

Unfolding Attitudes and Values in Physical Education: stretching the limits of traditional pedagogy

George Salter

Physical education is being charged in most Western societies with the task of solving many of the social problems which young people increasingly experience today, such as violence, drug and substance abuse, teenage pregnancies, mental ill-health and youth suicide

(Hellison, 1991)

It is hardly surprising then that the 'Health and Physical Education in the New Zealand Curriculum' (HPE) document (Ministry of Education, 1999) recently released to schools combines the two previously separate curriculum areas 'health' and 'physical education', and features such 'key areas of learning' as 'mental health', sexuality education' and 'body care and physical safety'.

At the same time, a number of commentators over recent years have suggested that school physical education itself is experiencing a crisis of meaning and relevance as young people increasingly fail to find school physical education experiences enriching and stimulating (Tinning and Fitzclarence, 1992; Glover, 1993; Kirk, 1994; Stroot, 1994; Williams, 1997). Many of these students neither enjoy physical education for its own sake nor are their experiences likely to encourage them to pursue a lifetime of active leisure. Carlson (1995) suggests that as many as 20 per-cent of students do not enjoy physical education, with many describing their experiences as discouraging and emotionally distressful. Helion (1996) cites a number of possible reasons for this, including a failure to provide developmentally appropriate programmes, excessive competition, limited chances to participate successfully, feelings of continual failure, and ridicule and embarrassment at perceived poor levels of skill performance.

There are two important implications to be drawn from these observations: First students are becoming more difficult to teach, bringing to the physical education lesson an ever-increasing range of personal and social problems; and second they need rather more than the games, fitness and sports-skills which I have suggested elsewhere have traditionally formed the core of physical education programmes in New Zealand (Salter, 1999). Hellison (1991) believes that students need personal and social values and skills that might help them navigate through their increasingly complex lives in wider society, and the introductory statement in the HPE curriculum document reflects a similar message:

Through learning in health and physical education, students will develop the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and motivation to make informed decisions and to act in ways that contribute to their personal well-being, the well-being of other people, and that of society as a whole.

(Ministry of Education, 1999; p. 6)

The HPE curriculum document (Ministry of Education, 1999; p. 34) specifies the sorts of attitudes and values which health and physical education programmes are to promote in schools for their contribution to the well-being of both individuals and society itself. These values reflect positive and responsible personal attitudes, respect for the rights of others, care and concern for the wider community and the environment, and development of a sense of social



George Salter
School of Education
University of Waikato

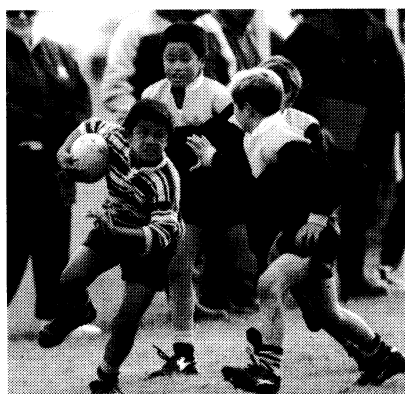
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justice that demonstrates fairness, inclusiveness and non-discriminatory practices. Achievement of such personal and social values has long been identified as an important learning outcome in the physical education curriculum materials of most Western societies, as expressed in the 1987 Physical Education Syllabus (Ministry of Education, 1987; p. 7). I believe, however, that both content development and the range of pedagogical processes commonly offered in many New Zealand school physical education programmes themselves fail to reflect these values, and thus limit the potential to provide successfully for students' personal and social development. Below I suggest why this might be so, and offer a brief overview of some important considerations for providing physical education which moves 'beyond the physical' (McHugh, 1995).

Pedagogies of performance: Going with the flow

Within New Zealand physical education the dominant pedagogy is clearly what Tinning (1991) describes as 'performance pedagogy', which is founded on how to teach physical education to improve efficiency. In this view the teaching act can supposedly be

reduced to a number of discrete skills that can be practised systematically to improve the 'technical performance' of teaching. While many physical education teachers - particularly student teachers - are understandably concerned with technical efficiency, control, management, instructional clarity and the achievement of measurable objectives, those concerns are not necessarily regarded as equally important or 'worthwhile' from other pedagogical perspectives. A concentration on transmitting sport and movement skills by way of performance pedagogy tends to ignore any critical analysis of the political and moral implications of what we teach, and how we teach it. 'Commonsense' views of knowledge and learning tend to underpin much of our work in physical education, and many school programmes are characterised by what might be described as an emphasis on 'going with what works' and by a search for 'cookbook knowledge' to guide practice (Zeichner, 1981). I believe many teachers tend to unreflectively foreground certain beliefs and practices at the expense of others, thus neglecting the potential of providing transformative rather than replicative physical education programmes. One example of this has been the neglect of Te reo kori (a Maori dimension of movement) in school programmes despite its prominence in the official texts (Salter, 1998a).



Another example of what I regard as (potentially) replicative physical education is an over-emphasis on sports skills. Sport and

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physically vigorous recreational activity have traditionally been valued in New Zealand as essential constructs of national identity, and this has tended to define and legitimate both content and pedagogy in school physical education (Salter, 1998b). There is little doubt that sport is highly valued by young people (Roberts and Treasure, 1993), and that games and sport programmes can enrich students' learning, and provide positive educational experiences of movement, **through** movement, and **about** movement (Ministry of Education, 1999; p. 7). However, a potential disadvantage of emphasising sport in the curriculum is that teachers can become overly focused on content, drills and skills, while ignoring opportunities for the development of values and attitudes as described above, and to the detriment of a number of pedagogical principles which I believe to be crucial - first the recognition of developmental needs of students, second the selection of appropriate teaching styles, and third a recognition that individuals tend to have preferred styles of learning (Salter, 1999).

Selection of appropriate teaching styles

Teachers tend to be comfortable using direct instructional approaches, and transmitting information and skills of content areas in which they feel competent (Salter, 1995). In such an approach however, there is little concern paid to student voice, to social justice, or to notions of emancipation and empowerment, though these concerns are all now highlighted in the new curriculum (Salter, 1998b). Addressing these concerns the Ministry of Education (1999; p.24) suggests that quality teaching will

Table 1: The ‘spectrum of teaching styles’

Command style	All decisions are controlled by teacher
Practice style	Students execute teacher-prescribed movement tasks on their own
Reciprocal (partner) style	Partner helps in some teacher-prescribed teaching /coaching
Self-check style	Planned by teacher, students monitor own performance against criteria
Inclusion style	Planned by teacher, students monitor development of personal progress
Guided discovery style	Teacher provides clues to solving movement problems
Problem-solving style	Students seek their own answers to problems set by the teacher
Individual programme style	Teacher sets content. Student plans programme
Learner-initiated style	Student plans programme, submits evaluation to teacher
Self-gteaching style	Student is teacher and learner, takes responsibility for own learning

always involve teachers in:

- using a wide range of student-centred learning processes characterised by interactive and co-operative learning strategies
- encouraging students to explore options and consequences and assisting them to make informed decisions
- promoting individual and group responsibility for learning.

Mosston and Ashworth (1986) describe a range of ten distinctive teaching styles based on the relationship between teaching behaviour, learning behaviour and lesson objectives. In any teaching episode decisions must be made with regard to the degree that the teacher and/or students assume responsibility for what occurs in the lesson. The decisions teachers make with regard to selecting and progressing content, communicating tasks and providing feedback and evaluation to students significantly affects the potential for their teaching to accomplish intended learning outcomes (Rink, 1985), as illustrated in Table 1 (adapted from Mosston and Ashworth, 1986).

The first five teaching styles above the dividing line might be considered to focus predominantly on ‘reproduction of the known’ and to lend themselves particularly to acquisition of skill and fitness outcomes. The five styles below the dividing line might be considered to focus on ‘discovery and production of the unknown’. All styles with the exception of the first two are particularly useful in attending to

the notions of developing student ownership of the learning process, and the enhancement of personal and social responsibility and other positive values and attitudes which are the primary focus of this article. There is no one method of teaching which has been shown to be inherently superior to all others, though it is clear that the sorts of personal and social learning outcomes attainable through student-centred physical education are unlikely to be achieved through more traditional direct-instructional approaches.

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Other ways of thinking about pedagogy

While the physical education literature abounds with claims about the contributions of sport and physical activity programmes to personal and social development, I believe that such development does not occur automatically but rather requires a structured and intentional approach, and an understanding of how individuals learn. Given the importance of positive values and attitudes to the quality of human experience, teachers must consciously address ways to foster the growth of desirable values and

practices (McHugh, 1995) while recognising each individual’s uniqueness. As a way of framing this problem, I suggest that we need to integrate what we know about Learning-Styles theory, which has had a major impact on the way we cater for individual differences in education over the last twenty years or so. Learning-Styles theory does not claim to provide a complete recipe for teaching, and as Guild (1997) points out, if such theories were to be used to prescribe standardised programmes then this would be a contradiction in both theory and practice. It is important to recognise its potential importance for the way we might structure educational experiences which address both the process of learning and the content and products of learning (Silver, Strong and Perini, 1997).

Guild (1997) proposes six important characteristics of Learning-Styles theory:

- *The theory is learning- and learner-centred.* The learning process is the dominant focus
- *The teacher is a reflective practitioner and decision-maker.* Teachers must understand the theory, continue to study it, reflect upon it and make appropriate applications for their own students and situations
- *The student is a reflective practitioner.* Students are engaged in exploring, experimenting, creating, applying and evaluating their ways of learning

- The *whole person is educated*. Teachers pay attention to the cultural, physical, social and emotional needs of the student and attempt to personalise education by connecting the student's total life to learning in the classroom
- The *curriculum has substance*, depth and quality. Basic skills are treated seriously and frequently learned in context. Teachers acknowledge students' learning strengths and individual capacities
- The *theory promotes diversity*. The core principle is that individuals are unique and that this uniqueness affects how the individual student learns.

While it is beyond the scope of this article to review the theory in any depth, below I briefly overview the central principles of Learning-Styles theory.

Learning styles

Learning-Styles theory attempts to explain the different ways people think and feel as they solve problems, create products and interact. It has a focus on the process of learning, and emphasises the role of personality in the production of learning as an individualised action. A large

amount of learning styles research over the last two decades has related to the way people perceive, make decisions, interact and reflect on their interactions (Silver, Strong and Perini, 1997), and the identification of individual learning styles has important implications for designing the learning environment. Bruner and Hill (1992) for example suggest that applying knowledge about learning styles to teaching in physical education is likely to improve performance skills, raise academic achievement and enhance personal and social skills. Although learning styles theorists might interpret personality in various ways, Coker (1996) suggests that nearly all models describe distinct learning styles, or types of learner in similar ways.

An individual's 'learning style' is not fixed, but rather a range of styles are developed and used over time as the person learns and grows. Learning styles also change in response to different content areas, different purposes and different learning contexts, though for the purposes of the physical education lesson the teacher's close attention to students' interactions and requests for instructional clarification will provide insight into their preferred mode of

learning. This understanding can then be used by the teacher to not only 'connect' with the individual student, but also to ensure that instructions and tasks to the whole class incorporate appropriate cues from each of the learning modalities. Table 3 (adapted from Coker, 1996) illustrates this.

There is particular value in the way learning styles theory recognises the role of both cognitive and affective processes, and this notion is also fundamental to the following discussion on innovative curricular strategies for developing personal and social attitudes and values.

Existing curricular strategies for attaining learning outcomes 'beyond the physical'

A number of innovative curricular strategies already exist in physical education that focus attention on the development of characteristics other than solely motor skills, and address learning which moves 'beyond the physical'. Below I overview five curriculum strategies briefly because of their significance in developing many of the desirable attitudes, values and behaviours specified in the new HPE document (Ministry of

Table 2: Learning styles, or types of learner

Visual learner	Learns best through a process of observation, for example of demonstrations. Makes use of visual cues to help understand how to execute a movement pattern, and likes to compare her/his technique to a 'correct model'.
Kinaesthetic learner	Learns best through understanding what the movement feels like, for example through simulations, and repeated practice with emphasis on tactile cues. Likes to be physically guided through correct form and technique.
Thinking/cognitive learner	Learns best through absorbing information concretely and processing information sequentially. Makes use of reasoning/questioning strategies, and likes to develop an idea of underlying scientific principles of the movement.
Listening/auditory learner	Learns best through a focus on sounds and rhythms of movement patterns, and on verbal descriptions and cues. Likes to hear what a 'clean hit' or 'stepping patterns just before take-off' actually sound like.
Interpersonal learner	Learns best socially, and concentrates on concrete and palpable information. Judges the value of the learning in terms of its potential use

Table 3: Focus of appropriate cues and teaching strategies to target each learning style

Visual	Kinaesthetic	Cognitive	Auditory	Interpersonal
demonstrate video-tape model wall charts observe perceive	simulate guide trial & error touch/feel experience practice	use analogies use principles analyse compare explore assess	clapping music sound rhythm cadence flow	co-operating sharing collaborating combining grouping helping

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Education, 1999) and described above:

- Personal and social responsibility (for example: Hellison, 1985; 1995),
- Enhancing self-esteem and developing group responsibility skills in adventure settings (for example: Miles and Priest, 1990),
- Developing self-knowledge, tactical understanding and problem-solving abilities through games (for example: Werner, Thorpe and Bunker, 1996),
- Developing identity and self-worth, tolerance and inclusiveness through traditional cultural movement (for example: Walker, 1995)
- Sport education (for example: Siedentop, 1987).

Each curriculum strategy is consistent with Co-operative Learning theory (see for example Kagan, 1989), which asserts that self-knowledge and self-respect are the prerequisites for functioning effectively within group situations (Yoder, 1993). Well designed

group experiences not only contribute to the knowledge, self-esteem and empowerment of individuals as they accomplish group goals, but its effectiveness in motivating students, increasing academic achievement and promoting the development of positive social behaviour are all well documented. Much research on co-operative learning (for example: Johnson and Johnson, 1987; Vermette, 1987; Griesgraber, 1987) has concluded that children who learn co-operatively as opposed to competitively and individually, feel better about themselves and work more effectively with each other. Slavin (1987) and Vermette (1987) argue for a number of positive outcomes from a co-operative learning approach, such as:

- an increase in conceptual achievement
- an increase in the use of critical thinking and higher order thinking skills
- an increase in individual self esteem
- an increase in positive

attitude toward those who are culturally or racially different.

Developing personal and social responsibility in physical education

Based on the work of Don Hellison (1985; 1995), this model promotes personal and social responsibility through physical activity. It is a humanistic approach aimed at empowering students to make responsible decisions about their behaviour and involvement in the physical education programme, as well as in their personal lives beyond the school. The model comprises five levels of student awareness and responsibility (adapted from Hellison, 1985; Compagnone 1995).

Hellison (1985) insists that the model is not a ‘cookbook recipe’ and urges teachers to use their initiative in adapting strategies, as each teaching situation lends itself to different problems. Compagnone (1995) suggests that to effectively implement the model requires

Table 4: Hellison's Developmental Levels of Personal and Social Responsibility

Level 0:	Irresponsibility - students who are unmotivated and undisciplined, and whose behaviour might include interrupting, verbal abuse, intimidation of others, disruptions and 'putting down' other students.
Level I:	Self-control - students who may not participate fully in the activity or show high levels of commitment, but manage to control their behaviour sufficiently so as not to disrupt the rights of others to learn and participate.
Level II:	Involvement - students who not only show self-control, but are actively involved in the subject matter without complaining, and are willing to try new activities.
Level III:	Self-responsibility - students who learn to take more responsibility for their choices and for linking these choices to their own needs. They are able to work without supervision and to increasingly take responsibility for their own actions.
Level IV:	Caring - students who are motivated to extend their sense of responsibility by cooperating, giving support, showing concern and helping others. They are likely to be willing to work with any other student(s) in the class.

considerable teacher artistry, and that both self-reflection and intuition are necessary in order to gain sufficient insight to know when to do what, and to whom. Hellison proposes six particular categories of teaching strategies to be used to keep the levels in front of students (adapted from Hellison, 1985):

Hellison (1995) suggests that although a balance between personal and social responsibility is reflected in the progression of the levels and in the focus of the varied teaching strategies outlined above, the primary focus of the model is on the individual taking responsibility rather than the group. Clearly what is described here is not a curriculum

content package, but is rather a range of teaching strategies which focus on student behaviour within the structure of the existing physical education programme.

Teaching games for understanding in physical education

Werner, Thorpe and Bunker (1996) suggest that traditional technical models of teaching games and sport provide little achievement, inflexible techniques, poor decision-making abilities, athletes who are dependent on formal coaching, and school-leavers who know little about games. The Teaching Games for Understanding (TGFU) model

fosters learning which is student- and game-centred rather than teacher- and teaching-centred (Chandler, 1996), provides opportunities for students to take more responsibility for their own learning, and promotes understanding and transfer to other games. The model operates on the premise that game situations or circumstances should be introduced to the learner first, and this addresses problems of contextuality.

TGFU is not widely used in New Zealand schools though its effectiveness elsewhere is well documented (Salter, 1999). Curtner-Smith (1996) suggests that TGFU is an appropriate teaching strategy

Table 5: Teaching Strategies for Personal and Social Responsibility

Teacher talk	What the teacher says to students with reference to particular behaviour and how it relates to the levels.
Modelling	What the teacher does in the presence of students, for example her/his attitudes, values and beliefs conveyed to the students.
Reinforcement	What the teacher does that strengthens a levels-related attitude or behaviour, or enhances student-interaction with the levels.
Reflection	What time and opportunity the teacher makes available for students to think about their behaviour in relation to the levels.
Student-sharing	Where students are given opportunities to share their opinions and experiences in relation to the programme, and their behaviour in relation to the levels.
Specific strategies	Where the teacher uses specific strategies to increase interaction of students at a particular level (for example, peer-teaching at level IV).

throughout primary and secondary schools, and Read (1995) suggests that many advantages are presented with regard to:

- introducing officiating and coaching
- requiring students to know and apply rules and scoring systems
- embracing the general requirements of fair play, honest competition and good sporting behaviour
- helping students to recognise and cope with success and limitations in performance
- encouraging students to persist in practice and help each other to improve their chances of winning.

TGFU makes use of small-group work, which has been linked with reduction of many problems associated with competition. The subject matter of TGFU is clearly exciting and enjoyable and seems to connect with the lives of students more readily than conventional

physical education experiences. TGFU is contextualised, providing meaning and relevance and enhancing students' motivation and commitment to participating. Chandler (1996) suggests that for the average or below-average performer, anything that motivates is useful, particularly if it is intrinsic to the activity. Students of all abilities can be better provided for through the motivation of games, rather than teaching and practising isolated techniques out of context. The TGFU model can clearly provide opportunities to enhance aspects of students' development other than skill performance alone.

Adventure based learning in physical education

Adventure based learning (ABL) derives from the philosophies of Outward Bound, adapted for use in schools. It makes use of sequenced games and activities aimed the improvement of individual self-

concept, self-efficacy and decision-making ability, and leads to the development of interpersonal and co-operative skills through trusting and competent behaviour (Schoel, Prouty and Radcliffe, 1988). The key elements of ABL around which games and activities are structured are:

- Trust Building
- Goal Setting
- Challenge/Stress
- Peak Experiences
- Humour/Fun
- Problem Solving

Activities are presented so that individuals are challenged at their own level by experiencing a sense of disequilibrium when confronted by a novel and unfamiliar setting. Choosing to accept the challenge and working co-operatively with others to eventually solve problems, leads to feelings of accomplishment. A crucial element of the process occurs at this stage, when a debriefing or processing of the

Table 6: Stages of group development through adventure based learning

Stage 1:	Acquaintance	a time for individuals to interact, get to know each other and 'size each other up'.
Stage 2:	Anxiety	a time of confusion and hesitancy, where individuals tend to form bonds with others of like interests/background.
Stage 3:	Search for position	a time for engaging in challenges and leadership struggles, and where feelings of anger and resentment are common.
Stage 4:	Feelings and confrontation	a time for clashes for leadership, defensive personal behaviour and even 'mutiny' as 'cliques' form.
Stage 5:	Interactions and growth	a time of becoming more involved, and beginning to share personal experiences and communicate more openly.
Stage 6:	'Norming' and conforming	a time for the group to work on and evolve rules and standards of behaviour, and begin working effectively together.
Stage 7:	Interactive leadership	a time for developing empathy and tolerance, and accepting each other as equals. Group decisions are based more on consensus.
Stage 8:	Increased experimentation	a time for the 'dropping of masks', freer exchange of feelings, and increased risk-taking.
Stage 9:	Group potency	a time where the group accepts individual members and validates their positive changes. Increased pleasure, loyalty and affection.
Stage 10:	Termination	the death' of the group, as members move on and the group project is finished. An important time to reflect on lessons/experiences.

experience provides opportunities for self-reflection and feedback from other members of the group, and the individual's feelings and understandings can be validated and strengthened. This process of debriefing and reflection is an important key to success in both Outward Bound and ABL programmes, as it is hoped that the individual internalises the lessons learned, and is able to generalise and transfer newly developed (and hopefully superior) understandings, values and attitudes to future endeavours (Nadler and Luckner, 1992).

Co-operative learning actively involves students in group learning tasks, encouraging positive interdependence, individual accountability and face-to-face contact (Yoder, 1993), and Lavin (1989) strongly suggests that there needs to be a place in the curriculum for an approach that places stress on values such as communication, cohesiveness, trust and sharing. Adventure based learning structures activities and experiences with the deliberate intention of transforming a group of disparate individuals into committed and productive members of a cohesive team. In the process of becoming a team, the individuals are likely to progress through a

series of ten stages described by Nadler and Luckner (1992) and adapted from Cohen and Smith (1976) as shown in Table 6.

Through the experiential learning processes of ABL, students come to develop their own self-knowledge, personal responsibility and social interaction skills. The real gain for the individual however is in the degree to which this new knowledge and responsible behaviour is generalisable and transferable to other new endeavours in life after the completion of the programme. As might be expected, the role of the teacher in facilitating cognitive and affective links between the programme and 'real life' is crucial.

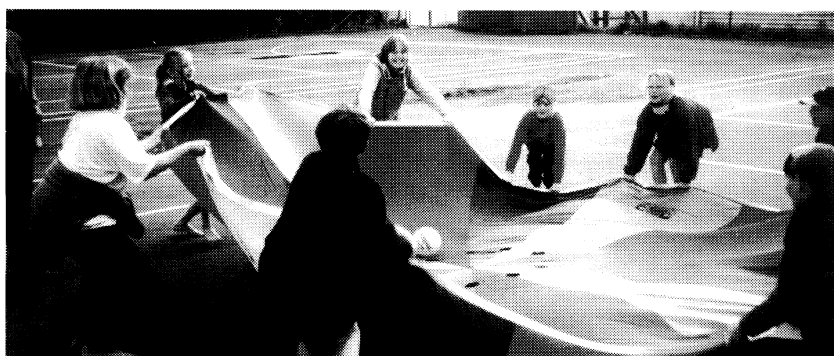
Sport Education

The Sport Education model is based on the work of Siedentop (1987), who defines sport as occurrences of playful competition in which outcomes are determined by combinations of physical skill, strategy and chance. He believes that physical education has suffered from the problem that skills and games have been played in isolation and without contextuality, thus offering little relevance or excitement for students. He makes

strong connections between sport and culture, and believes teachers should socialise students into various sporting roles, such as player, manager, coach, and so on. The broad goals of sport education are to educate students to be competent, literate, and enthusiastic sports participants. Competency implies having sufficient skills to participate in games satisfactorily, to understand and execute strategies appropriate to the complexity of play, and becoming knowledgeable games players. Literacy involves understanding rules, rituals and traditions of sport, as well as being able to distinguish between "good" and "bad" sport. Enthusiasm is manifested in behaviour that preserves, protects and enhances sport culture.

The Sport Education model incorporates several distinctive characteristics:

- seasons which incorporate a large number of consecutive lessons (for example, sixteen to twenty), and involves pre-season activities, practice and competition
- team affiliation, in which the students become members of teams for the duration of the season and assume roles of coach, manager, and so on, as





- well as being players
- formal competition, which involves pre-season preparation, in-season competition and a culminating event which provides an appropriate climax to the end of the competitive season, such as a tournament or festival
- keeping records, for example on outcomes of matches and player performance
- festivity, which prevails throughout the season and includes such things as the excitement of playing the games, a sports notice board, team photos, uniforms and honouring the rituals and traditions of the sport.

The contextualised nature of physical activity using the model is appealing, as the fundamental characteristics of the particular sport provide meaning for participants. A great deal of research over the last decade has identified positive outcomes from participating in Sport Education, for example; promoting knowledge and skills, enhancing identity and self-worth, developing confidence in social interaction skills, and making new friendships. The approach fosters students' ownership and responsibility, and they tend to thrive on the

opportunity to plan and implement the programme. A further advantage seems to be the benefit to lower-skilled and habitual non-participants, who begin to recognise the value of their contribution and ability from peer support and encouragement, and through developing trust. Further, many teachers of Sport Education have been impressed with the opportunities presented for them to

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focus on teaching and coaching individuals and groups, providing specialised skill clinics and working on students' behaviour and competence once the programme is running (Hastie, 1998).

Te Reo Kori

Te reo kori may be described as combining aspects of movement, music, language and Maori cultural values (Salter, 1998a), in a way that encourages students to:

- 1) develop movement skills through a range of Maori activities,
- 2) develop an appreciation of

- 3) Maori cultural values, and use and practise the Maori language.

Te reo kori is a vital and dynamic part of physical education in New Zealand. It can fulfil important roles in the development of a sense of personal identity and self-worth for Maori students, and in the development of movement skills and cultural sensitivity among non-Maori students. Te reo kori addresses holistically the essence of hauora (total well-being) expressed in the new HPE curriculum, facilitates learning "in, through and about" movement (Ministry of Education, 1999; p.7), and supports the socio-ecological premises of the "new" health and physical education. Te reo kori acknowledges the bi-cultural nature of New Zealand, and identifies the importance of providing opportunities for non-Maori students to access the culture and knowledge that is specific to the tangata whenua (indigenous population). It also provides opportunities for Maori students to access traditional practices, values and knowledge, in the context of mainstream education, and to affirm personal identity and self-worth in the context of physical education, for example through:

poi - ball on a string
 haka - ritualistic dance
 whai - string games
 takaro-a- ringa - hand games
 tititoria - short sticks
 tira - long wand
 koikoi and taiaha - weaponry
 kori tinana - exercise
 kanikani - creative dance
 waiata-a-ringa - action song

I have elsewhere suggested the following description of Te reo kori (Salter, 1998a):

- a) Te reo kori is movement, involving learning experiences derived from traditional Maori cultural practices. While their origin is specific to Maori and the activities are likely to affirm Maori students, their application is also intended to be inclusive of and appropriate for all,
- b) these learning experiences may be adapted to contemporary educational settings. Te reo kori is about mastery of basic Maori movement, not rigid duplication of traditional cultural performance (see for example Walker, 1995; p.22),
- c) inclusion of Te reo kori affirms the status and culture of the tangata whenua. Notions of partnership and equity are embodied both in the Treaty of Waitangi, and in the New Zealand Curriculum Framework (Ministry of Education, 1993; p.7).

The process of teaching and learning in Te reo kori should best be regarded as that of "move, create and share", rather than that of "teach, practise and perform". Walker (1995; p.22) for example suggests that Te reo kori should be about:

....mastery of basic Maori movement, not about performance of treasured taonga. It is about helping and being helped, about whanau, where tuakana (elder, or more experienced) accept responsibility for teina (younger, or less experienced), where ownership of learning can be achieved by

every student.

As I have suggested elsewhere (Salter, 1998a), the performing of fundamental Maori movement in *Te reo kori* assumes much greater significance than the simple act of executing skills - it can be a way for Maori students to access the *tikanga* directly, and a way of helping to create and restore balance and harmony for the individual. The potential role of *Te reo kori* should not be underestimated in this regard, and its inclusion in school physical education programmes clearly holds the potential for both Maori and non-Maori students to achieve many of the personal and social learning outcomes specified in the new curriculum document.

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Integrating theory and practice

The five 'innovative curriculum strategies' which I have overviewed - Hellison's 'personal and social responsibility' model, adventure based learning, teaching games for understanding, sport education and te reo kori - have many differences both in their focus and in the fact that they combine different sorts of content, teaching strategies and behavioural outcomes. A great deal of research into the effectiveness of all five models does indicate however that the sorts of values, attitudes and behaviours which they help develop make them very

worthy of inclusion in physical education programmes which seek to 'stretch the limits of traditional pedagogies'.

The key for me is in recognising that our students are all individuals, and that our role as teachers is to constantly seek approaches which foster their different interests and styles in ways that contribute to the development of their uniqueness. The teacher's role in choosing appropriate teaching styles and interactions aimed at empowering the learner through each of the curriculum strategies, is clearly crucial. I suggest that the teacher's selection (and modification) of appropriate teaching and interaction strategies from the five models, coupled with an understanding of the individual student's preferred learning styles, presents a strong framework for achieving worthwhile learning outcomes in physical education which include the development of positive values, attitudes and behaviour. Table 7 represents the way that content, teaching strategies and recognition of individual learning styles are all interwoven, so that students may be empowered to develop positive values and attitudes (in this diagram, reduction of appropriate 'teaching styles' to five [omitting 'Reciprocal', 'Self-check' and 'Inclusion' styles], and the arbitrary selection of only five 'worthwhile values and outcomes' from the many possible, is in the interests of graphic symmetry rather than a reflection of any particular value positions I might hold).

Conclusion

In this article I have taken a critical view of the potential for physical education to develop positive values and attitudes in students. Many New Zealand teachers are struggling presently with ways to implement Strand 'C' (Relationships with Other People) and Strand 'D' (Healthy Communities and Environments) of the new HPE curriculum. As a way forward, I have suggested that we need to look beyond physical education practices which have the

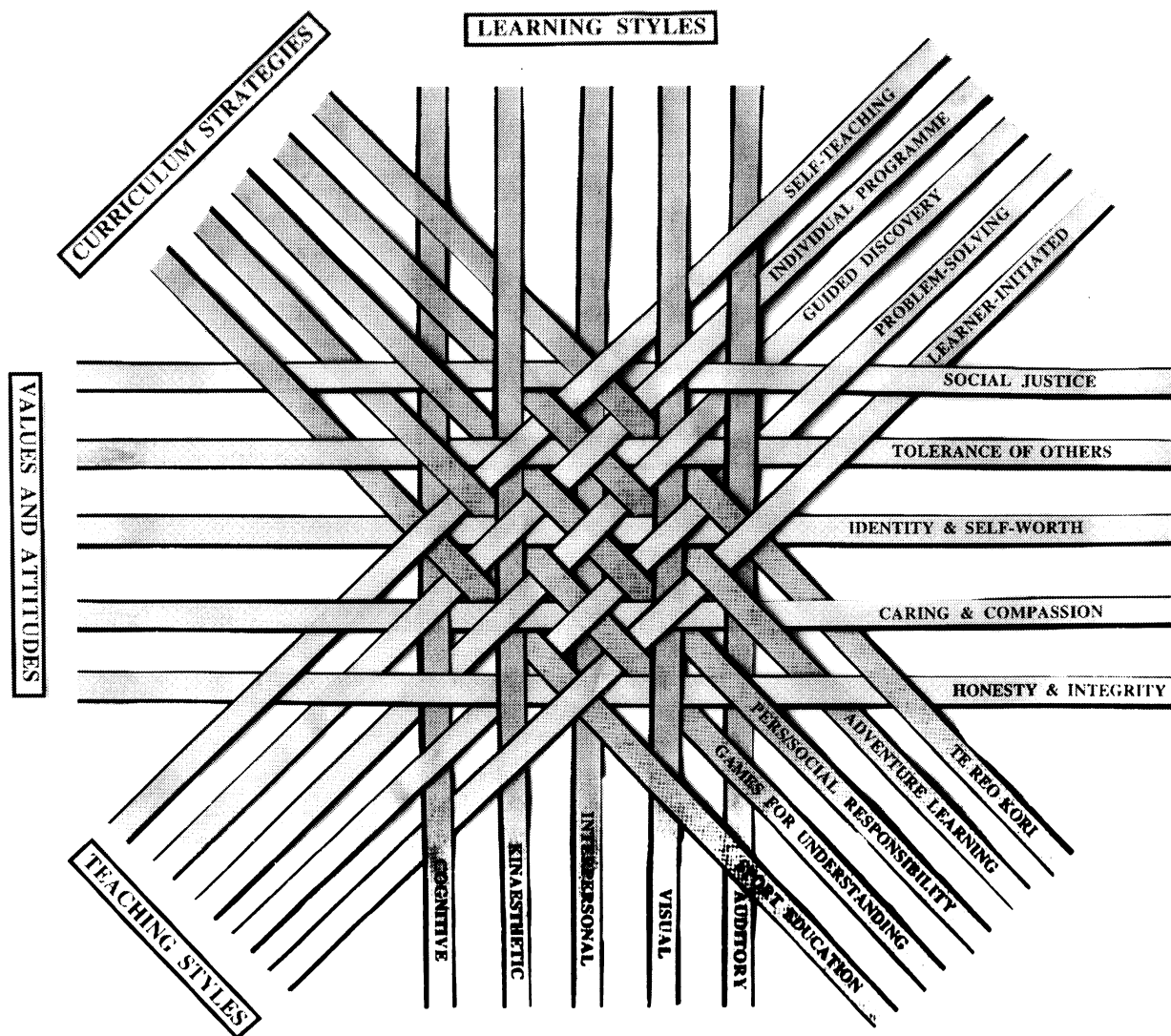


Table 7: Integrating Teaching

teacher and the teaching act as their focus, and firmly place the student at the centre of the teaching/learning process. I have briefly overviewed theories of co-operative learning and learning styles, and discussed some issues surrounding selection of appropriate student-centred styles of teaching to achieve learning

“...we need to look beyond physical education practices which have the teacher and the teaching act as their focus, and firmly place the student at the centre of the teaching/learning

outcomes other than solely motor skill and/or health related fitness. I believe that integrating these theoretical perspectives with the content of the five innovative curriculum strategies provides a different way of thinking about the nature and purposes of physical education, and goes far in addressing education of the whole person which is consistent with the philosophical intent of the new HPE curriculum.

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