

Models-Based Practice in Physical Education: The Case for Sport Education

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Purpose: This paper provides a potential roadmap for the future development of research on Sport Education. In the first part of the paper, research on each of the elements of competence, literacy and enthusiasm are reviewed, with the aim of providing evidence to support the idea that the model can achieve its goals. For each of these goals we provide some potential directions which we believe are important for moving research on Sport Education forward. **Development:** These avenues include more attention to appropriate practices for enhancing student-coach effectiveness, ways to enhance the development of more equitable and inclusive class environments within the model, as well as the potential transfer of Sport Education experiences to physical activity environments beyond physical education. **Design:** Research designs need to include how teachers and students give value and significance to what they teach and what they learn, respectively. This could be achieved through researchers considering more prolonged action-based research designs that allow a close monitoring of the implementation of pedagogical approaches. These case studies can provide guidance for future pedagogical iterations of the model that can be applied within more generalizable group designs.

Keywords: futures, models, review

The purpose of this paper is to present to readers a potential roadmap of the current status and future development of research on Sport Education. The impetus for this cartographic exercise is the belief that when taught in accordance with the full set of benchmarks of the model, Sport Education seasons can achieve Siedentop's (1994) original short-term objectives. In general terms, Siedentop's desire was to help young people develop as "players in the fullest sense and to help them develop as competent, literate and enthusiastic sportspeople" (p. 4). A closer look at these goals and their alignment with the physical education standards of a number of countries provides the contention that Sport Education has the potential to contribute to students being 'physically educated.'

Two previous reviews of Sport Education literature (Hastie, Martinez de Ojeda, & Calderón, 2011; Wallhead & O'Sullivan, 2005) have provided a summary of the evidence that Sport Education can achieve the five common physical education content standards (i.e., motor skill development, tactical knowledge and

performance, fitness, social development, and student attitudes and values). This paper is not designed to replicate these extensive reviews, but rather add to the extant literature on Sport Education by providing a contemporary positioning of evidence that the model can deliver on Siedentop's (1994) primary goals of developing student competence, literacy and enthusiastic participation. In light of this directive choices were made on inclusion criteria for empirical evidence that directly aligned with the achievement of these primary goals. These selections included both contemporary and previously reviewed empirical evidence that span a range of research paradigms, however, all were viewed by the authors to align with Siedentop's (1994) initial interpretation of what it meant to be a competent, literate and enthusiastic sportsperson.

In the first part of the paper, research on each of the elements of competence, literacy and enthusiasm are reviewed. Within each learning goal, we provide an outline of the historical development of research that has examined the learning goal followed by some potential research topics and methods we believe should be prioritized in future studies involving the model. The final part of the paper provides a summary of these directions and thus serves as a potential roadmap for future research on Sport Education.

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Competence

In the most recent iteration of the Sport Education text, Siedentop, Hastie, and van der Mars (2011) define a competent sports player as one who “has developed sufficient skill to participate in games and activities satisfactorily, understands and can execute strategies appropriate to the complexity of the activity, and is a knowledgeable game player” (p. 5). Research on student competency within Sport Education has produced studies that have examined skill and tactical development, within both the cognitive and psychomotor learning domains. Across time, these studies have become more sophisticated in terms of the questions asked, the data collected, and the research designs. A summary of this progression is presented in Figure 1. Within this figure, comments provided above the arrow highlight the predominant methods of research design and data collection, while the boxes below give a global summary of the associated research outcomes.

The Early Years—1990s

Large-scale initial trials of Sport Education in New Zealand (Grant, 1992) and Australia (Alexander, Taggart & Thorpe, 1996) revealed that many teacher’s perceived that participation in Sport Education seasons could result in improvements in skill development and game-based decision-making, especially for lower skilled students. This theme of advancing lower skilled students was also reported within qualitative interpretive case studies that occurred during these early years. Carlson (1995) as well

as Carlson and Hastie (1997) both noted that lower skill-level participants (particularly girls) were more likely to mention improved physical skills. Later in this decade, the first study to use direct observation of student skill performance and game play (Hastie, 1998a) provided initial evidence of significant improvements in selection and execution of game performance indices during a season of Ultimate Frisbee, albeit with a sample of only one team with six players. A recurring theme throughout all of these early studies of competence was that the increased length of the unit as well as the notion of the persisting team membership were key factors in promoting these perceptions of competence.

New Millennium

Studies involving direct observation continued during the 2000s, and involved larger sample sizes across multiple classes. In a badminton study with Russian students, Hastie, Sinelnikov, and Guarino (2009) showed positive improvements in both shot selection (what shot to make) and shot execution (ability to produce the desired shot). In a larger study involving modified volleyball, Cho, Richards, Blankenship et al. (2012) reported pre-to postseason changes in form (forearm and overhead passes), communication, and movement to ball during a task where students were challenged to keep the ball in the air for as long as possible.

Research on competence in the 2000s also saw the first use of positivist quasi-experimental designs to provide more generalizable evidence for increased changes

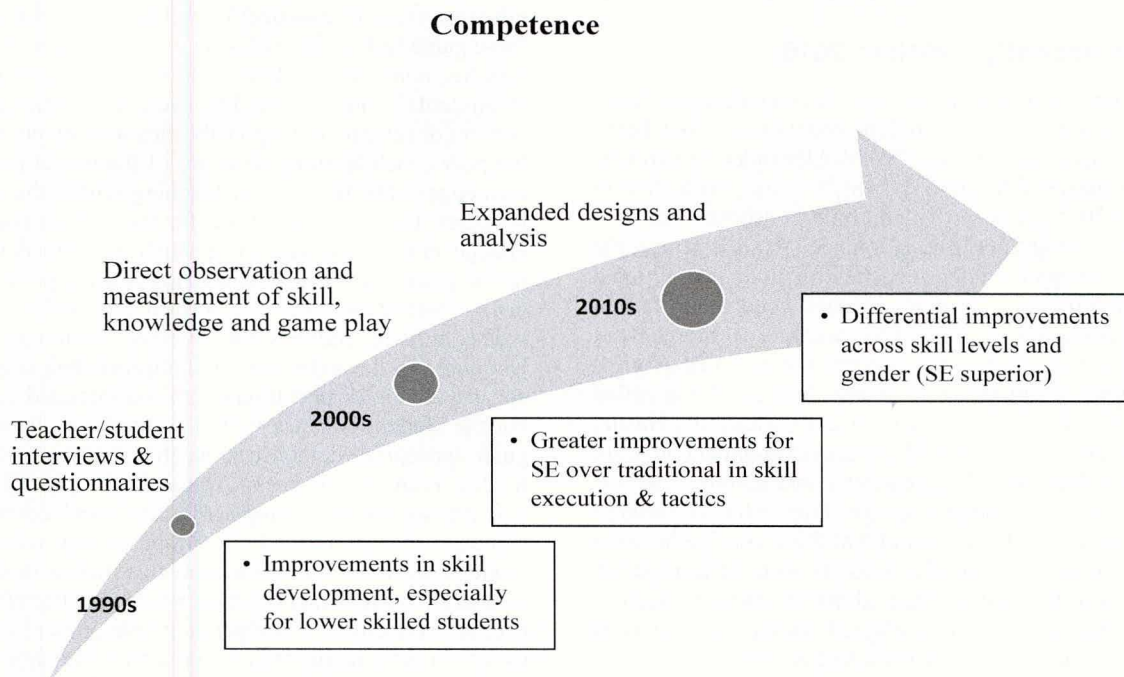


Figure 1 — Evolution of the Research on Student Competence in Sport Education

in skill, knowledge and game performance of students within Sport Education compared with those engaged in units which followed a direct instruction model. The results of these comparative designs revealed that both instructional models elicited positive changes in skill execution, but that Sport Education facilitated greater increases in game play knowledge and performance (Browne, Carlson, & Hastie, 2004; Pritchard, Hawkins, Wiegand, & Metzler, 2008).

One of the central roles in competence development within Sport Education is that of the student-coach. With the devolution of some responsibility for content organization and feedback to a student, there is the creation of a secondary content interaction which has the potential to influence competence. The early 2000s saw the first attention to the efficacy of these content interactions (Alexander & Luckman, 2001). These authors reported that Australian teachers were skeptical of the effectiveness of student coaches in facilitating peers' motor skill and content knowledge development, while Hastie (2000) provided empirical evidence that some student coaches struggle to provide quality practices for their students. However, it was the study of Wallhead and O'Sullivan (2007) that provided the first specific examination of content development during peer coaching in the model. This study found that student coaches could facilitate peer learning of lower order content, such as skill execution, but often struggled to provide appropriate demonstration, error diagnosis and task modification to facilitate higher order tactical decision-making during games. Aligned with contemporary research on teacher education, a lack of pedagogical content knowledge was the primary reason for students' limited development of game play competency.

Most Recently—2010 to 2016

Evidence from students themselves, who described their team practices led by student coaches as often being "ineffective" and "weak," (Wahl-Alexander, Sinelnikov, & Curtner-Smith, 2016, p. 13), together with Pereira et al. (2015) have provided some consensus that that teachers using Sport Education need to allocate specific time to prepare student coaches for their instructional leadership roles. Student coaches need to be taught basic pedagogical content knowledge, to include not only relevant content knowledge, but also pedagogical principles required to effectively elaborate the intended content to peers. To that end, Araujo, Mesquita, Hastie, and Pereira (2016) initiated a coach development program that involved modeling teacher's instruction, coaches' briefs and self-reflection of coaching behavior through video analyses. It was found that these coach education interventions over several seasons were efficacious in promoting the instructional skills of student coaches, which facilitated a more aligned content development from teachers' intention to student action.

Within the past four years, more positivist experimental research focused on student competency have moved closer toward true experimental designs, and have

begun to examine the differential effects of the model across heterogeneous skill groups (Hastie, Calderón, Rolim, & Guarino, 2013; Mahedero, Calderón, Arias, et al., 2015; Pereira et al., 2015). These studies have shown that students of all skill levels improved more during Sport Education than within a direct instruction model, but the improvements of the highest and lowest skilled students in Sport Education were less significant than those at more moderate levels. Although Sport Education has organizational features that serve to promote authentic sport experiences to all students (e.g., persisting teams, formal competition, roles), the actual instructional strategies available for developing game play knowledge and performance during seasons are essentially nonprescriptive. By consequence, research teams have most recently begun to examine ways of achieving a more equitable development of student competency. These initiatives have included the infusion of games-centered pedagogical approaches within Sport Education (Mesquita, Farias, & Hastie, 2012; Pritchard, McCollum, Sundal, & Colquit, 2014). Results of these approaches have been generally positive in helping more students move toward higher levels of competence in the execution and decision-making aspects of game play.

Moving Forward With Student Competency

With the addition of game-centered pedagogies within the teaching of Sport Education, future research is still required to explore how students interact with the design of these game-based tasks and what pedagogies are required by the teacher and student coach to most effectively teach the tactical knowledge embedded within these game tasks. The inclusion of a more aligned game task sequence should foster more equitable increases in students' competence, however, the devolution of content development responsibilities to students within the peer coach learning structure of the model presents challenges. The use of peer teaching within the model provides unique opportunities for the student coach to engage more fully with the content embedded within learning tasks. They are expected to present aspects of the tasks, observe and diagnose performance and then provide congruent feedback with effective communication. Undoubtedly these demands will improve their cognitive and psychomotor performance of the intended content but the student coaches will also require assistance to guide appropriate demonstration, error diagnosis and task modification to their peers. Araujo et al.'s (2016) study may provide an initial template for the 'coach education' strategies that are needed to be implemented within the model. Simplistic education strategies such as modeling teacher instruction and coaches' briefs may be sufficient to elicit more effective competency development without the use of more labor-intensive education strategies such as self-reflection of coaching behavior. To examine this issue further, qualitative interpretive case studies are required which are situated within the content-related

behaviors of students and thus provide richer insights into the efficacy of these interventions.

It should also be noted that teachers' pedagogical content knowledge also has an impact on the student competency development in Sport Education. For example, the exploratory study of Iserbyt, Ward, and Martens (2016) demonstrated that the level of a *teacher's* content knowledge in swimming affected task presentation and the actual tasks students were provided. To that end, these authors argue for more research on how teachers' content knowledge (particularly pedagogical and specialized content knowledge) might be enhanced. This issue remains a primary objective of many professional development initiatives in physical education, however, within Sport Education this evaluation could focus on how the teacher's elaborate this knowledge to student coaches within the model.

Literacy

Within the Sport Education text, Siedentop et al. (2011) defined a literate sports player as one who "understands and values the rules, rituals and tradition of sports and other physical activities and has learned to distinguish between good and bad practices within those activities." (p. 5). Much of the research related to the literacy learning goal has focused on students' interpersonal interactions within the model including social development and inclusive participation. Similar to research on competence, the earliest studies were descriptive, while more recently there have been attempts to evaluate specific interventions to promote positive social behaviors. Figure 2 shows the representation of this empirical progress.

The Early Years—1990s

Teachers involved in the large-scale initial trials of Sport Education perceived the model to, "develop qualities such as leadership, teamwork, peer support and active pursuit of socially responsible and equitable participation beyond what was evident in previous teaching" (Alexander et al., 1996, p. 37). The rationale for this assertion was the increased opportunity students had to interact within the student-led instructional tasks, which provided greater opportunity for the development of effective leadership and trust skills (Carlson & Hastie, 1997). Over 90% of elementary teachers and 70% of secondary teachers agreed or strongly agreed that the model catered for the inclusivity of girls (Alexander & Luckman, 2001).

New Millennium

Despite this emerging body of evidence that the inherent features of Sport Education provided opportunity for the development of students' interpersonal skills, there was also concerns that the emphasis on competition within the model served to disrupt this focus on equitable participation (Curnow & Macdonald, 1995). Much of this concern regarding oppression and marginalization resided around gender status, with boys tending to dominate the positions of power and privilege within the coeducational curriculum. This was particularly well documented by Ennis (2000), who reported a case where some aggressive students disrupted the role of the coach and thereby compromised team affiliation and the participation of low skilled students.

As a result of these findings, research began to introduce interventions focused on promoting positive social

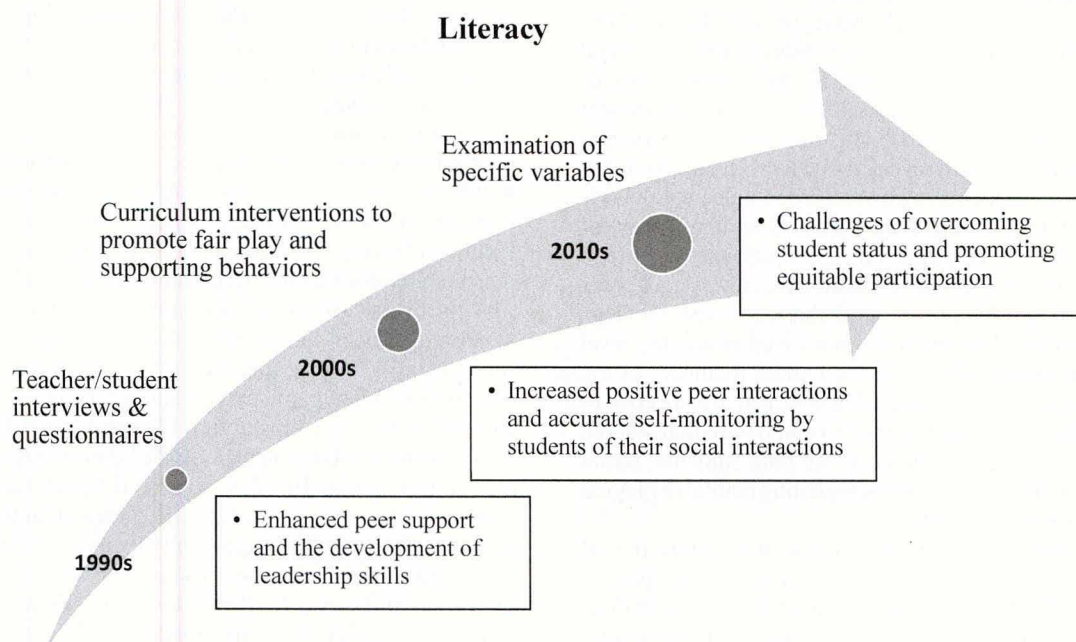


Figure 2 — Evolution of the Research on Student Literacy in Sport Education

development and equitable participation. In the first of these, Hastie and Sharpe (1999) found increased compliant behaviors and higher levels of positive interpersonal interactions following the introduction two specific interventions. The first of these was the inclusion of a "fair play" award, which was based upon positive compliance with referees' decisions. The second involved the players completing a postmatch questionnaire regarding the perceived character and extent of their positive social behaviors. Following this study, the early 2000s saw the genesis of hybrid models in which specific strategies were built into the structure of Sport Education aimed at promoting positive social behaviors (Ennis, 2000; Hastie & Buchanan, 2000). As a result of these qualitative, interpretive case studies, several pedagogical strategies were proposed to reduce hierarchies of power within Sport Education teams. These strategies included encouraging a more democratic system for role selection and clarification of role expectation, training students to perform roles effectively and using a wider form of assessment for team performance including team effort, team support, fair play and duty role performance (Brunton, 2003).

Most Recently—2010 to 2016

More recent research on the development of student literacy has served to remind us that although the persistent group structure embedded within the model may elicit positive learning outcomes, these outcomes may not be shared equally across all members of the group. For example, a qualitative, critical study by Parker and Curtner-Smith (2012) highlighted cases of gender inequity where masculine bias and sexism were reinforced. These authors suggested this outcome was the result of either instituted gender stereotypes or by a teacher's narrow interpretation of a sporting culture. Brock, Rovegno and Oliver (2009) also highlighted the influence of student status on social interactions within the model. Using Cohen's lens of 'student status' and how it privileges student achievement within educational contexts, this qualitative, interpretive case study of one team revealed that there are many forms of status that influence who is afforded voice and who is silenced within group work. These dominant forms of status included economic level, attractiveness, athletic involvement, and personality. In this case, it was not gender that was the predominant status that conveyed privilege and superiority, but rather the perceived economic level and attractiveness of two of the female members of the group whose opinions were acknowledged. Irrespective of form of status, the study served to emphasize that student status within groups influences, not only students' social interactions, but also decisions regarding equitable playing time (Brock et al., 2009).

In taking stock of our current understanding of how Sport Education influences equitable participation, Hastie's (1998b) commentary that while the model does not overtly promote status discrimination, the structural features of Sport Education do nothing to correct or modify these stereotypes still seems relevant.

Moving Forward With Student Literacy

Teachers using Sport Education need to understand that it may be impossible to eradicate all traces of status in groups, since status in effect is a relative concept. Likewise, it may be difficult to know the individual histories and biographies of all students. What may be possible is to ensure that the same kinds of factors that influence status are not constantly reinforced by teacher practice within the model. To move the model forward we first need a more thorough theoretical understanding of factors that influence students' motives for status and second, to develop validated pedagogical strategies that can be implemented by teachers to disrupt status discrimination and promote inclusive participation and prosocial interaction. It is to these two directions that we offer some thoughts on moving forward.

Allen's (2005) social motivation theory is one framework that may provide a clearer lens to understand students' social status motivation in Sport Education and the subsequent outcomes of those motives. This framework is based upon the premise that experiencing meaningful social connections and having a sense of belonging within a social group are key ingredients to understanding motivated behavior (Allen, 2005; Hodge, Allen & Smellie, 2008). According to Allen (2005), sport environments provide individuals with a fertile setting in which to pursue three distinct social goals: status goals, recognition goals, and affiliation goals. The social status goal emphasizes gaining position within the social hierarchy, for example, being afforded voice due to some status characteristic such as gender, or attractiveness. A social recognition goal focuses on receiving attention from others for demonstrating effort or physical ability, for example, scoring the winning goal in a formal competition game in Sport Education. Both of these goals are grounded in social validation and extrinsic in nature because individuals have less control over the degree that peers will validate their actions (Hodge et al., 2008). If the social environment generates sufficient validation then it is theorized that these two social validation goals will lead to positive affective and behavioral outcomes; however, if social validation is perceived to be lacking, then social recognition and social status goals can produce detrimental motivational outcomes (Hodge et al., 2008). The third goal of social affiliation is oriented toward developing social connections and fulfilling reciprocal relationships, for example, being included within group decisions on team game play strategies. From a theoretical perspective, the satisfaction of social affiliation may be the positive validation that satisfies the other two social recognition goals. In other words, if Sport Education fosters social connections between group members such that they work together reciprocally then social status and recognition may be granted. Using a positivist, correlational group design, Wallhead, Garn and Vidoni (2013) provided initial evidence to support this theoretical supposition revealing that social affiliation goals predicted a large portion of variance in social status and recognition

goals in Sport Education. Future research is required to validate this assertion, and specifically examine the relationship between these three social goals and how they relate to more behavioral outcomes, such as active participation and pro/antisocial interactions. From these correlational designs, more experimental studies could be implemented that use specific pedagogical strategies that target the social goals that have the strongest influence on prosocial behavior.

There have been recent developments in understanding pedagogical strategies that can promote more equitable and inclusive learning environments during Sport Education. Using a qualitative, participatory action research project across an entire school year Farias, Hastie and Mesquita (2015) used a number of strategies to promote the recognition of all students' efforts by their teammates. First, learning tasks were reconfigured to spread the responsibility for instruction across students and competition formats altered to emphasize more cooperative tasks. Second, the teacher included group discussions within classes that addressed issues of inequity, exclusion, gender stereotyping and discrimination. Finally, the teacher conducted leadership seminars outside of class time where he worked with student coaches in an effort to promote positive leadership behaviors. The outcomes of these purposeful strategies were significant evidence of inclusive membership accompanied by the development of mutual trust among students and shared contributions toward a common and inclusive goal (Farias et al., 2015). This study highlights the potential of sustained collaborative participatory action research studies in the ongoing refinement of Sport Education to promote more inclusive and equitable participation. The study also reiterated that the model by itself was insufficient to dismantle the preestablished status hierarchies, gender stereotypes and focus on performance and winning found in community-based sports (Farias et al., 2015). It also served to provide guidance on some very specific pedagogical strategies that could be used within ongoing curricular implementations of the model. Given this type of action research follows the day to day problem solving strategies of the teacher leading the Sport Education season, and unearths successful instructional strategies, it has the potential to disseminate pedagogical strategies required to adapt Sport Education to promote greater student literacy. The subsequent use of these pedagogical strategies within larger positivist, experimental designs may effectively move the research agenda forward into how teachers can promote more equitable learning within the model.

Enthusiasm

With respect to enthusiastic engagement, the goal of Sport Education operates at two levels. At the immediate level, the goal is for students to "want to participate because they have come to value the experiences and enjoyment derived from participation" (Siedentop et al., 2011, p. 5).

From this, it is hoped that the enthusiastic sportsperson will "behave in ways that preserve, protect, and enhance sport culture" (Siedentop et al., 2011, p. 5).

With respect to the first goal, evidence would suggest that it is clear that students' motivation to participate in the model have been overwhelmingly positive, and for many (particularly the lower skilled), a more attractive form of physical education than their previous experiences within a teacher directed, multiactivity curriculum (see Brunton, 2003; Grant, 1992). The main justification for this stance is the perception that there is a greater level of curriculum ownership, particularly with regards to the roles and responsibilities which come as part of a persisting team (MacPhail, Kirk, & Kinchin, 2004). As with research on competence and literacy, studies across time have moved from teacher and student anecdotal accounts, to survey responses grounded in motivational theory and behavioral observations of subgroup populations (Wallhead, Garn, Vidoni, & Youngberg, 2013). A summary of this progress is presented in Figure 3.

The Early Years—1990s

The first study to assess student participation in the model used a qualitative, interpretive case study approach and contended that participation in Sport Education changed the way students socialized within class, such that they exerted greater effort within the instructional task system (Carlson & Hastie, 1997). Hastie (2000) further examined this claim and proposed that the high level of student engagement observed within seasons was due to the presence of positive task vectors, such that the managerial task system is supported (rather than being undermined) by the student social system and in particular, the tasks involved in the season had in-built levels of consequence and accountability.

New Millennium

In a search for the theoretical underpinnings of the enthusiastic responses of students to Sport Education, Wallhead and Ntoumanis (2004) were the first to use a social-cognitive framework to conceptualize the positive changes in students' motivational responses. Using a positivist, quasi-experimental design and the lens of achievement goal theory, these authors found significant increases in student enjoyment and perceived effort in Sport Education, which was predicted by increases in the perception of a task-involving class climate. Following this line of inquiry, a number of authors have investigated the effect of Sport Education on changes in students' self-determined motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). These studies have provided some evidence that the structural features of Sport Education facilitate students' movement toward being more intrinsically motivated through the satisfaction of students' need for relatedness, competence, and to a lesser extent perceived autonomy (Perlman & Goc Karp, 2010; Sinelnikov, Hastie & Prusak, 2007).

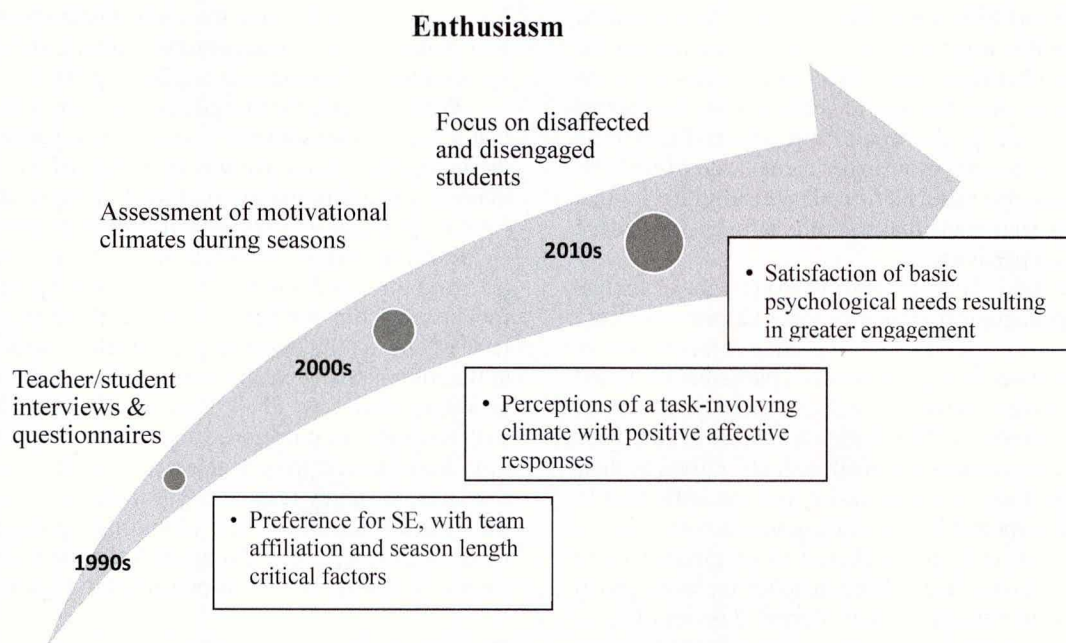


Figure 3 — Evolution of the Research on Student Enthusiasm in Sport Education

Most Recently—2010 to 2016

As with student competence development, the focus of the research on enthusiasm began to move from whole class data toward the targeting of specific subgroups, in particular the low or amotivated students. For example, Perlman (2010) used a positivist experimental study design to assess the affective responses of a cohort of amotivated high school students embedded within heterogeneous intact classes experiencing Sport Education. This study revealed that amotivated students find Sport Education more enjoyable than a direct instruction approach. Wallhead, Garn, Vidoni et al. (2013) also showed that amotivated students had similar levels of game play participation as students with higher incoming motives for physical education. Findings from these studies lend support to the assertion that the model moves students of all motivations toward along the self-determined continuum, which consequently promotes more active participation within class. What remains relatively unexamined, is the extent to which these positive enthusiastic responses in physical education transfer to participation in extracurricular sport-based opportunities.

Moving Forward With Student Enthusiasm

Of the three primary goals of Sport Education, perhaps the most substantiated is the immediate goal of enjoyment and enthusiastic engagement. As Wallhead and O'Sullivan (2005) commented a decade ago, the research even by that point had highlighted the "effectiveness of the model in facilitating student engagement within student-centered learning tasks of the curriculum." (p. 181). It is our contention that the research on this topic needs to move toward

discovering ways in which the secondary aspects of enthusiasm can be realized. To do this, research is needed with respect to transporting students' motives for participation in the Sport Education experience to settings outside of compulsory physical education.

Penney, Clarke and Kinchin (2002) first highlighted the potential of Sport Education to be a "connective specialism" (p. 55), in other words, a means through which students might be provided with opportunities to take from their Sport education experience and engage in related physical activity outside of school. In their discussion, Penney et al. (2002) made the important point that while much of the research relating to enthusiasm, to date, has demonstrated that Sport Education is an effective mechanism in positively transforming students' experiences of physical education, this enthusiastic transformation had been confined to a physical education context. Penney et al.'s (2002) critique seems justified as to date, Sport Education has largely failed to pursue transformative agendas. Penney et al. (2002) suggested that to resolve this conflict, connections and collaborations with the junior sport community should be built such that the principles of Sport Education can be moved from curricular to extracurricular and community-based sport contexts.

While this transformation from Sport Education to community youth sport remains unexplored, the idea that students' positive motivation for activities developed during Sport Education may transfer to extracurricular participation remains inherently appealing. As health-related outcomes become a dominate discourse in the role of physical education, there is a need to examine the potential of this transformation. Wallhead, Hagger

and Smith (2010) conducted a preliminary study which provided some empirical support for the transcontextual transfer between Sport Education experiences in physical education to participation in voluntary sport-based lunch recess activities. Lunch recess contexts were targeted as students have higher levels of behavioral control of participation which are not constrained by parental financial or transport support. This initial study revealed that understanding the mechanisms for transcontextual transfer of motivation is complex and is influenced by not only students' attitudes to the activity, but the important socializing agents that exist within the extracurricular contexts (Wallhead et al., 2010). One of these socializing agents are peer groups, and if positive transfer is to occur the activity types offered need to accommodate these peer group preferences and viewed as opportunities for equitable participation (Wallhead, Garn & Vidoni, 2014). Oslin (2002) proposed that, only by widening the continuum of sport included in Sport Education will physical educators be able to provide "bridging activities that link what students learn in Sport Education to the larger sport and physical activity cultures of the community which may serve to enhance visibility as well as transferability" (p. 423). This thesis remains relatively unexplored and future research is needed to validate its potential. What remains clear is that if students are left devoid of an outlet to activate their motives and skills beyond the confines of the curriculum program, then transfer of participation will not occur (Wallhead et al., 2014). The examination of this nexus should inform future innovations to the model and empirical inquiry into students' enthusiastic responses.

Summary

The goal of this position paper was to situate what we currently know about the efficacy of Sport Education in achieving Siedentop's (1994) goal that young people experiencing the model would develop into competent, literate and enthusiastic sportspeople. Sport Education remains the most researched of all the "second generation" pedagogical models (Ennis, 2014, p.64) and thus has the strongest body of evidence that it has the potential to deliver on some of these student learning goals. More recent work has encouraged the blending of the features of Sport Education with alternate models-based practice to better achieve these specific learning goals. From our perspective, this hybridization is not dysfunctional to the truism of the model but rather presents an opportunity to learn from good practice embedded within alternate models-based practice. Although there is inevitable adaptation of the model through the contextualization of teacher practice, from a research perspective, it is critical that researchers demonstrate Sport Education was implemented within the spirit of its creation, and as such confirm the implementation of the key structural features of the model that provide its operational definition.

Our potential roadmap has highlighted the significant empirical progress that has been made in the assertion that

the primary goals for Sport Education initially delineated by Siedentop (1994) are both realistic and achievable. That stated, there remains future roads to be traveled if the case is to be firmly made that Sport Education is capable of delivering on its potential. Some of these potential avenues include more attention to appropriate practices for enhancing student-coach effectiveness, ways to enhance the development of more equitable and inclusive class environments, as well as how to facilitate the transfer of students' experiences of Sport Education to environments beyond physical education. From a research design perspective, these avenues require methodologies that provide a rich description of how teachers and students give value and significance to what they teach and what they learn, respectively. Qualitative approaches using both interpretive and critical lenses of interpretation would seem to add value to this development, particularly if the cases are designed over multiple experiences of the model. In particular, action-based research designs allow a close monitoring in the implementation of pedagogical approaches that can investigate a particular phenomenon within its real-life context. The findings of these theoretically-driven case studies can hopefully provide guidance for future pedagogical iterations of the model that can be applied within more generalizable positivist, experimental designs.

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