The Virginia Journal

VAHPERD

Virginia Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance

SPRING 2012 Vol. 33, No. 1

Photo courtesy of Dr. Anna DeVito, Radford University

VAHPERD Members,

It is my pleasure to serve as the editor of The Virginia Journal (TVJ) and Communicator. Enclosed you will find the Spring 2012 issue. I hope to continue the successful publications of TVJ and Communicator.

However, the success of TVJ and the Communicator only go as far as the members and our submissions. I ask that you continue to submit the quality work you have in the past. Let the state, region and nation know the outstanding work we are doing in VAHPERD. So this is my continued call for manuscripts for the Fall 2012 issue of TVJ and news information for the Communicator. The TVJ and Communicator depend on the submissions from our exceptional professionals working in the field.

So please continue to e-mail me your manuscripts and news by July 15, 2012 as a Word attachment for the two publications. Please follow the manuscript guidelines posted in each issue of TVJ. My contact information is below.

Sincerely,

Michael Moore, PhD, ATC
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Clinical Coordinator, ATEP
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About VAHPERD

Mission Statement

VAHPERD is a professional association of educators that advocate quality programs in health, physical education, recreation, dance and sport. The association seeks to facilitate the professional growth and educational practices and legislation that will impact the profession.

VAHPERD Values

- Excellence in teaching, research and educational practices in HPERD and related professions
- Positive efforts to promote our disciplines
- Professional integrity and high ethical standards
- Effective communication within and between members and related professionals
- An active and healthy lifestyle
- Embracing the role of special and diverse populations

VAHPERD Priorities

Member Services
Communication
Marketing and Promotion
Education

Visit VAHPERD's Web Site

www.vahperd.org

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President's Message

Charlotte Kelso

VAHPERD is 75 years old this year!!!!

Please come and celebrate the 75th anniversary of our state association in Roanoke, VA November 9-11, 2012. This will be a BIG celebration and we want each and every one of you to attend.

This past year has been filled with great moments for our association and for some of our outstanding members. We have the following award winners at the state (VA) and southern district (SD) level(s); and some will be competing on the national level in Boston at the AAHPERD. Here they are:

Michelle Henry – VA/SD
Cindy Ferek – VA/SD/AAHPERD
Michelle Semko – VA
Anne McCoy -VA
Carol Jay - VA
Janet Kennedy – VA/SD
Susan Miller -- VA
Susan McAuliffe -- VA
Sheila Jones -- VA
Don Pate -- VA
Judy Clark – SD

Congratulations to Cindy Ferek the new High School Teacher of the Year. Even though the AAHERD Convention was cancelled they announced the winners at the awards dinner. WE are proud of our TOY. I look for more great teachers to be submitted for awards. Get the names in as soon as possible to Lynne Bennett.

We are well represented and I want to see every award filled this year for our big celebration. The convention theme is 'Share the Passion, Elevate the Profession". Bring your passion and share the great things we do all over the state of Virginia and beyond.

VAHPERD was well represented at the Southern District convention in presentations, as well as on the board of directors for SDAAHPERD. I encourage all of you to brag about what you do in the classroom and share that with your colleagues every where. I challenge each of you to bring someone new to the convention.

As you know we are in the process of updating our governing documents so we can become independent from AAHPERD's tax filing code. When this process is complete we will be moving forward for our membership and all programs we support throughout the year.

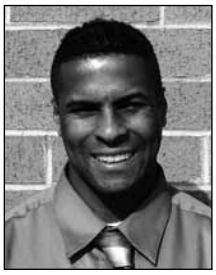
As this is my final year as president, I want to thank all of you that have presented, served on the board, and continue to make VAHPERD the diamond of Southern District and AAHPERD. Without you sharing and keeping our youth active and physically educated, VAHPERD would not be the great association that it is.

I look forward to seeing you in November and remember to bring your colleague and a new member. Show them what they have been missing. Safe travels for the summer and see you in November in Roanoke.

Charlotte Kelso
VAHPERD President
"Share the Passion, Elevate the Profession"

President-Elect's Messsage

Rodney Gaines



I first would like to thank you for giving me the opportunity to serve you as the next president of VAHPERD in year 2013. I am humbled and thrilled at the same time, and my mission is to meet all the needs of every member in our association. I will remain loyal to my message given before I was elected, and that message focused on bridging the gap in areas that may be slowing our successful journey down. I stated that we need to bridge the gap between the board and the members by having more effective communication of meetings and minutes to membership. We need to bridge the gap between VAHPERD and other affiliations in the state of Virginia. We need to bridge the gap between VAHPERD and the many communities, meaning that we need to impact the communities that we are having conferences with community service and activities for that weekend. We also need to bridge the gap among members of the representative assembly, executive director, and the board of directors. It will take some time to accomplish this mission, but I am up for the charge. It is now the time to lay the foundation that will empower future teachers and students in Virginia.

Currently, I am spending a great amount of time early on to learn the profession, and what my responsibilities are as the President-elect. I have been reading the operating codes of all positions in VAHPERD, so I have a thorough understanding of each person's role in the organization. I have already begun to visualize the conference in November of 2013, but of course I will support the current board in whatever we need to be successful in Roanoke this fall 2012. In January I will be attending the leadership conference for VAHPERD Board members, and in the month of February I plan on attending the Southern district conference in Orlando, Florida. In March I plan on attending the AAHPERD conference, and gather as many ideas as possible for our conference. In early summer I plan to attend the President-Elect meeting in Wisconsin.

A tentative theme for 2013 is "**Learn** the profession, **Live** the profession, and **Love** the profession equates to **Leading** the profession." As we journey forward I ask that you join me in learning everything about VAHPERD/AAHPERD. I believe in every one of you, and every member of VAHPERD has leadership qualities. You are already leading your students, families, student-athletes, etc. Leaders are readers! I ask that you read the journals of VAHPERD, and I ask that you peruse the website so that you have a full understanding of operations. Ask us questions and seriously get involved by serving on chair positions and committee positions. Second, in order to live the profession I ask that you make this the year that you get involved with VAHPERD by presenting, co-presenting, or volunteering at the state conference or some of the mini-conferences going on around the Commonwealth of Virginia. Third, In order to love the profession, you have to love the students and athletes you are leading. You and I both must incorporate a high level of respect for our students, and pour our hearts and wisdom into their souls. Also, in order to love the profession we must love those we serve with in the workplace and in board positions. We must love our family first and foremost, and also love our leaders. Having learned, lived, and loved the profession; this model will definitely propel you to lead the profession. My number one theme is to increase leadership development with all VAPHERD membership including myself.

Executive Director's Messsage

Henry Castelvecchi

Membership

Membership is down slightly. The promotion of 75th anniversary convention in November and renewal being notices sent out we should be near 1600 by convention.

Type	May 2009	April 2010	April 2011	March 2012
Students	209	269	288	295
Jump or Hoops Coordinator	590	667	689	644
Professional	675	457	471	431
Retired	15	8	14	5
Life	134	145	147	158
Library		4	3	3
Total	1623	1550	1612	1536

Investments

The investments are holding steady from last year at this time. The total below reflects the $20,000 withdraw from the investments approved by the board to cover the budget for this year. We will continue to work with Smith Barney to make sure our investments stay in line with our investment policy.

Type	March 2009	April 2010	March 2011	February 2012
Short term	$74,411.87	$76,079.45	$67,497.94	$ 48,067.11
Investments	$354,725.49	$526,083.39	$582.522.30	$585,821.56
Frances Mays	$6,170.77	$6,592.60	$6726.73	$6,776.03
AIAW	$28,531.31	$29,411.65	$31,001.82	$31,446.67
	$463,839.44	**$638,167.09**	**$687,748.79**	**$672,111.37**

Self-Supervision: A "Help Yourself" Approach to Better Teaching and Increased Student Learning

Steve Shelton, M.S., Physical Education Specialist, Christiansburg Elementary School, Christiansburg, VA
Andrew H. Hawkins, Ph.D., Professor, College of Physical Activity and Sport Sciences, West Virginia University, Morgantown, WV

Abstract

Examples abound in both the topical literature and research findings of the link between critical components of effective teaching and student learning in physical education. Intentional and systematic supervision of physical educators represent one means of analyzing the presence and rate of effective teaching skills and how student achievement is influenced. Thus, key student and teacher behaviors believed to have a relationship with student success were identified and monitored via a systematic self-directed supervision process. This article describes how a self-supervision strategy was used by a veteran elementary physical education teacher to document instructional patterns and their effect on student learning. A supervisory report on three individual lessons detailing instructional effectiveness changes across the lessons was generated. A narrative was developed to describe if student learning was adequate or not, data were examined to support this justification, and improvement goals were listed for each subsequent lesson. This exercise of self-reflection and evaluation was accomplished by using a comprehensive, systematic observation protocol known as the West Virginia University Teaching Evaluation System (WVUTES).

Supervision in physical education has been defined as a specialized form of feedback given to a practicing teacher that is systematic and intentional with the purpose of developing, improving, and maintaining instructional effectiveness (Metzler, 1990; R. L. Wiegand, personal communication, January 20, 2010). This feedback is strategic information provided after a teaching episode and communicated individually to teachers taking into account the specific stage of a teacher's development, current skill level, and work context. Ideally, supervisors monitor practicing teachers using systematic observation techniques, compile objective data on performance, and give feedback to assist teachers with an increase in their instructional effectiveness (Metzler, 1990).

Unfortunately, supervision techniques in physical education appear to suffer from many of the same deficiencies experienced in other areas of education. Metzler (1990) stated "supervision has failed to look upon itself as a teaching process, one in which the supervisor helps the teacher learn the many complex tasks, skills, and decisions necessary for effective instruction in schools" (p. 7). Inadequacies within physical education supervision are complicated by the fact that few supervisors have experience teaching in public schools, have no specialized training in the area of supervision, and are assigned a myriad of professional duties that may limit their ability to deliver appropriate supervision on a regular basis (Metzler, 1990).

Mosher and Purpel (1972) described the condition of traditional measurement strategies by reporting "the inescapable conclusion to be drawn from any review of the literature is that there is virtually no research suggesting that supervision of teaching, however defined or undertaken, makes any difference" (p. 50). Despite the acknowledged importance of effective supervision, Metzler (1990) concluded "supervision suffers from inadequate conceptualizations of what it is about, who should conduct it, and where it should happen" (p. 12).

In some instances supervision isn't simply missing the target, it is missing entirely. Many elementary physical educators are often the only teacher at their assigned schools teaching their specialized subject matter. This isolation from colleagues who are conversant with the planning, content development, and pedagogy specific to physical education often leaves physical educators without a peer or supervisor to provide essential feedback.

Often the only feedback provided to teachers comes after the use of traditional supervisory methods such as checklists and rating scales and their associated rubrics. Although these techniques can assist teachers in becoming more aware of certain aspects of their teaching not specific to systematic assessment such as enthusiasm and decision-making, these conventional systems should be used in a limited fashion to supplement systematic observations (Metzler, 1990).

When appropriate and frequent supervision do occur, the teacher's current stage of development is a critical component in considering the appropriate supervision techniques to be used. Metzler (1990) reported that "supervision faces its most difficult task in trying to help experienced teachers improve their instruction. Experienced teachers are likely to have deeply ingrained instructional patterns and sometimes little incentive for working on new teaching skills" (p. 20).

He continued by suggesting "peer supervision and self-supervision are the most viable instructional improvement strategies for veteran teachers" (Metzler, 1990, p. 20). Similarly, Cusimano, Darst and van der Mars (1993) reported "perhaps the most useful evaluation is self-evaluation because the more involved you are in the process, the more aware you become of behaviors you might want to modify" (p. 27).

Rink (2010) noted the significance of treating systematic observation as a process and acknowledged the importance of collecting accurate and reliable data by following several critical steps:

1.) Decide what to look for.
2.) Choose an appropriate observational method.
3.) Learn to use the observational method in an accurate manner.
4.) Collect data.
5.) Analyze and interpret the meaning of the data.
6.) Make changes to the instructional process.

7.) Monitor changes in instruction over time.

Deciding what to look for

A critical priority of successful supervision should be the acquisition and enhancement of effective teaching skills (Metzler, 1990). Rink and Hall (2008) reported "teaching must be effective if children are to acquire the skills to lead a physically active lifestyle" (p. 207). The authors noted key characteristics of effective elementary physical education programs which help define successful lessons. These characteristics included content development, management techniques, communication, teacher feedback, and time engagement with content.

Management of student practice time is a critical variable associated with student learning (Hawkins, 2009). Academic Learning Time – Physical Education (ALT-PE) is the amount of time in which students are engaged with motor activities related to lesson objectives at an appropriate level of difficulty and at a high rate of success (Siedentop, Tousignant, & Parker, 1982). In fact, time engagement in subject-matter content is reported to be "the single most critical variable related to whether or not students learn in physical education" (Rink & Hall, 2008, p. 212). Because successful participation in motor activities is highly associated with skill acquisition (Hawkins, 2009), allocating a maximum amount of class time for student involvement in these actions is vital for program effectiveness.

In the interest of objectivity, limitations associated with the use of ALT-PE should be noted. ALT-PE estimates the frequency and duration of target behaviors and is an approximation of student learning rather than an actual determinate of achievement. Because ALT-PE uses interval recording the events that are documented are only sampled from actions occurring in real time.

Additionally, Parker (1982) reported that ALT-PE is not a solid indicator of practice quality, not always sensitive to lesson goals, and does not describe precisely what students are doing during various activities. For example, within a single lesson a unit of ALT-PE could represent a student dribbling a basketball or guarding a classmate with success.

Despite its limitations, ALT-PE remains a useful tool for determining how often students are engaged with motor-related subject matter during a physical education lesson and is "presently the best estimation of student learning in physical education" (R. L. Wiegand, personal communication, March 2, 2010). Thus, for the purposes of the self-supervision narrative that follows, ALT-PE units were coded and referred to as *motor appropriate* behavior.

The presence and rate of additional teacher and student behaviors believed to have a corresponding relationship with student achievement have also been identified as important by experts and were noted during this evaluation project. Teacher behaviors that enhance learning opportunities such as low durations of *verbal instruction* and *management* time and high rates of *feedback* are preferred.

Low percentages of instructional time may well point to the effective use of brief instructional episodes interspersed with motor response opportunities (Hawkins, Wiegand, & Landin, 1985). The use of management systems that promote students to self-manage allows the teacher to act primarily in the preferred instructional role of teaching rather than managing student behavior (Hawkins et al., 1985). High rates of feedback are "essential because a student needs to know if the performance was correct or where improvements are needed" (Hawkins et al., 1985, p. 248) and characteristic of a teacher who is actively teaching students in close proximity.

Conversely, student behaviors that do not promote learning, such as *off-task*, *waiting*, and *motor inappropriate* (tasks too difficult or too easy) should be minimized. High totals of these data profiles likely result from planning errors, instructional system deficiencies, and ineffective management strategies (Hawkins et al., 1985). In addition, key teaching sequences such as *verbal instruction + specific observation + corrective feedback* should occur at high rates (R. L. Wiegand, personal communication, March 14, 2010).

The number of key teacher and student behaviors to be observed should be manageable. Metzler (1990) advocated for a reasonable approach to self-supervision by stating "teachers probably cannot provide themselves with the full range of supervisory functions, but they can achieve noticeable results on a limited set of teaching skills" (p. 40). Consequently, for this project, the teacher decided to devote particular attention to the following teacher and student behavior categories: (1) *verbal instruction*, (2) *management*, (3) *feedback*, (4) *motor appropriate*, (5) *waiting*, (6) *off-task*, and (7) *motor inappropriate*.

Choosing an appropriate observational method

Accomplishing this important step requires the use of an observation system designed specifically for physical educators that explicitly defines teacher and student behaviors typically observed in physical education class. One such method, The West Virginia University Teaching Evaluation System (WVUTES), was designed to enable researchers and practitioners to evaluate the teaching-learning environment by studying the actual behavior of students and teachers. It was meant to overcome the limitations of high-inference approaches to instructional evaluations like rating scales whose data have no direct reference to actual behavioral events. WVUTES, on the other hand, generates data which derive directly from events occurring in real time.

There are two parts to WVUTES, a student behavior system and a teacher behavior system. The student behavior system was drawn directly from the ALT-PE system (Siedentop et al., 1982). The original ALT-PE system was a multi-layer category system which included a context level and a learner involvement level. WVUTES adopted only the learner involvement level. The teacher behavior system was developed by WVU faculty by watching numerous lessons and following a typical process for developing behavior analytic category systems. First, narrative recordings (i.e., verbal descriptions of all teacher behaviors) were made of the lessons. Next, behaviors were grouped by common function (e.g., disparate teacher behaviors, like high-fives, verbal praise, and thumbs-up, following appropriate student behaviors in which the teacher appeared to want the behavior to continue were grouped together as *positive feedback*). Then the categories were field tested and modified to make sure every teacher behavior would be included in some category, and that a reasonable number of categories were retained. The result was

an eight behavior student category system (the eight learner involvement categories in the ALT-PE system) and an 11 behavior teacher category system.

WVUTES is a category system which has the characteristics of being both comprehensive and mutually exclusive. Comprehensive means that every student behavior must be coded within one of the eight student behavior categories, and that every teacher behavior must be coded into one of the 11 teacher behavior categories. In other words, there is no "other" category for either student or teacher behavior. Mutually exclusive means that each behavior can only be coded into one category, and that there is no overlap between categories. Mutual exclusivity was not a problem with the student categories; however, with the teacher categories it was necessary to prioritize certain behaviors when they occurred simultaneously. For example, it is possible for a teacher to use verbal instruction while modeling a task. Only one of those behaviors, however, may be recorded in a mutually exclusive system. Priority was given in that case to modeling for the following reasons: a) most of the time teachers verbally instruct while they model so we can assume that a lot of verbal instruction takes place during modeling; b) if we gave verbal instruction priority, we would seldom code modeling since teachers usually verbally instruct when they model; and c) we value modeling in a movement-oriented subject matter - showing is better than telling.

The original WVUTES was designed for data collection using a research-oriented real time system by taking advantage of computers (i.e., every behavior was recorded as it occurred in real time so that both duration and frequency measures could be generated). However, it retained the flexibility for data collection by non-researchers by using more traditional methods, like interval recording. Interval recording generates an estimate of duration and frequency by sampling behaviors during an observational session. An interval recording system was used by the teacher in this self-evaluation project.

A summary of WVUTES follows in Tables 1 and 2 in which the definitions of each category are listed with examples.

Table 1. West Virginia University Teacher Evaluation System student behaviors

Student Behavior	Definition	Example
Motor Appropriate	*The student is engaged in a subject matter motor activity in such a way as to produce a high degree of success*	*Performing a folk dance correctly*
Cognitive	*The student is appropriately involved in a cognitive, subject matter task*	*Listening to a teacher explain subject matter task, watching a modeling episode*
Motor Supporting	*The student is engaged in a subject matter motor activity the purpose of which is to assist others to learn or perform the activity*	*Spotting in gymnastics, feeding balls to a hitter in tennis, throwing a volleyball to a partner who is practicing set up passing*
On Task Management	*The student is appropriately engaged in carrying out an assigned non-subject-matter task*	*Moving into squads, helping to place equipment, counting off, moving from the gym to the playing field*
Interim	*The student is engaged in a non-instructional aspect of an ongoing activity*	*Retrieving balls, fixing equipment, changing sides of a court*
Motor Inappropriate	*The student is engaged in a subject matter motor activity but the task is either too difficult for the individual's capabilities or is so easy that practicing it could not contribute to lesson goals*	*Attempting a cartwheel but unable to get feet anywhere near over hands*
Off Task	*The student is either not engaged in an activity in which he or she should be engaged, or is engaged in an activity other than the one in which he or she should be engaged*	*Behavior disruptions, talking when a teacher is explaining a skill, misusing equipment, fighting*
Waiting	*The student has completed a task and is awaiting the next instructions or to respond*	*Waiting in line for a turn, waiting for the next teacher direction*

Hawkins, A. & Wiegand, R. (1989)

Table 2. West Virginia University Teacher Evaluation System teacher behaviors

Table 2. West Virginia University Teacher Evaluation System teacher behaviors

Teacher Behavior	Definition	Example
General Observation	*The teacher is watching student groups or individuals engaged in any category of student behavior. The teacher must not be engaged in any other category of teacher behavior to code this category*	*Watching the whole class as they do warm up laps*
Specific Observation	*The teacher is watching one student, pairs, or small groups engaged in a subject matter task for the purpose of providing feedback related to performance. The teacher position must be proximal to the student*	*Observation of one player performing a chest pass in basketball, watching five players execute a fast break*
Verbal Instruction	*The teacher is verbally describing to the students how to do a skill, or is using a verbal prompt to direct students in attempting a skill or subject matter activity*	*Describing the boundary lines for doubles in badminton*
Modeling	*The teacher demonstrates to students how to do a subject matter task, or participates with students in a subject matter task or activity*	*Teacher dribbles a basketball himself, then says to the students, "Now try it that way."*
Physical Guidance	*The teacher physically guides a student through a subject matter task or activity*	*A physical guidance prompt or spotting, as long as there is physical contact*
Encouragement	*The teacher makes a verbal statement before the task in an attempt to enhance the student's perception of their ability to accomplish a subsequent task*	*An instructional prompt such as, "you can do it," or "if you did it last time you can surely do it this way."*
Positive Feedback	*The teacher makes a positive verbal statement or gesture following an appropriate student behavior (skill or organizational) clearly designed to increase or maintain such responses in the future*	*After student successfully completes a high jump, the teacher says, "That time your speed of approach was much better."*
Corrective Feedback	*The teacher makes a negative or critical verbal statement or gesture following an inappropriate student behavior (skill or organizational) clearly designed to decrease such responses in the future*	*Teacher tells a student, "The next time you have a fast break make sure you cut to the basket when you get to the foul line."*
Management	*The teacher is engaged in carrying out a non-subject-matter task and may be directing students verbally in a management task*	*Setting up equipment, taking roll, collecting papers, explaining station rotations*
Off-Task	*The teacher is not paying attention to what are clearly his or her responsibilities regarding the class at hand*	*Teacher is making notes on what to do during football practice*
Non-Task Verbal	*The teacher talks to students about non-subject matter and non-managerial subjects*	*Commenting on student's clothing or talking about what one student did over the weekend*

Learning to use the observational method in an accurate manner

Inaccurate data collection by the observer may incorrectly identify behaviors in need of being changed and produce invalid

results. This can be avoided by observers who clearly understand which behaviors to observe, the definitions of those behaviors, and how to record them correctly. Lacy and Hastad (2007) noted that "usually, problems in establishing reliability in systematic observation can be traced to vague or unclear definitions of the behaviors being observed" (p. 386). The WVUTES observational system minimizes this concern by providing understandable behavior definitions and examples.

The teacher in this evaluation project was recently instructed on the proper use of the WVUTES observation system during requisite coursework as a student at West Virginia University (WVU). Since the summer of 2002 the College of Physical Activity and Sport Sciences at WVU has offered a Master's of Science degree in Physical Education Teacher Education. This hybrid model combining online and classroom-based components was specifically designed for practicing teachers. It includes 12 three-credit classes, and introduces students to systematic observations during the course, *PET 685 Supervision Techniques in Physical Education*. (For a thorough program description and assessment that quantified program graduates' perceptions of all courses, produced feedback on the blended learning experience, evaluated effectiveness in achieving faculty goals, and identified needed program revisions, see Ramsey, Hawkins, Housner, Wiegand, & Bulger, 2009.)

Because the teacher was working without help, intraobserver agreement (IOA) procedures were used to determine an acceptable percentage of agreement between the initial and final viewings of each teaching episode. Van der Mars (1989) reported "*intraobserver agreement* refers to the situation in which one observer makes an observation of the events on one day and then comes back at a later point in time to observe the same events" (p. 54). The time period between the two observation sessions was one week and the record of the first observation was not accessed during the second observation (van der Mars, 1989).

Rink (2010) suggested "for purposes of self improvement, the reliability of the tools teachers use should be at least 70 percent" (p. 316). However, the teacher decided to set an IOA goal of 80 percent, a level of agreement considered necessary by experts for self-evaluation purposes (Siedentop & Tannehill, 2000) and calculated reliability as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Agreements}}{\text{Agreements + Disagreement}} \times 100 = \%\text{ of IOA}$$

Because interval recording was the selected observation method, the IOA is "based on agreements and disagreements of how many intervals are coded for the defined behavior categories" (Lacy & Hastad, 2007, p. 387).

Collecting the data

Throughout the month of October, data collection on three individual lessons occurred during a four-week floor hockey unit. The data were collected on the teacher and his class of 22 fifth grade students who were video recorded during all three teaching episodes.

Each lesson was video recorded from an elevated angle which allowed the teacher to view every part of the gymnasium. The first two lessons were video recorded nine days apart, while twelve days elapsed between the second and third lessons. The time between taping sessions provided the teacher with the opportunity to view each lesson, establish acceptable IOA percentages with a second viewing one week later, analyze data, and set improvement goals for each ensuing lesson.

While reviewing each teaching session, the teacher used a five-second observe/record protocol and a coding form designed specifically for this self-evaluation. Student behavior was coded during the first two-minute segment totaling 24 five-second intervals. During the subsequent two-minute segment, teacher behavior was recorded in an identical manner. Each time student behavior was coded a different student was selected by alternating between a high, medium, and low ability student as determined by the teacher. Altogether, 192 intervals were recorded for student behavior while 168 intervals were recorded for teacher behavior during each 30-minute lesson.

During the screening of each teaching episode, the teacher paused playback at five-second intervals using a timer visible on a computer monitor and recorded each behavior. Although time consuming, the teacher viewed this procedure as best practice to ensure consistency of recordings. IOA percentages substantiate the utilization of this approach as results of reliability checks ranged from 75 to 88% in all behavior categories across all three lessons.

Interestingly, unforeseen patterns of recording disagreements emerged during reliability checks. For example, the difference between *general observation* and *specific observation* was problematic at times. The precise distance between teacher and student that constituted a "proximal" position was questioned when the teacher appeared to be relatively close to a student and was looking in their general direction during subject-matter tasks. On several occasions, deciding between *cognitive* and *off-task* was difficult to resolve and resulted in minor recording disagreements. For instance, a student appeared to be looking at the teacher, however, whether or not they were actually engaged in the learning process was difficult to ultimately determine (i.e., was the student listening to the teacher but looking away momentarily or merely daydreaming?).

During periods of active participation, the coding of *motor appropriate* or *motor inappropriate* behavior was not always easy to determine (i.e., a student passed a ball to a teammate with proper mechanics but the pass was moderately difficult to receive because of its speed and trajectory). Even with clearly defined behaviors and examples, an observation system can still present experienced teachers with difficult decisions regarding how to accurately record authentic behavior during a lesson.

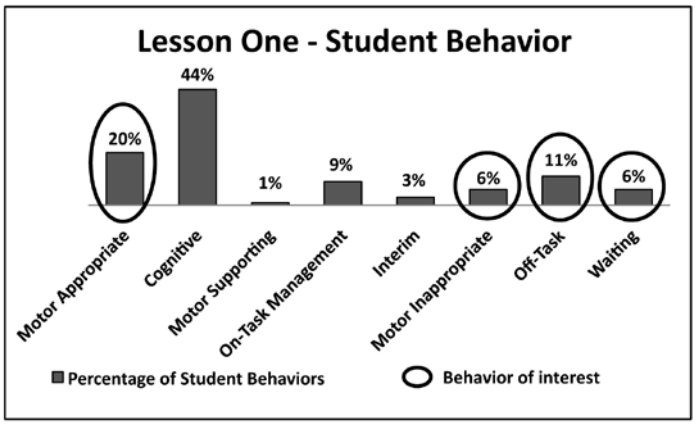
Overall, the teacher felt positive about the coding decisions and the consistency they provided to the self-evaluation process, despite such minor indeterminate "gray areas." The teacher found revisiting behavior definitions and maintaining focus on lesson goals helped settle recording discrepancies.

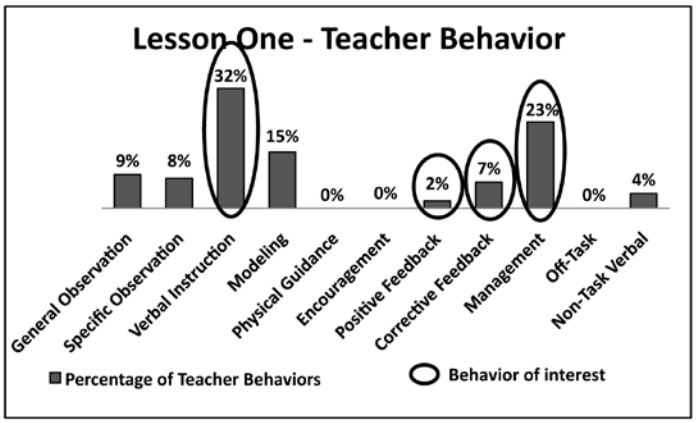
Analyzing and interpreting the data and making changes to the instructional process

The initial lesson involved an overview of game safety and an introduction to tap-dribbling and trapping skills. Students progressed through a variety of tap-dribbling tasks from beginning

levels to more advanced levels throughout the lesson. WVUTES results for the lesson are summarized below in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Completed West Virginia University Teaching Evaluation System lesson one data summary.





Data from lesson one revealed high percentages of sampled behavior were spent in *verbal instruction* and *modeling* resulting in high *cognitive* totals for students. This data summary is not uncommon for an introductory lesson at the beginning of a unit during the initial months of the school year. However, teaching episodes were few in frequency but occupied a significant amount of class time resulting in low *motor appropriate* totals.

Management time was higher than expected as the teacher devoted time to continue establishing a structure of rules and routines to be maintained the remainder of the school year. On several occasions, the teacher strategically placed equipment in critical areas during activity time in anticipation of upcoming transitions. The teacher managed the use of music effectively as part of the classroom attention/quiet routine but was observed nearer to the music source more often than to the students themselves.

Thus, *feedback* rates suffered, averaging just one per minute. *Corrective feedback* was provided more often than *positive feedback.* This was, in part, due to mistakes made by students while learning to manipulate equipment with long-handled implements during the first lesson placed in the unit. Additionally, a low percentage of *specific observation* indicated the teacher was not active enough when students were engaged in activities.

Waiting time was reasonably low which indicated the teacher provided enough equipment for all students and designed tasks such that students were active without using lines or taking turns. O*ff-task* behaviors were too high and generally recorded during lengthy periods of *verbal instruction* and *modeling* behavior.

Goals for the subsequent lesson were generated from these data profiles and included: (1) decrease *verbal instruction* by shortening the duration of demonstrations and instructions and reducing the use of whole-group instruction, (2) decrease *management* by designing tasks that allow students to self-manage, (3) increase *feedback* rates to three per minute by becoming more active and offering additional *positive feedback* to individual students, and (4) increase the rate of teaching sequences such as *verbal instruction + specific observation + positive feedback* or *modeling + specific observation + corrective feedback*. These critical teaching chains were observed just four times during the entire first lesson.

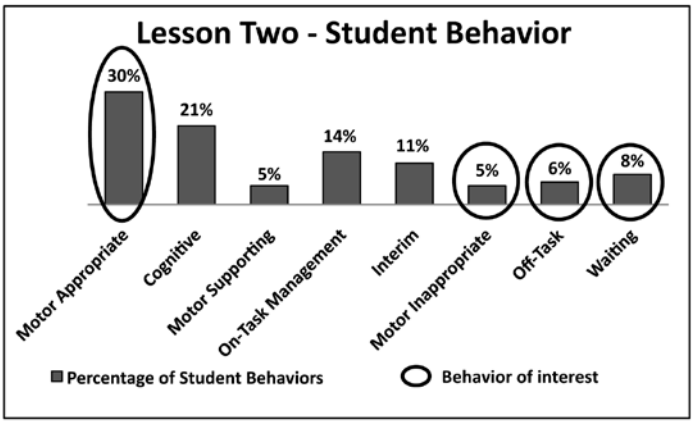
During the second teaching episode the lesson focus involved the use of student-selected tap-dribbling tasks from a checklist located on the classroom whiteboard. Then, students played a game using *safe space* (Housner, 2001). This spacing design separated offensive and defensive players on the court using lines and allowed players to handle the ball without being confronted by an opposing player (Griffey & Housner, 2007).

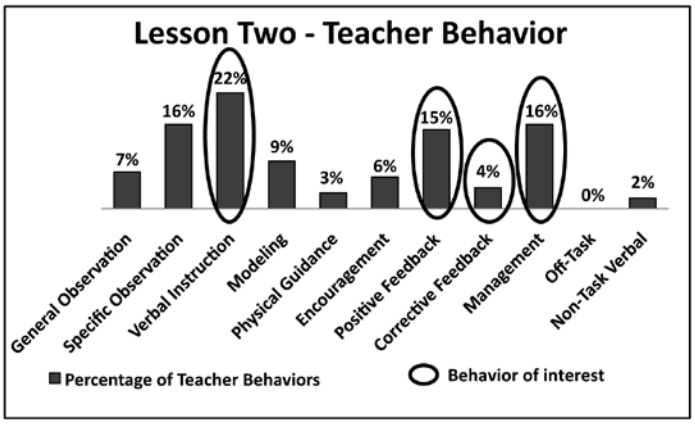
The employment of additional small group and individualized instruction and shorter teaching episodes increased opportunities for motor responses and reduced the amount of time spent in *verbal instruction* and *modeling*. Lower instructional time decreased *cognitive* behavior and influenced *motor appropriate* behavior positively.

Allowing students to select tasks influenced the attainment of goals set following the first lesson. *Management* behavior decreased from 23 to 16% and *motor appropriate* increased from 20 to 30%. Providing students access to a visual, task-related checklist freed the teacher to increase *feedback* behavior and reduce *verbal instruction*. *Positive feedback* increased noticeably from 2 to 15% between lessons and the rate of *feedback* was two and a half per minute for the lesson.

Data from both lessons revealed *motor inappropriate* behavior to be minimal. Possible reasons for such a desired outcome included: effective planning, use of understandable verbal instructions, and task difficulty that matched student ability levels. WVUTES data is reviewed below in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Completed West Virginia University Teaching Evaluation System lesson two data summary.





Using evidence from the previous two lessons, goals were formed to promote sought after behavior changes during the final session which included: (1) increase *motor appropriate* percentages to 40% or greater by designing and implementing station activities, (2) decrease *waiting* time, (3) decrease *verbal instruction* by introducing additional task-oriented activities in which students read posted directions, (4) decrease *management* by using a timer that cues when to rotate to the next station promoting greater self-management responsibility for students, and (5) increase *positive feedback* rates to greater than three per minute.

During the final lesson, the teacher planned a variety of floor hockey activities at various stations (see Figure 3 for a description of station activities). Following a brief set induction, students were divided equally among station areas and activity began. Visual prompts were employed at each station allowing students to read activity directions and seek teacher assistance on an individual basis as needed. Students self-managed their rotation schedule by relying on the cue of a timer that sounded at preset intervals.

The students were actively involved in subject-matter content at activity stations that provided visual, task-oriented activities, including the use of a reciprocal task sheet at station four. Written directions were thorough enough to promote task understanding yet concise enough to avoid excessive use of activity time for interpretation. *Motor appropriate* and *cognitive* totals, which represented total learning time, totaled 65% of student behavior.

Motor supporting behavior was higher than in prior lessons and particularly evident during the "shots on goal" station. This activity required goaltenders to frequently return the ball to a partner so consecutive shots could be taken. The teacher noted instances of *interim* behavior at this station due to several inconsistent shots which required students to retrieve "lost" balls.

Waiting and *off-task* behaviors were minimal. The task experiences appeared to be perceived as interesting to all students. Inherent feedback (i.e., the sound of a shot hitting the goal) and the use of goal orientations such as accuracy ("Count how many cones you can dribble between as you travel"), have been regarded as essential in creating and maintaining student attention during learning experiences (Housner, 2001) and contributed to this desirable data profile.

Verbal instruction was at its lowest level during the evaluation project due to the effective use of the aforementioned station format during the seventh lesson placed late in the unit. *Management* time was recorded at just 9% and generally associated with

Figure 3. Lesson three station activiy descriptions.

Station #1
Shots on Goal
Take 3 shots on goal against your partner from the blue line then switch positions and continue. Get started quickly!

"Things to look for"
1. Slight backswing.
2. Contact the ball or puck with strong force.
3. Low follow-through.

Station #2
Tap-Dribbling Checklist
Perform each task for **(5x2) – 8** minutes. Select your favorite task again if you have extra time.

1. ✖ Count how many taps on the ball as you travel.
2. ✖ Count how many poly spots you touch as you travel.
3. ✖ Count how many cones you can dribble between as you travel.

Station #3
Partner Passing Checklist
Watch the timer and perform each task for two minutes. Select your favorite task again if you have extra time.

1. ✖ Count how many times you and your partner pass and receive the ball successfully using the red lines (20 feet apart).
2. ✖ Count how many times you and your partner pass and receive the puck successfully using the blue lines (40 feet apart).

Station #4
Grade your Partner
Use the task sheet to grade your partner as they tap-dribble across the room. When your partner returns, switch jobs and continue.

"Things to look for"

	Very Good	Needs More Work
1. Keeps ball "within reach."	✖	
2. Eyes are up looking for open space.		✖
3. Uses both sides of the blade.	✖	

the teacher explaining station rotations and collecting reciprocal task sheets during the lesson. The use of a timer cueing activity rotation allowed students to self-manage with minimal assistance from the teacher.

Feedback rates increased to nearly four per minute. *Positive feedback* was provided often and immediately following instances of *specific observation* during well-delivered teaching sequences. The lesson design allowed the teacher to move freely among all students to provide motivational comments intended to increase or maintain appropriate student behavior. The teacher was observed interacting with each student and using first names more often than during prior lessons.

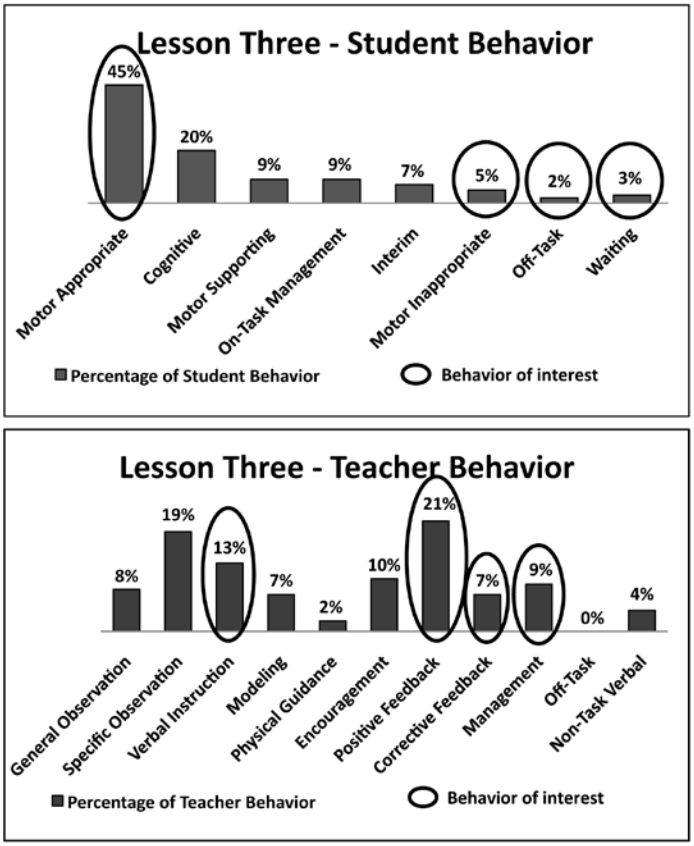
These data profiles indicated the lesson was well-designed and goals were met with success. Overall, progress was made in a majority of behavior categories targeted for improvement. A summary of WVUTES data follows in Figure 4.

Monitoring changes in instruction over time

The three lessons analyzed in this article represented only 4% of total allocated time in physical education across an entire school year for the target class. This self-evaluation project was conducted during one unit of instruction to objectively document a small sample of critical teacher and student behaviors believed to be related to student achievement. Additionally, the project was designed to assist the teacher in becoming more aware of behaviors in need of being modified using an observation system that provided feedback strategies making change achievable.

This exercise in self-reflection indicated the teacher designed and delivered quality instruction. Necessary changes were identified, appropriate strategies were employed, and more effective

Figure 4. Completed West Virginia University Teaching Evaluation System lesson three data summary.



teacher behavior occurred. Student learning was present and increased throughout the brief project period which was evidenced by accurate systematic data collection and analysis. However, additional work is necessary to make substantive changes in instructional patterns that become long-lasting. Perhaps this project may be used to create a blueprint for further self-evaluation by the teacher.

Supervision has its greatest chance to support physical educators when it is both systematic and ongoing. By using techniques that focus on relevant teacher and student processes, the teacher became more involved in the documentation of his own instructional patterns allowing his students to be the ultimate beneficiaries of improved teaching. Therefore, the use the West Virginia University Teaching Evaluation System is recognized here as a vital tool that assisted the teacher in achieving this end.

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Health Education Alert: Overcoming Cyberbullying

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Introduction

Cyberbullying has become one of the largest threats that school-aged children in America are confronted with on a daily basis (Siegle, 2010). This threat has contributed to an increase in depression, anxiety, and suicide among this population group (Yilmaz, 2010). Cyberbullying is a relatively new form of bullying that has taken over in the last decade. Schools all over the United States have reported a significant increase in cyberbullying (Yilmaz, 2010). Since this is a new form of bullying many educators are unprepared and do not know the signs of cyberbullying. Through this presentation teachers and administrators will learn what cyberbullying is, how large the problem has grown, the influences and results of it, and effective intervention strategies.

What is Cyberbullying

Brown & Demaray (2009) define cyberbullying as, "An instance when an individual picks on another person through e-mail or text messages or when someone posts a comment online about another person that they don't like" (p. 19). The popularity of technology has grown and has had a direct impact on cyberbullying. As a result of its popularity individuals have multiple methods in which to bully someone without having to be face to face. Since technology is so accessible cyberbullying has become one of the most prevalent forms of harassment among students in Grades 6, 7, & 8 (Chibbaro, 2007). However, cyberbullying is not just an issue among the adolescent population it also effects the adult population as well.

Cyberbullying can occur in a variety of different places through the use of technology. It has been reported in e-mails, instant messages, social network sites, chat rooms, and cell phones (Feinberg & Robey, 2009). Bullies use these technological tools to harass and bully their victims. Research has shown that, "Students demonstrate more violent behaviors online since it is not face to face" (Yilmaz, 2010, p. 264). Since there is an increase in violent behavior the severity of the bullying intensifies and a more severe impact on the victims results (Yilmaz, 2010). Typically students who maintain a high level of online time are more likely to feel alone and therefore become online prey (Siegle, 2010). This is why it is important that parents monitor their children and their online interactions.

Since there are several methods in which an individual can be cyberbullied six key terms have been created to describe the varying types. The six types include flaming, harassment, denigration, impersonation, trickery, and exclusion (Feinberg & Robey, 2009). These six terms provide a broad explanation of the various categories of cyberbullying and show how hurtful it can be. Flaming for example means to have an online fight using text messages (Feinberg & Robey, 2009). Harassment is when an individual sends an insulting or mean message (Siegle, 2010). Feinberg & Robey (2009) stated, "Denigration is sending or posting gossip about a person in order to ruin their reputation" (p.23). Impersonation is when an individual pretends to be someone else in order to get that person in trouble (Siegle, 2010). Trickery is defined as tricking someone to reveal sensitive information and then forwarding it to others (Feinberg & Robey, 2009). Exclusion is when groups intentionally exclude a person from their group (Siegle, 2010). Through hurtful posts on instant messaging an individual can bully someone and severely impact their mental and emotional health. All of the cyberbulling techniques have their own way of mentally harming a victim. Whether it is from hijacking an email account to tricking a person to send personal information the victims become severely hurt, which results in emotional scarring.

Influences and Results of Cyberbullying

Cyberbullying Statistics

"In 2006, more than 13 million children ages 6–17 were victims of cyberbullying" (Feinberg & Robey, 2009, p. 22). As cyberbullying becomes a larger issue within the United States research has shown that it is a contributing factor in decreasing student self-esteem (Patchin & Hinduja, 2010). During the past six months 28% of students 12- 18 years old were bullied at school (Patchin, 2010). As cyberbullying continues to rise, additional issues among the adolescent population increase as well. Cyberbullying has caused teenage depression and suicide rates to significantly increase (Wyrick, 2011). This has contributed to making suicide the third leading cause of death among 15-24 year olds (Wyrick, 2011). Statistical data has shown errors in the methods of dealing with cyberbullying (Willard, 2007). With 75% of 15-24 year olds believing cyberbullying is a serious problem many are forced to reassess their approaches on intervention (Siegle, 2010).

Impact of Cyberbullying on Adolescents: Low Self-Esteem/Depression

"Victims of bullying tend to have lower self-esteem and depression" (Patchin & Hinduja, 2010, p. 616). These are typically preceding factors to a new term called bullycide. Bullycide refers to an individual who chooses to commit suicide as a result of being bullied. As an individual is constantly demeaned and picked on their sense of self-worth diminishes. Most individuals who are bullied are afraid to communicate their problems with others, which complicates the issue. Research has shown that fewer than 50% of kids tell an adult about being cyberbullied (Haber & Daley, 2011). This lack of reporting provides bullies with the ability to continue tormenting their victims. As the bullying continues the victim's depression and low self-esteem worsen and they begin to seclude themselves from others. "Only 30% of respondents who knew that someone was being cyberbullied said that they would inform an adult" (Jones, Manstead, & Livingstone, 2011, p. 72). As a result of this low statistic it is imperative that educators are able to notice the warning signs and be proactive in intervening. Without an increase in interventions bullycide will continue to be a growing statistic in the United States.

Bullycide

Although bullycide is a relatively new term it is a major problem within the United States. There have been several reported cases of bullycide over the past decade. Bullycide victims have ranged from adolescents to adults. Bullying has grown to be a massive problem that accounts for half of the teenage suicide rate (Wyrick, 2011). There are several factors that contribute to an individual choosing to take their life as a result of some form of bullying. These factors include physical, mental and emotional forms of bullying (Alward, 2011). As more victims choose to take their lives leaders need to take a stand and do something to make a difference.

Cases of Bullycide and Resulting Laws

In response to the increase in adolescent suicides due to bullying several states have enacted anti-bullying laws. These laws were created in order to protect adolescents and adults from being bullied to the point of suicide. The creation of these laws is the first step in helping to decrease cyberbullying. Many of these state mandated anti-bullying laws were direct results of bullycide court cases. There have been several nationally publicized bullycide cases where a victim was mentally bullied and as a result killed themselves. Some well-known bullycide cases include, *Commonwealth of Massachusetts v Ashley Longe, United States v Lori Drew, State of New Jersey v Dharun Ravi* (Alexander & Alexander, 2012). The victims in these cases were not only adolescents but also adults. The ages of the victims ranged from 14-21 years old. Bullycide within schools and communities has grown to be such an immense issue that many are calling for stiffer laws and penalties against bullying.

Many states are taking a proactive look at bullying and the effects it has on students. As a result, 47 states have created and currently enforce an anti-bullying law. The three states that currently do not possess any anti-bullying laws are Michigan, Montana, and South Dakota (Bully Police USA, 2011). As bullycide becomes more prominent among adolescents and young adults several states are revising their anti-bullying laws in order to create stiffer penalties. New Jersey is one of the first states to enact a more severe punishment for an individual found guilty of bullycide. The New Jersey law was signed on January 6, 2011, and was directly influenced by the Rutgers University bullycide case. As more states are taking these proactive measures administrators and teachers need to prepare themselves so that when they are confronted with a bullying situation they are able to use intervention strategies to handle it correctly.

Intervention and Conflict Resolution Strategies

Intervention Strategies for Schools to Deal with Cyberbullying

Schools are one of the main factors in decreasing cyberbullying among adolescents. In order to provide a safe environment for their student's schools need to educate individuals about cyberbullying. Programs for teachers, parents, and students, are needed to help raise awareness and fight against cyberbullying. Several court cases have provided administrators and teachers with the tools necessary to take an intervening approach. *Tinker v. Des Moines Independent. Community School District* is one specific case that grants educators the authority to address harmful speech on and off campus that is detrimental to the school environment (Willard, 2007). Another case, *Gebser v Lago Vista Independent School District,* states, "A school district can be held liable if a school official fails to respond adequately to a known incident" (Levy, 2011, p. 65). By learning the proper steps and procedures for safely intervening a school can help decrease cyberbullying on its students.

Conflict Resolution Strategies

Numerous conflict resolution strategies can be implemented to aid in reducing cyberbullying attacks. The incorporation of these strategies by parents, teachers, and administrators can have a positive effect on reducing the number of cases of cyberbullying. Barsky (2007) stated, "When people are involved in protracted, violent conflict, peace building begins with enforced prevention of more violence" (p.262). Barsky discusses three stages of peace building which include, psychological capacity building, social capacity building, and action evaluation. Psychological capacity building refers to an individual's ability to trust and care for others. The second stage, social capacity building, involves a person's social support group. Through this support an individual can lead a more peaceful life free from bullying (Barsky, 2007). The third stage, action evaluation, pertains to a person's ability to assess, evaluate, and alter any areas that may cause problems. This evaluation allows an individual to maintain a peaceful life through taking action at eliminating unnecessary problems. Through these stages individuals can be effective at stopping cyberbullying from occurring in their schools or homes. A proactive approach by everyone is necessary so that a more significant difference can be made on decreasing cyberbullying.

Conclusion

"Seventy-four percent of 8 – 11 year old students reported that bullying occurred in their school" (Beale & Hall, 2007, p. 8). As the popularity of technology increases cyberbullying will only get worse. By educating individuals about the dangers of cyberbullying now the effects can be reduced for future generations. With only 10% of young victims of cyberbullying reaching out to their parents for help the steps that are taken to combat cyberbullying need to be proactive (Bhat, 2008). By fighting this battle now future generations of students will not have to deal with this same war that is currently raging within our nation's schools. It is up to school leaders to set the example and seek to make a difference in their schools by adopting cyberbullying intervention strategies and programs. Together we can make a difference in the lives of our nation's students as we prepare them to become the next generation of leaders in our country.

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Energizing the Elementary Physical Education Teacher Preparation Program through Integration

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For many years, Physical Educators have worked diligently to integrate core curriculum areas into their programs to support the classroom learning environment. Physical Education teachers and Elementary Classroom teachers have created environments that are mutually supportive, informative and exciting as they "marry" the curriculum from both learning environments. Can you imagine the excitement and instruction that can take place when more resources are added to the instructional team?

Several years ago, Jouett Elementary School in Louisa County began to host "Reading Fun Days." These events were held in the spring of each year and the events of the day were based on an educational theme. In order to help the theme "come to life" the Physical Education teacher would collaborate with not only the classroom teacher, but also the other resource teachers in the building. The purpose of this article is to discuss one such event and link it to current teacher preparation programs on the college and university level.

South America became the central theme for our Reading Fun Day one year. The resource teachers began to work on a collaboration that would help students understand and experience the South American culture. This activity would be the culminating event a few weeks later for the Physical Education Field Day. Each resource teacher had a role in the day's activities. The librarian read to students about the history and culture of South America; the music teacher introduced the students to the nuances of the music; the art teacher had the students make rainsticks; the physical education teacher helped the students design rhythmic activities using the rainsticks and music. The rhythmic activities were the final event for field day and a dynamic presentation was made for the teachers, parents, the community and the school division.

Building these types of learning events is a very important part of educational programming. Ideas such as these are needed for the Physical Education major and the Classroom Education major teacher preparation programs. Integrating music, movement, art, history, and culture into a lesson such as this provides the framework necessary to create the ultimate learning experience. For example, the following rainstick activity was completed at Longwood University in the "Teaching Health and Physical Education for Classroom Teachers" learning environment.

A local vendor was contacted and his carpet business was willing to donate the cardboard center dowels. These dowels were cut into 24 inch sections and holes were pre-drilled for the insertion of finishing nails. After one end was closed with packing tape, dry noodles were added to the center of the tube and the other end caped off. Students covered the dowels with construction paper and used markers to decorate the rainsticks. They were then given the opportunity to plan small group rhythm activities using their new rainsticks. To coordinate the skills learned during the semester, students were asked to use non-locomotor movements in their presentation. One Longwood student stated -*"In performing our rain stick dance routine, we were using our non-locomotor skills because we were standing in place bending, shaking and spinning our rainsticks, among other movements."* This activity allowed students the opportunity to experience and apply non-locomotor skills in a non-traditional learning venue.

In addition, this culminating event allowed the students to see the importance of community and group collaboration, as well as movement and culture in making the curriculum come to life. Students used music, art, cultural exploration and movement to foster the learning environment. After viewing a video tape of the Jouett Field Day rainstick presentation, another student noted:

> *"I learned this year that a school's faculty must be in full collaboration so the students are provided the best education. When the rain sticks project was implemented in your school, the classroom teacher, physical education teacher, art teacher, music teacher, and librarians had to mesh to make that field day possible. I thought that the video perfectly exemplified the power a school can have when the teaching staff works as one team."*

Having experienced the diversity of this educational tool, it is likely that Longwood University education students will continue to think "out of the box" in order to help students master the diversity of today's culture and curriculum. As mentioned by one of Longwood's students-

> "*When Ms. Kanary first told us that we were going to make rain sticks, our class, mainly juniors, was so excited. To think about how excited we got, it makes me smile when I think of a classroom full of students getting ten times more excited. Seeing kids smile, laugh, and have fun while they are learning essential information really reassures me that I want to be a teacher and teach them everything I can."*

The power of this lesson and other multi curriculum lessons lies in research, commitment and partnership. All participants need to review, study and evaluate the diversity of the culture highlighted by the event. This information must be presented to the students through an integrated format. Some examples include:

- Have the physical education teacher introduce physical activities from the area studied.
- Introduce local cuisine, farming practices and partner with the Child Nutrition Program for food sampling.
- Have the art teacher introduce local art and have students make artifacts from the area studied
- Have the music teacher introduce locality specific music and have students practice

- Have the science teacher discuss local climate, ecosystem, animals
- Have the librarian introduce cultural nuances, attire, local writers and lore
- Introduce geography through map study
- Bring in guest speakers that have lived or traveled to the region

*These are just some examples of ways to blend these activities into a school wide event that allows the entire school to better understand cultural diversity and worldwide awareness.

Collaboration continues to be an important job for everyone. Not only do Physical Education teachers have to continue to support and revitalize their own curriculum, they must also help the classroom teacher establish and promote the link between movement and learning. Lessons such as these highlight the learning styles of the kinesthetic, auditory, analytical and visual learner as well as bring the curriculum to life for students and educators. It is an excellent partnership that can revitalize the curriculum and reinforce educational practice in today's eclectic learning environment. By extending this type of teacher training to students in the college and university setting, we will further enhance the quality of multicultural education and diversity awareness in our local schools.

Please visit our Youtube link-Longwood University Rainsticks
http://youtu.be/516RDbcJiH8

Rainstick materials and directions:

24 inch hollow dowel (diameter may vary) with pre-drilled holes
Nails-approx. 50 per dowel
Dry noodles-approx. 3 lbs. per dowel
Packing tape
baggies
Construction paper, markers

Have students insert nails into predrilled holes, if needed, tape over holes to hold nails in place. After a baggie is taped over one end of the dowel, add beads or rocks to tube and close other end. Use construction paper or packing paper to cover dowels and have students decorate. Students may then develop rhythm activities using their rainsticks with partners or small groups.

New River Trail Walk – Explore what your community has to offer!

April Moore, MS, Dublin Elementary School, Pulaski, VA

For the first time, eighty fifth graders from Dublin Elementary School ventured on a nature hike through the New River Trail this past October. The New River trail offers over 57 miles of walking trails stretching through Grayson, Carroll, Wythe and Pulaski counties. These trails were donated by Norfolk Southern Rails to Trails program in 1986 when the rail road line was no longer in use and the rails were removed. The trail not only crosses over 30 small bridges and trestles, but 39 miles of scenic river views (Department of Conservation & Recreations). We took advantage of this wonderful recreational opportunity that is in our back yard!

For the fifth grade students of Dublin Elementary, the challenge was completing an 8.2 mile walk from Pulaski to Hiwassee. From the trail entrance at Pulaski (Xaloy), we walked four miles across several trestles while looking at beautiful views of mountains, fall colored leaves, river, rocks, etc. to our half way point in Draper. There, we enjoyed a healthy snack, and then we continued to our destination point across the large, 951 foot bridge in Hiwassee. The walk had a positive impact on our DES students. One student said, "I went back the next day and took my family." A parent that went gave the following comments "The 8 mile walk overall was a very positive experience. It was well thought out and organized. The kids were able to enjoy the company of their classmates in an outdoor setting. I was amazed at how many people (kids and adults) didn't understand the size and scope of the New River Trail. At a minimum at least it opened some eyes to some possibilities for recreational activities close to home." Another parent, "I had never been on the trail before that day. The kids had a great time playing with each other along the trail. Many kids brought their cameras and snapped pictures along the way. We discussed trees, leaves, rocks, flowers, etc., so it was even a learning environment." What a way to promote lifelong fitness with beautiful scenery, friends, and family. The trail offers an alternative to sports for fitness. It's open to walkers (wheelchair accessible), runners, biker, horseback riders, and campers. In promoting lifelong fitness activities we need to use and show our students and families what our area has to offer.

Several Physical Education SOL's can be incorporated with Personal Fitness, Physically Active Lifestyles and Community Health and Wellness along with other areas of the Curriculum. Math with the use of pedometers; Science with leaves changing colors, seasons discussions (migration of animals); History of sites along the trail, for example, in the 200 year old Shot Tower along the trail in Wythe County. In, 1807 the construction was complete after 7 years. "Here shot of varying size would be molded, sorted and shipped down river where it would be sold to hunters, traders, and merchants." In the mid 1800's the Shot Tower fell into disuse, "but was re-opened briefly during the Civil War to supply ammunition to the Confederacy." (Department of Conservation & Recreation, http://www.dcr.virginia.gov/state_parks/new.shtml)

Walking and biking can be something the entire family can enjoy together. The students felt a great sense of accomplishment when they finished the 8.2 miles. What else could you ask for in introducing an activity that the entire family can take pleasure in and benefit physically. A special thank you to fellow Elementary Physical Educators Mike Kennedy, Chad Owen, Michael Scott, Kim Nelson, Garry Ross, and Barry Morrison for introducing this wonderful field trip to our county and helping Dublin Elementary with our first endeavor! Let's plant the seed with our students and watch them grow into healthy active adults!

If you are interested in initiating a trail walk in your community you can explore your possibilities below.

- Virginia State Parks - http://www.dcr.virginia.gov/state_parks/
- Richmond Virginia (VA) Walking and Running Trails - http://richmondgoodlife.com/richmond_trails.htm
- Virginia DOT Trail Guide - http://www.virginiadot.org/programs/bk-trails.asp
- Virginia Trail Link - http://www.traillink.com/stateactivity/va-walking-trails.aspx
- National Recreation Trails Database - http://www.americantrails.org/NRTDatabase/trailList.php?usrTrailName=&usrTrailState=VA&usrTrailCounty=&usrTrailUse=

951 Foot Bridge in Hiwassee

Future Trends and Developments in Coaching Education for Virginia

Bob Case, Ph.D., Old Dominion University, Sports Management

The number of high school and middle school sport program participants continues to grow and expand with each passing year. With the continued growth of school sport programs, a number of school districts have had to hire part-time coaches in order to adequately staff and meet program demands. Part-time coaches generally do not have formal training in coaching methods and techniques (Coakley, 2009). Instead, they rely on the coaching methods, techniques, strategies and drills that were taught to them when they participated in high school sports (Eitzen and Sage, 2009). Although teachers in the public schools must be certified and receive extensive training in order to teach, part-time coaches, in the past, have not been held to the same certification and training standards. For many years, part-time coaches in Virginia were not required to have any formal training in teaching or coaching (Raising the Standard, 1998).

The need for some type of coaching education program in order to better educate and train part-time coaches continued to gain momentum into the 1990s. Finally, in 1995 a number of national coaching standards for high school coaches were developed with the help of the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (AAHPERD) and the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE). The standards were formulated through review and adaptation of scientific knowledge and practical coaching methods and experiences. As a result, 40 standards were identified and divided into eight domains (NASPE, 2009) that included:

(a) Philosophy and ethics;
(b) Safety and injury prevention;
(c) Physical conditioning;
(d) Growth and development;
(e) Teaching and communication;
(f) Sport skills and tactics;
(g) Organization and administration;
(h) Evaluation.

In 1998, a coaching education study was conducted in the State of Virginia. The study used survey research methods to examine the nature and scope of coaching education programs in Virginia's public schools. Results of the study were published in The Virginia Journal (Case et al., 1998). A total of 208 individuals responded to the survey with 88% of the respondents being athletic directors. At the time, 72% of the respondents indicated they did not have a coaching education program in place for their coaches. Seventy-eight percent of the same group felt that a coaching education program was necessary in light of the fact that a high percentage of school districts were employing part-time coaches. The part-time coaches were not full-time faculty at the school and they did not have formal training in teaching and coaching. Instead, they relied on the coaching methods and techniques that were taught to them when they played high school sports. A publication entitled *Raising the Standard* (1998) pointed out that Virginia was one of a small number of states that did not require coaching education courses to part-time coaches.

Things have definitely changed since 1998. A recent study published in The Virginia Journal (Case, 2010) revealed that an increasing number of middle schools in the State of Virginia are now offering school sport programs. These middle school programs are in addition to a growing number of high school sport programs. Woods (2011) writes that "a number of sport opportunities and the scope of sports in high schools are at the highest point ever, therefore creating a greater demand for quality coaching across all sports" (p. 353). In addition, female school sport programs have continued to increase and expand. Record numbers of female athletes are participating in school sport programs in Virginia since the passing of Title IX in 1972 (Woods, 2011).

One of the most significant changes in the State of Virginia relative to coaching education and organized school sport programs took place in 2009 when the Virginia High School League (VHSL) passed rules (27-2-5, 27-2-6,27-2-7) that requires all first time athletic program coaches in the public schools to complete approved coaching education courses in coaching principles, sport first aid, and a state and local knowledge component (VHSL, 2011). Coaches have three years to complete these courses. Coaches hired prior to July 1, 2009 are exempt from the requirement but they must still complete the state and local knowledge section. Online coaching education courses are available through the American Sport Education Program (ASEP) and the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFHS). Each of the online courses takes between 3 to 6 hours to complete. Selected school districts within the State of Virginia offer both face to face and online coaching education courses.

Along with the coaching education requirement, the VHSL has established a coaching certification program as an incentive to public school athletic program coaches as they meet the requirements of coaching education. The coaching education program was patterned after the National Interscholastic Athletic Administrators' Association certification program that has three levels of certification and the National Council for Accreditation of Coaching Education (NCACE) standards that were outlined in a 1998 issue of The Virginia Journal (Darden, 1998).

The first and most basic level of VHSL coaching certification is called the "registered athletic coach" level. This level involves completing a personal data form and successful completion of the basic coaching education course(s). A signature from the school sponsor where the coach will be working is required. The second coaching certification level is termed the "certified athletic coach" level. At this level, three or more years of high school or middle school coaching experience is required. The applicant must complete VHSL Advanced Coaching Education Courses in coaching principles, sport first aid, and the VHSL state and local knowledge component. The third and highest coaching certification level is called a "CertifiedMaster Athletic Coach". At this level, a coach must complete five years or more of coaching at the high school level and attain 90 points in professional development (VHSL, 2012).

A number of college and university programs within the State of Virginia have realized the importance of coaching education.

Coaching majors and minors at the undergraduate level are offered along with selected graduate programs with emphasis areas in coaching. For example, George Mason University, Longwood University, Old Dominion University, Radford University, and Virginia Commonwealth University have coaching education majors, minors or emphasis areas at either the undergraduate and/or graduate levels. A culminating aspect of most of the coaching education programs include some type of mentorship or internship experience where the student coach will work under the supervision of an experienced coach. Some of the college coaching education curriculums are offered as "stand alone" majors and others are emphasis areas within existing majors in physical education and recreation departments.

Although the coaching education initiatives offered in Virginia are a vast improvement over the time when part-time coaches received no training or certification, the ideal way for students to pursue a career in high school and middle school athletic coaching is to major in physical education and study "in depth" the eight domains of coaching as outlined by NASPE (2009). College courses in coaching principles, coaching fundamentals, kinesiology, exercise physiology, biomechanics, motor learning, motor development, coaching and teaching methods, coaching strategy, coaching ethics and philosophy, sport psychology, sport rules and officiating, strength and conditioning of athletes, sport first aid, and sport law are just some of the courses that could comprise a comprehensive coaching education curriculum at the college level.

However, in order to meet the growing demand for more qualified coaches at the middle and high school levels, part-time and full-time coaches will need to be hired and trained. The basic coaching education requirements that have been enacted by the VHSL are a starting point for part-time coaches and teachers from other disciplines outside of physical education (e.g., social studies). The different levels of coaching certification certainly offer promise for the future. For more information on the VHSL coaching education requirement, go to www.vhsl.org/doc/upload/pub-handbook-2011-12.pdf and go to page 39.

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The 20-Hour Rule: Student-Athletes Time Commitment to Athletics and Academics

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Abstract

Since 1991, a student-athlete's participation in countable athletically related activities has been limited to a maximum of four hours per day and 20 hours per week for NCAA Division I member institutions. This NCAA Division I Bylaw 2.14 was adopted to minimize interference with a student-athlete's opportunity to acquire a quality education in a manner consistent with that afforded the general student body. Because student-athletes are meant to prioritize academics, athletic departments are encouraged to monitor the time student-athletes spend on athletic activity. Priorities of student-athletes on athletics and academics can have a profound impact on their success. Research has indicated a direct correlation between time spent on a task and success for both athletic and academic endeavors (Adler & Adler, 1991; Robst & Keil, 2000; Valentine & Taub, 1990; Yopyk & Prentice, 2005). This study sampled student-athletes at an NCAA Division I member institution concerning time spent on both athletic and academic activities. A survey instrument was administered to subjects. Subjects were asked to recall time spent weekly on athletic and academic activities. After taking the survey, the subjects were given journals and asked to record their weekly involvement in athletics and academics. The data were analyzed and differences between the two protocols were recorded. This research is important to the NCAA, college and university athletic departments, student-athletes, and academia because it demonstrates the differences between data collected from a survey method as compared to data collected from a daily journal.

Introduction

According to the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I Bylaw 2.14, students competing in intercollegiate athletics in Division I or II are limited in the number of hours they can participate in athletically sponsored activities both in season and out of season. These limitations were established to help ensure that student-athletes are afforded quality time for academic pursuits similar to the general student body. Specifically, student-athletes are limited to no more than 20-hours of athletic-sponsored activities during in season and eight hours during out of season per week. The 20-hour rule, established by the NCAA in 1991, was established to maintain the amateur status of the student-athlete and to help keep colleges and universities from abusing the status of the student-athletes. By restricting the weekly hours in which student-athletes can practice and compete, the NCAA prioritized academic activities over athletic pursuits.

The increased commercialization of intercollegiate athletics has increased the pressure to be competitive (Zimbalist, 1999; Shulman & Bowen, 1991). Millions of dollars are at stake for big-time college and university programs that can qualify for NCAA post-season success in football and basketball. Going to a major bowl game in football or advancing in the NCAA men's basketball tournament can generate significant revenue. Even for smaller schools, where expenses generally far exceed revenue, the desire to compete athletically has put pressure on coaching staffs to win first and place less of an emphasis on academics (Zimbalist, 1999; Shulman & Bowen, 1991). Many university presidents and chancellors have emphasized athletics as a way to brand their respective schools (Shulman & Bowen, 1991). The 2010 Knight Foundation Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics (KFCIA) reported that the "business model of intercollegiate athletics" has led to a widening gap in expenditures between athletics and academics. When a coach's job and livelihood are dependent upon a team's win-loss record first and academic success second, conflict becomes evident (KFCIA, 2010, p. 16).

As early as 1999, the Division II Student-Athlete Advisory Committee complained that the 20-hour rule was being abused and ignored by some coaches and universities. Currently, part of the problem is confusion over countable and non-countable hours. Countable and non-countable hours also allow for loopholes within the system. In 2002, the President of the NCAA, Cedric Dempsey, wrote about the importance of enforcing the intent of the spirit of the 20-hour rule and not just the letter of the rule. One example of this is the current practice by many coaches of traveling early to an athletic event in order to be able to practice prior to competition. Whereas it is a violation for a student-athlete to miss class for practice, it is not a violation for that same student-athlete to practice while traveling for competition. By leaving a day or two early for a game and practicing, the coach and team are not violating the letter of the rule; however they are certainly violating its intent.

According to NCAA Bylaw's 17.1.5.1 and 17.1.5.2, countable athletically related activities may occur no more than 20 hours per week with a maximum of four hours per day when a student-athlete's sport is in–season. An exception to the four-hour maximum exists for golf, but the 20-hour total remains. Out-of-season total countable athletically-related activities may occur no more than eight hours per week. No maximum athletically-related activities can occur outside of an academic semester. The NCAA, Bylaw 17.1.5.3.2.1, defines a week as any seven consecutive days to be determined by the individual institution. Once the week is defined by the institution, it may not be changed by the institution. Athletic activities on the day of competitions during in-season shall count as three hours regardless of the actual duration of the activities Bylaw 17.1.5.3.2. Eight hours per week, of which no more than two hours per week may be spent on individual skill workouts, are permitted in the student-athlete's off-season. Hour limitations do not count for preseason workouts prior to the first day of classes or the first scheduled contest, whichever is earlier. Student-athletes may not participate in any countable athletically-related activities outside of the playing season during any institutional vacation period and/

or summer. Off-season strength and conditioning programs can be designed for student-athletes only if they are voluntary and conducted at the request of the student-athlete. Student-athletes are not permitted to miss class to attend practice. The only exception is when a team is traveling to an away from home competition, and the practice is in conjunction with the contest. The NCAA, by its many Bylaws, is clearly sending the message that the student-athlete needs to have adequate time to focus on academic pursuits. In addition limiting the number of hours per week that a student-athlete can play or practice, the NCAA, Bylaws 17.1.5.4.1 and 17.1.5.5.1, requires one full calendar day off per week during in-season and two full calendar days off during off-season (NCAA Division I Manuel, 2009).

The NCAA defines countable athletically-related activities to include those at the direction of, or supervised by, one or more coaches (NCAA Division I Manuel, 2009). Examples of countable hours would include: practices; games; required and/or supervised training and conditioning for reasons other than safety; coaches-initiated meetings; required camps or clinics; setting up offensive or defensive assignments; and required film reviewing. Hours that typically do not count against a student-athlete's totals would include: compliance meetings; required study halls; traveling to and from competitions; training room activities; drug educational meetings; and fundraising and community service projects. Any voluntary athletic-related activity in which a student-athlete participates and which is not required or supervised by coaches or is not reported back to anyone on the coaching staff is also not counted against the totals (NCAA Division I Manuel, 2009). This could include strength and conditioning as well as athletic skill work.

In a recent study on the time commitments of NCAA student-athletes, researchers discovered that the 20-hour limit was abused by student-athletes at Division I, II, and III schools (Pope, 2006). Pope (2006), reported on how athletics has become a job at many institutions. Student-athletes are required to dedicate full-time hours to their athletic endeavors. Excessive time spent on athletics can impact an athlete in several ways including: choice of major; grade point average; interaction with academic faculty; social interaction; and other non-athletic pursuits (Bowen & Lenin, 1991; NCAA, 2006; NCAA, 2011; Scott et. Al., 2008; Schneider et. Al., 2010; Shulman & Bowen, 2001). Scott et. al. (2008) recently revealed that academic performance was poorer for athletes during in-season, debunking a long-held myth that athletes actually have better grades during their respective seasons. This negative in-season performance was worse for sports that had higher time demands such as football, basketball, baseball, and softball, and for students who were not as prepared academically. In the books, *The Game of Life* (Shulman & Bowen, 2001) and *Reclaiming the Game*, (Bowen & Lenin, 1991) the authors presented data to suggest that athletes are struggling at all levels of academic institutions. The emphasis placed on athletics and the time constraints placed on the student-athletes are suggested to be at the root of poor academic performance. When sports require high time demands and student-athletes fall into academic risk categories, such as lower socioeconomic status, first generation college students, lower SAT scores, and low high school GPA's, research has documented poor graduation rates (Long & Caudill, 1991; NCAA, 2006; NCAA, 2011). For any academic term academic performance is poorer as time away from academic tasks increases (Maloney & McCormick, 1993). Paskus (2008) presented data which showed that increased athletic activity corresponded with less academic time. For sports such as men's and women's basketball, men's football, baseball and softball the more time student-athletes spend on athletic related activities, the poorer they seem to do academically (Long & Caudill, 1991, NCAA, 2006; NCAA 2011).

Methods

Fifty-nine (59) student-athletes at a Division I university were administered a 38-question survey to determine their time commitments on athletics and academics. Student-athletes, excluding first semester freshmen, were asked to recall how many hours per week they spent on a variety of athletic and academic activities. In addition, the survey asked student-athletes to recall events which occurred over an entire academic semester, such as classes missed due to athletic contests. Student-athletes were then asked about their perceptions concerning their time commitments to athletics.

Twenty-four (24) student-athletes from the original 59 surveyed were recruited to keep a weekly journal of their time commitments with regards to athletics and academic participation. Differences in time commitments between the survey and journal entries were noted. Survey and journal results were reported in aggregate to avoid identification of individuals or individual sport teams.

It was hypothesized that the 20-hour in-season rule and 8-hour out-of-season rule would not be closely adhered to by most sports and that there would be little difference in the responses between the survey and journal responses. Additionally, the authors hypothesized that most student–athletes would be very satisfied with their time commitments towards athletics.

Results and Discussion

A 38-question survey instrument was administered to 59 student-athletes of which 32 were freshmen, 15 were sophomores, ten were juniors and two were seniors. Seven men's sports and six women's sports were represented. Students were asked to recall how many hours per week they spent on a variety of athletic and academic activities. Table 1 summarizes subject responses

For the question "how many hours per week do you spend on athletic activities in-season," the range was 14 to 30 hours. Twenty student-athletes or 34 percent answered exactly 20 hours. This could represent actual beliefs about the time student-athletes are spending on athletics or could represent the athletic department's efforts to educate the student-athletes on the 20-hour rule. This response is in contrast to the findings of the NCAA GOALS and SCORE studies, which reported student-athletes' weekly athletic commitments ranged from about 24.9 to 37.6 hours per week (NCAA, 2006; NCAA, 2011).

For the question "how many hours per week do you spend on athletic activities off-season," the range was 5 to 30 hours. The most common answer was eight hours.

Student-athletes responded that they were very satisfied with the amount of time they spent on athletic activities. This finding was consistent with both the NCAA GOALS and SCORE studies (NCAA, 2006; NCAA, 2011). Both studies examined the balance

Table 1: (Survey Results) How many hours per week do you spend on the following activities?

Survey Questions	Average number of hours per week
Athletic activities in-season?	21.50
Athletic activities off-season?	13.14
Academic activities in-season?	12.73
Academic activities off-season?	13.09
Working at a job for pay (including work-study) in-season?	.56
Working at a job for pay (including work-study) off-season?	5.90
Relaxing or engaging in recreational activities in-season?	9.34
Relaxing or engaging in recreational activities off-season?	14.99

of time student-athletes devote to their athletic interests and academic pursuits.

Student-athletes self-reported spending about the same amount of time on academics in-season as off-season at about 13 hours. This was considerable less than the NCAA GOALS and SCORE studies which reported academic activities on a weekly basis ranging of about 34.1 to 39.5 hours per week.

Student-athletes' perceptions about the time spent on academics were mixed. Sixty-three percent of the students stated that the time spent on academics was just right for the off-season while only 41 percent stated agreed that this time was adequate in-season. Thirty-six percent of the student-athletes stated that in-season they spent too little time on academics. This was interesting considering student-athletes reported little difference in time devoted to academics for each semester.

Student-athletes were asked to self-report on missed academic and athletic activities over an entire semester. Table 2 summarizes these results.

Almost all student-athletes, 86 percent, reported missing classes during in-season due to athletic conflicts. Similarly, 71 percent of student-athletes missed classes for non-athletic reasons. Interestingly, only three (five percent) and two (three percent), of student-athletes reported missing games for academic or other reasons.

The number of athletic practices missed by student-athletes during an academic year averaged less than one per semester. On average student-athletes missed over twenty academic classes per year for all reported conflicts. The average number of classes reported missed in the NCAA GOALS and SCORE studies (2006) report was 1.4 to 2.3 per week or 19.6 to 32.2 over a fourteen week semester.

Table 2: (Survey Results) Over the course of an academic semester estimate the

Question	Range	Average days per semester
Number of classes missed due to athletic obligations in-season?	0-20 (51 S-A's reported missing classes)	7.68
Number of classes missed for all other non-athletic reasons?	0-11 (42 S-A's reported missing classes)	2.50
Number of in-season games missed due to academic obligations?	0-5 (only three S-A's reported missing any)	.19
Number of in-season games missed for all other non-academic reasons?	0-1 (only two S-A's reported missing any)	.03
Number of practices missed due to academic obligations?	0-10 (22 S-A's reported missing some practices)	.90
Number of practices missed for all other non-academic reasons?	0-3 (17 S-A's reported missing some practices)	.50

*S-A's = student-athletes

Twenty-two percent of student-athletes reported being advised not to major in a particular academic field by either athletic or academic personnel because of their athletic participation, while 15 and 12 percent of student-athletes were advised to major in a particular academic field because of their athletic participation by academic and athletic personnel, respectively. These results indicate that many student-athletes would have chosen a different major if they did not participate in intercollegiate athletics. These findings are consistent with research published on clustering of student-athletes into certain majors (Schneider et. al., 2010). Schneider (2010) suggests that clustering of student-athletes into certain majors may be attributed to multiple reasons. These authors theorize that the reasons for academic clustering may include an easier curriculum, schedule inflexibility, and mentor and peer suggestions. Twenty-two percent of student-athletes in this study reported being advised to choose an academic major based on their athletic participation.

When questioned about their overall impact from participation in athletics on their academic career, 53 percent responded positively, 20

percent responded negatively, and 27 percent responded that it had no impact.

In addition to taking a survey instrument, 24 student-athletes were recruited to keep a daily journal of their time commitments in both academic and athletic activities. Student-athletes turned in journals on a weekly basis and the journals were collected over the course of two academic semesters. Some major differences were noted between the survey questionnaire and the daily journals. Table 3 summarizes these results.

On the journal student-athletes reported spending, on average, 31.25 hours per week on athletic related activities during their season. This is in contrast to the average of 21.5 hours per week reported on the survey and goes against our hypotheses that there would be little difference in reporting methods between the survey and journal. This may have been a result of so many student-athletes reporting the minimum of 20 hours per week on the survey as opposed to keeping track of the journal hours on a daily basis or it may have been unique to this population. However, similar to the survey responses the most common number of hours spent on athletic activities during their season was also exactly 20 hours. The range, 16 to 48 hours per week, was also in stark contrast to the survey results. Because student-athletes reported the hours daily and turned in the journals weekly, the authors feel this method was a more accurate measure of actual hours spent on athletic activities.

During the off-season student-athletes reported their weekly commitment to athletics at 9.87 hours per week. This was less than the reported 13.14 hours reported on the survey but still above the allowable NCAA limits. The range also had a wide variance and was reported from three to 27 hours per week. Similar to the survey results the most common answer to the amount of time spent on athletic activities in the off-season was exactly eight hours per week.

Interpreting answers of exactly 20 and eight hours per week spent on athletic activities for in-season and off-season semesters can be challenging. Coaches may be more aware of the NCAA regulations and are adhering to these rules and restricting athletic activities accordingly. Student-athletes may be more aware of these time restrictions and are reporting these times regardless of the actual hours they are spending. Student-athletes may also be unaware of how much time they actually spend on athletic activities and report what they think is expected. Recalling how much time is spent over an entire semester is difficult and this may explain why the numbers between the two data collecting methods are different. In addition to the differences between the survey results and the journal results the authors acknowledge that the sample sizes were small and greater variability between the groups is to be expected. Student-athletes who kept journal hours may have spent more time on athletic activities.

Student-athletes, keeping the journal, reported spending similar amounts of time on academic activities for both in-season and off-season at 16.75 and 14.25 hours per week, respectively. These time commitments were similar to the results on the survey. It was a little surprising that student-athletes reported spending slightly more time on academic activities in-season rather than off-season. Many student-athletes take a larger course load in the off-season. However, during the athletic season is possible that student-athletes utilize better time-management skills due to time constraints. It is also possible that athletic departments were requiring student-athletes to attend study halls on a regular basis.

Similar to the survey results the vast majority of student-athletes (92%) responded in their journals that they were very satisfied with their time commitments to athletics. This was similar to what was found in past NCAA surveys (NCAA, 2006; NCAA, 2011).

Student-athletes engaged in 5.5 hours and 12.34 hours per week in recreational activities both during their season and out of season respectively. This was less than the results found on the survey. Likewise, the amount of sleep that student-athletes reported getting on a nightly basis, 6.5 hours, was slightly less than that reported by the survey.

It is clear that student-athletes spend significant time on athletic activities. More time was reported spent on athletic-related activities than academic activities on both the survey and journal. A major difference was found between the survey and journal on time spent on athletic activities during a student-athletes season. Journal respondents reporting 9.75 more hours per week spent on athletic activities than did survey respondents. For both the survey and journal respondents, the NCAA limits on athletic activities in-season and off-season were exceeded. There were major differences between respondents with some NCAA time limits being far exceeded while others fell within the 20-hour and 8-hour time limits. However, this study reported results in the aggregate and individual sports were not delineated. This was in line with the authors original hypothesis and similar to past findings.

One of the most shocking results was the number of classes missed by student-athletes for both in-season and off-season participants. While the missing of academic classes seemed to be

Table 3: (Journal Results) Report how many hours per week you spend on the following activities?

Journal Questions	Average number of hours per week.
Athletic activities in-season?	31.25
Athletic activities off-season?	9.87
Academic activities in-season?	16.75
Academic activities off-season?	14.25
Working at a job for pay (including work-study) in-season?	0
Working at a job for pay (including work-study) off-season?	7.25
Relaxing or engaging in recreational activities in-season?	5.50
Relaxing or engaging in recreational activities off-season?	12.34

pervasive among athletes, the missing of athletic practices and athletic games was practically nonexistent.

It is clear from this study that participation in collegiate athletics constitutes a significant time commitment on the part of the student-athlete. Research indicates that student-athletes that spend more than 10 hours per week on athletic activities may have difficulty in academic pursuits (Meyer, 1990; Parham, 1993). It is to the student-athletes' credit that 6 year graduation rates are about 88 percent according to the NCAA GOALS and SCORE (2011) study. Still for some student-athletes over-emphasis on athletics could have a detrimental effect on academic achievement especially when the time commitment for athletics is excessive. Student-athletes' academic success should be based on a number of factors. Student-athlete grade point average and graduation rates are cited as measure success by the NCAA. However, research indicates that many student-athletes may not be pursuing majors of their choice and may be missing potential career opportunities (Schneider, et. al, 2010). Minimizing the missing of classes by student-athletes should be a priority for athletic administrators. This can be accomplished by closely monitoring class attendance, schedule changes, decreasing the number of games played during academic hours and allowing student-athletes to miss athletic activities to prioritize academics activities.

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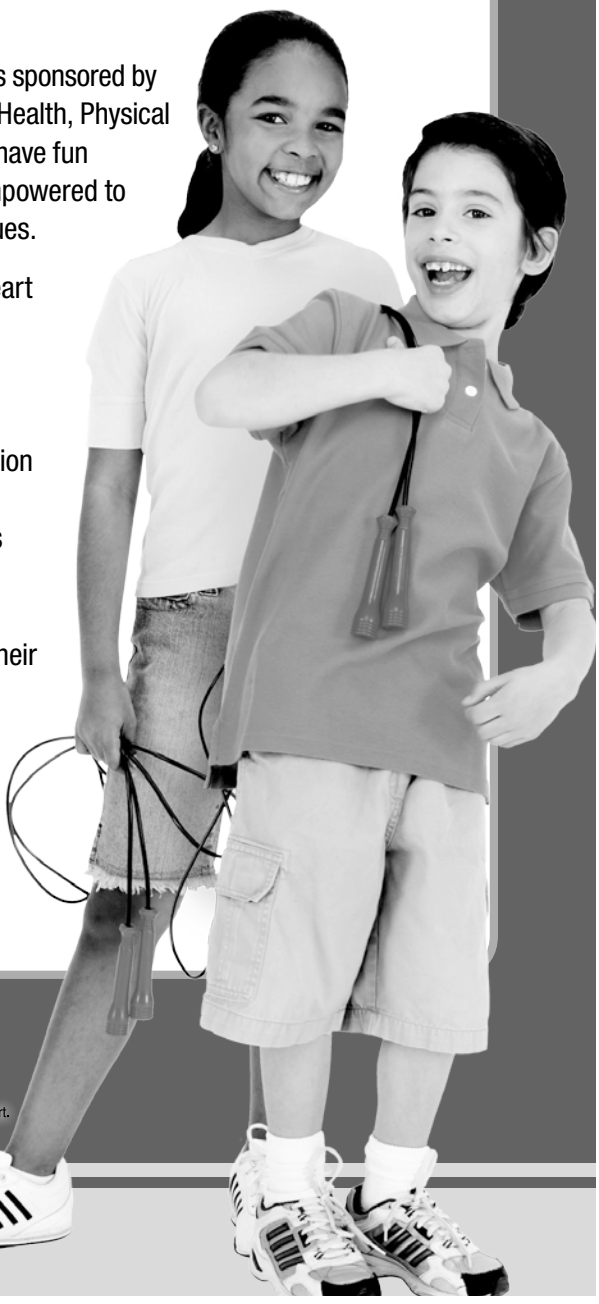

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