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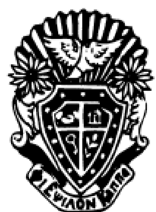

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DIVERSITY

Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion in Kinesiology Departments

Colin G. Pennington

Abstract

While kinesiology as a field and as an academic major has evolved and diversified considerably over the last several decades, the cultural and racial demographics of kinesiology majors has remained fairly similar to the demographic characteristics of the early 2000s and before. There is incongruence between the actual diversity of the American population and the diversity of the population in American higher education. This disparate status further extends to kinesiology programs and subsequent subdisciplines. While the responsible systemic racial and cultural variables are worthy to be considered, examined, and corrected, this article does not drill into such constructs. Instead, this article identifies the barriers and facilitators of cultural and racial demographics as expressed by kinesiology majors and kinesiology-related professionals in higher education kinesiology programs and the allied health professions. This article discusses the importance of actively promoting kinesiology to diverse populations in the community. It amplifies the message of many scholars calling attention to a lack of diversity, as well as promotes selected effective strategies being initialized in kinesiology departments and among the allied health professions.

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"There's nothing healthy about racism. It is a disease of the heart and mind. It has infected, not just people, but customs, systems, and laws. There's no vaccine. We must be the cure."

— Sharon Dunn,
American Physical Therapy Association President,
May 31, 2020

The concepts of diversity, equity, and inclusion are generally associated with racial and ethnic issues. However, it is critical for both society and individuals to acknowledge and understand that these concepts are much more complex. Other meaningful components of diversity, equity, and inclusion (i.e., gender, gender identity, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, language, culture or national origin, religious commitments, age, disability, and political perspective) also need to be addressed (Loria, 2021). Because diversity has many components, the concept of inclusion has multiple definitions. For example, the Ford Foundation (2020) defines inclusion as building "a culture of belonging by actively inviting the contribution and participation of all people" (p. 1). On the other hand, the University of Iowa (2020) defines inclusion as when "all members are and feel respected, have a sense of belonging, and are able to participate in and achieve to their potential" (Inclusion section, para. 1). One of my favorite definitions of diversity, equity, and inclusion comes from the Office of Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion (n.d.) at the University of Michigan: "Diversity is where everyone is invited to the party. Equity means everyone gets to contribute to the playlist. Inclusion means that everyone has the opportunity to dance" (para. 5).

In a recent special edition of *American Physical Therapy Association Magazine* focusing on diversity, equity, and inclusion, Rachel Herron, doctor of physical therapy, said that society is diverse. Professionals in kinesiology and the allied health professions need to recognize societal diversity because all of those they lead, educate, and treat have different experiences. They should consider these unique experiences and subsequent unique perspectives if they truly want to lead, educate, and treat people holistically (Loria, 2021).

A Historical Perspective of Racial and Ethnic Diversity in Kinesiology

American population demographics will likely continue to undergo a significant shift in race and ethnicity whereby the country becomes more ethnically diverse. In spite of its dramatic expansion, the field of kinesiology has been slow to recognize its responsibility and commitment to greater diversification of faculty and students (Hodge & Wiggins, 2010). The number of ethnic and minority faculty in kinesiology teaching at predominantly White institutions is "embarrassingly small"; this must change if the field of kinesiology is going to thrive (Hodge & Wiggins, 2010, p. 50).

In contrast to increased enrollments of students of color, a consistently low representation of Black faculty at predominantly White institutions of higher education continues. In 2007, only 7% of faculty in the United States were Black (Snyder et al., 2009) and mostly they taught at historically Black colleges and universities. One of the ironies in the history of physical education—the origin of the kinesiology discipline—is Aaron Molyneaux Hewlett, the first person to hold an academic position in the profession, was a Black scholar (Hodge & Wiggins, 2010). Hewlett served as director of physical education and culture at Harvard University from 1859 until his death in 1871 (Smith, 2003). No African American, however, held an academic position in physical education at a predominantly White institution from the time of Hewlett's death in 1871 until Roscoe Brown, who was hired by New York University in 1950 (Hodge & Wiggins, 2010).

Kinesiology-Related Professional Organizations

In regard to leadership roles in the professional organizations of the kinesiology field, the field, historically and as a whole, has failed to uphold diversity and inclusion benchmarks. At the time of the writing of this manuscript, out of the 89 honor lectures given at the annual conference of the National Association for Kinesiology and Physical Education in Higher Education (NAKPEHE), only one has been presented by an African American. Furthermore, out of the 26 presidents of NAKPEHE, none have been African American. Similarly, out of the 74 presidents of the National College Physical Education Association for men, none have been African American.

The lack of diversity regarding professional organization leadership has also been evident in women's organizations. For example, out of the 27 presidents of the National Association for Physical Education of College Women, none have been African American. Dating back to the early 1900s, the American Academy of Kinesiology and Physical Education, one of the oldest professional organizations in the field, has also lacked diversity. Despite having over 500 individuals elected to the American Academy of Kinesiology and Physical Education since 1926, only two have been African American. Finally, the Society of Health and Physical Educators (SHAPE America, formerly the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance) has not been immune to a lack of racial and ethnic diversity in positions of leadership; out of the 48 presidents of SHAPE America, only four have been African American (Hodge & Wiggins, 2010).

Faculty Demographics

The presence of full-time faculty of color at U.S. colleges and universities is increasing; however, most full-time faculty (over 75%) at American colleges and universities are White (Snyder et al., 2009). At degree-granting American colleges and universities, roughly two thirds (66%) of full-time faculty with tenure are men and one third are women; most full-time faculty with tenure are White (Bradburn & Sikora, 2002). There is also inequity in salary compensation. Asian American faculty base salaries are higher on average than White and Hispanic faculty base salaries, which are higher than African American faculty base salaries (Bradburn & Sikora, 2002).

Noticing this inequity, many institutions are seeking to diversify their faculties. According to Hodge and Wiggins (2010) in their robust historical overview of diversity in academia, "faculty diversification is a complex goal to achieve both culturally (changing the academic culture) and politically (exposing hidden agendas and biases) and therefore it can be difficult to accomplish" (p. 45). Thomas's (2003) explanation shows the difficulties of recruiting and hiring faculty who reflect diversity in their ethnicity and/or gender:

> The fact that we have difficulty attracting faculty of color to our institutions is a direct result of our failure to attract students of color to our doctoral programs. I believe our over

> emphasis on quantitative values to select doctoral students is a direct influence in this problem. We admit students to programs based on a quantitative notion of smart and fail to look carefully at the other characteristics - hard working, adaptable, and nice. Of course, it is much easier to rely on a GPA and GRE test score than to evaluate the other characteristics and the notion of social quotient. If we ever hope to achieve a diverse faculty in higher education that represents the world's cultures, we must begin by achieving a diverse group of doctoral students. (p. 8)

The Status of the Status Quo

There is incongruence between the actual diversity of the American population and the diversity (or lack there-of) of the population in American higher education. For example, in comparison to national demographic ratios, people of color in higher education are underrepresented (Barfield et al., 2012). This disparate status further extends to kinesiology programs and the subsequent allied health subdisciplines.

While systemic racial and cultural variables are worthy of consideration, examination, and correction, this article does not drill into such constructs. Instead, these sections focus on identifying the barriers and facilitators of racial and cultural demographics as expressed by kinesiology majors and kinesiology-related professionals in higher education kinesiology programs and the allied health professions. Research exploring such components of recruitment and socialization into kinesiology programs for people of color have revealed important information. Enrollment barriers for non-White prospective recruits include (a) the attitudes of the faculty toward race and culture (when attitudes are perceived to be harmful and/or noninclusive), (b) limited access to job shadowing opportunities, (c) academic preparation, (d) physical self-efficacy, and (e) a perceived inability to manage the required course workload (Barfield et al., 2012). Barfield et al. (2012) are not alone in exploring barriers to minority enrollment in the field of kinesiology. Other factors contributing to the lack of diversity in kinesiology departments and programs include the outrageous financial cost, a lack of positive role models of the same ethnic background, and perceived poor

communication skills (O'Neil & Richards, 2018). Furthermore, there is a disturbing trend of non-White students having a higher rate of attrition than White students; this is in addition to non-White students being less likely to be admitted into kinesiology higher education programs (O'Neil & Richards, 2018). This phenomenon and trend need further exploration and correction. The Student Recruitment and Pipeline Development section further explores the concept of retention.

The lack of minority students in kinesiology and the health-related fields extends to sport pedagogy and physical education teacher education (PETE) programs, physical therapy, athletic training, and other allied health programs. As with the majority of allied health programs, PETE programs tend to recruit White males (Clouten et al., 2006; Spector, 2004). Similarly, a lack of role models with the same ethnic background may be keeping some individuals out of the sport pedagogy profession (Geisler, 2003; O'Neil & Richards, 2018; Perrin, 2000). This phenomenon and trend need further exploration and correction. The Student Recruitment and Pipeline Development section further explores the concept of mentorship.

Representation in the Public

It is not novel to believe the population of those educating, treating, and serving the public should be representative of the population of those being educated, treated, and served (Brown et al., 2005). Having a profession in which providers resemble the population—not only in appearance but also in the cultural characteristics—benefits individuals entering the kinesiology profession (i.e., sport, physical education, and allied health professions; Loria, 2021). Cultural representation enables the kinesiology-related professions to continue to grow, learn, and work together to address individual biases and fight systematic racism. Such representation empowers patients to feel understood and safe when they receive care. For example, Rachel Herron, a physical therapist and person of color, provides this reflection of her experience and observations in the physical therapy setting: "I didn't see my first brown physical therapist until I got to [physical therapy] school . . . It changes your sense of safety and comfort. If you see yourself reflected, you feel there's more chance you won't be harmed in the experience" (Loria, 2021, p. 26). Herron's observations and beliefs that minorities

perceive their health care to be better when the professional has a similar racial or ethnic background align with the research (Brown et al., 2005).

The recruitment of racially and ethnically diverse individuals into allied health professions has not kept pace with demographic changes in the general population of the United States (Donini-Lenhoff & Brotherton, 2010). Although Caucasians are still the majority, this demographic group will eventually become the nation's largest minority group. By 2050, the proportion of African Americans in the United States is projected to increase from 13% to 15% (Clouten et al., 2006). A projected increase is also expected for other minority ethnic groups including Hispanics (from 13% to 24%) and Asians (from 4% to 8%; Clouten et al., 2006). As a whole, ethnic minority groups already receive less and lower quality health care than Caucasians (Spector, 2004; Sullivan Commission on Diversity in the Healthcare Workforce, 2021). With the expected demographic changes in the upcoming decades, the lack of health professionals representing minority populations will more than likely only compound the country's persistent racial and ethnic health disparities (Barfield et al., 2012).

Strategies to Promote Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion

Clearly, there is a need in institutions for effective recruitment and education of prospective kinesiology-related health professionals who represent minority races. When students, athletes, and patients see a professional who mirrors their personal cultural representation, it may motivate them to pursue that profession. Therefore, it is important for kinesiology departments to understand the influences and barriers that affect enrollment into allied health education among prospective minority students (O'Neil & Richards, 2018). The deficiency of minorities in higher education has been widely recognized by kinesiology-based professional associations (i.e., SHAPE America) and has been a widely-discussed topic of conversation in recent kinesiology-related academic journals (i.e., *Kinesiology Review*, *Quest*, *Journal of Athletic Training*, and *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, & Dance*, among others).

As mentioned in scholarship discussing recruitment into kinesiology programs (Richards et al., 2019), the primary factors that are important influences on enrollment into kinesiology and the allied

health professions majors are virtually identical to those of sport pedagogy majors. Six key socializing agents motivating individuals to pursue careers stemming from kinesiology degrees include (1) personal influences (e.g., teachers and coaches), (2) social influences (e.g., diversity of the program), (3) academic preparation, (4) career opportunity, (5) a desire to help others, and (6) past success in sport or physical education experiences (Barfield et al., 2012; Richards et al., 2019). Based on the work of Loria (2021) and O'Neil and Richards (2018), these strategies and suggestions for kinesiology departments can enhance the effectiveness of recruiting students of diverse backgrounds into their programs:

- cultural competence resources and trainings, in person or online;
- fundraising and scholarships for minority groups;
- a Curriculum Oversight Committee that ensures curriculums are taught through diversity, equity, and inclusion lenses;
- resources such as slideshow presentations on the university/department webpage and/or course online shells (Canvas, Blackboard, Moodle, etc.);
- age-appropriate activities for kinesiology and allied health professional programs to promote student recruitment and outreach efforts;
- department and program websites with social media presence;
- department and program flyers (print or PDF), images, and marketing videos; and
- deeper commitments and emphasis on student recruitment and pipeline development.

Furthermore, to help facilitate success in meeting these missions and goals, many kinesiology-related organizations—not limited to academic institutions—have developed initiatives in line with diversity-related outcomes. Like various health and medical organizations, professional associations in athletic training, exercise science, occupational therapy, and physical therapy have developed Diversity Committees to help attract and retain interested minorities by offering scholarships, leadership opportunities, and/or mentoring programs (O'Neil & Richards, 2018). These committees have

reached some level of success by increasing and amplifying the message, if nothing else. It is highly encouraged that other institutions, organizations, and professional units employ the same tactics.

Student Recruitment and Pipeline Development

The last item in the list of strategies, student recruitment and pipeline development, has extensive potential impact. As such, this section fleshes out concepts of student recruitment and pipeline development.

African American students in kinesiology and the allied health majors indicate the most important influences to their enrollment decision include (a) personal influences such as parents or teachers and (b) mentorship within the allied health profession (Baldwin et al., 2006). This finding documents the need for kinesiology-based programs to target African American students through mentors (e.g., teachers and/or coaches; Barfield et al., 2012). It is not surprising that so much overlap exists among the influence and barrier factors leading to prospective recruits entering the kinesiology and/or allied health profession majors. The professional outcomes and experiences overlap in similarity enough that it is reasonable for similar acculturative experiences to be the cause for pursuit of said major. Few high school programs include courses within the allied health field; therefore, mentoring from allied health teachers or professionals may be present (potential influence) or not (potential barrier; Barfield et al., 2012). Regardless, the subdisciplines of kinesiology (beyond sport pedagogy) must recognize important personal, environmental, and behavioral factors that affect the enrollment decision making of prospective students. To target potential students effectively, institutions and programs must address these factors within direct marketing efforts. Marketing efforts must become more thoughtfully targeted, intentional, and active. Institutions recruit students through a variety of marketing strategies (open houses, high school visits, and campus tours, etc.). After an institution identifies interested students, kinesiology departments and/or programs typically have the option of sending program-specific recruitment materials or setting individual meetings between students and program faculty members. Unfortunately, allied health education faculty and staff usually lack adequate knowledge of key elements that affect the decision making of potential students (Barfield et al., 2012; Neilson & Lauder,

2008; Palumbo et al., 2008). Programs may have greater success in recruiting minority prospects if programs choose to set individual meetings between students and faculty members who represent the student's cultural characteristics. Furthermore, such meetings establish the potential for long-term mentorship.

Focus and investment in recruitment initiatives for students from kindergarten to college raise awareness about career options in kinesiology while increasing diversity within the profession by widening the applicant pools (Loria, 2021). Such initiatives require prospective students to hear from individuals to whom they relate. In this regard, ethnically and culturally diverse mentorship and internship programs in the community reach minority populations with health and movement education and/or activities (perhaps as part of service-learning initiatives) and expose them to kinesiology as a career trajectory from someone with whom they may better identify. Once prospective students join the higher education program, faculty and academic success committees can continue to work with undergraduates from disadvantaged backgrounds, primarily those from racial minority groups underrepresented in allied health professions, to ensure successful professional socialization.

Mentorship

The recruitment effort alone is not the answer to enrolling minority students; it is the mentoring, support, and building of positive relationships that enhance and develop the "pipeline" for recruitment of future leaders in kinesiology-related professions. Mentoring is a strong strategy for supporting college students' development according to the higher education literature (Pennington, 2021); it provides emotional support, direct assistance with professional development, and role modeling (Richards et al., 2017). The presence of a mentor can improve mentees' professional development and socialization (Richards et al., 2019). Mentors act as role models while fostering a safe environment for interaction, emotional support, and boosting mentees' confidence. Mentoring within higher education programs can improve mentees' abilities through concentrated feedback and ongoing support (Awaya et al., 2003; Gehrke, 1988). The mentoring relationship allows a novice to gain insight and training through the experience of an expert in any particular field, and this relationship easily transfers to the higher education context (Pennington,

2021). In regard to a mentoring relationship that illustrates cultural representation, components include emotional and psychological support, assistance with professional development, and role modeling (Long, 1997), as well as pairing of social class, race, orientation, gender, and ability (Fassinger & Hensler-McGinnis, 2005), in addition to ethnicity.

Retention

While active recruitment efforts and ethnically and culturally diverse mentoring and internships are important for successful recruitment of minority students into programs, retention of students during their program, and even upon graduation, is another important factor in the recruitment of minority students. In higher education, student retention is a "longitudinal process incorporating both the academic potential of the student and institutional social systems, thus creating a directional model based on continual variance in social commitments that influence academic performance" (Kerby, 2015, p. 139). A review of retention in teacher education programs suggests that "specific methods for enhancing student retention [focus] on creating a positive social and academic climate on campus (Kahu, 2013)" (Richards & Templin, 2019, p. 16). Literature concerning representation (Loria, 2021; O'Neil & Richards, 2018) and peer–peer mentorships (Pennington, 2021) suggests that thoughtful pairing of mentors and mentees facilitates a positive social climate and increases the likelihood of retention. Some programs in higher education apply both peer mentoring and faculty mentoring to help students successfully transition from high school into higher education (Bulger et al., 2016; Campbell, 2007; Chester et al., 2013), and said programs could and should be replicated with representation and diversity in mind.

Conclusion

Kinesiology and the allied health professions need faculty, professional, and student representation that reflects the American present-day and future population. The more representation within the workforce, the greater chance all patients will be seen and heard (Loria, 2021). The sentiment of the American Physical Therapy Association is that addressing issues surrounding the concepts of diversity, equity, and inclusion helps promote positive changes,

supports and improves accessibility opportunities for everyone, and ensures a vocal platform at the decision-making table (Loria, 2021). Discussions in this line must include leaders and administrations in positions of power who have the ability and authority to make necessary changes (Loria, 2021). Herron's eloquent summary highlights the argument for more efforts:

> [You don't have] to be an expert to speak up for others.
>
> "Yes, there is a time to listen to educate yourself. And yes, it is important for us to give the microphone to the person from that minority community and allow them to speak up if they choose to do that" . . . "It's important to talk less and listen more, but I think many of us limit ourselves because we are fearful we won't say things the right way. No one is an expert on this. It takes many experiences of speaking up." (Loria, 2021, Expanding Advocacy section, para. 3–4)

Dunn's (2009) words support the need for diversity in higher education institutions:

> truly great universities must be diverse. They must be inclusive, and there must be programs committed to recruiting and supporting others who may feel excluded . . . we must have a greater presence of individuals who come from underrepresented communities in our professional ranks as faculty members, scholars, and researchers. (pp. 272–275)

This article highlights the importance and significance for leaders in the kinesiology fields to demonstrate professional and societal virtue afforded by their opportunistic status. There is a recognized lack of diversity in kinesiology programs (and subsequently the allied health professions), and steps to correct the diversity imbalance are being taken. While the strategies in this article do not guarantee success of those who are merely going through the motions, they aid leaders in kinesiology departments and programs to initiate progress in increasing and retaining diversity in their programs. The measurable success of those addressing the complex issue of increasing and retaining the concepts is promising. Their success encourages all who will follow in the paths of the leaders and champions of diversity. The

following is a list of recent successes in relation to increasing diversity in kinesiology programming (Loria, 2021):

- Special search committees focusing upon and emphasizing diversity, equity, and inclusion have been formed within the American Physical Therapy Association.
- The collective call for diversity and social justice has led to a student-founded and student-led diversity group within several physical therapy doctoral programs.
- DPT Weeks O'Neal has started the first national Native American/Alaskan native physical therapy program.
- DPT student Howe Wang in Virginia Commonwealth has developed a program called Practice Pride in which self-identified LGBTQ+ health science students have met with similar faculty to have conversations about navigating the health profession.
- The Allied Health Workforce Diversity Act (H. R. 3637/s.2747) has been drafted. This bipartisan legislation would create new grants for education programs to recruit and retain individuals who are underrepresented in allied health professions including racial minorities from disciplined backgrounds. As of early 2021, the bill passed the U.S. house and awaits action in the Senate.

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HISTORICAL

"The Struggle Is Real": The Life History of a Groundbreaking African American, Female Basketball Coach

Richard F. Jowers and Matthew D. Curtner-Smith

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to construct the life history of Dana "Pokey" Chatman, a successful African American, female basketball coach. The study was guided by elements from critical race feminism. Data were collected through formal semistructured interviews, informal interviews, and documents and artifacts. They were analyzed through analytic induction and constant comparison. Key findings were that Pokey faced a considerable amount of marginalization and experienced a steady flow of microaggressions with the exception of the time she worked in Eastern Europe. Pokey's mother, sister, childhood community, love of sport, university teammates, and head coach all played a role in helping her overcome the racism she faced. Pokey's life history is inspiring and should encourage other women of color who have similar ambitions to persist in their efforts to become sports coaches. It can also be employed in efforts to transform the working environments of African American, female coaches.

In 2020, only 10% of the women who were head coaches and 24% of the women who were assistant coaches of college basketball teams in the United States identified as African American. By contrast,

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45% of the women playing on college basketball teams identified as African American (National Collegiate Athletic Association [NCAA], 2020). Moreover, during the 2019 season, there was only one African American, female head coach in the Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA), the premier professional league in the United States. Conversely, the proportion of WNBA players who identified as African American or a person of color was 82.70% (Lapchick, 2019). There is, then, a need to find out why there are so few African American, female basketball coaches, and an important element of that research should focus on uncovering the degree of marginalization of those African American, female coaches who are employed at the college level or in the WNBA.

The life history approach is a qualitative design that feminists and sport pedagogists have argued is useful in discovering why physical educators and coaches are marginalized on the basis of their gender, race, ethnicity, age, physical ability, class, and subject matter (Ashford-Hanserd, 2020; McLaughlin & Tierney, 1993; Sparkes et al., 1993). Advocates of this approach stress its advantages in terms of giving marginalized persons voice (Dowling et al., 2015). This approach involves scholars describing a participant's life story and explaining the influence of political, historical, social, and cultural factors on this story (Given, 2008; Goodson, 1980, 1992; Payne & Payne, 2004; Plummer, 2001). A number of data collection methods can be used in life history work. These include formal and informal interviews, the collection of artifacts and documents, autobiographies, storytelling, and memoir writing (Cazers & Curtner-Smith, 2013; Sparkes, 1993).

Coaches' Life Histories

Despite calls for more life history work focused on marginalization of educators (Sparkes et al., 1993), there are few examples of it in the sport pedagogy literature. Life histories of coaches that have been completed with this focus have included those of African American (Milton-Williams & Bryan, 2021) and White (Templin et al., 1994) teacher-coaches, those of two Latino American football coaches (Iber, 2009), and that of a Latino Major League Baseball coach (Iber, 2014, 2016). In addition, scholars have written the life histories of an Australian rules football coach (Wedgwood, 2004, 2005); Percy Cerutty, a well-known track and field coach (Turner,

2017); and several disability sport coaches (Berger, 2009; Douglas & Hardin, 2014; Douglas et al., 2016). To our knowledge, only two life histories of women's basketball coaches have been completed (Summitt & Jenkins, 2013; Stringer & Tucker, 2009). Key findings of these two biographies of high-level coaches were both women experienced sexism, and the one African American coach experienced overt and covert racism, most notably when a radio host referred to her team as "nappy-headed hoes."

Purpose

Our aim was to extend the research in this line. Specifically, following Sparkes et al. (1993), Cazers and Curtner-Smith (2013), and Milton-Williams and Bryan (2021), we were interested in examining the impact of marginalization through race and gender. The purpose of the study, therefore, was to construct the life history of one African American, female basketball coach. The specific research questions we sought to answer were (a) to what extent did the coach experience marginalization? and (b) to what extent did the coach experience microaggressions?

Theoretical Framework

Scholars employing critical race theory describe and reveal how persons of color are discriminated against in general (Delgado et al., 2017; Tate, 1997). In this study, construction of the participant's life history was guided by a branch of critical race theory known as critical race feminism (Delgado, 1995; Wing, 2000, 2014). Critical race feminists argue that discrimination for women of color is different to that of men of color and White women. Specifically, women of color experience marginalization from both a White patriarchal system and racism. For this reason, critical race feminists study the intersection of race and gender on women of color with the goal of revealing and combating discrimination and oppression (Crenshaw, 1989; Evans-Winters & Esposito, 2010; Hill Collins & Bilge, 2016).

During this study, we drew on two constructs from critical race feminism. These were counter-stories and microaggressions. In this context, counter-stories are rarely heard narratives in which women of color describe the discrimination, marginalization, and injustice from which they suffer. These stories contradict narratives from the majority and dominant group, in this case White men (Ashford-

Hanserd, 2020; Berry, 2010; Clark et al., 2015; Dixson et al., 2017; Solórzano & Yosso, 2002). During this study, our goal was to enable the participant to tell such a counter-story.

Microaggressions include brief verbal or nonverbal slights or attacks that are, in this context, directed at women of color. They may or may not be intentional but are derogatory, racist, and negative in nature (Sue et al., 2007). Over time, the mental health of women of color subjected to microaggressions can deteriorate (Pérez Huber & Solórzano, 2015; Pierce, 2013). There are three types of microaggression (Sue et al., 2007). Microinvalidations occur when the views of women of color are ignored or belittled. Microinsults are rude and insensitive comments that disparage and demean the heritage of women of color. Microassaults include discriminatory actions and derogatory name-calling aimed at causing hurt. During this study, we were interested in describing the microaggressions the participant experienced and her reactions to them.

Method

Participant

The participant in this study was Dana "Pokey" Chatman, a 51-year-old African American WNBA head coach and former NCAA Division I (i.e., the highest level of university sport in the United States) college coach. She was purposely selected for the study on the basis of her race, gender, longevity in coaching, and success. In accordance with our institutional review board's regulations, she signed a consent form indicating her willingness to take part in the study. She also asked that we use her real name in this paper, and to be brief, we refer to her by her preferred moniker, Pokey. Our university's institutional review board approved this research.

Data Collection

Pokey completed three in-depth, semistructured formal interviews (Patton, 2015) with Richard F. Jowers by telephone. During the first formal interview, Pokey answered questions about the impact of her family, friends, schooling, sport participation, and local culture on her childhood and youth prior to entering college. In the second formal interview, Pokey described her life as an undergraduate college student-athlete and her coaching career. During the third

formal interview, Pokey provided examples of the marginalization she had experienced to that point in her life, in terms of discrimination and injustice, and the microaggressions she had been subjected to. In addition, Pokey relayed and described important cultural, social, historical, and political events and experiences that influenced her. The interviews ranged from 55 to 111 min, were recorded with Adobe Audition, and were transcribed verbatim.

Pokey completed two follow-up informal interviews by phone with Jowers and answered other follow-up questions Jowers posed via email. These informal interviews and emails helped us to confirm and develop points made in the formal interviews. Jowers recorded the contents of follow-up informal interviews by making notes during the interviews. Supplemental data included useful documents we discovered online (e.g., digital yearbooks, Pokey's biography, team media guides) and artifacts and documents (e.g., photographs, practice plans, film of Pokey in action) that Pokey supplied and that illustrated and filled out her life history and the marginalization and microaggressions she faced. Jowers made notes on the contents and salience of each document and artifact.

Data Analysis

Jowers entered data from all sources into NVivo 12 (QSR International, n.d.). Jowers then used the computer program to sort the data into logical chronological periods. Next, Jowers employed analytic induction and constant comparison (Patton, 2015) to code and categorize the data. Codes and categories were both inductive and congruent with constructs from the two research questions and critical race feminism. Following previous sport pedagogy life history work (Armour, 2006; Sparkes et al., 1993), Jowers created a timeline of Pokey's life on which important cultural, political, historical, and social events were related to her life story. Taking on the role of critical friend (Costa & Kallick, 1993), Matthew D. Curtner-Smith critiqued and provided feedback on the chronological periods and emerging categories and codes.

Trustworthiness and credibility were established through three techniques (Patton, 2015). Jowers used any negative and discrepant cases to modify or alter codes and categories during the analysis. Triangulation involved Jowers cross-checking data across all sources. Jowers carried out member checking during the informal interviews

by asking Pokey to examine an earlier version of this manuscript for factual errors.

Dana "Pokey" Chatman's Life History

We describe Pokey's life history in three subsections. These are childhood and adolescence, university, and coaching career.

Childhood and Adolescence

Family and Community

Dana "Pokey" Chatman was born in Ama, Louisiana, just west of New Orleans, in 1969. It was the year Richard Nixon became president, the first Americans landed on the moon, large-scale protests against the Vietnam War took place, and 14 African American players were forced to leave the University of Wyoming football team because they wore black armbands into the head coach's office. It was also a year after the assassinations of Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. and Robert F. Kennedy and the end of the decade of racial, worker, and female protests against inequality and injustice during which the Civil Rights Act was passed in 1964.

Pokeys' mother and father were divorced a few years after her birth, and she and her elder sister were raised by their mother in humble circumstances:

> My mom goes from being married to working three jobs [i.e., at the post office in the morning, at the courthouse in the afternoon, and as a housekeeper or security guard in the evenings]. So my sister became the one who took care of the house, and I did the odd jobs. . . . I didn't know we didn't have any money. We always had food. We didn't have a hot water heater, so we boiled water in a couple of pots to take a bath. But despite all those things, that helped me navigate later on in life. (Interview 1)

Indeed, Pokey credited her mother for much of her later success, labeling her as her "first head coach," and noted the family's structure led to her and her sister developing a "strong bond." In addition, she indicated, as in many small southern towns of the time, there was a great deal of poverty and few facilities and amenities in the working-class African American area in which the family lived:

> In terms of the community being marginalized, when you're a kid you really aren't aware. Obviously, I think the one thing that I was aware of was the fact that I went to an elementary school, and 200 yards away from my elementary school was a swimming pool. But it was for White people only. [There] wasn't a sign . . . but it was widely known that it was a White people pool. And that was always weird to me because I had White classmates, White friends, and I didn't quite understand that. . . . And I think part of that made us all cling to the fact that we had sports. [That] you never felt that [i.e., racism] when you participated in sports, in terms of the marginalization, . . . is interesting. (Interview 3)

Despite this marginalization, Pokey recalled the community as being tight-knit and explained that to a large extent

> the village raised me. . . . It didn't matter if it was a neighborhood crook, crack-head, weed-head, alcoholic older person. Don't bring that crazy stuff around Pokey or to the basketball court. . . . I was the protected one [and] everyone had my best interest at hand. (Interview 1)

Schooling and Youth Sport

Schools had been officially integrated 15 years before Pokey was born (*Brown vs. Board of Education* in 1954)—hence her schools were "majority White" and reflected the town's 60% White and 40% African American population. Pokey had both White and African American school friends and sporting teammates; however, she recalled being outraged about the bias of her schools' curricula:

> You're not even aware of how bad it is. My family talked about it, but I was just always appalled at how little time we spent on anything related to Black history or some of the films that were shown or books that were read. You know, *Birth of a Nation*, or whatever. I think that carried a lot of weight with me to my young adulthood. . . . I remember being pissed that really we get the shortest month out of the year for Black history month. So I've always had . . . this huge pit in my

> stomach and anger for the lack of attention that our history and existence has always gotten. (Interview 3)

Regardless of the curricular bias she experienced, Pokey had many positive memories of her schooling, particularly her "thirst for knowledge," "her favorite subjects, mathematics and history, and physical education," which she described as her "second favorite part of the day . . . I felt like it wasn't long enough." Pokey participated on the girls' basketball, volleyball, and softball teams at her middle school, but by high school she focused solely on basketball. Describing herself as "short," and "not fast, or athletic," Pokey became one of the best high school guards in the country, an achievement she put down to her "work ethic."

The sporting facilities outside of school were also poor in Ama, and the opportunities for working-class African American children, particularly girls, to participate were restricted compared to those for middle-class White children. Even so, Pokey started playing "youth sports" before she was 6 years old. Specifically, she recalled being "very active" as a child and adolescent and playing on basketball, volleyball, and softball teams that were mainly "Black." In this youth sport environment, she traveled to tournaments and Pokey and her teammates experienced "nasty looks and whispers, but nothing blatant . . . nothing that scarred [her]."

By age 11, Pokey had played on a top Amateur Athletic Union (i.e., an organization in the United States that oversees youth sport) basketball team called the New Orleans Dominos and had won multiple team and individual awards. She described her Dominos experience in general and her coaches in particular as being "really influential" in her development as a player and later as a coach:

> There were people that were in that organization that were very influential. . . . It shaped my early commitment to the game. . . . Before [playing for the Dominos], I was only playing with guys. We didn't have a girls' team. It was tough. It was regimented. I was on a 12-year-old team, but my mentor, who they assigned to me when she was 16 years old, . . . seemed like she was 26. . . . I admired her grit, her toughness. Stacey Gaudet was her name. She has been in my life since I was 10 and she's always been the steady force. But I credit my

> basketball experience to people [like Stacey] who brought me along, and some are still with me today. (Interview 1)

University

Basketball

Pokey was heavily recruited to play at the highest level of college basketball by a number of well-known and high-ranking university teams when she graduated from high school in the summer of 1987. These included Louisiana Tech University; the University of Tennessee; the University of California, Los Angeles; and the University of Georgia. She chose to attend Louisiana State University (LSU) in Baton Rouge, however, largely because of the opportunity to work with Sue Gunter, a White hall of fame coach with whom she felt comfortable from the outset:

> I think what sealed the deal . . . was getting to know Sue Gunter. I felt her realness and the authenticity. . . . I thought, "Who was this woman coming to my house and eating red beans and fried chicken with my family like she been here before?" It wasn't any false pretense. It wasn't these promises. And it just grabbed me. And from that point on she became one of the most influential and important people in my life. (Interview 2)

Pokey went on to have a very successful basketball career at LSU. She set several individual records (e.g., for steals, assists, and free throws made in one game) and led her team to the prestigious, invitational, end-of-season NCAA tournament during all four of her years at the university. In addition, she earned multiple personal awards (e.g., she was named the most valuable player in the conference in which LSU played in 1991) and represented the United States at the 1988 International Basketball Federation championship in Sao Paulo, Brazil, that she and her teammates won. Despite all this success, Pokey still experienced and encountered some marginalization in her capacity as a college basketball player. Specifically, she recalled that women's sports were not as well funded as men's sports.

Academic Studies

The other half of Pokey's life at LSU was as a "general studies" student with a "business emphasis." She described her program as "really good," noted that she was given "every opportunity to succeed" and "learned a lot," and was grateful for her "exposure to international students." Pokey was mainly insulated from the effects of racism as a basketball player, thanks to her coaches and playing on a predominantly African American team, the members of which were "like sisters." She was, however, more exposed to racism during classes and on campus, where African Americans were in the minority. Specifically, she recalled, "You have racial tension, you know. You're a minority, but you're accepted because of sports." Examples of microaggressions Pokey encountered at this stage of her life included being looked at as if she "didn't belong" and having new acquaintances quick to proclaim, "I don't see color" or "I have Black friends." Furthermore, Pokey felt socially isolated when away from her teammates:

> I just didn't see a whole lot of me [i.e., other African Americans on campus]. And that was probably the biggest thing to get used to socially. It's desolate, and you get just a corner of the campus that was your playground [i.e., playing basketball]. . . . So that social part was the difficult part for me to mesh with. (Interview 3)

Not surprisingly in this context, Pokey was careful around White students and professors, and her strategy was to "just kind of stay in my lane."

Coaching Career

Positions

Pokey began teaching basketball while she was still an undergraduate at LSU when she coached a girls' "10-year-old" team in New Orleans during the summer of 1990. Her second opportunity came in her last semester at LSU in 1991 when she was no longer eligible to play for the university team. Coach Gunter took her on as a student assistant coach. Her initial plan on graduating was to seek employment in an area in which she could use her newly acquired

business management skills. This plan changed, however, when Coach Gunter offered her the opportunity to stay on as a full-time assistant coach at LSU, a position she held from 1992 to 2004:

> I thought I would end up in a really big business, preferably a hotel that offered everything. I wanted to manage people, but it [i.e., assistant coaching] was an opportunity to work with another person who was influential in my life, Coach Gunter, at the school that I had my degree from. And . . . 20 years later I was still there. (Interview 2)

When Coach Gunter retired from LSU in 2004, Pokey became head coach, a position she held until 2007. During her tenure, Pokey's teams won 85% of their games and reached the Final Four of the NCAA end-of-season invitational tournament three times (2004, 2005, 2006). Moreover, Pokey was named coach of the year by the Black Coaches Association (2004, 2005), Louisiana coach of the year (2005, 2006), United States Basketball Writers Association national coach of the year (2005), Southeastern Conference coach of the year (2005), Naismith national coach of the year (2005), and the Women's Basketball Coaches Association national coach of the year (2005). In 2005, Pokey was also one of the assistant coaches of the gold medal–winning U.S. women's basketball team at the World University Games in Izmir, Turkey.

Following her resignation from LSU in 2007, Pokey worked in a number of overlapping roles within Eastern Europe and the United States. Specifically, she was the head coach of the Slovakia national women's team (2008 to 2010) and an assistant coach (2008 to 2009) and the head coach (2009 to 2013) of the Spartak Moscow Region women's basketball club in Vidnoye, Russia, that won the EuroLeague championship in 2010. Pokey also became the first head coach and general manager of the Chicago Sky (2011 to 2016) and the head coach of the Indiana Fever (2016 to 2019) in the WNBA. She had considerable success with both of these American teams, most notably leading the Sky to its first championship game appearance in 2014.

At the time we collected data, Pokey was no longer coaching. Instead, she was making a living as a motivational speaker, working as a scout, and doing some freelance work for different media outlets.

Having established a foundation in Baton Rouge to help people rebuild their houses after Hurricane Katrina in 2005, Pokey was also doing some "humanitarian work" for Operation Rebound, Habitat for Humanity, and Mount Zion Baptist Church in her hometown of Ama.

Marginalization

At the beginning of Pokey's coaching career in the early 1990s, some scholars suggested that racism was worse than it had been before the passage of the Civil Rights Act for many African Americans, especially those in the working class (Jones, 1997). Pokey's experiences support this contention. For example, she explained the difficulty in recruiting African American players to LSU when she first started coaching, noting the university was situated in a Deep South state:

> When I was recruiting, people on the west coast didn't want to come to the South because they thought we were 12 years behind the rest of the world. We were archaic. We were racist. I once lost a player because David Duke [a former Ku Klux Klan Grand Wizard] was in a runoff for governor [of Louisiana]. Excuse me, the struggle is real. So you've got Black and female [i.e., Pokey's potential player] . . . and then he runs. That's the whole cultural, political, racial thing. It's just screaming to them, [don't come to the Deep South]. (Interview 3)

Another incident that Pokey recalled from early in her career at LSU was a White booster (i.e., an individual who donates money to the university sports program) openly suggesting to one of Pokey's assistants that she "should go . . . recruit some White kids" as opposed to the African American players that had been recruited. Pokey was particularly disturbed by the incident because although the team was successful, the booster was "comfortable enough to say that," and his comment suggested "they [i.e., some White boosters] think it's them against us."

On a more positive note, while Pokey referred to the "barriers" that African American women "[couldn't] get past" in her early years in the coaching profession, and while she explained that

opportunities for female coaches of color were scarce, she was also adamant this state of affairs had improved in the ensuing years:

> It [i.e., racism] was subtle, I would say. So it was just understood, you know? Collegiate ranks back in the day—it was like, you should just be lucky to be here and have this job. . . . But now our blackness and our femaleness has gotten catapulted. Now people want to hire Black females. (Interview 3)

Moreover, Pokey believed that rather than play it "safe," which African American, female coaches had once had to do to survive, they could and should strive to help the next generation:

> [Current African American, female coaches should] navigate and amplify, you know, women of color to the big chair. . . . I pulled a big chair back for somebody to sit in. So we're still fighting for that. . . . We are taught, don't rock the boat. Don't ask for what's yours. Toe the line. (Interview 3)

Finally, Pokey added a note of caution to her story. She noted concerns about political changes in the United States since 2016, particularly the rise in right-wing extremism and of White supremacists, that threatened to negate the progress African Americans had made during her life:

> Just disgusting. Justice matters. How so many people can continue to stick their heads in the proverbial sand is beyond my comprehension. The tomfoolery—racist rhetoric being casually passed off in today's day and age. . . . The tape [showing the attack on the U.S. Capitol on January 6, 2021] doesn't lie. Take a look. They are domestic terrorists. Period. Yet many folks, along with elected officials, will ignore and/or excuse insurrectionist behavior. . . . It's disgusting and unpatriotic. Yet, Kaepernick [i.e., Colin Kaepernick a former American football player and powerful voice in the Black Lives Matter movement] is still vilified. What a joke. And the energy to suppress our vote is so vile and egregious. The senate won't even vote on an anti-lynching bill, but our [i.e., persons of color] right to vote is being dismantled. And critical race

> theory is being attacked. . . . And that's not my narrative. That's the narrative of the justice department and the FBI [i.e., Federal Bureau of Investigation], and those people who said it's the number one threat. . . . Oftentimes, those Trump loyalists, and people who were acting like January 6 didn't happen, they tend to forget I didn't call that White supremacy. The powers that be, who are mainly White, called it out. . . . And it's just disgusting in 2021. I've had strained relationships because the ugliness and inhumane things that have come up in the last four or five years regarding people in this racial divide. But we're going to be better for it. We're going to conquer it because that's what we do. (Interview 3)

Microaggressions

Pokey also remembered being subjected to a multitude of microaggressions across her career. One example of a microinsult that she found particularly offensive was when White coaches were "telling stories, and they wanted to tell the part of the story that's pertaining to a Black person or a Black coach," they would use "Black dialect." A second microinsult that Pokey recalled vividly was when White persons were surprised that she was "so articulate" and "well spoken":

> One [microinsult] that permeates to this day is the fact that I'm continually told that I'm so articulate. And, obviously, [White] people think they're complimenting you. . . . It's like you expect me not to be able to talk. . . . And I immediately feel that their expectations of me are lower [than for White people]. And it just makes me cringe because those same words aren't used across the board. I think it hurts because . . . you're a Black female from the South. [And] if their expectation of you shrinks, then your opportunity sometimes shrinks. And . . . you end up wowing them because their expectations are so low. (Interview 3)

Pokey also recalled being annoyed by one microinvalidation when working in the WNBA. She explained that the owner of the team expected her to sign a new contract without her and her agent/lawyer "looking it over." The "implication" was that, as an African American female, Pokey could not possibly understand the contract

and that she should implicitly trust the owner to do the right thing. Finally, another incident that clearly still irked Pokey was a good example of the kind of microassaults she faced. In this instance, an official from the LSU athletic department was being interviewed on local television and was asked about an increase in college coaches' salaries in general and in Pokey's salary in particular:

> I can recall the time when I was at LSU . . . the [official was doing] the interview with the reporter . . . about salary and lifting the salary of coaches. And it [i.e., the increase in salary] was in line with Title IX, gender equity, all of that. And I remember [the official] referring to me as "gal." And basically, the gist of it was that the gal should be happy with $400,000. (Interview 3)

Contrasting Experiences in Eastern Europe

Interestingly, Pokey found her treatment during her time coaching in Russia and Slovakia to be more positive than that in the United States in some respects. She described her three years (2008–2011) of living full time and her further two years of working part time (2011–2013) in these countries as "wonderful." She learned a new language and enjoyed coaching a "diverse" group of players who came from an array of cultures. Moreover, rather than marginalizing her, the Russia and Slovakian officials and colleagues with whom she worked "gave [Pokey] confidence because they backed everything [she] did and appreciated [her]." She also found this positive treatment ironic. This was because she was having a difficult time voting by absentee ballot in the 2008 presidential election in her own country in which an African American, Barack Obama, was running:

> Now here I am coaching in Russia [in spite of] all the [disagreements] we have politically with them. But because I'm in sport, I'm so accepted. And I'll tell you this, it was the easiest contract I ever negotiated in my life. . . . [In the United States] we're so used to hearing you as a Black, as a female, you know, begging. I'm supposed to take whatever they give me. But over there they were really good. . . . [Their mentality was] we want your expertise and all that other stuff we don't

care about. We want to be the best. And that was different for me. (Interview 3)

Conclusion

Pokey's counter-story reveals a considerable amount of marginalization and a steady flow of microaggressions throughout her childhood and adolescence, university education, and coaching career, with the exception of the time she spent in Eastern Europe. She was insulated from the racism in the Deep South, to some extent, by the African American community in which she grew up and her teammates at LSU. She was also inspired by her mother, sister, and the head coach at LSU to overcome the racism. Also playing a part in Pokey's eventual success were the opportunities she had to play organized sport at an early age, the love of sport these experiences inculcated, and the work ethic she first developed during a difficult childhood. In her early coaching career, Pokey had to take care not to upset the establishment. Later, she developed something of an activist approach to the profession and became a strong advocate for other women of color who aspired to follow her. This approach also led to her engaging in some humanitarian work. Pokey was mainly optimistic about the future for women of color who joined the coaching ranks. This optimism was tempered to some extent by political changes that had occurred in the United States since 2016.

Pokey's story is inspiring. It should encourage other women of color who have similar ambitions to persist in their efforts to become sports coaches. Indeed, we suggest that as well as learning technical pedagogies, acquiring advanced content knowledge, and studying the natural exercise sciences, students in coach education programs should be required to read and reflect on life histories such as Pokey's. As others such as Rovegno (2003) and Cazers and Curtner-Smith (2013) suggest, Pokey's life history, and others like it, could be employed in efforts to transform the working environments of African American female coaches. Finally, given that the world of coaching is a microcosm of what occurs in other walks of American life, we also suggest that Pokey's story has the potential to inspire and promote reflection among those in other occupations who have little or no interest in sport.

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PEDAGOGY

Examination of Student Cognition and Instruction of Domain-Specific Lesson Goals

Ariela M. Herman and Eve Bernstein

Abstract

This study examined preservice teachers' instruction of goals in specific learning domains in physical education class and students' interpretation of these goals. Four preservice physical education teachers (all male) from a large urban university taught two lessons to eight sixth-grade students at an urban K–6 elementary school. The theory of cognitive mediation was the framework for this study. Piloted qualitative methods included video recordings of each lesson, stimulated recall, two 20-to-25-min semistructured interviews, and collected lesson plans. Data were analyzed through the constant comparative method. Three major themes emerged: goals for incorporating skills into game play were difficult to identify, affective goals were not explained, and cognitive goals were not implemented. Results indicate that teacher-training programs should develop strategies that will assist students to identify the domain goals of the lesson. This study indicates specifically the areas in which domain goals are lacking during the instructional process.

Lessons including all three learning domains in physical education (PE) can contribute to the student learning experience during PE class. These domains include psychomotor, affective, and cognitive (Ayers, 2004; Holt & Hannon, 2006). The cognitive domain

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consists of knowledge and the development of intellectual skills; the affective relates to areas of feelings and emotions, individually and socially; and the psychomotor refers to physical movement or motor skills (Anderson & Bloom, 2001; Baker & Rozendal, 2019). When preservice teachers (PST) incorporate all three domains into their lessons, learning tasks may become more meaningful and may assist students in developing the competencies needed to become physically educated individuals (Sun et al., 2017). These competencies may create a foundation for future movement and participation in physical activity (Mullins et al., 2019) and may be associated with activity when students enter middle school (Pate et al., 2019).

PST, however, may not implement activities to meet objectives in all three domains. They may highlight skill development and game play rather than incorporate affective or cognitive domains during instruction (Bernstein & Phillips, 2015; Hung et al., 2017). Students should clearly understand all domains (Ayers, 2004; Placek & Dodds, 2001). Yet this may not be the case, because PST may assume skill-based activities accomplish many of these domain-specific goals (Law et al., 2018).

The theory of cognitive mediation (Lee & Solmon, 1992; Solmon, 2006; Solmon & Lee, 1997) grounded several recent studies in student learning, motivation, and participation during physical activities, and it served as the framework for this study (Hodges et al., 2014; Jin & Yun, 2013; Lodewyk & Gao, 2013). This theory highlights that teacher instruction is a mediating factor, only to the extent that students are actively engaged in that instruction. Therefore, students' perceptions and actions during instruction and practice have a profound effect on students' potential to learn. It is not only teacher cognition and implementation of domain-specific goals that are important but also students' perceptions of these goals. According to this framework, teachers should structure lessons that encourage students to learn. If students are not clear on the goals of instruction and activities the teacher presents, there is a chance that learning will not occur to the extent the teacher anticipates. Students often perceive and understand activities differently from the teacher, and it is imperative teachers recognize students' understanding of domain content (Dodds et al., 2001).

Students bring their own ideas and thoughts about subject matter; therefore, it is important to look at their perspective (Sun et al., 2017). If students do not understand or perceive activities as teachers intend, learning is less likely to occur. Having instruction that students understand and that incorporates all domains may create a more productive instructional base. This is especially necessary when students transition into middle school, where physical activity often declines (Sallis et al., 2000). Successful instruction in PE may counter this trend. Identifying misconceptions between preservice teaching and student learning is an area needing exploration (Hushman et al., 2013). Therefore, the connection between teachers' incorporation of domain learning and their understanding of the role of domain learning is crucial for effective instruction and for students to participate actively in their learning (Solmon, 2006).

The purpose of this study was to examine the goals PST develop in the different learning domains and students' perceptions of these goals through the activities the teachers implemented. The questions guiding this study were, first, are teachers imparting different types of goals, within the three domains, to elementary school students, which they are learning in their coursework? Second, are the preservice PE majors able to impart instructional goals that students understand?

Method

Procedure

This study used interpretive qualitative methods to understand both student experience and translation of this experience into the specific learning domains of psychomotor, affective, and cognitive. The study received both University Institutional Review Board and New York City Department of Education Institutional Review Board clearance. The piloted methods were semistructured interviews, field notes, and observations, and stimulated recall brought forth information on domain learning during instruction and on students' understanding of those domains. Both the teachers and the students were interviewed regarding the taught lesson, and their answers were compared to see if the instructional domain goals were met.

Participants and Setting

Four male preservice PE teachers who were enrolled in an Introduction to Teaching PE course in a large public, urban university consented to participate in this study. The PST taught their lessons at a local, urban, K–6 public school. Eight sixth-grade students, six male and two female, were randomly selected from the 15 students who returned consent forms and volunteered to participate. These students participated in the PE class the PST taught in the public school. The school administration gave permission for two students from each group to be interviewed after each lesson; therefore, two for each of the four teachers, eight students in total, were allowed to be interviewed. The volunteer PST and the participating urban school's administrator signed consent forms. The parents of the students signed consent forms and the students signed assent forms to participate in the study. All participants, students, and teachers chose pseudonyms.

Semistructured Interviews

The piloted semistructured interview guide (Patton, 2002) was developed after an extensive review of literature focusing on student and teacher cognition and domain-specific learning (Allison et al., 2000; Dodds et al., 2001; Lee & Solmon, 1992). These questions were then further developed and discussed with teacher educators in the field of PE. The questions focused on the taught domain-specific content, as related to the observed lesson goals. The PST completed two 10- to 15-min semistructured interviews (Seidman, 2012). The questions were asked before each of the two observed lessons. The questions related to the types of goals for each lesson and the activities the teachers intended to use to help students understand and identify the goals for the lessons. The PST were asked, "What are your goals for this lesson? How do you intend for the students to learn about those goals? Specifically, what activities are you using to teach about the different goals?" Two students for each PST were then interviewed after each videotaped lesson.

Lesson Plans

PST, prior to the initial interview and before teaching the lesson, submitted written lesson plans. In their teaching course, PST were

taught to write observable and measurable goals and objectives for students in the sixth grade. They then developed activities through which they could determine whether students, after practicing the activity, met the objectives of the lesson. The goals and objectives were reviewed often throughout the first weeks of the semester. When the PST taught at the schools, the lesson plans required goals and objectives for each domain, a detailed explanation of the activities intended to meet the goals in each domain, and the cues that the PST were to use to teach the content. In addition, the connection between both the state and national standards and the domain-specific goals were also highlighted. PST in this teacher education program were assessed on the connections between the standards, objectives, and activities used during each lesson.

Nonparticipant Observations and Field Notes

For each teacher, we observed two class sessions. During this time, we recorded nonparticipant observations and field notes (Patton, 2002). The PST taught volleyball, floor hockey, and basketball, using the multiactivity model. Each class lasted for approximately 1 hr.

Stimulated Recall

We reviewed literature on stimulated recall (Calderhead, 1981; Ericsson & Simon, 1980; Keith, 1988) to capture the reflections of students regarding the lesson they had just experienced (Forman, 1999; Morgan, 2007). The PST were videotaped teaching lessons to the sixth-grade students. The videos were used for stimulated recall. All volunteer participants gave consent for videotaping. Two lessons were videotaped. The students were given the opportunity to watch a video recording of the lesson in which they had participated. While students watched the lesson, they were able to recall their experiences in the activities and were asked questions focused on domain learning (Calderhead, 1981; Forman 1999; Morgan, 2007). The students were then asked questions about the sections of video the teacher had highlighted. This helped us to understand if the students' domain learning experience was the same of the goals of the lesson.

The focus of the interview was the students' ability to describe the goals of the lessons and make the connection between the activities they had performed and the goals the PST had intended through those activities. The students were interviewed for approximately

30 to 40 min, during which time they watched the recorded lesson. During the interview, the recording was occasionally stopped for the students to comment on what had occurred related to the goals and activities of the lesson. The same students were interviewed after each of the two lessons taught by the same PST. The questions to which the students responded included What were the goals for the lesson, according to your experience? Why do you think these were the goals? What activities/actions did the teacher do to make you think those were the goals or what strategies/tactics did the teachers use to highlight the goals of the lesson?

Data Analysis

Ariela Herman collected all the data, which were transcribed. The volunteer PST and the students member checked the data. Changes were noted and immediately implemented. Data from semistructured interview transcriptions, teacher lesson plans, and observation and field notes were entered into NVivo 10 (QSR International, Victoria, Australia). The data were coded for each lesson observed. Teachers' responses for domain goals and students' responses of their understanding of those goals were coded separately for each lesson. Teachers' responses were also compared to their lesson plan domain learning objectives. The teachers' responses for domain goals were then compared to the students' responses. These data were then analyzed through the constant comparison method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) for emergence of patterns and themes. The analysis focused on the teachers' presentation of the goals for the three domains in their PE classes and whether students understood the activities were intended to meet different goals in the different domains.

A peer reviewer, Eve Bernstein, read all the transcripts and reviewed all the data including lesson plans, observations, and field notes. At this time, she made notations regarding the generated conclusions. Next, she shared insights about the teachers' instruction of domain-specific learning and students' interpretations of the teaching, on the basis of the data, and themes were modified when necessary. The themes went through several rounds of review before being finalized. For further trustworthiness and credibility of the results, all data were triangulated and the finalized themes were

checked for negative cases. The teachers reviewed the themes and agreed with the conclusions reached.

Researcher Background

Both Herman and Bernstein are professors in a large, public, urban university. They both have over 20 years of experience teaching PE with diverse populations in large urban settings. Herman, who collected the data, has extensive experience working with PST in the development of objectives and activities to meet the needs of students in all learning domains.

Results

In many cases, the teachers' instruction did not match students' understanding of the domain goals. Three themes emerged in terms of student and teacher cognition and lack of understanding of specific learning domain goals. The first theme was goals for incorporating skills into game play, specifically related to the psychomotor domain, were difficult to identify. The second theme was affective goals were not explained. The third theme was cognitive goals were not implemented.

Goals for Incorporating Skills Into Game Play Were Difficult to Identify

During the observed lesson, the teachers utilized drills to focus practice time for the students on the specific skill. Teachers were very clear about these isolated goals in the psychomotor domain. One example happened during the instruction of the use of a forearm pass/bump in volleyball. Alan described his drill: "I plan on having them pair up and just bump the ball to each other with one toss, then after five minutes step two steps back the distance, change it a little bit." When asked about the goals of the lesson, the students responded that "[Alan] taught [them] how to pass the ball . . . [they] practiced how to pass the ball to each other." When asked to identify the activities, the students, while watching the tape after the lesson, continued by saying, "He taught us that . . . if you bend your elbow, it will just go back and hit your face, but if you have your arms straight, then it will just go straight up." The cues given and the activities implemented assisted the students in their understanding of the goal of the lesson.

Isolated skills, although incorporated in modified game play, were not often understood in authentic game situations by the students. In many cases, the goals of the modified game-play situations in which students used these psychomotor skills were very clear to the teacher; however, to the students, the goals of the modified game were not defined. For example, for his volleyball lesson, Bob stated, in his interview and his written lesson plan, he wanted the students to be able to "perform the overhead pass correctly." He further explained this goal, saying he would modify the game

> [for students] to use at least two overhead passes, [hitting] the ball a maximum of six times. I want them to set up for their teammates and complete at least two overhead passes before bumping or setting it over the net. So that would be another goal.

This goal did not translate to the students. While watching the video of the lesson, one student in the group responded,

> We did setting across, over the net, back and forth, and then he made [us] do this strategy that when he passes the ball over the net, then I have to pass it to him, then [my friend] has to pass it back, and I have to hit it over the net to see if I could get a point.

Although this student was able to describe the activity and the use of the overhead pass, the goal was not connected to simulating a game situation; rather, the goal was to use the skill to score a point in the activity.

Similarly, David stated, "Basically . . . I'm teaching a new [hockey] skill today, backhand passing, so my goal for them is to be able to pass to their partner for a distance of ten to fifteen feet accurately." This was also stated in his lesson plan. When asked after this lesson about the specific goals, the students responded that "the goals for [the] lesson were to learn how to do a backhand shot and to learn to pass." The students were able to describe the goal of passing and the specific backhand movement they were intended to learn. The isolated skills in the context of game play, however, were not as clear. Although in David's lesson plan the activity was written in specific terms, David was not able to impart this to his students:

> I'm just going to let them play a game and have fun and hopefully I will see the skills that we taught over the past four weeks or so, and I want to see those skills used in the game. Including a forehand pass, a backhand pass, a slap shot . . . I just want to see them pass to their teammates which we haven't seen during the last week.

When asked regarding the goals of the lesson, one of the students responded, "To learn how to shoot [and] pass . . . learn how to shoot the three shots we learned . . . there were three different shots. There was a slap shot, there was a wrist shot and a backhand." The students were able to describe the isolated skill of shooting, but neither student in the group was able to connect learning the isolated skill of shooting to the incorporation of those skills into game play, after watching the playback of the video.

In one case, however, the students were able to identify the goals during game play. The teacher, Chris, stated that his "goals [were] to go through the skills, hopefully they improve on them, restate the [basketball] rules to them, and hope they can take that to a game." He was not specific what he wanted the students to "take" to a game. He stated he would focus on isolated skills through station work and then have small-sided game situations. During the lesson, the students did exactly what he intended. They practiced isolated skills during the early parts of the lesson and engaged in game play toward the end. When asked after the conclusion of the lesson about the goals, the students described what they did and said, "And then we got to a game." When asked about the goals of the game, one student mentioned "[they] combined all the lessons [they] learned in the game." Although these students could not specify the specific goal of the game, they did, in their own words, describe that the goal was to use all the skills they had learned during game play.

Affective Goals Were Not Explained

For the various sport activities, teachers stated their goal of teamwork and described specific activities. When asked during their interviews about the goals of the lesson, the students mentioned the goal of teamwork; however, the reason was not based on the activities the teacher presented, but rather the general need of completing the necessary skill to play these sports. Affective goals were identified

primarily by the teachers, who used the words "teamwork" and "cooperating." Affective goals were not specifically mentioned. These terms focused on affective behaviors expected from the students during the activity or competitive sport. Often, the teachers utilized these terms without any additional explanation of their meaning. For example, in one of his lessons, Alan stated, "We are going to work on shooting, [using] teamwork to achieve a basket." He went on to say, "Well, also I have a social goal for them . . . just basically to see if they interact well with one another."

Alan used the rule of passing a minimum of two times so students would use that skill. During the lesson, Alan required the students to pass so they could work on the psychomotor goal of passing, rather than the underlying affective domain of teamwork. When asked about his plan to get this goal across to the students, Alan said he required them to pass the ball, a psychomotor skill. He made no connection to the affective outcome of passing the ball. One student stated that the goal for the lesson was "teamwork, [because they] had to pass to each other. [They] had to pass it two times before [they] could [shoot]." Passing is an important component of team sports, and the teachers and students typically associated this skill with teamwork. It is unclear, however, whether the teachers or students were highlighting the affective domain with the goal of teamwork or simply the psychomotor skill of passing. In addition, an activity related to the affective domain was not clearly stated in the lesson plan.

One of the students, when watching the video, was unable to define these terms such as teamwork. This student stated, "I just learned it . . . because in order for everything to work properly you have to form a good alliance with your partners." There was no mention of highlighting the affective domain or activities implemented during the lesson, but rather a general understanding that team games need players to work together.

Bob mentioned, "One of the affective goals is for [students] to be able to show sportsmanship during the [game]. I'm going to have them playing a game, which will include . . . to cheer on teammates as well as opposition." He gave no specific example of how this was going to be done, other than it is something that children do during game play. When asked about the goals of the lesson, however, the students did not identify a goal in the affective domain, although

the teacher expected the students to describe sportsmanship as his goal for the lesson. Their answers only focused on the psychomotor domain: "We did setting across, over the net, back and forth."

This lack of attention to the affective domain might have occurred because the only activities the teacher required during the lesson involved partner work. No game was implemented during this lesson, which would have allowed for the typical experience of sportsmanship associated with game play. Because the use of the affective domain was not clearly defined, students were also unclear in their description of the teachers' goals.

Cognitive Goals Were Not Implemented

In their lesson plans, the teachers used cognitive objectives. Teachers asked questions about the activity to determine student understanding. Often, however, this closure activity was not implemented during the lesson. When asked during his interview about his goals, Bob explained, "My cognitive goals are . . . for the students to be able to answer the questions after I complete the lesson on how to demonstrate an overhead pass." When asked about the cognitive goals, Bob stated,

> I am going to ask them questions about the proper form . . . what's the starting position for the overhead pass. If they tell me their thumbs should be aligned with their eyebrows, which is correct, I'll know they know the proper form.

Although Bob's intention before the lesson was to focus on this cognitive piece, it never materialized during the lesson itself. In this instance, when interviewed, the students could not identify this as one of the goals of the lesson, because the PST did not ask questions at the end of the lesson. The students did not mention that this goal had occurred. In another lesson in hockey, Chris' goal was "to make sure [students] understand penalty calls." He intended the students to understand that goal by having "the two people that are not playing [sit] on the side talking to the assistant teacher [and] letting him know what's a penalty and what's not, so they have their cognitive learning." In observing this lesson, the teacher sat with the students on the side and discussed the activity taking place but did not focus on occasions when penalties occurred, rather on the game itself. The

students, however, were unable to determine that knowing different penalties was a focus of the lesson. It was not a clear focus of the lesson. One student described the focus of the lesson this way: "You really needed to get into position to shoot it in. If not, the other player would take the puck away from you."

In one case, rules were clearly highlighted. Chris explained that "one of his goals [was] to go through and [restate] the rules to the students and hope that they can take that into a game." He stated "the basic rules like double dribble, traveling, take the ball back [in half court situations]." When asked about the goals of the lesson, the students responded, "Shooting, passing, dribbling . . . and the rules." One of the students in the group was able to recall that the rules were an important component of game play. The student continued, "At the start, [the teachers] pointed us to those things . . . and if we double dribbled, they would tell us that we doubled dribbled." The students, in this case, were able to describe the rules as an important cognitive goal because that had been the teacher's focus. They described the goal in specific ways, focusing on exactly what the teacher did to relay this information to them.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine PST goals in the different learning domains and the extent to which their sixth-grade students were able to identify these goals. In this study, students expressed their thoughts about their understanding of learning domains in PE class.

This study shows that some domains teachers present during instruction do not translate as clearly as teachers intend. Moreover, the importance of the psychomotor domain may exceed the cognitive and affective domains (Bernstein et al., 2013; Harvey & O'Donovan, 2011). The theory of cognitive mediation suggests that activities students participate in during class are a mediating factor between what teachers plan and what students learn (Lee & Solmon, 1992; Solmon & Lee, 1997). The students may come to class with preconceived notions about what they are to learn regarding goals in all the domains (Dodds et al., 2001). In this case, students did not understand or identify cognitive and affective goals, and PST did not always consider their students' interpretations of the goals of the different activities (Fletcher et al., 2018).

Elementary school is when students start to have insight regarding PE class. In middle school, however, physical activity often declines (Kercood et al., 2015; Phillips et al., 2019; Phillips & Silverman, 2015). This decline in physical activity may result in obesity and other health problems (Geva et al., 2019). Because schools are funding PE programs with staff and resources, it is important to understand how PST interpret and plan instruction. Part of this planning involves examining students' understanding of goals in all learning domains (Ayers, 2004; Griffin & Placek, 2001). Especially for beginning teachers, managing the students and the activity is generally the focus, rather than student learning (Ntoumanis, 2001). Experienced teachers plan with specific instructional strategies that will help students succeed, whereas those with less experience tend to focus on the activity itself and the behavior of the children (Brown & Cox, 2014). To create a productive learning environment in their gymnasium, inexperienced PE teachers need to be aware of all learning domains during their lessons (Walls et al., 2002).

Although teacher preparation programs teach PST to plan goals and objectives in all three learning domains (Bailey, 2006), this does not always translate to the actual lesson. PE teacher candidates need to consider and apply domain goals throughout the activity. Thus, providing students with a fuller understanding of affective and cognitive goals during the learning process may give them a fuller understanding of the activity (Hung et al., 2017). Teachers need to structure lessons by incorporating a deeper understanding of learning domain–centered goals so students have a fuller learner experience (Solmon, 2006). This includes both cognitive goals and affective goals.

Understanding cognitive goals can increase student motivation and self-regulation during activities (Ommundsen, 2003). Cognitive understanding positively relates to a continuation of physical activity (Sibley & Etnier, 2003). Scaffolding these cognitive tasks with written assignments may be more useful than relying on the activity itself (Zhu et al., 2009). In addition, affective goals play an important role in learning (Wright & Irwin, 2018). Students share these goals with other students during the class; however, it is important they understand this goal of sharing them (Koekoek & Knoppers, 2015). During PE class, affective goals affect motivation and continuation

in the activities (Xiang et al., 2006). Teachers play a crucial role in shaping the activities and linking those activities with the affective component (Garn & Cothran, 2006).

The teachers in this study were not aware the planned activities did not meet the goals in the affective and cognitive domains. This finding aligns with other research that highlights the activity is the focus, rather than careful outlining of domain-specific instruction (Bernstein et al., 2021; Harvey & O'Donovan, 2011). Approaches on incorporating affective and cognitive domains are being reexamined (Casey & Fernandez-Rio, 2019), as well as some development of frameworks and curricular models for use by teachers (Dudley, 2015). This study specifically outlines how teachers can approach their instruction in a more effective manner.

Although this study has a small number of participants focuses on one grade level, it takes an important step in understanding the approach of PST to incorporate domain learning and students' perceptions of that instruction. Future research can focus on understanding of goal domain information presented through activities (Dudley & Burden, 2020). This may allow teacher preparation programs to better educate PST about the methods and strategies that work well for teaching in the affective and cognitive domains. If the goal of PE is to have students continue in physical activity, it will be necessary to explore their understanding in all three domains of learning. Further research needs to investigate the types of specific goals teachers have in the cognitive and affective domains and students' understanding of that instruction. Both domains need to be incorporated for the students to have a fuller learning experience (Demetriou & Wilson, 2009). Teachers can use this information to develop meaningful activities that allow students to truly understand goals in those domains.

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WELLNESS

A Framework for Implementing a District-Wide School Wellness Needs Assessment: Using the WSCC Model

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Abstract

Poor nutrition and insufficient amounts of physical activity are key contributing factors to childhood obesity and can adversely affect the physical, social, and emotional health, along with the academic success, of today's youth. Comprehensive school-based initiatives, in combination with broader community efforts that target these behaviors, can help youth to develop and sustain healthy lifestyles through the adolescent years. The Whole School, Whole Community, Whole Child (WSCC) model emphasizes the connection between health and academic achievement and highlights the importance of school wellness assessments, stressing that schools serve as the nucleus in providing these supports with input, resources, and collaboration from the community. Inadequate amounts of attention have been given to the process of conducting school wellness assessments that promote collaboration between university research teams and key school district stakeholders. This article presents the process of conducting a district-wide wellness assessment with the WSCC model as the conceptual framework. It outlines practical steps for other districts to replicate and key collaboration

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principles, along with the specific use of a unique wellness assessment tool that includes a readiness for change component. It also discusses challenges and opportunities encountered, lessons learned along the way, and implications for school administrators and school health practitioners.

Unhealthy eating habits and inadequate physical activity levels are prevalent among school-aged youth in the United States. Schools influence the food consumption habits of and provide physical activity opportunities for youth, and such roles affect the subsequent obesity rates of youth (Brownson et al., 2005). With this in mind, multiple national health organizations agree that schools are a key setting for supporting youth wellness behaviors (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2019a). The U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) requires school districts to have a local wellness policy that includes goals for nutrition promotion and education, physical activity, and other activities that support student wellness (Food and Nutrition Service, 2019). Promoting healthy behaviors among students is a critical component of the mission of schools, which are uniquely positioned to integrate healthy activities within school plans, policy, and practices that promote student health and learning outcomes (Harvey et al., 2018). However, the USDA also requires schools to evaluate their school wellness programming, implementation of their school wellness policy, and progress toward physical activity and healthy eating goals (Food and Nutrition Service, 2019). Despite the importance of assessing school wellness efforts, schools often find it challenging to establish a school wellness evaluation plan and implement procedures to collect and evaluate their local data to assess progress toward wellness goals and identify needs to prioritize in future school wellness planning (Sanchez et al., 2014).

While most U.S. schools provide some type of physical activity and nutrition programming, many lack the skills or capacity to conduct comprehensive evaluation plans. Specifically, budget constraints, increased pressure to improve scores on standardized tests, competing priorities and lack of time for both administrators and teachers, lack of support from key stakeholders, lack of resources, along with a lack of readiness for change (Agron et al., 2010; Schuler et al., 2018; Quirk, 2021) are barriers to implementation of

comprehensive wellness evaluation plans. Frameworks such as the Whole School, Whole Community, Whole Child (WSCC) model highlight the importance of conducting school wellness assessments and emphasize that schools serve as the nucleus in providing health and educational support to students with input, resources, and collaboration from the community (Chiang et al., 2016). Assessing school health programs and services is a critical step in identifying and reinforcing strengths and improving weaknesses of school-based wellness environments and in understanding progress made toward healthy eating and physical activity goals (CDC, 2019a). In addition, comprehensive school wellness needs assessments provide districts and schools with direction and insight into potential leverage points for implementing new wellness programming, establishing community partnerships, developing or revising school wellness policies, and modifying or enhancing the school environment to promote and support student health. School wellness needs assessment processes equip school wellness leaders with the knowledge to create a list of priorities that are informed through an evaluative process.

Collaborations between university research teams and key school district stakeholders are an underutilized mechanism for providing support and expertise to school districts for conducting comprehensive school wellness needs assessments. Although implementing, evaluating, and enforcing school wellness programming is challenging, utilizing the assistance of community partners (i.e., local universities, public health agencies, YMCAs, and other nonprofit organizations) is one key to success (Harvey et al., 2018). Such collaborations are mutually beneficial. Schools provide extensive local knowledge and expertise and a means to collect and disseminate information, which is important in academic settings. University research teams provide expertise in evaluation, data analysis, and (subsequent) program planning. They also expand the capacity of school staff by contributing to the process of conducting the needs assessment. Furthermore, such collaborations influence policy implementation at the community level, thus reinforcing healthy practice norms for families, community members, students, and school personnel (Harvey et al., 2018).

In this article, we discuss the process of a university–school district collaborative process utilized in a district-wide comprehensive

school wellness needs assessment evaluation with the WSCC model as the conceptual framework. Herein, we share practical steps for other school districts to replicate, assessment tools utilized in facilitating the school wellness needs assessment process, and key collaboration principles. In addition, we discuss the challenges and opportunities encountered, lessons learned along the way, and implications for school administrators and school health practitioners.

Method

Project Development

Led by Emily Jones, a university faculty member, a research team for building partnerships within the local community was created. An informal lunch-and-learn event, facilitated by the institution's Office of Community Engagement, provided an opportunity for us, as the research team, to meet with the assistant superintendent of a large local school district. Conversations initially revolved around required fitness data collection and analyses requirements but quickly shifted to district- and school-level wellness. The district was due for a triannual wellness evaluation based on a USDA policy requirement (Food and Nutrition Service, 2019). While the timing was opportune, the district wanted to use the collected data to make meaningful improvements related to wellness.

Jones met with multiple entities who might be interested in wellness opportunities and environments. The multidisciplinary team consisted of faculty members (Physical Education Teacher Education, Community and Health Education, Exercise Science, and Geography), individuals from the county health department, and faculty members from two additional higher education institutions who were trained in evaluating school wellness. This creation of the university and local partnerships prepared to systemize the evaluation process and translate quality processes enhanced the evaluation for the district at large.

Key Stakeholders

Key stakeholders connected to the school district included various school staff, such as administrators, school directors of food service, nurses, nutrition classroom teachers, physical educators, and parents/community members. These stakeholders provided multiple

perspectives of health and wellness from insider and outsider vantage points. They also provided information on strengths, areas of growth, and potential outcomes, guiding the creation of wellness plans from individual schools and the district at large.

Instruments

We selected assessment tools for this project on the basis of identified needs, directions, and interests of the collaboration's key stakeholders. School and university stakeholders wanted to establish a long-term partnership that would begin with the university research team providing assistance and support with conducting and analyzing the school wellness needs assessments but would grow into additional support and assistance with identifying, planning, and implementing school wellness programming in future years. Given the school's interest and our expertise in physical activity, nutrition programming, and school wellness environments, data collection instruments that capture various aspects of school wellness needs across three ecological levels—community, organizational/school, and individual/behavioral—were selected. The WSCC model was used as a framework.

School-Level Data

School Wellness Environment Profile. The School Wellness Environment Profile (SWEP; Lee & Welk, 2018) assesses the status of physical activity and food environments, practices, and policies in schools with questions that capture information from nine domains of the school environment. These nine domains include physical education (n = 10 questions), classroom physical activity (n = 5), recess (n = 5), physical activity before and after school (n = 10), family and community engagement (n = 10), staff involvement (n = 5), school food environment (n = 10), school wellness policies (n = 5), and school wellness teams (n = 5). For this study, we took interview questions from the SWEP on the basis of stakeholder group expertise. The SWEP was completed during small focus group interviews with different stakeholder groups. The format of the interviews allowed groups to reach a consensus in response to each item. The SWEP includes 65 items on a scale of 0 = *No*, 1 = *Partially*, and 2 = *Yes*. For total scores for each domain, the responses to the items within each subscale were averaged together. This ensured a

consistent range across the nine subscales. We provided the district and each individual school with a SWEP report detailing the status of their school wellness environment across each assessed domain. The SWEP report information allowed for identification of strengths and weaknesses for each school and district; as such, each school and district gained a focus for future district/school wellness planning (e.g., school health improvement plan) and goal setting. On the SWEP report, the schools also received a "medal" that indicated the degree to which they reported being compliant with USDA Final Rule on School Wellness Policy requirements. This indicated their progress toward fulfilling the mandates in the policy. See Appendix A for an example of a SWEP report.

School Wellness Readiness Assessment. The School Wellness Readiness Assessment (SWRA) tool measures a school's readiness for change (Lee & Welk, 2018; McLoughlin et al., 2020). This assessment includes organizational level items as well as individual level items. This bi-level approach allows for the assessment of a school's readiness to implement wellness initiatives and to assess readiness in key settings such as the classroom, lunchrooms, and physical education. The SWRA includes 40 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 *strongly disagree* to 4 *strongly agree*. Each stakeholder completed the assessment individually and anonymously in a paper-pencil format. We then averaged each of the 40 items for a total school readiness score. We average all responses from each stakeholder for an overall school readiness score.

School Tour. The principal conducted school tours prior to or after all stakeholder interviews. School tours allowed us to gather information about the physical environment of each school. This gave us the opportunity to give physical context to strengths and areas of improvement provided from the SWEP data. Additionally, we took field notes during the tours to provide a qualitative data source to the school environment.

Field Notes. We took hand-written field notes during each site visit to provide a qualitative insight into the stakeholder focus group discussions and item ratings. Field notes also included non-verbal behaviors, contextual details of responses, and background or historical information from participants (Phillippi & Lauderdale, 2017). Additionally, field notes taken during the school tour allowed

us to gather a qualitative narrative of the physical environment for each school. Each of us made field notes in our own style throughout the site visits.

Community-Level Data

Asset Mapping. Semistructured focus group interviews with stakeholders were conducted after SWRA administration. We asked stakeholder groups to identify individuals, associations, institutions, physical spaces, and contributors to the local economy that support and/or promote healthy lifestyles through physical activity, fitness, or wellness. These were designed to be organic discussions within each stakeholder group and to help capture community assets for each school. Additionally, these discussions helped capture areas in the community identified as areas that were not assets or needed improvement in wellness initiatives. We took field during these discussions to gather all assets from each stakeholder group.

Student-Level Data

An important component of any district wellness needs assessment process is collecting information about student-level metrics. While plans for doing so in this project were established with the participating district, those plans were unable to be fulfilled due to the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic. Details about the planned student level wellness evaluations are provided in the Youth Activity Profile section.

Youth Activity Profile. The Youth Activity Profile (YAP; www.youthactivityprofile.org) is a validated, online survey tool that was designed to assist schools in assessing each student's physical activity behaviors and in aggregating information about student physical activity behaviors to school and district levels (Bai et al., 2017; Saint-Maurice & Welk, 2015). The YAP is a simple recall-based assessment tool that asks students to report about their physical activity and sedentary behaviors generally and over the past seven days (both at school and at home). Students respond to 15 questions across three domains (five questions per domain): physical activity at school (transportation to school, physical activity during physical education, physical activity at recess, physical activity in classrooms, and transportation from school), physical activity at home (physical activity before school, physical activity after school, physical activity

in the evening, physical activity on Saturday, and physical activity on Sunday), and sedentary behaviors and habits (watching TV, playing video games, using the computer, using a cell phone, and overall sedentary behaviors). Student and school responses to YAP questions are converted into estimates of students daily physical activity minutes through prediction algorithms developed through a unique calibration process (Saint-Maurice & Welk, 2015). This enables the YAP to provide accurate group-level estimates of physical activity for school evaluations at classroom, grade, school, and district levels. The school and district can use the estimates to facilitate school wellness needs assessment evaluations, goal achievement, and future planning. We plan to use the YAP for future iterations of the project. See Appendix B for an example of a school-level YAP report.

Physical Fitness. A common component of any physical education program is youth fitness assessments (e.g., FitnessGram; https://fitnessgram.net/assessment/). Common components of health-related and physical fitness assessments within physical education curriculum typically include cardiovascular fitness, muscle strength, muscular endurance, flexibility, and body composition assessments (Plowman & Meredith, 2013). A plan was established with the school district to have physical education teachers share the results of their fitness assessments with us; however, this was not accomplished due to the COVID-19 pandemic. We plan to collect this information in future iterations of the project.

Social and Emotional Learning. Through the needs assessment process, we determined that the district desired to assess student social-emotional learning competencies, specifically grit, self-management, self-efficacy, effort, and emotional regulation. The Panorama Social-Emotional Learning Questionnaire is a validated, online survey that measures students mindsets, behaviors, and attitudes in schools and beyond the classroom at elementary and secondary levels. The survey help educators assess and improve their students' social-emotional learning competencies. We established a plan for the school districts to utilize the Panorama Social-Emotional Learning Questionnaire and share the results with us. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, data collection was delayed. We plan to collect this data in future iterations of the project.

Data Collection Procedures

School site visits were conducted within eight K–12 schools in a Midwestern school district in the fall of 2019 (n = 6 Elementary, n = 1 Junior High, n = 1 High School). Each site visit included six focus group interviews (each 45 min) with four to six participants representing a specific stakeholder group, including classroom and physical education teachers, recess monitors, school nurses, after-school physical activity program leaders or directors, food service personnel, parent/community members, and building administrators. Site visits allowed us to obtain in-depth, firsthand information regarding the status of school-level physical activity, nutrition, wellness opportunities, programs, and environments within the select district. The questions were derived from the SWEP. During the interviews, we encouraged each stakeholder group to discuss each question openly to come to a consensus on an answer. We took field notes to capture discussions for each question. Following the SWEP, we gave the SWRA to each stakeholder in a pencil-paper format. After the administration of the SWRA, we askeed each stakeholder group about community assets and weaknesses important to their school; this allowed us to create asset maps. After or before all stakeholder group interviews, the principal conducted a school tour.

Discussion

The complexity of student health and well-being (including physical, cognitive, mental, and emotional health) requires coordination across a wide range of disciplinary experts. There have been calls for greater alignment between educational leaders, community entities, and health sectors to "improve each child's cognitive, physical, social, and emotional development" (CDC, 2021). Public health and child welfare frameworks such as the WSCC and Systems of Care (SoC) explicitly call for increased collaboration across community agencies, schools, and families for improved access and availability of child-centered, evidence-based supports that are responsive to the cultural, racial, and sociocultural differences of the populations they serve (Lewallen et al., 2015; Stroul, 2002; Stroul & Friedman, 1986). Yet collaboration and bridge building across sectors presents a host of challenges, including conflicting or incongruent philosophies, priorities, politics, policies, and practices. And for a positive, working

relationship between schools and community agencies to be established, it is imperative that a "common vision for a more physically active culture" be established from the beginning (Brusseau et al., 2015, p. 373).

School systems that have benefited from federal mandates such as the UDSA Final Rule must provide regular accountability reports of school- and district-level wellness policy implementation and initiatives. Policy evaluation can be a significant undertaking, especially because each school has unique attributes and contextual factors that influence performance. Therefore, one approach that counteracts this is establishing ongoing agreements and partnerships with entities with expertise in program evaluation and school wellness that help plan and carry out a comprehensive evaluation process. Doing so can provide an outside, objective assessment of school wellness and produce robust, actionable, and tailored outcomes for school- and district-level personnel.

Using a whole school, ecological approach such as the WSCC model can guide data collection and interpretation of findings. Selecting the WSCC model for this project not only provided a structure for gathering individual, organizational, and community-level data but also assisted in interpretation of the data. It helped us to better understand the interrelated and complex nature of individual health behaviors, community factors, and school policies, practices, and procedures that facilitate and impede healthy habits. Data reports from the SWEP and SWRA were shared with school- and district-level administrators and used in the establishment of school-level wellness priorities and drove the district-level wellness committee's 3-year strategic plan. The district wellness committee has outlined priorities, measurable goals, and action items on the basis of the outcomes from the needs assessment process. Additionally, future programming and partnerships are being established on the basis of needs/asset assessments This planning will help bring the action items to fruition.

Lessons Learned

The wellness evaluation project in this study was possible in large part due to the ongoing relationship development and trust between the school personnel and the university research team. This section presents key lessons learned and challenges/opportunities

encountered in terms of (a) collaboration principles imperative to project success, (b) communication tactics needed for navigation of contrary views, and (c) cognitive flexibility necessary in planning, collecting, and reporting school- and district-level findings. Inherent within each lesson learned is the aim of building a collaborative relationship that extends beyond the conclusion of the project and serves as a catalyst for continual, integrated health/wellness systems and structures improvement.

Collaboration Principles

Community-engaged scholarship encompasses several key principles that lead to high-impact outcomes, extended reach, and a scope that serves beyond a single population segment. We outline collaboration principles as guideposts for teams interested in engaging and furthering the mission of community-engaged scholarship. Collaboration principles imperative to the success of this project include the following:

- **Planning and implementation:** Stakeholder involvement was essential and critical. We took an inclusive approach to participant selection, on the basis of those who would be affected by the project.
- **Mutually agreed upon goals, vision, and outcomes:** Key stakeholders mutually chose goals and outcomes.
- **Clarified roles and responsibilities:** Responsibilities and roles were determined through communication of clear roles and expertise and through knowing the resources available.
- **Honest and clear communication:** Regular, frequent communication among the partners built cohesion and helped them avoid unnecessary conflict. Designation of key persons for this communication increased the likelihood of success.
- **Open and two-way sharing of information:** Keeping each other up to date about matters that affected the collaboration was vital.
- **Share progress and challenges:** Regular sharing of progress, challenges, and successes was planned and carried out. This ensured the project was appropriately responsive and adapted as needed.

Communication Tactics

Open and clear communication is critical and necessary for healthy collaborative and reciprocally beneficial initiatives. Throughout a project, it is essential to have regular and ongoing dialogue between the research team and school stakeholders. This serves multiple purposes, including negotiating expected outcomes, establishing credibility of research team members, exploring shared interest or expertise, and avoiding burdensome request of staff and school personnel. In addition, communication within the research team is critical.

Ensuring team members are trained on the data collection protocol and comfortable administering each phase is a considerable task. One important aspect of the protocol training is preparing to navigate contrary views that emerge during the focus groups and guiding the group toward a collective response. For example, stakeholders will hold individual views and opinions that differ from other stakeholders', yet the SWEP requires a single response. This requires the research team members to capture the outlier perspective while listening for and responding to the contextual details of the conversation (history, people, processes, policies, etc.) without passing judgment or affirming socially desirable responses.

Cognitive Flexibility

Community-engaged scholarship, such as this, demands that players commit to ongoing dialogue about the purpose, process, and planned outcomes. It can be difficult and sometimes seemingly impossible for a participant to revise mid-stream; however, this work requires a considerable amount of cognitive flexibility in all involved. Cognitive flexibility allows individuals to consider the multifaceted nature of an issue, explore and see it from various perspectives, and adapt to the changing situation or environment. This dynamic attribute is a necessity for community-engaged research because often the work occurs outside at least one of the partners' typical environments—requiring enhanced awareness, confidence, and adaptability.

A limitation in the planned project is the omission of social and emotional learning as a component of wellness. In response, the team explored options for integrating social and emotional learning into the plan and revised to meet the voiced need. This example of cognitive flexibility requires a shift that is not simple but strengthens

the project and partnership by further aligning the plan with the context-specific needs of the community. Actively listening to stakeholders about the variability within specific schools in terms of norms, climate, previous successes, and needs requires team members to be aware of the nuances in language shared, confident in the plan, and adaptable when unanticipated challenges arise during on-site data collection.

Cognitive flexibility also emerges when stakeholders are asked to think of community assets that serve (or could serve) as a wellness support for students and their families. This task requires individuals to think of a place, space, person, or business and consider how it has supported, does support, or could support wellness. The identification of places, spaces, persons, and businesses alone requires awareness of community assets—then tasks the person to adjust their thinking about the assets toward whether the entity meets an existing need.

A next step in translating this information into meaningful partnerships and programs that capitalize on assets is sharing the asset maps with community agencies and thus enhancing awareness and encouraging adaptability in how assets can support and enhance local school wellness and wellness behaviors of students and families. Agencies should include representatives from multiple sectors such as business and industry, university personnel and students, governmental and nonprofit agencies, and beyond to explore the power of connectivity, collaboration, and shared vision.

Throughout the phases of data collection, analysis, data interpretation, and dissemination, it is important for the research team to exercise cognitive flexibility by engaging in continuous reflection. Given the interdisciplinary nature of the research team, each member approaches the project from a different lens and therefore brings a richness to data interpretation. By keeping the conversations open and welcoming the diverse professional perspectives, the team can respectfully pose questions regarding the sufficiency of the collected data to answer the research questions and, more importantly, to capture information that is additive and valuable for the school district and stakeholders. This example of cognitive flexibility strengthens not only the interpretation and representation of data for the stakeholders but also the quality of interactions of professionals across

disciplines. It also paves the way for future school wellness projects designed and carried out by cross- and interdisciplinary teams. One approach to fostering these interactions and translating information into partnerships is hosting a gathering with stakeholders at which needs assessment and identified asset data are presented. The vision and priorities should be shared during the gathering, along with parameters for partnership and a call-to-action for collaborative partnerships. Providing time and space for partners to gather allows for opportunities for new introductions and crowdsourcing of ideas for future resource sharing, program design, or capacity development.

Implications for School Administrators and Practitioners

Creating a school environment that promotes healthy behaviors, specifically opportunities for healthful eating and physical activity, can lead to both improved student health and improved academic outcomes. Assessing these school health programs and services is a critical step in identifying and reinforcing strengths and improving weaknesses of school-based wellness environments (CDC, 2019b). This project provides a road map that school districts can use to conduct a comprehensive assessment of school health policies and practices. Such an assessment can help build upon strengths and identify gaps and needs. Using the framework provided, schools can promote and implement health-enhancing programs across the WSCC components and foster collaboration among key stakeholders within the school and community. Capitalizing on university–district partnerships can make better use of time and financial resources and can establish a synergy between schools and community organizations.

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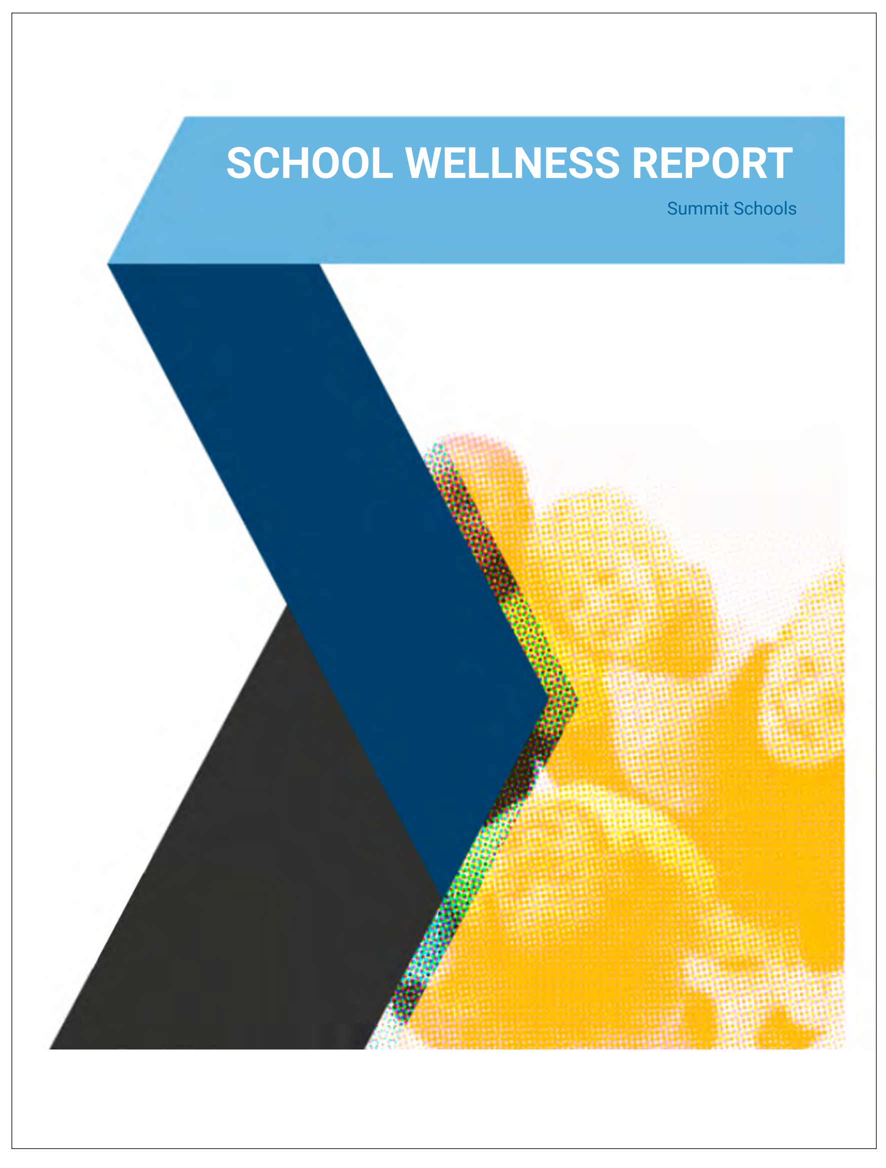
Appendix A

Example of a SWEP Report

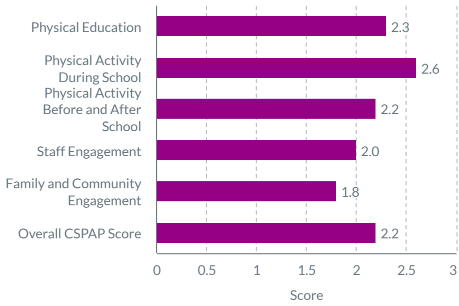
Lee, J. A., McLoughlin, G. M., & Welk, G. J. (2020). School wellness environments: Perceptions versus realities. *The Journal of School Nursing*, *38*(3), 241–248. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059840520924453



WELLNESS REPORT - CSPAP

MAY 2020 Summit Schools

Comprehensive School Physical Activity Program Scorecard



Questions are scored on a 0-3 scale, with 3 being the best score possible.

Interpreting Your Results

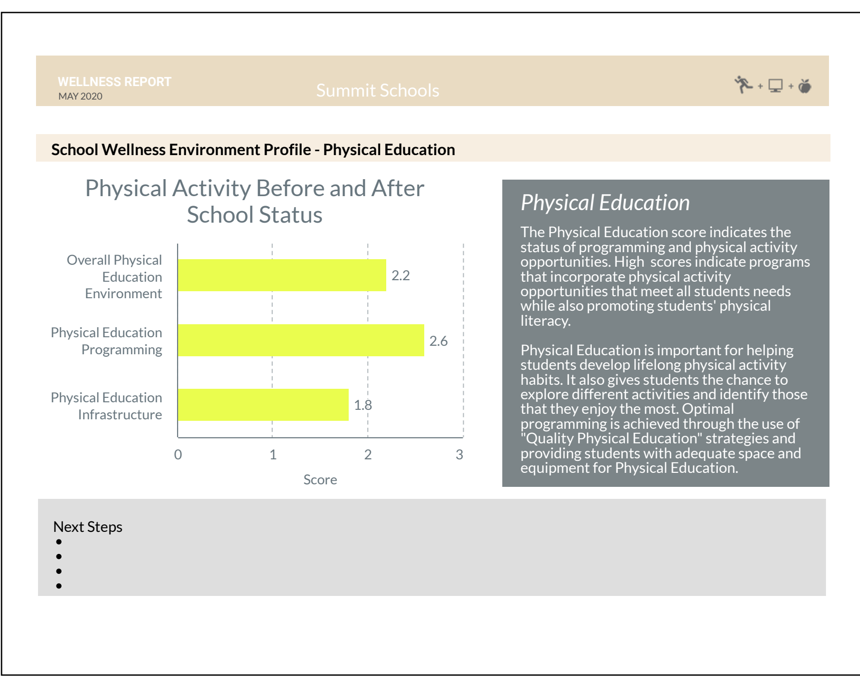
Each bar represents a different component of your school wellness environment. Higher scores are indicated by longer bars and higher numbers.

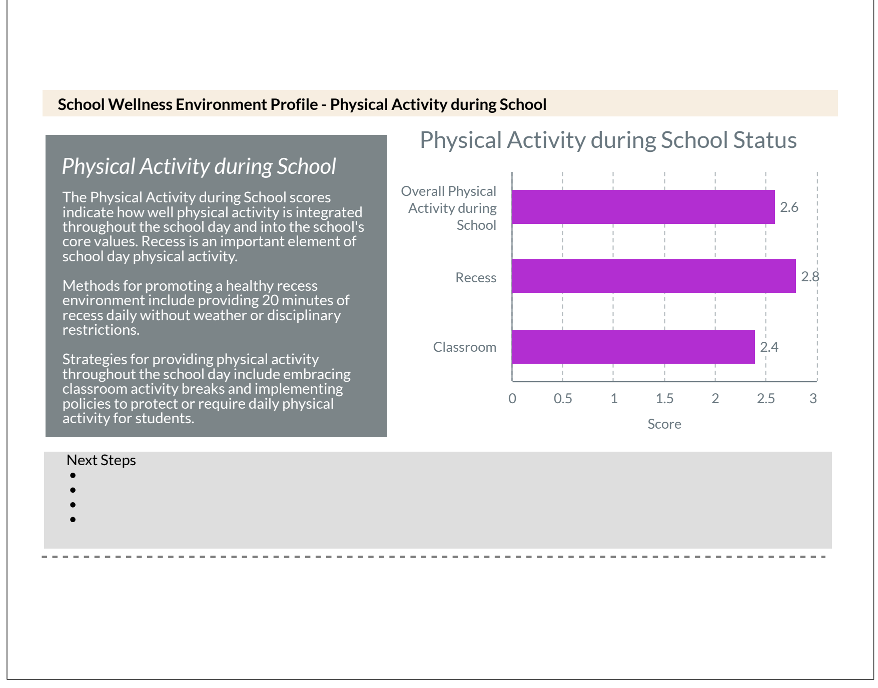
- **High**: scores between 2.5-3.0 reflect areas of the school wellness environment where optimal programs and practices are in place.
- **Medium**: scores between 2.0-2.49 reflect areas where positive programming and practices are in place, but where there is potential to improve.
- **Low**: Scores below 2.0 reflect areas of the school wellness environment where new initiatives could enhance the overall school wellness environment.

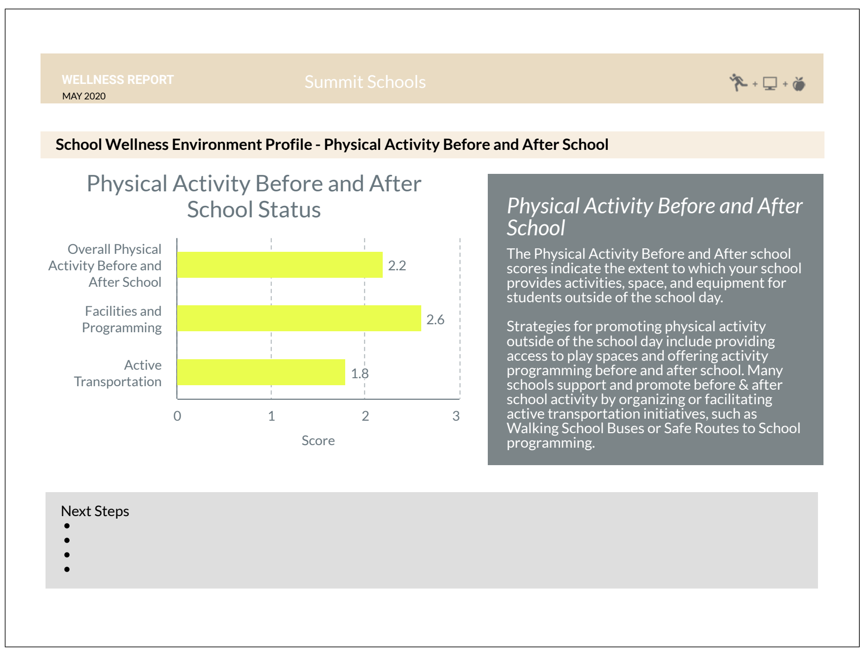
Comprehensive School Physical Activity Programming (CSPAP)

What is a CSPAP?

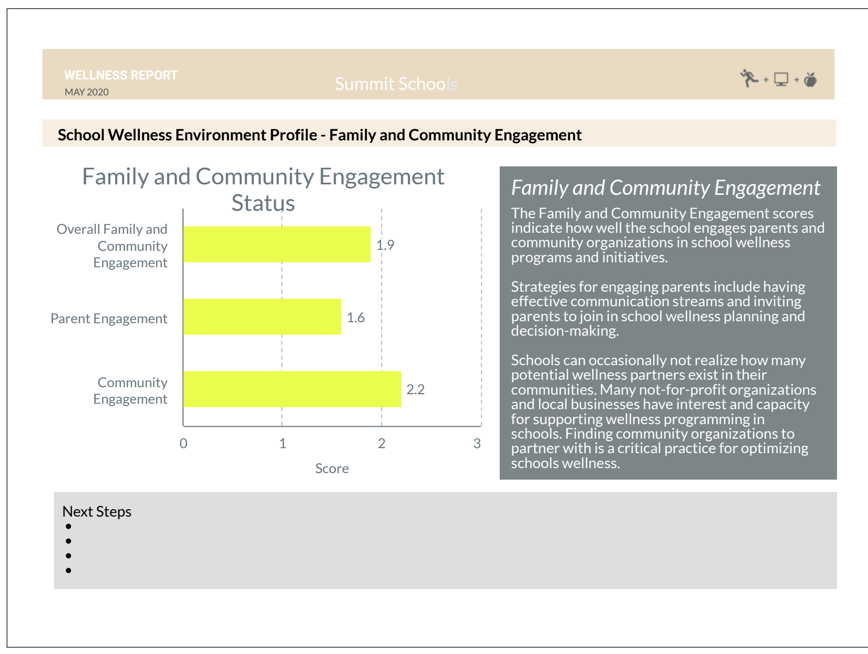
Schools play an important role in contributing to children and adolescents achieving the nationally recommended 60 minutes of physical activity each day. A Comprehensive School Physical Activity Program (CSPAP) is a framework for planning and organizing physical activities in and around the school day. A CSPAP is a multi-component approach where schools integrate opportunities for students to be physically active at school and develop the knowledge, skills, and confidence to be physically active for a lifetime. A CSPAP reflects strong coordination and synergy across all of the components: physical education as the foundation; physical activity before, during, and after school; staff involvement; and family and community engagement.

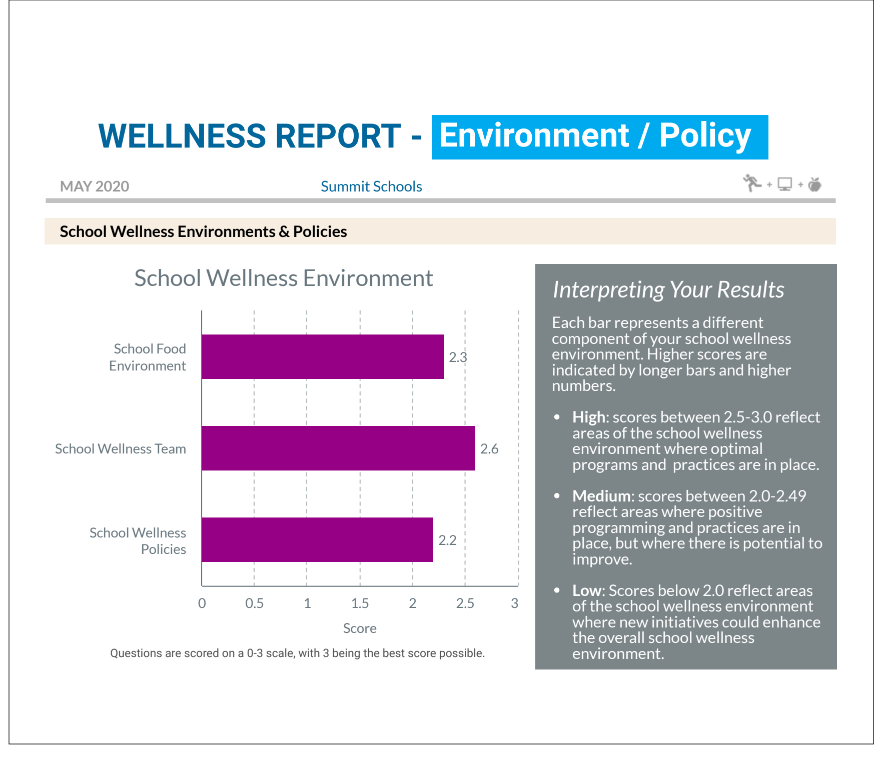

WELLNESS REPORT
MAY 2020
Summit Schools
School Wellness Environment Profile - Physical Education
Physical Activity Before and After School Status
Overall Physical Education Environment
Physical Education Programming
Physical Education Infrastructure
2.2
2.6
1.8
0
1
2
3
Score
Physical Education
The Physical Education score indicates the status of programming and physical activity opportunities. High scores indicate programs that incorporate physical activity opportunities that meet all students needs while also promoting students' physical literacy.
Physical Education is important for helping students develop lifelong physical activity habits. It also gives students the chance to explore different activities and identify those that they enjoy the most. Optimal programming is achieved through the use of "Quality Physical Education" strategies and providing students with adequate space and equipment for Physical Education.
Next Steps


School Wellness Environment Profile - Physical Activity during School
Physical Activity during School
The Physical Activity during School scores indicate how well physical activity is integrated throughout the school day and into the school's core values. Recess is an important element of school day physical activity.
Methods for promoting a healthy recess environment include providing 20 minutes of recess daily without weather or disciplinary restrictions.
Strategies for providing physical activity throughout the school day include embracing classroom activity breaks and implementing policies to protect or require daily physical activity for students.
Physical Activity during School Status
Overall Physical Activity during School
Recess
Classroom
2.6
2.8
2.4
0
0.5
1
1.5
2
2.5
3
Score
Next Steps


WELLNESS REPORT
MAY 2020
Summit Schools
School Wellness Environment Profile - Physical Activity Before and After School
Physical Activity Before and After School Status
Overall Physical Activity Before and After School
Facilities and Programming
Active Transportation
2.2
2.6
1.8
0
1
2
3
Score
Physical Activity Before and After School
The Physical Activity Before and After school scores indicate the extent to which your school provides activities, space, and equipment for students outside of the school day.
Strategies for promoting physical activity outside of the school day include providing access to play spaces and offering activity programming before and after school. Many schools support and promote before & after school activity by organizing or facilitating active transportation initiatives, such as Walking School Buses or Safe Routes to School programming.
Next Steps

School Wellness Environment Profile - Staff Wellness
Staff Wellness
The Staff Wellness scores indicate how well a school supports and encourages staff to lead healthy lifestyles, support school wellness initiatives, and pursue professional development for integrating healthy activities or lessons in school.
Effective Staff Wellness environments can be operationalized by having an active school wellness team and implementing best practices regarding School Wellness Policy initiatives. In addition, schools can support staff in leading healthy lifestyles and role modeling healthy behaviors to students by providing wellness opportunities and programs.
Staff Wellness Status
Overall Staff Wellness
2
0
0.5
1
1.5
2
2.5
3
Score
Next Steps


WELLNESS REPORT
MAY 2020
Summit Schools
School Wellness Environment Profile - Family and Community Engagement
Family and Community Engagement Status
Overall Family and Community Engagement
1.9
Parent Engagement
1.6
Community Engagement
2.2
0
1
2
3
Score
Family and Community Engagement
The Family and Community Engagement scores indicate how well the school engages parents and community organizations in school wellness programs and initiatives.
Strategies for engaging parents include having effective communication streams and inviting parents to join in school wellness planning and decision-making.
Schools can occasionally not realize how many potential wellness partners exist in their communities. Many not-for-profit organizations and local businesses have interest and capacity for supporting wellness programming in schools. Finding community organizations to partner with is a critical practice for optimizing schools wellness.
Next Steps


WELLNESS REPORT - Environment / Policy
MAY 2020
Summit Schools
School Wellness Environments & Policies
School Wellness Environment
School Food Environment
2.3
School Wellness Team
2.6
School Wellness Policies
2.2
0
0.5
1
1.5
2
2.5
3
Score
Questions are scored on a 0-3 scale, with 3 being the best score possible.
Interpreting Your Results
Each bar represents a different component of your school wellness environment. Higher scores are indicated by longer bars and higher numbers.
High: scores between 2.5-3.0 reflect areas of the school wellness environment where optimal programs and practices are in place.
Medium: scores between 2.0-2.49 reflect areas where positive programming and practices are in place, but where there is potential to improve.
Low: Scores below 2.0 reflect areas of the school wellness environment where new initiatives could enhance the overall school wellness environment.

School Wellness Environments and Policies

School Wellness Environments

In 2016, the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) Food and Nutrition Service passed legislation governing school wellness polices. The ruling affects all schools that participate in the National School Lunch Program and/or School Breakfast Program. The ruling requires schools to establish and operationalize effective school wellness policies, to meet specified nutrition standards in the lunchroom and broader school food environment, and to evaluate the implementation of physical activity and nutrition programming and progress towards specified goals. The new regulations are intended to strengthen school wellness efforts, as well as increase transparency and accountability.

School Wellness Environment Profile - School Food Environment

School Food Environment

The School Food Environment scores indicate how well a school offers & encourages healthy food choices, and engages students in the lunchroom environment and the healthy eating practices and norms used throughout the school.

Strategies for providing a healthy school food environment includes incorporating Smarter Lunchroom Initiatives, such as offering a variety of fruits and vegetables each day in multiple locations and using visually appealing displays. Staff can play a role in modeling healthy eating habits and avoiding the consumption of unhealthy foods in the classroom.

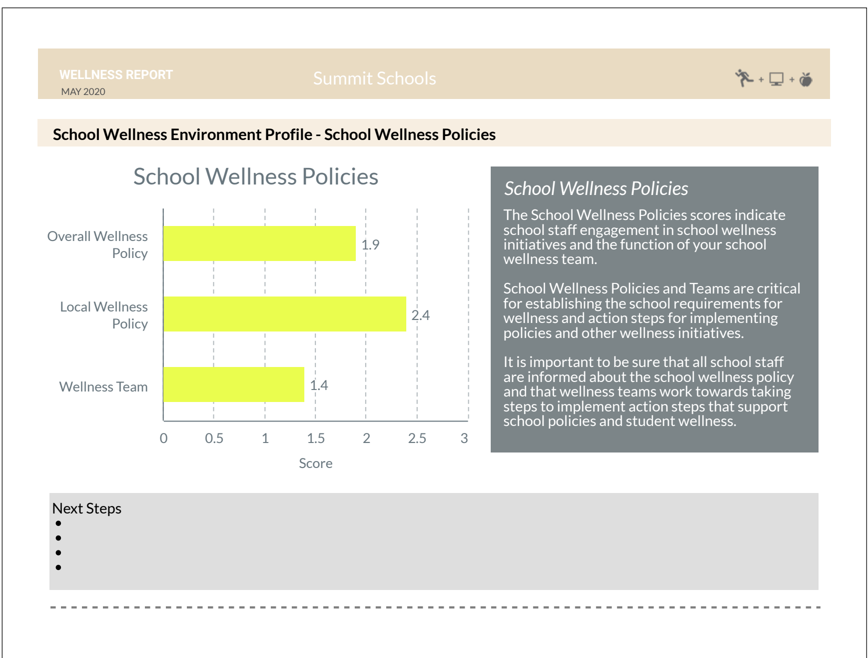
School Food Environment

	Score
School Food Environment Score	2.7
Lunchroom Practices	2.8
School Food Practices	2.6

Axis: 0, 1, 2, 3 — Score

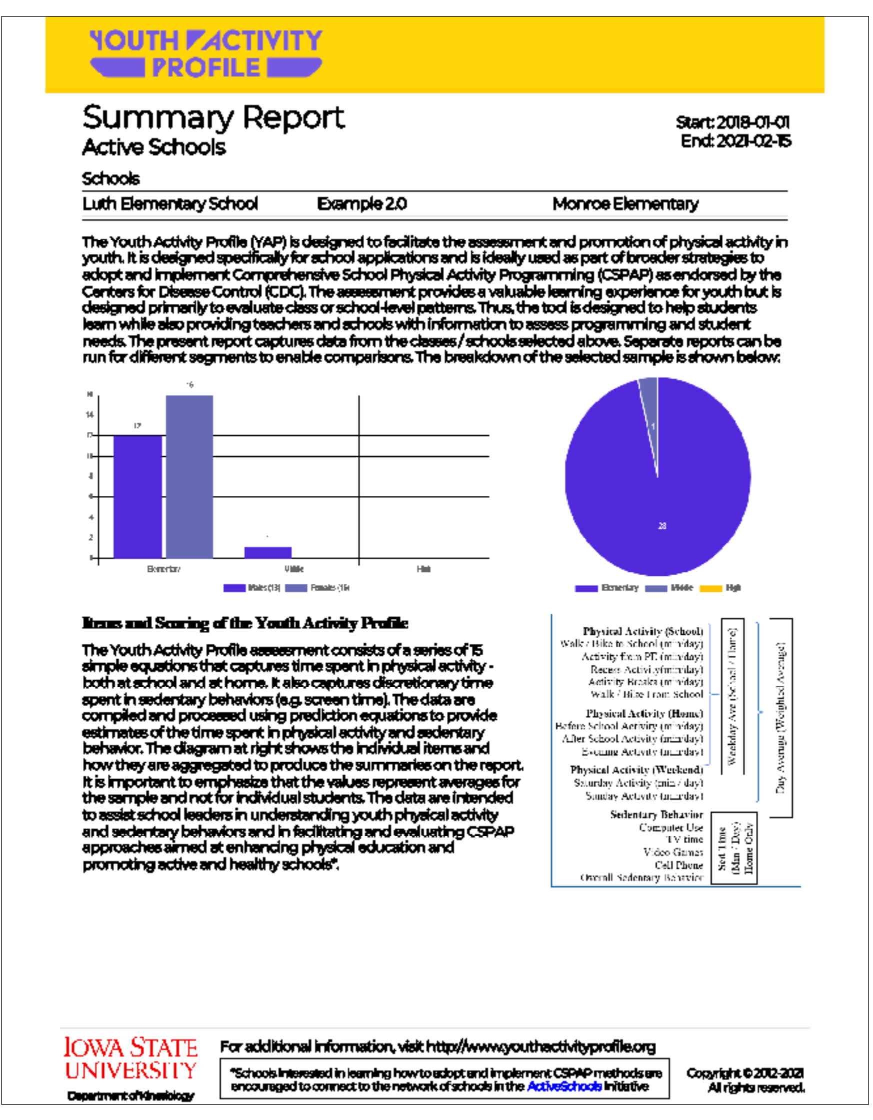
Next Steps

-
-
-
-


WELLNESS REPORT
MAY 2020
Summit Schools
School Wellness Environment Profile - School Wellness Policies
School Wellness Policies
Overall Wellness Policy
Local Wellness Policy
Wellness Team
1.9
2.4
1.4
0
0.5
1
1.5
2
2.5
3
Score
School Wellness Policies
The School Wellness Policies scores indicate school staff engagement in school wellness initiatives and the function of your school wellness team.
School Wellness Policies and Teams are critical for establishing the school requirements for wellness and action steps for implementing policies and other wellness initiatives.
It is important to be sure that all school staff are informed about the school wellness policy and that wellness teams work towards taking steps to implement action steps that support school policies and student wellness.
Next Steps

Appendix B
Example of a School-Level Youth Activity Profile Report

Youth Activity Profile: Summary report—Active schools. (2021). Iowa State University, Department of Kinesiology. https://youthactivityprofile.org/modules/yap/files/YAP-Group-Report-Sample.pdf



YOUTH ACTIVITY PROFILE

Summary Report
Active Schools

Start: 2018-01-01
End: 2021-02-15

Schools

Luth Elementary School	Example 2.0	Monroe Elementary

The Youth Activity Profile (YAP) is designed to facilitate the assessment and promotion of physical activity in youth. It is designed specifically for school applications and is ideally used as part of broader strategies to adopt and implement Comprehensive School Physical Activity Programming (CSPAP) as endorsed by the Centers for Disease Control (CDC). The assessment provides a valuable learning experience for youth but is designed primarily to evaluate class or school-level patterns. Thus, the tool is designed to help students learn while also providing teachers and schools with information to assess programming and student needs. The present report captures data from the classes / schools selected above. Separate reports can be run for different segments to enable comparisons. The breakdown of the selected sample is shown below.

Items and Scoring of the Youth Activity Profile

The Youth Activity Profile assessment consists of a series of 15 simple equations that captures time spent in physical activity - both at school and at home. It also captures discretionary time spent in sedentary behaviors (e.g. screen time). The data are compiled and processed using prediction equations to provide estimates of the time spent in physical activity and sedentary behavior. The diagram at right shows the individual items and how they are aggregated to produce the summaries on the report. It is important to emphasize that the values represent averages for the sample and not for individual students. The data are intended to assist school leaders in understanding youth physical activity and sedentary behaviors and in facilitating and evaluating CSPAP approaches aimed at enhancing physical education and promoting active and healthy schools*.

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY
Department of Kinesiology

For additional information, visit http://www.youthactivityprofile.org

*Schools interested in learning how to adopt and implement CSPAP methods are encouraged to connect to the network of schools in the ActiveSchools initiative

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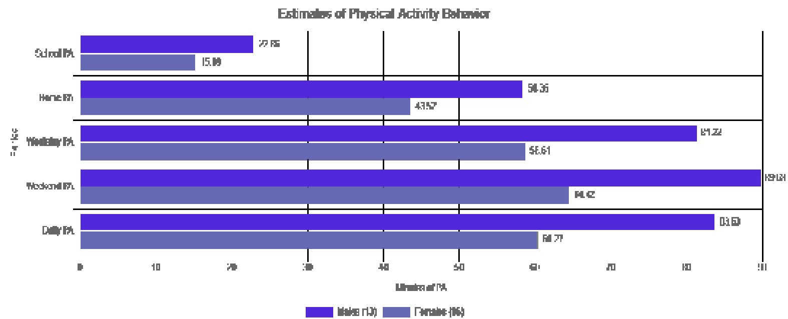
YOUTH ACTIVITY PROFILE

Summary Report

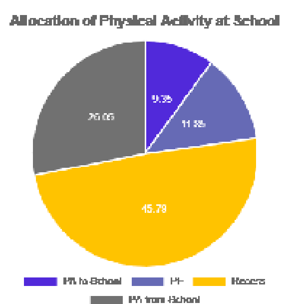
Active Schools

The following report provides a summary of data compiled from the Youth Activity Profile (YAP) at your school. The items on the YAP are intended to help schools evaluate overall levels of physical activity and sedentary behavior. The report provides estimates of the average amount of time that youth spend being active (both at school and at home) as well as estimates of sedentary behaviors outside of school. However, it is important to emphasize that these are estimates based on the students reported behaviors. The main value of the report is that it can provide ideas for goal setting and a way to evaluate changes over time.



This chart shows the breakdown of students' physical activity during and outside of school, as well as over the whole day, for males and females. Recommendations from the Centers for Disease Control emphasize that children should aim for 60 minutes or more of physical activity each day. Boys and girls may have different interests and preferences (and these preferences change over time). Therefore, it is important to consider ways to promote active lifestyles both at school and at home.

This chart depicts the patterns across the school day and provides a breakdown of the relative contributions from different school / time segments. This information can help in identifying the amount of activity in PE or how to promote activity across the school day. Widely endorsed models of Comprehensive School Physical Activity Programming (CSPAP) emphasize the importance of promoting activity across the school day.



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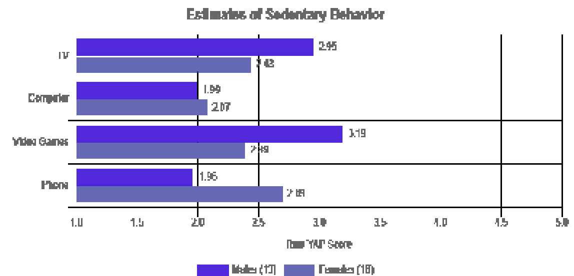
YOUTH ACTIVITY PROFILE



1 = Low amounts of sedentary behavior

5 = High amounts of sedentary behavior

Overall Sedentary Behavior:
Males - 75.2 minutes
Females - 80.6 minutes

This chart provides a view of the scores for sedentary behaviors. While it is normal to spend some time in all of these areas, it is important to try to minimize extended periods of sedentary behaviors. Established public health guidelines emphasize that children should try to reduce their sedentary behavior and non-educational screen time to less than 120 minutes per day. Programming at school can help youth learn the importance of active lifestyles and can remind them to minimize their sedentary behavior at home.

WHERE TO GO FROM HERE?

Take a look at our helpful hints to use this report for positive curricular and school-wide changes.

Take a look at your PE lessons

How much activity are your students getting in PE? If this is lower than you thought, try to reduce time that students are sitting down and increase activity time.

Consider adding activity breaks into classroom activities

Periodic breaks help to increase student focus and create a more engaging learning environment

Set some goals

Consider ways that your school can promote activity during other times such as by enhancing recess, promoting walk to school programming or by offering after school activities.

Share this report

Involve school administrators, community leaders, and parents in the process of creating a more active school environment.

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YOU AND THE LAW

Can a Negligence Claim Be Brought for a High School Sports Injury?

Thomas H. Sawyer and Tonya L. Sawyer

The closing of summer means school is just around the corner. The beginning of school means many high schools will begin their preseason training for their student-athletes. Many individuals across the United States play amateur sports. Injuries are commonplace in all sports and at all levels of competition. Injured student-athletes have rights and are owed a standard of care from their coaches. Additionally, coaches have rights that protect them against the lawsuits of an injured student-athlete.

Most lawsuits begin because the injured party believes the coach was negligent and the negligence directly caused the injury to happen. The injured plaintiff has a particular burden of proof if they believe the coach was negligent. The plaintiff must show the defendant owed them a duty to conform to the established law. If the plaintiff can show the defendant owed them a duty of care, they must prove that the defendant breached that duty and that the defendant's breach was the actual cause of plaintiff's injury.

Sports-related injury cases differ from medical malpractice cases; for instance, the coach's standard of care is often one of the most challenging elements for a plaintiff to establish. The plaintiff who is seeking to develop the coach's duty of care must go through fact-intensive analysis. Many coaches at local high schools have teaching certificates with coaching endorsements. Teachers are required by

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law to have some first aid training. Additionally, it is a prerequisite for coaches to have a familiarization with head injuries before their seasons begin. According to this training, coaches owe a duty of care to the plaintiff that a reasonably prudent person holding a teaching certificate with a coaching endorsement could be expected to provide. The first aid training provided to coaches is not similar to the training a medical professional receives; thus, coaches are not held to that standard. It would be a daunting task for a plaintiff to collect on any damages if they pursued a negligence claim against a coach because of their inability to diagnose a knee injury accurately.

Plaintiffs who are successful in proving a standard of care between the injured player and the coach will most likely still have a difficult time showing other elements of negligence. Although proving negligence is a formidable task, it is not impossible. The courts have found coaches negligent for failing to supervise athletes properly. For example, if coaches are aware that faulty equipment is in place and do not take proper precautions to prevent injury from said equipment, they could be found liable because of their inability to supervise properly. The coaches who do not take reasonable steps to prevent their athletes from foreseeable harm, including giving clear warnings, could be held liable.

However, coaches are not always responsible for faulty equipment used during games and practice. An athlete may be injured or have injuries made worse by defective equipment that did not perform in a reasonably expected manner. When a coach does not know that equipment has the potential to cause injury because it has malfunctioned in the past, the coach will most likely not be held liable. The plaintiff would find it best to pursue a claim under product liability laws if they are seeking compensation for damages. For example, a pole vaulter who attempts to jump and sustains an injury when the pole snaps would not pursue a claim against the coach. It would be in the best interest of the injured party to pursue a claim against the manufacturer of the pole.

Although coaches do not receive the same medical training as doctors, coaches are expected to know when to call for medical attention. The failure of coaches to summon medical aid in a reasonable amount of time could lead to them being held liable because of their inaction. When a coach sees a player who has sustained an

injury or is exhibiting signs of distress, the coach is expected to get medical aid for their player. A coach who is slow in obtaining medical assistance can be found to have caused the injury to worsen, thus meaning the coach's inaction was the causation of the injury.

There is a certain assumption of risk associated with sports. The assumption of risk typically bars plaintiffs from trying to hold fellow participants liable when they are injured while playing in a game. The assumption of risk can also apply as a legal defense for coaches. Players assume some type of risk by agreeing to participate in a sport, which means there is also a risk they might sustain an injury during play. The coach being absolved of liability is contingent on the fact that they provided all their players with the proper equipment and adequately instructed them in a fashion that would keep them safe. Coaches do have a responsibility to train their players on making an appropriate tackle in a football game, for instance. If a player sustains a spinal cord injury due to not being adequately trained on tackling technique by the coach, the coach could be open to a negligence suit.

Additionally, coaches employed by a public entity may also avoid liability by invoking qualified immunity. Qualified immunity is protection for government employees, which is what public school teachers and coaches are. Qualified immunity protects government employees from lawsuits that allege the employee violated the rights of the plaintiff. Qualified immunity is rarely applied in personal injury cases in which the coach is found liable for a student-athlete's injuries. The factual circumstances surrounding a case would be the heavy focus of any potential suit. Unless a coach is grossly negligent or fails to follow appropriate training, they will likely not be held liable for any injuries of student-athletes. If through the facts, the courts find that the coach is liable, the plaintiff would be entitled to damages. Damages for sports-related injuries include compensation for medical bills, compensation for pain and suffering, and even potential punitive damages if the coach behaved in a manner the courts felt they needed to punish.

Instructions for Authors

The Physical Educator

Author manuscripts must be submitted online (https://js.sagamorepub.com/pe/index) and meet the following guidelines:

Manuscripts must be double spaced in Times New Roman 12-point font in a Microsoft Office Word document. Number the lines of the manuscript, including the references. Manuscripts should be 25 pages or fewer in length, including charts, graphs, graphics, pictures, and tables. Please follow APA 7th edition style guidelines consistently throughout the manuscript.

The first page of the manuscript must include the title of the article only. Do not include your name, affiliation, or other identifying information. An abstract must accompany each manuscript.

Label all charts, graphs, and tables and place them on separate pages. Submit all images 300 dpi with appropriate captions. Number the pages beginning with the title page followed by text, references, figure captions, tables, and figures. Figures must be clean and legible. Freehand art or lettering is not acceptable.

Carefully check references to ensure they are correct, included only when they are cited in the text using APA 7th edition style guidelines. Only include references that have been published or accepted for publication.

Upon submission, authors will be sent an email of receipt. Manuscripts are read by the editor and three reviewers using a blind review process that takes up to 90 days. Authors will be notified about the disposition of their manuscripts as soon as reviewers have returned their reviews. Depending on the outcome of the review, authors will receive one of the following notices:

1. An e-mail of acceptance certifying the article will be published in the near future.

2. An e-mail of rejection and copies of reviewers' comments.

3. An e-mail recommending revision and copies of reviewers' comments and suggested revisions. A due date will be listed for resubmission of the revised manuscript.

Galley proofs will be emailed to the corresponding author and must be returned within 72 hours of receipt. Only minor corrections

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