completion of its course of study to meet initial eligibility requirements (Associated Press, 2008).

While CRA had never been one of these fly-by-night operations, whispers about its academics had gotten louder with each player who transferred to the school and played his way to a Division I grant-in-aid. Also, the hoped-for fundraising boost that the ascendant program would bring had yet to materialize. The long-serving and much-beloved DiNapoli had died in 2006, and his replacement,



the much-younger and less-charismatic Walter MacMullen who, while well-meaning, has not been able to connect with the alumni and other potential donors to meet the lofty \$40 million goal.

On a gray January morning in 2010, as he waited in the drive-through line for his morning coffee, Damone's phone buzzed. It was an e-mail message that the state activities association was considering a vote at its next meeting on a measure to participate in a newly established national championship in boys' basketball for the 2010–2011 school year. Damone knew that the National High School Coaches Association in Pennsylvania had opted to partner with the sport marketing company International Management Group (IMG) to create a series of such championships at the company's training academy in Bradenton, Florida, and had read that more than half of other state associations had indicated support of the initiative. The e-mail read that the NFSH was also set to consider sanctioning the events at its upcoming meeting.

Damone knew why IMG was doing this: the sale of television rights, charging fees for teams to participate, and the possibility of having participants jump from teams to enroll at its academy. He was less sure about how it made sense for his school. This wasn't like the NCAA tournaments, he thought, which had a national appeal and all associated costs picked up by the NCAA. True, the state championship meant something to CRA and its community members, but what about the increased travel time and cost and missed class time another level of play would require? Would there be additional academic scrutiny because of this? And would all this really help further the school's fundraising initiatives?

The e-mail asked Damone to send back an initial response on how CRA would vote on such a measure. If the initial responses were positive, the association would put it to a formal vote by all school principals and ADs the next month. Damone put the phone down and drove ahead to pick up his large French vanilla coffee with cream and two sugars. He then pulled ahead to a parking spot, picked up his phone, and texted his response.

### Questions for Discussion

1. How does the issue of potential national championship involvement reflect a change in program goals and focus for CRA?
2. Is the phenomenon of national championships consistent with marketing trends impacting school and youth sports?
3. With which governing bodies will Damone need to interact to determine how involvement with such national championships might impact CRA's athletic programs?
4. With whom, if anyone, should Damone confer to determine his action on this issue?

*Note:* Information used in this case, as well as sources cited, is from Wieberg, 2010.

students refrain from using alcohol or tobacco, participating in activities that can be construed as hazing, or taking part in any activities that might embarrass the school, be it on or off school property, regardless of whether the participant is in or out of season. As a result, the

student was suspended from games for three weeks and was not permitted to go on an out-of-region team trip during the school's April vacation. The student was also required to have six substance abuse counseling sessions before she could return to playing (Menendez, 2010).



However, at a later date the family chose to sue the school in federal court for imposing the penalties, claiming that the school was reaching beyond its authority when the parents are the appropriate authority. The student also claimed she was not allowed to call her mother before she was questioned, and that she felt intimidated and forced into confessing. The school district responded, saying it had "the authority and the obligation to discipline its students who violate its substance abuse policy," citing case law decisions noting that the courts should not interfere in the daily operations of school systems and that students do not have a constitutional right to participate in interscholastic athletics. Both the student and her mother had signed the code and were aware of the penalties for violation. The school also claimed that Assistant Principal Bongard did not "badger, intimidate or interrogate . . . she simply asked (the student) what had happened and in response to her question (the student) frankly admitted that she was holding a beer" (Hench, 2010, pp. C1, C11).

Three days after the suit was filed, a hearing was held to determine whether the court would grant a temporary injunction in favor of the plaintiffs and allow her to continue to play while the case was being decided. U.S. District Court Judge D. Brock Hornby denied the request, ruling that the plaintiff's lawyer was unable to demonstrate a likelihood of success in a future trial, and that the school's need for an enforceable honor code trumps the student's need for relief from school punishment. In the hearing before the judge, the school district's lawyer, Melissa Hewey, stated, "This is a matter that should not be in federal court. This is a code permitted by state statutes. It is important to point out that what we're talking about here is illegal conduct" (Menendez, 2010, p. 2). The family was still considering continuing the lawsuit immediately after the hearing, but to date no action has been taken.

## ■ SUMMARY

School and youth sport has evolved from its modest beginning in New England private schools in the early 1800s to incorporate boys and girls of all ages in a multitude of sports and activities. These participation opportunities have expanded as administrators, coaches, and other associated personnel have developed the skills and expertise to deal with the challenges and issues that have accompanied this booming expansion. Although some contemporary issues complicate today's high school and youth sport landscape, the need and demand for well-run sport programs has never been greater. As long as there are boys and girls, the need for play and competition will exist, as will the need for well-trained professionals to ensure these needs will be met.

## ■ RESOURCES

### **American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance (AAHPERD)**

1900 Association Drive  
Reston, VA 20191-1598  
1-800-213-7193  
<http://www.aahperd.org>

### **American Sport Education Program (ASEP)**

Box 5076  
Champaign, IL 61825-5076  
800-747-5698; Fax: 217-351-2674  
<http://www.asep.com>

### **American Youth Soccer Organization**

12501 South Isis  
Hawthorne, CA 90205  
800-USA-AYSO  
<http://www.soccer.org>

### **Little League Baseball International**

P.O. Box 3485  
Williamsport, PA 17701  
570-326-1921; Fax: 570-322-4526  
<http://www.littleleague.org>



### National Federation of State High School Associations

P.O. Box 690  
Indianapolis, IN 46206  
317-972-6900; Fax: 317-822-5700  
<http://www.nhfs.org>  
*Each state, Canadian province, and U.S. territory also has a high school athletic and activity association.*

### Pop Warner Little Scholars, Inc.

586 Middletown Blvd., Suite C-100  
Langhorne, PA 19047  
215-752-2691; Fax: 215-752-2879  
<http://www.popwarner.com>

### YMCA of the USA

101 N. Wacker Drive  
Chicago, IL 60606  
312-977-0031  
<http://www.ymca.net>

## KEY TERMS

coaches, governing bodies, judges, National Federation of State High School Associations (NFHS), national youth league organizations, nonschool agencies, officials, physical therapists, private schools, Progressive Movement, public schools, school athletic directors, trainers, state associations, youth league directors

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