Teaching Value-Laden Curricula in Physical Education

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Research on physical educators’ value orientations has identified five orientations: disciplinary mastery, learning process, self-actualization, social responsibility, and ecological integration. An interpretive research design was used to compare the extent to which 2 physical education teachers' content differed because of their value orientations. Findings revealed that the 2 teachers established curriculum goals and emphasized aspects of the physical education content that were associated with their individual value orientations. Dan, a learning-process-oriented teacher, stressed teaching students learning skills by breaking down movement skills into simple elements. John, a social-responsibility-oriented teacher, emphasized teaching social responsibility through physical activities. Both teachers viewed learning physical activities as a means to develop students’ analytic or social skills. However, philosophical differences were found in how curricular goals and content were determined. The findings suggest that clarifying teachers’ value orientations should be considered an appropriate initial step in curriculum innovation and change.

Researchers have indicated that teachers’ belief systems play decisive roles in the teaching–learning process. When teaching, the “teacher’s cognitive and other behaviors are guided by and make sense in relation to a personally held system of beliefs” (Clark & Peterson, 1986, p. 207). This belief system reflects teachers’ philosophical values of education and consequently influences their curricular decisions on what content should be taught and how it is taught in classrooms. In other words, teachers’ educational value systems determine how they provide and use knowledge in teaching. Teachers are considered to be going through a process of “pedagogical reasoning” (Shulman, 1987, p. 14) during which they integrate their knowledge about the content and pedagogy to make curricular decisions about what to teach. It is during this pedagogical reasoning process that teachers’ value systems play critical roles in determining teachers’ choices. This value-based curriculum decision making has been empirically observed by educational researchers in both mathematics education (e.g., Peterson, Fennema, Carpenter, & Loef, 1989) and physical education (e.g., Ennis & Zhu, 1991).

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Jewett, Bain, and Ennis (1995) identified five value orientations among physical educators: disciplinary mastery, learning process, self-actualization, social responsibility, and ecological integration. Physical educators with a disciplinary mastery (DM) orientation focus on developing performance proficiency in sport skills and an understanding of performance-related knowledge. Teachers with learning process (LP) value orientation believe that learning how to learn is central to the content of physical education. The curriculum goal is to help students understand learning principles so that they will be able to apply the principles in learning new knowledge and skills. Teachers with a self-actualization (SA) orientation argue that the curriculum should center on the child because nurturing personal growth is the ultimate goal of education. Knowledge and skills taught in classrooms should be meaningful to each individual student and should be delivered to students in a manner that will increase their self-esteem and enjoyment of participation in learning. Educators with the social responsibility (SR) value orientation consider physical activities and sports as vehicles to help students learn to align their individual needs with the needs of the society. The curriculum goal is to nurture students’ abilities to become socially responsible.

Physical educators with ecological integration (EI) orientation believe that a balanced curriculum can provide relatively equal considerations for the needs of the learner, the subject matter, the educational context, and social concerns. The curriculum goal is to encourage students to search for personal meaning through participating in various physical activities, mastering movement knowledge, and enhancing sensitivity to the environment in which they live. A pattern of relationship among the value orientations has been identified in the value orientation research. Negative correlations were consistently observed between subject-oriented values (DMLP) and learner/social-oriented values (SR/SA/EI) (Ennis, Chen, & Ross, 1992; Ennis & Zhu, 1991).

Findings of the value orientation research suggest that teachers with different educational value priorities differ in determining their curricular goals (Ennis & Zhu, 1991) and expectations for student learning (Ennis, Ross, & Chen, 1992) and in planning their curricula (Ennis, Mueller, & Hooper, 1990). Ennis and Zhu (1991) reported that the curriculum goals are consistent with physical education teachers’ value orientations. The consistency was relatively stable. Different professional experiences (e.g., teaching levels, experiences) and demographic backgrounds (e.g., sex, age, race) exert little influence to mediate the consistency. These researchers also found that DM value orientation was no longer the dominant philosophy in teaching physical education. Teachers’ beliefs varied across the spectrum of the value orientations. In addition, not only do physical educators base their curriculum goals on their value orientations, they also express value-consistent expectations to their students in teaching.

However, differences were found among different value-oriented teachers in conveying the curriculum goals and expectations in classrooms. Ennis, Ross, et al. (1992) studied curriculum goals and expectations of different value-oriented teachers using a triangulation method. They found that SR teachers are less effective than their DM and LP colleagues in communicating their learning goals and expectations to students. Students in these teachers’ classes reported that they were unclear about what they were expected to learn, and they consequently became confused by the mismatch between the goals/expectations indicated by the teacher.
(cooperation and responsibility) and the content tasks presented in class (playing ball games most of the time). Conversely, DM and LP teachers were able to convey their curriculum goals and expectations through helping students understand the relationship between the goals and learning tasks. Students in these teachers' classes were able to identify the association between the goals and the content presented in class. Findings from this study indicate that SR-oriented teachers might be constrained by the subject-centered content in the curriculum. The curriculum, viewed by the teachers as irrelevant to helping students achieve the social responsibility goals valued by the teacher, provided little information regarding how to organize a social-responsibility-oriented content to teach.

Ennis (1992) studied DM, SA, and EI teachers' value priorities reflected in their teaching. The influences from DM, SA, and EI value orientations on the curriculum in operation were identified and compared through observing and interviewing a DM-, a SA-, and a EI-oriented teacher and the students in their physical education classes. Data from the study indicated that each teacher's value priority was integrated into his or her curriculum, resulting in a unique curricular emphasis. It was also found that the teachers with different value priorities were likely to deliver the value-laden curriculum with unique teaching approaches. The findings of the study indicate that teachers’ value orientations influence how they teach.

The purpose of this case study was to describe the impact of physical education teachers' value systems on their curricula by examining 2 physical educators' curriculum content and implementation. Previous research findings have indicated a need for further exploration and comparison of the curricula of teachers with different value orientations. Such a comparison may help identify characteristics of valued curricular content and implementation approaches.

Research on value orientations has identified a constant negative correlation between subject-centered values (DM/LP) and learner/social-oriented values (Ennis, Chen, et al., 1992; Ennis & Zhu, 1991). It was of particular interest to examine the curricula operated by the teachers from the two contrasting value-orientation domains. It became particularly meaningful to study the curricula of effective SR-oriented teachers to examine how they organize their valued content and classroom activities to teach social responsibility. Therefore, this study, using an interpretive research design, was conducted to examine the extent to which a LP-oriented and a SR-oriented teacher differentiated (a) the curricular content taught within a specific sport domain and (b) the ways of delivering the content to their students. LP and SR value orientations were chosen as the focus of this research in an attempt to provide additional evidence to verify the influence of different value orientations on the curricula in operation (Ennis, 1992).

The significance of this study lies in the effort to explore and describe the influence of individual teachers' value orientations on their content. As demonstrated in the previous study (Ennis, Ross, et al., 1992), when teachers fail to present valid content consistent with their valued curriculum goals, students are likely to misunderstand the expectations and experience confusion. The content experienced by students in classrooms, therefore, is the avenue or bridge that leads students to achieve the teachers’ curriculum goals. Although the research on value orientations has provided useful information about the impact of teacher value systems on curriculum goals, it is important to conduct detailed analyses of how content
presentation is guided by teachers' value-laden curricular goals. Increased understanding of the impact of value orientations on physical education content may suggest alternative approaches for curriculum design and development to meet the challenge of curriculum innovation in physical education.

Method

Participants

Two middle school physical educators, Dan and John, from a school district in the Washington–Baltimore metropolitan area participated in the study. They were selected based on two criteria. First, these teachers had different value priorities, determined using the Value Orientation Inventory (Ennis & Chen, 1993). Having compared with the high-priority criteria for each value orientation, Dan was classified as high LP oriented (LP = 69, high LP criterion = 57), and John as high SR oriented (SR = 67, high SR criterion = 64). Figure 1 presents Dan and John's complete value orientation profiles. For details about determination of high and low value priorities, readers may consult published studies on value orientations by Ennis and her colleagues (e.g., Ennis & Chen, 1993; Ennis, Chen, et al., 1992; Ennis & Zhu, 1991).

Second, Dan and John were master teachers judged by the following stan-
Each teacher received state awards for teaching excellence. According to their supervisor in the district, both had exhibited effective class management and instructional skills in teaching. Dan had 15 years of teaching experience and taught in a state demonstration school for physical education. John had been teaching for 32 years at the elementary, middle school, high school, and college levels. He was transferred to his current school 2 years prior to the study to strengthen and chair the physical education department. Both teachers completed the informed consent form before data collection began.

Data Collection and Analysis

Each teacher was observed 2 days a week for 8 weeks. One of us served as primary observer for data collection. The observer had not met with Dan or John prior to data collection, although a friendly personal relationship with both teachers did develop during the process. During the observation day, the observer arrived at the school before the first period began and left the school after the teacher had finished the work for the day. Informal conversations between the observer and the teacher took place frequently during the observation day. Most informal conversations were focused on the school contextual influences on the physical education program, such as support from the school administration and peer teachers and facility and equipment availability. Information in the informal conversations were summarized as an independent category of the observation data file. The summarized contextual information about the schools was analyzed, along with the observation and formal interview data.

The 8-week observation allowed us to identify a common content unit for a systematic comparison analysis without disturbing their original instruction plans. The relatively long observation period also enabled us to gather information on how consistently Dan and John taught their valued content. Field notes were written during and rewritten after daily observation for primary analysis. Because volleyball was the only unit that both teachers taught during the observation period, it was selected as a window through which the impact of the teachers’ value priorities on content was examined.

Following the observation period, two formal interviews were conducted with each teacher. The first interview focused on the teacher’s knowledge about the content and content selection, and the second focused on the teacher’s rationale for teaching the selected content. Interview questions were open ended and focused on the description of the teacher’s curricular goals, objectives, and content emphases; his expectations of student learning; and the rationale for his teaching approaches. Each teacher was interviewed at his convenience, usually during a planning period or after school. Both interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed for analysis.

To minimize misinterpretation of the data, the teachers were asked to review the original field notes and interview transcripts and were encouraged to make comments on the accuracy of the recordings. We then revised the data descriptions based on the teachers’ comments. Strike-outs were used in typing the revised descriptions to highlight the teachers’ changes while maintaining our original field notes and interview transcripts. Only the verified data were filed for later data analysis.

The observation and interview data were analyzed using constant comparison (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Observation data were analyzed and reduced into preliminary categories. New data were compared with the existing categories. New
categories were created when newly collected data entries could not be logically classified into the existing categories. When the observation was completed, the data were analyzed again to allow thematic categories to emerge. Each thematic category was then examined in relation to others. All data entries in other categories were compared with the entries in the thematic category under analysis. Based on the comparison, decisions were made in terms of inclusion or exclusion of the data entries for the theme. The gradual development of the thematic categories resulted in the emergence of major themes and the establishment of relationships among them. Finally, themes that were theoretically central to this study were selected for the final analysis based on our understanding of the theories of teacher value orientations. During the analysis process, we made efforts to search for discrepant or negative cases in order to increase the trustworthiness of the interpretation.

Results

In this section, the contextual information about Dan and John’s schools and physical education programs is presented first. The descriptions about the schools and physical education programs are one sided; that is, it only represents the teachers’ perspectives. Data presented were not confirmed from the schools’ administrators’, peer teachers’, or students’ perspectives, which could be expected to differ from Dan’s and John’s perspectives. The presentation of the contextual information is followed by the analytical descriptions of the teachers’ value-laden curricula and teaching approaches. Impact of the value priorities on each teachers’ curriculum was described through comparing and contrasting the teachers’ observation and interview data within two major themes: content differentiation and teaching approach differentiation.

Dan’s School

Dan’s school, Potomac Middle, was a state demonstration school for physical education. The student enrollment was 639 when the study was conducted. The school building also housed an elementary school. Both Potomac Middle and Elementary had their own gymnasium for physical education classes. The gymnasium for Potomac Middle used to be an auditorium about the size of a basketball court with a stage at one end. Opposite to the stage was the teachers’ office. Dan and his two colleagues were all recipients of the state’s Merit Teaching Award in recent years. According to the teachers, the physical education program received “big support” from the school’s administrators, as well as from peer teachers in other academic areas (informal conversation). Dan and his colleagues had their lunch with other teachers in the school’s lunch room where peer teachers once held a lunch party to celebrate the state award received by a physical education teacher. During the lunch time, sports were an attractive topic among the teachers. The teachers also used this time to propose, plan, and organize faculty intramural games. At this time, physical education teachers were usually appointed by the teachers to be the organizers of the games.

Physical education was team taught in the Potomac Middle School. For each unit, one of the three teachers, who was considered to have a stronger background for teaching the unit than the other two, was designated as the lead teacher, and the
other two were assisting the lead teacher throughout the unit. A primary plan for teaching the unit was prepared by the lead teacher, but the plan had to be reviewed, discussed, and agreed upon by other two teachers before the unit began. A unit was usually 4 or 5 weeks long. Dan was the lead teacher for the volleyball unit examined in this research. He commented, “One thing nice about it [the team-teaching strategy] is that all three teachers are working on the same guidelines. We are all trying to develop learning skills and give the students the opportunity to learn from the best of us three” (informal conversation).

John’s School

John’s school, Great Lake Middle, had a student body of 551 during the academic year when the study took place. Two years prior to the study, John was transferred from another school to Great Lake Middle School because the school district administration felt the physical education program in the school needed improvement and leadership. In Great Lake Middle, physical education was taught in a gymnasium that housed a full-size basketball court in the new school building. There were three physical education teachers in the school. A male teacher’s office was in the boy’s locker room, and a female teacher’s office was in the girl’s locker room. John’s office was located on the stage of the cafeteria that was next to the gymnasium because the office in the locker room could only accommodate one teacher. John had his lunch in his office by himself. He used this time planning his lessons for the next day. John said, “This [lunch time] is my time for planning. I need a quiet place and time to plan for tomorrow’s lessons. Lunch time is perfect for me” (informal conversation). John also held the department’s meeting in his office because this “is the only place away from a lot of distractions during the day” (informal conversation).

Physical education was taught by the three teachers. The physical education program was organized in such a way that three units were taught at the same time by the three teachers. Students must take all three units, but they had options in deciding the order of taking the courses. John explained, “They are old enough to this decision [deciding the order]. They should be responsible for their learning, at least in my physical education classes.” Students rotated to a new unit in every 2 weeks. The teachers continued to teach a unit until all students had been taught in the unit. Usually, two units were taught in the gymnasium where a folding wall could divide the gymnasium into two equal halves. At times, the third unit was taught in the cafeteria if it was also an indoor activity. However, because the conflict between the fourth period and the school lunch schedule, the class in this period had to be dismissed about 10 to 15 minutes earlier than its scheduled dismissal time. John had discussed the issue with the school administration, but the administration did not reschedule the class or the lunch. According to John, keeping the current schedule was much more important to the administration than improving the physical education program. He did not think that he had enough support from the school’s administration (informal conversation).

Content Differentiation

Distinctive characteristics of expertise in teaching include not only the ability to select and organize teachable content in the curriculum but also, and more importantly, the ability to manage the content in classrooms by adding or elimin-
ing certain components during the process of content delivery (Shulman, 1987). In this study, the teachers’ expertise in selecting and managing the content seemed to be governed by their value priorities. An analysis of the results appears to indicate that Dan and John’s curricula were different from each other, but were consistent with their individual value priorities.

Findings from previous value-orientation studies (e.g. Ennis, 1992; Ennis, Ross, et al., 1992) indicate that teachers with different value priorities focus on different curricular emphases in their teaching. LP-oriented teachers consider learning how to learn the primary curriculum goal, and report that their immediate curriculum concerns involved teaching general learning skills, including observation skills, thinking skills, movement analysis process, and problem-solving skills. LP teachers believe that teaching students how to analyze movement skills for progressive learning allows students to learn new movement skills efficiently in the future. On the other hand, SR-oriented teachers expect students to learn social-interaction skills and to become socially responsible in their lives. SR teachers emphasize increasing each student’s understanding of a positive attitude toward themselves, peer students, the teacher, social responsibility, and the relationship between an individual and a group (team) (Ennis, 1992). In this study, Dan and John differentiated their volleyball unit according to their different value priorities.

Dan. Dan, an LP-oriented teacher, stated that his curriculum goal was “working on student skill development by encouraging students to learn how to learn.” Learning principles associated with actual movement problems constituted the major part of content delivered in Dan’s classes. Students were expected to explore and solve the movement problems during the learning process. In problem solving, students’ attention was directed to the skill as a whole first, then redirected to the specific elements of the skill. From Dan’s perspective, a major part of the body of knowledge for physical education consisted of the general learning principles. To challenge his students to learn the learning principles, Dan focused on three aspects. First, students needed to know and understand how to analyze a skill and the process to master it. Second, they were asked to apply the analyzing skills in learning new movements and solving relevant movement, sport, and exercise problems. Third, the students also needed to understand connections between prior learned movement knowledge/skill with new ones so that they could progress in their learning.

Dan’s content included tasks and drills that he thought could facilitate the students’ understanding of skill-analysis processes. Physical activities and movement skills were used as a means to develop students thinking skills that Dan thought were important for future learning. In Dan’s class, students were frequently directed to “discover” or “explore” movement skills. He usually started his teaching by giving students an exploration task:

Today we work on overhand serve. First, you need to explore your best way to serve the ball [using] overhand. You can serve in your own way. [In the meantime], you need to think, “How do we contact the ball? What part of the hand do we use to make the contact?” (Observation)

After exploring the skill as a whole, Dan broke down a skill into a set of elements and assigned each element a name that was used as a learning cue. For example, when teaching the volleyball set, Dan repeatedly used form, window, and push as
learning cues for the set skill. *Form* meant that students should form their hands in the correct position before contacting the ball. *Window* reminded students to place their formed hands above the forehead and look through the “window” at the ball. On *push*, students should push their hands outward to set the ball upward. Dan asked students to call out these learning cues when they were actually practicing the skill.

Dan thought his responsibility as a teacher was to help students in the problem-solving process and to provide a learning environment in which students could learn new skills or apply the skills that they had learned. Regarding the skill application, Dan described a throwing skill unit in the interview to explain how he provided students with opportunities to combine knowledge and skills:

When I had finished [the units of] rag ball, softball, and tennis, we had a striking unit. I had them create a game. They had a choice of what ball they wanted to use. I had one group that was using a tee with a softball on top of it, and they hit it off the tee. I had one group that was using a tennis ball. I had another group that was pitching using a softball. I had a fourth group that was tossing a rag ball and trying to hit it in the air. So they had four different groups and were doing four things that all met my objectives. And I was happy with that. (Interview 2)

Dan’s content was consistent with his LP value priority. In his teaching, the process of learning became his content rather than the sport skills. He focused on teaching the process of learning with the belief that students would have plenty of opportunities to learn a variety of sport and physical skills in the future. School physical education should focus on the learning process so that students would be able to continue to learn and refine their movement skills after they graduated from the school. Dan used his volleyball unit to teach analysis, problem solving, and knowledge/skill application to help students focus on critical components of learning movement skills.

John. With a high SR value orientation, John, in contrast to Dan, focused on teaching social-responsibility-oriented concepts, such as respect and recognition of others, teamwork, cooperation, social and self-responsibility, social equity, and leadership capacity. When teaching, John used tasks and drills in which these concepts could be intertwined. John repeatedly told the students, “I don’t care [about] the scores. I am looking for good passes, which means teamwork, cooperation, and fun” (observation). John required students to show their respect and recognition to each other in his class. For example, students must shake hands with each other before starting a game. In the knowledge-elicitation interview, John explained,

What we try to do is to stress working with one another through playing the games. Teamwork, teamwork, and teamwork. Get them out of that individualistic stage that they went through in elementary schools. And we start right at the 6th grade. They are in the middle school, they *are* a team and should be functioning as a team. And all the skills and drills and course work are done in a two- to six-people group, which we implement with cooperative learning techniques. (Interview 1)
John strongly believed that students could become social and self-responsible through learning to comply with classroom rules and respect the social orders. To maximize the learning outcomes, John designed and maintained a socially hierarchical learning environment in which the teacher represented the ultimate authority. The volleyball unit was taught with a theme of team organization and relationships among players, captains, and referees were emphasized. Each student assumed one of the roles during a class and rotated to another in the next. He established a team system for students to learn and practice various social relationships. John directed that if there were arguments within a team, the captain was responsible for working with their teammates to solve it. If there was an argument between the teams, only the captains were allowed to talk to student referees or the captain on the other team. If they could not settle the dispute, only the captains and the student referees could come to the teacher to ask for arbitration. Captains and referees were given specific directions regarding how to interact with players on their own team and on the opposite team. John repeatedly reinforced the knowledge of this hierarchical social structure in his classes by telling the students the following:

You did very well today, followed [my] guidelines, and played as very well-organized teams. You need to do everything this way because your school, your family, and your society need you to follow [the social] guidelines, rules, and laws. (Observation)

In his teaching, John felt obliged to emphasize creating a learning environment for all students to experience social equity in physical education. For example, John directed students to recognize and acknowledge gender differences in the class. When teaching volleyball player positioning, he instructed students, “Your lineup must be lady–gentleman, lady–gentleman. You can’t have all boys in front and all girls at the back” (Observation). When he appointed students to be team captains, John chose equally from boys and girls. John insisted that boys and girls in the class have equal opportunities in participating in any class activities. He reminded students of the social equity issue and asked team captains to follow a one girl–one boy sequence when selecting their teams. The following instance was observed frequently when John helped students form their teams:

John said, “Now, I would like four people to be captains.” Many students raised their hands. John selected two boys, then said, “I would like some ladies to be captains.” He then appointed two girls to be captains. John asked a boy captain, “Would you choose a lady, please?” The captain selected a girl as a team member. Then John asked a girl captain, “Would you choose a gentleman?” She picked a boy. The procedure went on until all students were selected. (Observation)

It appeared evident that what John emphasized in his classrooms was consistent with his SR value priority. Concepts and skills of respect for others, cooperation, teamwork, and participation in sports for positive social engagement and affiliation were defined as the major content to be taught. These concepts and skills were taught and reinforced through specific behavioral requirements, such as shaking hands, saluting to and recognizing opponents before and after games,
and playing various roles in team organizations. To John, the volleyball unit provided a teaching environment in which he could integrate a number of social responsibility knowledge/skills together to teach, from self-control to relationship between an individual and the team.

**Teaching Approach Differentiation**

Mosston and Ashworth (1990) summarize various teaching strategies in a spectrum of teaching styles that includes direct and indirect teaching approaches. The direct teaching approach refers to those instructional strategies characterized by students doing what the teacher says, whereas the indirect teaching approach is characterized by involving students in the instructional decision making process during the class (Mosston & Ashworth, 1990). Dan and John used different instructional approaches in their teaching. Analysis of the observation data revealed that Dan frequently used an indirect teaching style, structured guided-discovery, whereas John used primarily the direct approach.

**Dan.** Dan believed that a critical part of his teaching was to teach the students analytical skills so that they could identify the relationship among parts of a skill and eventually piece together the skill as a whole. He demonstrated and described the sequence of teaching the volleyball set in the knowledge-elicitation interview:

I had them sitting on the ground, forming the window, and setting the ball to their partners who were also sitting on the ground. I told them I asked them to do that so that they could reduce the complexity of body coordination. I taught that back and forth until they progressed far enough and understood the process. What they did next was to stand up and practice. They formed their hands, windowed the ball in the standing but stationary position. And the next step I had them step off the right foot so that they would do the form and window [in a] standing and stepping off [position] and set the ball. Then, from there I moved the distance away. So they were setting further. . . . I told them this is an easier way to learn the set. (Interview 1)

These learning processes were also recorded in the observation field notes. For example, in a seventh grade class,

Dan instructed, “Next drill you do is to sit close to your partner, form the ball, window, and push the ball to your partner.” Then he demonstrated the drill. After his demonstration, students sat down on the floor and started the drill. (Observation)

During teaching, Dan used questioning to reinforce students’ conceptions or to correct their misconceptions about skill learning. The observation data appeared to suggest that Dan used two types of questioning to guide student learning. The first type was comparative questioning. It was used to help students compare several ways of performing a skill and determine a better solution or a better understanding about the performance. For example, after students had explored and experienced the volleyball spike skill, Dan stopped the drill and asked a comparative question:
“What is the best part of your hand to hit the ball?” Students showed different hand patterns to him and said “fist,” “the heel,” or “whole palm.” Dan, “You can use fist, heel, and palm, they are all legal hits, all acceptable. But you need to figure out what the best way is.” Then he instructed students to continue the drill. (Observation)

A few minutes later he stopped the drill again and asked for answers. Students, after the skill exploration, decided that the open palm was the “best part of hand” to use in spiking. In another occasion, Dan asked the students whether a 1-foot or a 2-foot take-off should be used in spiking. After their exploration practice, the students concluded that a 2-foot take-off was better than a 1-foot take-off, because 1-foot take-off caused one to “jump forward,” whereas a 2-foot take-off could help one “jump vertically high” (Observation).

The second type was connective questioning, which Dan used to help students connect and integrate different concepts/skills in their repertoire. Dan believed it was important to help students cognitively understand the relationships among concepts/skills because cognitive understanding facilitated students’ learning how to learn. For example, after the students concluded the 2-foot take-off was better than the 1-foot take-off in spiking, Dan tried to help students understand the relationship between the take-off skill and related volleyball rules:

Dan asked students, “what could be another disadvantage of using a 1-foot take-off in spiking?” No student responded to the question. Dan asked again, “When attacking, what can we not do?” Students raised their hands and answered, “You can’t hit the net.” “You can’t go over the central line.” “You need to hit the ball over the net.” Dan said, “Right. What would happen if you use 1-foot take-off?” Students, “You go forward. . . . You would hit the net. . . . You would cross the central line when landing.” (Observation)

John. John thought that the teacher must be in control in the teaching-learning process because social responsibility requires individuals to conform with the social rules or laws. He saw the development of student individuality as a process that required the teacher’s constant guidance. He believed that social responsibility could be better learned if the teacher remained in control of the classroom rules and regulations. In the classroom, John indicated,

Control is simply when I speak, they don’t. Whether they listen, that’s up to them. But when I speak, their mouths are quiet, and they focus upon me. And from there, I think they will learn being responsible and respecting others’ rights. (Interview 2)

John indicated that he always started a unit with the “absolute command teaching style” to control the class, “before you can teach, you’ve got to control. . . . If you can’t control, you can know all the knowledge in the world, but you are not able to teach it, because no one is going to listen to you” (Interview 2). However, John also indicated that he might allow students to make their own decisions, as long as they followed his guidelines. He said in the interview,

I start every unit teacher centered, almost 100%. But then if the unit is progressing, I hope to back out, back out, back out. How far I back out depends
on the students with whom I am working. How quickly I back out depends on the students with whom I am working. But I always do try to back out so that the students can implement their critical thinking skills and make their own decisions, because I can't think for them in the future. . . . Give them some basic concepts, [they will] develop from there. If I see they are not developing, am I going to step back in? Yes. Am I using the command teaching style again? Yes. (Interview 2)

John stated that one of the curriculum goals in his program was "to make students recognize their abilities" (Interview 1). John's physical education program was structured in such a way that three teachers were offering three different units at the same period of time. Students were allowed to choose in which of the three they would participate. For each class, students did the warm-up session together, then they went to the teacher who was teaching the unit they had chosen. John explained,

The reason we teach this way is that gradually students will learn to be responsible for themselves, for their own learning, fun, and interests. And when students come out of the locker rooms, they'll know what is expected of them because they know what they will do. (Interview 1)

Although John encouraged his students to try different activities by helping them make selective decisions based on their interests, he told the students that they were expected to exert 100% of their effort to learn their chosen activity. In his class, student success was not determined in terms of levels of skill performance, but in terms of how students felt about their participation. Therefore, John did not think students' divergent skill performances were a learning problem in his class. He told students:

Don’t be ashamed to make a mistake. The only people that don’t make mistakes are the people sitting in grandstands or on the sidelines doing nothing. . . . If you come up with your own method of throwing a ball and say to me, “Mr. John, you said you grip it this way, but I have a spiral wide grip this way and I can throw it far,” you do your way. As long as you feel you are successful, that’s fine. (Observation)

In addition to selecting activities, students had opportunities in class to make options in terms of selecting teams, developing and modifying game rules, and creating new games. However, before students were allowed to do these self-directed activities, they must fully understand and conform with John's class guidelines and rules. The observation data revealed that in John’s class, students’ in-class decision making was confined within his rules. For example, team selection must follow the one boy–one girl sequence. Before and after each game, students must shake hands with their opponents. These rules were well enforced. John, in comparison with the SR teachers in previous value orientation studies, was more explicit in stating and more rigid in enforcing his classroom rules. He once instructed students,

Now, you can start your games. You can go with whomever you would like to and go to the court you like, but no more than six people on each side. You
remember the lady–gentleman sequence, don’t you? . . . You should learn to make decisions, ladies and gentlemen. Part of the decision today is to select your groups. . . . During your game, [you] must obey whatever calls your referees make. . . . When you hear my whistle, you sit in your court. You are not going anywhere. Your mouth is quiet and you pay attention to me! Not somebody else. Here, I am running the class, not somebody else. Does everyone understand this?

Discussion

Placek (1992) reported that some physical education teachers were in a “struggling” (p. 331) situation with the traditional physical education curriculum that focused on teaching traditional sport skills. Facing the constraints of limited time and resources, these teachers did not think the curriculum was effectively taught, but they were uncertain about what should be offered to students other than the traditional content. Other teachers are constantly trying and “searching” (p. 332) for a new or innovative curriculum that would allow them to integrate physical education into the school curriculum better than the traditional one. Dan and John were among the latter group of teachers. However, unlike the teachers described in Placek’s (1992) study, Dan and John were not in the stages of “struggling” and “searching;” they had revised their curriculum to offer their students what they thought was worth learning. During the process, they developed a differentiated physical education curriculum consistent with their value priorities. It seems that regardless of their different value priorities, both teachers in this study showed a similar perspective that learning sport skills served as a means rather than an end in teaching physical education. Evidently, the curricular emphases of their content had shifted from the traditional sport skill learning to the personally valued knowledge and skills.

Jewett et al. (1995) argue that physical education teachers’ curricular decisions on what to teach are likely to be influenced by their personal value priorities because of the limited time and resources for teaching physical education. Findings from previous value orientation studies indicated that teachers with different value priorities expressed different learning goals and expectations of their students (Ennis, Ross, et al., 1992; Ennis & Zhu, 1991). Teachers with social-responsibility priority perceived teaching team sports as an opportunity to involve students in a social setting so that the students would learn how to use socially acceptable interaction skills to solve problems. On the other hand, learning-process-oriented teachers were likely to expect their students to master learning skills for further development of sport/fitness knowledge and skills.

Dan and John manifested this value-laden curricular differentiation. The data from Dan and John strongly suggest teachers’ educational value priorities contribute to the different orientations of their content. Although both teachers perceived learning sport skills to be a means rather than the goal of physical education, their perceptions of what to achieve through the means were different, but highly associated with their personal value priorities. Dan’s data suggested that he did not think sport skill performance proficiency was an immediate goal for student learning. The content knowledge delivered in his classes consisted of components of how to analyze sport skills and construct relationships among the skills. However,
although mastery of sport skills was the lowest valued orientation in Dan’s value orientation profile, it appeared that it was still a remote goal for Dan’s curriculum. He expected that, with an understanding of how sport skills were learned, the students would use the learning skills in the future to improve their sport-skill performance proficiency. Therefore the students would be able to participate in sport/fitness activities effectively in the future.

In contrast, John explicitly indicated that sport skill performance proficiency was not his major concern for student learning. Instead, concepts and behaviors related to social responsibility were the major component in the content of physical education. To John, playing traditional sports provided an environment for his students to learn, understand, and practice the social responsibility concepts and behaviors. Among those concepts and behaviors, respect for others, especially for the teacher, and compliance to social rules and laws, specifically to his classroom rules, were perceived as a foundation for learning this social-responsibility-oriented content.

It has been reported (Hellison, 1991) that a number of physical education teachers in secondary schools have become more and more concerned about students’ social, personal, intellectual, and physical development as a whole person. John’s case may serve as an example for physical educators to further understand SR-oriented teachers and their curriculum in operation. In previous studies (Ennis, Ross, et al., 1992), SR-oriented teachers were found to have difficulties developing specific curricular content consistent with their curricular goals defined by the value orientation. Creating a play-team-sport environment in which students could experience proper social interaction through participating in various team sports was considered a primary approach to teach proper socialization skills. John’s case indicates that placing students in such a team sport situation is not enough. Unlike the SR-oriented teachers observed in a previous study (Ennis, Ross, et al., 1992), John thought that those concepts and behaviors could not be learned merely by creating a social interaction setting, such as having students play a team sport. The social responsibility curriculum should have explicitly stated goals and an organized content. The curricular emphasis should shift from teaching movement skills or sport/game play to teaching a set of social-responsibility-related concepts and tangible behaviors. When teaching, the teacher should be able to manage physical activities so that the social responsibility concepts and behaviors can become a salient theme in the classes.

From John’s perspective, the content of a social responsibility curriculum should be hierarchically structured according to the social order functioning in the school and society. Each person in different positions in this social structure should be able to assume different social responsibilities. Therefore, learning social responsibility required the teacher to plan in such detail that students could understand the social structure of the setting and follow the responsibility hierarchy. For example, students would learn respect for others, team organizations, leadership responsibilities, social hierarchy, and ways to solve disagreement between individuals and teams through playing different roles of players, captains, and referees in the volleyball unit.

Although it cannot be claimed that Dan and John’s value-laden approaches to the curriculum and teaching should be viewed as the only way to implement LP and SR value orientations, this research does suggest that the curriculum and
teaching approaches can be differentiated in light of the teachers’ personal educational value priorities. Coupled with the findings from research of the educational value influences on DM, EI, and SA teachers’ curricula in operation (Ennis, 1992), the findings of this study indicate that individual teachers’ value orientations should be taken into account in curriculum innovation because teachers’ value orientations influence their willingness to teach a particular curriculum (Schwille et al., 1983).

Cuban (1992) argued that although external forces, such as social movements, legislative decisions, government policies, and special interest groups and individuals, can initiate and influence the process of curriculum innovation, a curriculum innovation cannot be considered complete until the teacher decides to teach it. The teacher dominates the private world of classroom where the curriculum is finalized and implemented with little supervision from the outside world (Schwille et al., 1983). Therefore, it can be assumed that when the curriculum is consistent with the teacher’s beliefs and values, it is likely to be implemented as expected. When there is a mismatch between the teacher’s value priority and the curriculum, the teacher has to “cope with the curriculum to construct a pedagogy that will permit [him or her] to survive and extract satisfaction from an array of expectations impossible to fulfill within existing structures” (Cuban, 1992, p. 237). In other words, when coping, a teacher is less likely to teach effectively. Research findings from both value orientation and curriculum-innovation studies in physical education (e.g., Ennis, Ross et al., 1992; Placek, 1992) seem to suggest that when teachers perceive conflict between their personal education values and the curriculum, they are likely to experience a “struggling” feeling described by Placek (1992). Based on the data of this study, it is clear that neither Dan nor John were “struggling” with their value-laden curricula because of the compatibility between the curriculum and their value priorities. They were also moving ahead beyond the “searching” stage (Placek, 1992, p. 332) with the belief that they were making a difference in their students’ lives.

Curriculum innovation is an imperative task for physical educators, and curriculum scholars in physical education have proposed a variety of directions. It has been suggested that physical education should integrate knowledge and skills of other disciplines, becoming a thematic curriculum (Placek, 1992), or that it should be sport oriented (Grant, 1992; Siedentop, 1987). Lawson (1988) suggests that curriculum scholars should redirect their attention from curriculum models to “the people who design, implement, adopt, and evaluate curricula in the field” (p. 284). The findings from this study demonstrate the importance of Lawson’s appeal that teachers should be encouraged to take part in the curriculum innovation process. As suggested by Jewett et al. (1995), during the curriculum development/innovation process, it may be a necessary initial step for a teacher as a curriculum designer to

[analyze] the value orientation underlying a particular operational physical education curriculum . . . to clarify his or her own value system and how it determines perspective toward individual development, societal goals, and subject matter content. Teachers who did not play a major role in designing the curriculum should examine their own personal value orientations to determine the degree of consistency with the values emphasized in the curriculum they are responsible for implementing. (p. 36)
References


