INDIANA AHPERD JOURNAL

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Indiana AHPERD Journal

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

Contents

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President's Message

Message from the President

Dear Members,

This is such a great time of year! Excitement and enthusiasm are two common feelings as we get back to work with the students in Indiana. Welcome Back to our experienced teachers and professionals and Best Wishes for success to those teacher education and allied field graduates who may be entering their first job with their new credentials. We are truly blessed to be able to work in a field that promotes an active and healthy lifestyle.

We have a busy month ahead! During the month of October, IAHPERD will present four Regional one day Workshops at locations across the state. We have a full slate of sessions planned for the following dates in the following cities:

October 2 in West Lafayette on the Purdue University campus

October 16 in Marion on the Indiana Wesleyan University campus

October 20 in Vincennes on the Vincennes University campus

October 30 in Indianapolis on the IUPUI University campus

In addition, the Sport Management Council has a special day of events planned at Victory Field on November 6th, 2009. Please note that the Sport Management Council workshop has a different fee structure due to the special events that are included.

You will find additional information regarding the Regional Workshops in this journal. Check the start times, locations and agenda for sessions. College credit will be available for those of you working on renewing your license. In addition, look for registration forms and information posted on our website: http://indiana-ahperd.org/

While we encourage membership in AAHPERD, one perk of being an IAHPERD member this year is that you will be able to attend the 2010 AAHPERD conference in Indianapolis for AAHPERD member costs! If you are not a member of AAHPERD, your membership in IAHPERD will mean some savings for national convention registration during March 16-20, 2010.

I would like to update you on what is happening with IAHPERD as well as around the state. Since my last message, volunteers have gathered over the summer months to form specific task forces and have been hard at work. One task force was charged with helping address Physical Education waivers in the school setting. Although it has been suggested that waivers may impact only a small portion of students, the leadership felt that our members desired assistance with this issue. The idea of shared resources for strategies, ideas or actions will assist many of our members. Thank you to those of you who have contributed suggestions or examples of what your school or corporation is planning to do. While this committee is still working diligently on their charge, I am confident that we will able be able to gain from the results of their work.

The Quality Physical Education task force has been equally busy. Volunteer members have been asked to find a way to recognize quality school programs in our state. We do a good job of recognizing individual teachers through the Teacher of the Year program. I think it is important to both recognize and celebrate those schools that have developed quality physical education and health education programs. I look forward with anticipation to the work this committee will share with us when completed.

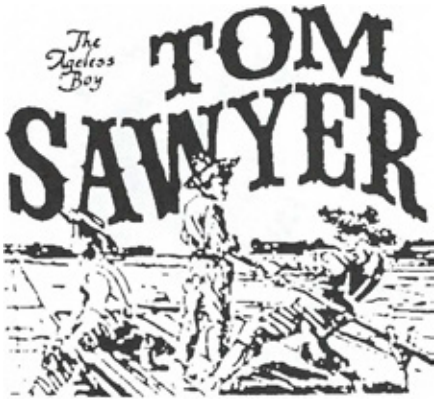
Most recently, the state education leaders shared proposals for significant education reform during their July Board meeting. IAHPERD will continue to provide a strong presence at the statehouse as we advocate for quality, standards-based physical education and health education in our school systems and our accredited teacher preparation programs. Having said this, we need your help! Please continue to learn information regarding the proposal, "Proposed Rule Revision for Educator Preparation and Accountability (REPA)." You can find public documents at the Department of Education's website http://www.doe.in.gov/dps/ regarding the latest proposed changes. IAHPERD members have already been in contact with me regarding concerns with this proposal for our profession. With assistance from others, especially Bonnie Blankenship, Denise Seabert, and Heidi Hancher-Rauch, and approval from the Executive Committee, a letter was sent to the state leaders. The letter articulated our support for standards-based education by qualified teachers and noted our concerns with the proposed rule revisions. In addition, I will represent IAHPERD members and our interests by attending the next Board meeting later this week. Please take some time to study this proposal and share your comments and concerns with me. My email address is Molly.Hare@indstate.edu

I want to remind you about the theme for this year. As I write this message, the start of school is just around the corner. Many of our lives will quickly become busier and the amount of activities will increase. During this busy change of pace, please consider opportunities that arise where you can personally "Pay It Forward" to help others.

I wish each and every one of you a healthy, happy, productive school year and look forward to seeing you at a Regional Workshop in October.

Sincerely,
Molly Hare
President 2009

NOTIONS From YOUR EDITOR...



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Release from Liability

Megan Malin v. White Water Mountain Resorts of Connecticut
Superior Court, New Haven Judicial District
Number 432774
March 16, 2001

On January 7, 1999, according to court documents, Megan Malin went to the Powder Ridge Ski Area to go snow tubing. She paid an admission fee and was given a "release from liability" document (see below) to sign. No oral explanation was provided and Malin signed the document without reading it. She then went snowtubing and on her second down hill run was injured.

SNOWTUBING
RELEASE FROM LIABILITY

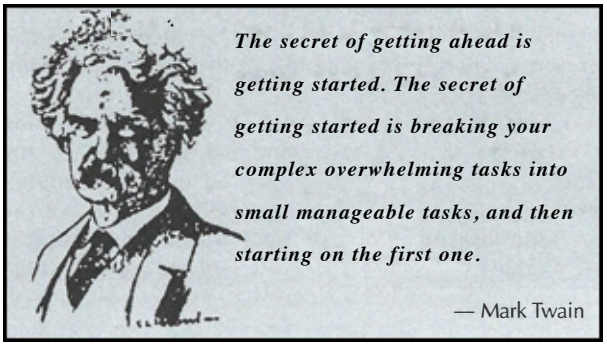
PLEASE READ CAREFULLY BEFORE SIGNING.

1. I accept use of a snowtube and accept full responsibility for the care of the snowtube while in my possession.
2. I understand that there are inherent and other risks involved in SNOWTUBING, including the use of the lifts and snowtube, and it is dangerous activity/ sport. These risks include, but are not limited to, variations in snow, steepness and terrain, ice and icy conditions, moguls, rocks, trees, and other forms of forest growth or debris (above or below the surface), bare spots, lift terminals, cables, utility lines, snowmaking equipment and component parts, and other forms or matural or man made obstacles on and/or off chutes, as well as collisions with equipment, obstacles, and other snowtubes. Snow chute conditions vary constantly because of weather changes and snowtubing use. Be aware that snowmaking and snow grooming may be in progress at any time. These are some of the risks of SNOWTUBING. All of the inherent risks of SNOWTUBING present the risk of serious and/or fatal injury.
3. I agree to hold harmless and indemnify Powder Ridge, White Water Mountain Resorts of Connecticut, Inc., and/or any employee of the afore mentioned for loss or damage, including any loss or injuries that result from damages related to the use of a snowtube or lift.

I, the undersigned, have read and understand the above release of liability.

Complaint

Malin alleges in her complaint that a White Water employee pushed her tube in "too hard a manner."



Further, she alleges that White Water did not warn her of dangerous icy conditions prevailing on the day in question. White Water filed a motion for summary judgement based on the preclusive effect of the document signed by Malin.

Judgement of the Court

Malin claims she was injured because a White Water employee pushed her snowtube too hard and White Water failed to warn her of dangerous icy conditions prevailing on the day in question. This court finds that neither an employee's excessive pushing nor a failure to warn of dangerous prevailing conditions to be "inherent" risks of snowtubing. Although the preprinted form absolves White Water from the inherent risks of snowtubing, it fails to state that White Water's negligence is one of those inherent risks. Therefore, under these circumstances, the form does not absolve White Water of the negligence complained of in this case. The motion for summary judgement is denied.

Reasoning of the Court

Connecticut does not favor contract (waiver or release from liability) previsions which relieve a person from his own negligence. Parties may not protect themselves against negligence in the performance of a duty imposed by law or where the public interest requires performance. The law, in this jurisdiction, disfavors exculpatory contracts "because they tend to allow conduct below the acceptable level of care." Yauger v. Skiing Enterprises, Inc., 557 N.W. 2d 60, 62 (Wis. 1996)

The current release sought to be enforced fails the scrutiny of this court and this test: (1) the contract must clearly, unequivocally, specifically, and unmistakably express the parties' intention to exculpate the [defendant] from liability resulting from its own negligence, the [contract] is insufficient for the purpose. *Adloo v. H.T. Brown Real Estate, Inc.*, 686 A.2d 298, 305 (Md. 1996), and (2) an obligation to idemnify a party against its own negligence will not be given effect "in the absence of language which itself compels such a result." *Goldman v. EccoPhoenix Electric Corp.,* 396 P.2nd 377, 379 (Cal. 1964)

White Water argues that the preprinted form signed by Malin relieves it from liability for its own negligence. Yet, the word "negligence" never appears in the form. The form fails to expressly release White Water from its own negligence. The negligence of White Water and its employees are not included in the list of "inherent" risks enumerated in the form.

Risk Management Tips - Guidelines in Drafting a Waiver or Release of Liability

The above illustrates the importance of understanding the law in a given jurisdiction before drafting a waiver or release of liability. It does not mean that contracts of this description are automatically void and unenforceable. Rather, the courts across the United States closely examine the particular agreements in question. "Language inserted by a party in an agreement for the purpose of exempting him from liability for negligent conduct is scrutinized with particular care and a court may require specific and conspicous reference to negligence under the general principle that language is interpreted against the draftsman." Restatement (Second) of Contracts 195 cmt. b (1981).

1. Always involve a lawyer in the process.
2. Do not us standardized forms and insert the name of your organization.
3. Customize the form for each specific activity.
4. Clearly, unequivocally, specifically, and unmistakably express the parties' intention to exculpate the organization and its employees (Specify all parties who are to be protected.) from the liability resulting from its own negligence. (*Adloo v. H.T. Brown Real Estate, Inc.*, 686 A.2d 298, 305 (Md. 1996)
5. Make the waiver a clear, easily understood, simple, and concise, stand-alone document.
6. Be certain the title is descriptive (i.e., waiver, release of liability, or indemnity agreement).
7. Make sure the exculpatory language is conspicuous in the agreement. (Cotton D.J., and Cotton M.B. (1996) Waivers and releases for the health and fitness club industry. Statesboro, GA: Sport Risk Consulting)
8. Provide spaces for signatures, witness, and dates.
9. Include a statement by which the signer affirms having read the agreement. (Cotten & Cotten, 1996)
10. The agreement should specify the duration of the waiver. (Cotten & Cotten, 1996)
11. Provide a notification of inherent risks, clearly describe the nature of the activity, warn the participant of inherent risks and that he/she assumes these risks, and include an affirmation of voluntary participation in the document. (Cotten & Cotten, 1996)
12. The agreement shoud include an indemnification clause (i.e., agrees to indemnify, reimburse, hold harmless, or save harmless.)(Cotten & Cotten, 1996)

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Please contact Kim Duchane at kaduchane@manchester.edu to volunteer for convention planning or one of the leaders above to serve on a specific committee.

Dr. Nick Kellum Retiring After 30 years

After 38 years, Nick Kellum retires from IUPUI and the School of Physical Education and Tourism Management.

Born and raised in Plainfield, Indiana, Nick's participation in school sports laid the groundwork for his academic studies at the Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union; affectionately called the Normal College and what is now known as the School of Physical Education and Tourism Management.

In his first teaching position after graduation, he was an assistant football coach at Ann Arbor High School. Upon returning the Normal College, he coached the first men's basketball team. What might be his greatest coaching success came as coach of the IUPUI women's softball team. His teams were perennial National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) District champions and participated in nine national tournaments winning 21 games and finishing as high as third place. For those efforts, Nick was inducted into the NAIA Softball Hall of Fame in 1994.

Nick's academic success is no less remarkable. He started at the Normal College and completed is undergraduate degree at IU Bloomington. He completed his student teaching at Speedway High School on a Friday and on Monday he was teaching physical education at Ann Arbor High School. Lola Lohse, Nick's predecessor as Dean, always told Nick that one day he would come back and teach for her at the Normal College. Well, after two-and-a-half years, Nick returned to the Normal College as a faculty member.

He became Dean of the School in 1977. He held this position until his retirement this past July. He was Dean when tourism conventions and event management and military science were added to his portfolio as part of the School. He facilitated construction of the school's current facilities in 1982. He also guided the school's growth to unprecedented levels; student enrollment (900+ students), credit hour production (sixth among IUPUI academic units) and in his final four years nine new faculty were added.

Equally important is the relationship he maintained with students, staff and faculty. It is the epitome of collegiality. He was diligent in his efforts to recognize the importance of support staff and in maintaining a teaching and learning environment in which students and faculty could succeed.

Doing their part in keeping the Normal College tradition alive, Nick's wife Lori (a Normal College graduate) is an award winning Physical Education teacher in the Pike Township school system, oldest son Nicholas was an excellent high school varsity tennis player and is now a freshman at Indiana University and his brother Ryan is making a name for himself as a varsity baseball and basketball player at Plainfield High School.

In addition to his service to IUPUI, Nick held positions of influence in IAHPERD, ASA (Amateur Softball Association of America) and NIRSA (National Intramural and Recreational sports Association). Faculty, staff, students and professional colleagues agree that Nick served his university and the profession well. He left the many organizations of which he was a part better than he found them. For that we will always be indebted to him.

Attention

IAHPERD REGIONAL WORKSHOPS 2009

Four locations during the month of October!

IAHPERD is hosting four one-day workshops in different locations across the state. At each location, we have approximately twelve sessions from which to choose.

October 2, West Lafayette, IN at Purdue
October 16, Marion, IN at Indiana Wesleyan
October 20, Vincennes, IN at Vincennes Univ.
October 30, Indianapolis, IN at IUPUI

November 6th, at Victory Field in Indianapolis, will be the Sport Management Council Workshop*.

Preregistration cut off date is September 25th!
If you register onsite then you will not receive lunch—it will be on your own.

Registration begins at 8:30 am and sessions conclude at 3 pm. Each workshop will have four sessions, an opening welcome and a lunch break.

IAHPERD Member renewal $40 and workshop $20 = $60
IAHPERD Nonmember =$70
Student member renewal $20 and workshop $10 = $30
Student Nonmember =$40

Go to the IAHPERD webpage for registration information! www.indiana-ahperd.org

Sport Management Workshop

*Sport Management Council (SMC) has different fees, format, and a preregistration deadline of Oct. 1:

Student:
$40 Early bird fees (includes IAHPERD membership, SMC workshop, and lunch)
$50 Onsite fees (includes IAHPERD membership, SMC workshop, and lunch)
$65 Early bird Non-member (includes SMC workshop, lunch)
$75 Onsite Non-member (includes SMC workshop, lunch)

Professional:
$60 Early bird fees (includes IAHPERD membership, SMC workshop, and lunch)
$70 Onsite fees (includes IAHPERD membership, SMC workshop, and lunch)
$90 Early bird Non-member (includes SMC workshop, lunch)
$100 Onsite Non-member (includes SMC workshop, lunch)

Professionals Lost

Indiana Loses Longtime Friend and Volunteer!

Donald D. Mosher
August 21, 1931 – April 11, 2009

Mr. Mosher taught elementary physical education in the Fort Wayne Community Schools. He also taught as an adjunct professor at Indiana University-Purdue University at Fort Wayne and University of Saint Francis. Mr. Mosher received his bachelor's degree from Manchester College and his master's from the University of Saint Francis.

As an active member of IAHPERD Don Mosher served as President as well as workshop and conference presenter. IAHPERD recognized Mr. Mosher in 1993 with the prestigious Honor Award while still in the employ of the Fort Wayne Community Schools. In 2006 Mr. Mosher was awarded the IAHPERD Legacy Award.

Don Mosher was known to many of us as one-half of the Frick and Frack duo. Don, along with Bill Johnson (Illinois), was instrumental in moving audio-visual equipment from room to room during IAHPERD and Midwest-AHPERD conferences. Mr. Mosher and Bill Johnson were also long time hosts for the annual Midwest District Pokagon Leadership Conference. Their responsibilities included greeting attendees, working the registration table, and making arrangements for golf and restaurant reservations. Don was known for delaying his annual winter trip to Florida until after the Pokagon Leadership Conference because of providing ground transportation for some of the attendees. Don Mosher will be fondly remembered for always having a smile and a ready hug. A rememberance from Becky Hull, Anderson University: "Don was quick with the hugs (and kisses). He would always smile and welcome folks like long lost relatives". In fact his obituary in the Huntington County TAB indicated that he was also known as the "Hugger Man".

His wife, Muriel and daughters, Cheryl Britt, Cindy Grabner, and Ann Burdick as well as six grandchildren survive Mr. Mosher.

Dr. Donald James Ludwig, Sr.
April 25, 1914 – June 12, 2009

Dr. Ludwig graduated from Amherst High School (OH); Oberlin College with a bachelor's degree; Teachers College of Columbia University in New York City with a master's degree; and a doctorate degree from Indiana University of Bloomington. While at Indiana University working on his doctorate Dr. Ludwig taught as a graduate assistant and assistant professor. Upon completion of his doctorate degree he progressed through the ranks of Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, then becoming a Professor in 1966. Dr. Ludwig was the third chairman of the Health and Safety department from 1970 to 1979. His IU teaching career spanned several decades beginning in 1953 as an Assistant Professor just after completing his doctorate, until his retirement in 1984 as Professor Emeritus.

IAHPERD recognized Dr. Ludwig with the Leadership Award in 1984. He has also been recognized by the American School Health Association (Fellow); the American Public Health Association (Emeritus); Alpha chapter of the Phi Delta Kappa (Service Key); Eta Sigma Gamma National Health Science Honorary (Service Award); and the Standard Oil Outstanding Teacher Award during the 1969 IU Founder's Day ceremonies.

Dr. Ludwig was also involved in many organizations during his teaching career such as the Indiana Mental Health Association; Indiana Public Health Association; Monroe County Board of Health; Public Health Nursing Association and the Senior Games Advisory Committee.

Dr. Ludwig is survived by his wife of 61 years, Lois, of Bloomington; daughter, Linda Goff of Germantown, Tennessee; Son, William of North Vernon; and son, Donald of Denver, Colorado and three grandchildren.

Memorial contributions may be given to the Donald J. Ludwig Scholarship at Indiana University Foundation, Showalter House, P.O. Box 500, Bloomington, IN. 47402

Roger D. Hart
August 1, 1957-June 13, 2009
Indianapolis

Roger is a 1980 graduate of Ball State University earning a BS in Physical Education. He began teaching in 1992 at Howe High School where he was also the athletic director and volleyball coach. Mr. Hart was a member of AAHPERD as well as IAHPERD where he was serving on the Technology Council.

Mr. Hart is survived by his wife, Carol Sue, and son, Landon. Memorial contributions may be made to the Humane Society or Susan G. Komen Race for the Cure.

Mark Your Calendar
AAHPERD Convention
March 16th - 20th, 2010
Indianapolis

DRUG TESTING AND THE RIGHTS OF STUDENT-ATHLETES

Random Drug Testing and the Rights of Student-Athletes

University of Colorado v. Deredyn

Lawrence W. Judge, Ph.D. & Erin Gilreath
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Random Drug Testing and the Rights of Student-Athletes

University of Colorado v. Derdeyn
Supreme Court of Colorado
863 P.2d 929, 1993.

Random drug testing is considered a powerful health tool. Drug tests detect and discourage student-athletes from using dangerous illicit substances and also identify those who may need intervention. But random drug testing raises numerous concerns both for student-athletes and for those who govern and administer the tests; random drug tests are often considered to be an invasion of privacy. Currently, random drug testing of collegiate student-athletes is legal, not in violation of the 4th Amendment right to privacy. However, some continue to question the validity of the practice, as sport governing bodies strive both to keep up with the constant stream of new drugs and to improve the accuracy of the tests they currently administer. The University of Colorado started one of the first random drug testing programs for student-athletes in 1984. This testing program was first challenged in 1989 in the following case that set a precedent for other cases challenging university random drug testing of student-athletes.

The Case

The most significant public university case that squarely addresses the issue of random drug testing and the rights of student-athletes is the University of Colorado v. Derdeyn. The plaintiffs of this case are the University of Colorado, The Regents of the University of Colorado, the President of the University of Colorado (Judith Albino), and the Athletic Director (William Marolt). The defendant is David Derdeyn individually and on behalf of all others similarly situated.

The University of Colorado began drug testing their athletes in 1984. Their drug testing program has undergone various amendments since it was first enacted, however, for the duration of the program if the athlete did not sign the consent form for the drug testing program they would not be allowed to participate in intercollegiate athletics at the University of Colorado. The most recent change to their drug testing program took place in 1988. These newest amendments include the following:

- Testing included screening for alcohol, over-the-counter drugs, and performance enhancing drugs including steroids.
- Definition of the term "athlete" corresponding to all student-athletes in a recognized NCAA sport, including cheerleaders, student trainers and managers.
- Random "rapid eye examination" (REE) was substituted for random urinalysis; urinalysis was only performed if the REE revealed "reasonable suspicion" of drug use. Also, if an athlete exhibited physical or behavioral characteristics of drug use, this also equated reasonable suspicion.
- Testing was to take place within the Athletic Department facilities, in a private and enclosed area.
- Athletes were required to give their consent to share the results with several parties within and outside the

athletic department.

In August of 1989, a group of current and prospective student-athletes took the University of Colorado to the Boulder County District Court challenging the constitutionality of the drug testing program; the result was an injunction against the University of Colorado which kept it from continuing its drug testing program. The Boulder County District Court enjoined the University of Colorado from continuing its drug testing program as it was outlined to the court because the sample collection was monitored, the REE is not a reliable method for gathering "reasonable suspicion" of drug use, and that the criteria the University used to find this "reasonable suspicion" outside of the REE test are incapable of predicting drug use. The University of Colorado had also labeled their testing program as a Drug Education program when it was clear that the focus of the program was on testing as there was no educational component to it. Also, the University started their program in a climate that lacked evidence that there was actual drug use or abuse among student athletes. The District Court found that the University of Colorado did not show that the consents to testing were voluntarily, furthermore "no consent can be voluntarily where the failure to consent results in a denial of the governmental benefit."

The Appeal

The University of Colorado appealed this verdict to the Colorado Court of Appeals (832 P.2d 1031) which subsequently upheld the ruling of the lower court that the University of Colorado's random, suspicionless urinalysis-drug testing of student-athletes violates the Fourth Amendment of the US Constitution and Article II, Section 7 of the Colorado Constitution because the University of Colorado failed to show that the consent to tests were voluntarily.

The University of Colorado appealed this upheld ruling in the Colorado Court of Appeals to the Supreme Court of Colorado. The grounds for their appeal were that the testing program is reasonable under the Fourth Amendment because of (1) the student athletes' diminished expectations of privacy and the compelling governmental interests served by the program and (2) because student-athletes voluntarily consent to the testing. The Supreme Court of Colorado granted the University of Colorado's writ of certiorari.

The basic legal questions raised by this review by the Supreme Court of Colorado are the constitutional reasonability of the University of Colorado's drug testing program and the validity of the consent to testing given by the athletes.

1. Is the University of Colorado's random, suspicionless, urinalysis-drug testing program reasonable under the 4th Amendment and Article II, Section 7, of the Colorado Constitution?
2. Is the consent given by student athletes for the testing valid considering their consent to testing is a condition of their participation in intercollegiate athletics at the University of Colorado?

The Judgment

The Supreme Court of Colorado held in favor of Derdeyn, that the University of Colorado's drug testing program is not constitutionally reasonable under the 4th Amendment and Article II, Section 7, of the Colorado Constitution. The evidence also showed that the student-athletes were "coerced" into giving their consent for testing because their ability to participate was contingent upon their compliance to the testing program, making their consent invalid.

The Supreme Court of Colorado found the testing program to be unconstitutional because it did not meet the reasonableness requirement of the Fourth Amendment. This test for reasonableness states that it is necessary to balance the privacy expectations of the individual against the Government's interests served by the testing program.

The plaintiff argued that student athletes have diminished expectation of privacy based on the following points.

a) Aural monitoring was the practice for sample collection.

b) Student-athletes routinely give urine samples as a part of routine medical exams and are in close contact with trainers.

c) Student-athletes submit to regulation of their on and off campus activities.

d) Student-athletes must submit to the NCAA's testing program as a condition of participation in NCAA competition.

e) The consequences of refusing to provide a sample are not severe.

f) The positive test results are confidential and are not used for law enforcement purposes.

The Supreme Court of Colorado shot down each of these arguments with the following counter arguments.

a) The University of Colorado and other defendants have not agreed that they would not return to visual monitoring method of sample collection.

b) Samples were not always collected in a medical environment by persons unrelated to the athletic program.

c) It is highly doubtful that students are regulated to the extent asserted by the defendant.

d) The intrusiveness of the program is elevated when tests are conducted by trainers.

e) Possible loss of scholarship for a higher education which could affect earning potential

f) It would be doubly unfair to give less weight to the privacy issues of students because this is not a criminal case.

The Supreme Court of Colorado also upheld the decision of the lower court that the consent of the student-athletes was invalid because they were coerced into signing away their rights under the consequence that if they refused to consent they would lose their ability to participate in intercollegiate athletes at the University of Colorado.

Throughout this writ of certiorari, the court used the precedents set from two previous cases. The first of these

cases was the National Treasury Employees Union v. Von Raab (109 S.Ct 1384). This case took place in 1989 in the Supreme Court of the United States after the United States Court of Appeals Fifth Circuit halted the drug testing program of the United States Customs Service. The Supreme Court overturned the verdict of the lower court that found the drug testing program to not be in violation of the reasonableness test of the 4th Amendment based on the government's interest in the drug use status of customs officers directly involved in cases of drug interdiction or those required to carry firearms for their jobs. The U.S. Supreme Court found that the government had a high interest in ensuring the fitness and integrity of these individuals, thus outweighing their right to privacy. Because the U.S. Customs Service could not come up with a succinct definition for an employee who would be involved with classified materials, the court could not find reason to force testing on this group.

A second case used for precedent in this case was Skinner v. Railway Labor Executives' Association (109 S.Ct 1402) which took place in 1989 as well in the United States Supreme Court. This case was originally under review by the United States Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit that found that drug and alcohol testing of railroad employees was not a violation of the 4th Amendment because government interest outweighed the employee's rights to privacy. Ultimately the United States Supreme Court upheld the decision of the lower court based on issues of public and employee safety being of high interest to the government; and this interest outweighed the employee's expectations of privacy. The railroad industry is highly regulated for safety and most railroad companies require periodic physicals for their employees, thus the expectation of a diminished level of privacy.

Both of these cases illustrate how governmental interest plays a role in judging whether or not a drug/alcohol testing program is unconstitutional under the 4th Amendment. In both of these cases the government had a high level of interest in ensuring the safety of these workers and the people around them and could understand how drug or alcohol use could hinder the judgment of these individuals and make for an unsafe workplace and society.

In the case of the University of Colorado v. Derdeyn, the state of Colorado did not have a high level of interest in the drug test results of student-athletes even though their school was a governmental institution run by the state of Colorado. The University of Colorado asserted that their interests in maintaining their testing program were to prepare their athletes for NCAA drug testing, promote the integrity of their athletic program, prevent drug use by students who look up to the athletes, secure fair play, and to safeguard the health of the athletes. The Supreme Court of Colorado used these arguments to weigh their interest against the privacy expectations of the athletes and could not find that they had sufficient interest to infringe on the privacy of the athletes, thus the ruling of the lower court was upheld.

The Consequences for the Future of Drug Testing Student-Athletes

If nothing else, this case served to highlight a model for university drug testing programs that would not be tolerated under the law. This case helped to bring about a testing protocol perceived fair and also constitutional. In fact, surveys conducted in 2003 by Diacin, Parks and Allison demonstrate a view of drug testing that is converse to the one represented in this case. Their research found that athletes view their participation in intercollegiate athletics as a privilege and that with comes the responsibility to submit to drug testing.

An existing legal question left unresolved by this case is how student age may be a critical factor in determining the constitutionality of a drug testing program. Drug testing programs conducted on school-aged children may not be unconstitutional because the government feels it has more interest in protecting children than in individuals old enough to make their own decisions. Since 2003, the Department of Education has issued 87 grants specifically targeted to implementing random student drug testing (SDT) in 118 school districts which include 578 schools (Office of National Drug Control Policy, 2008). As many school districts are just starting drug testing programs for both students and athletes at the high school level there is sure to be the continued evaluation of this issue in the near future.

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Undergraduate Physical Education Major's Motives for Attending and Presenting at an IAHPERD Conference

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Biography - Jane Davis-Brezette

Dr. Jane Davis-Brezette is an Associate Professor of Physical Education at the University of Southern Indiana. Dr. Brezette is the Department Chair and teachers curriculum and methods courses for physical education teaching majors. Her main area of interest is methods and how best to prepare physical educator.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to provide information to a Board of Directors of a state association to aid in planning conferences to meet the needs and interests of undergraduate majors. The objectives of the study were to (a) identify the primary reasons majors attended and presented at a 2008 IAHPERD Conference; (b) identify specific institutional factors which influenced major's decisions to attend and present; (c) identify the benefits, barriers and overall impact of the conference experience as perceived by majors and (d) provide information to conference planners, faculty and universities to assist in designing experiences that motivate undergraduate students to participate in similar initiatives.

The participants were sixty-one (N=61) undergraduate physical education majors from five Midwest universities. These majors responded to a pre-conference survey about their motives for attending and presenting at a state conference and the role that faculty and their respective university played in their decision to attend and present. The participants also responded to post-conference survey about the benefits, barriers and overall impact of their experience.

This paper is the first of two reports and provides results related to motives for attending and presenting at a state conference and the role faculty and institutions played in influencing majors decisions to participate in initiative of this type.

Undergraduate Physical Education Major's Motives for Attending and Presenting at an IAHPERD Conference

There is an abundance of literature that claims benefits of membership and participation in professional associations and conferences. According to Pfieffer and Dunlap (1982) conferences keep professionals up-to-date. Friedman and Phillips (2004) agree that conferences keep professionals current in their discipline. Conferences also provide opportunities to network and socialize (Cope, 2003). Conferences can energize and create excitement about topics being discussed and make attendees simply want to be better (Hickson, 2006).

The Indiana Student Education Association website, (ISEA, 2009) like most online sites, claim graduate/undergraduate students can network and share ideas with other pre-professionals, can develop leadership skills, gain field experiences and get current certification information through their membership in professional associations and attendance at their conferences.

Laura Cope, (2003) a student from Brigham Young University, writes, "attending a national conference is one of the greatest investments college students will make in their future teaching careers." (p. 1) Keith-Spiegel, Tabachnick and Spiegel (1994) reported journal publications are the most important second-order criterion for admission to graduate school and conference presentations are the third most important second-order criterion.

According to Hickson (2006), conferences provide professionals with the opportunity to present their ideas to their peers and have those ideas validated. Presenters find others working on similar projects with whom to converse and collaborate. Jurkowiski, Antrim and Robins (2005) co-presented with graduate students at a Missouri Association School Librarian conference. They write that "besides learning gains, presentations make contributions to students resume and provide student with the opportunity to represent their university and involve students in activities they can continue through their career." (p. 201)

The survey of literature for this project revealed a lack of information about the professional involvement of undergraduate students such as attending conferences and presenting their ideas at conferences. One study by Badura, Ware, Davis and Smith (1998) identified opportunities for graduate psychology students to present jointly with faculty in a professional forum and outlined the benefits of joint faculty/student endeavors such as developing critical thinking skills, encouraging collaborative learning, refining communication skills and developing feelings of competence and familiarity with the research process.

This study and others reviewed for this project fail to provide insight from the perspective of the undergraduate student. Studies outline benefits, do's and don'ts and procedures, but fail to provide feedback from students about their experiences and the value of those experiences. The purpose of this report is to:

1. Identify the primary reason(s) students attended and presented in a 2008 IAHPERD Conference.
2. Identify specific institutional factors which influenced student's decisions to attend and present.
3. Provide information to conference planners, faculty and universities that will assist them in designing experiences that motivate student to be professional active.

Methodology

Sixty-one (N=61)undergraduate physical education majors participated in this study. Majors came from five Midwest universities. One university was public, large with an enrollment of approximately 39,000 students. Two were public, medium size with an enrollment of approximately 10,000 and two were private, small with an enrollment of 1,000-2,800 students. Of the 61 majors, 10% were Freshmen, 13% were Sophmores, 16% were Juniors and 61% were Seniors. Forty-six percent of the participants were female and 54% were male. Participants ranged in ages from 18 and under (5%), ages 19-20 (21%), ages 21-22 (32%), ages 23-24 (11%) and 25 and over (2%).

Procedures

Faculty from five universities were asked to identify majors planning to attend the 2008 IAHPERD Conference. Majors were asked to complete a pre-conference survey one week prior to attending the conference and a post-conference survey within one week after attending the conference.

A total of seventy-three majors completed the surveys, however, data from those majors (N=61) who completed both pre- and post-conference surveys was used for this study.

Instrumentation

The IAHPERD Conference Surveys were developed by the researcher. Questions for the surveys were developed from studies relative to benefits (Jurkowiski, Antrim and Robins, 2005), motives (Kamla, Bennett, Marcum, 2008) and barriers (Brodey, 2008) to enhance consistency and reliability.

The IAHPERD Pre-Conference Survey consisted of 31 items broken into three categories: student motives for attending, faculty and university influence and student motives for presenting. Majors were asked to indicate their level of agreement with statements using a Likert scale of Strongly Disagree = 1 to Strongly Agree = 5.

A panel of experts, all of whom have written on this topic, examined the survey for content validity, biased items, and terms before being piloted. The pilot study consisted of majors not attending the conference completing both instruments for readability, face validity and time needed to complete the instruments.

See you at the Fall Workshops

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were generated for each item in the survey. A Likert scale of 1-5 was used to weight the importance of responses to questions and statements on survey. Frequencies, means and standard deviations were calculated for quantitative data and reported in Tables 1-4.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of the study included a failure to ask majors to distinguish between the type of session (student vs professional) they attended. The surveys failed to ask whether majors presented a student sponsored session or one for the general audience. The survey failed to collect information regarding the number of hours students worked.

Results

On the IAHPERD Pre-Conference Survey, majors were asked questions about their motive(s) for attending a state conference. Frequencies, means and standard deviations are reported in Table 1. Results suggest improving major's resume (4.34), learning new activities (4.31), experiencing what instructors talk about in class (4.03), fulfilling professional development expectation in their major (3.25), and meeting students from other universities (3.33) were important motives for majors attending a state conference. Getting out of class (2.10), going to Indianapolis (1.97), getting extra credit (1.55), and the cost of attending the conference (1.50) were less important.

Majors (N=29) who presented or co-presented with faculty at the state conference were asked to respond to nine questions about their motives using a Likert scale of Strongly Disagree = 1 to Strongly Agree = 5. Frequencies, mean scores and standard deviations are reported in Table 2. Results suggest presenting to gain professional experience (4.45), improve major's resume (4.24), improve self-confidence (4.0), improve speaking skills (3.97) were motives for majors presenting at a state conference. Results suggest that major's decisions to present were influenced by encouragement they received from their instructor (4.21) and because majors felt the experience would be fun (3.45). Of least importance was because their friends were presenting (2.34).

Majors were asked to respond to questions about the encouragement they receive from their respective institution and faculty to participate in professional development type activities such as club membership, participating in extra-curricular activities, attending scholarly meetings, etc., using a Likert scale of Strongly Disagree = 1 to Strongly Agree = 5. Frequencies, means and standard deviations are reported in Table 3. Results suggest institutions represented in this study encourage majors to attend scholarly meetings such as the state conference (3.97), that faculty talk about their professional experiences (4.25) and encourage majors to participate in extra-curricular activities such as clubs (4.44) and campus activities (4.34). Results suggest speakers from community agencies are not widely used for club meeting (3.10).

Discussion and Implications

Over 50% of the majors attending the 2008 IAHPERD Conference were doing so to learn new activities and improve their resume. A resume is a document used to reflect the degree and level of one's experiences. Majors understand the importance of professional involvement such as attending and presenting at a state conference in shaping a readers impression of their professional involvement reflected on her/his resume.

Majors aspire to be well prepared for their future. They are interested in expanding their knowledge and skills in their discipline beyond the university experience and are willing to invest the time and money necessary to do so. Majors are curious about what their instructors have experienced and want a similar experience first-hand. The results from this study suggest faculty and universities are instrumental in shaping major's professional attitudes and their involvement in professional activities such as attending and presenting at a state conference.

Majors are willing to step out of their comfort zone to present at a state conference to develop their confidence, presentation and speaking skills and gain professional experience. Encouragement by faculty and on-site campus opportunities such as clubs should provide majors with opportunities to further develop knowledge and skills beyond the classroom experience and encourage further participation in professional development initiatives.

Conclusion

Professional organizations such as IAHPERD are encouraged to continue to provide undergraduate majors with opportunities to attend and present their ideas at a state conference. For example, IAHPERD awards the Catherine Wolfe Scholarship to a deserving major from every university/college in Indiana. The recipients receive the cost of registration

and membership, travel and conferences expenses. IAHPERD is complimented for its assistance in fostering a commitment to professionalism in undergraduate majors. College and universities in Indiana need to insure that a deserving major receives this award. Other state associations could benefit from IAHPERD's investment in developing the spirit of professionalism in undergraduate majors.

Universities and faculty are encouraged to provide opportunities for majors to develop leadership and presentation skills and to investigate how they might assist more majors in attending and presenting at a state conference. This study indicates majors recognize the value of attending and presenting at a state conference even though they have not had the experience first-hand.

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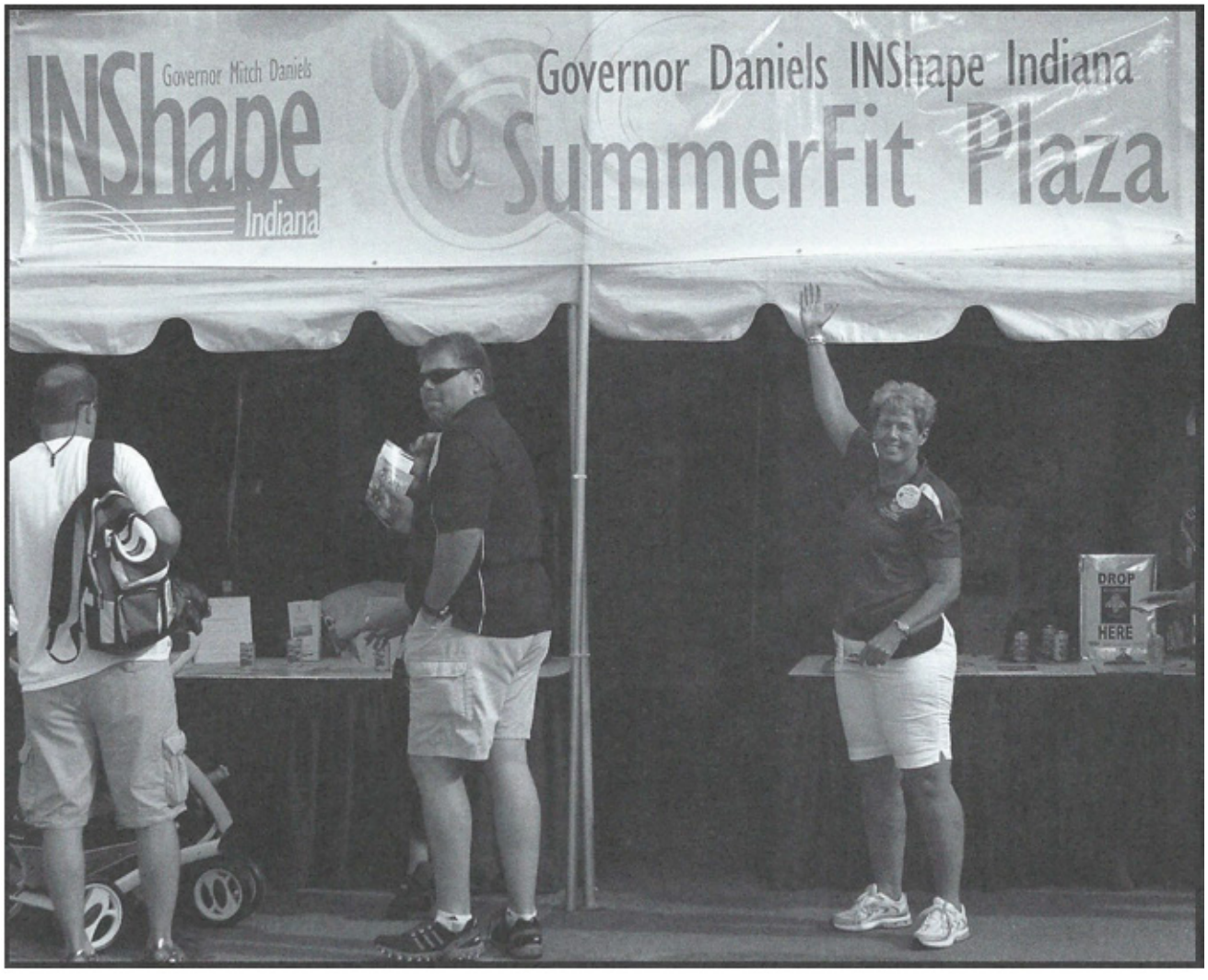

Top 20
JRFH Summary

JRFH 2008-2009	Watson Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Indian Creek Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Floyds Knobs Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Harrison Parkway Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Kennedy Primary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Hazel Dell Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Grant Line Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Fall Creek Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Mentone Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Bright Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Thorpe Creek Elementary
JRFH 2008-2009	Center Grove Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Maple Grove Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Cedar Elementary
JRFH 2008-2009	Rockville Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Sunman Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Eastern Pulaski Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Bradie M Shrum Upper Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Pioneer Elementary School
JRFH 2008-2009	Wilson Primary Center

Top 20
JRFH/HFH Summary

JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Geist Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	St Patrick School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Southport Presbyterian School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Emery O Muncie Elem. School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Wea Ridge Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Pittsboro Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Christ The King School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	International School of Indiana
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Moorhead Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Bittersweet Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Aurora Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Reagan Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Manchester Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Hickory Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Jeremiah Gray-Edison Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Eisenhower Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	St Simon The Apostle School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Cardinal Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Robey Elementary School
JRFH/HFH 2008-2009	Ossian Elementary School

Hoops for Heart

Top 20 HFH Summary

HFH 2008-2009	Noblesville Intermediate School
HFH 2008-2009	Bibich Elementary School
HFH 2008-2009	Liberty Intermediate School
HFH 2008-2009	Kankakee Valley Intermediate School
HFH 2008-2009	Albion Elementary School
HFH 2008-2009	Westfield Intermediate School
HFH 2008-2009	Cedar Canyon Elementary School
HFH 2008-2009	Indian Creek Intermediate Sch
HFH 2008-2009	Highland Hills Middle School
HFH 2008-2009	Heritage Intermediate School
HFH 2008-2009	Fairview Elementary School
HFH 2008-2009	Loogootee Elem. School East
HFH 2008-2009	Bremen Elementary - Middle School
HFH 2008-2009	Merkley Elementary School
HFH 2008-2009	Wolf Lake Elementary School
HFH 2008-2009	St John The Baptist School
HFH 2008-2009	Wea Ridge Middle School
HFH 2008-2009	Kyle Elementary School
HFH 2008-2009	Madison Junior High School
HFH 2008-2009	Warren Elementary School

JRFH
Totol = $204,261.74

JRFH/HFH
Total = $111,934.61

HFH
Total = $94,381.99

2008-09 Grand Total $410,578.34

Deck Tennis: An Old Game Deserving New Life

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Looking for a new game to play over a net? Need something new to teach? Want to meet state standards without a playing a traditional sport? Desire a fast-paced throwing and catching lead up net game for your students? Consider teaching an old favorite called Deck Tennis. This might be the game of the year for you!

History

Deck Tennis is simply a throwing and catching game played over a net. According to Merriam-Webster, Deck Tennis originated in 1927 and is described as, "a game in which players toss a ring or quoit back and forth over a net." A deck ring, otherwise known as a quoit, is a rubber ring approximately 8 inches wide and 1 inch thick. The deck ring is tossed over the net approximately 5 feet high and into the opponent's space. Much like any net sport, if the deck ring hits the ground in the designated boundary then a point was scored. Originally designed for game play on board ships, the ring was believed to be easily retrieved if it went overboard because it was designed to float.

Court Size

According to the Encyclopædia Britannica, the size of the court is typically 30-40 feet in length and 10-15 feet wide. The net height should be between that of a tennis height and a volleyball height. Recommended net height is approximately 5 feet. Ultimately designed for singles or doubles play, the game can be adapted to have three or more players on a side.

The Grip of the Deck Ring

Although Deck Tennis has no official governing body, there are techniques for effective and efficient execution of the throwing and catching skills. It is most effective to grasp the ring in the palm and wrap the fingers around the deck ring. A proper grip is one where the thumb of the throwing hand is positioned on top of the deck ring. If the thumb is located under the ring, the throw will not be a legal and will tend to wobble.

The Throw

There are basic steps for teaching the proper throwing technique. Deck Tennis is unique in that it uses a unilateral throw. The throw most closely resembles that of a flying disc throw where the arm coils around the waist in a backswing preparation prior extending the arm and releasing the deck ring. The throw may even appear to be a flinging action, except for the major difference that the Deck Tennis throw should have a low to high motion. The low to high motion creates an arc on the throw. In addition, the low to high regulation also prevents players from throwing the ring over the net in a slam dunk motion.

To execute a proper throw, the body is turned sideways to the net and the throwing shoulder is closest to the target. The ring is positioned close to the hip opposite the throwing arm so that the forearm of the throwing arm covers diagonally across the stomach area. The player steps forward on the foot closest to the net while at the same time swinging the throwing arm up and toward the net with the hand finishing high in the air (Logsdon, Alleman, Straits, Belka, & Clark). Follow through occurs as the hand is pointed to the target.

The ring should travel flat across the net. It is not meant to fly into the opponent's space vertically. In addition, the ring should not wobble. A proper throw resembles a plate or an UFO as it travels horizontally in relation to the floor. Likewise, the throwing motion is not legal when the player brings the ring directly down beside the body prior to flicking it over the net. The throwing arm must cross the torso. A good cue to use is to see if the throwing arm covers the belly button prior to throwing.

Table 1.

Throwing:
1. Turn the body sideways
2. Throwing shoulder is closest to the net
3. Grip the deck ring with the thumb on top and the fingers wrapped around
4. Reach the throwing arm across the front of the body to the opposite hip
5. Eyes on the target
6. Step toward the net on the throwing foot and throw the ring
7. The throwing hand goes from the hip to the sky in a low to high arcing motion
8. Follow through by pointing at the target

The Catch

Teaching the catch is an important part of the game. When catching a ring above the shoulders, the palm of the hand faces out and away from the body and the fingers point up to the ceiling. When contact is felt on the palm of the hand, the fingers should wrap around the deck ring while the arm bends to absorb the force of the throw. The catching motion resembles a lobster claw with a pinching action. When the deck ring is below the shoulders, the palm still faces out and away from the body but the fingers should be pointing to the floor. Upon contact, the fingers and thumb pinch together around the deck ring and the arm bends to soften the catch.

Table 2.

Catching:
1. Turn the body sideways
2. Reach the palm out and away from the body
3. Fingers point up to the sky when catching above the shoulders; fingers point down to the floor when catching below the shoulders
4. Keep eyes on the deck ring
5. Feel the deck ring make contact with the palm
6. Squeeze the fingers and thumb around the deck ring
7. Bend the arm as the catch is made to absorb the force

It is legal to catch with two hands. As the students progress in their skills, it is an opportunity to enhance the speed of the game by allowing or encouraging only one-handed catches. One handed catch restrictions facilitate throwing the deck ring sooner rather than waiting to make a decision when to return the throw.

Cooperative Deck Tennis games work well for third and fourth grades because the students develop the proper throwing and catching motion. By fifth grade, it is important to add the challenge of catching the ring with only one hand and then throwing with that same hand. Emphasis on blending the catch directly into the throwing motion will provide the thrower with a chance to catch the defense off guard in a competitive game. The blended catch and throw speeds up the game play. In addition, practicing the catch and throw with either hand will maximize the offensive person's opportunities to score a point. When the players do not have to switch hands between the throw and the catch, the game will be fast paced and exciting.

The Serve

Initiating game play begins much like other net games as the person serving stands behind the right hand court. He or she serves diagonally to the opponent across the net on the left hand side (Encyclopædia Britannica). The server then alternates service left and right.

Scoring

Points are scored when the deck ring falls inside the boundary lines in the opponent's court. Similar to tennis, points can also be scored when the opponent throws the deck ring out of bounds, or when the player misses the catch and allows the deck ring to drop to the floor anywhere. Following the scoring method of tennis, the point series is 15, 30, 40, game. Others play the game with a simpler method of scoring: the first person to 15 wins (Encyclopædia Britannica). Multiple games may be played to a set number. As in badminton, a tie at a score of 14 to 14 requires a two point differential to win.

Teaching Tactical Concepts

The game is ideal for middle school because you can directly teach some tactical concepts. Because the skills are fairly simple, tactics such as attacking space or preventing scoring can be the main focus of instruction.

Attacking space is an offensive tactic and is a great way to teach multiple ways to score points. Making the opponent move his or her feet in order to catch is a basic tactic. Purposefully changing the force of the throw will keep the defense guessing as to where the deck ring will go. A soft throw might land closer to the net while a strong throw will travel to the back of the court. Blending the catch into the throw with the same hand will help the offensive player to quickly put the ring into play. To really enforce the concept of setting up the attack and attacking the space, consider putting students into a lopsided game. For example, when playing 2 against 1, the offense should have the advantage and be successful utilizing this attacking concept.

Defensive tactics are equally as important as offensive tactics. Defending against the attack can be taught through several tactical methods. Each player must know his or her area for defending. This isn't a problem in singles play. With more than one defender, however, there is more room for error. Doubles court coverage can occur in three basic patterns. The first type of court coverage is side by side positioning. Side by side coverage has weak areas close to the net and far in the back of the court. Front and back is the second type of court coverage, with one person in front of the other in the middle of the court. With front and back defensive positioning, the weaknesses are on the sides of the court. Finally, diagonal court positioning is the third type of defense. One player is on one half of the court close to the net while the teammate is on the opposite half of the court near the back line. If you are looking from above, it appears that the court is protected by a diagonal line. The free spaces opposite the diagonal positions are the weak areas that the offensive will try to attack.

Tactical concepts for defense include shifting to where the deck ring is going. If your teammate makes the catch, a quick return to the home space is desired. On each throw, all players should be slightly moving toward the direction of the ring. Shifting and repositioning is a difficult concept for students and can be directly taught as early as fifth grade. When teaching this concept, it is often helpful to use a poly spot as a visual aid for the players. When the deck ring is in motion, they may move away from their polyspot. When the deck ring is caught, however, they should quickly reposition on their polyspot.

Backing up teammates is another difficult concept for young players. Teaching this supporting action is a challenge because it is an off the ball concept (Griffin, Mitchell, & Oslin). Students who are backing up do not directly contact the deck ring in the majority of cases. They merely are there in the event of a missed catch with the hopes of not letting the deck ring drop to the floor. Because the back up position should not be too far away or too close to the teammate making the catch, it is a challenge for young players to get in the best position possible.

Modifications

Simple modifications of the game are sometimes desired. If the students play a game in modified court sizes, it may alter the speed of the game. One court may be short and wide, providing lots of room to move laterally. Another court may be long and narrow, providing a game space that encourages forward and back movements. Another way to change the game is to use a slanted net. A slanted net is higher on one end than the other. Slanted nets provide another challenge for players as their plays must take into account the angled net.

Adapting the number of players on one side of the net provides a challenge. Having a contest with 3 against 2 provides some unique situations. One side may feel they have the benefit, but in reality it may turn out to be a very different outcome. For example, the team with three may consider they have more players to cover the space. Once the game begins, those same players may realize they are not communicating enough in order to prevent the attack. Playing 2 against 1 also is a challenge some students enjoy.

When playing in class, it is important to change opponents often. Not only will this allow students to begin new games, it will help develop decision making of all players as the opponents will vary in skill level.

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Go For Green: Promoting Your Profession While Creating Healthy, Green Schools

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Peer-Reviewed: Go Green: Promoting your Profession While Creating Healthy, Green Schools.

The movement to more energy efficient and environmentally friendly buildings and workplaces has gained great momentum over the past 5 years. New construction in every sector from corporate America to housing, professional sports, and public schools has followed a green path. A study by McGraw Hill reports that a majority of the nation's chief executive officers realize the benefit in building green and that having their companies operate in a green manner can actually lower operating costs ("New Study" 2007). The Red Sox, Washington Nationals, New York Yankees, and New York Mets are all pursuing ways to upgrade/build their new stadiums in accordance with green building techniques. The Red Sox are reusing bricks, recycling construction waste, installing low flow plumbing, and converting to fluorescent lighting (Bowen 2007). Citi Field, new home of the New York Mets, is installing a permeable paving system which allows surface water to seep back into the earth after being filtered for pollutants. This environmentally friendly system will reduce flooding and improve watershed quality. Likewise, several public school districts, including those in Cincinnati, Hawaii, and Illinois, have issued resolutions requiring all new building construction to meet established green guidelines (LEED certified).

Though many are aware of available green solutions in new construction, a school system does not need to be planning new structures or major renovations to participate in the green movement. A Green school has been defined by the US Green Building Council as one that creates a healthy environment that is conducive to learning while saving energy and money. According to a study by Capital E, green schools use, on average, 30-50% less energy, 30% less water and show an average of 38.5% reduction in asthma in schools due to improved indoor air quality (Kats 2006).

Presently, according to Rachel Gutter USGBC's school sector manager, more than 50 schools have been LEED certified* and more than 400 are in the process (St. Gerard 2008). In the coming years, more schools are expected to gain LEED certification but meeting the definition of a school that creates a healthy environment, while saving energy and money does not have to follow that route. Instead, the process by which a school becomes green can take different forms. One approach would be for the school to form a committee to conduct a facility audit and suggest change. This approach could be done quickly and, most likely, would result in a list of purchasing changes and building modifications to be performed by maintenance staff. Another approach would be for the school to adopt a more holistic attitude in which students, faculty, staff, administrators, and even community members would assess the school's current position and create plans for change. This second model would not only result in purchasing changes and building modifications, but also could result in a campus culture shift. Additionally, this model provides an opportunity for health and physical education faculty member s to take the lead in not only advocating for a greener school but also for a healthier school environment. Using the first approach, an assigned group of school administrators, wellness council members, or parent -teacher organization members would conduct a green facility audit. In this audit, leaders identify areas in which the school could cut energy costs and reduce waste. The following is a list of steps that such a group might suggest to make the campus greener:

· Conserve water. In restrooms and locker rooms, install low-flow shower heads, toilets, waterless urinals, and sink fixtures. Fixtures with sensors that turn water on and off only when in use reduce waste by eliminating the risk of leaving them running.

· Save electricity. Taking small, simple steps can reduce electricity costs. Suggestions include replacing regular light bulbs with compact, energy saving bulbs. Motion controlled lighting can be installed in classrooms, weight rooms and locker rooms, so that the lights are on only when they are in use. Natural lighting should be used whenever possible. Programmable thermostats can also reduce heating and cooling costs if temperatures are turned down during off hours. Unplugging vending machines after school hours can

also save energy.

· Purchase green products. Paper towels, cleaning supplies, hand soaps/cleaners, coffee filters and office supplies are a few of the products that now come in environmentally friendly formats. Go to Green Seal (www.greenseal.org) or Green Guard (www.greenguard.org) for help in finding green products. Also purchase energy saving equipment like self-powered fitness equipment and energy star copy machines. Finally, installing artificial turf on football fields can reduce carbon emissions from lawn mowers, eliminate pesticide treatments, and save on water usage by eliminating the need for irrigation.

· Practice the 3 r's: reduce, reuse, recycle. Send and receive electronic copies of documents instead of paper copies, use both sides of paper for copies, recycle paper, aluminum cans, plastic bottles, and printer cartridges. Reuse products until they reach the limits of their life spans. Donate unused or gently used equipment from athletic teams to physical education programs, Goodwill, or local Boys & Girls Clubs.

In the second approach, the whole school corporation gets involved in converting the school to a green environment. This model is currently being tried in Kentucky with the Green and Healthy Schools (KGHS) program. The KGHS program offers a web-based curriculum where students, teachers, staff, community members, and administrators are asked to evaluate the school in nine areas, ranging from energy efficiency to green space management, to determine if they are providing safe and healthy learning areas for the students. Participants analyze their findings and develop action plans to improve school health and sustainability. One of the inventories includes an exercise and nutrition section that challenges students to evaluate the amount of physical activity and healthy food opportunities available for each student every day. Students in health and/or physical education classes could conduct this green analysis as part of a project based learning assignment in their courses. Students could use information gained from the analysis to develop green solutions for their schools. Students could then present these plans their school wellness councils, which should be in place in each school district in Indiana. If not wellness council exists, students could present their plans directly to school administrators or the school board.

An activity such as the one described provides an outstanding opportunity for health and physical educators to stress the importance of these subject areas in the curriculum and involve students in advocating for their necessity in Indiana schools. The KGHS program recognizes that daily physical activity is a key component of a green and health school. They recommend that schools who are not meeting the acceptable allotment of available physical activity submit a proposal to the school wellness council that requires a healthy amount of physical activity (at least 30 minutes) in the school as part of their school wellness policy (Kentucky Green and Healthy Schools).

While either approach can produce a greener school environment, model two clearly provides an opportunity for health and physical educators to promote the benefits of physical activity and health education in the school day. By getting students involved in the analysis of their environments and allowing them the opportunity to create green, healthy solutions for their school systems, health and physical educators are drawing attention to the fact that their programs are key components of the student learning environment. Activities such as this could potentially change the culture of the school, resulting in a healthier school environment and an increased level of respect for the curricular areas of health and physical education. Considering the current issues facing programs of health and physical education in many Indiana schools, increased respect could not come at a better time.

*The Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) Green Building rating system is a 3rd party certification program that provides building owners and operators with the tools they need to build environmentally responsible, profitable, and healthy places to work and live. For more information go to www.usgbc.org.

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Indiana High School Track & Field Throwing Facilities: A Descriptive Analysis Including Safety Considerations

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ABSTRACT

Track and field throwing facilities for the shot put and discus are an integral component of the high school level athletic program. The inherent risk for injury with these throwing events makes the design, condition and use of these facilities an important consideration for the athletic administrator. As little research exists regarding these facilities, this study gathered descriptive and quantitative data on the high school track and field throwing facilities in Indiana to assess the impact of the facilities and coaching supervision on safety. A total of 398 online surveys were distributed via high school athletic directors to the throws coaches. A 48-item survey instrument, developed with expert input, was utilized to collect data and a total of 83 valid surveys were returned (20.9%). The results provided rich demographic data on the throws coaches, and on both the shot put and discus facilities. ANOVA analyses revealed significant differences in mean safety rating for coach's gender and facility maintenance for both throws. Additionally for the discus, significant mean safety rating differences were found for programs with indoor facilities, programs reporting a competition accident close call, and for programs securing throwing areas during non-use.

Introduction

Track and field facilities have become an integral component of the American high school for use in physical education, athletics and community wellness programs. High school track and field is the third-most popular sport among boys and the second-most popular sport among girls at the high school level with 944,901 combined participants during the 2004-05 season, according to the High School Athletics Participation Survey (Oakes, 2006). A track and field facility consists of a six to nine lane running track and several field event areas for the jumping and throwing events. The construction of track and field facilities used for athletics, recreation, and physical education in high schools are a significant and expensive component of the school's physical plant. As such, these facilities should be developed with a thorough review of the existing facilities in the state. Additionally, the decisions regarding the purchase, use and maintenance of the equipment (cage, circle, toe boards and implements) for these facilities are vitally linked to their efficient operation. The high use of these facilities, combined with the key administrative issues of safety creates a need to better understand these facilities.

Athletic competition has an inherent risk of injury for the competitors, as well as those involved with the competition, including officials, venue personnel, media and spectators. Some injuries are not preventable, while others are. Because of the close proximity of venues and the multitude of activities going on

simultaneously at a track and field meet, what occurs in one area can have an impact on another. Generally when people speak of safety they are talking about throws safety. Facility design can have an impact on safety. Facility planners should ensure that the facility meets or exceeds all rules, regulations, and guidelines of the National Federation of High School Associations (NFHS) and the International Association of Athletics Federation (IAAF) and USA Track and Field (USATF). Safety of athletes, team members, spectators and officials must be foremost in the planning of a facility design. If the designer of the track and field competition venue has knowledge of a dangerous condition in the venue that causes an injury, this, too, creates liability for the owner of the venue. In summary, any injury that could have been prevented by reasonable action by a person responsible for taking the action creates legal liability.

One aspect of track and field facilities that has received very little study are the throwing facilities. With longer distances being thrown in boys and girls throwing events, in particular, there was an increased risk of wayward implements landing on the track. As a result, the NFHS has enacted more rigid safety standards in 1990 by mandating discus cage use in all high schools by 1993 (NFHS, 2008) . Additionally, the NFHS created a smaller landing sector for the throws at 34.92 degrees effective in the 2006-07 season (Oakes, 2006). The enactment of Title IX required many high schools to renovate their track and field facilities to accommodate boys' and girls' participation. Additional throwing facilities were needed to accommodate boys and girls participating at the same time. Are current throwing facilities in Indiana sufficient to meet the needs of title IX. Do these facilities meet NFHS safety standards? A high school throwing facility that better meets the needs of its programs and users will have a significant positive impact on all those using the facility over the entire lifespan of the facility. This study examined characteristics of track and field throwing facilities at high schools in Indiana. The lack of descriptive or quantitative research for high school level throwing facilities demonstrated the need for this study.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1)What are the basic characteristics of the throws facilities and the coaches supervising them?
2)What influence does the school size have on facilities and safety?
3)What influence does the coach's training and experience have on facilities and safety?

Methods

In order to determine the size, scope and condition of track and field throwing facilities at Indiana High Schools an online survey methodology was developed. A 48-item survey instrument was developed to gather data, and the survey instrument was reviewed for face validity by a panel of athletic administrators, coaches and researchers. An email invitation to participate was distributed to high school coaches via a primary email to all 398 athletic directors within the state that included a hyperlink to the survey. The inQsit system served as the integrated system to house the survey instrument and to store and tabulate the data. Descriptive statistics regarding the throwing facilities and the coaching supervision were determined. One-way ANOVA analyses were used to assess differences in mean safety for the shot put and discus throwing areas for facility and supervision characteristics. The SPSS version 15.0 was utilized for all descriptive and analytical analyses with a .05 significance level established. All aspects of the research protocol were approved by the Institutional Review Board of the investigators' institutions.

Results

A total of 83 valid responses were obtained representing a response rate of 20.9%. A fairly equal distribution of schools sizes comprised this sample with 34.1% in 4A, 36.6% in 3A, 20.7% in 2A and 8.5% in 1A according to IHSAA basketball classification. The coaches supervising the throwing events that completed the survey would be considered experienced with a mean level of throws coaching of 13.0 years (SD = 9.7) with a range of age from 25 to 72 years (M = 41.9, SD = 11.0). The throws coaches were predominantly male (85.6%), and 89% were also employed as teachers within the school district in which they coached. The level of specific training via certification programs for these coaches averaged 8.6% for all levels of USA Track and Field, the national governing body of the sport, and 13.8% for the National High School Coaches Association general certification program. A summary of the coach's characteristics are displayed for each class and for the entire combined sample in Table 1.

Table 1

Summary of Coaches Demographic Characteristics

	Combined Classes	Class 1A	Class 2A	Class 3A	Class 4A
Male Coaches	85.6%	57.1%	88.2%	80.0%	96.4%
Female Coaches	14.4%	42.9%	11.8%	20.0%	3.6%
Coach Age (in years)	41.9	42.8	39.3	39.8	45.3
Years Coaching Throws	13.0	14.0	13.6	9.2	19.2
Teaching within the School District	89.0%	100%	70.6%	90.0%	96.4%
USATF Certification	8.6%	14.3%	0%	9.7%	10.7%
NHSCA Certification	13.8%	14.3%	12.5%	6.9%	21.4%

The general characteristics of the throws programs are summarized in Table 2. These characteristics include 91.4% of facilities being combined use for both boys and girls, and 93.7% of the facilities being combined use for both practice and competition. A vast majority of programs combine boys and girls throwers with 95.1% of schools combining practice times and with only 26.3% of schools utilizing a dedicated boys' throws coach and 12.5% of schools utilizing a dedicated girls' coach. The size of the throws programs were assessed as small if they served ten or less total athletes or five or less, and overall 29.3% of programs were classified as small. There were a greater number of small programs for girls at 45.1% compared to

31.7% of small programs for boys.

Table 2

Summary of Schools Throws Program Characteristics

	Combined Classes	Class 1A	Class 2A	Class 3A	Class 4A
Separate Facilities for Boys' & Girls'	8.6%	0%	5.9%	6.7%	14.9%
Separate Facilities for Competition	7.3%	14.3%	0%	10.0%	7.1%
Indoor Throwing Facilities Available	23.2%	14.3%	0%	10.0%	53.6%
Combined Practice Times Boys'& Girls'	95.1%	100%	100%	93.3%	92.6%
Boys Only Throws Coach	26.3%	14.3%	17.6%	20.0%	42.3%
Girls Only Throws Coach	12.5%	0%	0%	13.3%	23.1%
Combined Boys' & Girls' Throws Coach	61.3%	85.7%	82.4%	66.7%	34.6%
Small Total Program (≤ 10 total b & g)	29.3%	85.7%	47.1%	23.3%	10.7%
Small Boys' Program (≤ 5 total throwers)	31.7%	85.7%	52.9%	26.7%	10.7%
Small Girls' Program (≤ 5 total throwers)	45.1%	100%	64.7%	50.0%	14.3%

The specific traits of both the shot put and discus throw were gathered regarding facility location, landing areas, ring numbers, and cage characteristics for discus. The shot put facility characteristics are summarized in Table 3. A summary discus throw facility characteristics are displayed in Table 4.

Table 3

Summary of Shot Put Facility Characteristics

	Combined Classes	Class 1A	Class 2A	Class 3A	Class 4A
Located Inside the Track Oval	19.8%	14.3%	18.8%	20.0%	21.4%
Only One Shot Ring Available	61.0%	71.4%	88.2%	66.7%	35.7%
Landing Area 75' or Longer	28.4%	33.3%	17.6%	26.7%	35.7%
Crushed Limestone Landing Area	32.9%	14.3%	29.4%	33.3%	39.3%
Steel Rim or Recessed Concrete Circle	63.4%	71.4%	29.4%	36.7%	75.0%
Well Maintained Facility	69.5%	71.4%	64.7%	73.3%	67.9%

Table 4

Summary of Discus Facility Characteristics

	Combined Classes	Class 1A	Class 2A	Class 3A	Class 4A
Located Inside the Track Oval	2.5%	0%	6.3%	3.3%	0%
Only One Discus Ring Available	72.0%	71.4%	76.5%	80.0%	60.7%
Landing Area 200' or Longer	79.0%	66.7%	64.7%	76.7%	92.9%
Practice Circle without Cage Available	10.9%	28.6%	17.6%	10.0%	3.6%
Steel Rim or Recessed Concrete Circle	72.0%	85.7%	47.1%	70.0%	85.7%
Steel Pole and Netting Cage System	52.4%	57.1%	35.3%	66.7%	46.4%
Commercial Cage Manufacturer	46.3%	42.9%	31.3%	58.6%	42.9%
Cage Panel Height > 10'	72.8%	57.1%	68.8%	73.3%	78.6%
Cage Age < 10 Years	70.0%	71.4%	68.8%	58.6%	82.1%
Well Maintained Facility	70.4%	100%	62.5%	60.0%	78.6%

The overall throwing facility safety factors are summarized in Table 5. Throwing accidents in practice reported at 31.7% of schools were more prevalent than accidents in competition reported at 13.4%. Incidents deemed as close calls to accidents were reported at 76.8% during practices and 46.3% during competitions. It should be noted 48.4% of the 62 schools that indicated having either an accident or close call to an accident in either practice or competition believed that the a safer facility could have help prevent the situation. Additional factors such as securing the implements and securing the facilities, and supervision practices were also detailed. The overall safety and the adequacy for the number of throwers of each throwing facility were assessed on a 5-point Likert scale (1- low to 5- high). The mean safety ratings for the shot put facilities was 3.61 (SD = 1.09) while the mean rating for the discus was 3.42 (SD = 1.18). An analysis of the adequacy of the facilities for the number of throwers for each school resulted in a mean value 2.87 (SD = 1.16) for the shot put and 2.59 (SD = 1.17) for the discus. A one-way ANOVA analysis of the safety and adequacy means for each of the four enrollment classifications did not result in any significant differences for any of the four classes. Further one-way ANOVA analyses were conducted to determine significant mean differences in facility safety for either the shot put or discus facility. The following significant differences were determined for shot put safety: coaches gender, $F(1, 81) = 6.09$, $p = .016$, with male coached facilities ($M = 3.73$) greater than female ($M = 2.92$); facility maintenance, $F(1, 81) = 15.07$, $p < .001$, with well maintained facilities ($M = 3.90$) greater than facilities not well maintained ($M = 2.96$). The following significant differences were determined for discus safety: coaches gender, $F(1, 81) = 4.75$, $p = .032$, with male coached facilities ($M = 3.54$) greater than female ($M = 2.75$); programs with indoor throws facilities, $F(1, 81) = 6.77$, $p = .011$, with programs with indoor facilities ($M = 4.00$) greater than programs without indoor facilities ($M = 3.24$); facility maintenance, $F(1, 80) = 40.36$, $p < .001$, with well maintained facilities ($M = 3.88$) greater than facilities not well maintained ($M = 2.42$); competition accident close call, $F(1, 81) = 12.97$, $p = .001$, with close call free facilities ($M = 3.82$) greater than facilities reporting an accident close call ($M = 2.95$); and for secured throwing areas, $F(1, 79) = 4.72$, $p = .033$, with facilities secured during non use ($M = 3.86$) greater than facilities not secured ($M = 3.24$).

Table 5

Summary of Facility Safety Factors

	Combined Classes	Class 1A	Class 2A	Class 3A	Class 4A
Throws Accident in Practice	31.7%	28.6%	23.5%	20.0%	50.0%
Practice Close Call to Accident	76.8%	57.1%	64.7%	86.7%	78.6%
Throws Accident in Competition	13.4%	0%	23.5%	13.3%	10.7%
Competition Close Call to Accident	46.3%	57.1%	47.1%	43.3%	46.4%
Implements Locked at the Track Facility	66.7%	100%	58.3%	47.8%	88.2%
Athletes Practice without Coach Supervision	24.4%	42.9%	29.4%	23.3%	17.9%
Throws Allowed with Athletes in Landing Zone	26.8%	42.9%	23.5%	16.7%	35.7%
Throwing Areas Secured	27.5%	14.3%	29.4%	33.3%	23.1%

Table 6

Summary of Mean Facility Safety and Adequacy Ratings

	Combined Classes	Class 1A	Class 2A	Class 3A	Class 4A
Shot Put Facility Safety Rating	3.61	3.00	3.65	3.50	3.82
Discus Facility Safety Rating	3.42	3.29	3.35	3.33	3.54
Shot Put Facility Adequacy Rating	2.87	3.43	2.41	2.87	2.93
Discus Facility Adequacy Rating	2.59	2.86	2.12	2.57	2.75

Discussion

Athletic administrators at the high school level need to recognize the importance of having an experienced and certified throws coach and the impact they can have on creating a properly planned and safely operated track and

field throwing facility.

General Characteristics of the Throws Programs

Since the introduction of Title IX by Congress in 1972, the number of female high school athletes has risen dramatically creating a need for facilities that can accommodate both genders (Dudley, & Rutherglen, 2002). In recent years the trend in track and field has moved toward combining the girls and boys programs under a common coaching staff (Judge & Potteiger, 1993). The combined program has many advantages as it offers coaches the opportunity to specialize in one or two event areas. Today many track and field event coaches are faced with the challenge of training both male female athletes. This is supported by the present study as the majority (91.4%) of the throwing facilities being combined use for both boys and girls Further, a vast majority of programs combine boys and girls throwers with 95.1% of schools combining practice times and with only 26.3% of schools utilizing a dedicated boys' throws coach and 12.5% of schools utilizing a dedicated girls' coach. It is interesting to note that a majority of the schools (61%) have only one shot put ring and a vast majority (72%) have only one discus circle. This presents a logistical challenge for setting up practice for a combined gender program and calls into question the level of compliance with Title IX.

The size of the throws programs were also assessed and categorized as small if they served ten or less total athletes or five or less for the boys' or girls' programs. Overall 29.3% of programs were classified as small. There were a greater number of small programs for girls at 45.1% compared to 31.7% of small programs for boys. There are currently over 7 million participants in high school athletics each year. In 2005–2006, 53.5% of students participated in high school athletics, and there were 3.0 million female high school athletes compared with 4.2 million male athletes. There is no financial data available at the high school level but data relating to participation shows that while girls comprise 50% of the student body they only receive 39% of sports program opportunities (Howard and Gillis, 2007). Although exact participation numbers were not directly collected, the results of the present study did suggest that less girls are participating than boys based on the relatively high number of small programs for girls. The number of female coaches at the high school level has actually decreased in proportion to the number of male coaches (Sisley & Capel, 1986). This trend has also been true for female high school track and field coaches as evidenced by the relatively low number of female throws coaches in the present study. The throws coaches in the present study were predominantly male (85.6%). This may be partially explained females lack of desire to coach at the high school level. In a study of pre-entry coaching expectations of women and men, Pease and Drabelle (1988) found that women preferred coaching at lower levels.

The participants in the present study were also highly experienced throws coaches in the sport of track and field with a mean coaching experience of 13 years. Experience not only participating but also coaching the event lends to even greater knowledge of event demands; coaches are expected to not only coach athletes, but manage event sites, safety and athletes during competition. Experienced coaches understand a properly designed venue keeps the focus on coaching and training. Unfortunately, these highly experienced professionals are not typically involved with policy making decisions. Because of departmental priorities and budgetary restraints, high athletic programs may be hesitant to adopt facility recommendations that are not mandated.

Coaches Certification

Quality coaches have the right qualifications and training in order to effectively deliver their services. Coaches and physical education instructors not only need to know how to increase athletic performance, they also must take steps to create a safe training environment and help prevent accidents. The competence of a coach combines knowledge and experience. Coaching education and certification programs encourage a higher level of competence among practitioners. Surprisingly, a large number of coaches in the present study (87.6%) do not possess a USATF or NFHS coaching certification. This is especially alarming considering the highly experienced nature of the throws coaches in the present study. Why wouldn't these coaches seek certification and training as they entered the profession? This may explained by the fact that coaching education practices have had limited success but have not found much support on a wide-scale effort (Gilbert & Trudel, 1999). It may be that only when a coach has a background in participation as an athlete as opposed to substantial educational training does he or she feel competent to assume a coaching role. Several authors have stressed the importance of having well trained coaches. Mahoney and Stattin (2000) found the structure and context of the sport activity was important in determining whether participation led to positive or negative outcomes. Strean and Garcia-Bengoechea (2001) found it was the individual's sport experience that determined whether participation was viewed as positive or negative. The fact that coaches can readily be trained to provide such an environment for athletes (Smith & Smoll, 2003) suggests that coach training can be an important vehicle for improving the benefits of sport participation for athletes. Well trained sports coaches are better equipped to create positive sports experiences, which in turn keep athletes involved in sports. One would expect coaches of a potentially dangerous and very technical event area like the throws to be certified.

Facility Location

Traditionally, all track and field events are contested inside the track and field stadium (Judge & Sawyer, 2009). It makes sense that the running events, jumping events and throws are contested in the same venue so the fans can watch. The location of the shot put and discus ring is another important aspect concerning safety; is inside

the track and field oval the safest place for the shot put and discus? It was interesting to note that only 19.8% of all shot put and discus 2.5% venues in all classes were located inside the track and field oval. The high number of discus cages located outside the oval can be explained by a number of factors. The venue in many instances may be a combination track/football or track/soccer stadium and may not accommodate a discus ring and cage in the infield. This remote location may protect others for errant throws, but it also creates greater logistical problems for supervision and maintenance. This trend of moving the track and field facilities outside the football stadium is not unique to the high school level; tracks are being removed from their original location inside football stadiums at colleges and universities (King, 2009; and Hunter, 2000) and are often not rebuilt to the highest standards. The trend of removing track facilities from the primary university stadium is often traced to the 1979 renovation of Martin Stadium at Washington State University when the track was removed to add seating for football (King, 2009). There is usually a trickledown effect from the collegiate to the high school level. Merrillville High School in Lake County is an example in Indiana of a high school moving the track facilities out of the football stadium.

The Shot Put Venue

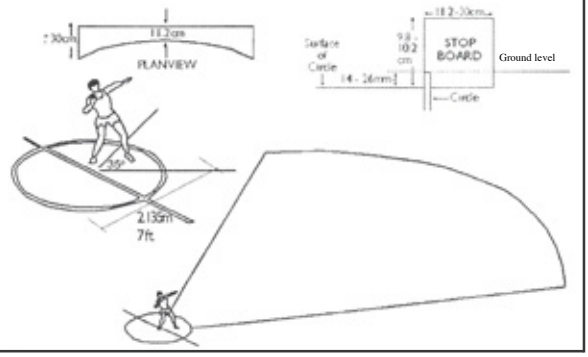
The IAAF competition rules (2007) also regulates the throwing environment for the shot put and discus and the NFHS facility specifications are based on the guidelines established by the IAAF. The throwing circle itself has a diameter of 2.135 m (5 mm) and is submerged 1.4 to 2.6 centimeters (cm) below the surface of the ground outside of the circle. A rim made of steel or iron must surround the submerged throwing surface and be flush with the ground outside of the circle. It is interesting to note that 46.6% of the throwing rings in the present study did not have a steel rim or recessed concrete circle, but instead painted the circle. This may be explained by budgetary constraints or possibly a lack of familiarity with the rules.

The surface of the circle itself must be made of a non-slippery material such as concrete or asphalt. Athletes may not spray nor spread any substance in the circle or on their shoes to enhance their grip. A white toe board made of wood or other suitable materials must be firmly fixed to the ground outside of the front rim of the circle. The toe board must be 11.2 to 30 cm wide, with a chord of 1.15 m (10 mm) for an arc equal to that of the circle and 10 cm (0.2) high in relation to the level of the inside of the circle.

Although many of the shot put facilities in the present study exceeded or met facility recommendations many were below the industry recommendations. The landing area for the shot put is marked with 5 cm wide white lines which, if extended, would extend at a 34.92 degree angle from the center of the circle (see Figure 1). The NFHS adopted the IAAF throwing sector in 2006-2007. The landing plane must be level and made of a material that permits the implement to make an imprint upon landing. Grass or cinder is typically used. A grass sector is acceptable for a landing area, but sod can become muddy and marred by divots. Dirt, coarse packed sand, clay, or cinder are better alternatives to grass. Crushed limestone was used by 32.9% of the participants in the present study. These surfaces can be raked smooth and compacting is not necessary. If a cinder or sand landing area is installed, the surface needs to extend one foot beyond the sides of the sector area. To ensure foul lines can clearly be drawn inside the landing area, they should not be placed directly on the edge of the sand or grass boundary. The sand landing area should not extend to the edge of the ring. Instead, the landing area should start approximately 10 feet (ft) from the toe board in order to accommodate the shortest of throws. Shorter warm-up throws won't leave much of a divot on grass. Grass or track surface should be placed around the throwing circle so the circle can be kept free of sand and or gravel. In addition, a curbing made of landscaping beams or railroad ties should be installed at the outer edge of the landing area in order to stop the shots from rolling. A distance of 75 ft or 23 m from the toe board for the edge of the landing area should be acceptable for most practices and competitions. It was interesting to note that only 28.4% of the landing areas in the present study were 75 feet or longer. This important as a larger landing area creates an increased awareness of a landing area and may prevent accidents.

Figure 1

Shot put throwing venue specifications.



The Discus Venue

Many of the discus facilities in the present study met or surpassed NFHS facility recommendations, but some were below the industry recommendations. A discus ring requires precise dimensions to meet NFHS regulations. The slightly recessed concrete-surfaced circle of 2.5 meters (8 feet 2 inches) diameter is slightly larger than the shot put circle (NFHS, 2006). Like the shot put circle, it is submerged 1.4 to 2.6 centimeters (cm) below the surface of the ground outside of the circle. The surface of the circle itself must be made of a non-slippery material such as concrete or asphalt. The NFHS enacted a rule in 1990 that required all high schools to have a discus cage by 1993 (NFHS, 2006). The NFHS specifications are not as stringent as the IAAF requirements for the discus cage. This newly created rules if reflected by the fact that the majority of schools (70%) in the present study had a discus cage that was less than

10 years old. The current rule book states that for either portable or permanent installation, it is recommended that the discus cage be constructed of heavy nylon netting or other material that will absorb the energy of the discus to prevent bounce-back (NFHS, 2006). To help contain costs, some high schools choose a local fence manufacturer to install this important facility using chain link fencing (which in some cases is actually a greater danger to the thrower than to spectators). Another very important issue with non-commercially manufactured hammer cages is the lack of gates at the front of the cage. The gates are the part of the cage that protects the landing area outside of the sector lines. The lack of gates drastically increases the danger zone around the landing sector and puts anyone in the vicinity of the venue at risk. Only 47.6% of the schools in the present study reported having this type of chain link fence cage system and 42% reported having a commercially manufactured cage. On commercially manufactured cages, installation of the protective netting is of upmost importance. Often netting is not properly installed and is tied back too tightly or looped over tied downs which defeats the energy absorbing characteristics for which it was intended. If the netting is too tight an errant throw can potentially ricochet and hit the thrower in the ring. A properly installed net has "give" and often non-competing throwers and officials are in danger when they think they are completely safe but in fact they are standing too close to the netting. Additionally, when there are places where the netting has holes or weaknesses; implements have gone through even the smallest openings and caused serious injury to officials and spectators. It also states in the rules that there must be a rear to the cage as well as sides that extend forward at least to the front of the ring and preferably several feet beyond the front of the ring. The ends of the cage (wing/gate pole) should be placed near enough to the sector lines to maintain a 4 to 5 feet relationship in distance from the lines (NFHS, 2006). The height of the cage is important as it helps protect the other field event areas and the straight away from errant throws. The height of the cage is recommended 10 feet to 14 feet and the front opening is recommended at 20 feet to 24 feet (NFHS, 2006). The majority of the participants in the study (72.8%) reported a cage that was greater than 10 feet high. This indicates that one quarter of the facilities did not meet the recommended guidelines for cage height and may be at risk for a potential accident. The width of the opening was not addressed on the survey. It is interesting to note that some schools reported having discus circles without a protective cage.

Cage inspection and perimeter supervision during a practice or competition is a must. There are times during the season when the protective net may not be properly anchored or can come unattached and may pose a danger to onlookers (Figure 2). It is important to check to cage each day before starting practice and stay on top of all maintenance issues. As discussed earlier, a properly installed net has "give" which helps protect the thrower in the ring, but may endanger spectators standing too close to the netting. A safe zone must be established around the perimeter of the cage. Throwers and officials should always be instructed to stand 5 to 10 feet away from the cage. Even with a properly installed cage, onlookers are in potential danger when they think they are completely safe if they are standing too close to the netting.

Table 2

Summary of Schools Throws Program Characteristics

	Combined Classes	Class 1A	Class 2A	Class 3A	Class 4A
Separate Facilities for Boys' & Girls'	8.6%	0%	5.9%	6.7%	14.9%
Separate Facilities for Competition	7.3%	14.3%	0%	10.0%	7.1%
Indoor Throwing Facilities Available	23.2%	14.3%	0%	10.0%	53.6%
Combined Practice Times Boys'& Girls'	95.1%	100%	100%	93.3%	92.6%
Boys Only Throws Coach	26.3%	14.3%	17.6%	20.0%	42.3%
Girls Only Throws Coach	12.5%	0%	0%	13.3%	23.1%
Combined Boys' & Girls' Throws Coach	61.3%	85.7%	82.4%	66.7%	34.6%
Small Total Program (≤ 10 total b & g)	29.3%	85.7%	47.1%	23.3%	10.7%
Small Boys' Program (≤ 5 total throwers)	31.7%	85.7%	52.9%	26.7%	10.7%
Small Girls' Program (≤ 5 total throwers)	45.1%	100%	64.7%	50.0%	14.3%

Perceptions of Safety

The safety of athletes, officials and spectators when the shot put and discus is being thrown is paramount. There have been several fatal accidents and close calls over the years in the United States involving the throwing events (Connolly, 2006). Unfortunately, major incidents usually occur because the early warning signs (close calls) are ignored. Professionals often consider the practices of their peers to determine the appropriate safe and proper standard of care (Cotton & Wolohan, 2007). Throwing accidents in practice reported at 31.7% of schools were more prevalent than accidents in competition reported at 13.4%. Incidents deemed as close calls to accidents were reported at 76.8% during practices and 46.3% during competitions. It should be noted 48.4% of the 62 schools that indicated having either an accident or close call to an accident in either practice or competition believed that the a safer facility could have help prevent the situation. The analysis of the coaches overall perception of throwing facility safety demonstrated that factors like the height of the cage, the manufacturer of the cage and response time to maintenance issues significantly impacted safety ratings echoing current research (Gutiérrez, Soto, & Rojas, 2002). The standard of care, as well as the "legal" standard used to judge provider practices in the event of an accident, claim and suit, is often based upon the standard of care owed to clients by various professionals. In the event of litigation, particular practices are generally examined by expert witness, who, based upon the professional standard of care, may support or criticize the services in question (Cotton & Wolohan, 2007).

Additional factors related to safety such as securing the implements and securing the facilities, and supervision practices were also examined. A large number, but not all of the participants in the study (66.7%) reported that the implements were locked up when not in use. But, more importantly (24.4%) of participants in the present study

reported that athletes were able to practice without the supervision of a coach as only 27.5% of the throwing areas were secured. Allowing athletes unrestricted access to implements and unsupervised practices creates a potentially dangerous situation. Further, 26.8% of coaches allowed athletes in supervised practices to stand in the throwing sector while athletes were in the ring creating an unnecessary risk of an accident.

Conclusions

Results of this study raise some interesting conclusions and suggestions for future research. This paper represents only a modest beginning point for a further study of throwing facility design at high schools in the United States. Overall, IHSAA member institutions have realized the importance and benefits of improved sport facilities, but this has not transcended through all sport venues. Future research should expand this study to regional and national levels. The results of this study can be used to make recommendations the IHSAA on improving existing facility standards at Indiana High Schools. This study also provides a basis for continued expansion of this research methodology to other states and regions.

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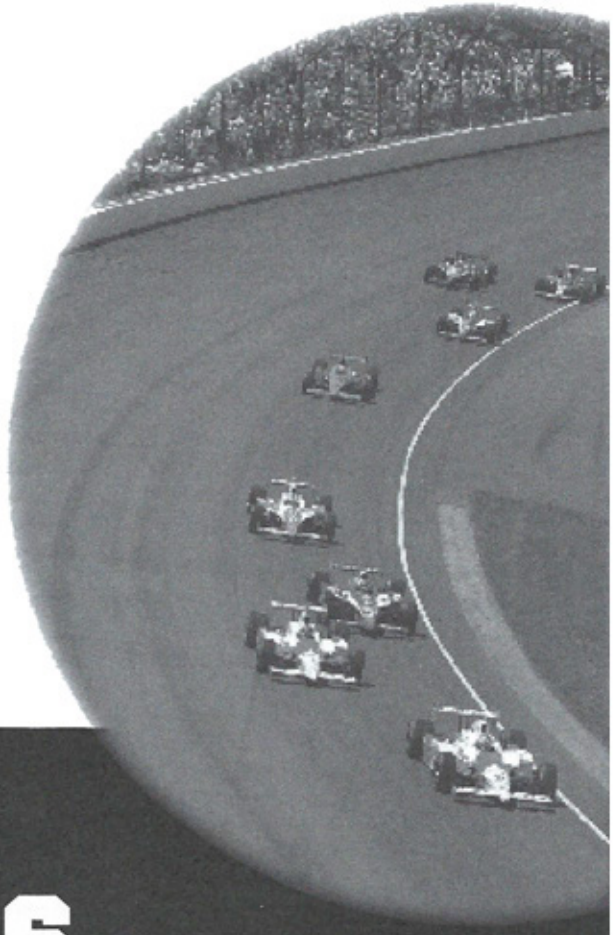

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Increasing Physical Activity in University Students: Implementing a Pedometer Program into a Required University Wellness Course

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Introduction

Colleges and universities have the potential to make a significant impact on the health status of the United States. Seventy-three million individuals (twenty-six percent) of the population have completed at least four years of advanced education and 15.2 million are currently pursuing a degree in higher education (American College Health Association [ACHA], 2006). Only fifteen percent of adults and adolescents engage in regular, moderate physical activity for the recommended minimum of 30 minutes 3 days per week (ACHA, 2006). Since physical activity, being overweight and obese are the leading health indicators in the United States (ACHA, 2006), university wellness and physical activity programs provide a prime environment in which to favorably impact these statistics. Universities generally provide the final avenue for formal education, have the facilities and expertise to provide programming, thus impact in this area. The authors present the strategies used to counteract these statistics by incorporating a pedometer based steps program in a required university wellness course.

The authors, in conjunction with others, developed a highly successful pedometer -based faculty and staff wellness program targeting an increase in physical activity. Due to the success of the faculty and staff wellness program, university students were eager to participate in a similar program. The plausible place for such a program was in the university general education requirement course, Wellness and Fitness for a Lifetime (one credit hour). The choice of a pedometer-based steps program was rational as the university lacked sufficient recreation and fitness facilities to accommodate the entire student population. The course also met only two days per week, thus students were provided an avenue to monitor and motivate physical activity outside of the class meeting times. This pedometer program allowed for all students to participate equally using a common mode (walking). Walking has been viewed as the most common physical activity and is especially appropriate for inactive adults (Siegel, Brackbill, & Heath, 1995 and Hilldson, Thorogood, Antiss, & Morris, 1995). Students were encouraged to monitor and record all types of physical activity in addition to walking or step activities during a 12 week program. The goal of the program was to increase the level of physical activity, especially those with a pattern of little to no physical activity. The recording of steps was a course requirement (approximately fourteen percent of the overall course grade). The provision of knowledge and access to behavioral change also acted as an advocacy tool for the area of discipline. University students quickly become the tax payers and voting members of the society. When students receive the knowledge and experience indicating the importance and confidence to become and remain physically active, they are more apt to advocate and vote for increased resources in this area.

Why Pedometer Programs work

Pedometer based programs are seemingly successful because pedometers provide immediate, reliable and valid feedback for students regarding their physical activity (Pangrazzi, Beighle, & Sidman, 2003). In addition, pedometers offer a cost and time effective assessment measurement tool for instructors of physical education and physical activity programs. When students measure, monitor and record their physical activity levels, they are more apt to self-assess and set appropriate goals for physical activity (Tudor-Locke, 2002). In addition to being a leading health indicator, physical activity is positively linked to academic achievement (see Smith and Lounsbery, 2009 for review of current research). Universities are challenged with meeting challenging academic standards, thus the role of physical activity in academic achievement is important to note at all levels, including higher education settings.

Program Outline

Students are required to purchase a pedometer with their textbook. The bookstore carries pedometers recommended by instructors (New Lifestyles Digi-Walker

SW-200) for students to purchase. Authors suggest using a mono function pedometer, one that only measures steps taken. While other functions (e.g. mileage, calories, etc.) are useful, instructors feel as if they spend too much time resolving issues with the multi-functions rather than on the goal of increasing physical activity. Students are given the goal of reaching 10,000 steps per day. 10,000 steps (approximately five miles) taken per day is the ultimate goal as evidence of an active lifestyle. 2,000 to 4,000 steps taken per day is considered sedentary and 5,000 to 7,000 steps taken per day is considered somewhat active (Mayol, 2009). A baseline or average steps taken per day should be determined at the beginning of the program. Students should then increase the goal by ten percent each week until the goal of 10,000 steps taken per day is reached (Mayol, 2009). Social support is important to beginning and maintaining a physical activity program. To facilitate this methodology, students are organized into teams. Teams consist of each section of the wellness course (in this case 13 sections of approximately 30 students each). The instructor acts as the team leader or coach.

Students report steps one time per week via a university web site specifically designed for the pedometer program, with the reporting goal being 70,000 steps each week. The website eases the burden of step recording on behalf of the instructor and is highly encouraged. On the website developed by the University, students can view their personal step counts as well as their instructor steps. Students are given a deadline by which to report steps each week and step reporting is not permitted beyond the deadline. Step totals per week are limited to 125,000 so students do not 'make up' steps from previous weeks for count inflation should they fail to report. On a weekly basis, recognition (website congratulations) is provided when student reach milestone step counts of 250,000, 500,000, and 1,000,000. A most improved recognition for one student in each class is also listed on the website. This recognition is granted to the student who improves the most from the previous week. Overall, the website provides a simple and accurate method of tracking student steps, assists with data collection, and the student evaluation process.

Introduction to Students

Expectations and rules of the pedometer program are included in the syllabus (table 1). Instructors of the wellness course spend one day instructing students on how to properly use the pedometer and record steps via the website. Students are first introduced to how physical activity is an important aspect for development of health benefits and how the pedometer is a proper tool to measure individual physical activity (see Mayol, 2009 for further information for students). Pedometers measure the vertical movement at the hip. Students are informed that pedometers only accurately measure activities where the hip moves vertically (walking, running, basketball, etc.). Alternate physical activities (swimming, bicycling, skateboarding, etc.) need to use a conversion chart to estimated steps (table 2). Students are instructed on the proper step conversion website, university website login and recording information (Table 3).

Proper placement of the pedometer is critical to accurate measurement. Instructors spend the remainder of the class time ensuring accurate step measurement. The pedometer needs to remain on an upright plane, worn at the waist above the knee, and in direct contact with the body. During the first class session, students are instructed to take 100 'normal' steps, stop, and check for accuracy. Inaccurate readings are most often due to loose-fitting clothing. If the reading is plus or minus three steps, accuracy is deemed satisfactory. If the reading is beyond the plus or minus the three tolerance level, the instructor directs the student to move the pedometer toward the outside of the body (near or over hip), reset the pedometer, and take an additional 100 steps. If the reading continues to be beyond the three percent tolerance level, students are directed to an alternative placement of the pedometer. This occurrence is most common in some females and overweight students. These students are directed to move the pedometer to the back of the hip or waistline at middle back (Cuddihy, Pangrazi, & Tomson 2005). At this point in the instruction, students are reminded that steps reported are private, between the instructor and the student, and honest reporting is expected. Students are held to the same standards as other assignments and must adhere to the University academic integrity policy. The pedometer assignment is approximately 15 percent of the overall course grade. Students receive 100 points if 91 percent of the 10,000 steps per day goal is met (11 or 12 weeks), 75 points for 75 percent of goal met (9-10 weeks), etc. See requirements listed in course syllabus for further information (table 1). Inflated results will not dramatically influence course grade. While taking class time to check pedometer accuracy may be viewed by some as inefficient, accuracy is necessary to decrease student frustration.

Requirements

A necessary step in the pedometer program is the ease of reporting participant steps. The development or utilization of a website is suggested, especially for large groups. Paper reporting (table 4) can be utilized for small groups and those without computer access. Most universities have access to a technology department which can develop a website reporting structure. There are also websites available for students to report steps free of charge (e.g. PE Central; See table 5 for additional pedometer resources). Instructors are critical for the success of the program. Instructors are the 'coach' of the pedometer 'team'. Instructors recognize and reward student accomplishment. Instructors are also the person sought to solve pedometer problems. Instructors need patience, especially in the beginning of the program, to motivate students for success. Course administrators are currently working on automated website and email congratulations for various recognition levels.

Results

Overall, the program was extremely successful; students request that a steps program be continued outside of the required wellness class. Instructors report that they appreciate the pedometer program due to the ease of reporting of steps via the website, students are held accountable for physical activity outside of class in a measureable fashion, and they see student progress over the course of the semester. Students report that they enjoy and appreciate the inclusion of the pedometer program in the course because they can see their individual progress, achieve milestone step benchmarks, can choose other modes of activity through the conversion chart, and can see that their instructor is active as well through reporting on the website. Students have enjoyed the pedometer program so much that they have requested a program extending beyond or after the wellness course, similar to the faculty and staff program to encourage physical activity throughout their university career. 265 total students participated in the pedometer program, with 99 percent of students submitting steps each week. Students averaged 104,210 steps per week and 14,887 steps per day. Overall both instructors and students view the incorporation of pedometers in the wellness class as beneficial and motivational. Increasing physical activity in adolescents and adults is critical to improving the health of the nation as only 15 percent report meeting the minimum recommendation. As colleges and universities service approximately 26 percent of the nation's population, the inclusion of the pedometer based steps program in a university course is an easy and efficient way to motivate students to increase physical activity.

based steps program in a university course is an easy and efficient way to motivate students to increase physical activity.

Table 1. Pedometer Program Requirements in Course Syllabus

1. You will be required to use a pedometer for this assignment. Students are required to keep track of their steps daily and submit one weekly step total by Friday at 12pm noon via the student pedometer website. *(Steps counted from Wed to Tues = 7 days.)*

***Student Pedometer Website: www.uindy.edu/wpp/.**

2. Grading is from Wed, Aug 26 to Tues, Nov 17 (12 weeks).

3. ***Points will be applied at the end of the semester based upon the criteria below. You must have submitted your steps via the website by the deadline in order for them to count toward your final step total.***

- 11 or 12 weeks of 10KaDay (70Kper week) = 100 points
- 9 or 10 weeks of 10KaDay (70Kper week) = 75 points
- 7 or 8 weeks of 10KaDay (70Kper week) = 50 points
- 5 or 6 weeks of 10KaDay (70Kper week) = 25 points
- 4 weeks or less of 10KaDay (70Kper week) = 0 points

4. Students who falsify steps upon submittal on the website will be held accountable under the university's Academic Integrity policy re: cheating (see above).

5. Since all students will be at different starting points with their walking program, this will allow the students to make improvements on their # of steps each week throughout the semester at their own pace.

6. Weekly results of class step totals will be posted each Monday on the website and weekly recognition of most improved students and students who have reached milestones (250K, 500K and 1Million steps) will also be posted.

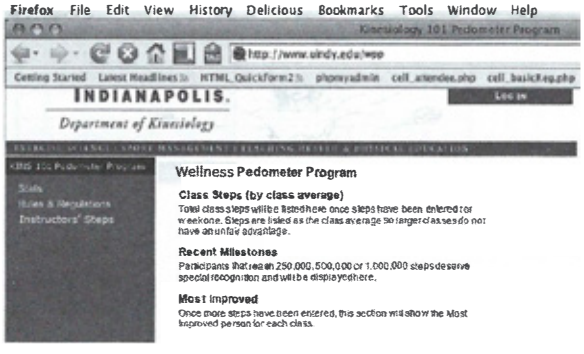
Information at www.indiana-ahperd.org

Table 2. Sample Step Conversion Chart

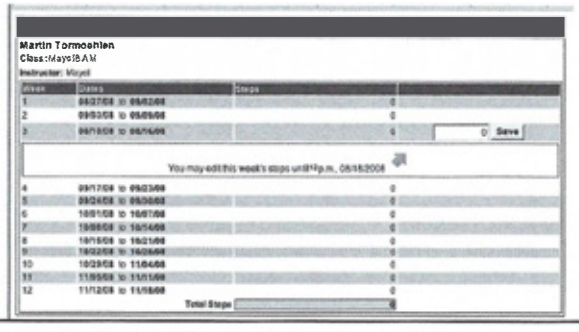
Activity	Estimated Step Equivalent (per min.)
Bicycling	242
Bicycling fast	364
Bicycling under 10 mph	121
Billiards/pool	76
Bowling	91
Calisthenics – vigorous	242
Calisthenics - light to moderate	106
Canoeing	106
Circuit training	242
Climbing - rock or mountain	273

Table 3. Pedometer Website Example Screens

Welcome Screen (Recognition for Students Meeting Milestones)



Step Enter Screen



Rules Screen

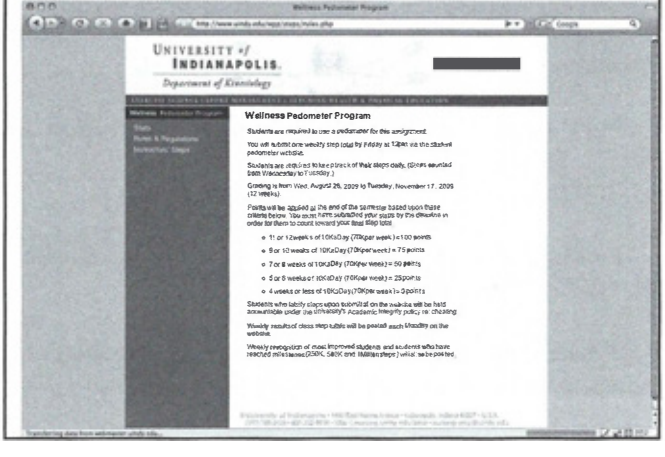


Table 4. Step Log (Hard Copy)

Log sheets for pedometer use and keeping track of your steps.

WEEK	DAILY GOAL	MON	TUES	WED	THURS	FRI	SAT	SUN	WEEKLY TOTAL	WEEKLY MILES

Note: Your daily goal should be 10,000 steps per day or more and 70,000 steps per week or more. Remember that approximately 2,000 steps equals 3 mile.

Table 5: Useful Pedometer Websites

http://www.peclogit.com/logit.asp
(PECentral's free step log)

http://Walking.about.com/od/measure/a/stepequivalents.htm
(step conversion for non-measured pedometer activities)

http://10000steps.org.au/
(free information for worksites)

http://www.puzzleexpress.com/Software/pedometer_win.htm
($10.00 log software download)

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Assessing pre-service teachers' use of digital video recordings as a form of feedback

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine how pre-service teachers perceived and used multiple forms of feedback, in particular a digital video recording, from a recently completed field experience. In particular, six forms of feedback were identified and utilized by the pre-service teacher. These included: (1) course instructor verbal assessment (2) peer written assessment (3) a digital video recording (DVR) (4) an instructor generated written rubric and checklist (5) peer conversation and (6) self-ruminations via a written reflection over the teaching session. Results indicate that the DVR and course instructor comments were perceived equally and significantly as the two most useful forms of feedback. The remaining four forms of feedback did not demonstrate significance. Finally, there was a negative correlation between identifying an objective prior to viewing and the number of times the DVR was viewed in order for the self-assessment to be completed.

Introduction

Education, Nursing, Music, Medicine, and Psychology have incorporated video recordings into their curriculum for decades (Berg and Smith, 1996; Kpanga, 2001; Parkin and Dogra, 2000). This use has been in the form of (a) a hook to engage and excite learners (b) a demonstration aid so students can see an expected behavior and / or (c) a case study training tool to see both exemplar and undesirable modeling. And, while all of these uses have been met with varying levels of success, nearly all content areas have reported positive benefits associated with the use of video recordings (Kpanja, 2001; Parkin and Dogra, 2000; Syruk and McCoy, 1993).

Pre-service teaching preparation, historically, has depended on video recordings as a form of feedback, but usually in a summative form toward the end of the student teaching experience (Jensen, Shepston, Connor, and Killmer, 1994). And, as Rogers and Tucker (1993) point out, this summative feedback occurs as a self- or peer assessment technique. However, given the breadth of the aforementioned disciplines and the pedagogical variety in which pre-service teachers have used video feedback, there are gaps in the literature concerning video recordings.

For instance, when assessing video recordings as a form of feedback, most studies presented the video recordings exclusively; in isolation to other forms of feedback (Beck et al, 2002; Kpanja, 2001; and Parkin and Dogra, 200). The studies rarely, if at all, compared video recordings to other forms of feedback concerning performance such as: (a) supervisor verbal comments (b) peer comments (c) peer evaluation forms (d) self-written reflections or (e) supervisor written evaluations. Therefore, subjects had to evaluate the extent to which they found video recordings helpful at the same time the video recordings were the only form of feedback they received on a recently completed teaching episode or similar field experience. They did not have to evaluate how video recordings helped them in comparison to multiple forms of feedback. This consistent omission of other forms of feedback served as the genesis of this project and helped shape the research question, "How do pre-service teachers perceive and use digital video recording feedback to other forms of feedback"?

Methods

Subjects

With Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, the subjects used in this study were enrolled in a junior/senior level methods course focusing on physical education pedagogy. They were enrolled at a large, Mid-Western urban university. Given the small sample size (N = 10) and to ensure anonymity, demographic information such as: age, gender, and ethnicity were not recorded. All subjects were Physical Education Teacher Education majors, had attained junior standing in the academic unit, and completed the same group of pre-requisite courses to qualify for enrollment in the current course. Each subject taught the same number of times throughout the semester; no subject was digital video recorded on their very first teaching and each subject was digital video recoded an equal

number of times.

Setting

Thirty-two (32) local 4th-6th grade students were bused to the university gymnasium once a week, for approximately 14 weeks for their Physical Education program. The physical education session lasted for 60 minutes and was broken down into two thirty minute periods.

For each day the elementary students visited the site, the university pre-service teachers had one of two responsibilities; either as teacher or as trained observer. If they were the teacher, they were responsible for teaching one complete 30 minute physical education lesson to the corresponding elementary-aged students. If they were the observer, they would observe and record data about a peer they were assigned to watch teach for that 30 minute lesson. Additionally, each teacher would be assigned two observers.

Prior to being an observer, the pre-service teachers were instructed on the observable points of a physical education teaching session (Siedentop and Tannehill, 2001). This instruction was linked to assigned readings for the course. Based on the readings and instruction, 4 variables were chosen to be observed and recorded by the pre-service teachers' peers. They were (a) ALT-PE (Academic Learning Time in Physical Education) (b) equity pedagogy: behavioral interactions (c) equity pedagogy: skill feedback statements and (d) clarity of instruction.

After this initial assigned reading and subsequent instruction, each pre-service teacher was afforded the chance to practice coding data during the preliminary teaching sessions. This practice occurred with in class time and at the prompting and supervision of the course instructor. Following, all pre-service teachers were shown a video of a teaching session from a nationally known physical educator and, then, were asked to evaluate it using the metrics previously identified. Finally, each pre-service teacher's first teaching with the elementary-aged students was used as practice time for peer observations. Upon completion of each phase of the observer training, the course instructor analyzed and evaluated the pre-service teachers' coded forms with group discussion as part of the debriefing. Critique and specific instruction followed in hopes of compressing variance of inter-rater reliability. The end result inter-rater reliability of each observer for each teaching session was unverifiable.

The six forms of feedback were made available to the pre-service teacher for their review. Again, these were (1) course instructor verbal assessment (2) peer written assessment (3) the digital video recording (4) course instructor generated rubric and checklist (5) peer verbal conversation and (6) the subjects own written ruminations over the teaching session.

Data Collection

Data was collected through a survey instrument. This one-page survey was comprised of three areas; with each area containing, both, quantitative and qualitative items. The first segment offered statements directed at identifying the significance to which each form of feedback, individually, benefited the pre-service teacher. The second segment related to the viewing process of the digital video recording and what the pre-service teacher did while viewing the recording. And, finally, the third segment of the survey comprised miscellaneous items regarding the digital video recording. The quantitative dimensions of the survey were comprised of closed-ended statements scored on a Likert-Type scale ensuring interval data; with 5 indicating 'strongly agree' and 0 indicating 'strongly disagree'. The qualitative areas were probe items that were prompted, open-ended commentaries at the end of each section.

The constructed survey had been offered in a trial capacity in a previous semester and was judged by two external reviewers. In this original draft, it was found that for some items students who completed the survey wrote in the margin to 'qualify' their answer. This was evidence that modification in survey-item length and cross-check questioning was necessary. The final iteration satisfied key survey concepts with researcher triangulation and validation of the survey instrument occurring prior to use in this study.

Data Analyses

Quantitative

Given the small sample size and the novelty of distribution regarding the feedback options of this study, parameter-free methods were used. Friedman's Two Analysis of Variance was used to investigate differences in variables. In addition, Spearman R was used to determine relationships between variables. Statistical analyses was performed using SPSS (most recent version) with an alpha level of $p = .05$ for all tests.

Qualitative

Analysis techniques from Bernard (2006), especially those based in grounded theory, were used to determine themes or threads. Subsequent coding to draw inferences from the open-ended responses was used to develop emerging ideas.

Results and Conclusions

Forms of Feedback

From the quantitative perspective, only two of the six forms of feedback were found to be significant. They were: (1) instructor debriefing ($M = 5.0$; $p = .025$) and (2) digital video recording (DVR) of the teaching ($M = 5.0$; $p = .025$). Further analysis revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between each of those two forms of feedback and, individually, the other four variables (ranging from $M = 2.79 – 3.71$).

This finding was supported by the qualitative analysis, as well. In fact, all 10 of the pre-service teachers made comments in this open–ended section on the survey.

These 10 students generated over 18, in total, discrete comments. All comments were favorable to both the course instructor assessment and the DVR as forms of feedback. Indicative and exemplar comments were:

(a)"The immediate verbal feedback (from course instructor assessment) helped me in knowing what the students did during my teaching that I did not see."

(b) "Watching the DVR was a great way to improve my teaching. Whether the teaching went well or poorly, it (the DVR) helped."

An interesting, yet somewhat expected, comment was offered that also supports the lack of significance for at least one of the other 4 forms of feedback. And that is:

(c) "The peer assessment tool was the least effective in that I am not sure my classmates knew what they were doing or what to look for; I am not sure they gave me the correct data about my teaching."

Use of the DVR

This section looked at viewing the DVR from three perspectives. The first section offered prompts so students could determine what they did while watching the DVR. The second section was more related to the pre-service teacher reflecting on the watching of the DVR and estimating how helpful it was toward the planning and preparation of their subsequent teaching. And finally, the third part related to the pre-service teachers emotions about their teaching and if they changed after watching the DVR.

It was found that two of the eight items that were indicative of how students used the DVR ended up with near unanimous results. They were:

(a)"I usually had no objective, I just watched the DVR unstructured". Nearly all students scored this a 0; meaning they strongly disagreed with this statement. This statement had a mean score of .74/5.0.

(b)"I was able to notice something I had not remembered". This statement earned a 4.9/5.0.

The other closed-ended statements were responded to more equivocally and did not display significance; averages ranged from 2.87 – 3.64 on these remaining items.

Additionally, there was a negative correlation (r_s = -.594) between the number of times a student watched the video (M = 2.86) and whether they viewed it with no objective. It was found that the more purposeful the viewing, the fewer times one viewed the DVR. This makes sense as it is more time efficient to watch the DVR when you have a goal and are looking for something in particular than to view it unstructured just because you were asked to.

The qualitative analysis of this section revealed that, once again, all 10 students offered, in total, 13 discrete comments in this section. Analysis revealed, however, that not all of the three parts (as described above) of the DVR review were addressed with pre-service teacher comments. In fact, the comments were exclusive to the emotions of having watched the DVR and then how the pre-service students felt toward their teaching. Analysis revealed there was no consistent emotive change upon watching the DVR and their feelings toward that teaching session. The following comments captured student sentiment:

(a)"I always felt better about my teaching after watching the DVR. I was excited to see something I may have missed while in the moment"

(b)"It (watching the DVR) made me feel worse. When I watch something for review I am critical of it and look for the negative"

(c)"There was a different feeling each time I watched a DVR of my teaching. One of the teachings went well so I was excited to see it. Another teaching went really bad; so I was not that excited to see it."

In essence, students viewed the DVR as favorably as course instructor verbal assessments, yet, more significantly important than 4 other forms of feedback. When watching the DVR, it was found that when subjects were looking for something in particular, they would need to watch the DVR fewer times than if they viewed it without an objective. Also, the act of watching the DVR presents no predictable emotional consequence toward how they felt they did on their teaching.

Educational Importance

First, this study is not without limitation. For example, a sample size of 10 is rather limiting and presents distribution problems when trying to view the data parametrically. That said this mixed method approach, and the accompanying parameter-free data analysis, does address a current gap in the literature. As noted earlier, previous studies presented video recordings as the only way a subject was assessed. Based on having only one option to receive feedback (video recordings) subjects were not afforded alternative forms of feedback for comparison to determine which may have been most helpful. This limited exposure to feedback opportunities could be viewed as too myopic and call into question the generally favorable results reported earlier. To address this potential concern, the current study presented multiple forms of assessment (6 to be exact) to the subjects for them to determine what was most useful and how they used a particular type (DVR).

Based on the findings from this study, video recordings are viewed in parallel to course-instructor verbal assessments immediately after a teaching session as being the most beneficial. More important, however, is the suggestion that

a DVR is superior to peer verbal comments, peer written assessments, course instructor written assessment, and self ruminative assessments for the subjects. In that regard, the findings of this study support the earlier contentions that video recordings are beneficial to pre-service teacher / professional development. At the same time this study narrowed the evident gap concerning exclusivity of video recording feedback from the earlier studies by offering various forms of feedback as comparison.

Moreover, the conclusions of this current study could prove to be very insightful if they were to hold up over time with continued investigation. If it were found that the most beneficial and perceived forms of assessment for pre-service teachers could be reduced to two, then course instructors (teacher education faculty) could dedicate more time and resources to focusing on the most effective forms of feedback instead of hoping that more forms of feedback, by default, are better.

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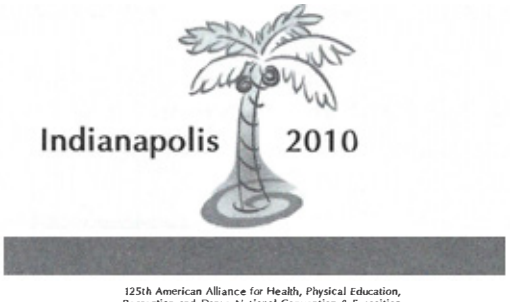

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