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ADVENTURE EDUCATION

Perceptions of Universally Designed Adventure Education in High School Physical Education

Nick Faulds and Zack Beddoes

Abstract

Adventure education (AE) is a student-centered curricular model built upon acceptance where various types of learners can experience challenge, success, emotional growth, and peer interaction. Most studies focus exclusively on the perspectives of the instructors, whereas this study includes parental perspectives of children with disabilities and peer mentors. This research investigated a regionally well-known high school inclusive AE program to better understand how participants conceptualized its impact on their lives. A case study design was used. Data collection included semistructured formal interviews, informal interviews, observations, document analysis, and narrative descriptions. Participants were alumni of an AE program, parents of students with disabilities who engaged in the program, and faculty members of a school district who initiated the program. Emerging themes were generalization of teachable moments, sense of community, and changing life perspectives. Findings depicted long-term engagement involving physical activity, adapted physical education, and adventure education among multiple populations of individuals. Participation in universally designed adventure education programming during high school physical education can enhance positive feelings among individuals of varying populations that transition into life after graduation. Given the nature of the model, AE may be optimal for fostering peer interaction and lasting friendships among students with and without disabilities.

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Adventure education (AE) is an experiential learning process where knowledge is constructed from direct experience, skill practice, and value enhancement (Shih & Hsu, 2016). This instructional model comprises seven stages designed to enhance collaboration and communication among students: (a) acquaintance activities, (b) ice breakers, (c) communication activities, (d) problem-solving activities, (e) trust activities, (f) low elements, and (g) high elements (Bisson, 1999). AE provides a framework that facilitates teamwork, trust, cooperation, and self-confidence. A unique aspect of AE is its noncompetitive nature given that it is structurally designed to facilitate an inclusive learning environment for students of varying ability levels.

AE positions participants in situations designed to enhance exploration and valuing of outdoors, while facilitating the development of self-confidence and leadership skills (Sibthorp et al., 2011). Likewise, AE incorporates cooperative, problem-solving, and decision-making activities with the objective of enhancing participants' unique skills and abilities through peer and teacher support (Sutherland & Legge, 2016). Adventure-based learning (ABL) is part of AE and is a student-centered approach emphasizing hands-on experiences. The key components of ABL include (a) experiential learning, (b) sequence and flow of activities, (c) student-centered facilitation, (d) processing through briefing and debriefing, (e) emotional and physical safety, and (f) cultural responsiveness. AE enhances participants' intra- and interpersonal skills and interdependence (Rhodes & Martin, 2014; Quay et al., 2003) as a result of frequent peer interactions.

AE activities develop an atmosphere of acceptance in an experiential manner where participants take risks, share, collaborate, and problem solve together (Forgan & Jones, 2002). Furthermore, the noncompetitive nature of AE can enhance motivation, self-perception, and positive social behavior (Gibbons et al., 2010; Forgan & Jones, 2002). The foregoing research suggests that AE has the potential to support the mental and emotional growth of students given that it is a curricular model that provides all participants with multiple opportunities for peer interaction. The use of peers to assist learning in AE has the potential to benefit students of all ability levels in areas of

socialization and leadership (Quay et al., 2003; Zmudy et al., 2009; Forgan & Jones, 2002; Sibthorp et al., 2011).

Inclusive Physical Education

The notion of including students with disabilities (SWD) alongside their nondisabled peers in a physical education (PE) setting is not new (Baker et al., 1995; Vogler et al., 2000). Frequent interactions among students with and without disabilities can create a positive learning environment within a PE setting as long as these interactions are perceived as positive (Park et al., 2014). SWD can develop a sense of belonging from supportive interactions (e.g., encouragement and physical support) with nondisabled peers (Goodwin & Watkinson, 2000). Conversely, negative experiences can occur within inclusive PE when SWD perceive social isolation and lack of engagement in class activities (Goodwin & Watkinson, 2000). In addition, many schools incorporate some type of inclusive PE setting with similar structure.

PE teachers must take an active rather than passive role in planning for and facilitating the engagement of SWD in the learning process and use a variety of instructional methodologies. The notion of planning and implementing a Universal Design for Learning (UDL) where all students can experience active engagement, expression, and flexibility throughout the curriculum (Rose & Meyer, 2006) is important for SWD. For example, SWD reported positive inclusive experiences when they perceived they had gained entry to play, felt like a legitimate participant, and had peer support (Spencer-Cavaliere & Watkinson, 2010). Inclusive PE may likewise be beneficial for students without disabilities. These students might develop a more favorable view of SWD after participating in an inclusive PE environment—especially with well-established support services (Block & Zeman, 1996). Additionally, assistance and praise from peers enhances positive feelings and decreases feelings of dependence upon adult support among SWD (Klavina, 2008).

One of the drawbacks to many inclusive PE environments is the large class sizes. Teachers may have difficulty individualizing instruction in overcrowded classes due to not having the ability to circulate and attend to every student (Park et al., 2014). In oversized classes, the PE teacher may lack opportunities for providing as much individualized instruction as the student needs to be successful. In

such circumstances, quality peer tutoring may be a viable option. However, it is important for PE teachers to intentionally provide individualized opportunities for SWD to interact with both the teacher and their peers (Cervantes et al., 2013; Lieberman & Houston-Wilson, 2009). With appropriate training and direction, a peer tutor may facilitate a successful learning environment for SWD in PE. Research suggests that utilizing peer tutoring in general PE can assist SWD by providing additional support (Cervantes et al., 2013). The structural nature and objectives of the AE model, with its focus on peer and experiential learning may be particularly suitable for successful inclusion in PE.

Although implementing forms of peer tutoring can benefit SWD and their nondisabled peers, it is the teacher who must ultimately prepare for and manage the learning environment if successful inclusion is to occur. It is likely for this reason that the majority of the research to date considers the perspectives of the teachers while a relative few studies explore parental perspectives of children with disabilities (Wilhelmsen & Sørensen, 2017). The purpose of this research was to investigate a regionally well-known high school universally designed adventure education (UDAE) program to better understand how participants conceptualized its impact on their lives. UDAE is an educational environment where SWD engage in various adventure and outdoor pursuit activities with their nondisabled peers in a cooperative learning setting. The program was referred to as UDAE by the instructor and all participants as a reference to the nature of the unique inclusive AE program under study. The research questions guiding this investigation were (1) How do instructors, parents, and nondisabled participants experience an inclusive UDAE program? and (2) How do student perceptions of a UDAE program transfer to life experiences beyond the program?

Method

An instrumental case study methodology (Stake, 2005) grounded this investigation. Participant experiences were bounded by a specific school setting and program, which is the study of a case to provide further insight on a particular topic and develop generalizations and build theory. An instrumental case study methodology was appropriate for this work because we sought to explore lived experiences as well as provide possible transferability to other educational

settings (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This study was approved by the IRB at the University of Wisconsin–LaCrosse.

Participants

Following university IRB approval, a purposive sample of participants was selected for this study on the basis of several criteria designed to obtain a variety of perspectives. Participants were provided a consent form they filled out prior to the start of data collection. Participants were selected from (a) alumni (A) of a UDAE program during their high school career; (b) parents (P) of a child with a disability who was currently or had previously participated in a UDAE program; and (c) faculty members (F) who supported or implemented a UDAE program.

Twelve participants (all provided with pseudonyms in this report) consented to this study. The age of the participants ranged from 22 to 60 (M = 36, SD = 12.6). Three participants (1 male, 2 female) were parents of persons with disabilities who had or were then participating in a UDAE program at a high school in the Midwestern United States; five alumni (1 male, 4 female) from the said school who were peer mentors in a UDAE program; and four (1 female, 3 male) were current faculty members from a high school where a UDAE program took place and who volunteered to various degrees. As part of a larger investigation, past participants were selected as the central focus for this study. A follow-up study targets participant experiences. The premise of this approach was to ascertain the program's perceived lasting effects on participants including carryover into other life domains. Past participants can reflect on the entirety of their experience and these findings can be compared and evaluated with those currently participating in the program.

This study was conducted at a high school with a regionally well-known inclusive AE program known as UDAE. The AE program had demonstrated considerable innovation and sustainability over the previous decade under the direction of a PE teacher with expertise in both AE and adapted physical education. The program is referred to as UDAE given the student's engagement in the curriculum. Moreover, each of the components of adventure-based learning (experiential learning, sequence and flow of activities, student-centered facilitation, processing through briefing and debriefing, emotional

and physical safety, cultural responsiveness) are observable and points of emphases in the setting.

For the past 10 years from the time of initiation of the program, 10 to 15 SWD and 15 students without disabilities were enrolled in an AE course. The SWD cohort had a range of mental and physical disabilities. Nondisabled students were admitted to the course through a competitive application process that included a two-page written paper on why they believe they would be a good fit for the class. The course is unique in that it is customized to train typical developing peers on modifications from the lead instructor as part of the course. This class differs from other inclusive AE PE courses because of its high inclusion (roughly equal number of SWD and students without disabilities), high and low elements courses, and selective admittance policy for students without disabilities. This study was conducted over 5 months.

Data Sources

Four qualitative techniques were employed for data collection. Data sources that provide a rich understanding of participant perceptions were selected.

Formal Interviews

Formal, open-ended interviews of parents, alumni, and faculty members were conducted. Interview questions were piloted and subsequently revised according to feedback from the expert reviewers. Interviews were conducted on the phone or in person on the basis of participant preference. All interviews were 30 to 45 min in length, audio recorded, transcribed verbatim, and sent to participants for member checking. The primary investigator, Nick Faulds, called each participant to ensure accuracy of interview notes and clarify any additional information that was needed. See Table 1 for a breakdown of sample alumni, parent, and faculty questions. In addition to formal interviews, follow-up informal interviews were completed with all participants by phone to clarify answers and obtain additional insight. Faulds took notes for each participant response followed by reading the notes back to ensure an accurate depiction of the responses from participants

Observations

Six formal course observations of students with and without disabilities were conducted on the campus of a high school where a UDAE program was housed at various time points throughout the year. These documented what specific progressions, teaching practices, and inclusive moments were implemented and had taken place during a current program. Each observation lasted between 60 and 90 min. Observations did not include children of parents who were interviewed within this study. Field notes were documented during observations and then written out electronically on a computer.

Reflection Journals and Teaching Materials

Peer mentors kept reflection journals as part of their participation in the program. Reflection journals captured the perceptions and experiences of peer mentors as previously recorded during the time of their participation in the program. For example, some peer mentors illustrated that taking this course altered their viewpoints of their peers with disabilities. Reflection journals and other teaching materials of previous peer mentors were copied and supplied in person by the physical educator who facilitated the UDAE program.

Narrative Descriptions

Alumni who had previously served as peer mentors in the UDAE program completed narrative descriptions of an "ideal UDAE program" that they would implement based on their views, philosophies, and experience with the program. The purpose of this data collection instrument was for previous peer mentors to reflect on the entirety of their experiences participating in a UDAE program and how it impacted their current life occupations such as becoming a special education teacher. Instructions for completing narrative descriptions were delivered and the narrative was returned electronically.

Data Analysis

Initially, UDAE program perspectives of parents, alumni, and faculty members were examined through open coding techniques designed to obtain a general understanding of the data. Open coding revealed general patterns and relationships among the data.

Each of the subsets were coded and categorized through the techniques of analytic induction and constant comparison (Goetz &

LeCompte, 1984). To do this, we read through all collected data carefully to find comparisons among various data sources and to develop themes on the basis of commonalities. Interview data, field-journal notes, narrative description, and supporting documents were coded and comparisons were made across all data sources. A coding manual was developed with quotes and other illustrations depicted from all data sources. After development of a coding manual, a group of professionals with expertise in qualitative research reviewed it and provided feedback to Faulds. Modifications were made as necessary and the coding manual was sent back to the reviewers for clarification and feedback. After initial coding, 151 coded items from all data sources were selected for inclusion in the codebook. Codes were subsequently applied to all data sources (e.g., the data sources were coded with the codebook). We discussed and reviewed the codebook and made modifications throughout the data collection process. Sample coding, developing themes, and sample raw data were then reviewed by national experts in adapted physical education and qualitative methodology. Correspondence was ongoing until there was agreement among us and the external experts relative to data saturation (e.g., further data analysis was not producing additional insight per addressing the research questions; Glesne & Peshkin, 1991). Data analysis revealed the emergence of nine units (e.g., emerging themes and subthemes). These were consolidated and reduced to three overarching themes.

We utilized multiple data sources for the purpose of triangulation and obtaining an in depth understanding of the research questions (Creswell & Poth, 2018). All interview questions were critically analyzed by experts and subsequently revised. In addition, Faulds searched for discrepant and negative cases throughout the data analysis process. Member checks were completed where participants were asked to provide clarification or confirmation toward their responses to interview questions. Two external university adapted physical education professors with backgrounds in qualitative research provided feedback for the coding manual, which was subsequently applied.

Trustworthiness and Credibility

Standards of quality and verification are key issues in qualitative research (Creswell, 1998). The trustworthiness of this study was

verified in various ways. First, Faulds implemented triangulation of data collection sources to gain a deep understanding of the content within this study. Prior to the start of data collection, Faulds sent interview questions designed for each group of participants to professors in adapted physical education with in-depth backgrounds in qualitative research for peer review. Revisions to interview questions were made. In addition, Faulds searched for discrepant and negative cases throughout the analysis of data collection. During the process of semistructured formal interviews, as well as after the analysis was completed, Faulds completed member checks through informal interviews where participants were asked to provide clarification or confirmation toward their responses to interview questions. Two university adapted physical education professors with backgrounds in qualitative research reviewed the data analysis coding manual developed by Fauld. Their comments were incorporated into the final reporting of the findings.

Findings

The research questions guiding this investigation were (1) How do instructors, parents, and nondisabled participants experience an inclusive UDAE program? and (2) How do student perceptions of a UDAE program transfer to life experiences beyond the program? Three overall themes emerged from analysis of the five data sources: (a) changing of life perspectives, (b) community and caring, and (c) generalization of teachable moments. This section gives representative examples of the findings associated with each theme, organized according to each respective research question.

Changing of Life Perspectives

With respect to the first research question, multiple data sources suggested that perceptions of participants experienced changing life perspectives as a result of membership in the UDAE program. With regard to peer mentors, involvement provided unique opportunities to view their peers with disabilities through a person-first lens. Participants unanimously spoke to this theme. All names in this work are pseudonyms. The primary instructor Jason-F mentioned in a formal interview, "I think it really helps people see past those differences and view the person rather than the disability." During a formal interview conducted with a former participant, Lizzie-A

explained, "I took a boy with Down syndrome to prom with me and the community was happy." Moreover, a former student mentioned in a reflection journal, "I have never been a part of a group that is this focused on team success and aware of everyone's physical and emotional needs." When recounting the most important benefits a UDAE program had for his child with a disability and for all children, a parent of a SWD described,

> Some of the popular [kids] in school, you know, athletes that are going through this [UDAE] or other kids that are doing really well that take this class, you know, know him [child with a disability] and think of him as their friend and so he, um, I think it's huge for other kids to get exposure to disability to special needs that they know it's not something to be scared of because that's just how [his son] is. . . . he has to go over here and flap his arms a little bit now right now or he's not going to answer you right away, but you just have to wait for an answer. They just know him they don't think anything of it [having a disability]. (Don-P, Formal Interview)

The UDAE program may have not only changed the perspectives of nondisabled participants. Though SWD were not interviewed in this study, parents provided insight into their perceptions of how their children with disabilities experienced the program. Jillian-P described during an informal interview that she believed participating in this program helped her son become more confident. She illustrated that the specific activities within this class provided opportunities to demonstrate to SWD that their nondisabled peers have barriers they have to overcome as well, such as being afraid of heights. Jillian felt that the unique adventure activities all students participated in together helped them mutually learn from one another given that all students were participating in novel activities. Jillian explained that she believes this is what made her son more confident in attempting to teach others.

Community and Caring

Along with the changing of perspective, the data suggested that experiential learning activities enhanced perceived community and caring for others within the UDAE program. Participants expressed

the benefits for themselves or their children of forming friendships with peers through AE and outdoor education. For some, feelings of friendship developed over time. Anna-A said during a formal interview that participating in a UDAE program during her high school career "helped [her] kind of um, be comfortable with building friendships in college." Jillian-P explained during a formal interview that her child with a disability connected with his peers in school because of the UDAE program. Reflecting on her son participating in the program with his nondisabled peers during his high school career, Jillian-P said, "It gave him a better connection in school to other kids that he would see that he maybe wasn't so used to seeing" and "It just gave him some friendships and stuff that he typically didn't have." Furthermore, when describing her experience in a UDAE program, Reese-A mentioned in her narrative statement, "In this class [UDAE] you will not see cliques."

Reflection journals also identified that the UDAE program provided opportunities for participants to meet people they may not have in any other school settings. One student stated in a reflection journal, "I have met some people that I would probably have never talked to, if it wasn't for being in this class." Others forged friendships that lasted well-beyond the school setting. Another student mentioned, "Watching everyone bond and become closer than I thought we ever would was terrific" (Reflection Journal). During a formal interview, Don-P described how his son with a disability has been afforded the opportunity to interact with nondisabled peers outside of school:

> He's wanting to do social things with his friends, um, it's not real interactive he still doesn't have those skills as well as other kids, but the kids that are picking him up that know that and they know how to interact with him enough to make him feel like part of the group.

Along with community, data analysis revealed a sense of enhanced caring as a result of the program. Multiple data sources such as reflection journals, formal interviews, narrative descriptions, and observations showed that the sense of caring was developed via peers helping one another. Caring appeared to grow out of the opportunities to engage in novel and noncompetitive activities such as

snowshoeing, caving, winter shelter building, bouldering, and hiking. For example, Lizzie-A explained that involvement with UDAE "just made [her] realize that not only to think of [herself], but always others and their feelings toward, um, different goals that they have and the fears that come along with that."

During observations, there were numerous instances when students with and without disabilities demonstrated feelings of caring toward their peers. In one instance, a student warned her peers with and without disabilities of hazardous areas to ensure their safety. In another instance, a student cut down a tree branch that fell and hit a classmate and the student expressed great concern for her safety. The administrator also described a sense of caring demonstrated by students, when reflecting on his previous experiences in participating with the UDAE program during different group outings:

> Yeah, I definitely seen a level of compassion and wanting to involve in or include students with disabilities in experiences they wouldn't typically get to do. You really see a joy in our typically developing students when they are able to help. (Formal Interview)

Reflection journals reinforced the administrator's statement. For instance, a former student described that she appreciated the willingness of peers to help each other whenever needed. Participants offered further support to this claim during formal and informal interviews. For example, Cynthia-A discussed in a formal interview how this program motivated nondisabled peers to care for their peers with disabilities. Cynthia described, "I've seen regular ed kids stand up to their peers in defense of these [students with disabilities]." Further, the primary instructor explained how students demonstrated feelings of caring from nondisabled peers through interaction outside of the UDAE program. He explained, "As you walk down the hall, you'll see the students who were in the [UDAE program] interacting, which you didn't see before" and "[The nondisabled peers are] going to watch [the students with disabilities'] adapted sports league games, which they wouldn't have done before"

Generalization of Teachable Moments

The findings for the theme of generalization of teachable moments primarily addressed the second research question and represented lifelong lessons learned through participation in the UDAE program as well as how participation influenced subsequent career decision making and other experiences. Adam-F mentioned during a formal interview that participating in this type of program is beneficial for all students because "I think [UDAE] really opens their mind and how it should be included in our society." Moreover, a student mentioned in a reflection journal that participating in this type of program "has shown [them] some things that [they] can keep doing even when [they are] finished with school" in terms of working with diverse groups of people. In addition, the data were a derivative of positive mentoring—feelings of working in unison to achieve group-oriented objectives including rock climbing, bouldering, snowshoeing, and caving, which transferred to life after graduation. Tom recorded in a reflection journal, "I've really become more adventurous and outgoing because of this class, and this summer I am going to try and apply this class to my real life." Moreover, Reynolds-A explained in his narrative description that participating in UDAE during his high school career benefited him in his life because "overall this class [UDAE] has impacted [him] by showing [him] that some people just need a helping hand and some guidance and [he] really enjoyed being able to do that." Further, Reynolds-A explained during a formal interview,

> I also wouldn't have been able to be a mentor if I didn't join the universal PE program because that program really shaped me and prepared me to be able to mentor, uh, kids or, you know, guys that I work with that are younger than me, um, [it's] something I enjoy doing whether it's someone with a disability or someone without a disability, it doesn't bother me one bit.

Participants described how personal perceptions of AE with their peers carried over into their everyday life. The nature of the activities and the diversity between participants seemed to foster an interest in pursuing special education, physical education, and AE

as a career. At the time of data collection, Lizzie-A was finishing a degree in special education. She said,

> I, um, feel like I can make goals easier for, um, kids setting their goals and not only setting them, but achieving them in the long run and just seeing progress is always something that can take a long time. (Formal Interview)

Anna-A described during a formal interview that being a member of this class encouraged her to continue working with SWD and be "more vocal and independent" and because of this program she was able to transfer the "communication piece" into her career. Reese-A explained during her formal interview that the content she learned in UDAE gave her the leadership skills required to "have the ability to lead out a group of freshmen girls that will be on a . . . 9-week backpacking trip this summer up in the mountains of Canada." Further, during an observation while a bouldering class was taking place, a former student came to the class and stated that participating in UDAE gave her the motivation to continue participating in competitive bouldering events as an adult.

Discussion

This study investigates the perceptions of current instructors, parents of a child with disabilities, and nondisabled students affiliated with a UDAE program. Notable delimitations for this initial study include the omission of the voices of the SWD themselves with reliance on perceptions of parents of children with disabilities, alumni, and instructors. The three themes that evolved—(a) changing of life perspectives, (b) community and caring, and (c) generalization of teachable moments—illustrate how participation in an integrated AE setting provides students of all abilities with opportunities to develop life skills. The results of this study enhance the knowledge base relative to understanding the potential long-term benefits of AE for students of various ability levels.

Previous research describes SWD participating in parallel lesson activities with their nondisabled peers (Haegele & Zhu, 2017). This study explores a different avenue in which all students achieve lesson objectives through process-oriented activities designed to maximize participation. It appears that participation in this type of

program is maximized because students engage in lesson activities that focus on the needs of the group rather than winning and losing. The findings align with other research suggesting that participation in lesson activities within the context of AE can enhance intra- and interpersonal skills (Rhodes & Martin, 2014; Shih & Hsu, 2016). Although SWD may develop negative feelings associated with PE when SWD are not active participants (Bredahl, 2013; Goodwin & Watkinson, 2000; Haegele & Sutherland, 2015), this study suggests that active and deliberate inclusion of SWD facilitates positive perceptions for the participants. These findings accord with similar extant research (Zmudy et al., 2009) in which participants engage in process-oriented lesson activities.

Aligned with the findings of Spencer-Cavaliere and Watkinson (2010) in which SWD develop lasting friendships with their nondisabled peers, the findings of this study show participants likewise through the UDAE program form relationships that extend well beyond high school. Similar to participants in previous literature (Spencer-Cavaliere & Watkinson, 2010; Davidson, 2001), participants in this study formed relationships through the UDAE program that extended well beyond high school. Parents also reported their children as being more social outside of school following involvement in the program. This may be attributed to the class affording opportunities for people to focus on peer abilities rather than disabilities (Seymour et al., 2009). Altered perceptions between students of varying ability levels may likewise have been accelerated by the curricular model because of its primary focus on social growth and equality (Forgan & Jones, 2002; Garst et al., 2001).

Potentially as a result of a change of life perspective, SWD and their nondisabled peers develop friendships through concomitant participation in UDAE lesson activities such as bouldering, ice fishing, winter shelter building, and rock climbing. Such participation in AE during PE may provide relative inclusivity of social groups in comparison to other PE and school settings (Fernandez-Rio & Suarez, 2016; Smith et al., 2010; Sutherland & Legge, 2016; Zink & Burrows, 2008). In this study, there is no indication from participants of experiencing hierarchical social status within the program.

The findings of Goodwin and Watkinson (2000) are similar to those in this study in that SWD develop positive perceptions when

they perceive activities with nondisabled peers as meaningful. When meaningful experiences are coupled with a sense of support, personal growth and reduction of potential risk factors may result (Berman & Davis-Berman, 2005). In addition, participants in this study describe how lessons learned in the program transfer to other life domains. This too could be an outgrowth of an AE instructional model that provides purposeful applicability to other life activities and related occupations (Cooley et al., 2015; Zmudy et al., 2009). Alumni of a UDAE described how the content taught in the UDAE gave them the skills and knowledge to work with a variety of populations.

Learning mechanisms taught in AE can be transferred to multiple contexts (Sibthorp et al., 2011). Findings from this study support this notion.

Implications

This study suggests that participating in UDAE during high school can enhance feelings of community among SWD toward their nondisabled peers. What was particularly striking to us is the transferability of lessons learned from the educational to the general life context (Sibthorp et al., 2011). Former participants and parents of a child with disabilities repeatedly referred to the program as a means of enhancing confidence for attending social events and embarking in leadership opportunities.

This purposively selected program represents a unique context in which the PE teacher is an expert in AE and APE and teaches roughly the same number of students with and without a disability. This provides an opportunity for frequent interaction and exposure among students across a variety of ability levels. Frequent exposure or contact, under positive and interactive conditions, can significantly enhance nondisabled student experiences and attitudes toward their peers with disabilities (Keith et al., 2015).

The AE model is designed to facilitate noncompetitive and cooperative learning. This research provides another affirmative example of the potential for AE programs to foster positive and sustainable learning experiences among a variety of learners. Therefore, the results of this study have merit and are encouraging for adapted and general PE professionals considering the implementation of a similar program. However, while the data from this investigation suggest general positive experiences from participants in the AE program

under study, it is important for observers to remember that the positive class environment was intentionally cultivated. It is possible that simply including SWD in an AE course alongside their nondisabled peers may produce negative rather than positive experiences, unless the appropriate conditions are in place (Haegele & Sutherland, 2015).

Future research may explore the meaning of a UDAE within an inclusive PE class that requires no screening process for nondisabled peers to participate. To join the class, nondisabled peers participating in the UDAE in this study were required to complete an application process, which included a letter of intent and reference provided by a previous PE teacher. It may be insightful for research to compare perspectives of student volunteers and students automatically enrolled in similar settings.

Limitations

The nature of this PE setting may limit the generalizability and applicability of the findings. This study investigated a UDAE program that took place at one school with one lead teacher facilitating the program. Additionally, we were not able to obtain the necessary authorization to interview SWD. Future research should explore the voices of SWD. Notwithstanding these limitations, this study provides unique parental, instructor, and participant insights relative to the potential merits of incorporating inclusive AE in schools.

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PEDAGOGY

Effects of the PE Teacher Knowing and Using Student Names in PE Class: A Qualitative Investigation

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Abstract

We have each been given a name. With this given name, we are known among our families, friends, and other associates. Our name becomes an integral part of our identity. A common and important place where a person is addressed by name is the educational setting, more specifically a school setting, including physical education (PE) classes. The PE setting offers many opportunities for teachers and students to use student names. The purpose of this study was to investigate the use of PE teachers using each student's given name, along with the effect of this use on students. For this study, 278 junior high school students (165 males, 113 females) were surveyed regarding teachers using student names in PE class. This study found that junior high PE students liked when their PE teacher knew and used their name in PE class. From these results, it is hoped that PE teachers seriously consider this aspect of pedagogy of using student names as they interact with their students.

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These scenarios can easily play out in a physical education (PE) class:

- *Scenario 1:* Students are put into groups of four and assigned to go to a specific station in the gym set up for the students to work on a specific volleyball skill. One group of students becomes off-task with the skills they are to work on. From across the gym, the PE teacher observes the students' off-task behaviors. The PE teacher proceeds to yell across the gym, "Hey, you knuckleheads, stop messing around, and get back to what you have been asked to do!" The group of students look on with faces of embarrassment and unbelief.
- *Scenario 2:* A ninth-grade class just completed game play in a basketball unit. As the class comes to an end, a couple students help collect equipment and jerseys used by the students during class activities. While the students return the equipment, the PE teacher says to one of the students, "Sally, I was watching you play today with your teammates, and I saw you make some great passes to your teammates that led to points. You do a good job getting all of your teammates involved in the game." Sally responds with a big smile on her face and thanks the PE teacher for her words.

Of the two scenarios, the second illustrates the PE teacher using the student's name. The simple exchange in the second scenario, which includes the teacher using the student's name, communicates to the student that their PE teacher knows her student's name. In this case, the student responds positively to the PE teacher's comments. Students want and like it when their PE teacher knows their name (Barney & Christenson, 2012; Petray-Rowcliffe et al., 2002; Prusak et al., 2005).

While research on specifically PE teachers using student names has been, at best, limited, some research has examined the topic of teachers using student names. From a broader educational setting, Smith and Malec (1995) studied college professors using student names in sociology classes and the effects it had on the students. The researchers concluded the sociology professors worked hard to learn and know their students' names. These professors felt that when they used student names, their students participated more in

class discussions and activities. Thus, this enhanced student learning from the class materials and assignments. Research conducted in PE has also been limited in regard to PE teachers using student names. While research regarding PE teachers use of student names has been limited, Barney (2005) studied the types of interactions student teachers had with students during their elementary PE student teaching experience. In this study, student teachers were observed twice, once shortly after the cooperating teacher had given full control of their classes to the student teacher (about 3 weeks into the student teaching experience) and again toward the end of the student teaching experience (during the 14th or 15th week of the student teaching). During each observation, the researcher recorded the interactions between student teacher and students. This provided a better picture of these interactions. The student teacher wore a wireless microphone while data were collected. All interactions were later coded. Barney found that student teachers in this study gave ample instructions and feedback and also engaged students in activity throughout the lessons. One last observation was student teachers seldom addressed their students by their names in both lessons observed. On average, student teachers used student names five times during a 30-min lesson. Barney observed that with such few instances of student teachers using student names, when the student teacher did use student names, the students appeared more than ready to do what was asked of them and appeared to appreciate the PE teacher acknowledging them by using their name.

Another component in the PE setting when PE teachers use student names is during the act of giving feedback to a student. Two types of feedback PE teachers give to students are general and specific (Pangrazi, 2007). General feedback includes phrases such as "Good job," "Way to go," and "Don't do that." General feedback is either positive or negative; it does not specify a behavior and vaguely informs the student of their performance of the skill. One element separating specific feedback from general feedback is the use of student names. For example, the PE teacher says, "John, your pass to your teammate was good, because it allowed them to score the basket." When PE teachers use first names, they are personalizing the feedback, thus directing to the proper individual. Obviously, specific feedback also provides more detailed information to students regarding their

performance or behavior; however, the use of student names is an essential element for effective, specific feedback.

The practitioner literature has referenced teachers using student names as a tool for classroom management. According to Briggs (2013), "Names are important. When a teacher uses a student's name it creates a contractual obligation: 'I know who you are, you matter to me and this is what I expect'" (p. 14). Likewise, learning and knowing student names is an effective method of classroom management (Pangrazi & Beighle, 2013). It goes a long way stating a student's name instead of the PE teacher saying "Hey you!" when addressing a student. With the paucity of research concerning PE teachers using student names, researching this topic can reinforce K–12 PE teachers the importance of using student names.

Teachers using student names is an element of showing care toward students or caring on the teacher's part. PE teachers who create an environment of caring have the potential of positively affecting students' attitudes and experiences toward PE and being physically active throughout life (Gano-Overway & Guivernau, 2014; Larson & Silverman, 2005). Caring in an educational setting is "a set of relational practices that foster mutual recognition and realization, growth, development, protection, empowerment, and human community, culture, and possibility" (Gordon et al., 1996, p.13). Gano-Overway and Guivernau (2014) explored how caring PE teachers, as identified by their students, described their experiences of caring in their PE class. For this study, three female and three male middle school PE teachers were interviewed regarding their perceptions and opinions of being caring PE teachers, for the purpose of affecting their students' PE experience. After the interviews were analyzed, three interview themes emerged: (a) being in relation, (b) creating an inclusive and accepting classroom, and (c) empowering students. One of the talking points in the "being in relation" theme from the PE teachers was developing relationships with their students by getting to know their students. Specifically, they mentioned that knowing and using the students' names was a wonderful way to develop a relationship. The knowing of student names "[shows the teacher cares] about the student" and "that [the students] are important" (p. 273). These types of results are positive and encouraging for K–12 PE teachers. Yet,

because of the limited research on PE teachers knowing and using student names, this study seeks to add to the body of research in this area. Thus, the purpose of this study was to investigate PE teachers using student names and the effect of this on students.

Method

Participants

For this study, 278 junior high school students (165 males, 113 females; 96 seventh graders, 77 eighth graders, 105 ninth graders) from two junior high schools located in the Intermountain West participated in this study. The participants were 11 to 15 years of age.

Instrumentation

A 13-statement survey was developed on the basis of the literature on teachers using student names (Table 1). This survey used a yes/no scale. Additionally, students were asked to explain their answers to three survey statements (3, 5, & 10). The concluding section of the survey addressed demographics. Content validity was established when five junior high–aged students not involved in the study and two PE teacher education faculty read through the survey questions. This ensured clarity and understanding of the instrument for the intended population. The survey was then pilot tested on 12 nonparticipant junior high–aged students and was found suitable to its proposed purposes.

Procedures

Permission from the university Institution Review Board (IRB), the school district, and the PE teachers was secured, and parents consented and student assented to the study. A week after collecting consent and assent, we returned to the schools and administered the survey. We explained the survey to the students and explained that if they did not want to take the survey, it would not negatively affect their grade in the PE class. After the surveys were completed by the students, we collected the surveys for analysis. Ninety-eight percent of the students enrolled in the PE classes took the survey.

Table 1
Student Name Survey

The following survey questions will ask you about your PE teacher knowing your first name in class and during games and activities. You will circle and/or respond from your experiences you have had with your PE teacher using or not using your name. Thank you for participating in this survey.

1. Does your PE teacher know your first name?

Yes **No**

2. Does your PE teacher know you by a nickname or your first name?

First Name **Nickname**

3. When your PE teacher states your name in class, are you more encouraged to participate in the class activity. Please explain your answer.

Yes **No**

4. If your PE teacher forgets your name, do you remind him/her of your name?

Yes **No**

5. Do you feel it is important that your PE teacher knows your name? Please explain your answer.

Yes **No**

6. If your PE teacher disciplines you, does he/she use your name?

Yes **No**

7. Does your PE teacher use your name when he/she gives you praise?

Yes **No**

8. Do you feel you are important to your PE teacher when he/she uses your name?

Yes **No**

9. When your PE teacher knows your name, is it easier to approach him/her when you have a question or concern?

Yes **No**

Table 1 (cont.)

10. If your PE teacher knows your name, do you feel he/she cares about you? Please explain your answer.

Yes **No**

11. When you see or talk to your PE teacher outside of your PE class (at the mall, at a store, or in the halls at school), does he/she know your name?

Yes **No**

12. Generally, do you feel your PE teacher knows a majority of the students' names in your PE class?

Yes **No**

13. If your PE teacher knows your name, does that affect your PE class experiences and activities/games you play in class?

Yes **No**

Grade: 7th___ 8th ____ 9th ____
Male _____ Female ____

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed with descriptive statistics in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 26.0 program. Percentages were used for the students' responses for each item being analyzed. The qualitative data analysis comprised a thematic content analysis of the students' short answers. We read and reread the data until common themes were evident for each survey question that asked the students to respond (Mueller & Skamp, 2003).

Results

The data were analyzed for male and female participants' responses to the survey (Table 2). Statement 5 asked the participants if they felt it was important that their PE teacher knew their name. Both male (76%) and female (96%) students felt it was important to them that their PE teacher knew their name. More specifically, Statement 1 asked the participants if their PE teacher knew their first name. Many of the participants (97% males, 98% females) stated that their PE teacher knew their first name. When asked if the PE

teacher knowing their name made them feel more encouraged to participate in class activities (statement three), 78% of male and 88% of female students indicated it did. From a classroom management perspective, a majority of students (81% males, 84% females) had experiences when their PE teacher used their name for discipline reasons, as well as for giving praise (91% males, 95% females). When the PE teacher knew the student's name, 86% of male students and 96% of female students felt their teacher cared about them. Finally, participants were asked if their PE teacher knew their name outside of the PE class (the mall, the grocery store, or the halls of the school). Overwhelmingly, students said this was the case (90% males, 94% females).

Table 2
Results From the Student Name Survey

		Yes		No	
Question		**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
1.	Does your PE teacher know your first name?	99%	98%	1%	2%
2.	Does your PE teacher know you by a nickname?	87%	80%	13%	20%
3.	When your PE teacher states your name in class, are you more encouraged to participate in class activities?	78%	88%	22%	12%
4.	If your PE teacher forgets your name, do you remind him/her of your name?	63%	74%	37%	26%
5.	Do you feel it is important that your PE teacher knows your name?	76%	96%	24%	4%
6.	If your PE teacher disciplines you, does he/she use your name?	81%	84%	19%	16%
7.	Does your PE teacher use your name when he/she gives your praise?	91%	95%	9%	5%

Table 2 (cont.)

Question	Yes		No	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
8. Do you feel you are important to your PE teacher when he/she uses your name?	71%	90%	29%	10%
9. When your PE teacher knows your name, is it easier to approach him/her when you have a question or concern?	90%	96%	10%	4%
10. If your PE teacher knows your name, do you feel he/she cares about you?	86%	96%	14%	4%
11. When you see or talk to your PE teacher outside of your PE class (mall, store, or halls), does he/she know your name?	90%	94%	10%	6%
12. Generally, do you feel your PE teacher knows a majority of the students' names in your PE class?	98%	97%	2%	3%
13. If your PE teacher knows your name, does that affect your PE class experience and activities/games you play in class?	69%	83%	33%	17%

Short open-ended answers for three survey questions provided qualitative data for this study. Participants were asked to explain their yes/no answer. Statement 3 asked the participants to explain their answer regarding if they were more encouraged to participate in class activities when their PE teacher stated their name. A female participant stated, "It makes me want to participate and makes me feel included." Another female participant said, "It makes me want to be in my PE class." A male participant said, "Because he knows me, I am willing to participate." For Statement 5, the participants were asked if they felt it was important that their PE teacher knew their name. A female participant stated, "My real name is Majorie and I go by Scout, and she makes sure to call me by my preferred

name. I like that." Another female participant explained, "I enjoy hearing my name. It makes me feel important." A male participant said, "It shows respect to the students." Another male student said, "I am a twin. He doesn't confuse me. He knows my name." Finally, Statement 10 asked the participants if their PE teacher knowing their name showed that the teacher cared about the students. A male participant stated, "He cares enough to not call me 'kid.'" Another male participant expressed, "By remembering my name, it shows that he knows about me and cares." A female participant indicated, "I feel like I matter enough for her to know my name." Another female participant simply stated, "She knows I exist."

Discussion

This study's investigation of PE teachers using student names and the effect of this on students is revealing. It shows that when PE teachers use students' names, in all interactions, the students appreciate it and like it. The PE teachers use of names also shows their care for the students and, overall, makes the PE experience positive. Students like hearing their PE teacher use their name (Larson & Silverman, 2005; Prusak et al., 2005; Roessing et al., 2006). Why is this important? The results of this study show that both male participants and female participants feel encouragement to participate in class activities when their PE teacher says their name. The literature concurs with this effect of the use of student names (Petray-Rowcliffe et al., 2002). Much good can come from this. When students are engaged in class activities, there is a better opportunity for learning (Barney, 2005). Students learn skills that result in increased confidence in their ability to participate successfully. Another point of PE teachers using student names in their interactions with their students is that they are being respectful to the student. Respect solidifies in the student's mind that while the PE teacher is the authority figure in their relationship, respect can and should be shown to students. If the PE teacher uses nicknames with the student, this sends a message of casualness between the PE teacher and the students (Briggs, 2013). While different from a nickname, a finding from this study is that students appreciate when PE teachers use their preferred name.

A second finding from this study is using student names is a good management tool for PE teachers. Effective classroom management requires learning the names of students (Pangrazi & Beighle, 2013).

In this study, the participant responses reveal PE teachers' use of student names for disciplinary reasons, for example, "When she calls me out, she uses my name" and "When I have been disciplined, she calls me by my name and not 'that girl.'" Examples of using student names in management situations from the practitioner literature (Hichwa, 1998) include "Billy, I need you to hold the ball still" and "Joey, I need your full attention." These brief examples illustrate the PE teacher using the student's name to let the student know they are being spoken to regarding classroom management. When a PE teacher uses the students name, it can quickly get their attention to address the misbehavior (Williams, 1995).

One last observation from this study, the PE teacher's use of student names is a method for the teacher to communicate their care for the students. Results from this study show that students feel this is indeed the case. Participant responses to this statement include "I feel like I matter enough for her to know my name" and "By remembering my name, it states that they know about me and care." The literature agrees with these findings. The teacher's use of students' names reminds students they are important to the teacher (Prusak et al., 2005). When a teacher cares for their students, it has the potential to influence positively their self-esteem and self-confidence and students are more motivated to participate in class activities (Larson & Silverman, 2005).

Study Implications

This study identifies certain aspects of PE teachers using student names and the effect of this on students. We believe the results of this study can yield positive results with students. PE teachers typically have 35 to 40 students in each class, and if this is multiplied by eight classes, a PE teacher has 280 to 320 students' names to learn and use in their interactions with the students. This may seem daunting, yet with effort the PE teacher can learn students' names. PE teachers may not consider how much good can come from their use of students' names in their interactions. Yet the results from this study strengthen this notion of PE teachers using student names as good pedagogy. Participants in this study clearly feel that when the PE teacher uses students' names, it impacts desire to participate and makes the students' overall PE experience positive. From a PE teachers' perspective, when they use students' names in a management

situation, the student knows they are being addressed and asked to correct their misbehavior. There is no question or uncertainty to whom the PE teacher is talking. Typically, when a PE teacher disciplines a student by using their name, the PE teacher can correct and in the process be respectful toward the student without embarrassing them. Given there is little research in this area specific to PE teachers, it is encouraging that the students in these PE classes feel their teachers use students' names and that they can communicate the effect of this on their PE experience. This gives hope that there is transference between other non-PE specific areas of teacher preparation and development that is positively affecting the work of PE teachers.

Study Limitations

The participants from this study came from one geographical region of the United States. In addition, the participants were divided into classes that were either all male or all female.

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PEDAGOGY

Teaching Australian Indigenous Games and Sports Post-Pandemic: Reimagining and Reforming

Steve Georgakis

Abstract

Indigenous games and sports (IG&S) form a mandated part of the Health and Physical Education (HPE) learning area of the Australian National Curriculum and to encourage the adoption of IG&S, the Australian Curriculum, Assessment, and Reporting Authority (ACARA), the independent statutory authority responsible for the development of a national curriculum, a national assessment program, and a national data collection and reporting program that supports learning for Australian students, developed resources to support teachers. The promotion of IG&S was also assisted by numerous commentators, educators, and academics who advocated for the educational and social benefits of their inclusion. Since their inclusion in the National Curriculum in 2015, their teaching has been minimal and sporadic.

The 2020 coronavirus pandemic caused a major disruption to the lives of Australians and impacted all areas, including education. The pandemic also coincided with two other related phenomena: the Black Lives Matters movement and the 250th anniversary of the arrival of Captain Cook to the South Pacific. It was clear that issues associated with colonialism had not been resolved for many Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians. In education, there was

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an acceptance that more needed to be done to include Indigenous perspectives in the curriculum.

This paper argues that the pandemic disruption and acknowledgment that more Indigenous perspectives need to be included in the Australian Curriculum provide the opportunity for the inclusion of IG&S in a more sustained and authentic manner in the post-pandemic period. This research provides a road map and argues that while the mandating of IG&S is important, what needs to be done is the teaching IG&S in a more integrated, meaningful, inclusive, fun, and educational manner. This research proposes two strategies to assist in this process. First, the various IG&S need to be embedded in the various Games and Sports categories that make up the Health and Physical Education (HPE) syllabus (Target, Striking, Invasion, and Net/Wall) and not be taught in isolation as something extra and/or separate units. Second, the IG&S activities need to be adapted to a Game Sense approach for optimization of student enjoyment and inclusion. While Game Sense now underpins much of Australian physical education and sport pedagogy, there has been no previous discussion on its use in relation to IG&S.

To help facilitate this process, we provide information on where various IG&S can be included in the various Games and Sports categories and about teaching IG&S with a Game Sense approach. With the adoption of these two policies, IG&S might become more central to Australian physical education and school sport experience.

Introduction and Background Information

While in countries such as New Zealand (Boyd & Hipkins, 2015; Hokowhitu, 2004) and Canada (Fletcher et al., 2018; Paraschak & Thompson, 2014) IG&S have been mandated in their respective education systems, it is only recently, with the introduction of the Australian National Curriculum, this has been the case in Australia (Australian Curriculum, Assessment, and Reporting Authority [ACARA], 2015). For the most part, Australian physical education and school sport has focused on traditional Australian sports; for boys this has included the various football codes (Australian rules, rugby league, rugby union, and soccer) and cricket, whereas for girls this has involved netball, softball, and swimming. One of the innovations of the new National Curriculum was the inclusion of wide and varied activities such as yoga, adventure activities, and other

nontraditional sports. There was a move to expand the HPE curriculum and provide students with a more diverse program that did not simply consist of traditional Anglo-Australian sports. The physical education syllabus was therefore divided up into the focus areas of active play and minor games, challenge and adventure activities, fundamental movement skills, games and sports, lifelong physical activities, rhythmic and expressive movement skills (ACARA, 2016). While IG&S could be included in all these categories, this new syllabus put the teaching of IG&S as central to the Games and Sports component, and as the curriclum noted,

> This focus area includes the development of movement skills, concepts and strategies through a variety of games and sports. This content builds on learning in active play and minor games and fundamental movement skills. Most games and sports can be classified into; invasion games, net and wall games, striking and fielding games and target games. It is expected that all students at appropriate intervals across the continuum of learning from Year 3 to Year 10 will participate in the following:
>
> - modified games
> - traditional games or sports
> - culturally significant games and sports (such as traditional Indigenous games and games of significance from the Asia region)
> - non-traditional games and sports (including student-designed games). (ACARA, 2015)

Benefits of Indigenous Games and Sport

This interest generated in the appearance of IG&S in the National Curriculum also coincides with a body of literature that highlights the educational and social benefits that can be achieved by the adoption of IG&S (Evans et al., 2018). IG&S can benefit both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students.

At its simplest form, these benefits can be summed up as promoting social justice by valuing, celebrating, and recognizing Indigenous culture and perspectives. Furthermore, sport is a universal method of communication and can reduce stereotypes by demonstrating

cultural diversity and the universality of sport. Integrating IG&S into physical education allows Indigenous students to feel included and valued by demonstrating the idea that sport is not specific to culture, that each culture has their own sports, and everyone should be able to share them. Exclusive teaching of traditional Western sports alienates some minorities (Schinke et al., 2008) as well as hinders students' cultural awareness (McGannon & Schinke, 2017). This is particularly important in Indigenous society as "sport [plays] a major role in developing a socially cohesive environment within Indigenous communities" (Edwards, 2008, p. v). Through IG&S, students are given the opportunity to engage with the culture and ideals of Indigenous Australia in a physical sense, through fun and unique games. Participating in IG&S at school therefore encourages social justice and peer support on the basis that students develop greater understandings of the Indigenous culture and participate in games with relevance to Australia and its Indigenous people. Opportunities to play IG&S during students' school years allows all Australians to participate in and enjoy the traditional Indigenous culture, nurturing a socially cohesive and accepting environment. Ultimately, IG&S provides a "willingness to understand that Aboriginal culture is not solely about corroborees, body painting and dancing, but is also about kinship, family and social ties that are enhanced by playing games together" (Georgakis & Russell, 2011, p. 145).

Indigenous Australians are proud of their traditions and most games date back to pre-colonization (Edwards, 2008). The assimilation of Indigenous peoples into mainstream society means that the functional relevance of their games became redundant. According to Edwards (2008), who spent 10 years documenting IG&S and produced the Yulunga teaching resource, the benefits are many and include bringing together of Indigenous and non-Indigenous people, helping reconnect urban Indigenous youth to their culture, boosting education retention and attendance at schools, promoting reconciliation, providing essential training in social interaction, and enhancing physical health. Finally, the inclusion of IG&S provides a way for Indigenous and non-Indigenous students to socially interact leading to greater relationships between classmates and teachers with their students (Korff, 2019).

Reflections on the Impact of the Teaching of IG&S in Both Schools and the Community

While the Benefits of Indigenous Games and Sport section provides an overview of the anticipated benefits of the teaching of IG&S, in recent years there have been attempts to evaluate the outcomes of IG&S teaching since their appearance in the National Curriculum. From the research conducted, there is an overwhelming lack of engagement with IG&S (Williams, 2017, 2018). In the school setting, there are Indigenous students who "only [know] PE within a Eurocentric frame of reference" (Williams, 2018, p. 472). Williams' (2018) study of Aboriginal students' experience of physical education in Australian Capital Territory schools reveals that the Anglo-Australian idea of what sport is takes precedence in the Australian HPE curriculum and can, consequently, cause the marginalization and rejection of different perspectives. As a result, Indigenous students are unaware of and uneducated on traditional games, dances, and sports related to their culture. But more worrying is Williams' (2018) deduction that IG&S wasn't taught or even acknowledged in physical education lessons, even though IG&S are mandated.

Williams' (2018) results are not surprising and are symptomatic of previous Indigenous education initiatives and policies that struggle at the "practice" level. There is no doubt that HPE teachers have not been given adequate preparation or shown how to teach IG&S effectively; "the curriculum content does not provide teachers with the necessary tools . . . to acquire a deep knowledge and understanding of the histories and cultures of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples" (Lowe & Yunkaporta, 2013, p. 12). Williams' (2017) research to find out what hinders the promotion of IG&S in the school setting identifies two constraints: lack of resources and lack of time (p. 128). In summary, while the HPE curriculum mandates IG&S, at best their inclusion is tokenistic. Even more alarming is the lack of impact of IG&S in school sport programs (social or competitive) and the various school sporting carnivals (swimming and athletics). Here IG&S are not seen and not heard.

In the community sport setting (outside of school), the lack of engagement with IG&S is even more pronounced. While most national sporting organizations engage with Indigenous communities and have Indigenous sporting programs (some more successfully

than others), the engagement is primarily about encouraging player and community participation in their respective sports (Dockery & Gorman, 2017; Hallinan & Judd, 2009). The two most successful sports to do this are rugby league and Australian rules football, although all codes are keen to diversify and include Indigenous representation. But these sporting organizations do not feature a link to traditional IG&S. Most mainstream Australian sports have similarities to IG&S; for example, according to Sharon Louth (as cited in Korff, 2019), "it's possible to see elements of our modern games in these games. Keentan is like basketball, and Wana is much like French cricket, Kokan is a hockey game and Koolche is like 10-pin bowling."

The lack of acknowledgment and inclusion of IG&S in Australian sport also reinforces an incorrect view of Australian history. For many, Indigenous sport begins when Indigenous individuals first play Anglo-Australian sport. For example, many Australian sporting books date the start of Aboriginal sporting traditions to the 1868 Indigenous cricket team that toured England in 1868, just over 150 years ago (Condon, 2018). While we acknowledge there is now a very strong Indigenous presence in sports such as Australian rules football and rugby league, for the most part we do not understand or reflect upon what this presence entails or represents. The Anglo-Australians traditions of sport were always reinforced. This changed in 2008 when Australian rules football celebrated its 150th anniversary. Its anniversary coincided with the sport attempting to position itself as the premier football code. It was successful at widening its reach by, first, incorporating a national geographical reach by including teams from all major metropolitan areas and by, second, attempting to attract new spectator interest. This football code therefore reached out to the LGBTIQ community, migrant communities, and of course Indigenous communities. Australian rules football positioned itself as the national sport. An example of how this was done was by linking its founding to the Indigenous ball game Marngrook. Proponents of Aboriginal roots of Australian rules football cited as evidence an etching by William Blandowski in 1862 that shows Indigenous youth juggling a ball, with a caption reading to "never let the ball hit the ground." Here they found a concrete piece of evidence to support their thesis. Figure 1 shows Blandowski's etching.

Figure 1
Blandowski Football Lithograph

From our understanding of the history of Australian colonial sport, Australian rules football was a declaration of British nationalism not an acknowledgment of Indigenous influences or Australian nationalism (Collins, 2011). Colonial Australians were demonstrating their Britishness by playing this sport; this was because "football" in the "home country" assumed such importance. But inadvertently, these 'marngrook' and founding of Australian rules football discussions shined a light for the first time that the Indigenous population had sporting traditions that predated the arrival of the British in 1788.

A cursory look at other etchings by Blandowski reports on other forms of sport (Figure 2). This illustration clearly shows a wrestling contest between two Indigenous youths. So wrestling is a sport found in most civilizations whether it is Cornish wrestling or Turkish wrestling. The Australian Wrestling Federation, which has for more than a century provided athletes for the Olympic and Empire (later Commonwealth Games), has never engaged with the various types of Indigenous wrestling games such as Garumba, Kari-woppa,

Figure 2
Blandowski Wrestling Youth Lithograph

Meetcha Kambong, and Tingalpa Tur-dur-er-rin (Edwards, 2008). French explorer Nicolas Baudin in 1805 documented wrestling in Tasmania in 1802, and the French were so impressed with the sport that a match took place between one of the French sailors and an Indigenous youth (Baudin, 1974). In 1941, Daisy Bates informed that wrestling was still practised in 1929, and according to Bates, "The young men engaged in this pastime placed their hands on each other's shoulders, and struggled, pushed and pulled until one of them fell." Thus, there is a strong Indigenous sporting culture and tradition outside the Anglo-Australian one.

But this is a tendency of all Australian sporting organizations to neglect any links to IG&S. Ash Barty is Tennis Australia's Ambassador, but Tennis Australia has never linked Tennis to any IG&S. Tennis Australia has the most innovative and thorough school sport programs. The Tennis for Primary Schools (2017) and Tennis for Secondary Schools (2017) Curriculum Resources are part

of the Tennis for Schools Program (2012), which aims at supporting Australian schools and teachers with the implementation and delivery of sustainable programs. The programs are underpinned by the Game Sense pedagogical model. The primary education document is 281 pages long while the secondary document is 358 pages long, and while there are sophisticated and detailed resources with lots of lesson plans and innovative activities, the curriculum does not references any IG&S, though curiously one activity has the title of "United States Singles Challenge."

Likewise, for Australian lawn bowls (a target sport), administrators have made no attempt to link lawn bowls to IG&S, even though the most prominent IG&S are target sports. While British lawn bowls was first to Australia in 1845, at around the same time there was a depiction of an Indigenous game that seemed very similar. Jukes (1847) described a type of lawn bowls where "flat tabular pieces of stone, about the size of an octave volume, were stuck upright on the sand in a certain order, while other, both flat and round, were lying dispersed about" (p. 35). Edwards (2009) documented several target games in Yulunga, such as Koolche and Weme, which could have easily been included in any lawn bowls teaching resource.

In summary, while the 2015 Australian National Curriculum mandates IG&S, very little evidence suggests a significant impact in the school setting from IG&S (Williams, 2017, 2018). At the community sport level (if we exclude Australian rules football), very little evidence promotes IG&S in the various Australian sporting organizations. Despite significant developments in the harnessing of Indigenous players, the sports do not engage with IG&S, even though many IG&S are similar to Anglo-Australian sports (Edwards, 2009).

Game Sense Pedagogy in Australian Schools and Sport

Traditional skill-based approaches to teaching exclude and marginalize students who are less skilled and less confident (Light, 2012). An alternative to traditional skill-led approaches to games and sports teaching is Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU; Bunker & Thorpe, 1982). In Australia, TGfU is known as Game Sense, and this article uses the term Game Sense.

In the traditional drill and skill approach, students are introduced to the key skills they need to master before playing the game. For example, students learn the skills of dribbling, passing, and

shooting before they play soccer. The philosophy of this approach is that students learn the skills of the sport in an isolated manner and teachers model the correct way of executing the skill. The skill and drill approach presents several problems including the skill development occurs out of the context of the game; the approach does not consider the complexity of learning; the approach lacks meaning and relevance to students, especially those who have never seen the sport; the approach lacks social aspects of sports; the approach is a teacher-centered pedagogy; and skill does not always transfer into the game (Light, 2012). In the Game Sense approach, individuals learn within the context of the game and teachers employ questioning instead of direct instruction. All learning occurs in the game situation, and the highlights of learning are intellectual and social aspects of games such as awareness and technical understanding, cognitive and affective development, and immediate involvement in games, which is motivating for students (Light, 2012; Light & Light, 2008).

The adoption of Game Sense has repercussions for the teacher. The teacher becomes the facilitator of learning who provides opportunities for learning; the approach is student-centered, with an emphasis on active engagement in learning, at individual and group levels. Students solve problems in small, modified games and ask questions. They receive consistent feedback and their own knowledge is valued; moreover, they are encouraged to have equitable relationships and be creative, cooperative, and collaborative.

In Game Sense, teachers introduce the students to the sport through a progressive sequence of modified small-sided games to provide opportunities for learning. The games are inclusive and have a design that minimizes domination by individual students. Teachers do this by introducing sport-specific rules, such as a "no contact" rule in soccer and "three-step dribbling" in European handball. The games are sequenced from simple to complex, and teachers build on previous games and understandings. Teachers explain the aim of the game and the rules and limitations of the game. Students are then allowed to play the game, and the teacher encourages learning by asking questions to individuals and groups; for example, the teacher may ask, "Why did you move to the left of the field? What led you to pass to that player?" By reflecting on tactics and game strategies

through such questions, students develop a deep understanding of game play. As games become more complex, teachers encourage team discussions.

A considerable amount of literature highlights that the Games Sense approach to teaching physical education and sport is the most effective. This approach is promoted at not only the grassroots level but also the elite level. It is promoted because it is more student/player centered, is more inclusive and fun, and is a teaching/coaching style that ultimately makes participants understand "how to play and understand the game" (Breed & Spittle, 2011; Light, 2012, p. 34; Light & Evans, 2013).

In the education system, Game Sense pedagogy is supported by a wealth of teaching resources that teachers can access and teachers also have opportunities to take part in professional learning opportunities. This pedagogy underpins preservice health and physical education teacher training programs, while Game Sense proponents are leading physical education academics.

Outside of the school system, Game Sense pedagogy underpins many sports coaching curricula, such as soccer, the most popular sport in Australia (FFA, 2013). Game Sense ensures that, regardless of the sport, the lesson is performed "within a context requiring perception and decision-making" (Light, 2012, p. 49). FFA (2013) support this approach with their "holistic approach" focusing on the demands placed on players due to the complex, unpredictable nature of situations where "the player is regularly required to rapidly select from a wide range of possible options and execute them under pressure"(p. 70). Teaching sport with Game Sense allows required skills and fitness to develop naturally and autonomously without the need for repetitive training of skills in isolation. Most importantly, in practice Game Sense contrasts with skill approaches and provides a fast, integrated, and socially inclusive learning experience and is oriented to teamwork and student enjoyment. Australian rules football, cricket, and netball are other major Australian sports to adopt Game Sense. Although it is not only the traditional teams sports adopting this model, Tennis Australia, in recent years, produced an entire school and community curriculum based around Game Sense pedagogy and went into the school and community to promote it (Hewitt & Pill, 2017; Pill & Hewitt, 2018).

In summary, there are innumerable resources for Games Sense but nothing linking them to IG&S, and sporting organizations have not been able to embed any IG&S in their programs. There is an assumption that all teachers need to do is get students to play the games and somehow, miraculously, educational and social outcomes will be achieved. Therefore, for optimal outcomes IG&S need to be carefully oriented to the most positive pedagogical approaches and provide all students with an enjoyable educational experience with maximum student participation levels and fun. These developments have already occurred in other sports, through the adoption of Game Sense.

But ultimately teachers play an important role as well. It is not enough for teachers to play one game of Indigenous sport and expect it is enough. To truly promote social justice, the IG&S must be played properly, effectively, and regularly, or the incorporation of the Indigenous traditions must be explored at a deeper level, otherwise it is tokenistic. This is because "it is the responsibility of educators to help students gain not only an understanding of how to live a healthy and active lifestyle, but an appreciation for sports and games representative of the Indigenous culture" (Murphy & Maeda, 2012, p. 37). This will ensure the effective promotion of social justice through Indigenous sports. More than this, IG&S need to be presented in a meaningful, fun, and inclusive manner, through Game Sense.

Teachers should be continually searching for an authentic pedagogy (Leach & Moon, 2008). An authentic pedagogy embraces the general ideas of constructivism and a genuine desire for the creation of meaningful learning experiences for students and is student centered. Furthermore, teachers need to seek a higher purpose and contribute more meaningfully to society. Leach and Moon's (2008) ideas about authentic pedagogy further this point: "It may be that there is no higher obligation for contemporary pedagogy than the reinstatement big ideas and humanity" (p. 29). The "big ideas" in this context are the opening of the curriculum and the embedding of Indigenous perspectives through the inclusion of IG&S. The successful implementation will require pedagogical activities (e.g., Game Sense) that foster an acceptance of culture and support self-esteem, and in turn, they will have the strongest chances of creating transformative outcomes.

Implementation of Indigenous Games and Emerging Indigenous Philosophies About Pedagogy

The preceding sections outlined the successful implementation of Indigenous games through Game Sense pedagogy. Here we make the connection more explicitly to a new conceptualization of education through Indigenous philosophy about the possibilities of learning, that is, how the implementation of Indigenous games, through Game Sense, links to emerging Indigenous philosophies about pedagogy. In this area, we consider, first, Yunkaporta's (2009) pedagogical framework and, second, Sarra's (2011) philosophy about education. Game Sense pedagogy sits upon several principles that align with Yunkaporta's eight-ways pedagogical framework and Sarra's philosophy on educational success. Yunkaporta's strategy of teaching the whole and its context rather than individual discrete unconnected segments is a key principle of Game Sense pedagogy. In Game Sense, the game or activity in its whole is the basis of learning, not the discrete skill. The game then determines the areas of learning that are progressed through modeling. Learning is scaffolded through participation in the game. Game Sense is also practical, providing an immediate hands-on experience for students, another key feature of Yunkaporta's pedagogical approach. The use of Game Sense accepts that learning is nonlinear and at times nonverbal and that learning is often implicit.

The use of Game Sense with IG&S encourages dialogue with teachers and students and between students. This approach in which the teacher is a facilitator provides an environment for students to test their ideas and to solve problems. Many Indigenous students are accustomed to being responsible at an early age so this approach may resonate to much a higher level than other strategies. The uptake of IG&S recognizes Indigenous culture and therefore has the potential to engage Indigenous students in more positive ways than previous approaches, and engagement is one of the fundamental principles that underpin success (Dewey, 1963; Freire, 1985; Smyth & Wrigley, 2001). Sarra's (2011) Stronger Smarter philosophy views engagement as paramount as well as addresses self-esteem and identity. This approach establishes high expectations for Indigenous students and ensures excellent educational outcomes. The next section outlines the two strategies in more detail.

Strategy 1: Injecting IG&S Into Various Sports

Table 1 demonstrates how various IG&S can be injected into various major sports. The table is divided into three sections. The first column lists the classification of Games and Sports (invasion, striking, net/wall, and target). The second column lists the names of the various sports. The third column shows a list of the various IG&S that could be introduced into the teaching of a unit on a specific sport or a classification of sport. For example, if a teacher decides to teach a unit on invasion games, there would typically be coverage of a few different invasion games. The teacher may include soccer, netball, or touch football.

Table 1
Classification of Games and Sports and Links to IG&S

Classification of games and sports	Mainstream sport	Indigenous games and sports
Invasion	Hockey	Meetcha boma; Dabi; Kokan; Aurukun; Turlurlu
	Australian rules football	Marngrook
	Football	Woggabaliri; Tjapu Tjapu; Purija; Puldjungi; Pulyugge
Striking	Cricket	Arrakane Irreme; Wana
Net/Wall	Volleyball	Mer Kai
	Tennis	Kalq
Target	Lawn Bowls	Weme; Aurukun; Apwerte; Diyari Koolchee; Koolchee; Koolchee Koolchee

In Strategy 1, IG&S would also be included in the unit. For example, if a teacher decided to teach a unit of hockey, there would be an opportunity to include the IG&S of meetcha boma, dabi, kokan, aurukun, and turlurlu as part of the unit. These five games are all variations of hockey and involve the conceptual understanding of hockey. Conversely, if a teacher was teaching a unit on target games, the IG&S (target) of weme, aurukun, diyari koolchee, koolchee) could be included in this unit. In this manner, IG&S are explicitly linked

to Classification of Games and Sports and to Mainstream Sports, instead of being taught in isolation, because they are embedded in the unit.

For this to be effectively done, teaching resources need to be assembled that include the various IG&S. In recent years, the national sporting organizations have had the responsibility to assemble teaching and coaching resources and therefore they must produce the framework for this to occur. This should not be too difficult because all sporting organizations have demonstrated a willingness in recent years to engage with Indigenous Australians and their communities. Although now this engagement needs to be reoriented, an orientation with explicit links to IG&S.

Strategy 2: Producing IG&S Resources Using a Game- Based Approach

Proponents of Game Sense pedagogy for several years have produced resources that demonstrate the approach and its use for teaching physical education and coach sports effectively. In his pioneering book on Game Sense, Light (2012) divided his textbook into sports and provided a program on teaching each sport. Pill (2012, 2015) produced a couple of publications of teaching soccer through this approach. In the last decade, a continual stream of sports have provided resources on the teaching and coaching of particular sports through the Game Sense approach. But it has not been only the major sports and team sports that have mobilized. Australian Lawn Bowls have produced a teaching resource for their modified school model, which is also based on the Game Sense model, and while there are detailed descriptions of several lawn bowls activities, they are silent on any Indigenous ones.

Games Sense resources first appeared in 1997 with the appearance of the Game Sense cards. Now, this pedagogical approach needs to impact more on IG&S.

Conclusion

The Australian Sports Commission first called for the mandating of IG&S almost 40 years ago. It was not until 1988, the year of the Bicentenary, that a teaching resource was developed ("Aussie Sports," 1988). The teaching resource for upper primary students consisted of 37 activity cards divided up into three parts (Indigenous sports,

colonial sports, modern/federation sports). Nothing eventuated from this effort. While countries such as New Zealand and Canada have embedded IG&S into their physical education programs, the Australian educational settlement has been slow to mandate their own Indigenous perspectives. This relatively new introduction by the National Curriculum in 2015 has yielded very little significant impact. Some students have highlighted that teachers have no interest or inclination to teach IG&S. This article has highlighted that perhaps a way forward would be to

- embed the various IG&S into the content area of Games and Sports and
- teach IG&S with a Game Sense approach, an approach that underpins much of the Australian physical education curriculum, and make this approach available to teachers and coaches.

The timing for this to occur is right. With the media surrounding racism in sport via the Black Lives Matter movement and the discussions about the 250th anniversary of the landing of Captain Cook in Australia, there is an opportunity for these strategies to be introduced in the post-pandemic period. All that is needed is some reimagining and reforming.

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PHYSICAL FITNESS

Attitudes Surrounding Group Cycling Versus Individual Cycling During the COVID-19 Pandemic

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Abstract

Group exercise settings can offer a team-like environment that can enhance social bonding as well as increased physical effort and perhaps higher enjoyment of the activity. During the COVID-19 pandemic, many exercisers were unable to attend their conventional exercise classes. To circumvent this issue, a local spin studio in the Mideast United States allowed members to rent a spin bike and follow along to rides recorded and broadcasted by instructors. The purpose of this study was to survey members' remote cycling experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic. Seventeen adult cyclists (16 female, 1 male, M_{age} = 37.1 ± 12.0 years) responded to a survey that included five Likert scale and six open-ended questions. The results revealed that participants were less motivated, less engaged, and felt less confident while spinning remotely from home. Members reported missing the community component of in-person classes the most. Isolation is sometimes a barrier to chronic exercise; a group fitness class can help motivate participants to push themselves physically and mentally.

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Regular physical activity can help improve muscular strength and boost endurance. Exercise is well known for its many benefits including the promotion of health as well as the reduction of the risk of chronic diseases and conditions. People with mental health conditions such as depression and anxiety also benefit from physical exercise due to the release of exercise-induced endorphins (Cohen et al., 2009). Daily exercise can help individuals lessen their need for psychopharmacological interventions (Carek et al., 2011). Regular physical exercise training programs can serve as an adjunct therapy for depression in older adults (Blumenthal et al., 1999). Exercise also improves symptoms of anxiety, and high-intensity exercise is especially more effective at doing so (Aylett et al., 2018). This is particularly important as Hoffman et al. (2020) posits that middle-aged to older adults may have felt more isolated and exercised less during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Group exercises include cardio-based dance, step, and indoor spin classes. Although group exercise takes many forms, it commonly involves coordination between co-actors and is performed at medium levels of intensity (Davis et al., 2015). A recent Worldwide Survey of Fitness Trends rates group exercise second out of the top 20 worldwide fitness trends for 2019 (Thompson, 2018). Group exercise can offer a team-like environment and social bonding that can lead to a sense of acceptance and cohesion that individual exercise may not offer (Christensen et al., 2006). There is also increasing evidence that behavioral synchrony similarly affects social bonding and pain modulation (Davis et al., 2015).

Recent investigations on pain processing and perception help to illustrate further the relationship between synchrony, bonding, and group exercise (Davis et al., 2015). It is also important to note that sharing a painful experience (i.e., a challenging exercise bout) compared to a similar, nonpainful experience enhances bonding among strangers (Bastian et al., 2014). This bond can lead to increased exercise ability and perhaps to a higher enjoyment of the activity (Davis et al., 2015). Therefore, it may be plausible that members of conventional group exercise classes enjoy exercising more than those who exercise alone because of the bonds they form with others. Furthermore, the physical effort may seem easier in a group

environment due in part to an increased pain threshold via self-comparison with others (Cohen et al., 2009).

Specifically, in addition to the bond that can be formed during group exercise, exercising in a group environment allows participants to compare themselves to and potentially compete with fellow exercisers. They can do this by qualitatively assessing the effort they are generating in comparison to others as well as by quantitatively assessing their own metrics such as heart rate or power output in comparison to others if these are displayed publicly.

Indeed, indoor spin classes are becoming more popular with studios such as Soul Cycle and Cycle Bar opening in big cities to suburbs (Hambrick, 2017). However, with the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, regular spin class participants were unable to attend their class as normal due to nationwide shelter-in-place mandates. Nyenhuis et al. (2020) found that home-based exercise programs significantly increased during the COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to assess a Mideast spin club's current members' attitude toward individual exercise versus group exercise during the COVID-19 pandemic when there was no choice but to exercise individually. We hypothesized that participants would feel less energized and motivated during their spin workout at home compared to a spin workout at the cycling studio.

Method

Study Design

This study was designed to gather information on participants' perceptions of an at-home exercise routine versus one at the spin studio. Although the at-home spin routine was similar to the workouts performed in the studio, the attitudes of participants could vary due to the removal of a group atmosphere during the at-home experience. To circumvent this issue, current, founding members of a Mideast spin club community were given the opportunity to rent one of the spin bikes from the club to use at home during the COVID-19 pandemic. Spin club instructors then broadcasted and recorded choreographed rides for members to view and follow along at home. Links to the rides were sent out via email to club members, who could choose to follow along "live" with the instructor or "on-demand" at a later point in time. As this study was performed during

a global pandemic, it was possible that members may have felt some amount of relief at the opportunity to continue their workout from the comfort and safety of their home. However, it was possible that group fitness enthusiasts may have felt they were missing out on some of the potential benefits of group exercise.

Participants

Study participants were recruited via email from a spin cycling studio in the Mideast United States. Current club members who rented a bike received an email including the details of the study including purpose and inclusion criteria (members of the cycling club over the age of 18 with access to a spin bike) as well as a hyperlink to the survey from the owner/manager of the studio.

Participants were asked to respond to a 14-question survey that included the informed consent (Question 1) followed by two demographic questions, five Likert scale questions (1 = *not true at all* to 5 = *very true*), and six open-ended questions. The survey was formed and distributed with Qualtrics. To verify both content and face validity, researchers, including an expert in the psychology of exercise and fitness, created and reviewed the instrument.

Once participants submitted the survey through Qualtrics, their participation was complete. Completion of the survey took approximately 15 min. Subjects were informed that their responses were completely anonymous. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at West Chester University and conformed to the guidelines set forth in the Declaration of Helsinki. Participants must have selected "I give my consent" to proceed to the survey.

Statistical Analysis

Mean and standard deviation for age and the Likert scale questions were calculated with Prism 9. The responses to the six open-ended questions were analyzed with the qualitative method of content analysis (Krippendorff, 1980; Tritschler, 2000). These content analyses included response review, identification of themes, and classification of responses according to the identified themes, thereby giving voice to the viewpoints expressed regarding the difference between group exercise at home or at the studio. These qualitative data add further

depth of discovery regarding key issues surrounding the impact of the global pandemic on group fitness classes. Content analyses allowed researchers to determine dominant themes in participants' responses and categorize them into meaningful clusters.

Results

Seventeen experienced adult cyclists (16 female, 1 male, M_{age} = 37.1 ± 12.0 years) participated in this study. As Table 1 shows, the means of the Likert scale questions (#4–8, ratings ranging from 1 = *not true at all* to 5 = *very true*) revealed that participants were less motivated to spin at home compared to spinning at the spin cycle studio. However, they felt equally energized when they cycled at home compared to when they cycled at the spin cycle studio. Participants enjoyed riding at home less compared to riding at the spin cycle studio and felt less engaged in spinning at home compared to spinning at the spin cycle studio. Participants also felt less confident about their ability to cycle while spinning at home compared to spinning at the spin cycle studio. Overall, these data suggest the favorability lies with cycling at the spin cycle studio as opposed to cycling individually at home.

Table 1
Members' Remote Cycling Experiences Likert-like Survey Questions

Questions	*M*	*SD*
I feel more motivated when I spin at home as opposed to spinning at [the spin studio].	1.63	0.89
I feel less energized when I spin at home as opposed to spinning at [the spin studio].	3.24	1.44
I enjoy riding more when I spin at home as opposed to spinning at [the spin studio].	2.00	1.25
I feel more engaged when I spin at home as opposed to spinning at [the spin studio].	1.27	0.46
I feel better about my ability to cycle when I spin at home as opposed to spinning at [the spin studio].	1.71	1.14

Note. These Likert-like survey questions were rated 1 = *not true at all* to 5 = *very true*.

Regarding qualitative data (Table 2), thematic content analyses yielded to several themes for each of the qualitative items. For the biggest challenge associated with spinning at home, three major categories of challenge emerged: (1) motivational challenges (n = 6), (2) competitive challenges (n = 3), and (3) community-related challenges (n = 3). Some of the responses for motivational challenges included "The music isn't as loud and motivating, lighting is different. Mentally being somewhere different to workout is more motivating to me"; "Getting motivated to get started at home is really tough. Once I register for a [spin studio] class, I am committed"; and "lack of company, lack of motivation, ability to quit or disengage at any point during the ride, lack of competition, the environment." Responses for competitive challenges included "I notice that I am a competitive person, which is why I enjoy in-person classes. I also prefer metrics that document process. While I did this on my own, I prefer an app etc. to keep track"; "lack of competition, lack of company"; and "Not as compelling watching a screen vs. live person w/the music pumping. No overall score to compare rides over time. I definitely push myself harder in the studio with the instructor." Responses to community-related challenges included "I don't feel like I am part of a team. I can't push myself the same without the instructor" and "I'm less motivated at home. I enjoy the energy at [the spin studio] and I feed off the energy of other people. At home I only have myself to be accountable for."

For a relatively large number of the participants, cycling at home was not as motivational as cycling at the spin cycle studio. For others, cycling at home was not as competitive as cycling at the spin cycle studio. Finally, for others, cycling at home lacked the social environment of cycling at the spin cycle studio. Regarding what the participants missed most about cycling at the spin cycle studio, one theme emerged, and that was the community component (n = 14). For many participants, the community created in the studio was a unique aspect of their experience. The home cycling experience did not offer this aspect that individuals otherwise valued.

As to whether participants could see any benefits (other than discounted membership) associated with cycling at home, more participants responded yes (n = 11) than no (n = 6). A major theme that emerged was the flexibility in the schedule (n = 6), followed

Table 2
Members' Remote Cycling Experiences Qualitative Survey Questions and Themes

Question	Theme	*n*
Please identify your biggest challenges in regards to cycling at home as opposed to cycling at [the spin studio]. (Examples may include but are not limited to: lack of company, lack of time, lack of competition, lack of structure, lack of fun).	Motivation	6
	Competition	3
	Community	3
	Misc.	5
What is the one thing that you miss most about spinning at [the spin studio] that you do not experience at home? (Examples may include but are not limited to: community, support, friends, motivation, etc).	Community	14
	Misc.	3
Except for potential savings (e.g., commuting time, etc.), do you see any benefits to cycling at home as opposed to cycling at [the spin studio]?	No	6
	Yes	11
	Flexibility in schedule	6
	Safety	3
	Misc.	2
Have you been engaging in other forms of physical activity (other than spinning) at this time? Please list.	No	4
	Yes	13
	Walking/running	5
	Weight training	3
	Misc.	5
While spinning at home, do you feel like you are able to achieve your health and fitness goals as well as you can in the studio?	No	6
	Yes	5
	Somewhat	5

by increased safety (n = 3). Participants still saw some benefits to cycling at home including greater flexibility of scheduling their own cycling session as well as a greater sense of safety. Participants may have perceived increased safety because they remained in the safety of their own homes as opposed to venturing outside and potentially exposing themselves to the virus.

Many participants (n = 13) responded yes to whether they had been engaging in other forms of activities than cycling. Two major categories of additional activities emerged: (1) walking and running (n = 5) and (2) weight training (n = 3).

To whether they felt like they met their health and fitness goals while cycling at home as opposed to the spin cycle studio, an equal number of participants responded yes (n = 6) and no (n = 6), whereas almost the same number of participants responded somewhat (n = 5).

Discussion

This study of the attitudes surrounding group cycling versus individual cycling during the COVID-19 pandemic indicates that the group environment at the spin cycle studio allows members to be more motivated, energized, engaged, and confident, and makes the experience more enjoyable. One of the major findings of the study is exercisers lack motivation while cycling at home. The Plante et al. (2010) study indicates that when people are paired with a high-fit companion, compared to a low-fit companion, they exercise harder. One reason they may do so involves social comparison theory (Plante et al., 2010), which states,

> Humans have a drive to assess how they are doing and in order to assess how they are doing, they seek standards against which to compare themselves. When objective standards are not available, people look to their social environments and engage in comparison with available others. (Corning et al., 2006, p. 338)

These results align with those from this study that people feel more motivated while cycling in the studio compared to cycling alone at home. This increased motivation at the studio may originate from the ability to compare oneself with other cyclists in the class. It is possible

that when participants see their overall ranking in comparison to others as well as their perception of effort compared to what they perceive from others, it drives them to improve their performance. Specifically, at the spin cycle studio, instructors will occasionally display a "leaderboard" in which participants are ranked according to their cumulative power output across the session. At the end of the class, participants receive an email with their ranking compared to other cyclists, among other personal data collected during the ride. Furthermore, participants can qualitatively compare the effort they perceive others putting forth compared to their own perceived effort and adjust accordingly as participants often conform to the behavior of those around them (Plante et al., 2010). This competition-based exercise may also explain why participants feel more energized during the group setting at the spin cycle studio.

Another finding of this study is people feel more energized while cycling at a spin cycle studio. The attitudes of the surrounding individuals and the instructor may contribute to a more energized atmosphere, potentially increasing motivation in the studio. The community aspect of group exercise that participants value can be described as the support they receive through the friendships they make through working closely together in an exercise setting. This study points to that community factor as being most important to participants, in a comparison to home cycling versus cycling at the studio. From checking in at the studio to riding alongside other participants, there are multiple opportunities for social interaction at the studio that are not present when people cycle at home. Even if a rider does not speak a word to the staff or a neighboring participant, the rider can glean that they are not alone in experiencing the strenuous workout by simply looking around the studio during the workout. Additionally, there are in-studio opportunities for personalized verbal and nonverbal interaction and encouragement from the instructor. For example, sharing painful experiences may increase cooperation among participants, forming a bond between them and creating a greater sense of closeness (Bastian et al., 2014). Creating these bonds as well as having others to motivate you to do your best is the community factor that is one of the most important aspects of group exercise.

Finally, our results suggest that riders favor the sense of flexibility accompanying at-home cycling compared to attending class at the spin cycle studio. When cycling at a spin cycle studio, individuals choose from a list of classes with distinct times. The class time that works best for an individual's schedule may be at capacity, resulting in them picking a less convenient time slot or skipping their workout entirely. Research by Argent et al. (2018) explains the difficulty in creating adherence to at-home workout programs. Locus of control, both internal and external, is a large factor. In this article, Argent et al. discuss the importance for participants to understand whether their locus of control is internal or external. Internal locus of control is when one generally believes the outcomes of their life come from their own actions, whereas an external locus of control is when one generally believes that the outcomes are due to other external factors (Cobb-Clark et al., 2012). Research results point to people with a greater external locus of control having less adherence (Argent et al., 2018). As such, men with a higher internal locus of control tend to have improved health returns with their exercise and diet (Cobb-Clark et al., 2012). Additionally, having some control in decision making can increase the likelihood of people sticking to their exercise regimen. At-home exercise is an example of internal locus of control because choosing when one exercises allows for more flexibility and a greater sense of control over exercise goals. This would benefit from further investigation, specifically an examination of what makes the respondents think they meet or do not meet their fitness goals. Examining this finding further may help practitioners adjust these modalities to meet individuals' needs at higher levels. Isolation is often a barrier to exercise; a group fitness class can further motivate participants to push themselves physically and mentally.

Limitations

Due to the state of the COVID-19 pandemic during this research, there were some limitations to this study. First, our sample size was relatively small. It was not possible for us to go into the spin studio and recruit participants in person because of the COVID-19 restrictions set in place. The lockdown limited our ability to recruit additional participants to increase our sample size. All recruiting of participants had to be done via email, which could have been easily missed, ignored, or forgotten about. While reconfiguring the

research to align with new COVID-19 protocols, potential participants themselves could have limited their willingness to participate.

Conclusion

COVID-19 has accelerated the adoption of hybrid fitness models with a combination of online/in-person workouts. Lifestyles during the pandemic had become suddenly sedentary with no commuting, no travel, lots of working from home, and remote learning (Kaur et al., 2020). The unexpected nationwide lockdown had upended individual fitness regimes. During this time, physical activity levels in the U.S. had declined (Hoffman et al., 2020; Kaur et al., 2020). For people who have continued exercise routines, virtual fitness has been key for youth to elder populations (Kaur et al., 2020). Online and at-home modalities of training have been used in the past and have significantly increased with fitness businesses adjusting for lockdown protocols (Nyenhuis et al., 2020). Nyenhuis et al. (2020) has contended that even as some lockdown orders and business restrictions have lifted and gyms have reopened, online and at-home modalities of exercise training have remained. Understanding the role of group exercise in person's physical and mental health habits has become an important aspect with middle-aged to older people feeling more isolated and having exercised less during the pandemic (Hoffman et al., 2020). Additionally, exercise has been commonly used alongside therapy to reduce depression in older adults (Blumenthal et al., 1999) and as anxiety management (Aylett et al., 2018). One of the most important aspects of group exercise has been the community factor, including bond creation (Christensen et al., 2006; Davis et al., 2015), endorphin production, and increased motivation from others (Cohen et al., 2009). COVID-19 may have caused people to consider their individual fitness and health more holistically. Thus, the relationship between environment, exercise modality, synchrony, bonding, and group exercise has become more important and worth considering.

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WELLNESS

Developing the Civically Engaged Student Through Interprofessional Education and Community-Placed Service Learning: Three Years at Cardinal Wellness

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Abstract

While studies have examined the outcomes of interprofessional service-learning activities, the use of interprofessional, community-based health programming as an opportunity for fostering civic engagement in today's public health students is less studied. This article examines the benefits of a student-run exercise and nutrition program as an interprofessional education and service experience for undergraduate students participating in a service-learning course, degree-required practicum, capstone project, volunteer experience, or internship. An online survey with items from the Volunteer Functions Inventory, Civic Attitudes Scale, and Social Responsibility subscale of the Prosocial Behavior Battery was administered to 233 students from a diverse variety of majors. A significant increase in positive civic attitudes, volunteerism, and social responsibility scores was observed for students participating as part of one of two course-based service-learning projects, and scores on all three measures persisted at moderate-to-high levels for all students across six-semester cohorts and 3 years of

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program implementation. These results suggest that interprofessional service experiences are essential to the development of civic engagement competencies in today's students, largely through the focus on collective action for social change.

During the past decade, interprofessional education (IPE) for the health professions has grown in educational settings across the United States. With the development of the Core Competencies for Interprofessional Collaborative Practice (Schmitt et al., 2011), the inclusion of professions such as public health in IPE efforts has increased, and currently, schools of public health have been mandated to provide an interdisciplinary learning environment (Addy et al., 2015). For public health students, interprofessional experiences enable practice in clinical teamwork environments and enhance team-based performance (Chamberlin, 2015; Liller et al., 2020). Although the literature cites benefits of interprofessional education, interprofessional education and collaboration have unique barriers, including a lack of time for implementation and evaluation, competing priorities, and a lack of support from administration (Gonzalo et al., 2018). Helping students transfer the skills from interprofessional experiences in the classroom to legitimate real-world situations is another noted challenge (Chamberlin, 2015; M. Ryan et al., 2015). One potential method to encourage this application is through the pedagogy of experiential or service learning.

Experiential learning is a process during which students acquire knowledge and skills in the classroom and then apply their learnings in a cultural setting. This approach to learning originated with John Dewey (1938) and Paulo Freire (1970), both of whom viewed student experiences as central to the educational process (Kolb, 1984). Today, service learning as a type of experiential learning has become a unique pedagogical technique adopted by many universities as a method that moves beyond traditional health education and immerses learners in the realities and complexities of a multicultural community (Flannery & Ward, 1999; Mooney & Edwards, 2001). Service learning promotes knowledge through a cycle of action and reflection where students actively apply their learning in the classroom to a community issue (Mennen, 2006) and then reflect on their experiences as they work to achieve a specific objective with and for the community. Service learning can be distinguished from other

forms of experiential education through its goal of ensuring equal focus on the service provided and the learning that occurs (Furco, 1996). As such, it facilitates students in making the connection between practice and theory while fostering critical thinking skills such as analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating (Horning et al., 2020).

While studies have examined the outcomes of interprofessional service-learning activities (Buff et al., 2011; Hope et al., 2005; Moton et al., 2020; Sullivan et al., 2015), there has been less research that examines how interprofessional, community-based health promotion programming serves as an opportunity for fostering civic engagement and social responsibility in today's public health students (Housman et al., 2012; Jacoby, 2015). While not a direct reflection of curricular learning outcomes, the need for students who can act as public health advocates in the workforce and in the general citizenry is significant; students must be prepared to act as decision makers to shape public policy that addresses today's ongoing public health concerns. These competencies require student-learning outcomes incorporated into health education and health promotion courses that assess civic engagement, empathy, and respect for diverse populations. Interprofessional experiences that involve community-based service may establish these competencies in students; such activities encourage an appreciation for diverse viewpoints (within teams and in community interactions) and an appreciation for collective action to address social issues (across majors and areas of practice; Wright, 2015). Scholarship is also still investigating the best modalities for implementation of interprofessional education in health promotion classrooms (e.g., simulations, class-based experiences, volunteer/extracurricular opportunities, or capstone internship or practicum work; Howell et al., 2021). In the context of content-specific health education and promotion curricula, there are ambiguities relative to which courses are the best fit for interprofessional experiences in higher education. Moreover, the analysis of interprofessional experiences that are sustained across multiple semesters is necessary and helps ensure program outcomes are not simple artifacts of a specific semester's students but instead expected outcomes connected to the overall scope of the program's design.

The purpose of this analysis was to investigate an interprofessional service-learning experience involving a community-based exercise

and nutrition education program for an underserved population, particularly attending to the success of the educational approach in fostering civic engagement, volunteerism, and positive civic attitudes among students. We explored the pre/post-involvement effect of interprofessional education with undergraduate health education and promotion students engaging in program activities in collaboration with exercise science, nutrition, and nursing students. We used a quantitative, survey-based methodology to evaluate positive civic attitudes, volunteerism, and social responsibility outcomes across six semesters, including two courses, multiple practicum experiences, and volunteering hours spanning 3 years of program administration. We suspected a significant increase in social responsibility, volunteerism, and positive civic attitude scores from precourse assessment to postcourse assessment for students engaging in the program planning Health Science (HSC) 302 course and the social marketing for public health HSC 494 course. Both courses encouraged embedded experiences at the program, with learning outcomes that assess student ability to integrate their engagement within health education and promote knowledge, skills, and planning activities. The course experiences were staggered across two subsequent courses, ensuring consistency in involvement and expectations. We also predicted no significant difference in social responsibility, volunteerism, and positive civic attitudes scores across the five semester cohorts of students serving in various roles at the program, because the roles associated with program involvement remained consistent across its sustained implementation.

The Cardinal Wellness Model

Cardinal Wellness (CW) is a comprehensive program of obesity treatment that provides community-driven physical activity and nutrition education programming. The program, delivered in a community church located in a highly concentrated area of poverty, includes 50 to 60 min of aerobic exercise, an accompanying sample of a healthy meal or snack, biweekly nutrition education sessions, and physical and biometric assessments of community participants every 3 months. Throughout the program's 3 years of implementation, 288 Zumba classes were taught on Monday and Thursday evenings, for 48 weeks per year. Four trained community instructors taught the Zumba classes, lending to the program's consistency. On

most program nights, at the end of the aerobic dance session, participants obtained a food sample and took home a recipe to make the meal themselves. Every 2 weeks, a 30-min nutrition education class was offered, with a curriculum adapted to align with the National Diabetes Prevention Program (2018). Thirty nutrition education classes and 160 different healthy food samples were provided across the program's duration. Free childcare was available for babies and toddlers during the exercise portion of the class, whereas older children were encouraged to participate in both the physical activity and the nutrition component.

The CW program was facilitated by a staff comprised almost entirely of college students taking courses at an adjacent Midwestern university. Students engaged through participation in a service-learning course (HSC 302/494), internships, practicum hours in exercise science, volunteering hours through a course with a community service hours requirement (HSC 180: Introduction to Community Health), or standard student employment. Table 1 shows a description of the roles and number of students involved in each position across the 3 years of program administration. Prior to working in the program, all students were required to complete human subjects training and were approved by the university's institutional review board.

The majority of students conducting the physiological assessments of participants were exercise science majors in concentrations ranging across pre-athletic training, pre-occupational or physical therapy, or health and fitness professions. The Exercise Science Practicum learning outcomes were to (1) acquire "hands-on" experience in an occupational setting; (2) demonstrate understanding of ability to assess indices of health fitness including body composition, muscular strength, and endurance, aerobic fitness; (3) demonstrate understanding of ability to assess indices of human mobility/stability and athletic performance; and (4) demonstrate knowledge and skills relevant to the National Association of Colleges and Employers eight professional development core competencies.

The nutrition education and food preparation portion of the program was primarily directed by a small group of undergraduate students majoring in nutrition and dietetics, overseen by a graduate student in the same program. The undergraduate students were

Table 1
Student Involvement in Cardinal Wellness, Fall 2018–Current

Pathway	No. of students	Primary student roles at program
Fall 2018 (n = 42)		
EXC Practicum	7	Physical Assessments
HSC 494	31	Social Marketing Focus Groups/Program
Service Hours (HSC 180)	0	N/A
Nutrition Assistants	4	Kitchen/Food Prep
Spring 2019 (n = 22)		
EXC Practicum	10	Physical Assessments
Service Hours (HSC 180)	7	Childcare, Program Check-In
Nutrition Assistants	4	Kitchen/Food Prep
Internship	1	Program Management
Fall 2019 (n = 52)		
EXC Practicum	8	Physical Assessments
HSC 494	33	Social Marketing Focus Groups/Program
Service Hours (HSC 180)	6	Childcare, Program Check-In
Nutrition Assistants	4	Kitchen/Food Prep
Internship	1	Program Management

Table 1 (cont.)

Pathway	No. of students	Primary student roles at program
Spring 2020 (n = 35)		
EXC Practicum	8	Physical Assessments
HSC 302	23	Social Media Programming/On-Site Courses, Kitchen/Food Prep, Program Check-In
Service Hours (HSC 180)	0	N/A
Nutrition Assistants	4	Kitchen/Food Prep
Fall 2020 (n = 45)		
EXC Practicum	7	Physical Assessments
HSC 494	36	Social Marketing Focus Groups/Program
Service Hours (HSC 180)	0	N/A
Nutrition Assistants	1	Kitchen/Food Prep
Internship	1	Program Management
Spring 2021 (n = 37)		
EXC Practicum	4	Physical Assessments
HSC 302	23	Social Media Programming/On-Site Courses, Kitchen/Food Prep, Program Check-In
Service Hours (HSC 180)	7	Childcare, Program Check-In
Nutrition Assistants	3	Kitchen/Food Prep

Note. HSC = Health Science; EXC = Exercise Science.

tasked primarily to select recipes, shop for food items, and prepare samples each evening. They also selected nutrition education topic ideas and delivered the content on selected evenings. Students taking courses with requirements for community service hours and from other health-related majors, including education and nursing, aided in health education, data management, promotional efforts, and childcare. All students were first trained in roles matched to their particular academic discipline, with subsequent training relative to the secondary roles. Students were shifted throughout the various program roles (i.e., exercise science students working in nutrition, health education students conducting physical assessments, etc.) as needed, on the basis of staffing needs each evening. Apart from general program engagement, two different health education and promotion courses were involved in service-learning projects associated with the CW program.

Health Education and Promotion Courses

The HSC 494 course worked primarily with senior majors completing their final semester of coursework before internship. The course sought to highlight the skills necessary for students to deliver health education programs in a variety of settings, where micro-level (interpersonal interactions) and macro-level (organizational and mass media) applications were emphasized. Many of the course objectives were achieved in the context of a semester-long group project, where each student was asked to identify a health problem and an appropriate audience, for which they developed a social marketing–driven health campaign. Across the Fall 2018, Fall 2019, and Fall 2020 semesters, approximately 30 students (each semester) were asked to take part in an immersive learning experience in which the primary audience was community members from the CW program and the health problems were selected on the basis of what was most relevant to the community. Using recorded videos of focus groups conducted with CW members, students worked together to devise a shortened list of health topics that seemed meaningful and matched to the interests of CW members. From that list, each student selected a specific topic, discussed as relevant by community members, for their larger course project. The plans were required to integrate community viewpoints as much as possible, including the use of focus group recordings and observations from the program's

social media site. The students also recruited for and conducted their own focus groups with community members each semester.

At the completion of the course, each student group was asked to orally present their written integrative summary. The summary featured a complete social marketing plan based on their insights from the focus groups, including an environmental analysis, problem analysis, target audience analysis, logic model featuring program goals and objectives, message design and positioning/branding justification, partnership analysis, and three required media deliverables. These included the storyboard for one video public service announcement, five social media posts, and one print material (billboard, flyer, brochure, etc.). The evaluation of student progress toward the proposed course objectives was completed in a variety of ways, including small and large course assignments focused on the development of community-based research and social marketing skills. These included two 50-point exams on course vocabulary and social marketing principles, as well as planning worksheets, a focus group moderator guide and report of findings, and a written/oral presentation of their final marketing campaign.

HSC 302 was the second in a two-semester program planning course sequence. The course focus was on establishing competency in needs assessment, program creation, program implementation, and program evaluation. The second course in the sequence, HSC 302, was focused most closely on program implementation and evaluation. Students in HSC 302 across the Spring 2020 and Spring 2021 semester were asked to implement the social marketing programs designed by the previous semesters' 494 students. The students first familiarized themselves with the topic and plans of the previous semesters' students through a briefing presentation assignment. Additionally, the students were required to attend the CW program twice across the semester, prior to their on-site class. At one visit, they were asked to help as kitchen staff, and at the other, they were asked to help as part of participant check-in procedures. Following, the social media content designed by the 494 students was published on the program's Facebook page and print materials were distributed on-site during brief educational sessions focused on each topic of interest. The students created a budget associated with the on-site educational session, as well as an evaluation plan

that integrated process and outcome evaluation markers through a postprogram survey that evaluated participants' engagement with the social media content. At the end of the semesters, the students created a final report and oral presentation to share the results of the social media and participant evaluation measures.

Method

Approval for this analysis was obtained from the university Institutional Review Board. At the end of program involvement, all students who participated in CW activities, including course-based activities, practicum experiences, and general community service, were asked to complete either an online survey assessment or an anonymous paper version available during a final evaluation class period. Students involved in CW through the context of an immersive learning course experience completed our survey assessment at the beginning and end of each semester, whereas all other students completed the assessment only at the end of their time working with the program.

The students were asked to reflect upon their work with CW and the class projects generally, using a prompt that permitted an open-ended response. Additionally, students were to complete the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI; Clary et al., 1998), the Social Responsibility subscale of the Prosocial Behavior Battery (Penner, 2002) and Civic Attitudes Scale (Mabry, 1998). The VFI is a 30-item measure of motivation to volunteer. The scale includes six separate functional motives, including protective motives (to protect one's ego from life difficulties), value development, career motives, social motives (volunteering to improve social ties), understanding (to gain knowledge/skills), and enhancement (to help develop one's ego). For each item, respondents are to indicate "How important or accurate each of the 30 possible reasons for volunteering were for you in doing volunteer work." Respondents answer each item on a 7-point scale. The Civic Attitudes Scale includes 10 items that measure civic attitudes related to participation in community service, and the Social Responsibility subscale of the Prosocial Behavior Battery includes seven items that assess the extent to which individuals are willing to assume responsibility to help others and solve societal problems, both on a 5-point Likert-like scale. Adaptations were made to existing scales assessing perceived course impact on civic attitudes, social

responsibility, and volunteerism to fit CW program involvement specifically.

Students were grouped into semester cohorts as well as course clusters to permit pre/post and post-only analyses. Regarding the pretest and posttest differences across HSC 302/494 students, paired-samples *t* tests were used in the investigation of significant differences. Analyses of variance (ANOVA) were used in the evaluation of the cohort effects for the three outcome variables. Significance was determined at .05. All statistical analyses were performed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (v. 23.0 for Windows, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, United States).

Results

From a population of 233 unique students involved in the program across 3 years, a sample of 146 students completed the pre/post-test assessment as part of their participation in a course-based service-learning opportunity, whereas 34 participants completed only the posttest assessment as part of their participation in an internship, practicum, or volunteer experience. This entails that just over 77% of students involved in the program completed at least a posttest assessment to evaluate their experiences. Of those respondents, 138 students identified as female and 38 identified as male. The average age of our respondents was 21 years. When asked to report their ethnicity, 140 students self-reported as White, 32 students as African American, four students as Asian, and four students as Hispanic American.

Students were assessed pre- and postcourse relative to their perceptions of their own social responsibility, volunteerism, and positive civic attitudes. Across all three outcomes, statistically significant increases in scores emerged (Table 2). In more specific reference to actual scale items, when the students were asked to indicate their level of agreement that "social problems are more difficult to solve than I used to think," there was a statistically significant decrease in perceptions of difficulty ($t = 1.767$, $p = .088$). The postcourse average decreased from 4.11 to 3.82, for which 5 equals *strongly agree* with the statement presented. A statistically significant increase in scores was also observed in agreement with the statement "I feel I can have an impact on solving problems in my community" ($t = -3.071$, $p = .005$).

Table 2
Pre/Post-Test Outcomes: Social Responsibility, Volunteerism, Positive Civic Attitudes, All Students—HSC 302 and 494 (combined), n = 146

Scale	Pretest *M*	Posttest *M*	*t*	Significance (2-tailed)
Social Responsibility	4.1	4.53	-2.85	.008**
Volunteerism	4.13	4.57	-3.50	.007**
Positive Civic Attitudes	4.0	4.30	-1.79	.043*

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Apart from pre- to postcourse outcomes for students in the two course-based service-learning opportunities, outcomes were assessed relative to changes in average scores on the measures of note across semester cohorts. As Table 3 shows, students taking part in the program across the Fall 2019 and Spring 2021 cohorts demonstrated higher average scores across all three outcome variables than those participating in other semesters. Students participating as part of the Fall 2020 cohort reported the lowest average scores across all three measures, when compared to other cohorts. Three one-way ANOVA were conducted to evaluate if semesters of participation had a relationship with average scores on the social responsibility, volunteerism, and positive civic attitude scores. The independent variable, the semester of participation, included each of the six semesters of interest, and the dependent variable was the average score on each outcome variable. None of the ANOVA were significant at the $p < .05$ level: social responsibility, $F(5, 138) = 2.34$; volunteerism, $F(5, 140) = 1.69$; positive civic attitudes, $F(5, 132) = 2.67$. Even though average scores differed across semesters, none of the observed variance from semester to semester was more than expected by chance.

Discussion

In the current social landscape, the development and refinement of skills that enhance the ability of today's student to contribute meaningfully as civically responsible community members is an important agenda (Gal & Gan, 2020). One potential mechanism for enhancing these skills is involvement in community-based service learning, within and outside of the classroom space (Veyvoda

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics, Semester Cohorts, and Civic Engagement Outcomes

Semester/Variable	*M* (*SD*)
Fall 2018 (*n* = 35)	
Social Responsibility	4.33 (.69)
Volunteerism	4.43 (.33)
Positive Civic Attitudes	4.68 (.44)
Spring 2019 (*n* = 9)	
Social Responsibility	4.55 (.22)
Volunteerism	4.52 (.34)
Positive Civic Attitudes	4.49 (.19)
Fall 2019 (*n* = 39)	
Social Responsibility	4.67 (.21)
Volunteerism	4.62 (.20)
Positive Civic Attitudes	4.45 (.33)
Spring 2020 (*n* = 29)	
Social Responsibility	4.44 (.27)
Volunteerism	4.32 (.34)
Positive Civic Attitudes	4.12 (.50)
Fall 2020 (*n* = 36)	
Social Responsibility	4.32 (.11)
Volunteerism	4.12 (.07)
Positive Civic Attitudes	4.22 (.31)
Spring 2021 (*n* = 32)	
Social Responsibility	4.66 (.18)
Volunteerism	4.54 (.21)
Positive Civic Attitudes	4.56 (.16)

et al., 2020). While learning to better understand diverse perspectives and gaining knowledge of the lived experiences of others are important activity outcomes that can be fostered from interactions with community members, it is important for scholarship to investigate if these outcomes can be enhanced when students work interprofessionally, in conjunction with other students and the public from diverse personal and professional backgrounds (Chiva-Bartoll & Fernández-Rio, 2022). This study's assessment of an interprofessional service-learning experience involving a community-based exercise and nutrition education program for an underserved population examines, specifically, the impact of participation in a course-based service-learning experience that integrates opportunities for interprofessional learning on a variety of civic learning outcomes for health education and promotion students. Additionally, this study assesses these outcomes across six semester cohorts of students across various majors, to better understand if the observed effects can be maintained across time.

In relation to the effectiveness of program involvement on students participating in one of two course-based service-learning projects working in conjunction with the CW program, we observed a significant increase in positive civic attitudes, volunteerism, and social responsibility scores. The greatest change from pre- to post-course was in volunteerism scores; however, the change in social responsibility scores was also notable. While average scores across all three outcomes variables preinvolvement were high (above 4 on a 5-point scale), participation in the service activities, which includes close engagement with a variety of diverse community members, had a positive influence on the civic engagement perceptions of the health education and promotion students. Additionally, the ability to engage in a variety of tasks in an open nature (program management, fitness assessments, food preparation and safety, nutrition education) may have helped to establish the wider significance of one's impact on the well-being of participants, leading to higher scores in volunteerism and social responsibility. Our data reinforces the seminal work of Alexander Astin (1997) in that the environment students best learn "in" is the pervasive effect of the peer group on the individual student's development.

In addition to assessment of the outcomes of course-based service-learning involvement on students taking part in HSC 302 and 479, we investigated the effects across semester cohorts of students, coming from different majors and serving in different project roles, could be maintained across 3 years of program implementation. While the number of students serving in the various roles was different across each semester cohort (Table 1), postinvolvement scores across the three outcome measures remained generally consistent. The three semesters presenting the lowest scores included Fall 2018, Spring 2020, and Fall 2020. The low score across Fall 2018 could be contributable in some part to the novelty of the program, as this was the first semester that CW began serving the community. During this semester, overall participation numbers were quite low (between 5 to 25 participants each evening), as the program was still gaining momentum and integration within the community. This lack of clientele, another limitation, led to a more homogenous population overall, which would have likely impacted perceptions of diversity expressed by the students.

The Spring 2020 and Fall 2020 semesters also represented average scores, and again, these findings might be attributed to other extraneous factors. During these semesters, the number of participants and nature of instruction was altered dramatically due to the COVID-19 pandemic. In the middle of the spring semester, in-person exercise and nutrition classes were halted and shifted to online modalities (Facebook, largely), to protect participants' safety. On-campus courses were also shifted online, and those students designing in-person health education courses for CW were asked to instead present their content virtually, on the program's social media accounts. Such a shift removed the possibility for interaction and personal engagement with community participants, likely leading to the drop in average scores across all outcome variables. This method of instruction (for both the community program and the students) continued into the Fall 2020 semester, and lower scores persisted. While our analysis did not indicate a significant difference in scores across semester cohorts, the observed lower averages were heavily influenced by the arrangements made during the pandemic. The return to normal in-person instruction, live student programming,

and on-site training for students in Spring 2021 contributed to a return in more moderate-to-high average scores across all measures.

Nonetheless, when those semesters influenced by modality changes and the pandemic were removed, the postprogram scores across all civic engagement measures remained consistent, and moderate-to-high, across the 3 years of program implementation. Our findings are similar to that of R. Ryan (2017), who examined if significantly higher levels of empathy, social responsibility, community and personal involvement, self efficacy, and prosocial tendencies existed in students engaging in a service-learning project (n = 21) compared to students in a control group (n = 14), while accounting for preexisting differences in the groups due to the lack of random assignment. Similar to students in R. Ryan's (2017) study, CW students favored the variety of activities and appreciated the opportunity for civic responsibilities and volunteerism intertwined with their regular coursework, especially in working among peers for a common good. Maintaining an equitable number of student participants across the service-learning courses, practicum activities, and general volunteer hours was often challenging, yet the influence of involvement on positive civic attitudes and volunteerism remained relatively unchanged. We recognize that, as a test of only postprogram perceptions, those students drawn to participation each semester may be those who already maintain a commitment to civic responsibilities. However, such a finding may speak to the sustainability of the CW approach in establishing a long-term, evidenced structure for permitting students from diverse majors to work together, learn from one another, and develop an authentic understanding of the lived experiences of community members on their path to positive well-being.

Limitations

While the outcomes associated with our analysis suggest the value in integrating interprofessional, community-based projects to enhance the civic engagement competencies of future health professionals, there are limitations to the validity and replicability of our findings. First, the study assesses pre- and postprogram only students taking part in the course-based service learning experience. In that, we are unable to make claims regarding the impact of program involvement on students taking part in other program roles.

Additionally, average scores on all three outcomes measures are high (above 4 on a 5-point Likert scale), indicating that students may have entered the experience with preexisting positive attitudes regarding civic responsibility and volunteering. It may indeed be the case that students who already find value in civic engagement and community projects are drawn to take part in service-learning courses and community-based work or that students drawn to "helping" professions may take away more from these experiences than others do. In light of our cohort-based comparison, the analysis features the inclusion of the Spring 2019 semester, with only nine student responses available. As no course-based serving learning took place in this semester, it is difficult for us to make claims regarding the outcomes of this cohort compared against others.

Future Directions

Our analysis supports the continued inclusion of interprofessional, community-based projects to enhance the civic engagement outcomes of students in health and human services–oriented majors. The positive influence of our program across 3 years of student cohorts suggests that the positive outcomes from such programs can be attributed to program activities and are not mere artifacts from a single semester of students. It may be useful for research to assess long-term outcomes from students who engage in similar programs across multiple semesters. The influence of the program may be even stronger for these students engaging in multiple years of involvement. From the point of view of the university, future research may also benefit from considering the influence of involvement on students who are not part of the social sciences, because these students may be less likely from the start to take part in courses that involve community-based learning. Because the majority of students taking part in the CW program were doing so as part of a defined course project or requirement, future research may also benefit from assessing the impact of involvement (pre- and postexperience) on students taking part as volunteers or for non-course-based activities and comparing this influence against that of course-based outcomes. Additionally, while this analysis focuses on the influence of program involvement on civic engagement outcomes, future research should also consider the short- and long-term influence of such activities on

curricular competencies, subject-based learning, critical thinking, teamwork, and other pertinent applied learning skills.

Conclusion

Across 3 years of program implementation and over 200 student workers and coordinators, the CW program has established itself to be a sustainable method for encouraging interprofessional experience and civic-mindedness in health-related majors. There are several service-oriented programs, across universities, that provide experiential learning through one-off programs implemented in a single semester. We question whether social responsibility, volunteerism, and positive civic attitudes are as strong as CW. This may be an interesting comparison for a future study. The uniqueness of CW has been its sustainability, with weekly programming 50 weeks a year and a location embedded in an impoverished neighborhood, allowing community members to trust the university and the agents that facilitate the program.

While the pandemic influenced the nature of instruction and involvement, the program endured these challenges. For students taking part in structured, course-based service-learning projects, projects that positively impacted the health and well-being of community members in need, involvement led to increased interest in volunteering, more positive attitudes about one's ability to influence the community, and a greater sense of responsibility to address civic problems. Their interactions with other student professionals and work responsibilities outside of their traditional areas of practice likely contributed to these outcomes. As educators continue to pursue creative methods of instruction that promote real-world application, an appreciation for empathy, diversity, and critical engagement with the social problems in our communities today, it is evident that interprofessional, community-based service programs may be a potential mechanism for incubating these forms of learning.

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YOU AND THE LAW

Is Sport Ready to Transition? Navigating Transgender Issues in High School Sport

Cornell E. Foo, George R. Schaefer, Angela R. Russell

BPJ, et al. v. West Virginia State Board Of Education, et al.
United States District Court, Southern District of West Virginia
550 F.Supp.3d 347 (S.D.W.Va. 2021)
July 21, 2021

BPJ (Plaintiff) is an 11-year-old girl who will start middle school this fall. While in elementary school, BPJ participated on a cheerleading team. She enjoyed the camaraderie of practicing, playing, and competing alongside a team comprised entirely of girls. This fall, BPJ wants to continue playing sports in middle school by participating on the girls' cross-country and track teams. BPJ comes from a family of runners, and she is excited for her chance to try out and compete. However, BPJ was informed by her school principal that because of a new statute (H.B. 3293), she will no longer be permitted to join either team because she is a transgender girl.

For a definition of terms such as "gender identity," "gender dysphoria," and "cisgender," the Court referred to the opinion in *Grimm v. Gloucester County School Board* (2020). It adopted the definition of transgender used in that opinion. "Transgender is used as an umbrella term to describe groups of people who transcend conventional expectations of gender identity or expression" (Grimm, 596).

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"Cisgender is a term that is used to describe people whose gender identity matches the sex they were assigned at birth. For example, someone who was assigned female at birth (AFAB) and identifies as a woman is a cisgender woman" (Grimm at 596). "Gender dysphoria is a term that describes a sense of unease that a person may have because of a mismatch between their biological sex and their gender identity" (Grimm at 596). This sense of unease or dissatisfaction may be so intense it can lead to depression and anxiety and have a harmful impact on daily life.

Complaint

As part of a wave of similar legislation introduced across the country, West Virginia passed a new law in April 2021 that categorically bans BPJ and all other girls who are transgender in West Virginia from participating in school sports consistent with their gender identity. The new statute, which was passed by the legislature as H.B. 3293, is codified at W. Va. Code § 18-2-25d (H.B. 3293).

H.B. 3293 was prompted by unfounded stereotypes, false scientific claims, and baseless fear and misunderstanding of girls who are transgender. Proponents of H.B. 3293 made clear that its purpose is to exclude what they referred to as "transgender" from girls' sports teams. Yet, as H.B. 3293's sponsors and the Governor have acknowledged, there is no evidence of any "problem" caused by girls who are transgender participating on sports teams in West Virginia. By barring BPJ and other girls who are transgender from participating in school athletics, H.B. 3293 discriminates based on sex and transgender status in violation of the U.S. Constitution and Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, 20 U.S.C. § 1681, *et seq*. If allowed to go into effect, H.B. 3293 will cause severe and entirely unnecessary harm and distress to BPJ and other girls who are transgender—an already vulnerable group of people subject to a history of discrimination that continues to this day. BPJ seeks declaratory and injunctive relief from this Court to allow her to experience the benefits of athletic participation consistent with her gender identity and without being singled out from other girls for different treatment simply because she is transgender.

Background

This case involves a transgender middle school student-athlete (BPJ) and the West Virginia State Board of Education (WVSSAC). BPJ, who at the time was preparing to enter sixth grade at a new school, alleges that Defendants Burch, Stutler, the WVSSAC, and Attorney General Morrisey deprived her of equal protection under the Fourteenth Amendment. The claim goes on to indicate that the WVSSAC and Harrison County Board of Education are complicit in violating Title IX.

The catalyst for this case comes from a recently enacted state law that would prevent an 11-year-old from participating in high school athletics. House representatives in the West Virginia House of Delegates introduced House Bill 3293 on March 18, 2021, referred to as *S*ave Women's Sports Bill, and on April 28, 2021, West Virginia Governor, Jim Justice, signed it into law. This law was codified as Section 18-2-25d and entitled "Clarifying Participation for Sports Events to Be Based on Biological Sex of the Athlete at Birth."

Framed by case law, Grimm, and the terms "gender identity" and "gender dysphoria," "transgender" is an umbrella term that describes individuals who challenge conventional explanations or understandings of gender identity. BPJ is seeking a binding judgment that Section 18-2-25d of the West Virginia Code infringes upon Title IX of the Equal Protection Clause. This judicial order would prohibit the Defendants from imposing the Save Women's Sports Bill against her. The request for an initial injunction accompanies BPJ's complaint and seeks to protect her to the degree the law applies to her. If granted, the motion will only hinder the State and other Defendants from enforcing Section 18-2-25d against BPJ.

Analysis

For a preliminary injunction to be granted, BPJ must satisfy four requirements related to her likelihood of success on the merits of her claims, the consequence of irreparable harm without the injunction, the balance of equities, and the public interest. With regard to the likelihood of success on the merits, BPJ has presented claims related to both the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment and Title IX. Under the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment, the state cannot deny to any person

within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws. Furthermore, *City of Cleburne v. Cleburne Living Ctr.* (1985) established that all people similarly situated should be treated alike. While the State in the present case contends that the law in question is not a violation, BPJ is being treated the same as all biological males in her situation. BPJ asserts that she is more like other girls than like cisgender boys and therefore is being treated differently than all other girls. As BPJ is the only girl in her school who would be prevented by the law from participating in sports, the judge has determined that the Save Women's Sports Bill discriminates based on transgender status. Therefore, increased scrutiny and justification of the law is therefore required, as discrimination against transgender individuals is based on sex and transgender people are a quasi-suspect class (Grimm at 597). Hence, the burden of proof rests with the State to demonstrate that the classification by sex (or transgender status) accomplishes a significant governmental objective and is not based on stereotypical generalizations (*Rowe Co. v. Tippett* at 242) regarding abilities and preferences of the different sexes. The judge finds in this case that the stated objective of the law in protecting the opportunities and safety of female athletes does not hold up against scrutiny, as BPJ's participating in school athletics will not prevent other female athletes from participating. Furthermore, BPJ has not and will not undergo endogenous puberty, and this reduces or eliminates the potential physical advantages biological males have over females. Moreover, the sports of interest to BPJ track and cross country are not contact sports and therefore the judge does not accept that barring BPJ from participating will affect the safety of other athletes. Consequently, the judge has determined that the merits of BPJ's Equal Protection claim are likely to succeed.

With regard to Title IX, the judge finds that BPJ is being excluded from a federally funded educational program (in this case athletics) on the basis of sex. For the Title IX claim to be successful, BPJ must also demonstrate harm as a result of this discrimination. The judge finds that the exclusion of BPJ is harmful to her in the form of stigma and isolation as the only girl required to join a boys' team in situating BPJ more similarly to cisgender girls than to cisgender boys, the judge finds a likelihood of succeeding on the merits of BPJ's Title IX claim.

Concerning irreparable harm, the judge finds that BPJ has a high likelihood of suffering this violation due to distress, stigma, and confusion created by forcing her to compete on an athletic team for boys. Moreover, BPJ would be excluded because of who she is: a transgender girl (BPJ at 362). Therefore, in consideration with the finding that the Save Women's Sports Bill likely violates both Title IX and the Equal Protection Clause, the judge has determined that the law will cause irreparable harm to BPJ.

Judgment

Finally, the balance of equities and the public interest must be considered. In accounting for the effect of an injunction on the both the State and BPJ, as well as the public interest in upholding the constitutional right to equal protection, the judge has ruled in favor of BPJ's motion for a preliminary injunction. Consequently, the state is barred from enforcing Section 18-12-25d against BPJ while the case is being decided. With the granting of the preliminary injunction, BPJ may currently participate in athletics alongside other female classmates at her school.

Transgender Female Athletes and Future Challenges in the Sport World: Is Sport Ready to Transition?

When a transgender female athlete wins a girls' sporting event, many members of the public and other sport participants raise questions about the fairness and integrity of the event. These questions of fairness, combined with the social and emotional well-being of transgender female student-athletes, are some of the issues facing secondary school administrators and school boards today and will continue.

At the national level, the National Federation of High Schools (NFHS) does not regulate the manner by which transgender athletes participate. Members of the NFHS are independent and establish their own policies and regulations. Some state associations (e.g., West Virginia) are bound by state statute, whereas others have a formal policy in place. Some associations entrust local leaders—such as the high school principals or school boards—to make an eligibility decision on the student-athlete, whereas others have no formal policy or procedure. Hence, the regulations surrounding the participation of transgender athletes in interscholastic athletics are highly complex

and vary widely by location and affiliation of the sports program. Furthermore, the politically charged nature of the issue along with the lack of uniform guidance from sporting authorities greatly complicates the situation and ensures that a swift and universally accepted resolution is unlikely.

Now and in the future, it is important to recognize the need to ensure that all students, irrespective of their gender identity, can practice sport in a safe, harassment-free, discrimination-free environment that respects their needs and identities. Equally, it is important to establish safe and fair competitions in which no participants have unfair and disproportionate advantages over others. Sport administrators and decision makers will need to follow closely all relevant legislation with regard to sport eligibility while creating a culture that respects all athletes as the sporting world addresses the challenges of creating meaningful experiences and competitions for all participants.

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