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The purpose of this study was to study how three physical education situations could become more humanistic. A badminton class, a basketball class, and the girls' interscholastic basketball team were analyzed at a senior high school in Greensboro, North Carolina.

The Macdonald, Wolfson, Zaret Conceptual Model (1971) was utilized for observation guide. Aspects of the program examined included: the learning environment, the teacherstudent relationship, the curriculum, and the evaluation.

Case studies were analyzed with regard to the tenets of humanism formulated in the review of literature. Suggestions to make the situations more humanistic were made by the author.

It was concluded that a program could not become totally humanistic within the existing system. Humanistic education is dependent upon teacher-student attitudes. The individual must be concerned about humanism before an attempt to change a program could be made. However, certain techniques in teaching-learning situations can contribute to a humanistic atmosphere.

HUMANISTIC PHYSICAL EDUCATION "AND ATHLETICS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

by

Kristin Louise Burns

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A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Master of Science in Physical Education

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> > Approved by

Thesis Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

This thesis has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Thesis Adviser

Ciliete Vier

Committee Members

Mail Mrs. The rendery 10

17,1975 Acceptance by Committee Date of

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Schools have been sharply criticized the last two decades. The post World War II era brought a wave of criticism concerning mediocrity fostered by the lowering of academic standards (Purpel & Belanger, 1972). The criticisms were countered with competency based programs, accountability, curriculum development, and teacher training workshops. Silberman (1970) criticized the schools for excessive control, repression of the student, and impairment of individual growth. His criticisms have yet to be answered. It is evident that although previous reform movements have suggested change the schools, for the most part, are still unchanged.

Many anthropologists, philosophers, psychologists, and sociologists feel that society is in the process of significant cultural change (Purpel & Belanger, 1972). It is a period of transition toward something new which is only partially perceived. This transition seems to be the time for believers in the individual as unique and total to take action to direct society toward goals of selfactualization.

Harman (1972) projected a "person-centered" society where the goals of the school would shift in the direction of placing more emphasis on the student. Humanistic characteristics proposed by Fromm (1968), Maslow (1954), Rogers (1961), and others would be evident in such schools. The development of self-awareness, self-esteem, selfunderstanding, belongingness, and trust would be most important.

Attempts to change schools have always been difficult because many people feel threatened by reform. However, a radical change of beliefs, values, and attitudes of the school administrator, teacher, and student is needed. Change is essential.

Humanization may occur in physical education through recognition of the individual's rate of growth and development, learning, interests in movement, and development of attitudes, beliefs, and values. Humanism insists that emphasis should be placed on individualized instruction and activities.

The secondary school physical education teacher and athletic coach need to understand how a program might be made more humanistic. Hopefully, this study may contribute to that understanding.

Statement of the Problem

This study attempted to suggest how guidelines for humanism may be applied to secondary school physical education and athletic situations. Tenets of humanism and humanistic education common to many authors were reviewed.

Definition of Terms

<u>Humanism</u>--"a concern for man above all else, behaviorally, and a concern for man's social and emotional well-being" (Hellison, 1973).

Humanistic education--an ongoing process of self actualization acknowledging the development of an individual's values, potentials, knowledges, self-esteem, and self-understanding.

<u>Athletics</u>--an interscholastic program in which members of a selected team practice, train, and are coached in a sport for interscholastic competition.

<u>Physical education</u>--a specialized area of knowledge that deals with human movement, primarily structured through play, games, and sport forms.

<u>Secondary schools</u>--the educational level involving grades 10-12 at which the students specialize in acquiring knowledge through separate subjects and/or units of time.

Assumptions Underlying the Research

 Humanistic education is viewed as a viable philosophy of education.

2. The teacher-learner situation sponsors curricula and teaching methods around philosophical systems which can be identified.

Scope of the Study

 Two physical education situations and an athletic situation were utilized for case study.

2. The athletic situation was an extracurricular activity offered outside the school curriculum.

3. The physical education situations involved teaching-learning situations focused on team sport and an individual sport.

CHAPTER II

HUMANISM--A PHILOSOPHY

History of Humanism

Humanism appeared first in ancient Greece. Its meaning was demonstrated through the liberal or liberating arts, and it was believed that through knowledge a person came to know himself and, essentially, became a free person (Macdonald, 1969).

The Sophists, who were educators during the fifth century, B.C., believed in education for social effectiveness and an integrated personality, and believed mankind was the measure of all things; therefore, they preached that each person must know himself (Clark, 1957). It was during that time that Socrates, himself a Sophist, became the master teacher of ancient Greece. Through the process of constant questioning and conversation, Socrates insisted that each individual know himself through knowledge and truth.

His mission [Socrates] was only to search in the company of men, himself a man among men. To question unrelentingly, to expose every hiding place. To demand no faith in anything or in himself, but to demand thought, questioning, testing and so refer man to his own self. But since man's self resides solely in the knowledge of the true and the good, only the man who takes such thinking seriously, who is determined to be guided by the truth, is truly himself (Jaspers, 1957, p. 16). Socrates believed in each individual's unique importance, and felt that self-mastery fostered independence and true freedom, which were the ultimate foundations of man (Jaspers, 1957). Through the discovery of truth, Socrates helped the other individual find authentic knowledge in himself. The discovery of truth, Socrates felt, was found through conversation. "Conversation, dialogue, is necessary for the truth itself, which by its very nature opens up to an individual only in dialogue with another individual" (Jaspers, 1957, p. 16). Such dialogue became a basic foundation of Socratic humanistic education.

Socrates believed in the ultimate good and taught that man should live as though he knew good existed. Socrates' influence was as a creator of an ethos of selfmastery, self-sufficiency, and human self-liberation in other individuals.

Writings by Plato demonstrated his belief that everything depended on man; therefore, a concern for the soul came before anything else. Truth was to be found in the world which was reached by thought characterized by a clear and strictly rational introspection (Murray, 1964). According to Plato, a man actualized his wholeness and truth through education and was fulfilled, and perceived his true being through love. Plato stated "How a man loves, what he loves and remembers, that is what he is" (Jaspers, 1957, p. 162).

A basic concern for man, self-actualization through truth, independence, and freedom, and love of self and others became the early foundations from which humanism grew. Education and knowledge became the means by which man discovered truth and was self-actualized.

It was during the 14th century in Italy that humanism began to be noticeable as a distinct cultural movement (Weiss, 1957). Humanism was a reaction against the scholastic attempts to unify knowledge into a system of logic that was inflexible and unadaptable. The meaning of humanism during that time embraced the whole range of classical studies and the humanists were scholars who studied those ancient writings. The humanists' aims were to exult in physical power and pleasure, attack scholastic philosophy and religious ruling, and magnify the importance of the world of the physical man as opposed to life after death. They had little or no concern for the well-being of the common people, refused to accept a steady position, led the life of a vagabond, valued highly fame and glory, and sought friendship from influential royalty (Hyma, 1930).

Attitudes and approaches toward the study of the classics supported humanistic features. However, during the medieval period all education emphasized the attainment of a profession, such as a doctor, lawyer, or statesman, but humanistic study enabled education to be more elastic, less dogmatic, and wider in scope. Because of such

flexibility, the study of humanism and the classics was not recognized as a worthy education at that time.

During this period, humanists became quite prominent as teachers of the classics. Humanistic virtues of moderation, common sense, and common decency, and methods and attitudes toward education of the classics influenced their pupils greatly. Justice and truth were emphasized, for it was believed that through truth qualities of will, freedom, wisdom, thought, knowledge, and goodness could be attained (Babbitt, 1968).

The concept of a new education as the natural product of humanist feeling rose in those centers recognized as foremost in cultivating the study of antiquity or the classics. These centers were located where a rise in interest in art, literature, and music occurred: Florence, Venice, and Padua (Woodward, 1924).

Vittorino da Feltre was known as the greatest humanist-teacher of the time. Mantua, a school developed by da Feltre, reflected his humanistic concept of education and had as its aims the teaching of morals and religion of the Church with classical instruction and with grace and harmony. Da Feltre believed the tastes and talents of each student should be cultivated, respected students' individuality, and tried to develop in each the ability to make responsible choice. The goodness of each person was also respected (Woodward, 1924).

Da Feltre proposed to train the mind, body, and spirit in one relation, for he believed one could not be separated from the other. Physical excellence and personal bearing were important; thus, he taught his pupils that good diet, correct fashions of dress, and much physical exercise were important aspects of the total personality.

Emphasized during that period was the idea that action, not contemplation nor speculation, was the normal ideal of human life (Woodward, 1924). It was believed that the individual strove for excellence, self-reliance, and self-containment, and that the greater part of man's life was in the moment, something that was lived and then passed without regret (Murray, 1964). Understanding and experience of that moment were necessary to relive the past and, consequently, to study the ancient classics. Such study required imaginative effort.

Erasmus was instrumental in introducing humanism in England. As a practical educator, he emphasized the discussion of books, teaching methods, organization and administration of schools, parent-teacher relationships, teacher qualifications, and student interests (Woodward, 1924). He believed in the innate goodness of human nature and felt that the highest good was to be one's highest attainable self.

Other principles of humanistic education were taught during the 14th and 15th centuries. It was the accepted

thought among humanists that man must be independent and free, and that through such independence and freedom, truth and goodness in the self were experienced. Therefore, the functions of teaching and school were to produce character and impart knowledge.

Christian humanism, in the 16th century, demonstrated the concept of love for others. Interpersonal relations were based more on the total person rather than on rational knowledge. Both classical humanism and Christian humanism were concerned with the individual in relation to truth. This concern had a characteristic of an absolute (Macdonald, 1969).

Through its development, humanism took on many varying influences. "Humanism was not a single body or thought, but a collection or convergence of a number of lines and schools of thought" (Matson, 1973, p. 16). Psychology, philosophy, religion, and education all laid claim to humanism and gave it special interpretations relative to each specific area of study. In an attempt to define humanism and identify its major tenets, each of these modern day influential disciplines must be studied.

Humanism and Psychology

Humanistic psychology as a major influence on modern day humanism was born largely out of that discipline's protest against behaviorism. The supposed preemption of

behaviorism in psychology's professional field and its technological and ethical implications were criticized. Thus, psychology's "third force," or humanistic psychology, was emphasized (Matson, 1973).

Humanistic psychology also owed some of its history to psychoanalysis. Psychologists such as Adler, Jung, Rank, Stekel, and Ferenczi broke away from the teachings of Freud, who believed an individual's past was the most influential aspect of his behavior. Freud's psychoanalysis dealt with the subconscious mind, but those who differed from Freud practiced psychoanalysis with an individual's present and future, rather than with the past.

Four early 20th century psychologists were instrumental in developing unique psychoanalytic practices that emphasized humanism. Adler established a humanistic theory that restored dignity and worth in the individual (Hall & Lindzey, 1970). He felt that man was a social being so, therefore, structured his psychoanalytic therapy sessions into a dialogue or conversation on the conscious level. Adler's theory was based on the concept of the creative self which interpreted and made meaningful the experiences of the organism; man's style of life explained his uniqueness. According to Adler, the individual sought experiences that aided in fulfilling his unique lifestyle, for it was the creative self that gave meaning to life and created as a goal the superiority of the individual. The

means to the goal became the striving for perfect completion (Hall & Lindzey, 1970).

Murray's personology focused on the person as a social being. He recognized that an individual needed to be creative and imaginative, but felt the personality also reflected enduring and recurrent elements over the span of a lifetime. Murray stated "The most important thing to discover about an individual . . . is the superordinate directionality of his actions, whether mental, verbal, or physical" (Hall and Lindzey, 1970, p. 174). Murray believed in the essential uniqueness of an individual, and called for full respect of that individuality.

Jung realized different aspects of the personality. One part of the personality was the <u>persona</u>, also called the public personality, which was a mask adopted by a person to cope with societal demands. Jung believed the ego often identified with the <u>persona</u>, which made an individual more conscious of his societal role rather than of the real self. This consciousness caused man to become alienated from himself; he became a semblance of man, a reflection of society. Through psychoanalysis, Jung tried to create the individual's total unity represented in the personality as the self, providing unity, equilibrium, and stability. The search for wholeness was the life goal of the individual and with the past, as actuality, and the future, as potentiality, the behavior was motivated (Hall & Lindzey, 1970).

Man was constantly progressing or attempting to progress from a less complete stage of development to a more complete one, the ultimate goal being self-realization. However, Jung realized that an individual never became completely actualized, but that it was the synthesis of thinking, feeling, sensing, and intuiting that represented an ideal goal toward which the personality strove. Jung increasingly stressed sympathetic understanding of the other in his unique identity.

Erich Fromm based much of his psychoanalytic theory on social humanism. There were five needs for man's existence: needs for relatedness, transcendence, rootedness, identity, and a frame of orientation. Fromm's essential theme was that man felt isolated and lonely because he had become separated from nature and other men. Society was created by man to fulfill an essential, inborn nature, but no society had yet been devised to meet the basic needs of man's existence. Fromm advocated a society in which man related to fellow man lovingly, in which the individual gained a sense of self by experiencing himself, rather than by conforming. Characteristics Fromm felt an individual must strive toward included: self awareness, reason, imagination, tenderness, love, compassion, interest, responsibility, identity, integrity, vulnerability, transcendence, freedom, values, and norms. Such a philosophy was known as Humanistic Communitarian Socialism. In such a

society, Fromm felt "The actual ways in which man realizes his inner potentialities are determined by the societal arrangements under which he lives" (Hall & Lindzey, 1970, p. 132).

Allport also felt the complexity and uniqueness of the individual was of primary concern. As others who differed with Freud, he believed the human being was more a creature of the present than of the past. He felt the mature person must possess an extension of the self, relate himself warmly to others, possess a fundamental emotional security, possess an acceptance of self, be realistically oriented, and possess a unifying philosophy of life (Hall & Lindzey, 1970).

Carl Rogers, a modern-day psychotherapist, based much of his work on humanistic relations. According to Rogers each relationship with a client is a unique experience with its own meaning and feeling. The client and therapist must accept certain principles to interact completely on a one-to-one personal basis. Such principles for the therapist include:

1. Be the person one truly is. Show that one is trustworthy, consistent in a deep sense.

 Listen with acceptance to one's self, and be that self.

3. Experience positive attitudes toward the other person.

4. Be strong enough to be separate from the other person.

5. Be secure in oneself to permit the other person's separateness.

6. Enter fully into the other person's world; experience his personal feelings and meanings as he does.

7. Receive the other person acceptantly as he is.

8. Act sensitively so one's own behavior cannot be perceived as a threat.

9. Keep a relationship free from judgement.

10. In an effort to meet the other person as one who is in the process of becoming, the therapist cannot be bound by one's own past, or the client's past.

11. The optimal relationship is one created by a psychologically mature person (Rogers, 1961).

Directions a client must take in therapy toward becoming a total, functioning individual included:

 Self examination of aspects of his experiences as they actually feel to him.

2. Acceptance, fully and freely without fear, of the positive feelings of another.

3. Total acceptance of self.

4. Belief that the innermost core of one's nature is positive.

 Awareness of what one is in experience (Rogers, 1961). Such principles set by Rogers had a carry over value for education. As a teacher, Rogers set down meanings that experiences as a teacher had for him, but he discovered he could not teach another how to teach, consequently Rogers did not have an interest in teaching. Learning had much greater importance to Rogers; he felt by dropping one's own defensiveness and by stating uncertainties, one understood meaning in the learning experience. Rogers (1961) listed five implications for education:

1. Teaching should be eliminated. People would get together if they wanted to learn.

2. Examinations would be nonexistent. True learning cannot be measured.

3. Grades and credit would not be given.

Degrees of competence would not be awarded.
 They imply a conclusion or an end to learning.

5. Conclusions would not be stated.

Such implications for education have been recognized by many educational institutions. However, the practicing of such implications by so-called free schools without a sound basic foundation of education, has led to many failures. Humanistic education, unfortunately, many times was associated with such failure.

Maslow often has been designated the father of humanistic psychology. According to Maslow (1970) basic needs of physiology, safety, belongingness and love,

esteem, and self-actualization are catagorized in an heirarchical order. Satisfaction of lower needs then motivate one's personality to strive for higher need satisfaction and an integrated personality.

Maslow contended that both the higher and lower needs were included in human nature. The lower needs such as physiological drives of hunger and homeostasis characterized the animal-like nature of the human. The higher a need was classified, the less important it became for sheer survival, and pursuit of which represented a more healthful trend toward greater individualism and self-actualization (Maslow, 1970).

Maslow attempted to define self-actualization or the self-actualized individual through study of individuals. He identified characteristics common to those who were labeled as a certain kind of person and described eight ways in which one self-actualizes:

 Life is a process of choices; self-actualization is an ongoing process.

2. Self-actualization means experiencing fully with full concentration and absorption.

3. Let the self emerge to become actualized.

4. When in doubt, be honest. This requires taking responsibility.

5. Dare to listen to one's own self.

6. Self-actualization is an end state and a process of actualizing one's potentialities at any time, in any amount.

7. Recognize peak experiences.

 8. Identify and then give up defenses (Maslow, 1971).

Maslow, like Rogers, formulated goals and implications of humanistic education. Maslow criticized the current educational system by stating the chief concern was with the efficiency of "implanting the greatest number of facts into the greatest possible number of children, with a minimum of time, expense, and effort" (Maslow, 1971, p p. 180). Maslow supported the concept of no credits, no degrees, no required courses, for he felt a person would learn what he wanted to learn. Intrinsic education would be available to anyone who wanted it, since anyone who wanted could improve and learn, and education would be a long-life endeavor in which one pursued the discovery of truth and discovery of vocation. Schools should, according to Maslow, be helping children to look within themselves, and through self-knowledge derive a set of values. Education should be the search for identity, the search for self, the search for spontaneity, and for naturalness. From this comes a discovery of one's humaneness, and one's self.

One goal of education should be to teach that life is precious (Maslow, 1971). Education must accept the

and and by him love what he for server he is by

individual and help him learn what kind of person he is by allowing him to experience accomplishment, responsibility, and self-awareness. Intrinsic education must satisfy a child's basic psychological needs for love, respect, and belongingness and must allow him to reach the highest need for self-actualization. Maslow suggested one should be able to develop the consciousness for awareness of the beauty of life and should learn to be a good chooser.

Humanism and Philosophy

Philosophy influenced humanism with phenomenological and existential thought. Phenomenologists believed all behavior was completely determined by and pertinent to the phenomenal field of the behaving organism. The phenomenal field included the totality of experiences of which the person is aware at the instant of action. The phenomenal self included all those parts of the phenomenal field which the individual experiences as a part or characteristic of himself (Hall & Lindzey, 1970).

Carl Weinberg felt concern should be with the phenomenological self, the way a person perceived himself in relation to his social world. The freedom of the individual was a condition in which persons had the courage to choose their behavioral cues that were congruent with the intention or desire of the self (Weinberg, 1972).

William James, an anily phenomy pulogist, stated

William James, an early phenomenologist, stated

The nature of our past experience now affects the meaning that objects have for us; and unless we had already learned certain concepts, acquired certain interests, and had certain emotional reactions to things, we would not now experience them in the manner that we do (Ehman, 1969, p. 268).

Phenomenology has both a backward and a future dimension. James believed these dimensions were reflected in the empirical self and included the sum total of all that one can call his (Ehman, 1969). James felt knowledge came from an ever flowing stream of consciousness.

Sartre and Camus were the two most articulate spokesmen of existentialism (Hall & Lindzey, 1970). Others included Kierkegaard, Buber, Tillich, Kafka, Heidegger, and May. Buber stressed humanism through emphasis on uniqueness and wholeness and recognized that the self needed the other. Other concepts characteristic of existential thought included: being-in-the-world, modes of existence, freedom, responsibility, becoming, transcendence, spatiality, and temperality (Hall & Lindzey, 1970).

Existentialism suggested man needed to realize full potentials; by actualizing such potentialities, the individual lived an authentic life. If full possibilities of the individual were denied, or if the individual permitted the self to be dominated, then his existence was not authenticated. But, most important, man was free to choose either kind of life for himself even though the freedom of choice did not insure wise decisions.

The unity of the individual-in-the world concept was prevalent in existential thought. Existence was not static, it was always in the process of becoming something new. Nietzsche contributed to these ideas by proposing a philosophy of evolution antithetical to Darwin (Clark, 1957). According to Neitzsche, there was no development from lower to higher forms, only simultaneous development by all forms. The emphasis of continual progression for selfpreservation and survival by Darwin was attacked by Nietzsche for he believed there was a limitation for every species; the species were not progressing in a fixed direction. Such thought influenced the tenet of humanism of constantly becoming. In an effort to become self-actualized, man had this simultaneous, individual development.

Modern Humanism

All historical interpretations of humanism had some influence on contemporary humanist meanings. Humanism's many dimensions included scientific humanism, religious humanism, atheistic humanism, and ethical humanism. The meanings of humanism in the 20th century centered on the concept that man realized he was responsible for his own destiny--his future was within his control. Basic to all humanists was the claim that they all wanted to actualize

human potentialities, enhance human experiences, and contribute to happiness, social justice, democracy, and a peaceful world. All contemporary humanists had compassion for human suffering and commitment to the unity of mankind (Kurtz, 1973).

Howard Friess (1973) identified humanist responsibilities for scientific, ethical, and religious humanisms. Scientific humanism was recognized as the most reliable source about knowledge of how things happen in the continuity of man and nature. Ethical humanism included qualities of integrity and justice, and ethical humanists were concerned with the development of standards in the treatment of persons or groups. Religious humanism was dedicated to humanist values and a nuturing of faith in them. According to Friess, religious humanists were interested in life's crises and triumphs.

Van Praag (1973) postulated that the basis of humanist thinking and acting started from equality, secularity, liberty, fraternity, evaluation, experience, existence, completeness, evolution and contingency. He believed the common aims of humanist types were to provide coherent answer to the questions of human existence, to acknowledge experience as a promising development, and to acknowledge the mutual solidarity of mankind. Other aims Van Praag determined important were to create conditions for free development of individuals and to foster an open

society characterized by freedom of opinion, readiness to deliberate, mutual respect, democratic procedures, and direction towards the general welfare.

Kurtz (1973) identified four characteristics that contemporary humanism emphasizes: confidence in man, opposition to all forms of supernaturalistic or authoritarian religion, assistance of scientific and critical reason in reconstructing moral values, and concern for the good life and social justice as moral ideals. He emphasized that not all contemporary humanists believed totally in all four characteristics and stated that humanistic revolution attempts to bring back positive qualities of life: love and joy, creativity and growth, shared experiences and fraternity, uniqueness and diversity, achievement and excellence.

Lamont (1973), a naturalistic humanist, believed nature or the universe made up the totality of existence, and was completely self-operating according to the natural law with no need of God. According to Lamont, man as the present culmination of an evolutionary process, relied on reason and especially on established facts and laws. Concepts of determinism, fatalism, or predestination were rejected by Lamont; humans possessed genuine freedom of choice conditioned by inheritance, education, health, and the external environment.

Humanism and Education

The purpose of American education changed in the 20th century because of continued industrialization and modernization. Greater emphasis for training to live in a technological society resulted. No longer were basic reading, writing, and arithmetic the primary subjects necessary to function in society. The modern high school graduate had many vocational fields from which to choose, those requiring knowledge of physics, chemistry, biology, computer technology. With an increased emphasis on institutionalization, many felt that schools became factories, turning out students each year into the business world (Purpel & Belanger, 1972). Students became numbers, statistics, grade point averages, and intelligence quotient scores.

As a consequence of technology Harman (1972) found that many individuals questioned whether students were being adequately educated for proper uses of resulting increased leisure time. Many feared that high school graduates were learning essentials for a career, but were not taught how to function within society. Personal values, goals, and happiness were concepts to which students should be exposed in school. It was believed by many that an individual must find personal satisfaction and happiness to be able to cope with future depersonalization by technology and resulting loneliness of humans. Others have attributed that the need for educational reform has resulted from civil rights movements (Blitz, 1973) (Weinstein & Fantini, 1970) (Kozol, 1972). Educational deficiences have resulted because of a lack of relevance to the learner, and it has become necessary to teach for pupils' learning styles and experiences. The feeling and conceptualizing aspects of learning need to be emphasized to make education meaningful to students.

According to Maslow (1972), more individuals will become growth-motivated. Because of increasing affluence, increasing levels of education, and changing child-rearing patterns, more individuals will place higher valuations on the feeling and subjective side of life. Because of this emphasis on affective aspects of education such as feelings, attitudes, and values of an individual, a conflict with traditional educational objectives is apparent. This problem in education was identified by Weinstein and Fantini (1970):

It is easier to teach toward such specific objectives and, more generally, to recognize and deal with the child's need to know how to read, write, compute, and to have some knowledge of his environment than it is to recognize and deal with his need for a satisfying self definition, for constructive relationships with others, and for some control over what happens to him. The first set of needs is given the overwhelming emphasis in our educational system (p. 18).

Innovation and change were the two most effective methods for creating alternative educational systems. The free school as one alternative to public school education

was many times associated with commune styles of living. They usually were initiated by individuals who moved from the city, into a country living commune, and who literally "retired from the North American system with its devastation, poverty, and oppression" (Kozol, 1972, p. 8). The free schools described tended not to face the realities of poverty, starvation, or crime; they existed in a moral vacuum, caring only for their own community. The basic philosophy of such schools was established on the premise that a child learned best when he was curious and felt a need to learn.

Kozol (1972) stated that free schools can and should survive as alternatives in education. He believed the free school must teach for struggle and survival in today's world and that communing with nature, learning to weave, growing health food gardens did not help people to live without ordeal in the world in which they live. He stated that free schools needed to make statements about areas in which free schools commonly disagree: reading, curriculum, discipline, teacher-styles, survival goals, political consciousness.

Although many free schools implied and taught different things, they all condemned forms of classroom power and behavior manipulation by teachers (Kozol, 1972). But in order to be successful, Kozol (1972) suggested that free schools must build trust, be humane, and have a sense of stability and sustained commitment.

Silberman (1970) studied free schools in England and commented about possibilities for such schools in the United States. Silberman believed that informal schooling could not be transplanted to the United States immediately; difficulties would result in the cultural and institutional differences between the United States and England. The United States' educational system was primarily under state and local governmental controls, whereas England schooling was controlled by its national government. Such direct control in the United States placed much social pressure on the school system; the English system had more freedom to experiment and innovate.

Culturally Americans placed little emphasis on art, dance, beauty, and sensitivity. The sciences and mathematics were stressed in the technological society. The English believed both culture and science were equally important. Innovation could prove more difficult within the American educational system.

Silberman (1970) envisioned that informal or free education might become accepted in the United States because of the growing emphasis among the young on experiences, processes, and involvements. During the 1920's and 1930's progressive schooling took root in the United States, having been influenced by writings of John Dewey (Silberman, 1970). However, Dewey placed more emphasis on a formal curriculum with sequential courses, but his followers tended to permit

too much freedom with resulting chaos in the classroom. Consequently, Dewey criticized the progressive schools for their absence of intellectual control (Silberman, 1970). Silberman stated that the school of education in the United States must become the model of the kind of environment it was promoting before real change could occur.

As proponents of open education, Nyquist and Hawes (1972) criticized free schools. They considered the free school as "expressions of diverse interests and experiments" (p. 3). The open school distinguished itself by recognizing educational standards and reflecting basic views of learning and represented itself as a humanistic form of education. The open school went beyond the routinized, authoritarian schools by believing that through humanizing education, the effectiveness of schools as centers for learning and growth would increase.

Open education could be easily adopted in only outward appearance and also could be easily misunderstood. If teachers were forced to open classrooms, the true concept could not work. Classrooms may have appeared open by the physical setting, but if subjects or tasks were required for the whole class, the purposes of the open classroom were lost. A person could not be told to become a humanistic teacher; a philosophical and value-oriented belief of the individual is essential. Perhaps the failure of open education in the public schools resulted because individuals

not totally committed to the open classroom concept were made to teach in such situations. Many so-called open classrooms became more authoritarian than traditional selfcontained classrooms.

Many alternative teaching techniques have been proposed. Behavioral objectives, accountability, individualized instruction and humanistic education have been used as innovative teaching techniques in the educational system. Some techniques proved more successful than others.

Individualized instruction was a teaching technique that many associated with humanistic education. Like open education, it was a viable means by which an individual learned what was appropriate for him at an individual pace. However, the concept was also misunderstood and could have been inhumanistically implemented.

Individualized instruction was not the same as independent study although it included independent study as one method of learning. It was characterized by instructional objectives expressed in terms of observable student behavior, with a minimum set standard of achievement of a desired performance. Beliefs of children basic to the individualized instruction method of teaching and learning included:

1. Children learn by talking and doing.

 Children learn different amounts at different rates at different times.

3. Children absorb different concepts.

4. Each child has a unique learning style.

5. The child should be accountable for his learning.

6. Children need to be exposed to a variety of activities and people (Von Haden & King, 1974).

Advocates of individualized instruction included in its concept team teaching, contracting, activity packages, team learning, and relevant learning. The program tended to reduce stereotyping of students and provided for selfdirection, self-motivation, and self-activity. Some disadvantages of an individualized instruction program included:

1. Student immaturity prohibited individual work.

 Some teachers were disinterested in students as individuals; they lacked special abilities in diagnosing and solving difficulties.

3. Time allotment to provide a program for each student was too great.

4. Students pursued interests rather than their educational needs (Von Haden & King, 1974).

Humaneness in school was characteristically different than the above stated innovations. Whether a school was free or open or whether it involved individualized, personalized, or team-taught instruction, the system was not necessarily humanistic by implication. Advocates of educate

How focused on the development of humaneness felt that

education focused on the development of humaneness felt that nothing was more important than the individual and the development of his unique human qualities. Education that claimed to be humanistic allowed for freedom, personal choice, and expression of emotions and thus fostered individuality, sensitivity to the needs and feelings of others, concern, and empathy (Von Haden & King, 1974).

Learning experiences aimed at developing fully each person's potential for humane living must allow student inquiry about who he is, what guiding values he should accept, and how he can best get along with others. The learning environment must be varied, teachers themselves must be humane and must regard each child as unique, and each student must initiate many of his own learning experiences. The student learns how to learn, so that his education may be a life-long process rather than an isolated public school experience.

A system may be humanistic and free, humanistic and open, or humanistic and individualized. However, in appearance it may also be inhumanistic and free, open, or individualized. The key concept of a humanistic educational system has been the development of each unique individual to his full potential. Humanism in education is a philosophy of education; it has not worked as a teaching method.

Many individuals have tried to describe education in more humanistic terms. Weinstein and Fantini (1970) and

Brown (1970) proposed education should emphasize the cognitive and affective domain of learning. The affective domain included feelings and behavior such as attitudes, values, and adjustments. The cognitive domain included intellectual abilities such as knowledge and comprehension. Together, the two domains helped to develop an educated human being; however, it was necessary to make the cognitive domain (or knowledge) relevant to the learner by including the affective domain (or feeling) at the same time. Therefore, if a fact was taught, it was made relevant to the learner by relating it somehow personally to him.

Zahorik and Brubaker (1972) identified teacher and student behaviors during the course of instruction in a humanistic environment. Teacher behavior must "permit, encourage, and extend student's ability to be independent, self-directed, responsible persons" (Zahorik & Brubaker, 1972, p. 17). Zahorik and Brubaker (1972) and Macdonald (1969) stated that teachers must aid each student in his effort to develop those qualities of thinking, feeling, and valuing. For teacher classroom behavior to be humanistic it must be receptive, facilitating, personal, and genuine. Other humanistic teacher behaviors identified by Zahorik and Brubaker (1972) include: informing behavior, soliciting behavior, responding behavior, and reacting behavior.

According to Zahorik and Brubaker (1972), students' humanistic classroom behaviors include capacities for

self-direction, independence, and responsibility, and for thinking, valuing, feeling, and creating. Humanistic behaviors of informing, soliciting, responding, and reacting also were identified for students.

Monez and Bussiere (1969) attempted to describe a humanistic high school. They contended that a school was only what an individual perceived it to be; therefore, a school should evaluate its program through the medium of its students. Six questions a school must ask of its students were listed:

- 1. Is the young person sensitive to his experience?
- Does the individual have a true tolerance for open-endedness?
- 3. Does he have a clear perception of reality?
- 4. As a young person comes to understand how things relate to one another in increasing complexity, is he able to live comfortably with that complexity, without the need to oversimplify or distort?
- 5. Is the young person spontaneous and imaginative as he draws upon the flow of energy from his thinking process as they occur with or without definite purpose?
- Does the young person have a sense of wholeness, of completeness, of being a person in his own right? (Monex & Bussiere, 1969, pp. 10-16).

Michael (1969) described a large high school which tended to be more conducive to humanistic education. A larger faculty with more diverse talents and interests facilitated creation of smaller subunits. The role of the

teacher was redefined to include paraprofessionals, teacher aides, and student workers so that more time was given to the teachers during the day to better prepare, to keep up to date in their subject field, to confer with colleagues, and to work with individual students. Flexible scheduling was implemented to foster individualization of the learning process.

Macdonald, Wolfson, and Zaret (1971) proposed a conceptual model as an alternative to the present school system. In reaction to an educational emphasis of behavioral behavioral objectives, Macdonald et al. (1971) emphasized a humanistic-liberal educational system. They proposed:

- Schools should be liberating; the basic goal should be the development of autonomous, valuing human beings.
- 2. Schools should be personalized.
- Decision-making should be shared by students, parents, and teachers (pp. 6-7).

It was believed by Macdonald et al. that decisions about the learning environment, the teacher-student relationship, the content of learning, curriculum, and evaluation must be made by all individuals involved. Such transactional dimensions were described consistently with the humanistic belief that all people have worth or value by virtue of being human (see Chapter IV and Appendix B).

Humanism and Physical Education

Physical education traditionally was regarded in the past by many lay people to be authoritarian, militaristic, and dehumanizing. Many of those beliefs were and still are accurate. Physical education was associated with marching drills and regimented fitness exercises and the mistaken association of organized athletics with physical education also contributed to the inhumanistic image. In accordance with recent emphases in education for relevance, physical education changed its program directions toward emphasis on individual sports, lifetime activities, outdoor education, and low-competitive types of activities. Efforts were made to humanize the physical education program by allowing for course electives, by planning developmental stages of activities, and by emphasizing individualized instruction, contracting for grades, and utilizing nongraded programs.

The movement approach in physical education was a direct emphasis of a humanistic philosophy. The concept first originated in England in the early 1930's and was influenced by the philosophy and principles of movement postulated by Rudolph Laban. Basic was the idea that the student had individual rates of development and patterns of movement. It was believed that each child must be given experiences in which he could explore individual ways to move.

Barrett, Halverson, Logsdon, and Tillotson are among many individuals advocating a movement approach to physical education in the United States. Most of their work has been conducted on the elementary school level.

Few individuals have studied movement in relation to its meaning for the individual. Metheny (1968) believed that movement must have meaning to the mover to be relevant, and Kleinman (1964) described the phenomenological self while experiencing physical movement. Much study is needed about the philosophical meanings of movement and contributions to the development of an individual's selfactualization.

Riley (1975) described a situation in which elementary school students were given freedom to develop their own games. The students tended to develop and play games in small groups. Rules sometimes were stated, other times many were not. The game was named only when the students were asked. Primary was the concern of the students that the game worked, and that skills were improved by playing the game.

Cassidy and Caldwell (1974) described methods for a humanistic movement oriented secondary school physical education program. Directions and goals, the teaching-learning situation, the teaching-learning process, movement experiences, and plans for continuous growth of the student were

discussed as being relevant to humanistic physical education.

Hellison (1973) believed a humanistic physical education program could help the individual student develop selfesteem, self-understanding, interpersonal relations, and self-actualization. Other characteristics that could be developed included personality, social behavior, leadership, values, and perceptions of self and body. Hellison (1973) believed the present evaluation system of grading should be abolished; grades threatened students so that true learning did not take place. However, to grade within the present system, he suggested that a grade based entirely on student involvement would be an "A." He believed this reduced the threat of grades if the program was combined with sound instruction and individualized goals. Hellison (1973) suggested that in the past other teaching strategies such as written tests, uniform clothing, required showers, and authoritarian teaching, have contributed to the inhumanistic atmosphere of physical education.

Mosston (1966) described teaching styles characterized by the amount of classroom control exercised by the teacher. He believed the command style of teaching was one common to most physical education programs. The discovery method, according to Mosston (1966), allowed students to pursue their own interests and programs; however, Mosston placed

limitations by emphasizing that pre-class decisions must be made about cognitive development.

Summary

Tenets of humanism common to humanism experts reviewed include:

1. Each individual is unique and is basically good.

2. Each individual is free to choose and make decisions about his life.

3. Each individual has worth.

4. Creativity in individuals should be fostered.

5. Each individual is accorded responsibility.

6. Each individual strives for completeness, wholeness, self-actualization.

Tenets of humanistic education common to educational experts reviewed include:

 An open and environment must be created by the teacher.

2. The teacher must treat each student with loving care, concern, and respect.

3. The teacher must recognize individual interests, rates of learning and development, and learning styles of each student.

4. The teacher must allow the student to take responsibility, make decisions and choices, express opinions.

5. Each student is responsible for his/her learning.

 Each student learns different amounts of knowledge at different rates and times.

7. Each student has a unique learning style.

 Each student must be willing to take responsibility.

9. The affective, cognitive, and psychomotor domains interrelatedly are important in each student's development.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

In an attempt to collect pertinent data in reference to the class situations to be studied, several observation methods were considered. These included Barth's 29 Assumptions about Learning and Knowledge (1971), a checklist observation by humanism experts, an observation-notation method, audio-visual taping, and the Macdonald, Wolfson, Zaret Conceptual Model (1973).

Barth (1971) listed 29 assumptions about learning and knowledge. Assumptions about children's learning included statements of motivation, social learning, intellectual learning, and conditions for learning. An assumption about knowledge category was included also. After each assumption, the researcher was to mark along a continuum his own feeling about the statement. The continuum points ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Barth's tool was rejected by the author for several reasons: the tool was specific to young children, it did not consider all aspects of an educational environment, and the results of such assumptions would not formulate a clear picture of a specific educational situation.

A checklist observation by experts of humanism was considered also. Using such a technique, the author would develop a list of classroom behaviors, events, and situations by observation of particular physical education situations. The experts would observe a specific case study situation. Humanistic items on the list occurring in the educational situation would be checked by the experts. A description of the case study would be formulated from a summary of the checklist results. Several problems were forseen with this method: a common workable definition of humanism satisfactory to all experts would be difficult to develop, adequate observation time would be required, observation periods conducive to all schedules would be necessary, and a complete description of the educational environment would not be obtained. Consequently, this technique was rejected.

An observation-notation method was reviewed. This method included notation of all class behaviors, activities, events. It involved a complete written description of the class period. This method was not chosen since it was believed that the notation method was too complex. The construction of the notation fostered inconsistent observation notations. The researcher felt that some specific observation quidelines were necessary.

Audio-visual taping was considered. A taped situation would have permitted repeated review. This method was

not used because of camera limitations; the camera angle would miss some activity in the environment at all times.

The Macdonald, Wolfson, Zaret Conceptual Model (1973) was considered as a guide for observation. The model described six transactional dimensions of which four were used as the basic criteria for observation. The four transactional dimensions noted were: the learning environment, the teacher-student relationship, the curriculum, and the evaluation. This model was chosen because the author felt that the transactional dimensions best described the total educational environment in which she was interested.

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The learning environment as described in the model is concerned with a humanistic educational environment. Macdonald et al. (1973) suggested that there are certain conditions necessary to develop experiences that may support a learning process fostering self-actualization. The major condition is the necessity for a varied opportunity for individuals to interact in the environment.

Macdonald et al. (1973) felt that the student, as well as the teacher, should be given opportunities to interact with the environment, with other persons, with ideas, with purposes and goals, and with self. The model suggested that interpersonal relationships should provide an open educational learning experience. The teacher should possess the knowledge and skill to act as a supportive resource person for all individuals. The teacher and student should

avoid pre-determined judgments, and actively should support the other in his ongoing awareness of self. The educational experiences cannot be predetermined or prestated, but a wide range of opportunities can be provided that would enhance the exchange of ideas, people, places, and things by students.

Macdonald et al. (1973) contended that the teacherstudent relationship is one of mutual respect and trust. The teacher and the student must be active, caring individuals. The teacher should know and talk with students. The teacher should communicate an excitement and joy about learning. The teacher, as a model, should be a polite, caring, personable, and involved individual. The teacher should act as a responsible decision-maker. The teacher, as a resource person, should provide conceptual feedback and should demonstrate his specialized knowledges and skills to the students. The teacher should demonstrate a professional attitude toward the learning experience. The teacher should be able to take a position but also should be able to allow students to develop their own individual viewpoints. The teacher should be a responsible human being.

The model also suggested that students have responsibilities in the teaching-learning relationship. For interaction with other students and teachers, students need to be polite individuals, interested, personable, and giving of themselves. Students should be aware persons and need to be

responsible human beings. Students should participate and get along with others in interpersonal relationships.

Macdonald et al. (1973) defined curriculum as the "cultural environment which has been purposefully selected as a set of possibilities for facilitating educative transactions" (p. 22). Each individual should be allowed to select the relevant content necessary for his own unique curriculum although a basic framework is necessary. Such a framework would include experiences for social and cultural maintainence and change, for moral and ethical choices, and for the creation of new cultural meanings. The curricular decisions made should reflect the fundamental cultural and social values as well as the students' personal directions and goals. An interdisciplinary approach to curriculum is desirable.

The evaluation process is based on two assumptions (Macdonald et al., 1973). The first assumption states that schools should be centers with varied environments conducive to each student's level of awareness. The second assumption states that an "aesthetic and intellectual approach to the present is more desirable than attempting to shape human beings to some imagined future goal" (Macdonald et al., 1973, p. 26).

To remain consistent with the assumptions made evaluation should take place on two levels. The first level evaluation takes place within the school. The quality of

environment and the students' and teachers' development and learning are of primary concern. Such evaluation would include self evaluations by teacher and student. Cooperative evaluations between staff and students would include total environment evaluation and self evaluation.

Level two evaluation is concerned with social accountability. It takes place outside the school and studies whether the school and all individuals within it are moving toward agreed upon directions and purposes. In this evaluation the school must be open to the community and must have mutually established goals. This evaluation is long term in nature, and for the purposes of this study was not utilized.

Utilizing the tenets of the Macdonald, Wolfson, Zaret conceptual model (1973) the first observation tool constructed was used for a pilot observation (see Appendix A). The tool was divided into four main categories: the learning environment, the teacher-student relationship, the curriculum, and the evaluation. Each category was further divided into subcategories. The subcategories were direct explanations of the Macdonald et al. (1973) model. One page for each category was used for recording. A physical education major's volleyball class at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro was observed in the pilot study. After that initial recording attempt, the tool was rejected for use in the study as it proved to be too specific for recording procedures. The recorder found that too much

explanation of the Macdonald et al. (1973) model was given for objective observation. Physical features of the tool added to recording difficulties.

The author then simplified the pilot observation tool. The rating sheet based on the conceptual model was made specific to physical education and athletic situations (see Appendix B). The learning environment included categories of "class regulations," "leadership roles," "class structure," "services," and "physical environment." The teacher-student relationship was divided into "the teacher" category and "the student" category. The curriculum category included "course offerings" and "social aspects" of the program. The evaluation section allowed for observation of evaluations of teacher by self and by students, and evaluations of students by selves, other students, and teachers. The athletic situation observation tool was the same as was the tool used for the physical education situation with one exception of word changes. Each transactional dimension was recorded on a separate sheet. Adequate space was provided for notation. The observation tool provided guidelines but also allowed for notation flexibility. This observation tool proved adequate for the recording process.

The learning environment was divided into five specific categories. The categories included: class regulations, leadership roles, class structure, services offered, and physical environment.

"Class regulations" included conduct, dress, grading procedures, participation and any rules set forth in the class situation. The author was interested in the decisionmaking that occurred during the formulation of such rules and regulations.

The "leadership roles" category permitted study of persons who maintained the leadership and how class leaders were chosen. The teacher was considered a possible leader as were team captains, equipment managers, well-skilled students, and popular students. Again, the decision-making process was a primary concern.

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"Class structure" was concerned with class execution. The teaching method used was noted as was class content. Freedom to interact with persons and things within the environment was studied. The roles of the teacher and of the student, and how they were assumed, also were of interest. Educational opportunities within the learning environment were recorded.

The "services available" category included the class situation and school facilities. Within the class structure observation was made concerning library use by students and teachers; use of multi-media equipment; use of the teacher as a resource person; use of experts, other teachers, nonschool personnel; use of recreational facilities; and afterschool sports clubs, intramurals, extramurals offered.

The final category, the "physical environment" was studied with regard to the opportunities available to select from a wide variety of activities; the organization that facilitates learning, awareness, and access; and the environment conducive to learning, interaction, and awareness.

The teacher-student relationship dimension was divided into two broad categories. The category of "the teacher" was studied, noting relationships with students, the role of the teacher, the teacher as a person, and the receptiveness towards individual differences, ideas, and goals. "The student" category was studied, looking at relationships with other students, relationships with the teacher, the role of the student, and the student as a person. Much of the conceptual model of the teacher-student relationship was taken into account during this observation.

The curriculum observation was divided into two categories. The "course offerings" category suggested observation of social aspects, variety, relevance, and uniqueness. Ethics, morals, sportsmanship, honesty with self and others were observed also. The second category dealt with observation of student input and teacher input. The decision-making processes of curriculum and the uniqueness of each individual's curriculum were examined.

The evaluation dimension involved level one, the educational evaluation. Evaluations by the teacher of self,

of students, and of the program were noted. Evaluations by students of self, of other students, of teachers, and of program were observed. Grading methods used were investigated.

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Observation of the interscholastic basketball team required some alteration of the above guide. The coach was studied in that role; the player was studied also. The curriculum dimension involved observations of social aspects, ethics, morals, sportsmanship, and honesty. Coach and player input was noted. The evaluation was studied primarily in the competitive situation. Evaluation of players by the coach was evident in team line-up and substitution. Evaluations by students of self were observed. Provisions for evaluations by the coach of self and of the program were noted. Other dimensions and categories remained the same, except for wording changes, including "teacher" became "coach," "class structure" became "practice structure," etc. (see Sppendix B).

The High School

A senior high school in Greensboro, North Carolina was chosen for the case study. The approval of the head of the physical education department was obtained. The high school had an approximate enrollment of 1,600 students. About 1,000 of these students were enrolled in a physical education class. Of these students, about half were male and half female. Physical education was required for one year, or two semesters, and was coeducational. Students were allowed to take physical education as an elective. The physical education course offerings were varied. Student questionnaires and teacher requests determined what activities would be taught. Students registered for a specific activity.

Interscholastic sports were offered to males and females. Competitive sports opportunities for females included basketball, golf, softball, tennis, track and field, and volleyball. Competition for males included baseball, basketball, cross-country, football, golf, soccer, swimming and diving, tennis, track and field, wrestling.

Intramural competition previously had been offered to the student body through the physical education department. Usually, intramural activities were scheduled according to student response of the previous year. The intramural program has been discontinued because of lack of student interest and available facilities. A cut of intramural funding by the school board was a third reason for discontinuation of the intramural program. The money was used for coaches' salaries.

Two physical education situations and one interscholastic team situation were studied. One physical education class was badminton-tennis and the other class was basketball. There were certain criteria used for selection

of these situations as case studies. A large time block was needed to facilitate efficient use of travel time to and from the school, and an observation time was needed that would best fit the schedule of the school, the faculty, the activities offered, and the observer-recorder. The final two class periods of the day provided an individual sport and team sport class. The interscholastic team practiced and played games immediately after school. Because of this schedule, the observer-recorder was able to study all situations during one visit to the school per day. When occasional basketball team practices were scheduled late afternoons, an additional trip to the high school was necessary.

The physical education and athletic situations were observed for a total of 40 hours; four hours a day for ten days. The observer-recorder selected a seat on the bleachers apart from each situation. Lectures, most interactions between students, and students and teacher could be heard. If interactions were not heard, the observerrecorder selected another seat. The observer-recorder felt it was necessary to remain unnoticed by the students and teachers observed.

CHAPTER IV

CASE STUDIES

Case Study One

The first physical education class observed involved two activities: badminton and tennis. Due to potential weather problems, badminton was scheduled as the first activity taught, and observation occurred during this time. The class had an enrollment of 32 students: sophomores, juniors and seniors. The class distribution included 17 white females, 6 black females, 8 white males, and 1 black male. The class was taught by a female physical education teacher, assisted by a female student-teacher. The class met from 1:40 P.M. until 2:25 P.M. One half of the gymnasium was the space available. There were four regulationsized badminton courts. Each student was provided a racquet and shuttlecocks.

The other half of the gymnasium was used by a gymnastics class, taught by a female physical education instructor. There were approximately 20 students in the class. One half of the floor space of the gymnasium was covered by tumbling mats, uneven parallel bars, rings, a vaulting horse, and a balance beam.

The Learning Environment

<u>Class regulations</u>. Students were required by the teacher to wear activity clothes in class every day. Uniforms were recommended but were not required. Cotton or jean shorts and t-shirts were worn by most students. Tennis shoes were required. Students not dressed as directed were not allowed to participate. The class was given a specific place to meet in the gymnasium and was told the specific time the class started. The roll was called every day. Students were not given the opportunity to make decisions and choices, or to suggest ideas about class regulations. All regulations were pre-determined by the teacher.

Leadership roles. Two leadership roles were evident in the class. The student-teacher assumed responsibility for roll call, giving directions, lecturing, teaching, and class structure. The supervising-teacher was responsible for the class as a whole and for the student-teacher. Although the student-teacher was the active class leader, many students referred most questions and comments to the supervising-teacher. The supervising-teacher assumed a leadership role during the planning and evaluating sessions with the student-teacher.

Student leaders did not maintain significant roles in the class. No captains were chosen, and the students did not choose informally a class leader among their peers. The structure of the badminton class, an individual sport, may have been a contributing factor. Several students offered to help with equipment. The students were allowed a choice of playing partners.

Class structure. After roll call, the student-teacher began class with a lecture. The lecture covered such material as court dimensions, court labeling, serving order, and playing rules. Review sessions were held, as were question and answer periods. The student-teacher read the lecture from papers she held in her hands. The lecture would usually last 15 minutes. Following the lecture, students were told by the student-teacher to choose a partner, find a court, and play a game against another doubles team. Those without courts were placed around the perimeter of the playing area. Thus, the students not on courts remained on the perimeter for the entire class period. The studentteacher moved from court to court watching play. Occasionally, encouragement would be given to a student, but the student-teacher offered little or no constructive criticism. At the end of class the student-teacher dismissed the students from their playing courts.

The supervising-teacher remained an observer during the class. Occasionally she sat with the students during the lecture. The supervising-teacher had no input, nor was she an active participant during the class hour. Sometimes students asked her questions or sat with her to talk. The supervising-teacher stated that she would interrupt the

class if there was an occurrence that appeared to her as if it would prove detrimental to the students. Such action was never taken. Material to be covered during the class hour was previously determined by the supervising-teacher and the student-teacher.

Services. Physical education activity books were kept in the school library. No mention of this was made to the class. Multi-media presentations, badminton experts, or other teachers were not used in the class. Intramural and extramural opportunities for playing badminton were not available. The gymnasium was not available for recreational badminton. The teachers were used as resources. Questions were asked by the students. When a question could not be answered by the student-teacher, the student-teacher asked the supervising-teacher. Students were free to ask questions, either during the lecture, during the play period, or after class.

Physical environment. The gymnasium was divided into two teacher situations; one for the badminton class, the other for the gymnastics class. Each station was separate, with different teachers, regulations, structures, and purposes. There was no interchange of students. Within the badminton class there was no provision for selection of activities. The gymnasium doors were kept locked. No bulletin boards, tables, or displays with learning materials were utilized. There was a blackboard the student-teacher

used during lectures. A piece of gymnastic apparatus overlapped into a badminton court during several class periods. The supervising-teacher, student-teacher, or students never asked that the gymnastics equipment be moved. The gymnasium itself was constructed of dark red brick. Lighting was adequate. Noise from the other class was distracting many times.

The Teacher-Student Relationship

The supervising-teacher. The supervising-teacher did not play a significant, active role during the class hour. She had two main responsibilities: the student-teacher and the total development of students in the class. The supervising-teacher demonstrated characteristics that showed concern and care for the students. She was personable, polite, and humorous. Her tone and manner with the students was informal. She showed respect for students by listening to them and by acknowledging their opinions, complaints, and questions. She treated the students as responsible human beings, capable of making choices and decisions, and bearing responsibilities within limitation. In decision-making situations students were given opportunities to decide, but within the teacher's frame of reference. In an effort to give the student-teacher complete classroom responsibility, the teacher did not actively seek personal interactions with

the students. However, each class period several suchants

the students. However, each class period several students would ask the supervising-teacher questions.

The supervising-teacher appeared to be more concerned about the student-teacher's experiences in the class, rather than the students' experiences. If the class lesson was not going well, the supervising-teacher did not interrupt the class. By allowing the student-teacher full responsibility, the supervising-teacher did not take any responsibility for analysis and correction of students' skills. Analysis and correction were not done by the student-teacher either. Safety hazards evident in the class environment were not corrected in an effort to allow the student-teacher time to notice and correct the hazards. Necessary disciplinary actions were not taken. The supervising-teacher allowed the student-teacher the opportunity to make decisions, bear responsibility, assume leadership, and enter into personal relations with the students. There were times when this attitude may have deprived students correct, knowledgeable, and excellent teaching.

Several days the student-teacher was absent from school, and the supervising-teacher taught the class. She demonstrated a great deal of knowledge and skill regarding the subject matter. The supervising-teacher was neatly dressed and generated a good appearance. The teacher acted as a resource person as questions were encouraged and answered. The teacher would offer an opinion if asked;

otherwise, the students were allowed to express their own opinions. The teacher allowed students freedom as long as they acted within the set structure of the class. The class was primarily teacher-directed with directions coming subtly from the teacher.

The student-teacher. The student-teacher played an active role as the class leader. The student-teacher was neat in appearance. She allowed students freedom in the class. In an effort to be understanding, the student-teacher allowed students to disrupt the class during roll call and lecture. Only several times did she reprimand a student for misbehavior.

The student-teacher was not knowledgeable about the subject matter. Lectures were read from prepared notes. Questions by students were answered hesitantly or were referred to the supervising-teacher. Badminton serving order, confusing to the students, was not fully understood by the student-teacher. Thus, the presentation to the students was not clear. Little or no constructive criticism about students' playing skills was given. The skill level of the student-teacher was poor; her ability was evident when she played badminton with several students.

Although the student-teacher was concerned, her teaching immaturity prevented her from being fully involved with students in the class. Her teaching abilities did not offer the students full opportunities to learn the game of

badminton. The class was teacher-directed at times, disorganized at other times.

The students. Many students did not know each other, and no formal effort was made by the teachers or students to introduce one another. Most association between students took place during play. Relationships that were formed were open. Some students were willing and eager to help the lesser skilled. With the exception of one or two. all students appeared interested and eager to learn. Students wanted to participate, wanted to learn badminton. Students were polite to one another; but, occasionally, they became disinterested during the lecture by the student-teacher. At these times students talked with one another, watched the gymnastics class, or left the group to play badminton. The student-teacher was ignored by many of the students. At times a conversation would begin across the gymnasium, between classes. Some students persisted in talking and hitting shuttlecocks if they were not interested in the lecture. Most students, however, followed directions given by the student-teacher.

The Curriculum

The course offerings. The elective program within the department offered a wide variety of activities from which the student could elect a class. However, once the student had enrolled, the course content was very specific.

Students were not given the opportunity to explore a wide variety of activities, only to select from that variety. The course content for badminton was determined by the teacher and the student-teacher before the class meeting. The student was given no information about what was to be studied in badminton.

Social aspects of the class were fostered through opportunities for interaction. The play period of the class was the most conducive for personal interaction to occur. Some students seemed to regard some aspects of the course as boring, although all material presented was necessary to learn badminton. Variety in the class was not offered. Students were not allowed to be decision makers regarding activities. Each student's curriculum was the same as another's. Each student was presented with the same material and was required to participate in the same activities. The purposes, directions, and goals of each student may have been unique but were not observable. Sportsmanship was encouraged. Students had to referee their own games. The students appeared to be honest with themselves and others.

Evaluation

Few formal evaluation procedures were observed. The teacher explained the grading methods the first day of class. The student's grade was based on participation, attendance, written tests, and skills tests. The Miller

Wall Volley Test (Barrow & McGee, 1971) was used for a skills test (see Appendix C). The students were given responsibility of scoring and recording. A written test, constructed by the student-teacher, was given also (see Appendix D). The purpose was to give the student-teacher experience with test construction and to see if her teaching was effective with the students. Students were given no information concerning the examination or the grading procedures. Evaluations by the supervising-teacher or studentteacher of self were not observed by one another. Also, evaluations by the students of self, of other students, and of the teachers were not observed.

Case Study Two

Basketball was the activity offered in the second physical education class observed. The class was taught by a male physical education teacher who was also the boys' basketball coach. The class enrollment totalled 37, with a student distribution of 3 white females, 6 black females, 5 white males, and 23 black males. The class met the last hour of the school day from 2:35 P.M. until 3:25 P.M. The class met in half the gymnasium. Three baskets were available for use and one practice court, the width of the gymnasium, was used. The other half of the gymnasium was used by a physical education class in cheerleading which was directed by a female physical education teacher but was

taught by the varsity girl cheerleaders. There were approximately 35 students in the cheerleading class.

The Learning Environment

<u>Class regulations</u>. The students were required to dress for participation. Shorts and t-shirts were acceptable to the teacher and were worn by the students. Tennis shoes were required. Students not dressed in activity clothes were not allowed to participate. The roll was taken by a student assistant every day. The boys were given a sheet explaining locker room procedures and class nonparticipation penalties (see Appendix E). No material was given to the girls. The girls were told the same level of play was expected of them as that expected of the boys. The students were not given decision-making responsibilities for class regulations.

Leadership roles. The teacher, through an authoritarian manner, assumed the leadership role. Many directions were given to the students by the teacher. Students were told on which squads to play, when to play, and where to play.

Several students, male and female, played on the school's basketball teams. Those individuals were informally given leadership roles by other students in the class. Settlement of arguments, decisions to be made, and selection of

team members were responsibilities informally accorded the student leaders.

At times the teacher selected certain individuals to be squad captains. Such appointment was for that particular class period only. During informal play those students chosen by the teacher were not regarded by the others as class leaders.

<u>Class structure</u>. Class began when the teacher organized the playing teams. Students were placed on four squads; the females were distributed evenly among the four teams. Two teams played for 10 minutes; the other two teams watched. The teacher, or an appointed student, acted as the game official. After the allotted time, the other teams played. Winning and losing teams were then matched against each other during the second round of play. Usually each team played twice for a total of 20 minutes during the class session. Three females students in the class worked on the gymnastics uneven parallel bars during each class hour.

Class periods usually began when the teacher brought the basketball to class. Only three basketballs were used. Pick-up games began at each of the three baskets. Although dressed for activity, many students did not participate. Students not participating sat on the bleachers, gymnastics equipment, and mats stacked against the wall. They watched the games and talked with one another. The teacher occasionally told them to substitute for another player in a game.

No formal presentation of basketball skills was made by the teacher. The students played basketball the entire class hour unless they chose to sit out or were told to do so by the teacher. The teacher watched the games most of the time and talked with students only when he was approached by them.

Services. The school library was well stocked with physical education activity books, including basketball books. No mention of such material was made. Multi-media opportunities, basketball experts, or other teachers were not utilized. A janitor was used in a supervisory capacity when the teacher did not come to class. Basketball rules and techniques were not discussed with the students in any lecture. The teacher did not act as a resource person. The teacher was observed during class time drawing basketball plays on the blackboard for the male basketball team players enrolled in the class.

<u>Physical environment</u>. The gymnasium was divided into two separate teaching stations, one for the basketball class and the other for the cheerleading class. Three baskets were available for use by the basketball class. No more than three basketballs were handed out by the teacher. A balance beam, uneven parallel bars, and tumbling mats were at one end of the playing court. The students sat on the gymnastics equipment while not playing. No bulletin boards, tables, or displays with learning materials were utilized. Cheering practice from the cheerleading class was very disconcerting.

The Teacher-Student Relationship

The teacher. The teacher appeared neat in appearance, wearing a standard uniform to class every day. The teacher's manner with the students was short and curt. Through commands, directions, and disciplinary actions, the teacher presented himself as an authoritarian figure. He did not seek a personal relationship with the students; when approached by students, he minimized his interaction with them. The students seemed to be regarded as one unit rather than as thirty-seven separate individuals.

No instruction occurred in the class. No presentation of basketball skills, rules, or strategies was presented to the class. Skills were not practiced. The teacher twice served as an official for the games played in class. Otherwise, he sat or stood, watching the students playing. Many times the teacher would leave the gymnasium for periods of time. On one occasion the teacher did not come to class until 30 minutes after one class had begun. Many times he was absent from class, checking in for five minutes, and then again leaving. Several times the teacher raised his voice to the students. The cheerleading class in the other half of the gymnasium and the noise created by the basketball class made it impossible to speak in a quiet tone. There were times when the environment was relatively quiet that the teacher raised his voice. When disciplining a student, this elevation in voice was often evident.

The teacher did show some interest in several students. These students were on the basketball team. Several times the teacher called on them to explain and draw basketball plays on the blackboard.

The teacher did not appear interested in the students. Many students were ignored. He talked with others, but only if the students approached him. No regard for individual interests, goals, and purposes of each student was shown. No basketball instruction regarding tactics, techniques, regulations, or skill acquisition was given.

The students. The students appeared to have their own groups within the class structure. The groups seemed to determine who would play in a certain basketball game. If the leader of a group went to another game or sat out, it was observed that eventually his group would disband.

The students were protective of each other in the group. Several times loud arguments occurred between a member of one group and an individual on another team. Many arguments ended by one student violently throwing a

basketball at another. Leaders of groups were asked by students to settle arguments.

Students' attitudes toward the teacher appeared to be one of respect, and perhaps fear. The teacher was called "coach" by all students. Before class, the students were very talkative until the teacher entered the gymnasium. When given a command by the teacher, students obeyed. Several times they would revert to previous behavior when the teacher was not watching.

Students were not respectful of one another, except of the informally chosen class leaders. Other than members of their own groups, students did not interact with one another. Students showed no concern or care for those outside the group. Some students were not included in any group. A physically handicapped girl in the class was protected by all groups. She was given opportunities to handle the ball in competitive game situations. All the students cheered for her.

The Curriculum

The course offerings. Although the student could choose a course from a wide variety of activities, the course chosen was very specific. Basketball was the only activity offered in this particular class. The students were allowed no input concerning material to be presented. No information about basketball was given in the class. The

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students were given opportunities to play basketball each class hour. Each student's curriculum was the same as another's. The only choice students had was to play basketball or to watch others play.

Social aspects. The game of basketball can foster social interaction, good sportsmanship, and interpersonal relationships among students. These did occur within each group. Only limited interaction between groups was observed. The teacher did not promote personal interactions with or between students. Any interaction was left to the initiative of the students.

Evaluation

No formal evaluative procedures were observed. The students were given no grading criteria for the class. No skills tests or written tests were given. No formal evaluations of the teacher by self or students were observed. Formal evaluations of students by selves or teacher were not observed.

Case Study Three

The third situation studied was the girls' interscholastic basketball team. There were 11 members of the team-5 black females and 6 white females. The team was coached by a woman physical education teacher at Smith High School. The gymnasium was used for practice sessions. Practice times varied with the boys' basketball team practice schedule. One week practice for girls was held from 4:00 P.M. until 5:30 P.M. The next week the girls practiced from 5:30 P.M. until 7:00 P.M. Home games were played at 4:00 P.M.

The Learning Environment

Team regulations. The basketball team had several regulations. To participate in a game attendance at practice was required the day before a game. Attendance at school was required the day of the game. Players were expected to be at all practices; exceptions included illnesses or excuses approved by the coach. No formal training rules were issued. Players were told to keep smoking and alcoholic consumption at moderate levels. Drug use was not to be tolerated. Team regulations and conduct expectations were pre-determined by the coach. The players were not given decision-making responsibilities about team rules. Students were allowed to determine their own training regimen.

Leadership roles. The coach assumed much of the leadership role. She directed the players through practice and through competitive game play. Two players were chosen as captains by the other players. Their main responsibilities included making pre-game decisions with the officials and acting as liason between the players and the coach. There were groups within the team that informally chose

their own leaders. Such leaders set a behavior example that was followed by some team members. Such behavior included inattentiveness, boredom, disrespect for coach and other players and lack of enthusiasm.

<u>Practice content</u>. The practice session always began with a lecture by the coach. Future games, skills that needed practice, plays, strategies, and game reviews were discussed. The players had little opportunity to speak during the lecture. Many times the lecture session became a negative experience; little praise was accorded the players by the coach.

After the lecture, the coach divided the team into groups for practice drills. Ball handling skills and shooting skills were practiced. Short movement patterns and brief play patterns were discussed and executed by the players. During a basketball shooting drill, the coach gave the players a numerical goal to reach. This goal created a more competitive and enthusiastic situation.

Then the players were put into two teams and a fullcourt basketball game was played. The coach was the referee. She would stop the game many times to explain a certain play, to correct an error, or to discuss the skill being executed. The players never played in a true game during practice. Substitutes were entered, play was stopped continually, and teams were rearranged during the game. Players were required to shoot free throws and run laps around the basketball court perimeter at the end of practice. During this time, the students worked at their own pace. The coach moved around the gymnasium, talked with some players, and watched others shoot. Sometimes the coach directed the players through a conditioning routine.

Services. Colleges in Greensboro sponsored women's basketball teams. The players were not encouraged by the coach to watch the women's games. The players did not have opportunities to see professional basketball games in Greensboro. The Atlantic Coast Conference of the National Collegiate Athletic Association had tournament play in Greensboro, and the coach referred to these games. The players were encouraged to support and attend the high school's boys' basketball team games.

A female physical education student-teacher conducted practice one day because the coach had another departmental obligation. The student-teacher was not recognized as an expert by the coach. The coach gave the student-teacher the lesson plan for practice for that day. The student-teacher took the initiative and was able to recognize and correct certain playing errors of some team members.

Physical environment. Basketball practice was held in the gymnasium. If practice was held immediately after school, the doors remained closed and locked to keep students out. Otherwise, the gymnasium doors were kept open.

The entire gymnasium was used. Six baskets were used, and the regulation sized court was employed. At the end of the early practice sessions, the wrestling team used one side of the gymnasium, outside the basketball court, to run wind sprints. About 20 boys worked out. The wrestling coach directed the boys through the conditioning practice. The wrestling team also ran laps around the perimeter of the court. The girls' basketball team was either shooting free throws or conditioning when the wrestling team shared the gymnasium.

The Coach-Player Relationship

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The coach. The coach had an authoritarian manner. The entire practice was directed by her. The practices were devoid of excitement and enthusiasm and these characteristics were not demonstrated by the coach. She rarely praised any of the players; most things said to a player were of a critical nature. The coach had inconsistent disciplinary methods. When players turned away from her while she was talking, sometimes she ignored them; other times she called them back to the group. Many times players left the group during a discussion; sometimes the coach ended up talking to three players.

The coach rarely let the players play a full game during practice. She stopped play often to shout at a player for making an error. Other times play was stopped to explain

a play pattern. The coach talked quite a bit, but most players ignored her.

The coach appeared to have favorites on the team. She spent time talking with these players, analyzing their skill and correcting errors. She ignored the players she did not like. At times the unfavored players were accused of being the cause for a poor performance of a favored player.

The players. There was not much interaction between the players. Some players were never observed talking with one another. Some players showed disrespect for the coach. They did not listen to the lectures, ignored help from her, and turned away when she talked to them. Several times some players were asked repeatedly to join the group. All the players at one time or another did something distracting while the coach was talking. Some talked with one another, others walked away, and still others laid down on the floor.

The players did not show much respect for one another. Many times bickering occurred between two players. The players worked individually, apparently for their own concern, rather than as a team. This behavior was observed during practice sessions and during the competitive interscholastic games. The players lacked enthusiasm and excitement during practice and sometimes in the game situation.

The Curriculum

The practice content. The basketball team practice was pre-determined by the coach. The players were not asked to plan a practice or to determine an activity during the practice. Several times during a practice session the players began working on something not planned by the coach. The coach allowed the players to pursue a different activity at such times.

The practice followed approximately the same routine every day. There was little or no departure from the fixed schedule. The players did not attempt to alter this plan. Practice began with a lecture, then moved to practice drills. Then the players played a brief game, shot free throws, ran through conditioning, and left.

<u>Social aspects</u>. A team sport situation can foster interpersonal relationships, can promote sportsmanship, and can aid cultural maintainence and change. However, due to attitudes and personalities of the coach and players observed, meaningful interpersonal relationships were not formed and cultural maintainence and change was not fostered.

Sportsmanship was discussed. Several times there was demonstration of bad sportsmanship. Some play was rough and was considered unethical by the coach. She excused this behavior suggesting the basketball game the players had previously learned to play tended to be rough. Sportsmanship had to be monitored by the coach.

The Evaluation

There were various types of evaluative processes observed. No formal evaluations by the coach of self, or by the players of selves, or of others and the coach were observed.

The first evaluation process was the team selection. This was not observed but was explained to the observerrecorder by the coach. Fifty-two players initially tried out for the team. The first week players eliminated themselves, until 28 players remained. From this number, the coach kept 17 on the team. Selection of team members was based on ball handling skills, game play, and the ability to work with others. Of the remaining 17, six players left the team, failed to attend practice, or were removed from the team by the coach because of lack of participation and laziness. This selection process was an evaluation of the players by the coach; for those who voluntarily eliminated themselves, it was an evaluation of self.

Another evaluation procedure utilized was the selection of team members for interscholastic game play. The coach determined the starting line-up according to previous practice performances and participation. A player was not allowed to participate if she was ill or injured. A medical

clearance by a doctor was required to participate. The players could eliminate themselves from play if they were not feeling well.

The third evaluation method was the win-loss record. Such a record was kept by the coach, and the players were aware of the record. The <u>Greensboro Record</u> also reported the team record. The school newspaper contained some articles about the team at the beginning of the season. Such record keeping and sports reporting reflected an evaluation of the total team in terms of win-loss scores.

CHAPTER V

SUGGESTIONS FOR HUMANISM

Having viewed the reality of the three situations, it is challenging to suggest ways in which the teachinglearning studies may become more humanistic. It is realized by the author that a program cannot become humanistic unless the teacher/coach maintains a humanistic model. It is recognized also that a program cannot become truly humanistic within the existing educational system, as exemplified by the physical education-athletic situation at the senior high school. However, the situations studied can become more humanistic within the existing system.

Several limitations must be realized before change toward humanism may be suggested:

1. Students must attend school.

 Students must be evaluated by conferring of grades and degrees.

3. Students at the high school must take physical education for one year, or two semesters.

The students at the high school were given some choice about the physical education activity they wished to elect. However, it is recognized that a student's choice was limited by the departmental offerings, which were based

on previous student questionnaire preferences. In a truly humanistic program a student would take a physical education course because he elected to do so, not because it was required. The student would then develop his own course within physical education. Such a course would likely include an interdisciplinary approach to physical education.

At the high school physical education was required for one year, or two semesters. It is interesting to note that over half of the student population took a physical education course. The elective system was more humanistic than a required physical education program that offered activities predetermined by the instructor. Courses offered included campcraft, boating, an interdisciplinary dance course, in addition to a varied selection of team and individual sport classes. However, the system could be even more humanistic within the existing program. Additional lifetime activity courses that could be implemented include hiking in the city; bicycling, care and safety; recreational games, such as frisbee, croquet, table tennis; motorcycling, care and safety; riflery, among many others. Independent study should be an important course offering. Such a course would allow a student additional opportunity to develop his own course and perhaps would allow an in-depth study of an aspect of physical education that may or may not include physical activity.

In implementing a more humanistic physical education program, responsibility must be given to the students gradually so that they learn to deal with it as mature individuals. Some may handle responsibility immediately; others must be given added responsibility more slowly. It must be realized that no matter how an educational system is structured some individuals will not be interested in physical education and will not want to learn.

Case Study One

It was assumed by the author that most students selected badminton-tennis because they wanted to learn those sports. It was recognized that scheduling problems and interest in one of the two activities offered may have been the reason for course selection.

The badminton-tennis class was initially the responsibility of a teacher who showed concern and care for the students. She treated them as unique individuals, capable of making their own decisions. However, the concern, care, and responsibility given was limited, indicating that she did not fully trust the students with their own education. The student-teacher taught the class, after conferring with the supervising-teacher.

A more humanistic badminton course could be implemented at the high school. Perhaps it could be implemented with the teacher studied because of her receptivity to

students, new ideas, and concern for the educational growth of the students.

At the beginning of the course students must determine individual specific goals which they wished to achieve. Such goals would include cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains of learning. Cognitive goals include specific skills or knowledges the student wishes to learn about badminton. Affective goals include attitudes, feelings, and values a student can identify. Affective goals, more difficult to pre-determine, may be stated by the student in terms of broad questions. The goals stated by each student are individual goals which he wishes to attain. (See Appendix F for a sample goal sheet. Note: All samples and suggestions given in the case studies are not absolutes; they are only a springboard of ideas from which the individual may continue).

Some students require more guidance than others in stating class goals. The teacher must act as an individual who, as a resource person, is able to ask questions of the student about his goals and is able to guide the student in stating those goals. If the teacher feels some goals stated by students are misleading, it is the teacher's responsibility to question the student about why such a goal was stated. If the teacher suggests other goals, she must give reasons why she would pursue that goal. It is the student's decision to determine what goals to include. It is helpful if two copies of the goal sheet are completed--one for the teacher and one for the student. The teacher must know the goals of each individual student so that she may better help the student achieve those goals. In this case study the student-teacher also is an instrumental resource person. She can help individuals state their goals and can become more familiar with each student.

Individualized instruction must occur to remain consistent with a humanistic philosophy. The teacher was given one half the gymnasium in which to conduct the class. The hallway outside the gymnasium could be utilized for learning stations. The doors must remain open and unlocked to facilitate free movement. Such physical features are instrumental to an individualized program.

The gymnasium must include the badminton courts on which the students may play. Corners of the gymnasium and perimeters of the courts may include stations where students may practice or test individual skills. Such tests would not be used in formal evaluative procedures but would only be used by the student for his own assessment of skills. Such tests may indicate to the student what has been mastered and what may need additional work. The tests should be ranked so that a student may proceed from the less difficult maneuvers to the most difficult. It is important that the student achieve success in learning badminton skills.

The hallway could be divided into different learning stations. One station may include written materials about badminton. Rules, guides, selected articles, information about tournaments, cognitive knowledge tests, affective tests about the self as an individual, history, sportsmanship, famous badminton players are a few suggestions of kinds of information that could be included. If a student wants to learn something about badminton that is not readily available, he should feel free to research in the library, ask the teacher and/or student-teacher, or do additional out-of-school work. Such interests may lead to projects students wished to pursue.

Another learning station could include loop films and multi-media equipment which the students operate. Observation of skills by other individuals could be an important learning tool. Video-taping of students' own performances could be included, with one video being run by the students in the class.

A learning station in which students talk about the specific aspects of badminton; relation of physical education to other activities and to their own lives, sportsmanship and morals; and attitudes and values should be included. The affective domain of physical education would be important here. Leading discussion questions could be supplied, or students may introduce their own discussion problems.

After a student becomes somewhat familiar with badminton, specific skill goals should be stated. Such a process would be an ongoing goal setting, goal achieving en endeavor (see Appendix F). Additional goals should be added after each class period. Suggestions offered in the Appendix are only possible goals a student might select.

A student might also choose to keep a diary about the class. The diary should include the goals set and achieved during that day, but more important, may include the attitudes and feelings experienced during the day. Sample questions about the self an individual may choose to answer are included (see Appendix F).

The teacher and student-teacher would have important roles to fulfill within this class setting. They must be familiar with the students, their goals, and their personalities. They must act as resource persons--as individuals who answer questions, direct students, and motivate students toward their goals. They must continually challenge the students to achieve goals and to learn about themselves within the physical education structure. They must accept each individual as a functioning human and must believe in that student. They should get to know students as total individuals outside the physical education setting--their likes, dislikes, friends, habits, attributes, and faults. The teachers must continually encourage each student and must offer some successes within the class. They must help

the student to recognize his own abilities and failures and help that student deal with such experiences as a mature individual.

Students have responsibility for their own developments and educations. Students must respect the teacher as a unique individual, and must accept the individual differences of other students.

The student-teacher should work alongside the teacher. The teacher should guide the student-teacher in how to function in a more individualized structure. The student-teacher also may elect to keep a diary about her experiences during the day.

The curriculum of each student within the badminton class would be different. One student may emphasize skill development, while another may be more interested in the history and development of badminton. Opportunities within the case study can be offered so that each student could pursue his own interests and goals concerning badminton.

Evaluation should include self evaluation by students, self-evaluations by teachers, and cooperative evaluations by both staff and students. Questions about the revelance of the educational experience must be answered by the individual. Questions about goal attainment also must be answered. Relationships between students and staff should be examined.

Teachers should evaluate themselves as an effective resource individual in the experience. Questions about program improvement must be asked. Effectiveness of the experiences to students and observations of students must be stated.

Together, the teacher and student must evaluate the total affective and cognitive experience. A letter grade must be awarded the student at the high school. The student with the teacher should evaluate his experience, and together the student and teacher should agree upon a letter grade.

Case Study Two

The students in the second case study either elected to take or because of scheduling problems were placed in a basketball course. The structure of the course was determined completely by a teacher who showed no concern for the individual student's development. No instruction was given, little or no interaction took place between teacher and students, and commands given by the teacher were expected to be obeyed immediately.

In order to attempt to make suggestions for a more humanistic class, it must be acknowledged that the case study situation was not humanistic in any aspect. Therefore, suggestions for changed stated in the first case study would not be applicable for the basketball class. Specific

changes must be made that may appear more regimented and dictatorial than those which a true humanistic program might allow, but the individuals within this case study must deal with small and gradual responsibility and change, eventually leading to a more humanistic program.

Numbers of individuals in the class compared with the amount of space available to the class made it very difficult to conduct instruction in basketball. If basketball was a popular sport elected by many students, several more sections should be offered for the students. Each section should be classified a level of competency: beginning, intermediate, advanced. In such a system, students could encounter more successful experiences working with individuals with their own approximate skill. Basketball team members could elect to take the advanced basketball class or could be counseled to elect another physical education activity.

The second case study involved 37 students of varying levels of ability, three baskets, and three basketballs. In order to suggest change the teacher must be willing to be concerned about the students. He must be willing to instruct and work with the students and must be willing to challenge all the students.

The class should be divided by ability levels. As many basketballs as possible should be utilized. Volleyballs and playground balls could be used also. If possible, each student should be given some type of ball with which to work. One learning station should include opportunities for the advanced players to work. Because this probably would include students on the basketball teams, tasks for developing and executing new strategies and patterns of play could be assigned. The students would be required to develop such patterns on paper and on the court, to state reasons why the pattern is successful, and to identify pattern weaknesses (see Appendix G). Individuals in this group could be used as teaching assistants. Each student could be given a few students with whom to work and could be responsible for analyzing their skill movements, both for the individual students and on paper (see Appendix G). The student, as teacher, would ask himself questions about the teaching experience.

Students working on the intermediate level may be given specific tasks with which to work during the class hour. Small achievement skills tests of varying intermediate skill levels involving basketball shooting accuracy, passing, and dribbling may be set up on the perimeter of the playing court. Students may be given choices about skills with which they are to work. Students must be given specific goals toward which to work. The student must be given some choice within the system. The process of selfevaluation and self-assessment would have begun. Predetermined checklist sheets may be given to the students. The students would be given a choice about the goals, but would be directed in that choice (see Appendix G).

The beginners in the class could benefit from learning basketball by a movement approach to physical education. Specific goals to be achieved could be pre-stated by the teacher, but the student could be given the choice about how to execute the task. A student may be asked to find different ways to handle a ball; then he may be limited gradually in those ways (see Appendix G). Because the main objective of the student is to learn basketball, rules about the game and about skill execution must be introduced to the student, therefore placing limitations on kinds of movement patterns (such as dribbling, travelling with the ball, etc.)

A table should be set up in a corner of the gymnasium where students can find basketball materials. Basketball rules, strategies, techniques, famous players, and history are some information ideas that may be included.

It would be necessary for the teacher to be very organized with a class of the above proposed structure. Specific working areas must be assigned to each level. If advanced level students were used as teachers, they must be carefully assigned to those students needing and willing to accept help. The function of the teacher would be to teach and to act as a resource person. He may teach a small group of students a specific skill. While those students practiced the skill, the teacher could circulate to other small groups or around the room answering questions, helping those who requested it, challenging some students, inquiring about an individual's progress, and talking with students who may have problems not related to physical education.

Individuals within the class need to work with other students. Small groups working on the same skill could be formed. Partners may also be chosen. Students should be encouraged to work with and get to know as many other students as possible.

Also, game playing experiences must be given. Teams of six each should be formed, according to abilities. These teams should vary from day to day. Two teams should play at each of the three baskets. Near the end of the semester, students should be given opportunities to play on the full basketball court. Teams composed of individuals with varying abilities may play, and at times teams of players with similar abilities should be organized. This grouping would allow students to have experiences with other individuals of similiar and varying levels of skills. Students should be given time to elect team captains, to plan team strategies, and to assign positions.

Evaluation must be structured within this situation. Written tests may be given, according to skill abilities. Evaluations of skill abilities and skills tests must be considered. Together the student and teacher should agree upon a grade for the student.

The suggestions described do not reflect a humanistic program. However, the author felt the program presented a more humanistic approach than was reported in the case study and felt the suggestions presented could realistically be presented if the teacher was willing to work with the students.

Case Study Three

Athletics in the secondary school must support its contributions to the education of each individual if it is to remain a viable extracurricular activity in the educational system. However, in the area of athletic competion often the emphasis was on the team's win--loss record. The main objective of many players and coaches was to win.

A humanistic athletic program must shift its emphasis entirely to the development of each individual team member. A win or a loss should be recognized only as a learning experience; how the experience affected the player and the team, how individuals reacted to winning/losing, what was learned by the experience should be most important. In American society much emphasis is placed on competition and winning; therefore, many societal values must be re-examined in a humanistic program. A humanistic athletic program should be a truly educational experience in which individual players are given free choice, responsibility, decisionmaking tasks, and opportunities to develop at their own rate. At the high school a de-emphasis on winning and an emphasis on individual growth must be made by the coach. Such a philosophy must be reflected to the school, the athletic department, and the players on the team. The coach must show concern for each player on the team. An open environment must be created so players may express opinions. The coach must be interested in each player's development, skills, interactions with others, feelings, attitudes, and values. The coach must care enough to allow each player responsibilities for decisions made concerning the team. Because teamwork is a vital aspect of team sport play, the coach should demonstrate characteristics she hopes players will utilize with one another.

The players on the team must be willing to take responsibility, become more self-directed and show more concern and care of all other players on the team. The players must be concerned with their own feelings, attitudes about playing with others, and winning and losing games. The players must be open with each other, themselves, and the coach.

In this athletic situation the players should be able to accept some responsibility. Some individuals would require more structure than others. The team observed was not ready, as a unit, to accept immediately a humanistic program. Intermediate steps must be taken to gradually allo allow players more decision-making responsibilities.

The initial try-out period should allow all interested students to participate. Individual tests of skills in basketball should be set up in the gymnasium. The players would be responsible for testing and recording scores with a partner. Conditioning would be an aspect of the program. The coach may structure some aspects of this program, but opportunities may be allowed for individual skill differences. The required task may be to run lengths of the basketball court. Each individual must determine how many laps she will run. Another command may be to individually establish the number of sit-ups a player is to do. Each time sit-ups are done players should be challenged by the coach to increase the number achieved previously.

If individuals drop themselves from the team, the coach should make an attempt to talk with each player. Reasons why the player quit, evaluations of the player by the coach, and evaluations of self by the player must be discussed. Attitudes, values, and feelings must be examined also, and the player should be shown how she can accept herself and how such action may contribute to her own selfactualization. If it is not feasible for the coach to talk with those players who quit the team, an evaluation sheet may be given to those players (see Appendix H). A similar sheet should be given to each player who remains on the team. This technique would allow for early self and team evaluations. The coach must talk with each player on the

team, giving suggestions about where skill work was needed and the player's function as a team member and seeking ideas for the player about how she wished to develop.

A contract may be drawn between the coach and individual players on the team. The coach should define his responsibilities as a coach, and the players should define their individual roles as players (see Appendix H). Channels for communication must remain open if an individual does not feel the other is supporting the contract. Specific goals, such as skill attainment levels and training rules, may be stated by each player.

During discussions about previous and future games, players must be given opportunities to express opinions, suggestions, and feelings. The team as a whole should identify team problem areas, strengths, strategies, and plays. The team should express feelings about playing the game. The coach and each player should confer privately to set individual goals for the day's practice, the week, the next game, and the season. They should evaluate together the player's daily and weekly progress.

During skill practice stations should be set up so that players may practice a skill or skills on which they feel they personally need work. Short term goals should be set at each station by each player. For example, 10 baskets in 12 shots at the free throw line, five good long passes to a partner, dribble 30 seconds around the court without

looking at the ball. The stations should vary each day so that the player always is challenged. The coach should work with each player during the skill practice.

Strategy-developing stations could be utilized. A group may work together to develop a play that could be taught to all members of the team. Strengths, weaknesses, and values of the plays must be identified.

During practice games players should be given opportunities to play with all individuals on the team. Different combinations suggested by the coach and the players should be attempted. Play should not be stopped continually by the coach. At rest breaks the coach and players should talk about problems, situations, successes, plays, and strategies. If a particular player is having problems, the coach should talk individually with her. Together they may identify the cause of the problem and may develop a practice schedule for the next day.

Team selection for an upcoming game should be the joint responsibility of the coach and the players. Each player should be given an opportunity to talk privately with the coach, stating why she should or should not start the game. The coach should also express such opinions. However, all players should be given the opportunity to participate in each athletic competitive event. Together the coach and player should evaluate the player's progress prior to the game and should discuss the strengths of the player.

Combinations of the individuals with whom the player chose to play should be discussed.

The team members should be encouraged to watch other basketball games. The boys' basketball team, college women's teams, and professional basketball teams on television were all available for viewing during the season. Each player should evaluate the teams playing, the skills executed, and the strategies used. The player should use the experience as a personal learning experience and should relate it to her own playing abilities.

Newspaper reporting, player features, and win-loss records were part of the evaluation process. The coach should attempt to realistically evaluate this team's progress. Team attributes and successes must be emphasized. If continued evaluation occurred during each day's practice, players should be able to accept realistically any news reporting done by the school or the city newspapers.

If, at any time, the coach made a decision alone without any player input, it would be vital that she gave reasons how and why the decision was made. Explanations offered to the players would help all involved understand and possibly accept actions taken by the coach.

In the third case study, the author strongly felt that interactions between players and the coach needed improvement. It was believed that positive actions demonstarted by the coach toward players would reflect and improve the interactions between players. Some suggestions were given, but change by the coach must be made individually.

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CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine how three physical education case study situations could become more humanistic. A badminton class, a basketball class, and the girls' interscholastic basketball team were analyzed.

The review of literature included varying philosophies of humanism. The history of humanism and influences upon humanism were reviewed. Tenets of humanism and humanistic education common to many authors were stated.

The observation tool used was the Macdonald, Wolfson, and Zaret Conceptual Model (1971). Aspects of the program examined were the learning environment, the teacher-student relationship, the curriculum, and evaluation. The learning environment category was further divided into class regulations, leadership roles, class structure, services, and physical environment. The teacher-student relationship category examined the teacher and the student. The curriculum category included course offerings and teacher-student input. The evaluation category considered evaluations by the teacher of self, students, and programs and considered evaluations by the students of self, other students, teacher, and the program. Grading methods were reported also.

The observation and recording was completed by the author. The situations were observed a total of 10 hours each at a senior high school in Greensboro, North Carolina. The observer-recorder sat apart from the situation, but in an area where lectures and interactions were observed and could be heard.

The case studies were analyzed in regard to the tenets of humanism formulated in the review of literature. Suggestions for change to become more humanistic were offered.

Conclusions

According to tenets of humanism and humanistic education, a program in the public schools could not become completely humanistic within the existing educational system. A program also could not be humanistic unless the teacher exhibits qualities of humanism nor could an individual be told to become more humanistic; it must be the individual's philosophical choice.

Suggestions for change to a more humanistic program can be made. However, such change will not be effective unless the basic philosophy of those individuals involved is humanistic. Students can be given opportunities to make decisions, bear responsibilities, state opinions, develop creativity, and thus become more mature and selfactualized within the educational system. However, such opportunities will be limited because of requirements placed on each student by the school system.

A teacher must show qualities of humaneness toward students. These qualities include: respect and trust, care, concern, love, compassion, openness, and receptivity. When a teacher demonstrates such qualities, a program may then become more humanistic.

Implications

Students can become total, functioning human beings if they are given opportunities to develop these characteristics. Physical education can become an atmosphere in which students develop. If humanism in physical education flourishes, individuals can learn aspects of physical education in which they are interested. More individuals may become involved with physical education and may include physical development in their daily lives. Education can be relevant to each individual. Each individual can become a total, functioning, self-actualized human being in society.

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APPENDIX A

REJECTED OBSERVATION TOOLS

(PHYSICAL EDUCATION CASE STUDY) (INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETIC CASE STUDY)



Tyachier

PHYSICAL EDUCATION CASE STUDY

THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

| | Decision-making process A. Class rules participation uniform, attendance curriculum, grading, showering | Student | Teachers |
|------|---|---------|----------|
| 2. 1 | B. Leadership roles teacher, team captains, equipment, num- ber of leaders, types of leaders | | |
| | C. Class-freedom to pursue other activities, participation, socializing | | |
| 2. | Interactions A. Student | | |

| B. Teacher | Students | Teachers |
|---|----------|----------|
| | | |
| | | 1 |
| Mariary, acain- | | |
| Prejudices teacher-student, skilled, popular, intelligent | | |
| Class structure size, individual- ized, personal- ized, self-paced, teaching stations, supervised play | | |
| - Services library, teacher, | | |
| intramurals, sports, extramural sports, resource teachers, multi-media | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

Student

monocledgeable, professional, declaton-saker; communicates a gosition, offere Coeffeck, resume

Teachers

6. Physical environment bulletin boards, private offices, cleanliness, lighting, equipment, color

Louis a condeala L

with other students (alder, younger),

A. An attalent

, porticipates, aware, willing to learn

THE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIP

- 1. The Teacher
 - A. Relationships with students Talks with students, knows students, concerned, excited, aware, cares, listens, involved, polite, personable, giving of self, respects others and self
 - B. As teacher Knowledgeable, professional, decision-maker, communicates a position, offers feedback, resource person
 - C. Openness Realizes individual differences, flexible, has reasonable demands

2. The Student

- Relationships With other students (older, younger), teachers, interactions
- B. As student Interested, participates, aware, willing to learn

C. As person Polite, personable, gives of self, gets along with others, aware of feelings

THE CURRICULUM

- 1. Social aspects
 - A. Interactions Growth between persons, growth of self, role playing, feedback
 - B. Culture Allowance for change, acceptance, foster of
 - C. Ethics Morals, sportsmanship, honesty with self and others
- 2. Course content
 - A. Student imput
 - B. Teacher input
 - C. Relevance For current use and interests, for future use, required/elective
 - D. Variety Interest of students, freedom to pursue other activities, other resources

THE EVALUATION

| 10 | | Teacher | TeacherStudent | Self | |
|----|---------|---------|----------------|------|--|
| 1 | Teacher | | | | |

2. Student

3. Grading methods

4. Program evaluation

INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETIC CASE STUDY

THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

| 1. | Decision-making process A. Team rules, participation, uniform, attend- ance, team selec- selection, training, practice, cur- riculum | Players | Coach |
|----|---|---------|-------|
| | B. Leadership roles roles coach, team cap- tain, equip- ment, number of leaders, types of leaders | 1 | |
| | C. Practice-free- dom to pursue other activi- ties, partici- pate, socializ- ing | | |
| 2. | Interactions A. Player | | |

B. Coach

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 Prejudices coach-player, skilled, popular, intelligent Players

4. Practice structure size of team, individualized, personalized, self-paced, coaching stations, supervised play

5. Services library, coach, intramurals, resource coaches, multi-media, athletic trainer

6. Physical environment bulletin boards, private offices, cleanliness, lighting, equipment, playing court 118

Coach

THE COACH-PLAYER RELATIONSHIP

1. The Coach

- A. Relationship with players Talks with player, knows players, concerned, excited, aware, cares, listens, involved, polite, personable, giving of self, respects others and self.
- B. As coach Knowledgeable, professional, decision-maker, communicates a position, offers feedback, resource person
- C. Openness Realizes individual differences, flexible, has reasonable demands
- 2. The Player
 - A. Relationships with other players (older & younger), coach, interactions
 - B. As player interested, participates, aware, willing to learn
 - C. As person polite, personable, gives of self, gets along with others, aware of feelings

THE CURRICULUM

- 1. Social Aspects
 - A. Interactions growth between persons, growth of self, role playing, feedback
 - B. Culture allowances for change, acceptance, foster of
 - C. Ethics/Sportsmanship Morals, honesty with self and others
- 2. Practice content
 - A. Player input
 - B. Coach input
 - C. Relevance for current use and interests, for future use, required/elective
 - D. Variety interests of players, freedom to pursue other activities, other resources

THE EVALUATION

| | | Coach | Player | Self |
|---|-------|-------|--------|------|
| 1 | Coach | | | |

2. Player

3. Team selection methods

4. Program evaluation

APPENDIX B

OBSERVATION TOOLS UTILIZED FOR CASE STUDY

(PHYSICAL EDUCATION CASE STUDY) (INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETIC CASE STUDY)

PHYSICAL EDUCATION CASE STUDY

THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

1. Class regulations (decision-making):

2. Leadership roles:

3. Class structure:

4. Services

5. Physical environment

THE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIP

1. The Teacher (as a person; interactions with others)

2. The Student (as a person; interactions with others)

 The Course Offerings Social aspects, variety, relevance, uniqueness

2. Teacher-Student Input

anthome report, teached, exphasis of class artivities.

THE EVALUATION

1. Teacher

A. Of self A. Of setf

B. Of students

2. Student A. Of self

B. Of students

C. Of teachers

- 3. Program diverse, liberating, resources, promotes self direction, flexible, student and teacher input, course evaluation
- 4. Grading methods student input, teacher input, objectivity/subjectivity, methods or scales used, emphasis of class activities, (skill, participation, dress) testing

TERS T RATES THAT AND THE AL

Practice, team segulations (declaidenessing)a

Swoderporth Sorrest

INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETIC CASE STUDY

Physical anvironment

THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

1. Practice/team regulations (decision-making):

2. Leadership roles:

3. Practice structure:

4. Services

5. Physical environment

THE COACH-PLAYER RELATIONSHIP

1. The Coach (as a person; interactions with others)

2. The Player (as a person; interactions with others)

THE CURRICULUM

1. The Practice Offerings Social aspects, variety, relevance, uniqueness

2. Coach-Player Input

Precision diverse, liberating, resources, promotes self direction, Elevible, player and coach input, evaluation of

Player input, coach input, objectivity/adblartivity, mathods of scalar used, skill emphasis, stritude, participation

THE EVALUATION

1. Coach A. Of self

B. Of players

2. Player A. Of self

B. Of players

C. Of coach

- 3. Practice diverse, liberating, resources, promotes self direction, flexible, player and coach input, evaluation of experience.
- Team selection methods Player input, coach input, objectivity/subjectivity, methods or scales used, skill emphasis, attitude, participation

MILLER WALL VOLLEY TEST

I line is extended across a wall 7% funt from the loor and parallal to it. Another line is extended on the loor 10 feet from the wall, and parallel to it.

APPENDIX C

MILLER WALL VOLLEY TEST BADMINTON

These trials of thirty seconds each are sourch. These trials of thirty seconds each are sourch. These trials the accumulative number of mits made on all

while one student is taking the cest, another scheme encode the number of successful hits, and adds the second to which the partners then witch positions.

MILLER WALL VOLLEY TEST

A line is extended across a wall $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet from the floor and parallel to it. Another line is extended on the floor 10 feet from the wall, and parallel to it.

Upon the starting signal, the student hits the shuttlecock in a legal manner from behind the 10 foot floor line. The shuttlecock should be hit with a clear shot each time it rebounds from the wall. Each time the shuttlecock hits on or above the $7\frac{1}{2}$ foot line on the wall, a point is scored. A point is not given if the student steps over the 10 foot line, or if the shuttlecock hits below the $7\frac{1}{2}$ foot line; the student is allowed to keep the shuttlecock in play. The shuttlecock may be stopped at any time.

Three trials of thirty seconds each are scored. The total score is the accumulative number of hits made on all three trials.

While one student is taking the test, another student records the number of successful hits, and adds the results together. The partners then switch positions.

APPENDIX D

WRITTEN TEST BADMINTON

The server rotates after every other serve.
 Side by side and rotation hake up the continuion.
 Rotation is reak against sideline shots.
 Side by side is effective in protecting the side lines.
 The server is on the right when the same is gard of

A.-14. Rotation______

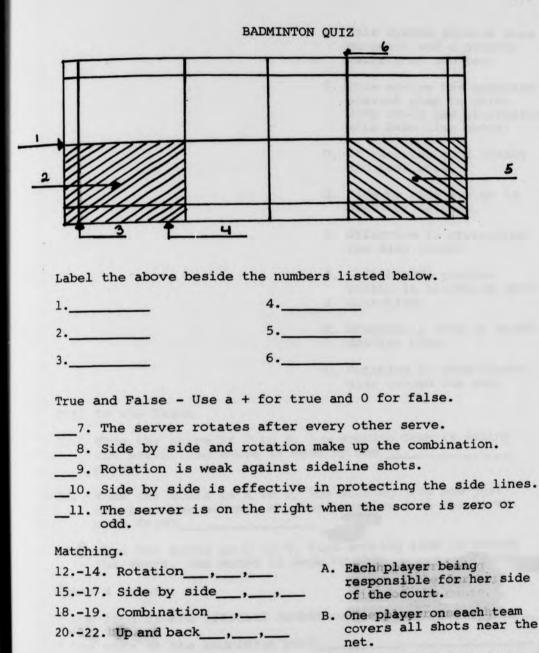
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1.

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- Electrolityer being responsible firs her side of the whore.
- Oppopliquerication and lines covers all shots near the net
- c. Refective english drop shots and het shots.
- D. Up and back method used for offense.



- C. Effective against drop shots and net shots.
- D. Up and back method used for offense.

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- F. This system has weakness against play in which drop shots are alternated with base line shots.
- G. It requires good timing and foot work.
- H. Side by side system is used for defense.
- I. Effective in protecting the side lines.
- J. Left-handed players rotate in clockwise dire d direction.
- K. Frequently used in mixed doubles play.
- L. Rotation is done clockwise around the net.

Fill in the Blank.

- 23. When the score is 7 to 3, low scoring team is making the serve, the serve is made by the ______ player.
- 24. When the score is 8 to 5, low scoring team has just received the serve. At what position does the serve come from?
- 25. When the score is 6 to 4, high scoring team is making the serve, the serve is made by the ______ player.

Bonus 8 points.

* How long is the official badminton court?

* How wide is the badminton net?____

one at anytime by the instructor who issued it. 4. Each instructor will collect all towal issued at the and of the stepster.

- Bach student will be leaued a cover.
 A used bowel can be exchanged for a cla one at anytime by the instructor who
- 1. Rental for \$1.30 per second a brief
- Chicken at at an at secondar.
- Learn your combination of well of your
- and of each semester.
- Locks to be feft on assigned locker at
- . Locks may be pented or brought from tome
- Lost (orks (1.50)
- 1. Sental fee (1.00 per year)

to sup that your look is here

four times within a nine-work period will be sent to Mr. Higgmms or Mr. Molver. A spudnet who fails to dress for diss five times within a nine-work period will be suggended from school until a parent conference can be stranged. Effective nov. 25, 1974.

APPENDIX E

PHYSICAL EDUCATION INFORMATION SHEET

sale of the second the

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

I. PURPOSE: Our program is designed to help each boy regardless of his ability, physical condition, strength, or interests. We hope we have a program with phases that will reach each and every one of you.

II. NON-PARTICIPATION:

- A student who fails to dress for class <u>four</u> times within a nine-week period will be sent to Mr. Higgens or Mr. McIver.
- A student who fails to dress for class <u>five</u> times within a nine-week period will be suspended from school until a parent conference can be arranged. Effective Nov. 25, 1974.

III. DRESSING ROOM PROCEDURES:

- 1. Locker-room will be locked ten minutes after the tardy bell.
- You are encouraged not to bring anything you value to the gym area. Double check to see that your lock is locked before and after class.
- 3. Foul language will not be tolerated.
- 4. Radios will be allowed if played on a low key.
- 5. Do your part in keeping the dressing room clean.
- IV. LOCK RENTALS:
 - 1. Rental fee (1.00 per year)
 - 2. Lost locks (1.50)
 - 3. Locks may be rented or brought from home (combination only)
 - Locks to be left on assigned locker at end of each semester.
 - Learn your combination as well as your serial number for identification purposes.
- V. TOWEL PROCEDURE:
 - 1. Rental fee \$1.50 per semester.
 - 2. Each student will be issued a towel.
 - 3. A used towel can be exchanged for a clean
 - one at anytime by the instructor who issued it.
 - Each instructor will collect all towels issued at the end of the semester.

VI. FEES:

- 1. Uniform--\$2.20 (1.10 each)
- 2. Towel--\$1.50 per semester (lost towel \$.67)
- 3. Locks--\$1.00 per year (lost lock \$1.50)
- 4. Sweats--Free rental \$4.50 if lost)

VII. CLEANLINESS:

- 1. Each student is encouraged to take a shower on completion of the activity period.
- 2. Towels and soap are available for your use.

TENERAL COAL SEET

(SANPLE)

student's Name

Lann Bourt

Counitive posta

Things I want to learn about badeinton:

" Marda of Definition

APPENDIX F

SAMPLE CLASS EXERCISES CASE STUDY ONE

LITECT. DE GOGLAT

hings I work to learn about myself: 1. Now do 1 Interact with others 2. Do I profer to play a singles or coubles game 3. Do I anky physical activity 4. An I honset with myself . . . while playing .

Yould I continue playing backintos ofter this

what have I loarned about mysalr?

GENERAL GOAL SHEET

(SAMPLE)

Student's Name_____

Class Hour

Cognitive Goals:

Things I want to learn about badminton:

- 1. Rules of badminton
- 2. Proper terminology of badminton
- 3. How to make effective scoring shots
- 4. How to score a game
- 5. How to play singles
- 6. How to play doubles

Affective Goals:

Things I want to learn about myself:

- 1. How do I interact with others
- 2. Do I prefer to play a singles or doubles game
- 3. Do I enjoy physical activity
- 4. Am I honest with myself . . . while playing . . . about my badminton skill
- about my badminton skill 5. Would I continue playing badminton after this
- 5. Course | continue playing badminton after this
- 6. What have I learned about myself?

SPECIFIC GOAL SHEET

(SAMPLE)

Student's Name

Class Hour_____

Specific Goals:

- 1. Hit the shuttlecock with a partner 10 times without missing_____ 20_____ 30_____ 40_____
- Achieve a satisfactory score on all the beginning level skills tests _____ intermediate _____

advanced

- 3. Beat three people in the class at singles game of badminton 4 5 6
- 4. Play a doubles game with one partner_____ 2 different partners_____3____4____5____
- 5. Be able to hit an effective clear shot 10 times during a game_____15____20____
- 6. Be able to hit an effective drop shot 10 times in a game 15 20
- Be able to hit a scoring smash shot 5 times during a game 7 8 9
 - 8. Be able to write down specific strategies I could use in a singles game_____ in a doubles game_____
- Be able to utilize those strategies stated a above _____ in a singles game _____ in a doubles game _____
- Be able to state or write rules for playing badminton _____ singles game _____ doubles game _____

DIARY SHEET

(SAMPLE)

Questions I may ask myself:

- 1. What did I learn about myself today in physical education?
- 2. Did I enjoy playing badminton with my partner?
- 3. Did I enjoy playing with my opponent(s)?
- 4. How did I feel when I lost? Why do I like/not like/ not care to lose?
- 5. How did I feel when I won? Why do I like/not like/ not care to win?
- 6. When do I feel like I did when I lost, during the day, and not in physical education?
- 7. Do I ever feel like I did when I won during the day?
- 8. How can I better cope with the lost feeling?
- 9. How can I better cope with the winning feeling?
- 10. Do I tend to gloat about my wins?
- 11. Does losing depress me?
- 12. Did I make any shots that felt good to me?
- 13. What do I feel like when I play badminton?
- 14. Did any one say something good to me today?
- 15. Did any one way something uncomplimentary or critical to me?
- 16. How did I feel toward my opponents when I won/lost?
- 17. Did my opponents and/or partner talk about feelings of winning and losing?
- 18. What can I improve on tomorrow?

STRATETY DEVELOPMENT SHEET

(SPACER)

Codent 's Rouse

Draw the strategy developed below.

APPENDIX G

SAMPLE CLASS EXERCISES

CASE STUDY TWO

During a game, in what astuations should this strategy 1 utilized?

Are special types of players occessary for this atlategy

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STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT SHEET

(SAMPLE)

Student's Name

Class Hour

1. Draw the strategy developed below.

2. What are the important aspects of the strategy?

3. What are the weaknesses of the strategy?

4. Could this strategy be used effectively in a game situation?

5. During a game, in what situations should this strategy be utilized?

6. Are special types of players necessary for this strategy?

7. Against what kinds of teams would the strategy be effective?

8. Do you personally like playing this strategy? Why/why not?

SKILL ANALYZATION SHEET

(SAMPLE)

Student's Name____

Class Hour

criticisms?

1. Student taught _____ 2. Skill taught to the student 3. Was the student able to learn the skill? 4. How well can the student execute the skill taught? 5. Were there difficulties in teaching the skill? What? 6. What kinds of difficulties did the learner encounter? 7. Was I able to recognize errors in skill execution? 8. How will this teaching experience help my own skill ability, if at all? 9. Am I able to recognize errors in my own skill? 10. Did I enjoy teaching? Why/why not? 11. Why was I frustrated while teaching the skill? 12. Did I feel good when the learner could execute the skill? 13. Did I like working with this particular student? Why/ why not? 14. Would I teach the skill differently the next time? How would I teach it? 15. Was the learner responsive to my suggestions, praises,

PRE-DETERMINE GOAL SHEET

(SAMPLE)

Student's Name

Class Hour

- 1. Shoot five goals out of ten shots.
- 2. Shoot five goals out of ten shots, twice.
- 3. Shoot five goals out of ten shots using a different shot.
- Shoot five goals out of ten shots count only the clean baskets.
- 5. Shoot five consecutive goals.
- 6. Shoot five consecutive clean goals. (Mosston, 1966, p. 46)

1. Dribble the basketball ten times.

2. Dribble the basketball ten times without missing.

- 3. Dribble the basketball ten times without looking at the ball.
- 4. Dribble the basketball ten times using only one hand.
- 5. Dribble the basketball using only the left/right hand.
- 6. Dribble the basketball the width of the court, while running.
- 7. Dribble the basketball the width of the court, without looking at the ball.
- Dribble the basketball the width of the court, while running, with only the left/right hand.

MOVEMENT SKILLS

(SAMPLE)

- 1. Find different ways to handle the ball.
- 2. Find different ways to handle to ball only in the air.
- 3. Handle the ball in different ways so that at some point it touches the ground.
- 4. Find different ways to move the ball between yourself and a partner.
- 5. Find different ways to throw the ball into the air, through the basketball hoop.
- 6. Find different ways to move the basketball from one side of the court to another.
- 7. Find different ways to move the ball from one side of the court to another with a partner.
- 8. Find different ways of keeping your partner from shooting the ball through the hoop, without touching him/her at all.
- 9. Find different ways of dribbling the ball away from your partner.
- 10. Develop two simple strategies for offensive play, with your partner.

dance cours for waters

1200032723

the beaketball team?

- A.I alei/sad about py decision?
- 1. Did I heek my counsel boffere making my dominion?
- , Nor do 1 evaluate my playing skill in relation to the
- bid playing with the others chellenge or defeat met

APPENDIX H

SAMPLE TEAM EXERCISES

- CASE STUDY THREE
- . Did 1 eajoy playing with others? Why/why sol? 2 Did 1 sujoy working with the chaon?
- conch?
- A, Whis I able to talk to the coach shout my decision, or about other things?

EVALUATION SHEET

(SAMPLE)

- 1. Why did I drop the basketball team?
- 2. Am I glad/sad about my decision?
- 3. Did I seek any counsel before making my decision? Who? Why?
- 4. How do I evaluate my playing skill in relation to the other players?
- 5. Was I able to challenge myself?
- 6. Did playing with the others challenge or defeat me?
- 7. At what skills did I excel?
- 8. Will I continue to play basketball in the future?
- 9. Which skills needed more work?
- 10. Did I enjoy playing with others? Why/why not?
- 11. Did I enjoy working with the coach?
- 12. Was I able to ask for help from others and/or the coach?
- 13. Was I able to talk to the coach about my decision, or about other things?

COACH/PLAYER CONTRACT

(SAMPLE)

As a coach, I pledge to:

allow each player opportunities to participate as a team member

allow each player to make decisions about the team

treat each player as an individual, recognizing differences in personality, skill, goals, development

help each player attain her maximum potentials as a player and as an individual

listen to each player

As a player, I pledge to:

accept each person as a unique individual

challenge myself to my greatest potentials

help others with skills I have mastered

do my best to act as a functioning member of the team

listen to counsel and suggestions from other players and the coach

realize goals of the team