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## You and the Law

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HEALTH EDUCATION

# Adventure and Games for Diabetes Prevention

*Carrie D. Taylor and Eric James Lange*

## Abstract

*According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, diabetes prevention represents a critical need for the health education curriculum, given the rise of the disease and its precondition for today's youth. An active understanding of diabetes encourages young people to take control of the nutritional and exercise factors that keep the disease in check. When teachers use experiential activities, or "adventure" education, students perform tasks that illustrate conceptual content and reinforce learning. Research has found that current modalities to be successful but lacking the physicality to meet the recommendations of the American Heart Association and the Society of Health and Physical Educators. Games such as Toll Road Boogie; Tom and Jerry, or Insulin and Sugar; Wacky Receptor; and Tusker Monster, or Fat Cell Tag help children meet the 60 min of physical activity that are required most days of the week. This article offers several examples of how to design and implement games and incentives into lessons that are both enjoyable and illustrative of diabetes prevention-based education for ages 8 to 18.*

Poor dietary choices and a lack of exercise produce an unhealthy pattern associated with pre- and type 2 diabetes, growing at an alarming rate for today's youth. As youngsters spend 5 to 9 hr/day with various forms of digital technology, only about a quarter of youth participate in 60 min/day of physical activity (National

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Physical Activity Plan Alliance, 2018; Rogers, 2019; Siegel, 2019). Albright (2019) indicated an increased rate of type 2 diabetes and diabetes-related complications in young people, noting these have reached epidemic proportions. The CDC emphasizes the critical need for promoting exercise and diabetes prevention in youth across the United States. Health educators can curb the tide of this epidemic through experiential education curriculum or adventure programming, in which students become a part of the learning process.

Experiential education curriculum and adventure programming are based on the work of Kolb (1984) and Dewey (1938), who note that learning helps the participant become actively involved in "doing" the actual lesson rather than just listening and making significant lifestyle changes (Priest & Gass, 2018). Through "doing," adventure programs demonstrate the power of real experiences for learning, behavior change, personal development, and growth (Priest & Gass, 2018). Similarly, experiential learning places the participant at the heart of the learning experience where instructors believe students retain more from direct experiences than from lectures alone (Bobilya & Akey, 2002; Campbell et al., 1998). Through these experiences, participants are encouraged to become personally responsible for implementing the lessons learned that "[emphasize] a student's ability to justify or explain a subject rather than recite an experts testimony" (Joplin, 1981, p. 20) and to be responsible for their learning. To guide professionals through this process, Priest and Gass (2018) recommended these steps: action, reflection, integration, and continuation. Action allows the participant to experience the game with focus on task completion and areas of problem solving. Reflection has the participant reflect on the experience through discussion or debriefing by having the facilitator ask a series of open-ended questions. Integration allows the participant to apply the lessons to daily life, leading to changes in feeling, thinking, and behaving. Finally, continuation moves the learning into prolonged life changes with the participant avoiding a return to old habits or peer influences (Priest & Gass, 2018).

Research on the effects of experiential education and adventure programming on diabetes is limited. In a study by Herskowitz (1990), youth with diabetes who participated in a multiday adventure program reported in follow-up visits that student self-confidence and

the desire to take control of their diabetes improved. To date, no other studies have directly link this type of programming to diabetes education. However, several programs offer opportunities for improved self-confidence and personal development (Barton et al., 2016; Bowen & Neill, 2016; Christie et al., 2016; Gibbons et al., 2018; Margalit & Ben-Ari, 2014; Zebrack et al., 2017). Programs such as Project Adventure (https://www.pa.org/) and High 5 (https://high5adventure.org/) offer multiday trips for adolescence to experience the outdoors to improve self-worth. Connected in Motion (https://www.connectedinmotion.ca/) caters to adults who have diabetes to experience the outdoors in a safe and controlled environment. While these programs are not geared specifically to diabetes education, their methodology of experiential education and adventure programming is transferable to the classroom for diabetes education. In experiential learning, students form an understanding of the purpose of the lessons related to a specific topic, diabetes, and are motivated to apply new knowledge at home or school. All learning is experienced based as it is rooted in action and becomes experiential when the steps of action, reflection, integration, and continuation are a part of the learning process (Priest & Gass, 2018). Learning is now active and is experienced through fun games and physical activity using kinesthetic, auditory, visual, and tactile learning modalities. This model has demonstrated success in utilizing experiential education with didactic and pharmacology students who applied newly acquired skills to real-world scenarios (Gaba et al., 2016; Hogue, 2000).

Additionally, research into other modalities of diabetes education has also proven to be successful. Evert (2004) suggested that professionals adopt age-appropriate tools to help capture the users' interests when teaching diabetes education. For example, technology has become instrumental in capturing the users' interest through video games that are focused on diabetes education (Calle-Bustos et al., 2017; Kamel et al., 2015; Venditti et al., 2014). Besides technology, professionals have also been incorporating other educational modalities to assist them when working with clients. Activities such as "teaching kitchens" or cooking classes allow participants to take control of their diet by creating healthy, nutritious meals to reduce the impact of diabetes (Eisenberg & Burgess, 2015; Pettet et al.,

2005). Furthermore, the use of play through board games allows for participants to understand diabetes makes it more likely that participants will be open to a dialogue about themselves and how to manage their diabetes (Curl et al., 2019). However, many of these programs lack the physicality needed to meet the recommendations of the American Heart Association (AHA, 2020) and the Society of Health and Physical Educators (SHAPE, 2016) for children to participate in at least 60 min of moderate to vigorous activity most days of the week, which is pivotal in managing diabetes.

The lack of research demonstrates the need for professionals to implement experiential education and adventure programming that encourages youth to take ownership of their health. Such programming needs to create a deeper understanding of diabetes and its management, enabling students to take critical action for prevention. Therefore, this article provides professionals a series of games they can incorporate into their physical and health education curriculum to help participants understand the effects of diabetes on health.

## Designing Experiential Games

Here are some pointers to assist professionals in designing and implementing their diabetes education lessons for ages 8 to 18. First, follow the sequencing of experiential education and adventure programming outlined by Priest and Gass (2018): action, reflection, integration, and continuation. Second, when utilizing these games, consider what students need to know to prevent diabetes, understand diabetes, know the signs and symptoms, and remain healthy. Finally, all games require lessons before the start, such as the first game, Toll Road Boogie, in which foods are identified as "stop," "go," and "whoa" foods so youth can quickly identify each food in its category when the games commence.

## Toll Road Boogie

Toll Road Boogie is a game that was adapted from Cain (2003) that is designed to familiarize students with healthy food choices while keeping them physically active. Divide the class into a few groups based on the class size and the number of game areas constructed. Materials/equipment include Hula-Hoops, webbing tied into circles of various sizes, and laminated food cards. The food cards are divided into "stop," "go," and "whoa" foods.

Before the activity, teach what food falls into the "stop," "go," and "whoa" categories. The "stop" foods signal "hit the brakes"; these foods should be rarely eaten. The "go" foods indicate "you are eating healthy," and they can be eaten frequently. The "whoa" foods signal "exercise caution," and they should be eaten less often than the "go" foods. Figure 1 provides detailed instructions on conducting Toll Road Boogie.

This game not only teaches about healthy food choices but also encourages students to communicate and work together. A younger group can touch the hoops to make it easier without taking away from the game. After the game, process what students learned. See how many of the "whoa" foods they can identify. The participants shall follow up on some questions. What makes a "stop" food bad? What role do "go" foods play in the prevention of diabetes? What role do "stop" foods play in the prevention of diabetes? What is the benefit of "go" foods concerning health?

## Tom & Jerry, or Insulin & Sugar

Tom & Jerry, or Insulin & Sugar, is a game that was adapted from Rhonke (1997) that aims to teach the concept of insulin and sugar function within the body. The lesson is related to when and why there is not enough insulin in the body and the damage that more sugar in the bloodstream causes. Materials and equipment include six red hoops (Jerry) and two blue hoops (Tom).

The game requires the group to form a large circle, or multiple circles, and instructions are further detailed in Figure 2 on how to administer Tom & Jerry, or Insulin & Sugar.

This game demonstrates how difficult it is to remove sugar to protect the body's systems when there is too little insulin to do it correctly. The game also helps participants learn to work together and communicate. The following questions can be reflected in the game: Where does insulin take sugar in the body? What does sugar provide the body? What happens in the body when the cell is insulin resistant? Where does the excess sugar go? What does the excess sugar do in the body when it is too much?

**Figure 1**

*Toll Road BoogieDirections*

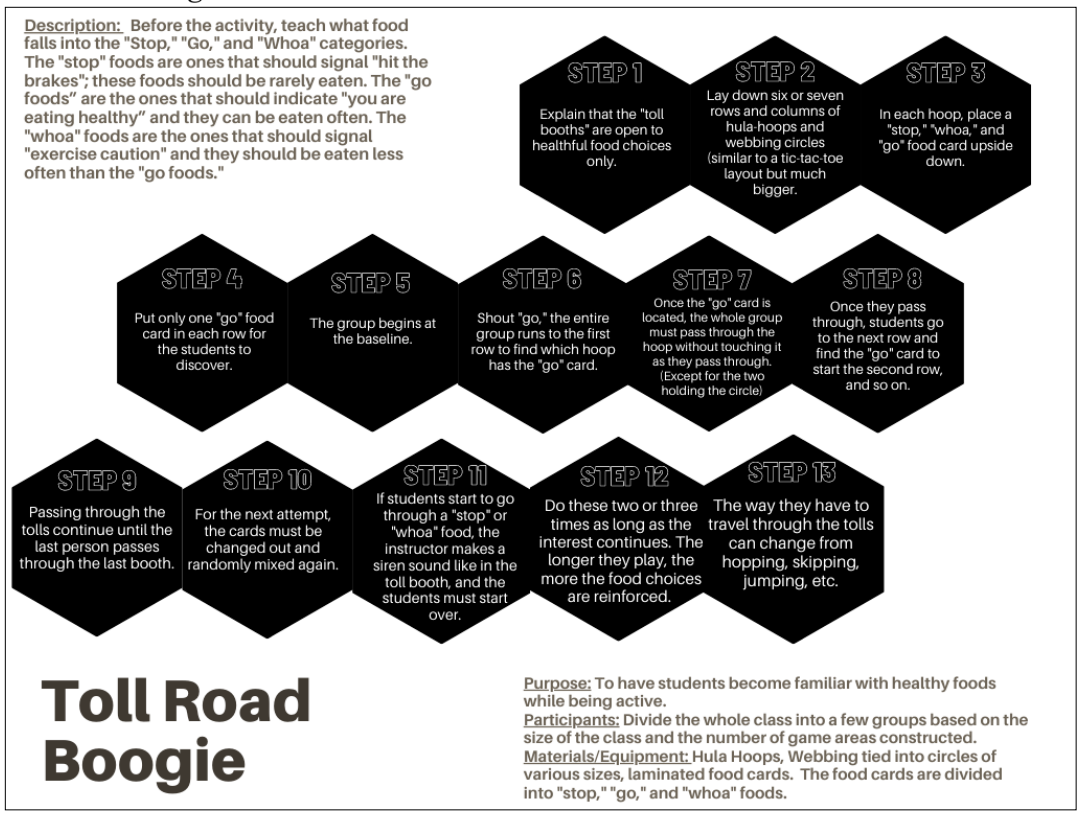
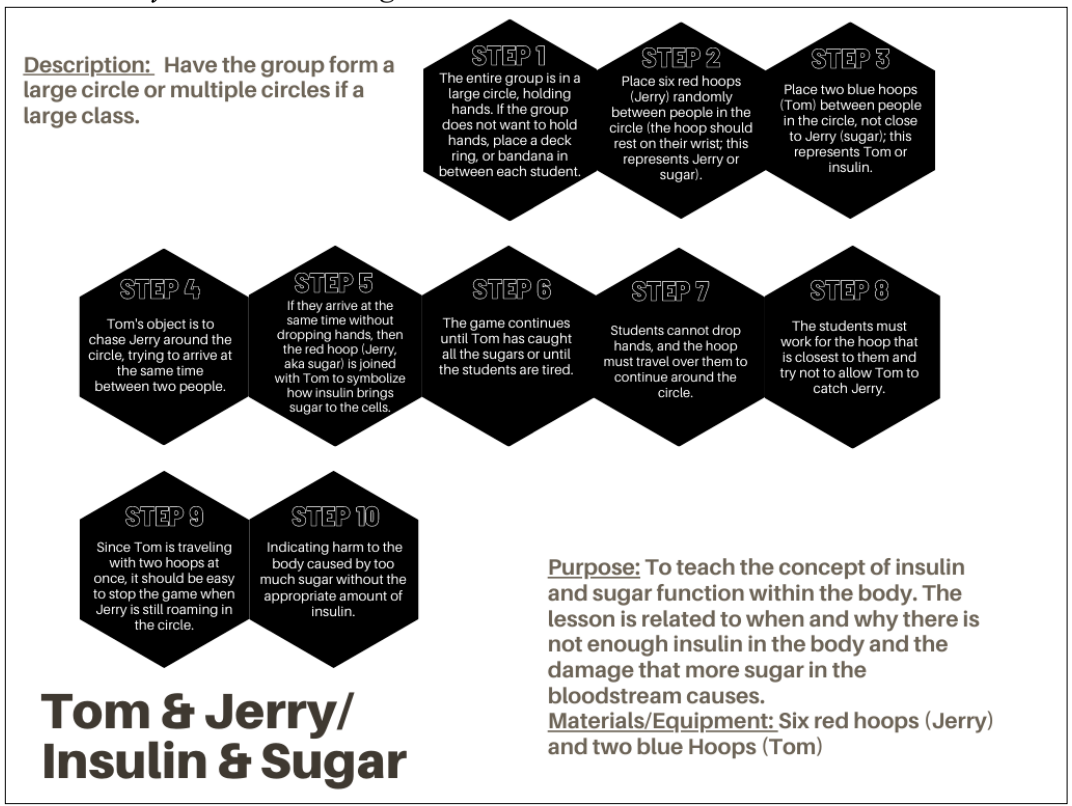


**Figure 2**

*Tom & Terry, or Insulin & Sugar, Directions*



## Wacky Receptor

Wacky Receptor is a game that was adapted from Rhonke (1997) that teaches students what happens when the body's cells become resistant to the insulin, which is trying to take the sugar into the cell for energy. When cells are insulin resistant, it is like a bat hitting a ball (receptor site hitting the insulin and sugar away) away from a cell. Materials/equipment include bean bags, two to three Hula-Hoops, and two pool noodles.

The game requires participants to create a large circle either out of rope or webbing on the floor. Figure 3 further details the instructions on how to administer Wacky Receptor.

From the game, participants may reflect on the following questions: What makes a cell resistant to insulin and using sugar for energy? What happens to the excess sugar? Can we prevent cells from being insulin resistant? How?

Wacky Receptor reinforces the damage to the body's cells; they become resistant to using the sugar for energy, allowing free-floating sugar to damage the body. Creating games for students to reinforce learning helps them retain the information and realize the need to take care of their bodies through food and exercise.

## Tusker Monster, or Fat Cell Tag

Tusker Monster, or Fat Cell Tag, is a game that was adapted from Rhonke (1997) that aims to teach what occurs when a person overeats and the fat cells within the body become larger. Fat cells do not go away when a person exercises, but they can shrink. Materials/equipment include two pool noodles.

One person begins as the "Tusker Monster (Fat Cell Tag)" with one tusk in each hand (pool noodle). Figure 4 details further instructions on how to administer Tusker Monster, or Fat Cell Tag.

It is excellent to discuss what fat cells do, it can expand to 1,000 times its size, and it never goes away even if a person loses weight. This is a treat game to process safety, teamwork, and communication. The participants may reflect on the following questions: How hard was it to catch people when the fat cell was small? Why? How hard was it to catch people when the fat cell was big? Why? Do fat cells ever disappear? How big can fat cells become?

**Figure 3**

*Wacky Receptor Directions*

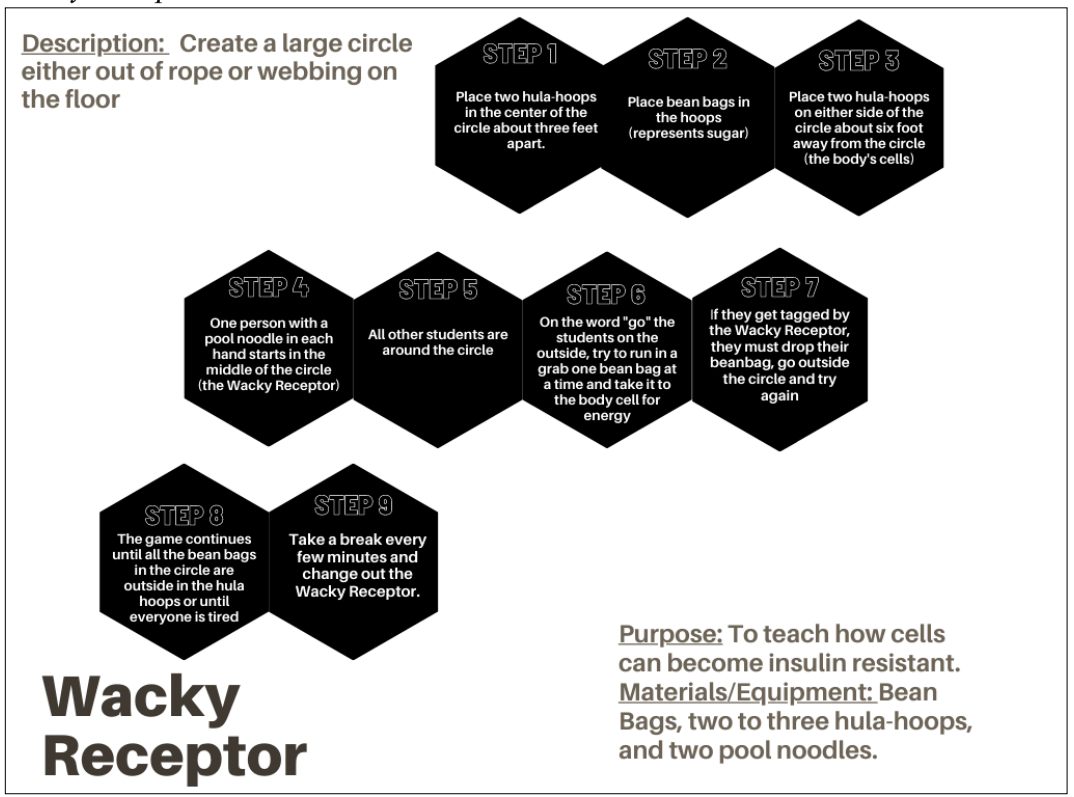
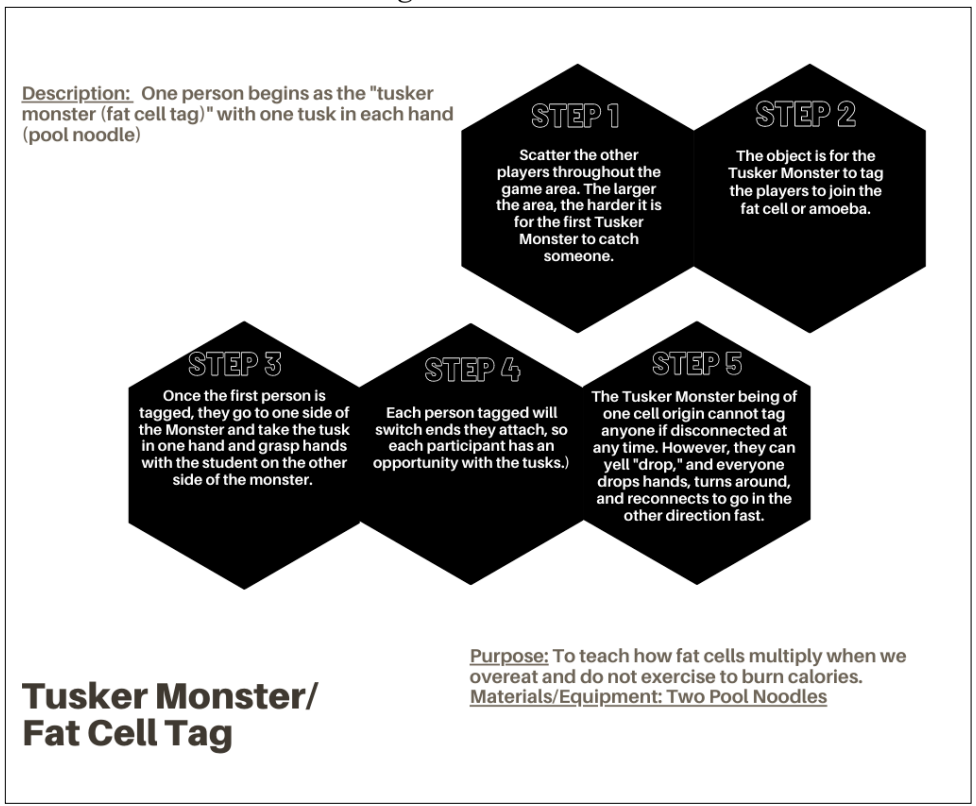


**Figure 4**

*Tusker Monster, or Fat Cell Tag, Directions*



## Conclusion

Diabetes education lessons through experiential games can be quickly implemented into the physical and health education curriculum. These activities teach students how to prevent prediabetes and diabetes using fun and creative play. Instructors can point out that the physical exercise involved in games is another prevention habit. Challenging students to follow through with the positive habits learned will be the ultimate way they can take responsibility for their own health and live happier lives.

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PEDAGOGY

# Examining the Role Clarity, Ability, and Training Needs of Paraeducators Supporting Students With Disabilities in Physical Education Settings

*Tim G. Swenson and Justin A. Haegele*

## Abstract

*Paraeducators are often utilized in physical education environments to assist instructors as well as students with disabilities; however, there is little research on the utilization of these professionals within this setting. This study explored paraeducators' perceived roles and competencies in physical education from the perspectives of both paraeducators and physical educators. This study was conducted with physical educators and paraeducators serving as participants and completing a content-validated survey on the various roles typically assumed by paraeducators when assisting in physical education classes. Data were analyzed via descriptive statistics and t tests, and differences between physical educators and paraeducators were identified. Results indicated these key findings: (1) There was a significant difference in the perception of role clarity of paraeducators between participant groups, (2) there was a significant difference in the perception of role ability of paraeducators between participant groups, and (3) there was not a significant difference between groups in terms of the training needs of paraeducators specific to physical education. Using the results of this study, physical educators and paraeducators can work together to*

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*provide the best learning environment possible within physical education for students with disabilities and within the working environment for both physical educators and paraeducators.*

Paraeducators, also known as paraprofessionals, teacher aides, instructional aides, or instructional assistants, are considered a related service under the Individuals With Disabilities Education Improvement Act (2004) and play a valuable role in working alongside teachers to provide meaningful and appropriate learning experiences for students with and without disabilities (Carter et al., 2009; Giangreco & Broer, 2005). According to the U.S. Census Bureau's American Community Survey, over 760,000 paraeducators were employed in the K–12 public school setting, comprising just less than 40% of the total school workforce (National Education Association, 2019). Once used primarily to provide support for special education teachers in classrooms saved primarily for students with disabilities, paraeducators have a role and responsibilities that have extended to multiple general educational settings (Walsh & Jones, 2004). That is, initially the roles performed by paraeducators ranged from clerical work to personal support, such as feeding and toileting (Giangreco, Edelman, Boer, & Doyle, 2001); however, it is not uncommon for them to now spend significant time engaging in instructional tasks, such as delivering instruction, keeping attendance, and grading (French, 2001; Giangreco & Broer, 2005). As a result, concerns have been raised about paraeducators' preparation and use in roles typically reserved for trained teachers, along with the need for additional training (Carter et al., 2009). The resulting concern is that personnel with the least amount of training are asked to take on instructional tasks for students with the highest educational needs (Giangreco et al., 2010).

Paraeducators are asked to assist in physical education classes as needed (Davis et al., 2007; Haegele et al., 2019; Walsh & Jones, 2004). However, limited empirical evidence has suggested that paraeducators feel untrained for assisting in physical education, and their roles and responsibilities are often not clearly stated (Bryan et al., 2013; Maher, 2016; Piletic et al., 2005). For example, in a survey of 29 paraeducators who worked in physical education environments, Bolen and Thomas (1997) found that just 33% had received any formal physical education–specific training (i.e., presentations of

roles, in-service training). In addition, whereas 92% of a sample of paraeducators in the United States surveyed by Davis et al. (2007) reported a need for receiving training specific to physical education, just 16% received it. Because of a lack of training, there appears to be little consistency on the expectations of the roles and responsibilities of paraeducators within physical education settings (Bryan et al., 2013). As such, many paraeducators may not be equipped with the knowledge, skills, or experience to contribute effectively to students' learning in physical education classes (Maher, 2016).

Research examining the roles of paraeducators within physical education contexts has received increased attention over the past decade (Bolen & Thomas, 1997; Bryan et al., 2013; Davis et al., 2007; Haegele et al., 2019; Lieberman & Conroy, 2013; Maher, 2016). However, although research has begun to examine the roles that paraeducators are assigned within physical education contexts, little available research has examined the ability of paraeducators to perform those roles. This study examined the perceptions of both physical educators and paraeducators concerning the role of paraeducators in physical education environments. Tables 2 to 4 show the specific responsibilities surveyed for this study. Exploring both perspectives may help provide insight into potential differences in expectations and perceived abilities between these two professionals. Paraeducators have noted that these differences have led to role ambiguity (Bryan et al., 2013; Maher, 2016). In addition, gaining an understanding of paraeducators' perceived ability to perform roles may help identify areas of training needed for paraeducators to help support students with disabilities in this unique educational environment. We assert that it is critical to gain this understanding from various perspectives, including from the paraeducators' and physical educators' viewpoints. As such, areas of need may be more evident from one group than the other, and those that are commonly voiced may have greater meaning. Having this dual perspective into the interrelationship of perceived role clarity, ability, and training needs can theoretically influence the delivery of support and, ultimately, the student learning outcomes of students with disabilities in physical education environments. As such, this study explored the perceptions of both paraeducators and physical educators in regard to

paraeducators' roles and competencies in physical education. Three research questions guided this study:

1. What are the differences in frequency of the various roles assumed by the paraeducators in physical education from the perspectives of both paraeducators and physical educators?
2. What are the differences in perceived role ability between paraeducators and physical educators in fulfilling various responsibilities inherent to physical education contexts?
3. What are the differences in the perceived training needs of paraeducators in physical education from the perspectives of both paraeducators and physical educators?

# Method

## Participants

In total, 205 individuals—118 physical educators (57%) and 87 paraeducators (43%)—participated in this study. The physical educator group included 67 females (56.8%) and 51 males (43.2%) aged 23 to 66 years ($M_{age}$ = 43). Years of educational experience in this group ranged from 1 year to 35 years ($M_{experience}$ = 19.2). The paraeducator group included 83 females (95%) and four males (5%) aged 24 to 67 years ($M_{age}$= 46). Years of educational experience within this group ranged from 1 year to 43 years ($M_{experience}$ = 26.5). Paraeducator gender distribution in this study is largely reflective of gender distribution of paraeducators nationwide according to U.S. Educator Paraeducator Workforce Statistics (National Education Association, 2019). Information regarding race was not collected from either participant group as part of this study.

## Data Collection

Potential participants were invited to participate in this study by email through two organizations in the same Midwestern state, one for physical educators and one for paraeducators. The physical educator participants were emailed through an email list associated with a statewide health and physical education association. This organization distributed study information directly to each potential participant. The paraeducator group was recruited through a statewide special education directors and school psychologists agency. This agency works directly with 31 school districts within the state.

Study information was distributed through the administrative assistant of the agency to all members via email. Both organizations agreed to send four reminder emails, sent in 2-week increments. For both the physical educator group and the paraeducator group, those receiving emails were asked to share with colleagues who also worked within the state.

Data collection took place between August 2019 and October 2019. A cover letter in the email explained the purpose, methodology, inclusion criteria, projected time commitment, and incentive to participate in this questionnaire. As incentive, potential participants were notified that those who completed the online survey would be eligible to enter a drawing to win one of four $25 Amazon gift cards. To be eligible to participate, participants must have been employed within a school district as either a physical educator or a paraeducator and have at least 1 year of experience. The letter also assured potential participants that all responses were anonymous and confidential and that participation was voluntary. Those interested in participating were asked to click a link to proceed to an online consent form, and those who completed the consent form and agreed to participate were invited to advance to the online questionnaires. The survey was organized so that all recruitment participants, independent of the group to which they were associated (paraeducators or physical educators), initially began the same survey but then deviated to participant-specific questions based on the answer provided for Question 1, which concerned participant occupation. Surveys took approximately 10 min to complete and a total of four emails inviting them to take part in the study were sent to prospective participants. Ethics approval was granted by the University of Wisconsin–Platteville prior to distribution of recruitment emails, and each participant who entered the survey was first asked to provide consent to participate.

## Survey Development

The survey instrument used in this study, which focused on physical educators' and paraeducators' perceptions of role clarity, role ability, and training needs in physical education, was constructed by Tim G. Swenson and Justin A. Haegele. The same 15 items were used across three subscales, and each item represented a role that paraeducators assume within the physical education context. Tables 2 to

4 show a list of the roles. The 15 roles were developed via a four-phase process. First, a battery of potential roles of paraeducators were generated by Swenson and Haegele. Potential roles were drawn from empirical studies conducted on paraeducators in special education (Nicholls, 2017) and physical education (Davis et al., 2007) and from a practitioner manual by Lieberman and Houston-Wilson (2018). Second, the constructed items were sent to an expert panel of four professionals within the fields of adapted physical education and sport and exercise psychology. Revisions and deletions were made based on feedback from the expert panel, leaving 15 roles. Third, the scale was piloted by distribution to 10 general and adapted physical educators, and no additional changes were requested for content clarity or appropriateness. Finally, the remaining 15 roles were independently scrutinized by Swenson and Haegele and consensus was built on finalizing the scope and wording of the items. In total, each survey included 54 questions, including nine demographic questions. Prompts were worded differently for the two groups (i.e., physical educators and paraeducators). The demographic section for physical educators asked participants to report their age, gender, educational attainment, setting context in which they teach, and if paraeducators are involved in their classes. Demographic questions for the paraeducators asked participants to report their age, gender, educational background, years of experience, and training experiences specific to physical education. After the demographic questions, subsections were presented on role clarity, role ability, and training needs, which each utilized the same 15-item question stems.

### *Role Clarity*

For the measurement of role clarity, paraeducators and physical educators were asked to rate the frequency of the role performed in physical education classes on a 4-point Likert scale of 1-*never* (not performed at all), 2-*occasionally* (performed during some class periods), 3-*usually* (performed during most class periods), or 4-*always* (performed during every class period). For the paraeducator group, the following question stem was used for each of the 15 roles: "How often within the physical education class (general or adapted) do I…." Physical educators were asked with the question stem "How often within physical education does a paraeducator…."

### *Role Ability*

Perceived role ability within physical education environments was collected through questions focused on perceived confidence from the perspective of the paraeducators and competence level of the paraeducator from the perspective of the physical educators. This procedure was used to gain perspective of how confident paraeducators perceived they performed their roles in physical education classes and how well physical educators perceived paraeducators performed the same roles. For both groups, participants rated role ability on a 5-point Likert scale of 0-*not applicable*, 1-*not very confident/competent*, 2-*somewhat confident/competent*, 3-*confident/competent*, and 4-*very confident/competent*. For paraeducators, the question stem was "How confident am I in my ability to…" and for physical educators, the question stem was "During physical education, how well does the paraeducator…."

### *Training Needs*

Both participant groups were asked to choose from a 3-point categorical variable scale with the options of 3-*a lot*, 2-*a little*, or 1-*no informal training* to indicate the amount of formal training specific to physical education provided to paraeducators. Formal training was defined as any training conducted in the form of a conference, in-service training, or a presentation. The question stem for the paraeducator survey was "I have received formal training in physical education on how to…." The question stem for physical educators was "The typical paraeducator has received how much training on the following roles?"

## Data Analysis

Two-sample independent *t* tests were conducted in the evaluation of the difference in the means between the two participant groups for each research variable (e.g., perceived role clarity, ability, and training needs). The *p* value used to determine the significance in difference was set at .05. This technique was used as it allowed for the examination of differences between group perspectives.

# Results

Table 1 displays the composite scores regarding the descriptive measures related the measures of this study. Overall mean scores

**Table 1**
*Composite Group Differences in Perceived Role Frequency, Ability, and Training Needs From the Perspectives of Physical Educators and Paraeducators*

| | Physical educators | | Paraeducators | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Subscale** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***df*** | ***t*** | ***p*** |
| Frequency | 2.2 | .47 | 2.4 | .54 | 203 | 2.76 | .006* |
| Ability | 2.5 | .61 | 3.2 | .49 | 184.99 | 9.29 | .000* |
| Training needs | 1.68 | .44 | 1.75 | .57 | 150.24 | 1.15 | .253 |

*$p$ = .05.

were 2.21 ($SD$ = .47), 2.52 ($SD$ = .61), and 1.68 ($SD$ = .44) for the physical educator group and 2.42 ($SD$ = .54), 3.3 ($SD$ = .49), and 1.75 ($SD$ = .57) for the paraeducator group for role clarity, role ability, and training need subsections, respectively. Results of the $t$ tests indicated significant differences in group mean scores in role clarity ($p$ = .006) and role ability ($p$ = .000) between physical educators and paraeducators. However, results indicated no significance between the two groups for training needs ($p$ = .253). Cohen's effect size suggests a small significance ($d$ = .14) for the variable of training needs, a moderate significance for role frequency ($d$ = .39), and a high practical significance ($d$ = 1.27) for role ability. To account for the impact of the missing data, Little's MCAR (Missing Completely at Random) test was conducted within SPSS. Deletion of case by case for each analysis was executed during $t$ tests of participant role in regard to each research variable (clarity, ability, and training needs).

## Role Clarity

Further analyses were conducted for further understanding of differences within each subsection. Within the role clarity subsection, the role in which both groups perceived that paraeducators performed most frequently was ensuring students are safe when participating in activities ($M$ = 3.30, $SD$ = .87 for physical educators; $M$ = 3.76, $SD$ = .83 for paraeducators). Similarly, both groups rated the roles of escorting students to and from the gymnasium

($M$ = 2.96, $SD$ = .93 for physical educators; $M$ = 3.01, $SD$ = 1.06 for paraeducators) and providing prompting for students with disabilities ($M$ = 2.69, $SD$ = .82 for physical educators; $M$ = 3.13, $SD$ = .94 for paraeducators) as frequently performed. The roles with the lowest mean score between groups, thus indicating the most ambiguity of performance by paraeducators, were sharing potential IEP (Individualized Education Plan) ideas for students with disabilities with the physical educator ($M$ = 1.65, $SD$ = .77), assisting with assessments of students physical skills during physical education ($M$ = 1.60, $SD$ = .72), and assisting the physical educator with adapting activities for students with disabilities ($M$ = 1.24, $SD$ = .54).

Overall, results indicated a significant group mean difference in the scores of perceived role clarity for seven of the 15 roles identified between the paraeducator group ($M$ = 2.2, $SD$ = .47) and the physical educator group ($M$ = 2.4, $SD$ = .54), $p$ = .006. Table 2 presents differences in roles between groups. It should also be noted that paraeducators' scores were higher than those of physical educators for 13 of the 15 roles, with the role of assisting students only with disabilities scoring higher within the physical educator group (2.62 vs. 2.46). The overall results indicated a significant difference ($p$ = .006) in physical educators' and paraeducators' perceptions of the clarity of the roles utilized by paraeducators in physical education environments.

## Role Ability

Overall, results indicated a significant difference in all 15 roles studied. Paraeducators' ratings of their perceived ability to perform each role were consistently higher than that of the physical educators, providing evidence of a disconnect in the perception of role ability between these two groups. In terms of how paraeducators rated their own competence level in performance of the roles, escorting students to and from the gymnasium received the highest overall score ($M$ = 3.4, $SD$ = .75). This was followed by the roles of ensuring students are safe when participating in activities ($M$ = 3.14, $SD$ = .82) and assisting only with students with disabilities ($M$ = 3.00, $SD$ = .71). Similarly, physical educators expressed that paraeducators perform the roles of escorting students to and from the gymnasium ($M$ = 3.40, $SD$ = .75), ensuring students are safe when participating in activities ($M$ = 3.14, $SD$ = .82), and assisting only with students

**Table 2**
*Means, Standard Deviations, and p Values of Role Clarity of Paraeducators in Physical Education Environments*

| | Physical educators *n* = 118 | | Paraeducators *n* = 87 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Role** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***p*** |
| Escorting students to and from gym | 2.96[a] | .93 | 3.01[a] | 1.06 | .485 |
| Provide 1-on-1 instruction | 2.57 | .83 | 2.90 | 1.00 | .011* |
| Assist PE instructor with planning | 1.24[b] | .53 | 1.30[b] | .61 | .454 |
| Providing prompting (*physical, verbal, visual*) | 2.69[a] | .82 | 3.13[a] | .94 | .001* |
| Providing demonstrations | 2.24 | .77 | 2.51 | .97 | .023* |
| Assist with adapting | 1.93 | .85 | 2.33 | 1.04 | .003* |
| Providing IEP ideas | 1.65[b] | .77 | 1.80[b] | .87 | .197 |
| Charting behaviors | 2.04 | .88 | 2.18 | 1.13 | .317 |
| Assisting with assessment of skills | 1.60[b] | .72 | 1.59[b] | .83 | .889 |
| Assist only with students with disabilities | 2.62 | .89 | 2.46 | 1.10 | .249 |
| Assist students without disabilities | 1.99 | .76 | 2.28 | .89 | .011* |
| Ensure students are safe | 3.30[a] | .87 | 3.67[a] | .83 | .002* |
| Contribute ideas for all students | 1.79 | .81 | 2.03 | .96 | .049* |
| Implement behavior management techniques | 2.53 | .80 | 2.69 | 1.01 | .214 |
| Discussion with PE teachers prior to class | 2.00 | .87 | 2.14 | .95 | .245 |
| Overall role frequency | 2.2 | .47 | 2.4 | .54 | .006* |

[a] Roles with top 3 highest means per group. [b] Roles with top 3 lowest mean per group.

*$p = .05$.

with disabilities ($M$ = 3.00, $SD$ = .71) with the highest competence. Results showed that physical educators perceived that paraeducators performed with the least amount of competence the skills of assisting the physical educator with planning ($M$ = 1.60, $SD$ = .82), sharing potential IEP ideas for students with disabilities with the physical educator ($M$ = 1.90, $SD$ = .87), and assisting with assessment of students' physical skills ($M$ = 1.90, $SD$ = .87)

### Training Needs

Results of this subsection indicated training needs of both physical educators and paraeducators assisting within physical education environments to be a need through the perceptions of both study participant groups. The average mean, on a 3-point scale, was 1.75 for paraeducators and 1.68 for physical educators. The average score for training needs displayed a range of 1.98 to 1.26 for the physical educator group and 2.2 to 1.27 for the paraeducator group. Both groups rated the lowest the role of assisting the physical educator with planning. The area of training needs also revealed that both groups differed on how much training needs to be provided to paraeducators, with physical educators having a higher mean in three of the 15 roles (i.e., escorting students to and from the gymnasium, assisting only students with disabilities, and ensuring students participate safely in activities). Results from this subsection differ from other areas of the study in that paraeducators' scores in role frequency and ability were higher for each role than those of the physical educators.

## Discussion

This study explored paraeducators' perceived roles and competencies in physical education from the perspectives of both paraeducators and physical educators. Research has suggested that paraeducators have an ambiguous understanding of the specific roles they should assume during physical education (Bryan et al., 2013; Davis et al., 2007). This ambiguity may arise from many factors, such as a lack of preparation of physical educators to work with paraeducators or inconsistency of expectations between paraeducators and physical educators within physical education environments (Bryan et al., 2013; Maher, 2016). The findings of this study support this sentiment, as significant differences were found between physical educators and paraeducators in their perceptions of paraeducators'

performance of various roles (frequency and ability) in the physical education environment. As such, it is clear that there are differences between what paraeducators believe they do and how well they do it, and what and how well physical educators believe paraeducators do them. This section contextualizes the results from this study within the three research questions.

## Role Clarity

Findings from this study suggest that paraeducators tend to perceive that they perform most roles more often than physical educators believe they do, which casts a problematic disconnect regarding the clarity of the roles to be carried out in the physical education environment. The significance of this finding may lay with paraeducators' job satisfaction and the inextricable link it has to the need for role clarity (Jones & Bender, 1993). That is, the more precisely defined a job role and the associated role expectations are, the higher the level of job satisfaction and the fewer chances of emotional exhaustion and burnout (Giangreco, Edelman, & Broer, 2001; Shyman, 2010). As such, providing clear expectations of roles for paraeducators may not only reduce the chance of burnout but also improve the chance of job satisfaction. Unfortunately, in this study it appeared that there was a disconnect between between physical educators and paraeducators in their perceptions of paraeducators' roles in physical education contexts, which may contribute to less clearly understood roles and associate issues.

Among the roles discussed in this study, keeping students safe was the most frequently reported by both physical educators and paraeducators (see Table 2). The findings of this study support prior assertions that paraeducators are utilized often in physical education to keep students with disabilities safe (Bryan et al., 2013; Haegele et al., 2019), yet paraeducators perceived that they perform this role significantly more often than physical educators feel they do. Because of the dynamic environment that is inherent within physical education environments, physical safety of all students is of utmost importance (Bryan et al., 2013; Maher, 2016). However, if the primary role of the paraeducator is to only emphasize the safety of students with disabilities, there may be lost opportunities for paraeducators to contribute to the learning and improvement of students' skills across the psychomotor, cognitive, and affective domains. It is also

important to note that overprotection associated with paraeducators in physical education is possible, and not an ideal outcome, from the perspectives of those with disabilities (Haegele et al., 2019). Rather than focusing specifically on safety, properly utilized paraeducators can be more effective in terms of student engagement in physical education when serving a multitude of purposes, not just a singular one.

## Role Ability

Another key finding from this study was the differences between physical educators' and paraeducators' perceptions regarding the paraeducators' ability to perform specific roles within physical education. Paraeducators consistently rated their ability to perform the 15 identified roles significantly higher than did the physical educators (see Table 3). This outcome aligns with research on paraeducators' preparedness for assisting in physical education (Davis et al., 2007; Pederson et al., 2014) in that paraeducators have felt prepared to perform assigned duties within physical education despite receiving little to no training. Despite the lack of training, paraeducators reported being assured in their performance of these roles as the average for this subscale was 3.3 compared to 2.52 from the physical educators (see Table 4). This finding was interesting given that research in special education contexts has indicated that paraeducators who had received minimal to no training had little understanding of how to perform certain roles, which led to feelings of disrespect (Giangreco, Edelman, & Broer, 2001). This phenomenon has several possible explanations. First, although paraeducators reported feeling confident in their abilities, they still may not have performed those tasks correctly. Thus, incorrect practice may justify the teachers' hesitance with the paraeducators' abilities. Second, the discrepancy in scores may be due to the physical educators' lack of training in evaluation of paraeducators within their classroom. The role of evaluating paraeducators typically is reserved for special educator teachers or directors of special education. Whether or not this is the case in physical education settings, if evaluation of paraeducators is going to be a role expected of physical educators, it would be beneficial for physical educators to received training specific to this process. Finally, it is feasible that paraeducators value the tasks that they perform in physical education as easier or simpler

**Table 3**
*Means, Standard Deviations, and p Values of Role Ability of Paraeducators in Physical Education Environments*

| | Physical educators $n = 104$ | | Paraeducators $n = 83$ | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Role** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***p*** |
| Escorting students to and from gym | 3.40[a] | .75 | 3.88[a] | .33 | < .001* |
| Provide 1-on-1 instruction | 2.86 | .78 | 3.52 | .65 | < .001* |
| Assist PE instructor with planning | 1.60[b] | .82 | 2.63[b] | .90 | < .001* |
| Providing prompting *(physical, verbal, visual)* | 2.81 | .84 | 3.66[a] | .52 | < .001* |
| Providing demonstrations | 2.37 | .87 | 3.33 | .78 | < .001* |
| Assist with adapting | 2.17 | .82 | 3.10 | .86 | < .001* |
| Providing IEP ideas | 1.98[b] | .87 | 2.69[b] | .97 | < .001* |
| Charting behaviors | 2.52 | .92 | 3.33 | .78 | < .001* |
| Assisting with assessment of skills | 2.10[b] | .93 | 2.90[b] | .90 | < .001* |
| Assist only with students with disabilities | 3.00[a] | .71 | 3.50 | .55 | < .001* |
| Assist students without disabilities | 2.62 | .89 | 3.40 | .73 | < .001* |
| Ensure students are safe | 3.14[a] | .82 | 3.72[a] | .48 | < .001* |
| Contribute ideas for all students | 2.16 | .92 | 3.02 | .86 | < .001* |
| Implement behavior management techniques | 2.73 | .80 | 3.23 | .80 | < .001* |
| Discussion with PE teachers prior to class | 2.32 | .89 | 3.20 | .79 | < .001* |
| Overall role ability | 2.52 | .61 | 3.3 | .49 | < .001* |

[a] Roles with top 3 highest means per group. [b] Roles with top 3 lowest mean per group.

*$p = .05$.

**Table 4**
*Means, Standard Deviations, and p Values of Training Needs of Paraeducators in Physical Education Environments*

| | Physical educators *n* = 97 | | Paraeducators *n* = 82 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Role** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***M*** | ***SD*** | ***p*** |
| Escorting students to and from gym | 1.77 | .67 | 1.63 | .78 | .20 |
| Provide 1-on-1 instruction | 1.98[a] | .69 | 2.18[a] | .83 | .08 |
| Assist PE instructor with planning | 1.26[b] | .49 | 1.27[b] | .52 | .92 |
| Providing prompting *(physical, verbal, visual)* | 1.92 | .69 | 2.22[a] | .79 | .01* |
| Providing demonstrations | 1.59 | .63 | 1.78 | .79 | .07 |
| Assist with adapting | 1.51 | .61 | 1.60 | .70 | .36 |
| Providing IEP ideas | 1.44 | .63 | 1.61 | .77 | .11 |
| Charting behaviors | 1.67 | .69 | 1.80 | .79 | .23 |
| Assisting with assessment of skills | 1.36[b] | .54 | 1.49[b] | .67 | .16 |
| Assist only with students with disabilities | 2.13[a] | .70 | 2.04 | .83 | .46 |
| Assist students without disabilities | 1.53 | .56 | 1.72 | .76 | .06 |
| Ensure students are safe | 2.02 | .71 | 2.01 | .87 | .94 |
| Contribute ideas for all students | 1.39[b] | .51 | 1.51 | .65 | .13 |
| Implement behavior management techniques | 2.04[a] | .71 | 2.05[a] | .77 | .95 |
| Discussion with PE teachers prior to class | 1.45 | .65 | 1.46[b] | .65 | .92 |
| Overall training needs | 1.68 | .44 | 1.75 | .57 | .253 |

[a] Roles with top 3 highest means per group. [b] Roles with top 3 lowest mean per group.

*$p = .05$.

than in other settings and therefore view themselves as more capable of completing these tasks when considering them in comparison to tasks in other class settings.

## Training Needs

The final key discovery from this study was findings associated with training needs, which are well aligned with those from prior studies (e.g., Davis et al., 2007). Of the three foci of this study (i.e., role clarity, role ability, and training needs), the lack of training stood out as an area of agreement between the two participant groups. That is, both the physical educator group and paraeducator group acknowledged a need for formal training specific to physical education for paraeducators. More specifically, the following four roles demonstrated the least amount of difference in the participant groups' perceptions of the need for paraeducator training: implementing behavior management techniques ($p = .95$), ensuring students are safe ($p = .94$), discussion with the physical educator prior to class ($p = .92$), and assisting the physical educator with planning ($p = .92$). These findings support research in special education contexts that has identified that roles of ensuring students are safe and implementing behavior management techniques stood out as areas in which paraeducators wanted more training and professional development (Riggs & Mueller, 2001). Specific to the physical education classroom, the roles of assisting the physical educator with planning and discussions with the physical educator prior to class are notable as the paraeducators indicated a need for more training in these roles than in the past (Davis et al., 2007).

Results pertaining to training needs can have important implications for the way in which students experience physical education. That is, research has shown that a lack of paraeducator training can lead to negative student experiences within physical education classrooms (Bryan et al., 2013, Haegele et al., 2019). These negative experiences include, for example, being excluded during activities and experiencing unwelcome interactions from peers (Bryan et al., 2013). Additionally, students have stated specifically that paraeducators were routinely disengaged from physical education class as a result of unclear role expectations (Haegele et al., 2019). Providing training specific to physical education and insights into how to provide an appropriate level of student support can have

a positive effect on the level of participation by students with disabilities. Coupled with improving the experiences of students with disabilities in physical education environments, improved training may work to improve the role clarity and ability for paraeducators and thus address each of the concerns addressed in this research. Thus, training may have particular meaning for paraeducators, their students, and their understanding of paraeducators' role and ability to perform their roles in physical education environments.

## Future Research Recommendations

A number of recommendations can be made to further expand research on paraeducator utilization in physical education environments based on this research. First, research should examine the effect of training in physical education contexts on paraeducators and the quality of physical education provided to students with disabilities. Research pertaining to paraeducators (Bryan et al., 2013) has discussed the need for further training and has hypothesized benefits, but little is known about the benefits that can be derived from this training or the frequency or magnitude necessary to garner those benefits. Research has shown that training and clear expectations of roles can help reduce the amount of stress and frustration on behalf of paraeducators in special education contexts (Shyman, 2010); therefore, studying the effects of training specific to the physical education environment is a logical next step.

Furthermore, understanding the effect of paraeducator training (or lack thereof) from the perspective of students with disabilities within physical education is an area of potential research. Research has shown it not uncommon for students with disabilities to be excluded from physical education as a result of safety concerns (Brehahl, 2013; Coates & Vickerman, 2008; Haegele & Kirk, 2018; Haegele & Sutherland, 2015). It is logical to suggest that by receiving more physical education–specific training, paraeducators can gain confidence in their ability to keep students safe while they engage in activities and therefore not need to exclude them from participation. Thus, research examining the effects of paraeducators with training specific to physical education and the overall experiences in physical education for students with disabilities may provide some interesting results.

## Practical Recommendations

One clear practical recommendation derived from this study is that school districts should be encouraged to provide physical education–related training for any newly hired paraeducators as part of their onboarding process. This study has helped identify several specific roles that physical educators and paraeducators believe are critical for future training, which we would recommend adopting. Training could include, but not be limited to, the roles of assisting the physical educator with planning, assisting the physical educator with assessments, and communicating with the physical educator prior to class. Each of these roles was cited by the two groups in this study as having not only low levels of role clarity (see Table 2) but also training provided (see Table 4), yet these very roles have been suggested as best practices within practitioner-based journals (Lieberman & Houston-Wilson, 2018; Presidential Youth Fitness Program, 2013). In addition, research has indicated that the most prominent method of training that paraeducators receive is "on the job," meaning that it takes place in real time and after they have begun working directly with students (Carter et al., 2009). However, we recommend providing this training during the onboarding process because clear expectations of roles and how to perform them ahead of time could improve overall role clarity, which has been shown to have a positive effect on preventing emotional exhaustion among paraeducators (Shyman, 2010).

## Limitations

Several limitations should be noted from this study. First, the results of this study are subject to response bias as it relied on individuals' self-reporting frequency, ability, and training needs in physical education environments. Second, study participants originated from only one state, and results should not be generalized to all paraeducators and physical educators working within physical education environments nationally or internationally. It is encouraged that future research examine a wider scope geographically (i.e., a national level) to improve the generalizability of future studies. Next, there was no working relationship between the paraeducator group and the physical educator group; therefore, specific assessment on paraeducators' performance limits the overall generalizability of the role

ability results. Finally, a significant amount of data from the physical educator group was missing within the role ability and training needs sections. Missing information may cause bias to the outcomes of this study (Kang, 2013).

## Conclusion

Teacher shortages and federal legislation have led to an increase in the use of paraeducators with many educational environments, including physical education (Giangreco, Edelman, Broer, & Doyle, 2001). Though paraeducators are one service that helps provide access to physical education for many students with disabilities, there has been inconsistency regarding the expected role and responsibilities they are to assume in this specific classroom, which has led to role confusion and at times emotional exhaustion (Shyman, 2010). Moreover, training specific to the physical education environment for paraeducators is short in supply but high in demand (Bolen & Thomas, 1997; Davis et al., 2007; Maher, 2016; Haegele et al., 2019).

Paraeducators and physical educators demonstrated significant differences in the paraeducators' frequency and ability to perform various roles in the context of physical education environments. However, both groups agreed that paraeducators receive little training specific to assisting students with disabilities in physical education. Providing training unique to physical education to paraeducators may help improve the learning environment for students with disabilities, improve the clarity of the roles assigned to the paraeducator, and enhance not only the ability in performing physical education–specific roles but also possibly the job satisfaction of the paraeducator when assisting in physical education.

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PEDAGOGY

# Reconnecting Dance and Physical Education Through Dance Science

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## Abstract

*This article traces the development of dance as an academic discipline from its infancy in physical education programs to its present state, noting the significance of the burgeoning field of dance science and how it is a catalyst for the reconnecting of dance to physical education. The academic discipline of dance originated in the early 20th century in American academe, particularly in women's physical education programs. By the 1920s, dance emerged as a discrete discipline with Margaret H'Doubler's founding of the first baccalaureate degree in dance at the University of Wisconsin. By the 1960s, the academic discipline of dance had shifted from its original mission of movement education for everyone to focus more on professional dance training for highly skilled performers. This philosophical shift saw many dance programs move from homes in physical education to the fine arts. During this time, dance also saw an increasing disciplinary emphasis on choreographic and performance projects, a trend still evident today. Dance science began to develop as an academic field in the early 1980s, and shortly after publications and conferences in the area were born. The professional association the International Association for Dance Medicine and Science was founded in 1990. With dance science's emergence, dance and physical education began to realign, albeit often in departments of kinesiology. Today, with the development of dance science as a burgeoning field, dance and kinesiology are coming full circle, rejoining through their historical roots.*

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Physical education and dance have rich histories in American academe. This paper discusses brief histories of both disciplines, with a focus on the divergence of dance from physical education throughout the 20th century, and later the convergence of the two disciplines via the burgeoning field of dance science during the latter part of the 20th century and into the early years of the 21st century. Dance science, a subdiscipline of dance, combines elements of exercise science and sports medicine and incorporates somatic practices with a focus on dancer health and wellness. The value in noting the reconnection of the disciplines of dance and physical education lies in a recognition of how dance is broadening its discipline to include a scientific vein of study that complements existing areas of the discipline of dance such as performance and choreography, dance education, and dance studies. Further, the development of dance science has a meaningful contribution to dancer wellness—often promoting dancers' career longevity—but at the same time focuses the attention of scientific scholarship back to its origin in physical education, albeit often in modern-day departments of kinesiology. Reconnecting to physical education serves to strengthen dance's place in American academe, enhances its scientific scholarship, and provides additional support for both disciplines across the academy.

## Physical Education in American Academe

From the initial departments of physical culture in the 1800s, with their emphases on hygiene and physical development to the evolution of modern-day departments of kinesiology, physical education's history is robust and well documented (Bucher, 1952; Mechikoff, 2020). The term "physical education" initially was used by physicians in antebellum America to denote the specifics of teaching the "Laws of Health" or, more specifically, "how one's physical body worked" rather than just "exercising the body" (Berryman, 2010, p. 196). Publications in the 1800s such as Caldwell's (1834) *Thoughts on Physical Education* and Warren's (1846) *Physical Education and Preservation of Health* are examples of the guiding sources of early American physical education. Various systems of calisthenics and gymnastics gained prominence in 19-century America (Cazers & Miller, 2000). In 1832, the first book concerning calisthenics for women, written by a woman going by the pseudonym "M," often attributed to Catharine Beecher, was published (O'Connor, 2010).

Irrespective if Beecher were the actual author, her efforts ultimately resulted in "a philosophy of action to shape a new American woman" (Vertinsky, 1979, p. 39). She set her system of calisthenics to music, a precursor to formal dance courses, and her "calisthenics took root in the higher education system, creating a new vision of American womanhood" (Weber, 2009, p. 16).

By 1885, the physical education movement became professionalized with the establishment of the Association for the Advancement of Physical Education (AAPE). A year later, the organization added the word "American" to its name (AAAPE), adopted a formal constitution, and remained as such until 1903, when it became the American Physical Education Association (APEA; "AAHPERD Presidential," 1985). The members, particularly the leaders, of the organization during this time were mostly physicians. Berryman (2010) noted the organization was "founded by, dominated by, and presided over by M.D.s" (p. 196). At this time in American academe, physical education's purpose was the education of the whole individual—mind, body, and spirit—with courses in hygiene and physical activity, primarily gymnastics, incorporating various systems of the time (e.g., Jahn's German, Ling's Swedish, or one of the eponymous systems of Beecher, Lewis, Hitchcock, or Sargent; Siedentop, 2008). As such, service programs in physical education, also known as basic instruction or activity programs, were a cornerstone to American higher education.

The first such program was established in 1861 at Amherst College in Massachusetts by Edward Hitchcock, Jr., M.D., the first president of the AAPE (Allen, 1969). Soon thereafter other institutions added similar programs, and by the late 1930s, 97% of American colleges and universities required physical education (McCristal & Miller, 1939). The programs developed from gymnastics to being more sports oriented—especially after Naismith's invention of basketball in 1891—and team sports (e.g., basketball, football) and individual sports (e.g., swimming, tennis) dominated the activities being taught during the early part of the 20th century (Mrozek, 1983). The emphasis on sports changed the direction of the physical education movement from being a physician-led endeavor to one involving mostly teachers and coaches. Philosophically, physical education moved more toward Williams's (1930) "education through the

physical" as opposed to the outgrowth of "Muscular Christianity" of the mid-1800s and later McCloy's "education of the physical" (Hackensmith, 1966).

Over the next few decades, especially after the encouragement of Henry's (1964) seminal paper "Physical Education: An Academic Discipline," physical education developed more fully into a traditional academic discipline by expanding its scientific basis with more research on the effects of exercise on the human body. With this impetus, physical education no longer was focused solely on teacher preparation or service programming. Numerous human performance laboratories were developed across the nation, and as such, much research was published on exercise science, leading professionals in physical education to join physicians and other allied health professionals as members of the American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM; Berryman, 2010). At the same time, service programs held steady, with between 84% and 87% of American colleges and universities requiring physical education (Hensley, 2000).

During the latter decades of the 20th century and the first part of the 2000s, required physical education declined in American higher education, yet physical education courses still were offered for credit at many institutions (B. J. Cardinal et al., 2012). During this time, the discipline of physical education on the whole began to change. According to the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance, or AAHPERD (now known as the Society of Health and Physical Educators, or SHAPE America),

> At one time . . . physical education was considered to encompass everything related to the physical well-being of people. It was concerned with physical activity, exercise, dance, sports, athletics, health education, health service, health environment, recreation, outdoor education, and safety. (SHAPE America, n.d.-b)

With the discipline encompassing such a broad range, areas such as exercise science, for example, began to grow and take precedence, and the teacher-preparation program in physical education lost its dominance as the defining area. Other areas such as athletics, dance, health, and recreation, too, sought recognition as separate entities, albeit not all were striving to become distinct academic disciplines.

In the 1990s and the early 2000s, the term "kinesiology" began to take hold as the umbrella term for the discipline (Newell, 1990, 2007), with the traditional title of physical education, rightly or not, being used more for teacher-preparation degrees and service programs. As the momentum grew for "kinesiology" to become the term for the discipline, many professional organizations were renamed to incorporate "kinesiology" into their official names. Essentially, the focus of the discipline, especially as it approached and entered the 21st century, as a whole, returned to its antebellum beginnings in the medical arena and focused more on the "Laws of Health," albeit under the new mantra of "Exercise is Medicine®" (ACSM, n.d.). The traditional academic discipline that Henry championed over half a century earlier had become reality. Over the last century, dance, too, was evolving, growing as its own discipline from its roots in physical education.

## Historical Overview of Dance as an American Academic Discipline

Dance has its origin in women's physical education dating from the early 20th century (Kennard, 1977; Zeigler, 1971) and today is considered "both a physical activity and an art form" (SHAPE America, n.d.-c). While the history of dance as an academic discipline has not been a broad area of scholarly investigation, a few scholars have contributed significantly to the literature (Hagood, 2000, 2008; Kolcio, 2010; Ross, 2000). As an in-depth analysis of the development of dance is outside the scope of this article, this section summarizes the disciplinary development focusing on the elements pertinent to the relationship between dance and physical education and their reconnection through the development of dance science.

Dance's development in American higher education coincided with women's suffrage movements and discourses regarding women's rights (Tomko, 2000). As feminist social movements provoked changes in academe, one of the first significantly affected disciplines was physical education (Park, 1985), and subsequent shifts in policy and perception influenced the evolution of dance as a discrete, female-dominated discipline. Following the Victorian age, in which it generally was considered inappropriate for women to engage in rigorous physical activity, a period of health reform initiated the expansion of opportunities for women's physical education (Vertinsky,

2010). In the first half of the 20th century, and in many places further into the 20th century, men's and women's gymnasia and physical activities were separate—both geographically and in terms of appropriate movement practices (Park, 1985). While men's activities focused on competitive sport, women were encouraged to engage in noncompetitive activities deemed more feminine, such as "aesthetic dancing" (Ross, 2000, p. 64). Influenced by such systems as Delsarte and Dalcroze (Ruyter, 1973), by 1910 most women's colleges offered some form of dancing (Ross, 2000).

The first formalized curriculum in dance was offered in 1913, spearheaded by Gertrude Colby at Columbia University, and in 1926 the first dance major was offered at the University of Wisconsin, Madison under the direction of Margaret H'Doubler (Spiesman, 1960). The early stages of dance in higher education originated with Colby's philosophy of dance as a means of physical education and developed through H'Doubler's keen ability to identify and communicate how dance might fit a university's criteria as an academic discipline (Hagood, 2000). H'Doubler's philosophy about dance education did not promote dance as an art form or a means of professional dance training (Vertinsky, 2010), but rather maintained dance as a means of physical education and creative self-expression (H'Doubler, 1925). In light of H'Doubler's views on professionalism and dance as art, it is interesting to note legendary modern dance icon Martha Graham's first New York performance was in 1927 (Foulkes, 2002), around the same time H'Doubler's program at Wisconsin began offering degrees. Despite H'Doubler's opinions, professional American modern dance and dance as an academic discipline developed in tandem, inevitably overlapping paths and creating interwoven histories.

In 1932, the first American professional academic association for dance, the National Section on Dance, of the then APEA, was established (Kinderfather & Hearn, 2010), serving as a means of connection for dance educators. Dance, in various forms, especially with the era's revival of folk dance (Hayden, 1936), continued to be a mainstay in women's physical education through the Second World War. Following the war, progressive educational reform lauded the value of creativity and individuality in education (Cremin, 1959), and modern dance—which was quickly becoming the *lingua franca*

of college dance—was viewed as an appropriate incubator and outlet for creativity, particularly for women (Oliver, 1992).

Perhaps inevitably, some dance educators were more interested in teaching dance as an art form and thus attempted to disentangle from physical education by associating themselves with professional concert dance, often seeking the influence of professional modern dancers and choreographers (Kriegsman, 1981). The connection to the professional realm of modern dance was strengthened by Martha Hill and the advent of the Bennington Festival (Soares, 2010). A former professional dancer, Hill founded the prestigious dance program at Juilliard in 1951, and it became a model for conservatory dance programs housed in higher education (Olmstead, 2002). Bennington, the first school to offer a baccalaureate degree emphasizing dance as a performing art rather than a form of physical education (Vertinsky, 2010), hosted a series of dance festivals from 1934 to 1942 that became a significant entity in the evolution of academic dance. The festival eventually evolved to become the American Dance Festival (Anderson, 1987), which is still in existence today.

Although the cohort of professionals at the Bennington Festival likely did not realize it at the time, they helped shape a professionally oriented modern dance approach to dance in higher education that remains discernible today (Murray, 2018). Ross (2000) wrote, "For any art form in education, the context of whether one is training students to be artists or training students for life profoundly shapes the whole enterprise of the classroom" (p. 4). Given the ever-more prevalent goal of training modern dance artists, the dance curricula shifted away from the wide variety of dance styles that had once been offered to a somewhat diminished sampling of chiefly modern dance. A 1940 survey of 120 colleges and universities illustrates this point: "Fifty-three colleges offered the modern dance, forty-seven colleges gave folk dancing, thirty-four colleges presented ballroom, thirty-two taught tap, three presented Denishawn, two offered ballet, two gave Dalcroze Eurythmics, five taught clog" (Terry, 1965, p. 30). The survey serves as a snapshot revealing an array of dance styles not often seen in the homogeneous dance curricula of contemporary American higher education, where the available technique courses are made up of almost exclusively of modern dance (McCarthy-

Brown, 2014) and, as a "supplement," ballet (Hawkins, 1965/2008, p. 55).

With no national standards or cohesive vision, "dance curricula developed haphazardly" throughout the 1950s and 1960s (Hagood, 2000, p. 168), and the relationship between physical education and dance became strained. This tension is most evident in a 1964 article titled "Dance as an Art Form in Physical Education: A Symposium by Selected Physical Educators." Within this collection of published observations, eight august educators argued that dance is an integral component of physical education, with some going so far to state that dance "is the basic phase of a well-rounded [physical education] program . . . [and] the *sine qua non* of the field" (p. 19). Each contributor mentioned shared facilities as a significant issue, signaling the logistical practicalities affecting how these disciplines were evolving. One educator stated bluntly, "I suspect that if the dance teachers are getting fed up with the confusion and stupidity involved in fitness programs, football, or marching, one couldn't blame them a bit for . . . seeking a more refined home life" (p. 20).

In the 1960s and 1970s, a dance boom occurred in which many programs emerged (Sussmann, 1984). This boom was likely the result of social and political contexts of the time including government-sponsored international tours for professional companies (Prevots, 2012), President John F. Kennedy's overt support of the arts, the 1964 congressional establishment of the Federal Arts Advisory Board (Wyszomirski, 2004), and the Ford Foundation's financial support of ballet companies (Garafola, 2002). These sorts of authoritative nods to the arts provided a sense of credibility to dance and improved its reputation in higher education.

With respect to dance in higher education, in 1962 the first Department of Dance housed within a College of Arts was founded at the University of California, Los Angeles (Hagood, 2000). Academic conferences focusing on dance began, with one titled "Dance as a Discipline" held in 1964 in Boulder, Colorado (Kolcio, 2010, p. 44), and a two-part "Developmental Conference on Dance" held at the University of California, Los Angeles in 1966 and 1967 (Hagood, 2008, p. 34). The Committee (later Congress) on Research in Dance (CORD) and the Council of Dance Administrators were also formed in the 1960s, and professional degrees—bachelor of fine arts (BFA)

and master of fine arts (MFA)—were developed (Hagood, 2000). Dance professionals outside of academe began to acknowledge the relevance of dance as a field of study, and *Dance Magazine*—a popular trade magazine for the profession—began publishing a series of articles titled "College or Career for Dancers?" (Stodelle, 1964).

As dance expanded its foothold in higher education and increasingly focused on professional performance preparation, there were, of course, implications regarding the disproportionate female population of the discipline. Vertinsky (2010) argued dance's lingering connections with physical education "feminized dance and perpetuated gender divisions" within the discipline, remarking that while the study of dance in higher education provided a career path for women, the discipline's long association with physical education ultimately resulted in "a subordinate status for female dance educators" (p. 1125). Another take comes from Jane M. Bonbright (2000), the founding executive director of the National Dance Education Organization, who contended that legislative efforts connected to equal opportunity for the sexes served as a catalyst for the separation of dance from physical education. She asserted that up until the 1970s "most university dance programs continued to be affiliated with women's physical education programs," but legislative efforts such as Title IX of the Education Amendment Act of 1972 led to coeducational physical education programs and "as the content and pedagogy of dance became more defined there came a corresponding realignment for dance" (p. 31). This realignment was with "newly created 'colleges of fine arts,' [because] . . . dance defined itself as arts-related [and focused on] the creative and artistic processes in dance" (p. 31).

In higher education, recurring debates pit ideas about professionalism against notions of dance education as an aesthetic component of a liberal arts educational experience. As dance's curriculum shifted away from physical education and increasingly emphasized professional training, the mission fell more squarely on the development of highly skilled dancers and creative inquiry through choreographic projects rather than the physical education mission of educating the student body through dance. In some colleges, this realignment resulted in fine arts dance programs abdicating the role of providing dance experiences for nondance majors to physical education

programs, many of which continued offering dance activity courses. The abdication may be due to limited resources or a lack of interest on the part of dance program faculty. However, the situation might be viewed as akin to intercollegiate athletics, in which only highly skilled performers receive training. Regardless, debate about the role of dance in higher education still resurfaces regularly and, regrettably, often creates conflict between scholars and artists working side by side in the academy.

As of December 2021, 354 dance programs of some form are housed in colleges and universities across the United States (NCES, n.d.), up from 295 in 2015 (Robinson, 2016). The expansion of the discipline is evident in the growth of graduate programs and the development of research in historical, theoretical, pedagogical, and creative work (Hagood, 2000). Fortunately, as a reflection of America's ever-changing demographics, areas of focus once again have begun to expand to include varieties of dance other than modern dance and ballet, although, admittedly, the majority of programs still are modern dance focused (Hanna, 1999), in what Kerr-Berry (2010) referred to as a "pervasive curricula that does not move beyond a Eurocentric perspective" (p. 3). As dance in higher education has developed, the ideals and philosophies of the early modern dance educators have continued, and their notions of dance have been perpetuated through generations of dance educators (Hagood, 2000).

## Dance's Reconnection With Physical Education

The disciplines of physical education and dance have diverged over time, and each has evolved considerably, but the connection has never completely dissolved. This connection is never more apparent than in basic instruction programs. The percentage of American institutions of higher education that require physical education has dropped to roughly 39.5% (B. J. Cardinal et al., 2012). Nonetheless, many institutions still offer physical education courses for credit, including dance courses, in which the development of the whole individual, in the name of wellness, is stressed. These dance course offerings vary in genre (e.g., ballet; jazz; tap; folk; ballroom; salsa; hip-hop; and fitness-style dances such as aerobic dance and Zumba, which are available to any student). Prestigious schools of the Ivy League such as Dartmouth College (n.d.), Columbia University (n.d.), and Cornell University (n.d.), and leading public institutions

such as the University of California, Berkeley (n.d.), the University of Virginia (n.d.), the University of Utah (n.d.), and two of the largest universities in the nation, Texas A&M University (n.d.-b) and The Ohio State University (n.d.), as examples, offer numerous courses in physical education, or kinesiology, via basic instruction programs, often including dance courses, to their respective student bodies.

When universities have separate programs dedicated solely to dance and another program dedicated to physical education (or kinesiology or a similar name), often more dance courses are available to the student body through the physical education area. As an example, at the University of California, Berkeley (n.d.), more courses in dance are offered through physical education than via the Department of Theater, Dance, and Performance Studies, indicating how physical education service programs frequently are the conduit for students to access dance. A similar situation exists at the University of Utah (n.d.), which is home to one of the oldest and most prestigious dance programs in the United States, in which numerous dance courses are offered in the university's Department of Kinesiology, but few nonmajor dance courses are offered through the School of Dance. One of the main reasons for this is that the dance programs at Utah are available to students by audition only, meaning that degree-seeking students studying dance as a major must be highly skilled performers. While Utah's School of Dance offers a few courses in ballet and modern dance for nonmajors, the number of sections is minimal because of facility availability as well as the possible lack of interest in the school's faculty to teach low-skilled beginners. On the other hand, the Department of Kinesiology offers numerous types of dance courses in its service program (e.g., hip-hop, ballroom) and dance-related activities (e.g., barre tone, Zumba; University of Utah, n.d.).

These facts indicate just how prescient leading scholars in physical education were over 50 years ago. When asked, should dance as an art form be included in the physical education curriculum? Powell responded, "If dance is in the fine arts department, many students will never experience dance as an art education form" ("Dance," 1964, pp. 20–21). The scholars noted that the pressure on facilities, budgets, and faculty, especially if dance were removed from physical education, could limit dance being offered. Another panelist warned,

"Physical educators must not fail to embrace the totality of movement and must promote this performing art [dance] as an integral part of the physical education curriculum" (pp. 21, 54). Conversely, some dance faculty reject the idea of dance being a "physical activity" course. Gross (1989) stated categorically,

> Dance educators have objected to the listing of dance courses under the physical education "activity" heading for years . . . When dance courses are offered as physical education classes, the impression of dance as a mere physical education "activity" is generated. (p. 79)

Statements such as these indicate an ongoing disagreement that dance and physical education somehow must be dichotomic entities, with one serving as an elite art form worthy of focused academic inquiry and the other seeing dance as an activity enhancing the physical development of all individuals. Oddly, this view runs counter to SHAPE America's (n.d.-a) mission "to advance professional practice and promote research related to health and physical education, physical activity, dance and sport" (Our Mission section, para. 1). Fortunately, most in academe view dance as both a physical activity and an art, and today, many American institutions offer both dance programs, with focused study on advanced skills and academic inquiry, and physical education service programs that offer courses in dance, fulfilling the demand for the availability of dance for all.

At times, dance and physical education (or kinesiology, movement sciences, etc.) still are housed within the same academic unit in American colleges and universities. One of the best examples can be found at the University of Idaho (n.d.), whose Department of Movement Sciences houses baccalaureate degrees in dance and physical education, a minor in dance, and an assortment of graduate degrees as well as a basic instruction program that includes "dance activity courses offered to all U of I students to promote and advance interest in a variety of dance styles" (para. 3). Another example is the Department of Kinesiology and Dance at New Mexico State University (NMSU, n.d.). Of particular interest, NMSU's department confers baccalaureate degrees in dance, with concentrations in contemporary dance, DanceSport (i.e., a competitive sport originally

involving ballroom dancing but now including multiple genres of dance), and Spanish dance.

Though the trend for dance programs to align with fine arts is evident in most American universities today, in some institutions dance has begun to reassociate with physical education, albeit now typically in areas labeled "kinesiology" or "exercise science," as a result of the development of dance medicine and science. According to the Harkness Center for Dance Injuries (n.d.), dance medicine and science is defined thus:

> Medicine is the science and art of preventing and alleviating or curing disease. Dance medicine and science is the application of that realm to the specific life and body of the dancer. As a discipline it investigates the causes of dance injuries, promotes their care, prevention and safe post-rehabilitation return to dance, and explores the 'how' of dance movement. Some scientific concerns include the biomechanical, physiological, and neuromotor aspects of dance, nutrition, psychological issues, and the body therapies and somatics area. (para. 1)

While the field developed significantly in the 1970s and 1980s, little is written about the evolution of dance medicine and science (M. K. Cardinal, 2009; Ho, 2018; Ryan, 1997). Particularly lacking is inquiry regarding the history and expansion of dance medicine and science in relation to higher education. While the label "dance medicine and science" is used to encompass a range of issues pertaining to dancer health, Ryan (1997) argued the "medicine" component deals primarily with care by physicians, which makes it more akin to sports medicine in which physicians and other allied health professionals care for athletes. Both Ryan and Ho (2018) wrote from the perspective of dance medicine as a medical subspecialty; however, Ho noted that although the specialization focuses on the treatment and prevention of dance injuries, it is not "limited to the musculoskeletal injuries" common to dancers, but rather includes consideration of both "medical and psychological components, such as psychological impact of dance injuries, dancer burnout, and career transition" (p. 2). The "science" component seems to fall more squarely in line with the discipline of kinesiology, more specifically exercise science, and is generally a more common approach in academia (M. K. Cardinal,

2009). Dunn (1993) wrote that the term "dance science" was first adopted in the mid-1980s, stemming from conversations at a 1983 National Dance Association section of the AAHPERD conference (M. K. Cardinal, 2009).

The roots of dance medicine and science initiated in the early 1970s when a small group of physicians acknowledged a need among the population of professional dancers for health care that considered the unique medical challenges of dance. This group of physicians, many with sports medicine backgrounds, but little or no background in dance, committed themselves to the care of dancers, often by partnering with large dance companies (Ho, 2018). The growing popularity of sports medicine influenced an increased interest in dance medicine and science in the 1970s, and a significant identity issue for the burgeoning field arose: Would it align with sports medicine or performing arts medicine, nascently developing fields? Ho (2018) wrote,

> This was a fraught question because physicians and dancers had differing opinions. The dance medicine pioneers initially saw the dancers as more similar to athletes than instrumental and vocal musicians or visual artists. Dancers self-identify as artists—athletic artists that perform with great physicality, but not just an athlete, and dance is not a sport. Dancers thus could not be clearly grouped with either sports medicine or performing arts medicine. Ultimately, dance medicine formed its own entity, but historically has closer ties with sports medicine because the majority of the medical dance medicine pioneers already had an affiliation with sports medicine. (pp. 18–19)

While there is a lack of literature that clearly analyzes how these trends developed (and are continuing to develop and evolve) in higher education, M. K. Cardinal (2009) wrote that higher education "made a tremendous contribution to the growing fields of dance medicine and science in the development of academic scholars, educators, and related professionals" (p. 32). In considering the development of dance medicine and science in relationship to higher education, the American Dance Festival (ADF) is particularly meaningful given its reach and influence on dance in higher education. From 1934 to the

present, ADF has been a locus for dance performances and dance classes and a site for conferences, symposia, and seminars (Anderson, 1987). ADF began offering dance medicine courses in the mid-1970s, and when the festival changed its location from Connecticut College to Duke University in 1978, the fact that the campus had a university hospital created an opportunity for physicians interested in working with dancers and for the dance community interested in increasing awareness about dancer health. University dance students and faculty members from across the country convened at ADF and took new ideas about dancer health back to their home institutions, thus increasing awareness and interest in coursework incorporating topics such as anatomy, kinesiology, nutrition, and injury prevention (M. K. Cardinal, 2009), for dancers.

Another distinct connection to higher education is through professional organizations and research publications. A group of professionals interested in dance medicine and science formed a committee within NDA/AAHPERD in 1990, and that same year the organization published a special series on dance science in the *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance* (M. K. Cardinal, 2009). Research publications indicate the area's development in higher education, and from the late 1970s through the 1990s, the literature produced demonstrates a growing interest in dancer health and wellness. Early peer-reviewed research publications included *Kinesiology and Medicine for Dance* (1978–1994) and *Impulse: The International Journal of Dance Science, Medicine, and Education* (1993-1996). In 1991, the International Association for Dance Medicine and Science (IADMS) was founded by an international group of practitioners, dance educators, and dance scientists. IADMS holds annual conferences and has produced the peer-reviewed *Journal of Dance Medicine and Science* since 1997 (IADMS, n.d.-a). This journal has served as the primary outlet for research in the area, and the publication has helped raise awareness about dancer health both within the profession and in higher education. Further, IADMS has created a text, *Dancer Wellness*, for the purpose of offering "guidance on the foundations, mental components, and physical aspects of dancer wellness" (IADMS, n.d.-b, *Dancer Wellness* book description). Another notable nod to the increased interest in the discipline is the foundation of the Harkness Center for Dance Injuries (HCDI) by orthopedic surgeon

Donald Rose, MD, in 1989. Over time, the HCDI has developed a relationship with NYU Langone Hospital for Joint Diseases Sports Medicine Fellowship Program, and a dance clinic rotation is now required for all residents and fellows (Ho, 2018).

Several university dance programs currently offer dance science courses as part of their curricula, and many require at least one course such as kinesiology or a somatic practice to fulfill requirements for a baccalaureate degree in dance. In fact, as of 1996, multiple entities associated with dance in higher education (e.g., Council of Dance Administrators, National Association of Schools of Dance, National Registry of Dance Educators) recommend that dance majors receive training in "dance science and/or wellness-related content" (M. K. Cardinal, 2009, p. 34). Further, several programs offer degrees specifically focused on dance science. North Carolina's Elon University's (n.d.) Department of Performing Arts partners with the university's physical education and exercise science program to offer a bachelor of science in dance science. Texas A&M University (n.d.-a) offers a bachelor of science in kinesiology: dance science, which is a partnership between the Department of Health and Kinesiology and the dance program, both of which are housed in the College of Education and Human Development. The University of Wyoming (n.d.) offers a bachelor of fine arts in dance science, which includes required coursework offered by the Division of Kinesiology and Health. Other universities such as California State University, Long Beach (n.d.) and the University of Memphis (Memphis, n.d.) offer options for dance majors to choose an emphasis or concentration in dance science. Given the growing interest in the health and wellness for dancers and the advancement of dance therapy (American Dance Therapy Association, n.d.) and the "arts in health" movement (Bungay et al., 2020; Murcia et al., 2010; Stuckey & Nobel, 2010), the area of dance science is poised to continue to grow, and its reconnection with physical education, albeit with the current sobriquet of kinesiology, is all the more fitting.

Dance, in American academe, has its roots well planted in physical education and today may be seen as reconnecting with those historic roots through dance science. From the early founding of physical education, when service programs were the norm and mission, and when the education of the whole individual—mind,

body, and spirit—was valued, dance played a vital role, especially for women. Today, dance is thriving as a discrete academic discipline in the arts and also within physical education service programs at numerous colleges and universities across the United States. Further, with the development and expansion of dance science programs, the disciplines of dance and physical education, albeit through modern departments of kinesiology, are reconnecting, often sharing resources, faculty, and curricula, and coming full circle to dance's roots in physical education. The future looks bright for dance in American academe, and with the ever-increasing focus on wellness and holistic educational efforts, the reconnection of dance and physical education looks to strengthen with the proliferation of dance science programs.

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PEDAGOGY

# Music as a Management Tool in Elementary Physical Education: A Qualitative Investigation

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## Abstract

*Classroom management is an important aspect for a K–12 teacher in any content area. The same applies in physical education (PE). In PE, there are large spaces, students are moving, and in many cases, equipment (basketballs, rackets, Hula-Hoops, etc.) is involved, thus making PE a unique challenge in regard to classroom management for PE teachers. One tool an elementary PE teacher can use for classroom management is music. For this study, one school administrator, 19 elementary-aged students, and one PE teacher were interviewed about their perceptions of music as a management tool in elementary PE. Findings indicate that students prefer music as a management tool rather than the PE teacher using a whistle or loud voice.*

For many K–12 teachers, the aspect of classroom management can be a major concern for them. Classroom management has been defined as "organizing and controlling the affairs of a class. It refers to how students are organized, started and stopped, grouped and arranged during class (Pangrazi & Beighle, 2013, p. 98). Teachers may have a student or a number of students in their class that make teaching difficult for them and challenging for the other students to learn because of student misbehaviors during class. This may also be true for physical education (PE) teachers. PE teachers, in regard

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to classroom management, have to consider students being in a gymnasium, on a large playing field outdoors, or in a weight room. Equipment such as basketballs, rackets, weights, cones, and jump ropes need to be managed so that students do not hurt themselves or their classmates and still learn as they are interacting with the equipment. Then there is the element of students moving during games or activities. All these examples and more are typical situations of classroom management in PE.

Literature concerning the effect of music in the education context is limited. Yet Chalmers et al. (1999) studied two types (classical and popular) of music on elementary-aged students' noise levels and behaviors in the lunchroom. For this study, the researchers had classical music playing for five lunch periods and then popular music playing for five lunch periods. They discovered that the classical music played during the lunch periods reduced the decibel level of the noise in the lunchroom by 7%. For the popular music, the noise level was reduced by 12%. The researchers stated that 7% and 12% may not appear to be significant, but the lunchroom monitors noticed the difference, which helped them to monitor the lunchroom more effectively. Another result from this study was the effect of music on student behavior during lunchtime. Before music was played, the lunchroom monitors were giving approximately 20 interventions (correcting students) during the 20-min lunch period. After both classical and popular music was played in the lunchroom, the lunchroom monitors were giving seven interventions in the 20-min lunch period. The researchers concluded that even through their study investigated the context of the lunchroom, music could positively affect students in math, science, and other content lessons.

The literature has highlighted the importance of classroom management at all stages of a PE teacher's career. This was illustrated when physical education teacher education (PETE) majors participated in a semester-long elementary PE practicum (Barney & Pleban, 2006). For this study, PETE majors were interviewed before (pre) participating in their practicum and interviewed again after (post) completing their elementary PE practicum. In both the pre- and postinterviews, classroom management was one of the main areas of concern in their teaching. During the prepracticum interviews many of the PETE majors were concerned with controlling

the students and keeping them on task during class activities. In the postpracticum interviews, students felt when students were on task their classes were well managed. One student stated at the end of her practicum that her classroom management skills got better, but she still worried about classroom management when she would be student teaching and eventually teaching her own classes. These concerns regarding classroom management can be in the forefront of many PE teachers' mind.

With the importance of classroom management in the PE context, PE teachers can use specific methods to manage students. For example, PE teachers can use their whistle, can split up students who are misbehaving, and can use consistent start and stop signals to manage their students (Pangrazi & Beighle, 2013). Another method of classroom management a PE teacher can implement is the use of music. The literature has primarily investigated the implementation of music in PE to increase student activity (Barney & Prusak, 2015; Brewer et al., 2016; Deutsch & Hetland, 2012) and student enjoyment (Barney et al., 2016) in PE class. When conducting research with music in a physical activity (PA) context, Karageorghis et al. (2006) created a conceptual framework. Four tenets make up this framework: (a) rhythm response, (b) musicality, (c) cultural impact, and (d) association. Rhythm response refers to musical rhythm, most notably tempo. Tempo refers to the speed of music as measured in beats per minute (BPM). Musicality refers to the responses to pitch-related elements such as harmony and melody. Cultural impact refers to the perverseness of the music within society. Association refers to extramusical associations such as emotions that a piece of music may evoke (Karageorghis et al., 2006). Karageorghis et al. (1999) presented this conceptual model using these four factors to predict the effects of asynchronous (i.e., absent of conscious synchronization between physical movement and accompanying musical rhythm such as background music) motivational music in the context of exercise and sport.

Limited research has studied music as a management tool in PE. Yet some studies have alluded to music as a management tool. Harms and Ryan (2012) discussed the use of music to enhance PE. They observed four elementary PE classes that used music as a management tool on a regular basis. For the first two classes, the PE teacher

used the music to start and stop students throughout the lesson. No major problems were observed in these two classes. For the final two classes, the researchers asked the PE teacher not to use music as a management tool. They noted the PE teacher was hesitant when asked not to use music in the lessons. For the last two lessons, the researchers observed more off-task behaviors, because no music was being played and many of the students were upset and angry because no music was being played. The researchers suggested that music has positive effects when used as a management tool in PE class.

A second study investigated PE teachers' perceptions of incorporating music in PE lessons and evaluated the influence of music on the classroom environment (Barney & Pleban, 2018). For this study, 26 K–12 PE teachers were surveyed. The survey consisted of open-ended questions requiring the PE teachers to explain their responses to the survey questions. After analysis of the survey questions, several themes were apparent. They felt that they were putting students in a better position to learn the content, that music helped provide a positive class climate, and that music served as a motivational tool. Yet one of the main themes resulting from this study was music played a part as a management tool. Many of the PE teachers stated that music was a positive tool to assist with classroom management. One of the PE teachers stated, "Instead of screaming and being loud to get the class to focus, I stop the music to get attention. The sudden silence of no music gets their attention quickly" (p. 203). Another PE teacher stated, "When music starts, students start activity. When the music stops, students stop and look at me, or students put away equipment and rotate etc. Music make signals and students immediately recognize it" (p. 203).

The results from both of these studies dealing with music as a management tool highlight music as having a positive effect in aiding PE teachers to manage students during class activities. The results from these studies are positive, yet still there is a paucity of research specifically regarding music as a management tool in elementary PE class. Thus, this study investigated music as a management tool in elementary PE from the perspectives of a school administrator, the PE teacher, and elementary-aged PE students.

# Method

## Participants and Setting

For this study, 19 elementary-aged students (7 males and 12 females), one female PE teacher (9 years of teaching experience), and one male school administrator participated. The school that the participants came from was a public charter school located in the Hawaiian Islands. It has a student population of approximately 330 students (PK–6). Ethnic breakdown of the student population was 61% Caucasian, 22% of two or more races, 9% Hispanic, 7% Hawaiian, and 1% Asian (Public School Review, 2020). University Institutional Review Board (IRB) and the charter school gave approval for the study to be conducted. Parental consent as well was obtained before the study proceeded.

## Procedures and Data Collection

On the day of data collection, we interviewed the school administrator, the students, and the PE teacher at the school. The interviews were approximately 15 min in length. The interviews were semistructured and were audio-recorded. The interview questions were different for the participants. Students, the administrator, and the PE teacher were interviewed because of the consent they gave or was given by their parents. The interviews were designed to get the participants' opinions and experiences related to music as a management tool in elementary PE.

## Survey Questions

A specific line of questions dealing with music as a management tool in PE was not found in the literature. Thus, we constructed interview questions for the PE teacher (11 questions), school administrator (4 questions), and students (7 questions). Content validity on the interview questions was established with three PETE faculty. Having three PETE faculty review item construction ensured the readability of items in terms of addressing music as a management tool in PE. The instrument was pilot tested with four elementary-aged students who did not participate in this study.

## Interview Data Analysis

For the analysis of the interviews, participant responses were correlated and reviewed and preliminary coding categories were generated, with framework analysis methodology for participant responses, as outlined by Check and Schutt (2011). Framework analysis incorporated the stages of (1) familiarization, (2) thematic, (3) identification, and (4) charting and interpretation (Rabiee, 2004).

## Music as a Management Tool in Elementary Physical Education Themes

We read and reread interview transcripts, identifying themes and phrases. From all survey responses, the most frequent management content themes were (1) start and stop signals, (2) music versus a whistle or a loud voice, and (3) music's effect on teacher instructions (see Table 1).

**Table 1**
*Interview Themes Regarding Music as a Management Tool in Elementary PE*

| Interview themes | Comments |
|---|---|
| Start and stop signals | "When the music starts, we get moving, and when it stops we stop" |
| | "When the music stops our eyes are on Miss L." |
| Music versus a whistle or loud voice | "I like the music so much more. The day the speaker wasn't working wasn't good." |
| | "I don't use a whistle. I hate whistles." |
| Music's effect on teacher instructions | "Miss L. tells us what to do when the music stops. She doesn't want to waste time." |
| | "When the music stops, Miss L. gives us instructions on what to do and what not to do." |

# Results

## Start and Stop Signals

From the interview data, the use of music as a start and stop signal was a common and constant theme. Mike (school administrator) stated,

> She uses it as a stop and start signal. A good management tool. Also, when Lori [PE teacher] has a substitute, they follow her lesson and when they [the substitute] play music the children do as they are supposed to do with the music playing. In large part because of what they do every day in their class.

A number of students who were interviewed stated when the music starts, we "get moving" and "when the music stops, we stop." Mary stated, "When the music starts, you start to do what she tells you. For example, start skipping when the music starts. The class skips." Sally stated, "When the music stops, we freeze. If we have equipment, we put it down as we freeze." Julie said, "I like the music to start us going. It is better than her telling us to go."

## Music Versus a Whistle or Loud Voice

The second theme from the interviews dealt with the PE teacher not using a whistle or a loud voice for management. Casey was asked if Miss L. uses a whistle to start and stop the class. He said, "She used a whistle one time because the speaker wasn't working. The next day, the speaker was working. I like the music better." Lilly made the same observation as Casey regarding the speaker not working. Lilly said, "I like the music so much more. The day the speaker wasn't working, that wasn't good. I don't like the whistle." Beth stated, "I have gotten used to hearing the music. When the music starts, I get going. And when the music stops, I stop and face Miss L. When she doesn't use the music and uses a loud voice, I am surprised." Lori was asked if music as a management tool has made her life better as she teaches PE. She stated,

> I don't use a whistle. I hate whistles. When the music stops, the kids stop and so I don't have to speak as loud. It saves my voice. Because of this I have learned to give short and concise instructions to the kids.

### Music's Effect on Teacher Instructions

The final theme from the interviews was when the music stops, students are given instruction. Emily said, "Miss L. tell us what she wants us to do when the music stops. She doesn't want to waste time, and we move from one activity to another quicker." Steven said, "When the music stops, Miss L. gives us instructions on what to do and what not to do. When the music starts, we do what she told us to do." Paul said, "When she turns on the music, we have to be ready. And when she turns off the music we have to freeze. She wants us to listen to what she says." John stated it a little differently, but with the same intent: "The music helps me focus on what Miss L. asks us to do. So, I don't think of other things."

Lori said,

> When I do Jump Rope for Heart, the parents see how I use music. That when the music stops, I give them their instructions for activity. I turn on the music and they do the activity. The parents see their children have been conditioned to the music and how they respond to it. The parents only say how much they like the kind of music I play. But it shows the parents that when the music is off I will give their children instructions on what I want them to do.

## Discussion

This study investigated music as a management tool in elementary PE from the perspectives of a school administrator, the PE teacher, and elementary-aged PE students. The results from the interviews from this study found music as a management tool in elementary PE to be effective and preferred. Three themes came from interviews with a school administrator, elementary-aged students, and an elementary PE teacher: (1) music as a start and stop signal, (2) music

versus a whistle or loud voice for management, and (3) music's effect on the PE teacher giving instructions.

It was generally found that music is an effective tool for elementary PE teachers to use to manage their students. Also, from the student perspective, they like the music. The first theme shows that using music as a start and stop signal helps set the environment for the given class and lesson. For many students in elementary PE, they have been in their classrooms studying math, science, social studies, or other content. The question can be asked, how have they been studying? They have been sitting at their desks. When students come to PE class, the PE teacher will start and stop the students two or three times. This gives the students a chance to quickly warm up the muscles and gets the students to start and stop when the music starts and stops (Pangrazi & Beighle, 2013). This gets students thinking about things that are physical in nature. Barney and Pleban (2018) interviewed K–12 PE teachers who use music in their PE lessons. In one of the interviews, a PE teacher stated, "When music starts, students start activity. When music stops, students stop and look at me, or students put away equipment and rotate etc. Music makes signals instant and students immediately recognize it" (p. 203). Krystosek (2003) observed that students in PE classes without music were off task more than students in PE classes with music playing. Thus, music in the classroom frequently reminds students to stay on task and no music in the classroom creates more unnecessary work for the PE teacher. From this study, one student said, "When the music starts, I need to be moving, and when the music stops, I need to stop and face Miss L."

The second theme was music was preferred rather than a whistle or loud voice for management. This theme affects both the students and the teacher. The students from this study preferred the music rather than hearing a whistle or the PE teacher's loud voice. During an interview, one of the students was asked if they preferred the music, a whistle, or a loud voice. The student replied, "The music." The student was asked why. She stated, "The music is much more fun, and the whistle isn't fun. If Miss L. uses a loud voice, sometimes it sounds like she is yelling at us." Ryan (2009) studied the effects of a soundfield amplification system on managerial time in a middle school PE setting. The results indicated that the field amplification system

reduced managerial time used in class, resulting in more instructional and activity time during class. Yet the researcher concluded that the aid of a sound-field amplification system will help with PE teachers' voice fatigue, which can be troubling for them (Gotaas & Starr, 1993; Masuda et al., 1993).

The final theme was when the music stops, students are given instructions from the PE teacher. Casey was asked why listening to the music is important. He stated, "You can do what Miss L. asks you to do." Other student comments regarding the importance of listening to the music included "She gives instructions," "We do what Miss L. wants us to do," and "She tells us to do a task when the music starts." Harms and Ryan (2012) found that when the music stops, students will stop, look, and listen to the teacher regarding their activity. When Barney and Pleban (2018) interviewed K–12 PE teachers, one said,

> If implemented correctly, music can be used to manage the classroom by giving the students cues on what to do when they hear the music stop or when they hear the music start. If not implemented correctly, many classrooms can turn into a zone of poor management.

The conditioning of students in PE class to listen and then follow instructions may seem oversimplified. Yet this simple skill of listening to instructions will serve the student well in their education and then throughout their life in general.

## Study Implications

The implications of this study have the possibility of benefiting elementary PE teachers, PETE majors, and PETE faculty. As this study shows, elementary PE teachers can successfully implement music as a management tool. During the interview with Lori, she stated, "It is pretty instantaneous with music when teaching students management. It is a matter of being consistent and doing it every day." PETE majors need to understand that music can be an effective management tool and experience this tool during the elementary PE practicum and student teaching. PETE faculty can introduce music as a management tool in their methods of teaching elementary PE. Then when the PETE majors go out to elementary school and teach,

the PETE faculty can encourage and help them to see how music can benefit and strengthen their management as they teach. Lori mentioned that in her undergraduate program she was introduced to the concept of music as a management tool by one of her professors. From there, she used music in her practicums, in student teaching, and now in her own PE classes. For PETE faculty, the use of music as a management tool can be discussed in class and modeled to the students before they participate in their elementary PE practicum. PETE faculty can go to the elementary school during the practicum to observe the PETE major teaching with music. After this, they can sit down with the PETE major to discuss their classroom management experiences with music.

## Study Limitations

A limitation of this study is the inability to generalize these findings to other elementary schools in the other parts of the United States. Because of the use of a sample of convenience from one elementary school PE program, further generalization of this data must be approached with caution. Further study should explore the reproducibility of the process and findings with multiple elementary school PE programs at different schools and in different regions of the United States.

## Conclusion

This study investigated music as a management tool in PE class. Because of the paucity of research on this topic, this study only helps strengthen and add to the literature. Results from this study appear to coincide with the limited literature in regard to music as a management tool in PE class. Pangrazi and Beighle (2013) stated that music as a management tool is effective with elementary-aged students. They continued by saying, "Managing student behavior is not easy. A class of children is a group of individuals, each requiring unique treatment and understanding" (p. 98). With the challenge of working with a variety of personalities, some more challenging than others, music can be used in teaching simple yet important skills that when learned and followed will benefit the student and have the potential to affect their learning in PE class. Barney and Leavitt (2019) feel that music helps create a positive environment, and with the use

of music in the capacity of management, there is the possibility of continuing the positive environment in the PE class.

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PEDAGOGY

# Reconnecting Youth to Nature: A Camp on Campus Model

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## Abstract

*Day camps are a powerful context for youth development. The American Camp Association and Leave No Trace have been integral in supporting youth development by identifying outcomes associated with participation in outdoor recreation. Recreation majors in the programming class used the camp as a service-learning component of the class that offered them valuable hands-on experience in program design, program facilitation, working with youth, and program evaluation. Therefore, this study evaluated the impact of camp on identified youth outcomes. The outdoor recreation camp was a partnership from a private school and local university. The Youth Outcomes Battery provided measures that focus on common outcomes (e.g., affinity for nature). Thirty-one of the 32 campers completed the retrospective questionnaire. The sample was 61% female, with an average age of 9 years. On a scale of 1 to 10, campers scored a 9.32 on Level of Enjoyment. Findings show that over 50% of the campers learned "a little" or "a lot" about the desired outcomes (e.g., affinity for nature). This work provides an example of an evidence-based nature camp.*

The framework for positive youth development (PYD) is an evolving model focused on guiding youth to be contributing members of society (Ahl et al., 2020; Hill et al., 2016). Children need guidance and support on their path to adulthood. The guidance and support they receive originate from a variety of contexts, groups of people, and organizations that help lay the foundation for children's

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perception and reality of the world around them. Day camps can provide a powerful context for youth development (Hill et al., 2016; Kane et al., 2020). Day camps allow youth to engage with various individuals (e.g., teachers, recreation professionals, and college students) who provide a variety of supports that are generally related to academics or social skills (e.g., creating meaningful relationships) needed for continued development. These supports may include tutoring, athletic skills, creative expression (e.g., dance, music, art), and environmental awareness. Day camps are also positioned to provide essential services to families. These family supports are important throughout the out-of-school time such as when students are transitioning from one grade or environment to another (Hill et al., 2015). Programs that bridge or provide continuity between academic years are an essential part of youths' social-emotional development. Camp programs that are theory driven and use PYD embrace and actively implement programs that bridge academics and are prone to foster positive outcomes. Therefore, this study evaluated the impact of nature-based camps on identified youth outcomes.

## American Camp Association

The American Camp Association (ACA) has been integral in supporting PYD by identifying and documenting outcomes associated with participation in organized camping. In its seminal outcomes study, four domains were comprised of 10 constructs of PYD, which included positive identity (positive identity, independence), social skills (leadership, making friends, social anxiety, peer relationships), positive values and spiritual growth (positive values/decision making, spirituality), and thinking and physical skills (adventure/exploration, environmental awareness; Henderson, Bialeschki, & James, 2007). The ACA-sponsored research is salient in that it provides evidence of what many practitioners already know: Getting youth reconnected with nature is beneficial to the development of youth (Ahl et al., 2020; ACA, 2013; Henderson, Bialeschki, Scanlin, et al., 2007; Marsh, 1999; Sibthorp et al., 2013).

As technology rapidly expands, coupled with the decline in time spent out-of-doors, children are becoming increasingly disconnected from nature (Ahl et al., 2020; Louv, 2006). Research supports the mental and physical benefits children experience when they spend time in nature and outdoor education opportunities (Berman et al.,

2008). Other studies have reported that children have a better quality of life when they are actively engaged and play in natural places (Pretty et al., 2009). Studies have provided valid and reliable measures to determine the impact of reconnecting youth with nature (Ahl et al., 2020; Miller et al., 2014). With the disconnect between children and nature on the rise, the review of the literature indicates a strong need to get children in the out-of-doors exploring, playing, and participating in purposeful environmental education programs that will enhance their physical and mental well-being. Organizations such as Leave No Trace Center for Outdoor Ethics provide valuable tools, trainings, and research to help mitigate this challenge.

## Leave No Trace

Leave No Trace Center for Outdoor Ethics evolved from the lack of knowledge that user groups possessed about human impact on the environment during recreational use (Miller et al., 2014). Through a partnership between several organizations, including land management agencies (e.g., U.S. Forest Service, National Park Service) and the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS), the Leave No Trace Center for Outdoor Ethics developed principles and curriculum to help teach people ethical and low-impact practices when interacting with the natural environment. Although these practices were widely adopted by many agencies, and acted upon by adults in the outdoors, limited connections were made between these principles and youth in nature.

Leave No Trace recognizes the value of educating children about being stewards of the environment. In partnership with Recreation Equipment, Inc., the Promoting Environmental Awareness in Kids (PEAK) program was created to teach children about the environment and how to recreate responsibly in the out-of-doors (Leave No Trace, 2017). The primary goals of the PEAK program are to (a) increase awareness of Leave No Trace, (b) promote stewardship of public lands, (c) meet the demands of diverse youth populations, and (d) have fun (Leave No Trace, 2017). The PEAK program was used in programming each day.

# Method

For this study, we partnered with a local private school serving K–8 students, located less than 1 mile from the university, to help

with recruiting campers. The outdoor recreation day camp was held on a university campus. It was a partnership between a local private school and a Mid-Atlantic university, specifically a recreation programming class in the summer semester. The camp functioned as service learning for college students majoring in recreation, by providing them with class experience in recreation programming, facilitation, evaluation, and working with youth in an outdoor recreation day camp. High-impact practices such as service learning are highly encouraged within higher education (Goff et al., 2014). Because this was a service-learning course, college students were unpaid camp counselors/facilitators who were responsible for leading the entire day camp experience.

To prepare, college students planned for the camp during class and identified facilitation variations, activity needs, and alternate activities based on the daily outcomes. With guidance from faculty, college students helped create an activity matrix that included an outdoor activity plan for each day of camp. These daily activity plans were similar to lesson plans and helped ensure daily objectives were met. The selected activities were practiced in class to allow new facilitators to gain confidence before camp began. The 1-week day camp took place from 9:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m. Monday to Friday. The college students consider the outcomes and how those can be promoted through an engineered recreation experience. During the week, the campers kayaked, rock climbed, learned about Leave No Trace, participated on the challenge course, and participated in many other components tied to outdoor recreation through our partnership with the university's Outdoor Adventure Program (see Table 1).

## Measurement

This study used the ACA Youth Outcomes Battery (ACA-YOB) at an outdoor recreation day camp to determine its impact on predetermined outcomes. The ACA-YOB provides camps and other youth-serving programs with different measures that focus on common youth outcomes (e.g., Affinity for Nature). Each measure is age appropriate and can be individualized for camps and other youth programs (ACA, 2011). In this study, we used the ACA-YOB 14-item Camper Learning Scale (CLS) and Affinity for Nature (AFN). These valid and reliable scales are age appropriate, short and concise, easily administered tools that can be individualized to a camp, after-school

**Table 1**
*Outdoor Recreation Camp Example Plan*

| Day | Promoting Environmental Awareness in Kids (PEAK) activities | Outdoor activities (theory based) |
|---|---|---|
| Monday | Discovering the Leave No Trace Principles (all seven LNT principles covered) | Pool Day focused on competence by allowing campers to work on passing the swim test for the deep end |
| Tuesday | How Long Does It Last (principle covered: Trash Your Trash) | Service Project Beach Cleanup focused on autonomy by what area and what they cleaned up, as well as relatedness by campers working together |
| Wednesday | The Leave No Trace Draw (principles covered: Know Before You Go, Choose the Right Path, Leave What You Find, and Respect Wildlife) | Kayak/SUP on the Elizabeth River fostered competence with campers learning and improving new skills |
| Thursday | Watch Your Step (principle covered: Choose the Right Path) | Indoor Rock Climbing fostered relatedness with campers supporting and learning to help belay one another, as well as competence by a sense of mastery, and autonomy by campers choosing their climbs |
| Friday | What Principle Am I? (all seven LNT principles covered) | Choice Day campers were allowed to choose (fostering autonomy) various activities (e.g., basketball, rock climbing, arts & crafts) and travel independently through the facility to different activities |

program, or other youth programs that are outcome driven (ACA, 2011). Both measures used a retrospective design, which eliminated response shift bias and a pretest.

The unidimensional CLS is a measure that focuses on seven common youth outcomes (i.e., Friendship, Family Citizenship, Teamwork, Perceived Competence, Independence, Interest in Exploration, and Responsibility). A sample question on the CLS scale is "At camp, did you learn how to be better at making friends?" The CLS uses a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *I didn't learn anything about this* to 4 = *I learned a lot about this*. The AFN scale has a long and short version. We used the short version for this study. Each item (e.g., liking nature) was prefaced by the phrase "How much if any, has your experience as a camper in this camp changed you in each of the following ways?" The 5-item AFN scale was scored a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *decreased* to 5 = *increased a lot, i am sure*. Campers were also asked demographic and open-ended questions about their favorite and least favorite activity during the 1-week camp. These data were used in the program evaluation in preparation for the following camp year.

## Procedures

After IRB approval was granted, written consent was gained from parents when they dropped off their child at camp, followed by assent from the campers. The measures were administered to 31 of the 32 campers (one parent did not consent to the study). Camp counselors administered the questionnaire on the last day of camp (Friday). As recommended by the ACA-YOB protocol, camp counselors and staff sat in a quiet area with small groups of four to five campers to administer the questionnaire. Data were collected and entered into an Excel spreadsheet (available from ACA at www.ACAcamps.org/members/outcomes/tools). Data were then automatically calculated where we summed the scores for each item on that scale and found the average of students who learned *a little* or *a lot* about the outcomes. The open-ended questions (e.g., favorite activity) were tabulated in Excel for frequencies.

## Results

The sample was 61% female, with an average age of 9. On a scale of 1 to 10 (with 10 being the most fun you have ever had at camp), campers scored a 9.32 on Level of Enjoyment. After data were entered into the ACA Excel spreadsheet, sum scores of the campers who learned *at least a little* about the seven youth outcomes were averaged. Findings from the CLS indicated that 53% of the campers learned *a little* or *a lot* about the seven outcomes. The second unidimensional measure used was the five-item AFN, which determines the knowledge that campers learned about nature or the environment while at camp. Results from the AFN indicated 68% of campers learned new knowledge about nature. The open-ended response about campers' favorite activity revealed specific camp activities of interest. The campers' top three activities from the week were the rock wall, kayaking, and the planetarium.

## Discussion

University camp programs have the potential to positively impact a great number of youth. In fact, more university camps are actively seeking ACA accreditation. This research study has the potential to provide evidence-based practices on the learning outcomes of different types of camps (e.g., outdoor recreation). Though our study focuses on how camp can be effective at improving campers' skills and affinity for nature, indirectly it explored the service-learning opportunity for college students (Goff et al., 2014; Goff et al., 2020). From the university perspective, using a service-based component within a learning lab (e.g., this camp) provides a high-impact practice for the college students involved. High-impact practices on college campuses are in great demand (Hill et al., 2015).

The literature continues to highlight the need to reconnect youth with nature. This day camp and similar programs provide evidence that outdoor programming is effective (Miller et al., 2014). The results from the CLS and AFN measured in this study were higher than those in similar studies (Hill et al., 2016). Some of ideas from previous campers and counselors will be used to more specifically target the desired outcomes to increase the percentage of campers who learned *a little* or *a lot* about the intentional outcomes. Leave No Trace's newest resource, *Bigfoot's Playbook*, provides experiential

education activities specific to the seven principles that help children understand what it means to Leave No Trace in their lives and their community (Schwartz et al., 2018). Future studies should use the AFN measure when this new resource is used in nature-based camps.

The camp also effectively aligned with the ACA-identified outcomes (over half the campers left with knowledge of the original seven ACA outcomes). Camp directors and staff will need to determine their own measure of success using the ACA Excel template. Finally, asking the campers their favorite and least favorite activity allowed camp staff to better program for the next year. This has been done in the previous years of outdoor recreation camp, and each year we have modified the activities based on camper input. We believe this has helped to make camp more fun and a more effective learning environment.

## Limitations and Future Research

A current limitation of this study is the small sample size and the average age of our respondents. Although the ACA-YOB is designed for this camp's age group, our campers may not have asked for clarification when needed. Future research should focus on outcomes using other metrics within the Youth Outcomes Battery as to not limit teasing out specific constructs. Future research should also begin to triangulate data by using feedback from counselors and parents, because youth self-reporting could be inaccurate. The ACA-YOB also offers a section dedicated to parent and staff perceptions to allow for a comprehensive view for all involved. This holistic assessment from staff, parent, and camper inputs will help to maximize data inputs and minimize the limitation of only using one perspective with the camper survey. Other recommendations are to explore additional measures of campers' interest in the outdoors such as the PEAK Assessment Scale (Miller et al., 2014). This measure was specifically designed to determine the effectiveness of campers' understanding after use of the PEAK program. However, due to the length of the PEAK Assessment Scale and the age of our campers, this metric was not used. As we continue to explore more robust measures, this and similar studies can help propel us forward as we reconnect children, arguably a missed generation, to outdoor recreation.

## Conclusion

High-impact practices such as service learning, partnerships, and reflections are a fast growing and effective tool within higher education (Goff et al., 2014; Hill et al., 2015). The use of an outdoor recreation day camp as a learning lab for a college recreation course exposed college students to opportunities to bridge theory to practice. They were able work with youth, program, and evaluate just as they had read about in class. University resources and spaces allow for cost-effective opportunities that may not otherwise be accessible to camp hosts, while offering a unique camp environment and program offerings. For this partnership, results from camper surveys indicate it was a positive experience and the majority of campers demonstrated growth in the seven ACA outcomes and in their affinity for nature. As a great resource, the ACA-YOB allows for a practitioner-friendly way to collect, input, and evaluate data to improve programming and promote camp effectiveness. Future research using parent and staff perspectives will offer greater insight into the effectiveness of programming for each desired outcome. Other organizations can use this platform of service learning and collaboration to bring mutual benefits to camp-based partnerships, which ultimately impact the campers, families, and communities they serve.

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SPORT MANAGEMENT

# Sport Management: Who We Are and Where We Are Going

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## Abstract

*Due to the popularity of sport, the need to have sport management programs that properly train practitioners is justified. However, with 505 sport management bachelor's programs worldwide housed in various academic units, there is little consistency within the field of study. This study strives to explore the field of sport management and to better understand sport management faculty members' perceptions of the discipline. Grounded in Foucault's theory of discourse, this study had a total of 154 sport management faculty members worldwide participate. The data revealed a lack of consistency within the field regarding faculty members' perceptions of sport management. This study offers a vital first step in an empirical examination of a critical phenomenon in the sport management academy.*

According to the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), there are 430 sport management programs housed in universities across the United States. Of these, 359 are undergraduate programs and 71 are graduate programs (master's, doctoral, or both; NASSM, 2018). Worldwide there are 505 sport management

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programs at the undergraduate level alone (Degrees in Sports, n.d.). The prevalence of sport management education programs within the setting of higher education has grown rapidly, with a 159% increase since 2003 (Jones et al., 2008; NASSM, 2018). The proliferation of these academic programs over the last few decades not only reflects the big business of sport but also the need for sport management scholars and practitioners who can articulate and advocate for sport's positioning on public agendas (Chalip, 2006). Furthermore, amplified sport access due to various media outlets has increased interest in sport-related careers (Schwab et al., 2013). Students, hoping to transform their enthusiasm for sport and recreation into viable career paths, have also fueled the exponential growth of sport management (Hancock & Greenwell, 2013). With educational programs firmly situated within academia (Jones et al., 2008), the establishment of a universal definition of sport management is essential for maintaining the public's trust and vital to ensuring the field's continued growth and maturation.

Across higher education, it is well accepted that definitions matter when it comes to articulating an academic discipline's core subject, central constructs, and unifying tenets (Palmer, 1998). Yet, from the perspective sport management educators, a universal definition of this emerging academic discipline and practice seems to remain elusive. This study, therefore, identifies continued maturation and viability of sport management; that is, what are sport management faculty members' perceptions of sport management as an academic discipline? Specifically, how do sport management faculty members define sport management? As our study confirms, the answer depends on whom you ask. This study seeks not to criticize the academy but rather to identify the need for the field to ignite conversation to further develop sport management as an academic discipline.

Ongoing critical engagement with the conceptual underpinnings of an emerging discipline's distinct perspective (and its unique contribution to society) is a useful and necessary mechanism for uncovering common values, beliefs, or taken-for-granted assumptions often embedded within disciplinary culture (Laliberte Rudman et al., 2008) and educational practice (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Appreciating how scholars in a particular field of study conceptualize

their discipline's core subject, articulate their unique perspectives, and organize curricular content is critical to the preservation and evolution of any discipline or field of study regardless of its stage of development (Hooper et al., 2015; Laliberte Rudman et al., 2008). Thus, we have undertaken this study for the purpose of focusing on these first two dimensions of sport management.

This study was informed by Foucault's (1971) theory of discourse, which is helpful for assessing the paradigms of reality and dissecting truth (Razack et al., 2015). Often what is viewed as true is taken for granted, hidden within power structures and dialogues that inform the foundations of practice, policy, and procedure (Foucault, 1971; Razack et al., 2015). Furthermore, what is viewed as true frequently underpins action and influences interpretations of what is right and wrong (Foucault, 1971; Razack et al., 2015). Because the historical origins of unexamined power dynamics "are not readily visible to the people involved in their (re)production" (Razack et al., 2015, p. 38), the lack of awareness of such invisible hands of influence can reinforce the status quo, enabling an endless cycle of repetition (Foucault, 1971). When left unexamined, statements of perceived truths can create divisions, boundaries, uncertainty, and unrest, leading to the classification of social constructs (Foucault, 1971; Razack et al., 2015).

Some of the disciplinary uncertainty alluded to in Foucault's (1971) theories is reflected in more recent sport management literature. For example, in his 2006 Ziegler Lecture, "Toward a Distinctive Sport Management Discipline," Chalip acknowledged the "malaise over sport management's place and future as an academic discipline" (p. 1). He highlighted sport management's theoretical shortcomings and general lack of critical scholarly inquiry. Other explorations have questioned the value and positioning of sport management within higher education (Stride et al., 2017) or have attempted to retrace the historical origins and contextual influences that have shaped sport management (Seifried, 2015). Chalip (2006, 1990) also examined the existential crises within the field and called for a recalibration of the discipline's values.

Most of the aforementioned documents were conceptual papers by well-regarded sport management academics. Still, there is a need to further appreciate basic definitions or conceptualizations of sport

management faculty respective to the direction of the field and its closest-related academic disciplines. In fact, to date, no scholars within this field of study have attempted to undertake a descriptive analysis of conceptualizations of sport management from the perspective of educators.

There has been much debate about the appropriate department in which to house a sport management program (Chalip, 2006; Danylchuk & Boucher, 2003; Fielding et al., 1991; Jones et al., 2008; Mahony, 2008; Zaharia et al., 2016). Schools of education, health, and business are popular units in which sport management programs exist (Jones et al., 2008; Mahony, 2008). Regardless of the program location, sport management appears to be deemed relevant simply based on the sheer number of programs in existence. However, trying to establish sport management within higher education is made increasingly difficult when scholars and individual programs differ based on research spectrum, curriculum, and their location in different colleges based within the university. Creating a more inclusive and universal definition for the field can help alleviate these concerns. For instance, Pitts and Stotler (2007) defined sport management as "the study and practice of all people, activities, businesses, or organizations involved in producing, facilitating, promoting or organizing any sport-related business or product" (p. 4). Based on this definition, scholars can infer the sport management industry is quite multidisciplinary. Pedersen and Thibault (2014) postulated that sport management is a "name given to many university-level academic programs that prepare students to assume position in the sport industry" (p. 8).

If all of the faculty who are teaching and researching within the discipline have different notions about the purpose and definition of the field, it becomes problematic for several reasons including the inability to articulate and promote our unique disciplinary perspective, inconsistent content being offered across programs, confusion about what the discipline is by potential students and professionals, and not being taken seriously by those in other disciplines. Thus, this study sought to understand how sport management scholars define the term "sport management." Results of this study can spark a conversation and further assist in legitimizing the sport management discipline. Furthermore, if the stakeholders, specifically sport

management faculty members, fail to agree on what sport management specifically is, the future of the profession is in jeopardy.

## History of Sport Management

Seeds of sport management can be seen as far back as ancient Greece (Hall, 2003; Stokowski et al., 2018). However, sport management education within the realm of the university is a comparatively new occurrence (Stokowski et al., 2018). The need for a sport management academic discipline became evident in 1957 when Walter O'Malley, then owner of the Los Angeles Dodgers, posed the question of where one would go to find individuals capable of managing a variety of different sporting events (Mason et al., 1981). O'Malley's writing did not go unnoticed, and in 1966, Ohio University launched the first sport management graduate program (Parks et al., 2011). Biscayne College became the first institution to have an undergraduate sport administration program (Masteralexis et al., 2012). Gillentine (2012) described the years between 1967 and 1987 as the era of maturation for the field of sport management. This period was essential to not only growing the discipline but also developing prominent scholars and leaders in the field. The rapid increase in sport management programs was due to the efforts and initiatives of individual universities. Thus, each university created their own foci and areas of emphasis (NASPE-NASSM Joint Task Force on Sport Management Curriculum and Accreditation, 1993). Further, since the sport management programs were often housed in different departments or colleges within the university (i.e., college of education vs. college of business), it further exacerbated some of the differences and priorities of each program (Chalip, 2006; Danylchuk & Boucher, 2003; Fielding et al., 1991; Jones et al., 2008; Mahony, 2008; Zaharia et al., 2016).

Sport management programs can choose to be accredited by the Commission on Sport Management Accreditation (COSMA). COSMA is the accrediting body of sport management, "whose purpose is to promote and recognize excellence in sport management education worldwide in colleges and universities at the baccalaureate and master's levels through specialized accreditation" (COSMA, 2015b, "Welcome to COSMA," para. 1). COSMA began in 2008 and replaced the former accrediting body, the Sport Management Program Review Council (COSMA, 2015a), after representatives

from NASSM and the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE) met to create a new accrediting body that represented perspectives from both organizations. The creation of COSMA was meant to unify the sport management discipline and ensure quality programs for students and industry professionals. Both the U.S. Department of Education and the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (Yiamouyiannis et al., 2013) oversee COSMA's accreditation process. Although the accreditation process and standards further establish sport management as a recognized field of study, only 12% of sport management programs are certified by COSMA (2015a).

Additionally, Chalip (2006) discussed sport management as a distinctive field of study. Sport management espouses health, socialization, economic and community development, and identity in ways that are unique to the sport management field and work to achieve positive public outcomes (Chalip, 2006). Creating and using theory grounded in sport phenomena as separate from mainstream academic disciplines or finding relevancy in existing theory is essential in continuing to define sport management as a unique academic discipline (Chalip, 2006). As social, political, economic, and cultural concerns change, sport management research evolves with those changes (Chalip, 2006). Chalip (2006) found that this continued avenue of research in sport defines sport management as its own academic discipline.

There has been much debate about the appropriate department in which to house a sport management program (Chalip, 2006; Danylchuk & Boucher, 2003; Fielding et al., 1991; Jones et al., 2008; Mahony, 2008; Zaharia et al., 2016). Schools of education, health, and business are popular units in which sport management programs exist (Jones et al., 2008; Mahony, 2008). Regardless of the program location, sport management is deemed relevant by its existence in so great a number of campus departments.

## Purpose of This Study

Galariotis et al. (2017) believed the sport industry to be one of the largest industries in the world, worth more than $620 billion annually. As such, the need to have sport management programs that properly train practitioners is highly justified (Pedersen & Thibault, 2014; Pitts & Stotler, 2007). However, with more than 505

sport management undergraduate programs (Degrees in Sports, n.d.) worldwide (442 in the United States alone) preparing students to work in a multibillion-dollar industry, little consistency can be found regarding the home units of these programs at their institutions of origin, confirming the constant question surrounding our field: What is sport management?

## Method

### Data Collection

Utilizing the NASSM list of sport management programs worldwide, we visited every institutional website to obtain 1,200 email addresses of sport management faculty. Following Dillman et al.'s (2014) survey protocol, each participant received an introductory email containing a description of the study. Participants were asked to answer various demographic questions and to provide a brief answer to the research question "what is sport management?" To improve the response rate, we sent a follow-up email 2 weeks after the initial email. Data were collected over a 4-week period.

### Participants

A total of 154 sport management faculty members participated in the study, for a response rate of 12.83%. The mean age of the participants was 44.13 years ($SD$ = 11.51). The sample consisted of 66.9% males ($n$ = 103) and 33.1% females ($n$ = 51). A majority of the participants identified as White (80.7%; $n$ =124), worked at public institutions (65.7%; $n$ = 101), and were employed within the United States (85%; $n$ = 131). Fifteen percent of the respondents ($n$ = 23) reported being employed in Canada, Asia, Europe, and Australia/New Zealand. Respondents' sport management programs appeared to be housed within various disciplines: 54 (34.9%) in colleges of education, 41 (26.5%) in colleges of business, and 59 (38.6%) in some other college academic unit.

### Data Analysis

To answer the research question, we identified themes based on the responses submitted to the short answer question. Due to the systematic and objective processes of describing and quantifying phenomena, we used qualitative content analysis to analyze and

interpret the data for meaning (Elo et al., 2014). The content analysis process included three main phases: preparation, or collecting suitable data for content analysis, making sense of the data, and selecting the unit of analysis; organization, or open coding, creating categories, and abstraction; and reporting, in which the content of the categories was described (Elo et al., 2014). Trustworthiness was established through the use of interrater reliability in which four proficient qualitative researchers sifted though the data and collectively decided on the final themes (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

## Results

To answer the question "what are sport management faculty members' perceptions of sport management?" faculty were asked to elaborate as to how they define the field. As such, faculty members were asked to respond to the question "what is sport management?" Once the data were analyzed, three major themes appeared: business, management, and recreation. Overall, the responses varied greatly and illustrated a lack of a consensus of the field among its faculty.

### Business

The theme that garnered the most responses was business. "The business of sport," stated by 15 respondents (9.74%), was the most common and only uniform definition provided by faculty members. Furthermore, of the respondents, 52 (33.77%) defined sport management as some form of business. Not all of the participants operationally defined what they meant by "business," but some went into great detail about it. One participant stated that sport management is a "combination of skills related to planning, directing, budgeting, leading, and evaluating sport-related activities." This participant went on to say that for faculty members it involved "teaching the business and administrative theories and practices of the sport environment." Another respondent gave an equally specific definition of sport management:

> I define sport management as the effective and efficient process of coordinating financial, physical, human, and organizational resources to achieve predetermined objectives established by an institution or organization toward the

creation and presentation of quality products and services for the sport industry.

Not all participants went into as much detail with this definition. One respondent simply defined sport management as "the business side of sports." Another indicated it was "the study of sport business." Similarly, another participant labeled it as "the business functions of the sport industry." Another faculty member defined the academy as "a business approach to sport."

## Management

Although a broad term, "management" was utilized by 39 respondents (25.32%). One participant defined sport management as "the management of sport entities." Another stated it was the "management of sport organization." Yet another participant defined it as "the management side of sports."

One participant included the functions of the management process in their definition: "Sport management includes a combination of things related to organizing, planning, leading, directing, and evaluating a program that is at its core a service providing sport and physical activities to an organization or group." Similarly, another respondent articulated, "Sports management is the management of sports organizations . . . the implementation of the planning, organization, coordination, control functions, to coordinate the activities of others, play a variety of resources, [and] activities in the process of achieving target." Furthermore, a faculty member defined sport management as "management in the areas of sport, health, and physical activity." Another faculty member defined the discipline as "the study of/application of management principles and practices to the domain of sport."

## Recreation

Twenty-five respondents (16.23%) described sport management in recreation or leisure contexts. One faculty member described it as "recreational activities relating to competition." Another faculty member stated it was "recreation services." One faculty member simply answered, "The leisure industry." One participant believed that although sport may be involved, certain emphases are considered

recreation: "I strongly believe youth sport and community sport are within the domain of recreation."

### "Lost in Translation"

All other answers (22.08%) appeared to be considerably different. Although we recognize that in essence "other" is not a theme, it is important to note the discrepancy within the field for 22.08% of the faculty members who participated in this study. One participant defined sport management as "decision making in various sport settings." Another simply answered, "Broad based." Similarly, another faculty member responded, "The field involving the study and/or production of any activities, events, and programming related sports and physical activities." Thus, the results of the study can be directly interpreted to strongly suggest that not only is sport management multidisciplinary in nature, but also sport management faculty members possess a unilateral perception of the academy and therefore employ varying definitions of sport management. For example, when asked to define sport management, one respondent postulated it was "a degree lost in translation."

Additionally, several respondents gave definitions of sport management that related to academia. One participant remarked that it was "learning how to take the theory learned in classes and apply it to the various dimensions of the sport industry." Another believed it was "a collection of academic scholars who study management science as it relates to the effective, efficient, and creative management of sport facilities, sport corporations, not-for-profit sport, collegiate sport administration, leisure, and recreation, and many other sport-related business."

Few respondents (2.60%) indicated that athlete development was a part of the sport management discipline. Only four faculty members mentioned "coaching" within their definition of sport management. One faculty indicated that sport management was "the study of sport in anything other than coaching and athletic training." Of the 154 respondents, none included "athlete" in any definition of sport management.

## Discussion

Informed by Foucault's (1971) theory of discourse, this study explored the perceptions of sport management scholars regarding

sport management as an academic discipline. This investigation was critical to provide empirical evidence to support conceptual studies discussing the direction and viability of sport management as a field within higher education (Chalip, 2006; Doherty, 2013b; Hancock & Greenwell, 2013). This study found four distinct themes from which faculty participants defined the field of sport management. Three of these themes were rooted within established, preexisting academic fields, while the fourth was more a mixture of responses difficult to categorize or more focused on the tangible application of their students' career outlets. These findings provide some unique insights into not only the field of sport management but also other academic programs rooted within preexisting fields.

## Harm to Faculty

According to Foucault (1969/1972), it is crucial to eliminate interpretation to ensure meaning and understanding. The lack of definition consensus can create damage to current and future faculty in the field of sport management. On the basis of the participants' responses for defining sport management, it may lead to perceived bias or discrimination of the chosen research topics of other sport management faculty. For example, an aspiring researcher examining interscholastic sports could have a more difficult job convincing sport management faculty who believe the field is rooted within business literature than those who view it as more multidisciplinary. With a majority of faculty in this study viewing sport management within a business model, this would be more problematic for those with research interests outside of traditional business topics, such as finance and marketing. This bias goes beyond securing employment. Sport management faculty may be pressured to publish in journals outside of their field as a form of verification of study quality, such as in business or education journals (Chalip, 2006). This raises legitimacy concerns for the field of sport management and will continue to undermine the value of sport management publications for the foreseeable future.

## Forgetting Our History

There were limited responses from participants who view sport management through its original lens of practical solutions, which is more focused on the theoretical and the professional setting

(Seifried, 2015). Such responses also align with Foucault's (1971) theory of discourse in that history often places a constraint on truth, creating notions of right and wrong. However, perhaps this transitional phase may be an expected change that occurs to programs as they mature (Chalip, 2006). Notions of the truth can create division and boundaries, leading to classification of social constructs (Foucault, 1971; Razack et al., 2015). This transitional phase also can create an imbalance between the needs of practitioners, who employ students graduating from college, and the pressures put upon scholars, who are expected to educate these students while meeting the scholarly expectations of their field (Foucault, 1971; Razack et al., 2015). Findings ways to make theoretical and practical impact is achievable, but it is difficult within a field becoming more focused on theoretical impact as a means to support itself as a stand-alone research field (Doherty, 2013a). The hope is that we do not forget about our students' goals and become imbalanced to the point of graduates from different programs filling jobs within the sport industry as ours become less equipped for their intended careers. Although it can be argued that within all fields there will always be variances and nuances of the makeup of the discipline, there is a need for proponents of the field (i.e., faculty) to provide validity to the field.

## Lack of Establishment

Participant responses demonstrated that sport management faculty members are noncommittal on defining the field based on many of the preexisting fields that initially conceived sport management programs (Seifried, 2015). The majority of participants perceived sport management as rooted within business (business or management related, 59%). The remaining responses were either related to recreation (16%) or could not be categorized (22%). With a lack of consensus defining sport management, it begs the question, would the discipline benefit from being multidisciplinary? Or should a more narrow focus of sport management be employed as the field continues to develop and grow? The lack of consistency in the field may be a response to careers in sport management still being in their adolescence (in comparison to many other vocational outlets), therefore leading to sport management faculty wanting the flexibility to change as they observe changes in the field. Such lack of consensus also brings up the question, is sport management a discipline?

Chalip (2006) claimed sport management is a field of study, so perhaps the discrepancy within sport management validates that sport management is informed by various disciplines and is indeed a field of study (not a discipline).

Furthermore, such lack of consistency can also be a negative. Established programs and experts connected to the needs of the sport industry have helped establish the most vital classes needed for up-and-coming sport management students (COSMA, 2015a). Failing to use this knowledge can lead to losing generational knowledge and ignoring best practices established within the field. Currently, just over 12% of all identified sport management programs follow COSMA standards (COSMA, 2015a), raising concerns about its established value within the field. It is also important to note that as sport management programs are housed in various colleges, perhaps accreditation consideration should be sought within the overarching discipline (Noorda, 2011; Zaharia et al., 2016).

Doherty (2013a) asserted that the art, science, and continued growth of sport management hinges on the use and generation of sound theories; its distinctive body of knowledge; and critical, scholarly self-reflection. Ongoing, rigorous inquiry, Doherty (2013a) wrote, is both useful and necessary for the credibility of sport management and for advancing understanding within and across this ever-growing field of study. The continued absence of a unifying, theoretical core that precisely articulates sport management's distinct value and relevance to society could inevitably undermine its viability and survival (Doherty, 2013a). It is crucial that the sport management discipline is not left to interpretation but rather evolves to a specific definition to advance the discipline, ensuring meaning and understanding (Foucault, 1969/1972).

## Limitations and Future Research

As with any study, this study has limitations. While this study has a large number of faculty participants, the response rate is lower than anticipated and desired; however, it aligns with the response rates of similar studies (e.g., Stokowski et al., 2018; Zaharia et al., 2016). The response rate may be due to the high number of emails faculty receive in general, including those that request their participation in research. It is important to note that research has shown that a lower response rate does not mean the results are skewed or

incorrect (Curtin et al., 2000; Groves, 2006; Peytchev, 2013). So although the response rate in this study was lower than predicted, it does not mean the results were biased. The insights from the faculty in this study can form the foundation for beginning a conversation about what the discipline is and what we want to be going forward. Therefore, it is important not to generalize the findings of this study, as this study included only sport management faculty at institutions included on the NASSM list of sport management programs worldwide. It should also be noted that we are sport management faculty members, and as in any qualitative study, researcher bias could have impacted the results of this study.

Studies (e.g., Jones et al., 2008; Mahony, 2008; Zaharia et al., 2016) have found that sport management educational programs were housed in education, business, and health. This study seems to echo this finding. However, given that sport management programs are housed in various colleges, it would have been helpful to see if the colleges in which sport management programs were housed viewed the discipline similarly. For example, did just those within business define sport management as "the business of sport"?

There are a number of recommendations for future research. First, there is a need to further these results by surveying faculty and leadership on what courses they want to offer for their program and what learning and assessments should be measured from their students. Second, further empirical examination of differences based on faculty expectations or Carnegie Classification of the institution is warranted. It is possible that the perception of sport management being multidisciplinary could vary depending on the research and teaching expectations of the faculty member. Another potential difference is related to the participants' department mission statement. Studies have shown that mission statements can impact the actions of internal stakeholders; thus, participants' perceptions of sport management could be altered by their organizational culture (Andrassy & Bruening, 2011; Huml et al., 2014). This study could be replicated to include the opinion of prospective, current, and recently graduated students. This could help identify weaknesses in the field and/or recommendations from those having to use the skills learned in the classroom within the sport industry. Future research should survey and examine sport management faculty as well as curriculums on

a global scale. Future studies should also examine the pedagogical approaches of sport management faculty members. What does this population feel is the purpose of higher education? What is the role of sport management faculty members? Are sport management faculty members simply training practitioners or is the role of faculty to educate the next generation of practitioners?

## Practical Implications

Results of this study also bring forth multiple issues that should be considered by academic organizations acting as advocates for sport management faculty: If sport management is indeed about the business of sport (as so many respondents indicated), why are the majority of sport management academic programs housed under the umbrella of an education-based academic unit? If recreation is a prominent aspect of the field, why do so few programs carry the word "recreation" in their monikers? Furthermore, on the basis of the comments, perhaps sport management scholars feel that athlete development does not belong within the discipline. After all, the only comment that referred to "players" basically implied that athletes should be controlled and not developed. On the basis of their responses, clearly there is a disconnect between sport management and athlete development. Perhaps sport is simply too interdisciplinary to be a stand-alone discipline. Perhaps sport management is simply a field of study that should be incorporated into other disciplines (e.g., psychology, sociology, business, higher education, communication).

This study offers a vital first step in an empirical examination of a critical phenomenon in the sport management academy. Foucault (1970) advocated for an expansion and modernization of human sciences, expanding and further explaining knowledge and the interpretation of knowledge. Faculty members and sport management governing bodies and organizations need to come together to employ definitions that speak to the discipline in its entirety. However, this study also brings to light that perhaps sport is simply too diverse to be under a single umbrella and scholars (as well as sport management programs) should specialize to better contribute to sport, research, and student development. Currently, the perceived truth is creating division and boundaries within the sport management discipline (Foucault, 1971; Razack et al., 2015). Sport management

scholars have to find the truth within the discipline to evolve (Foucault, 1971).

This study provides further questions about what courses make up the sport management discipline worldwide. There is currently no consensus for the courses and concepts being taught in sport management programs. COSMA requires accredited programs to have common professional components within the curriculum. However, not all sport management programs choose to go through the accreditation process. Thus, there is no way to ensure that all students with a sport management major are learning the same core concepts. As such, the preparedness of students may vary based on whether the program is COSMA accredited, how the faculty at an institution define sport management, and where the program is housed in an institution. A set of guiding standards and principles, along with a solid focus and definition that drives sport management, would help not only the discipline but also the students who are in the major.

This study strives to provide a deeper understanding of sport management faculty members' perceptions of sport management as a discipline. Foucault (1971) believed there is a right and wrong in relation to power dynamics, the perpetuation of the status quo, and the repetition of behavior. We understand that some feel there is no one universal truth. Furthermore, we realize that this study may leave more questions than answers; however, this is our intention. We even realize that some may feel recreation, management, and business are sport management. Our goal is for the "establishment" to continue to have constructive dialogue and critical reflection about sport management—who we are and where we are going.

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COMMENTARY

# What I Learned as a Physical Educator

*Jerry Freischlag*

All professions foster an identity among practitioners. Physical education is no different. How this identify influences and is expressed throughout one's life and lifestyle is a topic not seen in our literature. In this essay, I provide a perspective for those entering as well as those engaged in the profession to reflect on the scope of being a physical educator. I'll start with my beginning in the profession.

It has been over 60 years since I matriculated in college as a physical education major. My program constantly stressed having a professional attitude. This was to be reflected in our appearance, behavior, and language. We spent considerable time in performance-based classes. We wore uniforms. Our skills were tested to demonstrate mastery. We were not allowed to show our bellies. Instructors were great models. Their lessons became ingrained. My reward was a first position as a school PE teacher and coach. Eager for advancement and fortunate for mentorship from the first of several critical professionals in my career, I enrolled in a master's degree program at a major university. High expectations and scholarship were unwavering requirements. My advisor there, John Nixon, had a profound influence on the direction of my professional life. An enthusiasm for learning and pursuit of a career in higher education after completing 3 years as a high school teacher and coach brought me to a doctoral program led by Pete Everett and Ken Miller, both of whom took turns as president of our national organization, SHAPE America, then called the American Alliance for Health, Physical

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Education, Recreation, and Dance (AAHPERD). From them, I developed a commitment to four types of initiatives in my professional career:

- on and off-campus service
- program development
- research and writing for publication
- professional participation

Today's physical education majors preparing for a school career might not recognize their counterpart of the 1950–60s—my generation. Then, the physical educator was a generalist expected to teach all activities in a curriculum, coach any sport, and serve as the final word on related issues in school and community. Skills such as athletic training were acquired through publications from Cramer, a supplier of training products. Volunteer direction of events such as Punt, Pass, and Kick competitions each fall was expected, as were ancillary school roles seldom receiving more than minimal remuneration, if anything.

Starting in junior high, classes were separated for males and females in physical education, as were many college departments and facilities. Sports competition for females in school was in the form of occasional "play days." Emphasis on physical fitness occurred in the form of "15 minutes of vigorous physical activity every day" and state-prescribed fitness testing and statewide fitness competitions through school physical education programs.

With Harvard President James Conant's influential writing of "The Education of American Teachers" in 1963 and the Russian launch of Sputnik, traditional practices were redirected. Fewer days and hours were scheduled for physical education. High value was placed on academics. Science and math emphasis pushed specialties into a corner. At the same time, Cooper's Aerobic Institute and Jackie Sorensen's development of aerobic dance gave impetus to cardiorespiratory activities and programs. Their efforts can be seen today in the lives of Americans. These developments created new industries for fitness-related specialists and have challenged school and college programs to keep pace.

The conceptualization of physical education began to change in the late 1960s. Heretofore, we were content to be an applied field of study and work. Stature around the tables in higher education was linked to disciplines—bodies of knowledge. Accordingly, cutting-edge thinkers searched to find a focus—movement, sport, exercise—to define physical education. Each focus has had advocates. Once these focuses were adopted as college curricula, new applications followed. Specializations prepared for a host of new career paths, of which school-linked employment was only one. The era's generalists during this transition period eagerly tell stories of the narrow visions sometimes possessed by specialists under our umbrella.

Concurrent with this professional evolution have been youth sport specialization and yearlong "seasons." While the results might questionably be higher level performances, the costs, both human and capital, have been excessive. These put pressures on schools and our practitioners. Education and physical educators have lost some of the control of athletics in schools and communities.

More recent decades have ushered in pursuits, some esoteric in nature, well beyond general programs of the past. These include rock climbing, kayaking, yoga, and ultra-marathons, among others. Yet the level of inactivity and the health of people today, especially young people, is disturbing. "Taking it easy" has been taken to heart.

In the past, school programs and our literature highlighted concomitant learnings such as creating safe spaces and feeling comfortable. These seem to have been pushed to the forefront, sometimes replacing core contributions of fitness and skill development. Substituting online and distance learning mediums in education might change our method and product in less desirable ways.

With the foregoing and personalized view of some of our profession's changes, I will describe what these lessons have meant to me.

## More Than a Teacher-Professor

I taught and coached for several years in a public school before a 32-year career as a college professor. It would have pleased my mentors to have known I fulfilled the four types of initiatives they encouraged and I embraced as a professional physical educator. In the early 1970s, I was fortunate to work with graduate student Kerry

Ellison, a 4-minute miler, as well as Rick McCarty in developing a Special Olympics program. I learned and enjoyed much from each. I was fortunate to work with those especially skilled as well as those with special needs.

Health and physical activity have been continuing parts of my lifestyle. I enjoy learning and participating in new sports and trying to see how my body responds to exercise in my eighth decade. I am pleased that my wife, daughter, and three sons live and enjoy physically active lifestyles. Endorsing the Y theme of body-mind-spirit, I have been a Y board member while also writing opinion pieces for newspapers on fitness information, school athletic issues, and values in sports. I served as a technical advisor for sport-related litigation for 15 years.

## Bumps in the Road

### *Personal*

I have needed resiliency from health setbacks. I have learned lifestyle cannot prevent all illnesses and I do my part to help medicine heal me. Exercise has helped bring me back from difficult times.

### *Professionally*

As a Life Member of AAHPERD, now SHAPE America, and Phi Epsilon Kappa, I have followed philosophical and program changes. It is regrettable that some school instructional programs do not physically innervate or stimulate kids for good health; children are not required to shower after classes or practices and athletes are excused from academic requirements. Similarly, PETE programs have diminished to the point at which mastery has been replaced by students "experiencing" only performance-based subject matter and the physical educator as a model has been de-emphasized for those planning to enter our profession. Yet the tired old canard "those who can't—teach and those who can't teach—coach" no longer annoys me. I have learned as a physical educator to care for my body, to learn and engage in things new and challenging, and to be the go-to person in my community with questions for which my profession serves as a resource. And I'm glad for my decision to major in physical education.

These things I have found to be true:

1. Find and utilize the guidance of a respected professional as a mentor.
2. Aim high in your choice of professional preparation programs; not all are equal.
3. Establish how you want to frame your career in the profession.
4. Embrace the traditional tenets of physical education in your lifestyle.

What are these tenets, what should guide choice of undergraduate and graduate programs, and how might one benefit from a mentor?

Physical education influences the whole child—body, mind, and spirit. Our process educates through physical activity as well as of the physical. Effective professionals model what is taught. They are advocates and spokespersons for physical education in education programs. School programs are built as pyramids with instruction as the base, intramurals for interests, and athletics at the apex for the talented.

The choice of a professional program in higher education must blend personal resources with academic considerations. The latter should begin with a discussion with valued teachers or professors about programs' reputations. Due diligence can be pursued by learning about department faculty and supporting resources. Is there adequate disciplinary scope and diversity among faculty? Do full-time faculty cover the core areas of the curriculum? To what extent are faculty engaged in professional associations, scholarly activities, and student development? Does an emphasis in one compromise another? Is campus life one in which the prospective student can easily fit? Are there opportunities and support for involvement in clubs and interest groups? What are the retention rates and success of graduates?

The seriousness of entering this stage of a career cannot be overemphasized. Choosing a program should not be conducted alone because of the varied offerings in our institutions, some of which might not be what they are advertised. Enter the mentor, a role proven of value in life's major decisions.

Two considerations may be interchangeable in their importance: Choose someone who has an interest in you and with whom you can easily converse. You will have questions to ask. Your mentor should have credibility from experience, background, and training. Once these deliberations are complete, a program chosen, and/or a career engaged, return to those who helped you along the way to express your appreciation.

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YOU AND THE LAW

# Class Certification in Fraud

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*Mullen v. GLV, Inc.*, No. 18 C 1465 (N.D. Ill. Jan. 23, 2019).

An Illinois mother filed a class action suit against a local volleyball club and its two co-owners for allegedly committing fraud when owners failed to disclose that one of the co-owners raped and sexually assaulted at least six underage women in the 1980s.

## Facts of the Case

Robert Butler was a coach of a Chicago volleyball club. Further, Butler co-owned GLV Incorporated (GLV), a prestigious club that placed its members with top-level collegiate volleyball programs. While GLV showed consistent success with their member athletes, Butler was accused of raping and sexually assaulting underage female club members during the 1980s. The Butler family was also accused of impeding victims' testimonies. In January 2018, USA Volleyball officially banned Butler from the sport. Butler admitted to having sexual relations with some of the accusers but claims they were not underage. Butler further denied accusations of rape and sexual assault.

Lauren Mullen, whose daughters participated in volleyball programs at GLV, filed suit against Butler, his wife, and GLV. Mullen alleged that when the Butlers failed to disclose Butler's inappropriate behavior and sexual misconduct, they had committed an act of

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fraud. Mullen brought claims of common-law fraud, fraudulent concealment, and unjust enrichment, as well as unlawful deception under the Illinois Consumer Fraud Act (ICFA) and the Illinois Physical Fitness Services Act (IPFSA). Mullen also alleged that GLV's physical fitness contracts failed to comply with requirements of the IPFSA, thus rendering said contracts void and entitling Mullen to damages. Mullen proposed representing a class of individuals who, between February 27, 2013, and January 20, 2018, paid the defendants for youth volleyball instructions. Mullen proposed as an alternative a smaller class of only individuals who paid for volleyball activities through the sports performance program, which was supervised by Butler. The crux of this case revolved around defining class before moving forward with fraud charges.

## Case Outcome

A class action lawsuit is where one of the parties consists of individuals who are collectively represented by a single person. In *Mullen v. GLV Inc.*, Mullen was identified as the class representative for the primary and alternative classes. The primary class represented GLV members from 2013 to 2018 who paid for youth volleyball instructions, whereas the alternative class included members who took part in the sports performance program hosted by Butler. For a party to gain a class certification, the class must be ascertainable and meet the requirements of the Federal Rule of Civil Procedures 23(a) and 23(b). First, for 23(a), an ascertainable class must be clearly defined and based on objective criteria, which the court confirmed. Next, Mullen had to meet the numerosity standard, typicality standard, commonality standard, and adequacy of representation. The court ruled that both classes met the requirements of 23(a).

Rule 23(b) required Mullen to show that questions of law or fact, common to the class members, predominate over individual issues, to confirm the class as suitable. Many aspects of Mullen's claims were common among class members and could be solved on a class-wide basis. However, the court concluded that common issues did not predominate for the primary class because of differences among GLV's programs. This did not stop Mullen's class action case, as the court ruled that the alternative class satisfied the predominance requirement. With the class being ascertainable and meeting the requirements of 23(a) and 23(b), the court ruled that the alterna-

tive class action suit was a suitable method of adjudicating this case. The alternative class represents club members who paid money to the sports performance program hosted by Butler. This alternative group sought damages for fraud from Butler.

## Practical Implications

This case illustrates a practical defense for organizations on surviving a class action lawsuit. One way to defeat a class action formation is by portraying conflicting interests among potential class members. In *Mullen v. GLV Inc.*, the defense had evidence that parents continued to enroll their children in programs at GLV despite being aware of Butler's past. The defense also had evidence of parents signing waivers, which allowed their children to work with Butler, even given his past legal issues. The defense then argued that the members of Mullen's class proposals were not truly concerned about the accusations against Butler.

Butler's case alludes to the "pass-the-buck" mentality, wherein an organization may impose small or inconsequential punishments against a coach or administrator, but said coach or administrator may go elsewhere to work in a similar environment. Butler was banned for life from coaching volleyball from the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) in 1995 because of his previous sexual assault allegations, yet USA Volleyball did not suspend Butler for life until 2018 (Assael, 2015; *Mullen v. GLV, Inc.*, 2019). A simple act of reporting suspensions across agencies may have stopped this case from ever occurring. One positive was that the AAU suspended Butler indefinitely instead of granting him a true pass-the-buck action by concealing his alleged acts. The pass-the-buck mentality for sexually deviant coaches is dangerous for children, and school administrators must be aware of this action. For example, Stephen Calton was a basketball coach at Foothill High School in Sacramento (CBS Sacramento, 2018). Calton was arrested for oral copulation with a minor in 2018. Previously, and while employed at Foothill High School, Calton was charged with misdemeanor battery, felony vandalism, and felony burglary. The Calton case emphasized the need for continuing background checks on employees, which may fall under a duty to hire a fit and competent staff (Cotton & Wolohan, 2017).

Schools and administrators can take a number of steps to minimize sexual deviancy. While background checks are important,

students should be informed of sexual deviancy and how to report these instances. Creating a safe reporting environment for students is a necessity. Schools should also build a strong community with parents and/or guardians to enhance communications surrounding sexual deviancy, including prevention. This open line of communication will allow for further education about sexual deviancy for parents and their children. Thus, creating an environment for parents to report potential sexually deviant activities will aid school administrators in combatting sexual deviancy.

## Conclusion

This case portrays a number of ripple effects stemming from sexual deviancy with a minor. Butler was able to work with young athletes for decades, although it could have been prevented. Schools and youth programs need to take every practical step in preventing harm to children, which could be done via extensive background checks, communication across organizations, and multifaceted sexual deviancy awareness campaigns. Class action suits may provide relief should a number of victims stem from one individual. This case shows the possibility of victims seeking relief from one person and gives a blueprint for defense should a class action suit arise against an organization.

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