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ABSTRACT

In addition to the presidential address and the general session address ("The Role of Physical Education in Higher Education"), the proceedings contain speeches on the following topics: (1) sport and leisure (including presentations on blacks and women in sports); (2) professional preparation; (3) educational leadership; and (4) perceptual-motor development. Also included in the proceedings are the president's report, a financial report, minutes from the previous meeting, and reports from the standing committees, joint committees, president's committees, and ad hoc committees. Lists of NCPEAM presidents and members are also included.
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PROCEEDINGS
77TH ANNUAL MEETING
DECEMBER 26-29, 1973
KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI

NATIONAL COLLEGE PHYSICAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION FOR MEN

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PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS

THE KEYS TO A FUNCTIONAL PROFESSION

VERNON S. SPRAGUE
University of Oregon

My predecessors in office, Deane Richardson and Dave Bischoff, with great mastery and forethought identified many changes and innovations affecting our profession. Others were prophesied as on the way and are now with us. There has been great urgency for change in recent years and this urgency is still with us. Why? The very nature of the current culture in which we live creates this urgency.

We are concerned with life in a free society. Democracy as a way of life is good. In it, human welfare, human work, and human happiness are pre-eminent. It recognizes the ever-changing nature of society, and challenges men to individual achievements to build a better life for all. Democracy is dependent upon the individual who possesses physical vigor, mental poise, social mindedness—a scientific, critical, and constructive intelligence. In addition, democracy depends upon a deep respect for the rights, responsibilities, and worth of each individual citizen. These qualities are not transmitted from one generation to another through inheritance. Only as it is able to profit from preceding generations will each generation learn anew the tenets by which democracy survives and progresses toward the ideal.

This emphasis on the nature of a democratic culture is included because recently there has been expressed much concern that citizens do not recognize the nature and values of a democracy and are abrogating their responsibilities to their country.

Thus, the role of education in our profession in a democratic state becomes apparent. Education, then, has as its specific purpose the direction and development of the citizen's growth. In the broadest sense it is one of the social agencies whose major concern is the development of each individual to his greatest capacity—socially, physically, emotionally, intellectually, and spiritually—so that each citizen may become a functioning, efficient person in a free society.

In this democratic culture the social, political, economic, religious, and military pressures of the time and place dictate the needs of the people. Each of these pressures has, in recent years, had an unprecedented impact. The mushrooming bodies of knowledge resulting from the technological advances devised to meet these multiple pressures have created massive dislocation of the social, political, economic, and moral structure of the culture.

All educational programs grow out of the current and future needs of the students. Educational objectives evolve from the people they serve; they are statements of values and ideals for which our society strives. In thinking through a program of education these objectives become the basis for developing programs to attain desired results and serve as a yardstick for evaluating ultimate outcomes. In this frame of reference, then, the very essence of democracy in

action is change—change to meet the needs of a transcending culture. Thus the need for change.

Innovations in our profession have been rampant. Many of these changes have not resulted from careful evaluation to meet a new need or achieve a purpose. Rather, many have been the result of the influence and imitation of other disciplines, acceptance of fadisms, imitations of successful programs on university or other levels, responses to social problems, and multiple chain reactions from previous changes.

The profession has yet to express itself extensively in a pioneering nature. Physical education today is at best a follower of other disciplines. The impact of physical education as an educational profession has yet to contribute its potential to the overall learning environment. It is imperative the profession develop the desire to pioneer, to be on the cutting edge, to perceive change, and to conceive the unique for the profession.

The proposal of the Projects and Program Committee under the leadership of Larry Locke is a giant step in this direction.

At this point we come to the primary focus of this presentation, which is to propose a plan for developing guidelines for the future directions and missions of the profession to meet the dynamics of a changing culture and to identify the criterion that should be applied to determine the missions, functions, and operation of the profession of physical education.

A criterion has been, Does it work? This criterion has had some value in the past but with the current accountability approach there are additional questions, such as Why?—How? and Can you prove it works? The profession must be more precise in identifying its criteria for determining mission, and procedures.

The position is taken that the *objectives* to be achieved for the people the profession serves are the overriding single criterion by which future directions are charted.

This raises a question, Do we have viable objectives attuned to our current cultural needs for our public schools, universities, professional preparation, graduate, research, recreation, and athletic programs? A second question is, Are the objectives interrelated, coordinated, and utilized for common purposes? The answer is generally No.

The first priority, then, becomes the identification in clear concise terms of the scope, purpose, and objectives of the profession at each of the above levels of program. The second priority is to articulate and coordinate them for common directions of the profession.

This may appear ridiculously simple, but be assured it is not. It is proposed that NCPEAM and NAPECW appoint an Articulation Task Force to initiate, coordinate, and distribute a philosophical statement defining the scope, purpose, and objectives of the profession. This task force will conduct a number of intricate, carefully coordinated operations as follows:

1. Select from the various related disciplines and the many areas of interest within our discipline a working task force with the expertise to identify the present and projected needs of current and future generations. Charge this group with the responsibility of preparing a report covering the needs of citizens from pre-school to old age.
2. Appoint supplementary working task forces at each program operational level of the profession. Their purpose being to develop, on the basis of the citizen's needs, the performance objectives necessary to fulfill these needs.

3. Articulate these materials and prepare an overview statement defining the scope, purpose, and objectives of the profession. This position paper to be supplemented with guidelines to be used as criteria to give future direction to the profession and its programs.
4. Disseminate and interpret this statement for effective utilization by the profession.

Why NCEAM and NAPECW for this awesome responsibility? First, these associations have the expertise and capability to do the job. Secondly, the size of the organizations is permissive to the potential for success in such a sensitive and highly controversial task. Third, the most appropriate body of educators to do the job is at the college level. A university president is quoted as saying, "College professors select, and teach, the teachers who teach. They have the main jurisdiction over what will be taught and how." This obviously is not meant to preclude articulation with other levels of education.

The concept involved is utilization of personnel from all segments of the profession—public school, professional preparation, graduate, research specialists, and representatives from the areas of depth of specialization, such as sociology, psychology, anthropology, anatomy, history, philosophy, physiology, athletics, and recreation.

The ultimate purpose is a master plan for direction and coordination of the efforts of the entire profession.

A project of such magnitude is awesome and it may well be labeled the "dream of a visionary." In this period of traumatic cultural turmoil, where the citizens of a nation are caught up with uncertainties, apprehensions, fear, and distrust created by the social, political, economic, military, and moral upheavals, this job becomes one of the highest priorities. This nation faces a human resource crisis. The future of this democratic nation is dependent on the physical, moral, social, and intellectual fiber of its human resources. Your profession has a vital stake in the development of this quality of fiber.

Using the current energy crisis as an illustration, we cannot refuse to accept the challenge of defining direction. Earlier this month a national television program on the energy crisis pointed out the amazing number of government agencies charged with the administration and planning for the energy needs of our nation. It was aptly pointed out with emphasis that each was obsessed with its own mission, vested interests, and dominating search for power, to the degree that there was a complete disregard for coordination in a common plan of direction. The result—chaos and a national emergency—an energy crisis.

Do we face the same "human resource" crisis? The premise is submitted that this is the nation's most valuable resource. The nation needs citizens with a viable physical, emotional, social, and intellectual fiber with a capacity to meet and solve all other crises created by humanity and its culture. The profession must organize with direction to achieve these service goals for all humans, from birth to old age.

Now, after all this to-do about identifying a criterion, to what do you apply it?

The process of utilizing the criterion of objectives involves their application to the component elements of a functioning profession. These components may be defined as *keys*. Using the analogy of a safety deposit box, each must be available and utilized in a coordinated action to be operational. A change in one key often affects the operation of the remaining keys.

These keys may be arbitrarily identified as: The master key—the objectives of the profession—and then the keys of curriculum or program, qualified personnel, administrative support, evaluation, research, interpretation, and leadership.

In terms of current changes affecting the above components, time permits only a passing reference to the application of the criterion to only a few.

A continuing necessity is a clearly spelled out usable curriculum based on sound objectives for each of the segments of the population the profession serves—pre-school, elementary, secondary, university, teacher preparation, graduate, recreation, and athletics.

Perhaps we need to reexamine our purposes and our programs in these areas in light of current trends and changes. For example, community-based adult continuing education programs in physical education are being identified. Today there is a trend to set aside the narrow barriers of education to certain specified years and age levels. There is a trend to continue education throughout life. This can apply directly to physical education. Physical education can no longer be oriented toward just the school setting. It has become oriented toward the community because this is the real environment in which it must be used.

Community-based physical education programs are for all ages but are of special importance to adults who no longer receive school physical education instruction; they have elements of physical, creative, and competitive expression, as well as as individual and group experiences. They may be offered by many agencies and institutions. However, their evolution is being most prominently supported by community colleges and universities, recreation departments, and public school systems through the community schools.

The reasons for the evolution of the community-based program are primarily sociological in nature. There is evidence today of great fusions in society. Examples of these fusions are many—fusions of night and day, boy and girl, rural and urban, white and black, young and old, labor and leisure, work and retirement, year-round schools and interdisciplinary curricula in the school and community. As the school develops a community consciousness, the community develops a greater awareness of education. It is a positive cycle.

Problems exist in this continuing program. Presently, there is little coordination in these efforts. Every institution is doing its thing, moving onward and outward without foundation and planning.

Coordination of staff, facilities, and programs is a major task. There is too little communication and resulting cooperation. There is, also, the problem of priorities. Time and money, problems in themselves, become elements in the power struggle and conflicts. Solutions to these problems relate primarily to education, planning, and funding. Individuals must be trained to work in new environments with all ages of learners and with different types of resources.

This has a direct implication for professional preparation programs and to the key of qualified personnel.

There are perhaps no more important trends than those witnessed at the public school educational level in our society.

At the elementary levels there are trends toward physical education specialists utilizing new and appropriate teaching modes. The development of, and continuing growth of, movement education teaching modes is significant because it represents a new approach to teaching physical development. It fits nicely into the present trend toward more informal learning at this level. It is a creative experience, combining self-expression and understanding with

movement and fitness. There is little question that this approach has great value, but by the same token, it is not to be considered to be the all-inclusive and singular approach to the wide variety of educational objectives to be achieved.

On the secondary level many trends exist. An important trend is the growth of the student-centered and -directed learning. This has brought about such concepts as individualized instruction, flexible scheduling, contract lessons, and team teaching.

The growth of competency-based learning, performance objectives, and accountability has affected all levels of education.

At the college level the trend is toward fewer requirements, optional course selections, lifetime activities, and exotic curricula. The most important trend of these has to be the development of optional choice curricula. It has the potential of remaking the image of physical education. The image developed during the days of the requirement is archaic and outdated. Whether the rigidity of curricula was the result of the requirement, or, perhaps more aptly, of the inertia and lack of imagination and initiative of a complacent faculty is problematic. The provision of optional choices has provided a needed creative element based on student interests.

We have witnessed, particularly during the last half decade, a dramatic increase in the class offerings in the physical education programs at the high school and post-secondary levels.

This proliferation may be traced to a number of factors. Some of the fundamental factors include:

1. The increased acceptance of elective programs in physical education.
2. The increased impact of the affective domain in education.
3. The increased role of student participation in program development.
4. The increased utilization of instructional techniques that encourage greater degrees of student responsibility in learning (i.e., individualized instruction and programmed instruction).
5. Reduced availability of finances coupled with the women's liberation movement leading to a much broader acceptance and implementation of coeducational activities into programs.
6. Increased "leisure-time awareness" has "encouraged" physical education to assume certain program offerings and responsibilities that may very well be in the realm of the community-based educational programs.
7. The increased incorporation of lifetime sports into the programs.
8. Increased public awareness, through the media, of the existence and appeal of generally nontraditional activities.
9. The constant introduction of new activities to the consumer public by a wide variety of agencies.

There are certain problem situations that may be considered as having their origin in this increased range of class offerings. These include:

1. A "whim-whimsey" approach in determining program components and content. Too often student interest in a particular activity is extremely transient.
2. The danger that the basic instruction program may come to be little more than leisure activity as opposed to *physical education*.
3. The possibility that physical education departments may over-react and fail to implement or may terminate viable activities and subsequently unnecessarily alienate a significant portion of the student body.

4. There is an increased financial strain because of the additional equipment-facilities requirements attendant to the increased range of class offerings, which refers directly to the key of administrative support.
5. The fear can be identified that the balance between recreation and physical education may be disproportionate.
6. The recruitment of specific activity specialists will tend to necessitate changes in recruitment practices. This, in turn, will influence the supply-demand situation in the profession. Serious shake-ups of present instructional personnel may even be required.

Above all else it is necessary to examine carefully the objectives of the program before introducing a new activity. This will necessitate a very careful study of the specific activity itself. It is, then, essential to consider the various instructional personnel, facility-equipment, and economic implications that would attend the implementation of the activity. It is essential to identify and develop a listing of specific acceptance criteria for evaluating the program potential of an activity.

Consistency with program objectives is of fundamental importance when proposing solutions for the problem of activity proliferation in the physical education program. This is a trend which we cannot afford to dismiss with only cursory consideration.

In the broad area of athletics many significant trends can be identified. Less significant, but important, trends are the growth of intramural sports at all educational levels, the certification of coaches, the development of athletic trainer certification, and the growth of competitive athletics at an early age.

There are other significant trends in athletic programs:

1. The growth and sophistication of big-time competitive athletics. This trend toward bigness is best exemplified at the college level but has permeated the lower levels as well. The trend toward bigness has several related facets that make this a major problem area for concern in future planning. As athletics get bigger there is a trend toward professionalism, spectatorism, growing apathy, and confusion over the role of such "amateur" activities as the Olympic Games.
2. The growth of club sports as an alternative direction for expression of competitive athletic desires for the masses.
3. The growth of women's athletic programs. Competition for women has taken two directions. The first direction has led them into direct competition with the men in traditionally all-male sports. The other direction has placed them in direct competition with men as they develop more extensive interscholastic and intercollegiate teams.

Athletics has been in many cases divorced from the physical education family but should the profession utilize club sports as a safety net to catch the learning opportunities from athletic competition? This could become a potential possibility as the financial bubble of big-time intercollegiate athletics expands to the point of explosion and disintegration.

What about women's competitive athletics? Should the soap and water of financial aid, gate receipts, and the high cost of high pressure championships be funneled into women's intercollegiate athletics until this bubble expands to the precarious precipice of professionalism in men's intercollegiate athletics? Application of the educational objective criteria should produce an obvious answer.

To touch briefly on the key of qualified personnel, the great hue and cry is oversupply at all levels. The premise here is that there is not, and never has been, an oversupply of *qualified* personnel. There are problems of more candidates than there are positions in the field, but many of the candidates are not qualified.

The recommendation is to take a lesson from business. When there is an oversupply, redirect production and create a product that produces a demand and will be used. The answer is not cutting out the industry of the preparation of personnel but rather producing a better product that can perform in the market of new and better programs. Examples of such markets are elementary school physical education, community-based all-age education programs, and women's competitive athletics.

There are some potential new markets on the graduate level. There is a need for a generalist who has command of the interrelationships of the various specialties and can teach effectively on the undergraduate all-purpose level—specialists prepared as business managers to handle all of the faculty, financial and facility, operational, and construction and maintenance problems of university, athletic, and professional sport programs. These and many others provide exciting potential markets for the future.

In research, investigations responding to need will continue in depth in the areas of specialization, such as physiology, anatomy, biomechanics, history, philosophy, and the behavioral sciences. But, as President Bischoff so aptly pointed out last year, there must be synthesis, coordination, and application of these specializations to the focal purposes of the profession.

The highly compartmentalized departments and increasing specialization of knowledge in areas of emphasis result in a fragmented frame of knowledge. Faculty, students, and the public do not see the interrelationships among the various areas of emphasis. Department course offerings and research projects become isolated segments of a particular subject area.

Education and physical education should be viewed as cooperative, interrelated, and coordinated bodies of knowledge not fragmented by a competitive sense of power or status-seeking struggles among disciplines and areas of specialization. Through a coordinated approach, knowledge could become more cohesive and applicable.

Now, only a passing comment on a Program of Interpretation. Interpretation, defined in this case, means "that activity whereby the *profession* is made aware of cultural conditions and needs and the factual information service whereby the people are kept continually informed of the purposes, values, conditions, and needs of their physical education profession." This process is an essential component to keep the objectives of the profession viable and current. Equally important, this process enables the profession and the public to understand and utilize these goals. This is a most important component of a profession but any further discussion becomes a paper in itself.

So now to the final key, leadership. Historically the immediacy of the need to identify the solutions of problems confronting the profession gave rise to the establishment of CPEA. Throughout the years, utilizing a magnificent interchange of ideas at these conferences, much has been done to solve the problems of the times. *Each* of you is urged to continue to involve himself in this viable process.

To this end two changes are extended. First, reaffirm your convictions and faith in the worth and value of the profession. In this period of turmoil, this faith is essential to the second charge, which is, Make a *commitment* to provide *leadership* to your profession.

A recent newspaper quote is pertinent here: "People of high achievement motivation have been challenged and stimulated by their environment, so that they think in terms of achievement. Their satisfactions are not in recognition or public recognition, but in the satisfaction from having initiated an action that is successful and significant. Money to them is a stimulant only as a symbol of achievement."

There has been both a consistency and a transcendency in the leadership of the association. Consistency is illustrated by the continuance and growth of the association. Further illustration is the consistent interest of participating members in the solution of their problems.

Transcendancy is illustrated by meeting the challenge of new and changing times. Transcendancy is also aptly highlighted by the moving on of a number of the leadership pillars of the profession. It is gratifying to see the keen professional zeal with which individuals (namely you, the current membership) are moving in to fill leadership gaps which appear as the pillars pass on.

The essence of these comments is to encourage in every way each of you to find the courage, strength, and zeal to make a commitment to provide the critically needed leadership responsibilities in your respective areas. Courage it requires to assume a position on an issue and embark on a course of action.

In the American vernacular, "Let's get with it." In the Aussie vernacular, "Let's get crackin'."

GENERAL SESSION ADDRESS

THE ROLE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

ARCHIE R. DYKES
University of Kansas

It is a special pleasure for me to address the National College Physical Education Association, because you as teachers of health, physical education, and recreation are doing many of the things that all of us in higher education must do if our respective institutions are to thrive and prosper. Indeed, you are doing the things that all of us must do if we are to deserve continued support from the people of our respective states.

First, of course, you are teaching students on campus—providing meaningful experience to the young people who come to your campuses. And you are doing a better job now than ever before. Most of you are no longer involved in the chores of providing mandatory physical education courses as a necessary service to the institution. Now you are much more likely to be training future teachers of health, physical education, and recreation for the communities of America.

You are also extending your services to the communities you serve. In my home community, Lawrence, Professor Wayne Osness and members of his staff have launched an extensive community physical fitness program. It is helping hundreds of people live better lives through better health and, according to the participants, the therapy is mostly fun. I suspect that most of you have similar programs going in your respective communities.

One person in five, I am told, will have a heart attack before reaching the age of 50. Certainly that fact of life—and death—is more than ample testimony to the importance of the work you are doing and to the need for more of it. It describes the enormity of the job in preventive therapy that lies before you. For those who have the heart attack and survive—and even Lawrence averages one new cardiac case every day—there is an equally important task of recuperative therapy. I am thankful that there are people like you to give expert assistance in this quest for life and in the leadership necessary for your profession to go forward.

Now let me speak of some of the broader problems and opportunities facing higher education in America today in this time of rapid change.

The first and undoubtedly the most obvious problem that colleges and universities face today is the simple demographic fact of an imminent decline of population among Americans of the traditional college ages. Counting the children now in elementary and secondary schools we can see for a certainty that a decline of the college-age population will soon be upon us. For example, we now have approximately 36,000 seniors in the high schools of Kansas; in 1980 we will have only 31,000 and by 1985 that figure will drop to 24,000. Obviously, there are two possible paths for our institutions of higher education: One is retrenchment—cut back—reduce faculties—trim ourselves to the size

necessary to serve a smaller clientele in the traditional ways. The second course, and the one that I feel sure we all prefer, is the improvement of our service for a larger clientele: adult Americans of all ages and in all locations, off campus as well as on campus. Our nation is a wealthy nation—temporary fuel shortages notwithstanding—and we must be prepared to provide the services that our people want and are willing to pay for. The people are not looking so much now for more material things—they are looking more for services that will improve their lives. Among those are health services and cultural services, which our colleges and universities are eminently well equipped to provide. We must be sensitive to the needs and concerns of our people. The *needs* in your fields of specialty undoubtedly exist before any *concern* is expressed. It then becomes your responsibility to inform the people of the health hazards posed by common modern patterns of living. It becomes your responsibility to provide the path to better health through means that are, in themselves, attractive to the average citizen.

Thus while I (and the heads of other colleges and universities) speak of the necessity for outreach and greater service to our respective states and communities, we are not excluding you. Indeed, your opportunities for service are perhaps greater than those in most other parts of academia. Every citizen has a concern for his or her own health and well being; without health, the desires for more knowledge, for cultural advancement, and even for material things will rarely be of great concern. I am tempted to ask each of you to "go forth and sell." For you have one of the world's most salable products, the key to good health, and therefore one of the keys to happiness. The magnitude of your potential service is bounded only by the limits of your imagination and the strength of your persuasion.

This nation is pouring billions of dollars into medicine—mostly for achieving cures of existing ailments. You men and women in physical education are worthy of similar national attention—for preserving health, for reducing the workload of hospitals and medical personnel, and for providing expert therapy in programs of physical recuperation.

Too often we think of physical education as a tiresome and boring series of exercises. But now, thanks to you, there is a new emphasis on lifetime sports—activities that bring pleasure as well as physical conditioning through most of our adult lives.

A second problem facing higher education today—a problem also facing government and business and other segments of our national life—is the problem of public confidence. Some of the opinion polls indicate that confidence in higher education is rising from its low point of the late 1960s and 1970. But the rise is slow. You ask what you should be doing to help restore that public confidence. My answers are not dramatic. I can say only that you must do your traditional thing, teaching students, better than you have ever done it before, and you must take your services out to your communities to an ever-increasing extent. The university's first line of public relations is and always will be the student. If you are doing a good job, one on one, with the student who comes to your classroom or to your playing field, you are at the same time preparing a public ambassador for your institution.

It seems to me that those of you who are in health, physical education, and recreation are in especially favorable positions to create a good image for your institutions. Students at the University of Kansas have volunteered by the

hundreds to go back to their home communities and high schools and talk about the University. They want, of course, to talk about their good experiences, things they have learned, things they have done, and instructors they have come to know and admire in their search for productive, confident, and satisfying adult lives. Certainly very few, if any, parts of the faculty can have the direct and positive teaching experiences that most of you are having every day. Perhaps advice is worth only what you pay for it—and this is free. But if you are serious in wanting to help your institutions in these critical times, I must advise you to take advantage of your unique teaching opportunities. Take advantage of them to give your students the greatest learning experience of which you are capable. Superior service to your students is surely your best way to provide superior service to your institution.

Your classrooms and demonstration courts should be filled with excitement. Your intramural athletic programs offer opportunities for effective involvement that simply are not available to those of us who work only with books and lectures and laboratories.

Your graduates will be long-term representatives of your institutions in the communities of America. You have in your hands the answer to the question of what kind of representative that graduate will be. It is your responsibility to instill a sense of professionalism and an orientation of public service.

Although great progress has been made toward modernizing, redefining, and professionalizing the entire field of physical education, there remain some vestiges of the old throw-out-the-ball system. You men and women who are here today, you who have enough interest in professionalism to give up this holiday time, must take responsibility for pulling your lagging colleagues into the 1970s.

Public suspicion that most of us have permitted undergraduate education to deteriorate is at the base of some of our other problems. I hope that in the months ahead all of us can express at every opportunity, in both words and deeds, our concern for the personal welfare of our students and for their complete development. Our students must have an education that enriches the life-long process of growth and self-renewal and places a premium on self-sufficiency and intellectual independence.

In the years ahead, the individualization and personalization of teaching and learning and of university life will become increasingly important as a wider array of students come to the university, as student goals and purposes change and become more varied, and as the university reaches out into the larger community to a heretofore largely neglected constituency through continuing and adult education programs of various kinds. College attendance patterns are changing dramatically as students show an increasing propensity for stopping out, for personalizing their programs of study, and for nontraditional and unorthodox learning. Persons of all ages are returning to campuses to renew their learning experiences or to embark upon completely new lines of interest. For example, both the Retired Teachers Association and the American Association of Retired Persons are placing major emphasis upon opportunities for continued education. Certainly those of you who are trained in the fields of health and leisure-time activities can be of great service to this continuously growing group of retired persons who seek further education.

The colleges and universities that respond most effectively to all of these new conditions, those that will be able to maintain and improve educational opportunity and quality during this period of change, will be the institutions

that are strongly student oriented, that provide stimulating and challenging educational experiences for a wide variety of students, and that show an abiding concern for the individual student's total development.

The Carnegie Commission, in a recent report, says that higher education in the United States is experiencing its greatest financial crisis. Earl Cheit of the Ford Foundation describes the present condition in the funding of higher education as a depression. Whatever the euphemism, the scarcity of dollars is very real and personal for faculty and others who have seen their economic status deteriorate as salary increases and fringe benefits have lagged behind inflation and the rising costs of living. What happens in the future is largely dependent upon public attitudes toward higher education and whether or not the people of our states and nation believe colleges and universities are important to the achievement of goals and values they hold dear.

The severity of the financial crunch must be fully appreciated in all quarters because, as the Carnegie Commission has noted, "For many institutions survival is at stake; for all, a confrontation with public support already exists."

Finally, let me say that we must continue wholeheartedly the important work that has been started on our various campuses in expanding opportunities for women and members of minority groups at all levels of our colleges and universities. We must encourage programs for attracting women and minority persons into new fields of opportunity. (At the University of Kansas this year, for example, we are requesting \$56,000 for women's intercollegiate athletics. The Kansas Board of Regents has approved the request and we are expecting favorable action from the governor and the legislature.)

We must be concerned about the structure and quality of opportunities for all those who spend time with us, whether faculty, students, or supporting personnel. Every person should have opportunity for satisfaction and self-fulfillment, opportunity to develop talents and abilities and for subsequent advancement based on that development. We must do these things not so much because of any legal obligation we have to do them, but because they strike at the heart of the commitment we have for moral leadership in our society.

While I am dead serious about the need for and the rightness of affirmative action, I cannot resist the temptation to tell one story. It's about the affirmative action officer who was interviewing a department chairman in connection with an employment analysis. He first asked the chairman, "How many faculty members do you have in this department?" And the chairman answered, "35." Then the affirmative action officer asked, "Now I'd like to know, how many do you have, broken down by sex?" The department chairman answered, "Not very many. Liquor is a bigger problem with us."

And perhaps that's a good note—a question of health—on which to terminate these remarks.

Let me thank you again for inviting me to be with you today. Let me thank you for the good work you are doing. And let me ask you, for the sake of all higher education, to go forth and be good salesmen for the way to good health.

ADMINISTRATIVE TECHNIQUES FOR MAXIMIZING ENROLLMENT AND IMPLEMENTING AN ELECTIVE PHYSICAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES PROGRAM

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The role of institutions of higher education in directing the education of students has changed from one of omniscient appraisal and understanding of student interests and needs to one of receptiveness to and facilitating of student requests. While the implementation of student-oriented curricula is influenced by an expansion of knowledge in the various arts and sciences and degree requirements have diminished over time, the identification and selection of alternatives, and hence value judgments, may be influenced by appropriate data and their interpretation. Physical education, by its own choosing in some institutions and by dictate in others, is now competing in the academic market as a discipline worthy of study and investigation by students with a wide variety of personal interests and professional needs.

The following discussion is not concerned with the relative value judgments to be made as a result of physical education being placed on the open market and its functioning as an elective in higher education but rather with selected procedural considerations and factors that could result in a positive response on the part of students toward an elective physical education program. Specifically this discussion is concerned with techniques for maximizing enrollment in a physical education activities program.

As a precursor to this discussion, it is understood that selected institutions may choose not to increase enrollment in their activities program beyond an established head count, instructional units, and/or number of course offerings. At a time when many institutions of higher education are functioning in a rather depressed economic environment, faculty and funds may have to be dispersed for a variety of educational functions and necessitate the establishment of a program priority. Some departments of physical education will undoubtedly choose to put a ceiling on the number of courses and curtail faculty involvement in the activities program. If this course quota is achieved, it may very well be that students desiring to participate in the elective program may not do so due to imposed limitations that reflect academic priorities. This situation is not thought to be prevalent throughout the country, however, as most institutions have the capacity and are willing to expand their activities program to accommodate needs and demands as reflected in student course requests.

For those institutions that have the capacity and inclination to generate faculty and funds to accommodate the needs and interests of students, consideration may be given to the following variables as a means of maximizing

enrollment in the activities program. For purposes of discussion, the points for consideration have been categorized as follows: course considerations, program operation, utilization of facilities, personnel involvement, and administrative techniques.

COURSE CONSIDERATIONS

1. *Increase the number of courses.* The elimination of a required program and the implementation of an elective one will necessitate a review of those courses which tend to be popular in the geographic area of the university in general and with the students attending the university in particular. It is recommended that a survey be conducted of those courses that students would like to have in the program and if such is done, open-ended responses should be encouraged so that students might identify courses that program directors might not include among possible course offerings. If students pre-register, careful consideration and thought should be given to student course request reports wherein pre-registration data will provide a basis for decision-making with regard to courses, time of day, day of week, number of weeks, and time during the semester when courses are offered.

2. *Advanced levels of instruction.* While an expansion of the number of course offerings will accommodate a wide variety of interests, it is also necessary to consider offering advanced levels (intermediate and advanced) of existing courses to facilitate an in-depth understanding and/or advanced skill level on the part of the students. Frequently physical education activity programs for a variety of reasons are limited in their capacity to bring about even a minimum level of understanding and skill to their students. What is needed, if future participation is a viable objective, is a continuation of instruction so that students might achieve a higher degree of competency. Intermediate and advanced courses are to be encouraged in such classes as tennis, golf, swimming, handball, squash, and bowling.

3. *Identification of popular courses.* Pre- and post-registration data will indicate the popular courses, and for those departments desiring to increase enrollment, it is of course necessary to be sensitive to the interests of students. In addition to simply identifying those courses that have special appeal, consideration should be given to the time of day popular courses are offered and whether they are coeducational. Some courses are selected not because of content but because of the day or time they are offered. Being sensitive to all factors affecting the selection of a course may facilitate scheduling and increased enrollments.

4. *Revision and updating of courses.* Perhaps one of the most important variables to consider when changing from a required to an elective program is the need for revising and updating courses which have become antiquated because of the requirement. Frequently departments are guilty of giving too little attention to course content and teaching techniques because the requirement tends to be insensitive to current trends and relevancy. With the advent of elective programs, it is essential that courses be revised and contemporary material be reflected in course descriptions and content.

5. *Variable credit for courses.* The offering of courses under variable credit (i.e., one, two, and three hours credit) may also positively influence enrollment patterns. It is possible, through course restructuring, to offer the same course for one, two, or three hours credit by varying the content to be covered in the course. In those institutions where the availability of faculty is limited, this

procedure is recommended in lieu of an expansion of the number of courses and the offering of advanced levels of instruction. While the offering of variable credit for the same course will not increase head count, it is a means of increasing the instructional units of a particular course. Advanced levels of instruction, special projects, increased participation, field exploration, laboratory assignments, etc., are procedures whereby variable credit may be requested and evaluated.

6. *Independent study projects.* The utilization of independent study in the physical education activities program, while not unique, offers students an opportunity to investigate specific areas of physical education and activity where, on the basis of numbers, specific courses could not be offered because of not meeting department and/or institutional enrollment quotas. Such courses may be offered under the aegis of a university-wide course number wherein independent study is permitted assuming an appropriate proposal has been initiated by the student and a faculty member is willing to direct the investigation. The inculcation of this type of course will not generate a large number of students, but over an extended period of time will account for a number of students who would not otherwise benefit from the expertise of the faculty and enjoy independent study in physical education.

7. *Multiple grading plans.* Those departments desiring an increase in enrollment in the activities program should also consider having a variety of grading plans wherein some students may register for courses under the traditional letter grade (A, B, C, D), under a pass-fail plan, a zero credit alternative, or a satisfactory-unsatisfactory schema. In those institutions where the grade in physical education is reflected in the undergraduate grade point average, some students may be reluctant to take courses in which they have an interest, because their grade might adversely affect their academic standing. The availability of alternative grading plans is seen as a means of accommodating the interests and needs of students—at the same time, on one end of the continuum, encouraging the student attracted by the knowledge and skill to be acquired and, on the opposite end of the continuum, not inhibiting those students who tend to be grade oriented.

PROGRAM OPERATION

1. *Time of day.* Judicious scheduling of courses at particular times of the day may contribute to increased enrollment. As was indicated earlier, special consideration of the student course request report over a two- or three-semester period may provide an adequate indication as to the times of day that courses are selected. A review of timetable materials as to when other disciplines offer courses may also provide a basis for scheduling an elective physical education program. Where only limited faculty may be provided for the activity program, careful scheduling so as not to conflict with popular courses in other disciplines is to be encouraged. Experimenting with hours other than those thought to be popular may also yield a positive student response.

2. *Days of the week.* Certain days may be appropriate for selected activity classes while others may generate no student requests for the same activity offered at the same hour. This may be due to scheduling conflicts arising from other disciplines' schedules.

3. *Weeks during a term.* Another innovation to consider is the offering of courses (even the same course) in different "time capsules." The offering of

courses of six, eight, ten, twelve, and fifteen weeks may meet the interests and needs of students who are subject to a variety of educational and vocational constraints. Student preference on the frequency and intensity of activity may dictate the length of many course offerings. Learning spaced over an entire semester may be appropriate for some students, while others, because of demands placed upon them by part-time jobs and class assignments (term papers, laboratory experiments, production assignments, etc.), may select courses because they meet for the first eight or ten weeks of the semester. If courses are offered only for the full semester, students may choose not to select the course because of potential conflicts. It is not suggested that the quality and content of the course be varied to meet the extrinsic needs of students, since those courses that meet for fewer weeks will meet more frequently during the period. It is also recognized that the nature of the skill to be learned will also influence the length of the course.

4. *Coincide courses with university vacations.* Consideration should be given to the scheduling of classes whose beginning or ending will coincide with established university vacations. Frequently students become disenchanted with their participation and learning in physical education because of the interruptions due to university vacations, academic holidays, etc. Consideration of and compliance with university calendars may alleviate some student disenchantment and result in more efficient and effective learning on the part of the students.

5. *Variable hours.* In a manner and pattern similar to the time capsules, the offering of courses in one-, two-, three-, and four-hour blocks may prove to be attractive to students who could or would not otherwise take an activity class. Some students may not be in a position, because of academic and other responsibilities, to take a course that meets three times per week but could take the same course if it were offered one day per week during a two-, three-, or four-hour period. In some courses, such as equitation, skin and scuba diving, snow skiing, and orienteering, highly intensified sessions may be a prerequisite to learning and offering the course.

6. *Weekend and intersessions.* The offering of courses on weekends and during intersessions (vacations, between semesters, and prior to and at the end of regular terms) may prove to be attractive to students and increase enrollment. Weekend excursions that involve skiing, skin and scuba diving, orienteering, hiking, etc., may not only prove to be the only means of successfully completing course requirements but may also prove to be most popular with students simply because of the time commitment. While the scheduling of faculty in these sessions may prove difficult, students tend to be most receptive to this type of scheduling arrangement.

UTILIZATION OF FACILITIES

1. *Use of auxiliary campus facilities.* The utilization of campus facilities that were not used during a required program may be very conducive to increasing enrollment in an elective program. The identification of fields and courts immediately adjacent to large dormitories or housing units may facilitate increased enrollment. The scheduling of these areas at 8 a.m. and 11 a.m. and 12 noon and 4 p.m. may increase enrollments in certain courses, since students may take a physical education course at a facility that is in or near their dorm, i.e., a

weight training room or dance area, prior to leaving the residence area for classes in the morning, upon their return for lunch, prior to leaving for afternoon classes, or upon their return for dinner. Scheduling classes in which students must go to a facility some distance from their living quarters in the middle of the day or the first/last period in the morning, afternoon, or evening may discourage their participation in the activity. While it is recognized that the facility in or around the housing unit may not be the most desirable, when working with an elective program certain considerations must be given to the accessibility of facilities and the mobility of students.

2. *Utilization of community facilities and resources.* Consideration should be given to the utilization of community resources, especially with regard to offering new and different courses. Under a required program, for example, bowling may be offered only at certain times even though the requests for bowling exceed the availability of the facility. In order to accommodate the interests of students who want additional bowling sections but are unable to register for courses because of imposed limitations on campus facilities, departments should consider the use of community bowling alleys at convenient times for the students.

It is important that departments recognize the change in demands for certain types of facilities under an elective program as opposed to those that were being utilized under a required program. Typically, field space and gymnasiums were under extensive use in a required program because they tended to accommodate large numbers of students. Those facilities used in an elective program tend to be those not associated with team or large group instruction. Since requests for physical education space may be altered, departments should establish new space and facility priorities. Keeping capital requests current may also contribute significantly to future programming.

PERSONNEL INVOLVEMENT

1. *Selection of personnel.* The single most important variable in the establishment of an effective elective program may be the identification and selection of personnel to teach in the program. It is imperative that teachers be selected who have both the technical competency to teach the course content and an interest in teaching physical activity to young people. Occasionally during required programs, graduate teaching assistants and faculty, both having had other interests and motives, were teaching students in a manner known to be both inefficient and ineffective. Much of the student disenchantment associated with required programs emanated from such instruction. Identifying faculty who have as their primary responsibility the instruction of knowledges and skills to nonmajors will greatly enhance the quality of the program and the student's acceptance and enjoyment of the courses.

2. *Identify faculty who have some experience in teaching physical activities.* It is imperative that quality instruction, not entertainment, take place in an elective program. While students will take certain courses because they like to participate, they will and should demand that quality instruction be provided and learning accrue. Young faculty also should be assigned to teach in this program, since students tend to relate to their peers and contemporaries. While much philosophical debate could center upon the age consideration as a means of facilitating enrollment and the related competency and contemporary issues, the involvement of young faculty as a practical matter should be given strong consideration.

3. *Re-tooling of faculty.* The effective implementation of an elective program may necessitate the re-tooling of faculty who have limited skills and knowledges in those activities requested by the students. With the current tenure situation and lack of funds, it is necessary that faculty acknowledge their limitations and recognize the need for developing new competencies in those courses which students request. It is not enough to acknowledge the inadequacy, as some faculty do; faculty must also be willing to learn new activities and teach them, with perhaps only a modicum of success during the first year or two. The department administration must be sensitive to the apprehensiveness with which faculty will enter into such a situation and provide encouragement and the necessary administrative considerations (i.e., released time, sabbaticals, equipment, reduced teaching schedules, and perhaps less-than-excellent student ratings) in order to encourage faculty to re-tool and acquire new skills.

4. *Conduct faculty workshops.* In conjunction with the re-tooling concept, the conducting of workshops prior to, during, and at the end of regular terms is to be encouraged because faculty who work together in acquiring new skills may be much more receptive to the idea of re-tooling. If an individual faculty member feels he or she is the only one who needs to learn new skills, it may be difficult to implement the retraining process. On the other hand, if all faculty are required to attend a variety of re-tooling workshops, a recognition that the entire department is giving emphasis and credence to the importance of the activity program will be established.

5. *Utilization of para-professionals.* In addition to the acquisition of new skills and understandings by members of the faculty, utilization of para-professionals by the department should also receive serious consideration. Invariably there are highly skilled para-professionals in the community who could contribute significantly to the instructional program. Frequently these para-professionals do not have college degrees and cannot be placed on the faculty because of funding restrictions, tenure laws, etc., but may otherwise be employed on a semester-to-semester basis and contribute significantly to the physical education activities program. These people are capable of providing quality instruction and the students tend to be very receptive to the teaching of para-professionals who frequently perform the activity in a nonacademic setting.

6. *Auxiliary personnel.* The implementation of an elective program will also affect ancillary personnel, such as service desk attendants and equipment and field supervisors. A discussion with these people on the positive aspects of an elective program and the importance of the availability of equipment and facilities, the condition of same, and their responsiveness to student questions and requests will contribute significantly to an elective program. Those institutions who were operating a required program all too often gave little consideration to the appropriate use of certain facilities and equipment and the treatment of students by service personnel because they knew the students were required to take courses. A change in orientation may be necessary during the conducting of an elective program as the attitude of service personnel and the timely and appropriate use and condition of the equipment will have an impact on the effectiveness of the program.

7. *Open communications.* It is essential in the operation of an elective program that an open communications pattern be established. Students and faculty must be able to communicate in an environment of flexibility and acquiescence. Clerical staff must be more receptive to student inquiry and faculty requests. Intolerance of suggestion and criticism will not contribute to an

effective and efficient elective program. While it is not recommended that the faculty and clerical staff acquiesce to every demand and suggestion that students make, it is important that they recognize the promise that student suggestions hold for an elective program. It is imperative that the faculty and clerical staff be sensitive to student requests and suggestions and careful consideration be given to their implementation.

ADMINISTRATIVE TECHNIQUES

1. *Development of interdisciplinary relationships.* The value that other disciplines have as a means of increasing the perspective of physical education in students of higher education should not go unnoticed. Identifying and illustrating relationships wherein physical education may contribute to the future professional pursuits of students in other disciplines may provide a basis for the development of immediate and long-range interdisciplinary relationships. Indicative, but not definitive, of the relationships that might be established and contribute to the effectiveness of an elective program are the following examples.

The human body, and the body in motion, has historically been a subject of widespread interest to students of sculpture and the canvas. Via the media of modern dance and basic movement, voice and theater students develop an awareness of the body relative to time and space. Body awareness, with emphasis on spatial perception and visual acuity, is further recognized for students of aviation and ornithology as having pertinency to their programs of study. Such interrelatedness suggests problem-oriented tasks in addition to activity-oriented approaches.

Support for course offerings related to the human body as a functioning organism is perpetuated by students of physiology, anthropology, and child development. Courses in neuromuscular relaxation, physiology of exercise, and physical fitness merely represent a superficial identity of examples. Home economists give credence to the compatibility of courses in conditioning, weight training, and figure control to the study of diet and nutrition. The kinship of physical education between and among recreation, dance, health, and related allied disciplines has long been recognized.

Courses denoting specific sports activities, too, serve to enhance various areas of study. Forestry students will relate to canoeing and water activities as enriching tools. Skin and scuba diving will offer breadth to potential geologists, biologists, and researchers of marine life. Students of earth science, geography, and engineering might identify with courses in orienteering. Theater students have consistently related to fencing as being germane to their area of study. Students engaging in business education may identify with those activities having leisure and prestigious connotations. Golf and tennis are two such examples that perpetuate socialization in business and professional circles.

Discipline interrelatedness extends itself beyond the point of identifying singular course offerings. Students of the hard disciplines may employ their respective discipline as the tool for the study of physical education. Historians, sociologists, psychologists, and philosophers have identified with various aspects of sport and play.

2. *Publicize program and operational aspects.* The extensive utilization of bulletin boards and brochures advertising specific courses, faculty, and students may do much to increase awareness and sensitivity to the program and certain courses. The assignment of faculty to fulfill these responsibilities and/or perhaps the undergraduate major club organizations will do much to enhance the potential for student enrollment. Frequently the promotional aspects of physical education were neglected when departments operated required programs, and while an effort to increase program awareness should not take on a carnival approach, departments need to be sensitive to the need for acquainting students with the program and the benefits to be derived from appropriate course selection and involvement.

Such communications media as feature articles in school newspapers, participation of faculty and students in radio programs, and campus TV coverage of classes and courses may also do much to promote an awareness of students relative to program offerings.

3. *Providing data to students.* Having a planned program whereby physical education faculty inform students as to the availability and nature of courses prior to pre-registration and registration may also enhance an elective program. Faculty cognizant of course offerings six to eight weeks in advance may, at the appropriate time during pre-registration, encourage students to participate in new and different activities. Having faculty who are knowledgeable of credit given by the various undergraduate colleges and policy on grades received in physical education counting toward graduation and in the grade point average will also aid in the effective operation of the program.

It is essential that all faculty who teach in the program, as well as clerical administrative staff, have a thorough understanding of the operational aspects of the program. Having the capacity to answer questions about the program accurately will add measurably to its potential as an educating agent. Faculty who do not know and understand the program or who provide a variety of responses to the same question will only discourage students from program participation.

4. *Utilization of equipment.* The establishment of policies and procedures whereby equipment may be rented, purchased, and/or loaned may also contribute significantly to the number of students who will participate in the program. Where physical education operated a required program, departments of physical education could provide only the minimum of equipment and require that students purchase any additional equipment thought necessary. Cost considerations will have a direct bearing on the number of students enrolling in an elective physical education program. In those activities where the cost of equipment is rather prohibitive, enrollment may be expected to be low. Whereas if the same equipment could be provided by the department of physical education on a rental or loan basis, enrollment might be expected to be high. Student interest and course registration may be not a reflection of the student's desire to learn the activity but rather a function of cost considerations.

While the aforementioned variables should receive consideration and may, individually and collectively, contribute to an increased enrollment in the elective program, it should be emphasized that administrative techniques in and of themselves do not provide a sound basis for program justification and operation. A program should not be evaluated solely on the basis of its qualitative contribution (number of students registered). A quality program will

generate student interest and participation. The application of administrative techniques will not ameliorate an inadequate program. It is, however, thought that the application and consideration of the aforementioned variables will facilitate the implementation of an elective program and contribute to the qualitative aspects of its operation.

UNIVERSITY BASIC INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM: A NEW APPROACH

ANTHONY A. ANNARINO
Purdue University

Is yesterday's physical education being taught today? Are traditional teaching-learning concepts still being used for a changing world? Are the needs and interests of university students in our contemporary society being met in the basic instructional programs? Should there be change? If so, how, where, why, and in what direction?

In 1972, the Department of Physical Education for Men of Purdue University critically examined and evaluated its basic instructional program for the purpose of seeking answers to these questions.

The basic instructional program was an elective program with an average semester enrollment of 700 undergraduate and graduate students. The course offerings emphasized lifetime sport skill development in archery, badminton, golf, tennis, squash, handball, and all levels of aquatics. Instruction was provided by full-time faculty (all ranks) and graduate assistants. Four to seven class sections, with two activities in each section, were scheduled each semester and the summer session. Each section met fifty minutes a day, three days a week, for sixteen weeks. One hour of credit was given. The class sections were distributed throughout the school day and multiple sections were scheduled in the same time blocks.

The facilities shared by the basic instructional and professional preparation programs included:

1. One large gymnasium with five teaching stations.
2. Three squash courts.
3. Exercise room.
4. Wrestling room.
5. A tartan-surfaced fieldhouse with multiple teaching stations and track facilities.
6. Gymnastics area.
7. Indoor and outdoor archery ranges.
8. Indoor and outdoor golf practice areas with two 18-hole golf courses.
9. Twelve all-weather surfaced tennis courts.
10. Extensive field areas.

All students had unlimited access to additional recreational facilities including the co-recreational gymnasium. However, these facilities were not used for instructional purposes.

With this information, the following propositions were formulated:

1. A teaching-learning environment can be structured and still permit freedom of choice by the student.
2. A student should be permitted to progress in development at his own rate.
3. An opportunity should be provided to each student for broader or in-depth development.
4. There should be maximum utilization of instructional resources and personnel.
5. Learning should not be restricted to a regularly scheduled class period.
6. The time for learning a motor skill is not the same for all students.
7. Students enroll in activity classes with varying levels of skill proficiency.
8. Levels of accomplishment can be determined by the student.

These propositions served as guidelines for modifying the total program. The modifications were made in redesigning some existing facilities, changing instructional procedures, and establishing a learning resource laboratory.

The implementation of these modifications involved the following procedures:

1. Developing a tri-level (minimal through maximal) set of behavioral competencies for all the activities.
2. Designing an individualized instructional packet for each activity. Each packet would consist of a systematic and progressive series of skill assignments (psychomotor learnings) and problems requiring written, verbal, and motor responses by the students (cognitive learnings).
3. Reviewing and selecting texts, materials, films, film loops, filmstrips, charts, and posters to correlate with the individualized instructional packets.
4. Designing, developing, and equipping a learning resource laboratory. An equipment room (15' x 30') adjacent to the gymnasium was converted for this purpose. It was designed for the use of hardware and software to supplement instruction in all the activity classes. The laboratory was subdivided into viewing areas, listening areas, and resource materials areas.
5. Pooling of all department hardware and software.
6. Selecting and purchasing additional hardware and software.
7. Developing a learning flow or systems analysis procedure whereby the student could regulate or control his own learning with instructor guidance.

The summer of 1973 was devoted to in-service training of staff, program design, development of course materials, determination of organizational and instructional procedures, and designing and outfitting the learning resource laboratory.

Commercial individualized instructional books were adopted for archery, golf, tennis, and badminton classes.¹ Individualized materials were developed for conditioning, tumbling, apparatus, wrestling, volleyball, soccer, aquatics, basketball, and trampolining.

The learning resource laboratory was equipped with the following hardware and software:

1. Two portable video cameras and recorders.
2. One permanent TV monitor and one battery-operated portable TV monitor.

3. Four cartridge super 8 projectors with viewers.
4. One filmstrip projector.
5. One filmstrip projector with record player.
6. One 8 mm. loop film movie projector.
7. One 16 mm. film projector.
8. Two cassette recorders.
9. One Carousel slide projector.
10. Complete sets of cartridge loop films for archery, golf, badminton, gymnastics, basketball, wrestling, conditioning, track and field, aquatics, soccer, bowling, and volleyball.
11. Filmstrips and records for golf, tennis, archery, gymnastics, and squash.
12. 8 mm. loop films for track and field, soccer, and golf.
13. Video tapes of the Olympics, soccer matches, wrestling matches, swimming meets, and rugby matches.
14. Reading materials, posters, charts, and diagrams for all activities.

The new basic instructional program was initiated in the fall semester 1973 for the lifetime sport courses and gymnastics.

These same procedures, with some additions, were adopted for the professional preparation activity courses. The addition of teaching by contracting and microteaching not only provided a systems analysis approach to learning skill and knowledges but educated future physical educators in other methods of teaching physical education.

The following model for the tennis, badminton, squash, and handball course was used for the other lifetime sport offerings.

COURSE: TENNIS, BADMINTON, SQUASH, AND HANDBALL

Class Meetings: Monday, Wednesday, Friday, 9:30-10:20 a.m.

Texts: Annarino, A.A., *Individualized Instructional Program: Tennis, Badminton.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Enrollment: 24 undergraduate and graduate students.

Implementation Procedures:

1. Program orientation.
2. The student completed the written and skill tennis packet pretests.
3. The skill pretest scores were used to divide the class into two homogeneous, equal-numbered groups—A and B.
4. Monday: Group A met in the gymnasium and group B met at the tennis courts.
Wednesday: Groups A and B switched activity areas.
Friday: Optional. The student selected either the gymnasium or courts. The gymnasium provided skill practice areas, access to the learning resource laboratory, and instructor assistance and/or evaluation.
5. Minimal competencies for each packet lesson were designated by the instructor. The competencies included both individual and partner skill assignments. The minimal competencies provided the student with a degree of skill proficiency and knowledge that enabled him to play and enjoy tennis.
6. The student followed the sequential procedures outlined in the IIP (individualized instructional packet).

7. The student used the various media for viewing skill demonstrations. Resource materials were available for completing the written assignments. Video tape replay was used daily either by student request or for the instructor to provide a reinforcement analysis. The learning resource laboratory and practice areas were available to the student at all times. Therefore, assignments could be completed outside of regularly scheduled class periods.
8. When a student completed the written assignments and minimal skill competencies he was evaluated by the instructor and given a skill grade for that lesson. If he achieved C or better, he would proceed to the next lesson. If not, additional practice in that lesson was recommended.
9. At the completion of the minimal skill competencies and written assignments for the IIP, the student was administered a comprehensive written tennis knowledge test. His skill grade was determined by the cumulative, averaged lesson grades and a final skill test.
10. The student was given the option of working toward a higher competency level in any or all of the tennis skills or of electing to start another activity IIP.

These procedures and options permitted the student to regulate and control his own learning with instructor evaluation and guidance.

Tennis, Badminton, Squash

Friday, November 2, 1973

Complete final written and skill tennis tests.

Badminton and Squash Activities

Text: Annarino, A.A., *Individualized Instructional Program: Badminton.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Assignments: By Monday November 5, 1973:

Read: *Badminton*—Part One—pp. 1-7

Part Two—pp. 8-10

Monday—Complete the *Badminton* written and skill pretests.

Wednesday, November 7—Complete the *Badminton* pre-program independent written assignments, pp. 18-22. Start lesson one.

Badminton lesson skills:

Lesson one	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14
Lesson two	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, 11, 12
Lesson three	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 15, 24
Lesson four	1, 2, 3, 4, 9, 10, 15, 16
Lesson five	1, 2
Lesson six	1, 2
Lesson seven	1, 2
Lesson eight	1, 2, 3, 4
Lesson nine	1, 2, 4, 5
Lesson ten	1, 2, 5, 7, 9, 10
Lesson eleven	1, 2, 3
Lesson twelve	1, 2, 3

Tennis, Badminton, and Squash

These are the minimal skills to be completed for each lesson in your Tennis IIP plus all written assignments:

- Lesson One
1-2-3-4-5-6-13-16
- Lesson Two
1-2-3-4-5-6-13-16
- Lesson Three
3-7
- Lesson Four
1-2-3-4-5-6-7
- Lesson Five
1-2-3-4-9
- Lesson Six
1-2-4-5-6
- Lesson Seven
1-2
- Lesson Eight
1-2
- Lesson Nine
1 through 8—one trial
2—one set
- Lesson Ten
1 through 4—one trial
2—one set

After completing these minimal skills, if time permits, you may complete the remaining skills in any or all lessons. This will be determined by you and instructor evaluation of your weak skill areas.

REFERENCES

1. Anthony A. Annarino, *Individualized Instructional Programs: Archery, Badminton, Golf, Tennis* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973).

LECTURE-LABORATORY PHYSICAL EDUCATION: INNOVATION AND REEVALUATION

CHARLES B. CORBIN
Kansas State University

In 1969¹ this writer presented a basic organizational plan for a lecture-laboratory physical education² course called "Concepts of Physical Education." Results of preliminary evaluations made at that time indicated, among others, the following student concerns about the CONCEPTS course: (1) have smaller labs, (2) have more activity in lab, (3) change test procedures, and

(4) have more lecture-lab coordination. Based on these points and subsequent evaluations several innovations have been made in the CONCEPTS course. These innovations and results of continued student evaluations are the subject of this presentation.

INNOVATIONS

The Seven-Week Course

In many schools a basic physical education course will meet two times a week. Traditionally we have accepted this scheme without asking whether it is best for optimal learning of our subject matter. When we first started the CONCEPTS type program we accepted the traditional scheme, holding lectures on the first class day of the week and holding labs (gym sessions) on the second class day of the same week. Results of evaluations indicating a need for more activity and closer lecture-lab coordination prompted us to rethink the traditional scheme. We ultimately arrived at the seven-week course as one possible time scheme that would better suit the needs of our students. Accordingly students at Kansas State University now enroll for one of two seven-week sessions of CONCEPTS conducted each semester. Lectures meet one day a week and labs twice a week. The students are offered more activity time and because the labs meet two, rather than one, times a week, we find the lab material is easier to coordinate with the lecture material.

Common Exams

A commonly voiced criticism of the early CONCEPTS course was the testing procedure. Students were concerned with the type of written tests that were administered as well as with the validity and reliability of fitness tests that were given during the course. In an effort to improve the written tests a common exam was agreed on. In other words, all sections of CONCEPTS take the same exam at the same hour. Large lecture halls throughout the university are reserved and exams are given on dates that are announced at the beginning of the course. Students are now less inclined to feel that one teacher grades too hard, another too easy, etc. Also a pool of "good" test items has been built up that insures one good test rather than many different not-so-good tests all seeking to select different test items from a rather specific content area. Comments concerning physical fitness tests are discussed in another section of this report.

Laboratory Physical Fitness Tests

The CONCEPTS course has for some time involved considerable physical fitness testing. Our original organization included many tests that were given during gymnasium sessions of the class. One instructor met 25 to 35 students and administered such tests as skinfold tests for predicting body fatness, the step test for cardiovascular, and dynamometer tests for strength. Typically the students found themselves standing around waiting their turn to be tested. In a thirty- to fifty-minute period their only participation was to be tested on a test requiring three to five minutes of their time. Needless to say, this rushed situation did not lend itself to valid and reliable testing.

As part of the new seven-week organization of the CONCEPTS course, which includes a common written exam hour, students must now sign up for a *thirty-minute lab* appointment. Six students report to the Physiology of Exercise Lab each half hour. Regular laboratory staff assisted by CONCEPTS instructors and student helpers conduct the following tests: (1) skinfold tests, (2) dynamometer tests, and (3) Astrand-Ryhmig Bicycle Test. Students are tested on a one-on-one basis by trained technicians. A fitness profile is drawn up for each student. The result is more accurate testing, less waiting, and better test interpretation. Also considerable data concerning the physical fitness of college students are collected.

Proficiency Testing

We, at Kansas State University, have maintained that every student should have knowledge of WHY physical activity is important to him, knowledge of HOW he should go about performing suitable activity, and knowledge of WHAT his own specific activity needs are. The CONCEPTS course is designed principally to help students meet these objectives. Many have suggested that a student entering the university should already have accomplished the above objectives. If the student has met these objectives, he should be exempt: if not, he should take the course. To determine who has already met course objectives a proficiency exam is needed.

A proficiency or "quiz out" exam is offered on the first Saturday after the first week of classes every semester. Students who score 70 or better automatically receive credit for the course. These students are required to schedule a thirty-minute lab appointment as discussed above.

No Grade

How often have you heard "exercise is for everybody" or "you don't have to be a great athlete to be fit for a lifetime." In spite of these statements, grading procedures are often based on a different philosophy. In some cases students are given grades based on physical fitness scores and skill proficiency. Certainly one of the purposes of the CONCEPTS course is to promote physical fitness. However, the class is not designed to get people fit but to help people solve their own problems so that they may accomplish fitness for a lifetime. To base grades on fitness status is inconsistent with this philosophy.

Accordingly the CONCEPTS course is a credit-no credit offering. Students must take physical fitness tests but only for their own information. A notebook is kept and, as mentioned above, written exams are taken. Attendance in the lab portion of the class is also considered in determining whether the student earns credit for the class. Every student, regardless of current physical status, has an opportunity to do well and to accomplish the class objectives without confronting a "this-isn't-for-me" attitude. It is hoped all students can meet the course objectives.

Inservice Seminars

Obviously inservice education is not something that could be considered innovative. Most of us have been using this technique for years. However, with the CONCEPTS course it seems essential, especially if graduate teaching

assistants are to be relied on for instruction. Recently we have developed new materials for use in CONCEPTS including, (1) a special instructor's manual for our specific situation, (2) a special notebook envelope for use by students in submitting lab reports, and (3) a class outline to be handed out to all students on the first class day. Inservice sessions include a discussion of these materials, a discussion of methods by which instructors can convey an enthusiasm for the course, and a discussion of methods of increasing physical activity during lab sessions. These techniques have resulted in a considerable improvement in ratings of lab instructors. The inservice program has also greatly improved lecture-laboratory coordination.

Concepts for Everyone

After consultation with physicians at the University Health Service, a special medical examination form has been developed. No student is exempted from the CONCEPTS class for medical reasons. All students attend lecture and based on the doctor's recommendation, the student's participation in lab is classified as one of the following: (a) absolutely no physical activity, (b) no vigorous activity, (c) activity to be at discretion of the student, (d) other. Those with extreme limitations attend but do not participate in the active portions of the lab classes. In addition, a special adapted physical education program is available for special students.

A REEVALUATION

The evaluation of the CONCEPTS program has been and is continuous. In the 1969 report to this group we reported the results of student evaluations of the CONCEPTS course. On the basis of these results we concluded that the "program has, in our opinion, been successful. The majority of students respect the program and see its value."³ Our reevaluation has done nothing to alter this basic conclusion. The reevaluation has, however, led to the program innovations outlined earlier in this presentation.

Results of evaluations made since the implementation of the program innovations have revealed some rather interesting information. These results are presented below. No attempt has been made to discuss all innovations and evaluation results but rather some of the more interesting and meaningful findings are presented.

1. Ratings for the course continue to be above average when compared to the all-university ratings for classes of similar size and type.
2. Of all CONCEPTS experiences, the thirty-minute laboratory testing session consistently receives the highest ratings.
3. Ratings for laboratory (gymnasium sessions) instructors have improved as inservice training has become more developed.
4. The enthusiasm of the instructor still seems to be a key to the success of the entire program, especially for the lab (gymnasium) section of the course.
5. Students frequently indicate that information learned in the course is useful in persuading their parents of the need for physical activity as part of their regular lifestyle. To many, this is one of the major values of the course.

6. Interviews with students during semesters after the completion of the course indicate that their retrospective evaluation of the course is improved over the evaluation made while taking the course.
7. Persons with high school athletic experience are likely to rate the course lower than those with no athletic experience, yet former athletes do not pass the proficiency (quiz out) exam in as great a number as those with no athletic experience.
8. Persons attempting and passing the proficiency exam do not have as "good" an attitude about physical activity as those who do not attempt the proficiency exam.
9. Approximately 22 percent of all persons who enroll for CONCEPTS attempt the proficiency exam; of those taking the exam approximately 35 percent pass.

SUMMARY

It is our opinion that the CONCEPTS approach has proven to be a successful and meaningful method of teaching college physical education. However, continued innovation and reevaluation are essential to the continued success of this and, for that matter, all other approaches to college physical education.

REFERENCES

1. Charles B. Corbin, "Lecture-Laboratory Physical Education: Program Organization and Evaluation," in *Proceedings of the 73rd Annual Meeting of the NCPEAM* (1969), pp. 139-142.

2. "Lecture-laboratory physical education" refers to basic physical education classes generally offered to freshmen students designed to convey conceptual information about physical education (lectures) as well as to offer practical physical activity and self-testing experiences (laboratories).

3. Corbin, p. 142.

COROLLARIES TO FREEDOM IN LEARNING: PRE-IMPACT AND IMPACT APPROACH AND RESOURCES

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B. DON FRANKS
Temple University

This paper deals with prerequisites for an individualized competency-based activity program, the nature of the Individualized Learning Laboratory at Temple University, and some comments about the problems and values of this approach to teaching physical activities.

COROLLARIES TO FREEDOM IN LEARNING

We have found that an individualized competency-based program for teaching physical activities was impractical until certain resources were readily available. We are calling these corollaries to freedom in learning.

Accurate Advisement

Complete advisement and counseling of students is essential. It is not reasonable to expect intelligent decisions without adequate and accurate information being readily available. The grapevine system of advising is particularly unsuited in an individualized program where there are few rigid rules and each student can structure a plan for learning which fits his/her own inclinations.

Accessible Staff

The staff must be easily and willingly accessible on a regularly scheduled basis for both advising and the assistance to learning. A competency-based program generates excitement in learning with interaction between enthusiastic staff and eager students. A lack of interaction and/or of interest can result in feelings of alienation and aloneness on the part of both students and staff. The appropriate management of the personal interaction is a particularly vital and sensitive aspect of the competency-based program. It contains potential for being a most valuable ingredient of the program or the reason for its failure.

Extensive Materials

Pertinent, concise, complete, and accurate explanatory and planning materials must be given to the learner. It is imperative that these materials be available before the semester begins so learners can plan their study. Learners are encouraged to use a variety of resources in patterns set by the learner, rather than to depend on patterns set by others. Well-developed materials (e.g., written booklets, loop films, video-tape equipment) increase the possibility of independent learning.

Learner-Oriented Information

The information describing the procedures utilized by the program and the competencies required must be user (learner) oriented. One way of accomplishing this is to organize the information around questions learners must answer in order to plan their learning experiences.

Staff Involved in Continued Development

The staff must be continually involved in clarification of the bases of individualized competency-based learning and development of improved ways of doing it. It is easy to begin making expedient decisions that quickly erode individual student's choices by moving toward a more rigid program. On-going discussion and testing of new ideas against the basic point of view of the program will help keep such a program alive and healthy.

NATURE OF AN INDIVIDUALIZED LEARNING LABORATORY

The corollaries to freedom in learning are aspects of learning that were found to require unexpected amounts of attention when operating a competency-based individualized program at Temple University. The Individualized Learning Laboratory (I.L.L.) was developed and presently operates within the Physical Education Department. The I.L.L. was designed to reward, encourage, and develop self-directed independent learning of physical education activities. It also serves as a way for students to receive credit for activities they have already learned, making it unnecessary for them to participate in courses that would be repetitious.

Activities

The Temple University I.L.L. began operation in September 1971. It offers approximately forty activities each semester. The enrollment averages about 250 students per semester (an average of 2.5 semester hours of credit per student). Students may enroll for from one to four semester hours each semester. It serves students from throughout the University as well as physical education majors.

The Physical Education Department offers a full range of traditional activity courses as well as the I.L.L. activities.

Staff

The Learning Laboratory staff includes a faculty coordinator (1/3 load), two supervisors (one full-time and one half-time graduate assistant), a secretary (who also serves other faculty), and 22 faculty members who receive a part of their load for teaching in the I.L.L. (one load credit for each activity).

Credit

Each activity has three levels: 1) beginner, 2) intermediate, and 3) advanced. Credits are awarded at the rate of one credit for each level of each activity successfully completed (skill and written tests passed). Any test may be taken as many times as necessary to pass. Contract grading is on a credit or incomplete basis. Incompletes are replaced by credit whenever the student passes the tests (that is, any time prior to graduation, at which time all incompletes must be cleared).

Resources

Many learning resources are available to the student through the I.L.L. These include but are not limited to:

Learning packets—Materials, describing the skills needed and sources for learning skill and knowledge, are prepared for each of the three levels of each activity.

Workshops—Staff members specializing in a particular activity conduct three two-hour meetings for an activity. In selected activities, students may choose extended workshops which include twelve meetings per activity.

Loop films—Films and projectors for viewing the films are available for most

activities through the Departmental Instructional Materials Center (IMC)
Video-tape replay—Equipment and technicians to record a student's performance and replay it (perhaps with a loop film of a champion performer) are also available through the IMC.

Practice schedule—At least one gymnasium is scheduled to be available for I.L.L. students from 8:30 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. daily. Pools and other specialized facilities are open for practice on a less regular, but scheduled, basis.

EVALUATION

Problems

Some of the difficulties of an individualized competency-based program are as follows:

Staff time—Resources for the learners must be extensive and of good quality. This calls for a large amount of initial time and energy, as well as continuous revisions.

Student understanding—Students need a thorough understanding of the purposes of the program, as well as the process of getting in and out of it. This requires more initial knowledge about the program than needed in typical class situations.

Isolation and insecurity—Students and staff are likely to experience feelings of aloneness because of lack of regularly scheduled meeting times, class rituals, and fewer personal interactions.

Freedom and procrastination—This much freedom may result in students neglecting their programs with resultant problems as they approach their planned graduation time.

Values

At this time the major values which appear to be attainable through an individualized competency-based program are as follows:

Self responsibility—Students really learn to be responsible for their own learning.

How to learn—Students learn how to use class and non-class resources to learn activities.

Continuous process—Students see learning as a continuing life process and as being purposeful.

Content—What is learned, not how much time is spent, becomes the criterion for learning.

Future Plans

Objective evaluation of the impact of the Individualized Learning Laboratory is now in progress. A questionnaire is being sent to physical education majors who graduated under the previous program (activity classes only) and to those who have graduated under the current program (I.L.L. and classes). The questionnaire determines what activities they know, where these were learned, how secure they feel with their level of ability, and what activities

they have learned or improved since graduation. Field testing of activity ability and knowledge will be conducted on a selected sample of those responding to the questionnaire.

SUMMARY

There are both assets and liabilities associated with an individualized competency-based program. The fact that liabilities exist does not mean that freedom in learning ought to be lessened but that procedures should be used that allow only liabilities inherent in the system and that as many of the values as possible are attained.

THE REACTION OF BLACK ATHLETES TO THE FLAG AND THE NATIONAL ANTHEM AT ATHLETIC CONTESTS

LTC FLOYD McAFEE
United States Army

Physical educators, this is indeed both a pleasure and an honor for me to have the opportunity to participate in this session before such a distinguished group of professionals. Almost a year ago today, I was asked to deliver a paper during the session devoted to "Black Americans and Sports." After due deliberation, I decided to speak on "The Reaction of the Black Athletes to the Flag and the National Anthem at Athletic Contests." The subject satisfied two criteria: first, it was topical; second, it was consistent with the primary objective of the session—to provide an inclusive overview of an integral aspect of sport and leisure.

While the subject of black athletes and "Americana" was of considerable news interest a year ago, little has been written or discussed in the media lately about this topic. Within a few days, however, a black demonstration is (tentatively) scheduled for the Sugar Bowl activities in New Orleans, Louisiana. The demonstrators' stated reason for their planned acts of civil disobedience is the unwillingness of the Sugar Bowl Executive Committee to give local blacks a voice in Sugar Bowl activities and decision-making processes. To date, only a token offer has been made to the dissident blacks—designate six blacks as associate members of the Executive Committee, giving them little or no voice in planning the program. I consider the planned New Orleans activities to be the most overt, current expression of black identity in the American sports area. Because you will be able to follow its development in the news media, I will not attempt to expound on the merits of the planned demonstration. My primary purpose in mentioning the incident is to emphasize that while there seems to be a feeling of serenity within the black community (which is the result of an atmosphere of benign neglect), it is imperative that we as professionals must continue our efforts to develop and sustain a sense of racial harmony within the sports arena.

Therefore, I am holding to my original game plan and will discuss with you my previously selected topic, "The Reaction of Black Athletes to the Flag and the National Anthem at Athletic Contests." With this brief introduction, I would like to pause for a moment to offer three administrative points: (1) I am not a crusading spokesman for black people. While the thoughts you hear from me are my own, I am sharing them with you because, hopefully, some of these ideas will help you in your professional endeavors. Regardless of your opinions of these points, accept them as food for thought. (2) Although I am in the Army, I am not speaking today as a spokesman for the military. Again, the opinions and points I offer are my own and in no way should be construed as representing Army policy. (3) I will refer occasionally during my presentation this morning to two articles that appeared in *JOHPER* during the peak of black dissidence in college sports, "A Balance of Pride" and "A Balance of Pride—A Follow-Up Survey."

Now that the stage has been set, let us examine this very complex topic. I will approach my analysis of the subject by first of all asking a few questions, giving you my short but candid answers and then asking you to keep these questions in mind until the open forum discussion at the end of the session.

First Question: Is it necessary to play the national anthem and raise the flag at athletic contests when this ritual is uncommon and not done at other crowd-gathering events?

Answer: No!

Second Question: If the ritual is performed, is it a requirement for our athletes to be exposed to the undue pressures of setting the patriotic standards for the American public?

Answer: No!

Third Question: Is there any difference between the actions of black and white athletes when this patriotic ritual is performed?

Answer: No!

Fourth Question: Is it necessary to exploit the reactions of only a few black athletes?

Answer: No!

Keep these questions in mind while I briefly attempt to develop an analysis of the main points. The national anthem and the flag are symbols of patriotism. Another question arises, What is patriotism? The dictionary defines patriotism as "the spirit and action of a person who loves his country, zealously supporting and defending it and its interests." John J. Pullen in his book, *Patriotism in America*, defines patriotism as "love of country and readiness to act in its best interest as indicated by individual conscience and judgment." So what can be determined from these two definitions? . . . Patriotism in America is an individual matter. You can do your thing to express your patriotism for the country, and I can do my thing to express my sense of patriotism. I am sure that the practical applications of this theorem were vividly demonstrated during the height and subsequent long de-escalation of the Vietnam war.

Pullen's book is the first truly comprehensive book ever written on the subject of American patriotism. As such, with the exception of draft evasion, etc., patriotism has been a topic that has been relatively unexamined in literature and the public media. I would tender the observation that in many respects patriotism is handled the same way today as racial problems were treated in the 1950s—an ineffectual lack of concern.

Let us next turn to the subject of the black American. I would be the first to observe that much progress has been made in recent years in the area of equitable treatment for all Americans. However, I would also be the first to say that much more progress is needed. The black American is not yet a fully franchised member of American society. The late Jackie Robinson so vividly expressed this fact in his autobiography, *I Never Had It Made*. In one paragraph, Jackie Robinson made a statement that I feel offers an inclusive insight into the plight of black Americans: "Everything I ever got I fought hard for—and my wife Rachel fought by my side—but I know that I haven't got the right to say truthfully that I have it made. I cannot possibly believe I have it made while so many of my Black brothers and sisters are hungry, inadequately housed, insufficiently clothed, denied their dignity as they live in slums or barely exist on Welfare. I cannot say I have it made while some people drive full speed ahead to deeper rifts between men and women of varying colors, speed along a course toward more and more racism."

Jocko Maxwell, in the foreword of his book, *Great Black Athletes*, wrote: "These athletes had to face and overcome the tremendous but customary competitive obstacles any athlete has to face and overcome to be a champion. But they also had to face, and overcome, other more difficult obstacles their competitors do not have to face—the obstacles due to the color of their skin."

Turning again to the baseball immortal Jackie Robinson, I would like to offer one final quote for your consideration. Robinson, in the introduction to Jack Orr's book, *The Black Athlete, His Story in American History*, wrote: "The right of every American to first-class citizenship is the most important issue of our time. That is why we, of Black ancestry, struggle for that right. We have no illusions about the difficulties that lie ahead. We know that bigots intend to go on fighting us and will continue to use the big lie that we are inferior based solely on skin color. We know that no matter how far we progress the lie will still be there. We know our stake in America is great and the future is bright for Black children as well as white. This is why we continue to struggle".

In closing, what is the solution to the problems attendant to black involvement in sport? I feel that the most genuine solution is included in the article, "A Balance of Pride." The real problem can be succinctly summarized in one word—pride. The solution—establish and maintain a balance of pride. How can this be achieved? Ten techniques (described in detail in "A Balance of Pride") are suggested:

1. Recognize the problem.
2. Be an outstanding teacher.
3. Be an outstanding leader.
4. Train and supervise assistant coaches to perform their tasks effectively.
5. Treat the individual as an individual.
6. Be impartial in expressing in public the merits of a player and in discussing in private the shortcomings of the player.
7. Recognize and make an attempt to understand the feeling of black awareness in the black athletes.
8. Be willing to listen to the grievances of the black athletes and make every attempt possible to guide them in solving their problems.
9. Be more willing to exercise teacher-learner authority when helping the athletes to solve their problems.
10. Make every effort to ensure that a balance of pride is obtained and maintained and have a strong desire to want to solve the problem.

Most certainly Tommie Smith's actions at the 1968 Olympics in Mexico City set off waves within the sports world that have resulted in a new consciousness with regard to black athletes. And maybe, certainly hopefully, this consciousness will give rise to increased conviction in the last line of our national anthem—"O'er the land of the free and home of the brave."

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BLACK WOMEN IN SPORTS: CAN WE GET OFF THE TRACK?

MARIAN E. WASHINGTON
University of Kansas

If I were to have appeared before this group in the informal outfit of a black female athlete—and you knew nothing about me at all—chances are you'd be expecting a track outfit. And you'd be close to correct—for the major portion of my athletic career has been in relationship to track.

Consider, if you will, any black female athlete whose name is of more than local fame. What event is her *specialty*—riding? golf? swimming? Maybe a gymnast or tennis player? All of these are doubtful, right?

In mid-January, one of the major TV companies—caught up with the emergence of women's rights—focused on women in athletics. The black representative, Cheryl Toussaint, is—of course—a runner.

For those of you that are either coaching or familiar with the situation at the intercollegiate level, you are well aware that black female participation is limited. In the 1969 National Intercollegiate Basketball Tournament for Women there were 16 teams from throughout the United States—totalling about 180 players. Of these, only three were black and two of us were from the same school. And, quite coincidentally of course, we won!

This year, in personal exposure to nine midwestern college teams, I have seen only two black players on women's basketball teams.

In field hockey, lacrosse, swimming, volley ball, and gymnastics the story is virtually the same: Black females do not compete in collegiate athletics, for track is essentially an AAU activity.

The next question could be Why but that is secondary, I feel, to a more important issue: What difference does it make?

If our answer is None, then my whole presentation—though a pleasant opportunity—is of little value. Obviously, my response to What difference does it make? is a determined A Great Difference, both in terms of self-growth and accomplishment and in terms of social values and objectives.

Mention the phrase "black youth"—be they male or female—and immediately we classify them as poor and ghetto residents. Unfortunately, for too many of my people this is and will continue to be true. Millions of dollars is directed into youth programs in the city, but, in a narrow approach, most of it is directed toward boys' programs. Of course, we do then develop the Nate Archibalds, the Franco Harris, the John Mayberrys, an occasional Arthur Ashe, the Muhammed Alis and the Joe Fraziers and a multitude of other stars of varying magnitudes. This is fine, for the success of today's neighborhood athlete encourages numerous other youngsters to think of high school, of college, of success.

But still narrow, because what happens to or with the black female? Is she to go through life with the boundaries of the ghetto the full extent of her world? What are her avenues to success? Who are the women she wants to imitate? There are the Robin Campbells, the Cheryl Toussaints, and the Willye Whites and some scholarships at Tennessee State and Alcorn A. & M. But beyond them, what?

Can the black female youngster identify with a Billy Jean King, a Mickie Wright, a Peggy Fleming, or a Kathy Whitcomb? Unlikely. Not only are they white and from a world apart, but, more important, tennis, swimming, ice skating, and golf are not a part of their school curriculum or included in public recreational facilities.

Two situations come to mind. Several years ago when I was working in an inner city agency, my supervisor called me in to discuss a group meeting I had just had with some teenage girls. Frankly I was feeling quite satisfied because everything went well, with the girls having played records and then having watched the boys' basketball team practice. These were their choices of things to do.

Imagine my surprise and resentment when my supervisor challenged the appropriateness of the group's involvement. My explanation that "this was democratic—to let the girls choose" was met with "Why?" "Why?" Finally, the supervisor's message was put forth in this fashion: For those of you from the East, you will particularly remember that Howard Johnson's was first known for its ice cream—more specifically its 28 flavors. Exotic flavors like burgandy bravo, raspberry swirl, banana, creme de menthe. But what are their biggest sellers? You're right if you guessed vanilla, chocolate, and strawberry. And now the question Why takes meaning—people tend to choose those things which are familiar. Thus, if you want to expand horizons, to give new perspectives, and to modify value systems, you must introduce individuals to change. Slowly maybe, but surely absolutely. In short, giving youngsters their choice of activities is a limited choice at best, for their own reservoir of experience is so limited.

The second experience also came from this inner city agency. Its summer camp for disadvantaged girls featured sailboats and an intensive swimming program. Its winter program took youngsters to nearby ski slopes—the first black skiers the area had had! And this in 1968. Tennis was introduced and despite their grubby nontennis uniforms of black high-tops and jeans and multicolored shirts, a tournament was held. For the first time, a girls' basketball team was developed; its admission to what had become a suburban-oriented league was resented. And immediately its presence was felt; they were well outfitted, their discipline was controlled, and their play was surprisingly good. In fact, they made it to the city finals before they floundered and failed.

The important and essential element in all of these activities is that they were exposed to and became experienced in activities common to the so-called mainstream of society. And about time if we truly wish to avoid two separate societies and the social tensions that go with them.

With today's current awareness and emphasis upon equal rights, particularly—for our interest—in more equitable athletic programs, this leads us to new developments. While a few colleges have given scholarships to women, i.e., JFK, Midwestern, Parsons, Ouachita, Wayland, and, of course, Tennessee State and Alcorn A. & M., these have been limited. More seriously, however, these colleges have been excluded from participation in the DGWS intercollegiate competitions. This now has been changed because of several recent court decisions.

Universities and colleges are being forced to look at their expenditures and to justify one-sided treatment. And emerging is the prospect of scholarships for women. Stanford—a truly great university—will offer forty in 1974-75. As these developments are multiplied, opportunities shall expand.

From what may be viewed as a selfish point of view, I say, "Great and let's get black females thoroughly coached and skilled to be in a position to compete for them." Think a minute, though. Is it really selfish; who pays for the underachievement, underemployment, and undermotivation of any of our citizens? We all do—one way or the other.

The Why to the exclusion of black females from athletics other than track is relatively simple. It is a mixture of stereotyping (blacks run faster, blacks are not as bright, and blacks are too "antsy" to play basketball—according to a noted woman basketball coach) and the limitation of choices available to inner city residents. You should note that few public recreational facilities are being built in our cities. Rather, suburbia and the private apartment complex are developing a monopoly on pools, tennis courts, open areas, and such.

We should, I suggest, stop and look at the total picture. You, as men and women of the profession, do not need an introductory lecture on the values of athletics and sports—your very integrity is built on its meaning. In closing, what I would ask is, Broaden your perspective and commitment. Do not be so color-blind that you ignore the absence of a very significant part of our population in your programs—the black female. She too must be liberated!

THE BLACK ATHLETE IN INTRAMURALS

ANTHONY CLEMENTS

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

In my presentation, I will attempt to illustrate the importance of university administrators foreseeing and dealing with the campus problems of minority individuals. The problems faced by the University of Illinois intramural staff during the years 1967-72 will be presented and the departmental changes that were undertaken in response to those problems will be discussed.

The material used in this article is all firsthand and the events and occurrences are relayed to you as I witnessed them. Thus, it is left to the discretion of you in the audience to decide whether or not to utilize this information as a point of reference or to choose to wait until you come face to face with the problem.

The basic problem as it will be referred to throughout my presentation is that of a large Midwest university with a semi-rural atmosphere having to come to grips with continuous freshman classes comprising substantial numbers of minority students from major urban areas. Because this influx of minority students into the University witnessed a corresponding increase in minority group participation in all facets of University life, the Division of Intramural Activities became quickly and integrally involved in racial tensions and their concomitant problems. It should be pointed out that while the solutions used to meet these problems may not be the most appropriate for your particular institution, the philosophy of ignoring matters that may later become problems can be a costly approach.

In my presentation, I would like to share with you my thoughts on the "Black Athlete in Intramurals." My presentation will consist of 5 parts:

1. Overview of the black perspective of sports.
 2. An examination of the historical participation of blacks in University of Illinois intramurals.
 3. The changes which occurred during the 1968 basketball season.
 4. The actions undertaken to correct what we felt was an unjust situation.
 5. A discussion of the University of Illinois situation today.
- I. Black athlete - philosophy.
 - A. Definition of black athlete: All blacks that participate in intramurals.
 - B. Background in dealing with situation.
 1. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.
 2. St. Augustine's College, Raleigh, N.C.
 - II. Blacks' perspective of sports.
 - A. A number of studies have been conducted that indicate blacks excel in certain sports not because of physical differences but because of different philosophical, psychological, and environmental factors.
 1. Blacks have used and still do use sports as a means of escape.
 2. Blacks know only the most qualified athletes advance; those who do not advance can best be categorized as frustrated athletes. These are the athletes that frequently are participating in the intramural program.
 - III. Sudden arrival of blacks at the University of Illinois.
 - A. Illinois was a typical situation until 1968.
 1. Blacks appeared sparsely throughout the program.
 2. There was possibly one black on a team (all that could be expected when 900 out of 30,000 students were black).
 3. Then in 1968, the University of Illinois started New Equal Opportunity Programs (500 minority students per year).
 - a. Illinois started a new program to recruit minority law students.
 - b. They started the recruitment of black athletes.
 - c. Students came from Chicago, Philadelphia, East St. Louis, Washington, D.C., Florida, and Mississippi.

- B. This was the beginning of the formation of black teams.
 - 1. Blacks from the same areas started to enter U. of I. leagues (non-point).
 - 2. Because of housing procedures, blacks could establish all black floors.
 - 3. Black fraternities that never entered intramurals started to participate.
 - 4. At this same time, the black law students and black graduate students started to participate in intramurals.
 - 5. The amount of black students on campus increased in 1968 and 1969 from 900 to approximately 2,500 students. The black participation in intramurals increased 2,000 percent.
- IV. Problems associated with the blacks increased awareness of program policies.
 - A. The first basketball season.
 - 1. Blacks started to realize lack of black officials and supervisors.
 - 2. Blacks started to misunderstand the policies of the Intramural Division.
 - 3. In the end, blacks initiated a revolt against the department.
 - B. The 1969-70 basketball seasons were test seasons.
 - 1. An official was beaten and had to be put in the hospital for a few days.
 - 2. A girl official was chased by a mob of approximately fifty. We were able to sneak her out of the gym's back door.
 - 3. Our playoffs were disrupted by participants throwing eggs, cherry bombs, and water balloons onto the courts.
 - 4. A game had to be stopped because of packs of sugar thrown on the court to show dislike for an official.
 - 5. Teams were attacked in the locker room before the game by a team they filed a protest against and won.
 - 6. Players were beaten in hallways after the game.
 - 7. Players and officials were threatened.
 - C. Things we began to realize as a department.
 - 1. 99.9 percent of our officials were white.
 - 2. No blacks were on either the Protest or Policy Boards.
 - 3. Blacks were not involved in the decision-making process.
 - 4. The lines of communication between blacks and the department were practically nonexistent.

WHAT WE DID

- 1. Had weekly meetings for about four weeks with team captains.
- 2. Started a recruitment program with black students for officials.
- 3. Started a recruitment of blacks as supervisors of gyms because they are policy makers on court.
- 4. If the handbook does not have any pictures of blacks, then eliminate all pictures.
- 5. Analyze program and develop new programs that meet the needs of blacks.
- 6. Get blacks into manager programs and on Protest and Policies Boards.
- 7. Have black faculty, advisers, and counselors view games and officials.
- 8. Started to send material to black organizations.
- 9. We had the law and sociology departments evaluate our program.

WHAT WE HAVE TODAY

1. Had one fight involving black teams in basketball this year.
2. About 30 percent of our supervisors are black.
3. About 10 percent of our officials are black. That percentage has been as high as 25 percent in certain sports.
4. Our Protest and Policies Board is chaired by a black man.
5. In our University of Illinois league quarter-finals in basketball six of sixteen teams were predominantly black but only one was completely black.
6. No all-black graduate teams existed.
7. Blacks are now running their own tournaments and inviting white teams.

ACTIVITIES FOR BLACKS

1. Basketball—men, women, and co-recreational.
2. Football—men.
3. Billiards (Pool)—men.
4. Volleyball—men, women, and co-recreational.
5. Free swimming opportunity.
6. Softball—men, women, and co-recreational (largest).
7. Bid whist—very informal tournament, very informal atmosphere.
8. Roller skating (could be biggest activity).
9. Tennis—men, women and co-recreational. Mostly women. Now more students are starting to participate.
10. Track—men, women. This program is usually underpublicized, so blacks are not always aware of it.

THE BLACK ATHLETE IN THE BIG EIGHT CONFERENCE

JOHN ROBERT E. LEE
University of Kansas

Basic forms of difference in black and white collegiate athletes in Big Eight conference football and corresponding attitudes appear to be due, primarily, to previous forms of exposure, specifically, economics, education, and culture. The range of each of these factors suggests that they will either facilitate or inhibit "black consciousness and acceptance," the central theme of this presentation.

Athletics, by virtue of necessarily close relationships and common goals, has both the potential and opportunity to make significant contributions toward rendering full personhood and total acceptance of all persons. Athletics, both collegiate and professional, has been generally regarded as the arena for racial equality and acceptance. Despite fairly obvious and noteworthy progress, it became increasingly clear in the last decade that athletics is a microcosm of a larger society, and its image has been tainted with debilitating masks of "liberty and justice for all."

Research has indicated the following trends:

1. Most black athletes have come to the predominantly white college campuses from the larger urban areas in the conservative South. This "conservatism" lends itself to a more in-depth exposure to racial problems; consequently, black athletes have a more natural propensity toward recognizing and being more conscious (than white athletes) of various forms of racial disharmony within the university confines.
2. As a result of general racial misunderstanding through the years, the black athlete appears extremely dubious about the real intentions of most whites in power. His anxieties are reinforced with only a casual glance at the composition of the "controls" around him; resultingly, optimism wanes proportionately as skepticism and defeatism cloud an otherwise enthusiastic encounter with future endeavors.
3. Blacks through the years have established themselves in the athletic world, but lag in their desire to be recognized as part of the mainstream in other areas. The sea of mediocrity claims too many black athletes educationally and economically, while the vehicles of academic counseling and tutorial services remain ineffective enough to meet the special needs of disparity borne by these young men.
4. In the area of discipline, the exclusive province that has created and solved many problems, both black and white athletes appear to be most impressed with honesty, equal opportunity, and fair play by their superiors. When these qualities prevail, discipline, almost in any form, can be tolerated.
5. Many football players have had limited contact with their racial counterparts prior to college and consequently function within general societal expectations and practices. Many obsolete stereotypes are held constant among whites in the presence of seemingly enlightened conditions. However, responses tend to indicate that interaction since coming to college has the potential to dispel much of the same.
6. Both black and white athletes tend to endorse black organizations and black leaders who are sincere in their efforts to improve the black man's situation in this country. However, significant differences in response can be noted for those leaders and organizations popularly dubbed as militant. White athletes basically rejected these, while blacks indicated strong feelings for the militants' approach in at least exposing subtle and pervasive forms of racial discord.
7. Responses from the small sample of white and black coaches indicate that white coaches have had more years of coaching experience with members of the opposite race and express the belief that both racial groups are treated fairly in regard to team matters. However, both black and white coaches indicate an almost complete unanimity to the idea that social justices are limited but are attainable through alteration in current practices and attitudes. This manifestation is underscored by overall responses with both groups being extremely anxious in quest of a better understanding of racial problems.

A crucial and most encouraging point derived from this investigation is the fact that all groups can be united under the same administration, without consequence, and function harmoniously in an atmosphere where understanding and respect for each racial group are judiciously undertaken.

WOMEN'S BODIES

EVALYN S. GENDEL

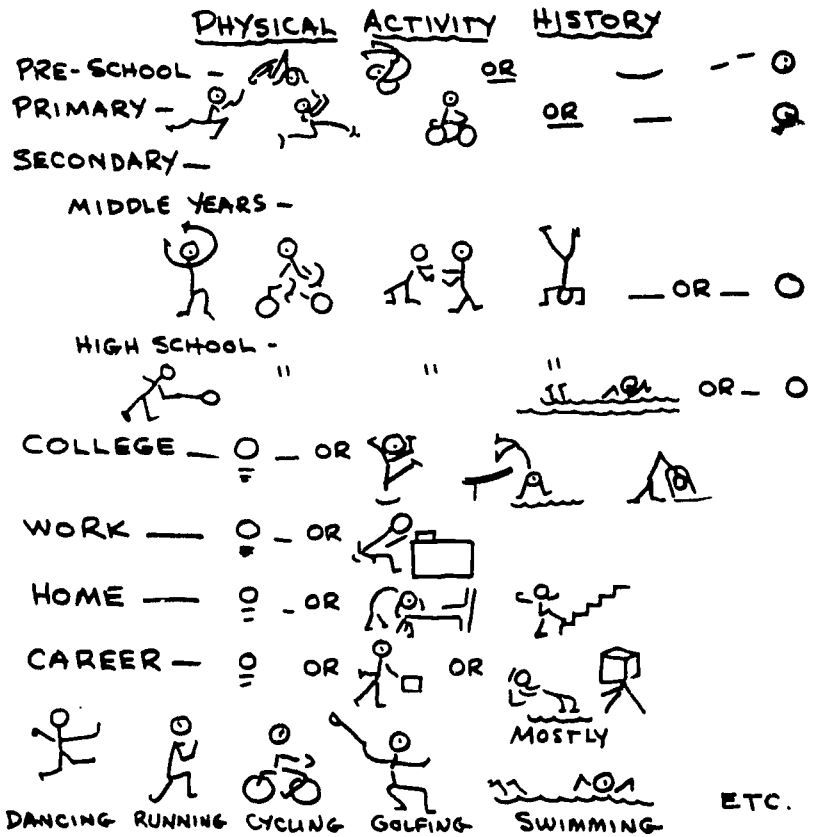
Kansas State Department of Health

Unless you are a woman, it's difficult to describe what a wonderful, exciting thing that female body is. I can already catch the smiles of the men as they figure they, too, do know much about the female form, but I think that's another topic, although one that we'll touch upon in relation to male and female attitudes toward each other. Some people like to refer, unthinkingly, to these differences in attitudes as the battle of the sexes. My philosophy about that is that if there is such a battle, it's fun to win and fun to lose. I guess, having been a member of the Human Liberation Movement for a long time, I've been very happy to see the liberation of men, resulting from the liberation of women, and the changing roles that have occurred. They haven't quite gone as far as they need to for the kind of future that I hope we are all looking forward to, although some of us will be obsolete by that time. Part of the preservation of that future, in my opinion, is for society to recognize the importance of fitness in its scientific terms. We should be talking about common men and women, and yet, especially in the field related to women, so many times in talking about physical exertion our eyes turn to those wonderful gals who have been Olympic winners and who have been important in the areas of professional sports. For a long time, particularly in this area, women have been second-class citizens in their opportunities to participate in physical exertion and competitive sports. Unfortunately the medical profession has helped to validate and legitimize that status. So, part of what I want to talk about is the medical aspect of physical exertion as it pertains to women.

My first experience with this in private and general practice was with young women in the 17-23 age group who had had one pregnancy and whose children I had delivered. At the six-week checkup after the birth of their babies, I found that many of them had chronic complaints of backache, "couldn't pick up the baby," "didn't feel like having sex," "couldn't make up the bed"—all kinds of chronic complaints from very young, new mothers. I realized that something must have been missing from my medical background and history taking. It is a fact that 70 percent of the information we get about a patient in making a diagnosis comes from the medical history. In an age group like this, and particularly in those coming from farm communities in Kansas and from the Air Force base located right there, there wasn't too much of the bizarre. I thought their cases needed study and over a period of five years, began to do an *activity history*. The simple cartoon representation of taking a physical activity history is included (Fig. 1).

After the experience with the hundred on whom some experiments were done and with 160 freshman women at the University of Kansas a few years later, I became more convinced of the importance of this facet of history taking. Important, not only for patients who were women contemplating being pregnant or who had just been pregnant, but also for *all women* as part of an intake history, just as much as it is important today to take a sexual history on both men and women. The physical activity history goes back by asking if the person can remember anything about his/her early years at home—tumbling on the floor, rolling around, kind of family structure, and, sometimes, limits on how children learn to use their bodies.

Figure 1



ALL ARE AVAILABLE.

AN OUTSTANDING, ATHLETIC GIRL CAN ALWAYS FIND A PROGRAM _____ THE "COMMON WOMAN" HAS LITTLE OPPORTUNITY TO FIND HER POTENTIAL.

If the family has the kind of rigid family structure in which falling around on the floor is really frowned upon, that early use of the body by young children, although very hard to subdue, does not occur. Evidently for some young women, and I'm sure it would be true of young men, there was not a lot of freedom of use of their bodies as youngsters. Most preschoolers, however, are pretty hard to keep down and they are going to tumble and run around, no matter what. In the primary years, we find that children are involved in all kinds of unstructured activities—for example, cycling, running, and playing different kinds of games—but we have not had at the primary level in school a great deal of encouragement except playground activity in introducing young people to having fun with their bodies and using them fully in the early school years.

The physical activity histories that I took were on the women who had severe complaints. Before taking the activity history, I checked a total medical history including an orthopedic exam, a thorough pelvic exam, and tests for renal disease. If the appearance of the complaints seemed to be deeply psychologically based, I did not include them in the study; I did end up with 100 women who had a negative activity history. In high school, very few were swimmers, very few cyclists, etc. In college, unless they were involved in some special program, primarily aimed at what I call super-women, they had not participated in any kind of physical activity. Then came the years of either work or homemaking, but whether at a desk or at home, this is a kind of sedentary work. We know that housewives run up and down the stairs and consider that to be a type of physical exertion. It is physical exertion, but it is repetitive; it does not cause full use of lung capacity or the increase in heart rate that physical exertion on a regular basis does. Many young women go through life saying, "Oh, I'm so busy running around after the children and up and down stairs and that is enough fitness for me." It really is not. The career woman who is rushing back and forth quite often collapses in front of the television by the end of the day. A number of studies show that both men and women in a carryover into married or unmarried lives are not involved even in recreational dancing, running, skiing, golfing, or swimming.

It is depressing when a group of young men and women who are off for a holiday weekend find that one or two persons of either sex are unable to keep up with swimming or skiing or taking part in active sports exertion. In day-to-day living the housewife whose duties leave her totally fatigued at the end of the day and sapped of energy and vitality and the career woman who constantly complains of situations that differ from the ones to which she is accustomed, especially if they involve physical activity, are also reasons to make us reflect on how many of them got that way. These situations represent chronic disability, illness, or a lack of physical fitness or a combination of all three. Given a sample of women in the general population, were they to be tested, many would be found lacking in physical fitness. This common denominator might be found a contributory factor to the other problems of meeting their responsibilities in a complex and demanding society. Nevertheless, it is an exciting time to be alive and the opportunity to be physically fit is one of the elements which makes it this way.

Aren't there many men who are also lacking in physical fitness? The answer is obviously Yes. But there is a special reason to single out women that has to do with a number of social, economic, psychological, and cultural factors. It is true that there are many men who are not physically fit, but their incentive, stimulus,

and chances to become and remain fit are great, whether or not they take advantage of them. The society encourages young men to stay physically vigorous and to compete in athletics and continually points out the advantages of this concept. Since the male population suffers more from heart disease, respiratory disease, and other serious conditions, the accent on such activities as jogging and lifetime sports has been concentrated on men as a lifesaving procedure. At the public school, college, and business level facilities for swimming, track, handball, etc., are frequently made more available to men. Military service does more than encourage, it requires fitness. So there are educational and psychological factors influencing men in their direction of fitness in a positive way.

The same concentration and effort is not focused on women, and when emphasis is given to this issue at all, it is primarily focused on "keeping the woman beautiful and attractive." In the past, in our own and other cultures, physical exertion has been considered "unladylike," "masculinizing," or "improper." The epitome of this attitude has been reflected in the stereotype of the female athlete. Although this has been changing over the years, a female Olympics winner has often been characterized as a person with a masculine physique, male ambition, etc. With the advent of our gold medal figure skaters, swimmers, and women athletes in other sports, the greatest impact on the change of this image has occurred. School programs over the years have been lax in insisting on the participation of girls in intramurals, in competitive sports, and in regular physical exertion programs. Credence has been given to "excuses" to be excluded from physical education and from other physical activity. Incentive, stimulus, and encouragement, although high for the male population, have been less than enthusiastic for the female. Some will say, "That's okay. We should put our emphasis on the men; women seem to have less of the killer diseases; they manage pretty well." But the issue has only been touched superficially by this kind of comment.

References have been made to men and their exposure to fitness programs. Throughout early school years this habit is encouraged and stimulated, but by the time children reach the third grade, unless they are in a physical education special elementary program, recess play activity may be the only physical exertion programmed, especially for the girls. Junior and senior high schools do not provide continuing physical education for every year. Only the highly motivated girl will continue in active participation in physical exertion programs. The same is true for men to a lesser degree. Records of discharges from the Armed Forces in World War II showed that young men with backaches frequently had histories of chronic inactivity since childhood.

How can the picture change more rapidly than it is?

1. Recognition of the tremendous advantages for both men and women to remove the cultural taboos that have created unreal stereotypes and damaging practices (Fig. 2). Examples: Why can't male physical educators and/or coaches work with girls and women? Who really believes any more that menstruation inhibits physical activity?
2. Begin to be aware of the likenesses between men and women (not with unisex in mind or abolition of the sexes) in their abilities to utilize their bodies more fully and vigorously than they have.

Figure 2



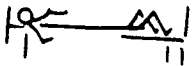
"CRAMPS"
EXPECTED, PERIODIC
(LEGITIMIZED)



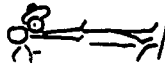
HEADACHE
NERVOUS,
EMOTIONAL
(NO P.E.)



BACKACHE
(? IN ABSENCE
OF X-RAY
EVIDENCE)



"HOME IN BED"
IN COLLEGE
IN INDUSTRY
IN MARRIAGE
(SEXUALLY
INACTIVE)



"QUIET"
• AT HOME
• GO HOME (FROM
work)
• KEEP CHILDREN
AWAY



FUNCTIONAL POSITION
BACKACHE —
HOSPITAL —
HOME —
"CHRONIC BACK"

- RX: • EARLY PHYSICAL EXERTION FOR GIRLS (and boys)
- ANALYSIS OF ALL CHRONIC DISABILITY FOR EXISTING MEDICAL OR INACTIVITY PROBLEMS
 - RECOMMENDATION FOR EXERTION PROGRAMS WHEN NO PATHOLOGY IS FOUND
 - STRESS PROMOTIVE, PREVENTION ASPECTS OF PHYSICAL EXERTION
 - DEVELOP HIGH INDEX OF SUSPICION OF INACTIVITY!

3. Be aware that physical activity histories are important to prescriptions for exercise and can be used well for following boys and girls as they develop and as an educational tool.
4. Remember there are no medical reasons to limit activities in which women can participate.

The following "consciousness-raising" exercise, if taken in the spirit in which it is written, is the most insightful and useful demonstration I know of for helping us clear our socio-cultural vision (copyright 1970 by Theodora Wells; first published in *Newsletter*, Association for Humanistic Psychology, 7 [December 1970]: 3):

WOMAN—which includes MAN, of course!
An experience in Awareness . . .

There is much concern today about the future of man, which means, of course, both men and women—generic Man. For a woman to take exception to this use of the term "Man" is often seen as defensive hair-splitting by an "emotional female."

The following experience is an invitation to awareness in which you are asked to feel into, and stay with, your feelings through each step, letting them absorb you. If you start intellectualizing, go back to the step where you can again sense your feelings. Then proceed. Keep count of how many times you need to go back.

1. Consider reversing the generic term Man. Think of the future of Woman, which, of course, includes both women and men. Feel into that, sense its meaning to you—as a woman—as a man.
2. Think of it always being that way, every day of your life. Feel the ever-presence of woman and feel the non-presence of man. Absorb what it tells you about the importance and value of being woman of being man.
3. Recall that everything you have ever read all your life uses only female pronouns—she, her—meaning both girls and boys, both women and men. Recall that most of the voices on radio and most of the faces on TV are woman's—when important events are covered—on commercials—and on late talk shows. Recall that you have a female senator representing you in Washington.
4. Feel into the fact that women are the leaders, the power-centers, the prime-movers. Man, whose natural role is husband and father, fulfills himself through nurturing children and making the home a refuge for woman. This is only natural to balance the biological role of woman who devotes her entire body to the race during pregnancy. Pregnancy—the most revered power known to woman (and man, of course).
5. Then feel further into the obvious biological explanation for woman as the ideal—her genital construction. By design, female genitals are compact and internal, protected by her body. Male genitals are so exposed that he must be protected from outside attack to assure the perpetuation of the race. His vulnerability obviously requires sheltering.
6. Thus, by nature, males are more passive than females, and have a desire in sexual relations to be symbolically engulfed by the protective body of the woman. Males psychologically yearn for this protection, fully

realizing their masculinity at this time and feeling exposed and vulnerable at other times. A man experiences himself as a "whole man" when thus engulfed.

7. If the male denies these feelings, he is unconsciously rejecting his masculinity. Therapy is thus indicated to help him adjust to this own nature. Of course, therapy is administered by a woman, who has the education and wisdom to facilitate openness leading to the male's growth and self-actualization.
8. To help him feel into his defensive emotionality, he is invited to get in touch with the "child" in him. He remembers his sister's jeering at his primitive genitals that "flop around foolishly." She can run, climb and ride horseback unencumbered. Obviously, since she is free to move, she is encouraged to develop her body and mind in preparation for her active responsibilities of adult womanhood. The male vulnerability needs female protection, so he is taught the less active, caring, virtues of homemaking.
9. Because of his vagina-envy, he learns to bind up his genitals and learns to feel ashamed and unclean because of his nocturnal emissions. Instead, he is encouraged to dream of getting married, waiting for the time of this fulfillment—when "his woman" gives him a girl-child to care for. He knows that if it is a boy-child he has failed somehow—but they can try again.
10. In getting to the "child" in him, these early experiences are reawakened. He is at an encounter group entitled "On Being a Man" which is led by a woman. In a circle of 19 men and 4 women, he begins to work through some of his deep feelings.

What feelings do *you* feel he will express?
How many times did you have to go back?

If you will look back at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 you will see that they evoke new ways of looking, quite explicitly, at male and female body exercise images. This illustration is used to pause to review our concepts of ourselves, not only as male or female but as unreproduceable (by machines) unique human beings that we are. Our understanding of sexuality, not our sex or gender, determines the manner in which our own self-concepts are formed. It is part of the physical, emotional, social, and intellectual elements of growing to become a mature human being. This sexual component (our sexuality) includes and is part of everything related to our "personness"—and encompasses far more than sexual intercourse or sex expressed in genital terms only. As we comprehend more of this broad meaning of sexuality we will be more free to undo some of the male/female barriers to equal opportunity for expression for both sexes in the unlimited horizons of fitness and its meaning for living and being.

WOMEN'S INTRAMURAL ATHLETICS— ISSUES AND DIRECTIONS

CAROLYN HEWATT
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About three years ago many of us were together and predicted a time in which we would no longer administer women's intramural or men's intramural programs. I can remember expressing the dream for the day when it wasn't your program or my program but our program. Do you share the same feeling that that day is here? Dare we now try to express more directions and issues concerning women's intramurals. I see them as dreams—will we be ready for them when they come true?

Let us share some predictions concerning directions of intramurals. It is now apparent that combined programs for men and women are administratively sound and can best meet the needs of all the students on campus. Those situations/concerns that are unique to a men's program or a women's program still exist to some extent. Emphasis on these however has lessened and our student today is saying let there be no difference. As professionals we see that there very well may be fewer differences than we thought.

Prediction. Intramural programs for all students will increase in number; men's intramural programs and women's intramural programs will vanish!

More comprehensive programs will be made available for all students. We all know campuses where the men's program may be more extensive than the women's; where the women's may be better organized; where the skills and expertise of all personnel are used in those areas where they are best suited to benefit all participants.

The basic component of intramurals is the competitive intragroup tournament and this area seems to continue to meet the needs of many of today's students. The level of competition, selection of activities, and fairness of the administration of these tournaments indicate the good strong program. Many students seek and find satisfaction in this type of program. If this area has any direction for the future, it will be the thrust of women wanting to participate on what have been traditionally male teams.

The coed activities on many campuses are filling this need. More coed tournaments with a more extensive selection seem to be indicated by student interest. Are we providing this area of programming?

From all indications many colleges find the coed program the most attractive. The traditional coed activities may no longer be the end desired by some students, however. The tennis tournament that is not mixed doubles but a tournament for all is an example of the requests many intramurals directors are receiving. Are you ready to provide this type of competition? Are you ready for women to petition to be on the men's touch football teams and for men to petition to play field hockey?

Prediction. Men/women play is here and will continue for a certain time period and probably grow in intensity.

As professionals we offer coed activities of the widest interpretation. As professionals we must in some instances use our wisdom and experience in assisting to select activities.

What will our campuses be like as a result of the energy problem? Many campuses today experience much of their student body migrating out of town for weekends and evening entertainment. When all students move back within two miles of the campus and when they can no longer migrate, we are going to have requests for even more comprehensive programming.

We may be headed back to the campus of the 40s and 50s when all varieties of recreational activities were conducted on the campus and intramurals did it! How many of us are ready to conduct a square dance in a dorm complex, a tournament for a dorm or club groups, a sing-along in one of the auditoriums, a structured tournament in volleyball, and a training session for basketball officials at the same time? I can see this in the immediate future. Students confined to a small space (the campus) will demand more from us and rightfully so. We are the professionals with the know-how.

Prediction. More students, more activities, and more time available for recreational sports programming.

Still another direction for intramurals is found in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare guidelines commonly referred to as Title IX, Subpart D-86.34 C, which specifically prohibit intramural athletics conducted separately for males and females. Section 86.38 (b) I (i) defines intramural or other athletics.

These guidelines are usually seen as the aid to intercollegiate athletics for women and certainly they are that. My point—just for our own information—is that they include intramural athletics and all levels and all educational institutions who are recipients of aid. These guidelines seem to throw the challenge to us to provide intramural programs for all and I know we are ready for that. They also seem to say women's intramurals and men's intramurals are gone. Are we ready for that?

As physical educators are we also ready to prepare physical education teachers, coaches, trainers, and *intramural specialists*? My interpretation is that in professional preparation we had better be gearing up for these jobs or we will continue to perpetuate the ill-prepared new teacher-intramural athletics director. Minimal skills and knowledge should be provided in all professional preparation and more in-depth preparation must be provided for the individual who selects to become very involved in intramural athletics.

Prediction. Title IX will become a law soon and our choice will be to operate within the law and its intent or break it!

So much for directions and predictions.

Two issues seem apparent to me. One particularly concerns us women and one us people. We women have ached, bled, and pounded tables and ears for intercollegiate athletics for women for years. As we seem to be getting closer to realizing many dreams and nightmares let us not in our zeal and exuberance neglect intramurals. The intercollegiate program will provide competition for a small percentage of our women's population.

That vast majority—the nonathletic as many call it—has been our mainstay through the years. These students deserve the same excellent program that has been our responsibility for years. Neither intercollegiate nor intramural programs are more important than the other. Surely we may be aching more in one area but let's not cure that ache and participate in causing another illness as some folks have experienced. As long as the student world is big enough to include the athlete and the nonathlete, surely our professional world is big enough to meet their individual requests.

And my other issue is one we are all going to have to gripe/worry/be frustrated about. Are we decision-makers capable of making some very radical changes in our method of operation? We are all within certain age limits—with many of the same past experiences, which may not have prepared us for the student of post-1975.

This room is full of people who budget and administer intramural programs. We are the ones who will provide these programs. Our individual choice is to maintain the status quo—to avoid the issue—or to keep eyes and ears open to student interest. Before these eyes and ears can see and hear we must continue to keep our hearts open to those students with whom we work.

My special feeling is that we nuts who chose to be involved in intramurals have always been capable of change—have always listened, seen, and been innovative in programming. I think it is our special personality type that got us into intramurals in the first place and it is that same special type that will cause growth as a result of change. I know we are capable. I just hope we are not too rigid on “how it ought to be” to allow the growth.

So, colleagues, I suppose that though this is titled “Women’s Intramural Athletics,” I have just dreamed again of that particular title sinking on not a far horizon but an immediate one and of a new dawn, or brighter glow, for all intramurals.

WOMEN'S ATHLETICS: ISSUES AND DIRECTIONS

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University of Houston and Rice University

There have been issues and problems in athletics since the inception of competitive sports. Until recently these problems have been male oriented, for athletic events worthy of developing problems were usually the exclusive domain of male participants.

In women, inferiority of the locomotor apparatus, the apparatus of physical labor, is apparent in all parts. . . . The brain is both absolutely and relatively smaller than in men. Women have an abundant supply of soft and semifluid cellular tissue which creates softness and delicacy of mind, low power, nonresistance, passivity, and under favorable circumstances, a habit of self-sacrifice.

So were the words delivered to medical students in New York's College of Physicians and Surgeons in 1840 by Dr. Chandler Gilman. Such absolute “scientific materials” have been reinforced over the past century and men and women alike have readily accepted the concept of a weaker sex with the resultant sex role differentiation.

Sex differences of a physical, psychological, and cultural nature, whether real or imagined, were manifest in the social phenomena of sport and athletics. Nowhere has role differentiation of the sexes been more obvious than in athletic competition. Women accepted the notion that muscles, sweat, and competition of an athletic nature were to be admired in the male sex but abhorred, and

perhaps not mentioned, among females. Historically the choice was blatant—*woman* or *athlete*; it was not possible to be both. To choose the role of active athlete or sportswoman was tantamount to acceptance of the term "tomboy" in youth, openly and adoringly spoken, altered to "lesbian" in adulthood, less openly and less adoringly spoken. To choose the role of *woman* was an open denial of the pleasures of movement, competition, and camaraderie accompanying sport and the development of the undefinable self-satisfaction that comes from skilled performance. The myth of the *ideal woman*, the seductive, alluring, soft, and sensitive companion with her domestic, male-supportive role, was born in prehistory and flourished in a male-dominated sexist society.

Contrary to general opinion and in spite of social pressures, there have always been women who have been active in sports—the bull-leaping women acrobats of the Minoans, the Etruscan and Spartan women who trained and played with their male counterparts, and the women of the Middle Ages who ran with the hounds, chased with the falcon, and shot with the crossbow. Men complained even then of the expenses: you may recall Henry VIII's consternation over the cost of supplying Anne Boleyn with archery equipment. Through the centuries the myth grew and taboos webbed about the woman who participated in sport. The literature of the first three decades of this century is replete with such statements as: "Muscular capacity in women is almost evidence of disease." "Fiercely competitive athletics have their dangers for men but they develop manly strength. For women their dangers are greater and the qualities they tend to develop are not womanly." "Girls are not suited for the same athletic programs as boys. Under prolonged and intense physical strain, a girl goes to pieces nervously."¹ These are examples of well-intended professional statements appearing in the literature as late as 1940.

How, then, we must ask, has such an alternation in thought, word, and deed evolved in the past twenty-five years? In a word, or two, *women's liberation*. It happened while some of us were in the gymnasium encouraging playdays, sports days, interest groups, sports clubs, and extramurals and while in the classroom drawing the classical pyramid of the "ideal program of physical education," with its base a program of physical education for all students with the superior students rising through intramural and recreational programs to the apex—the pinnacle of the honors program of physical education—athletics. While drawing and explaining that the tail of athletics must never wag the dog of physical education, women's liberation, now proudly blossoming with the support of all civil rights and equal rights movements, found the paragon of inequity, collegiate athletic programs. And it is at this point that we now find ourselves.

There is no question that the members of the liberation movement have found a fertile area of inequity in the fields of physical education and athletics in schools and colleges. The obvious inequities are in facility utilization, salaries for coaches, equipment, publicity and press coverage, women in administration, scholarship opportunities and funding of sports programs, and competitive athletic programs. Now that the inequities are known to students, teachers, coaches, and administrators, my concern is directed to what equalization of these inequities involves and what equalization will do to the program of athletics for women.

Ultimately, equalization will be effected, for women are well armed with legal directives to further the cause and hasten the realization of equality. There are cases that note a denial of "equal protection" under the 14th Amendment of

the United States Constitution if their case discriminates against women students and coaches in athletic programs. Other cases plead on the grounds of sex discrimination in schools and colleges that receive funds under the Education Amendments of 1972. Most recently Health, Education, and Welfare has proposed Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 and this directive will have far-reaching effects on physical education and athletic programs for women.

The Educational Amendments clearly state that the federal government, in so far as it is a financial contributor through funds, provision of services, gifts of land, or in any other way, *will not* subsidize sexual inequality. This refers to employment practices and educational programs. Title IX is specific in its prohibitions, stating that in providing any aid, benefit, or service to a student, a recipient may not treat one person differently from another in determining whether such person satisfies any requirement or condition for the provision of such aid, benefit, or services and that recipients may not provide different aid, benefit, or services or provide them in a different manner. Further, it prohibits the establishment of national standards of behavior for athletes unless they are agreed on by the men's *and* women's regulating groups. Provisions even call for comparable toilet, locker room, and shower facilities for members of the different sexes, but such facilities may be separate.

Title IX states categorically that no recipient shall provide any courses or otherwise carry out any of its educational programs or activities separately on the basis of sex. Health and physical education are specifically mentioned. It is obvious that the women's athletic program will not remain in the women's physical education department, for there will no longer be such a department. It specifically mentions that recipients of funds shall operate competitive athletic programs without discrimination on the basis of sex and that each sex shall have equal opportunity to participate. There shall be no discrimination on the basis of sex in the provision of equipment, supplies, scheduling of games and practice times, travel and per diem allowance, award of athletic scholarships, opportunity to receive coaching instruction, or on any other basis.

There is much more and in great detail. In essence it means, Move over men, the women are here! (Several years ago one of your speakers presented a paper entitled "Move Over Men, the Women Are Coming.") Action has already been taken to equalize opportunities in New York and New Mexico and in specific instances in New Jersey, Indiana, Michigan, and other states that permit girls to participate in competitive noncontact sports and, in several cases, on boys' teams.

How will the legalistic rulings be interpreted? Some say there will be a period of stalling during which de facto discrimination will ensue, with women allowed to try out for teams but obviously passed over in activities that reward strength, speed, and height. It is an unhappy fact that the majority of our sports are designed for men's bodies rather than women's. Few activities, save selected gymnastic events and diving, reward balance and flexibility as the basic motor abilities. The next few years of interpretation and transition will have a myriad of problems compounded by heated debate in educational and legal circles.

It appears that we are in a period of evolution. It is regrettable that there is little that can be done about many of the resolutions of this period because they will be interpreted as law and they will be enforced if funding from the federal government is to be forthcoming to an institution.

Ultimately, I believe, we will develop a separate-but-equal doctrine for the collegiate athletic programs. This may sound like a discredited and discarded concept of civil rights but by the elimination of other alternatives we arrive at a separate-but-equal doctrine. The alternatives appear to be:

1. A system of ability-determined teams. This will result in a male-dominated first team and no doubt a male-dominated second team with no real increase in participation for women.
2. A first string team that is sex integrated with top talent of both sexes and an all-girl second team. This would solve some of the girls' inequities by imposing inequality of opportunity on the men who would be disallowed from the second team.
3. The first team ability-based with the second team of equal numbers of boys and girls. The system favors boys by assuring them of positions on the first team and thus gives them one and a half team slots for practical purposes.
4. The system by which there would be a quota of men and women on each team. The quality of performance on each team would suffer and the men would be deprived of their opportunity to achieve excellence.

The separate-but-equal plan has the singular advantage of giving men and women an equal opportunity to compete, not discriminating against women who are not as qualified physically to compete for positions against men or against men who have been disbarred in most instances from trying out for the women's team. Such a doctrine seems imperative if true equality of opportunity to compete is achieved.

What are the procedures for effecting changes that will bring about the necessary measure of equality? Money and understanding leadership are the two imperatives of the transitional period. The men are going to lose a great deal that has been taken for granted in privileges and financial security. Some may move over and share the athletic directorship with a woman, or abdicate to her reign.

In Texas alone, the fall semester saw two positions held by women in formerly all-male athletic departments. More such positions will be open next year. Funding will be difficult. Institutions may find implementation funds from strange sources--perhaps to the detriment or demise of some traditional men's sports. It is conceivable that the unprofitable sports of track, baseball, swimming, etc., may be diminished to provide funds for selected women's activities. Even these resources may not be sufficient to provide equal facilities, travel funds, coaching staff, and the myriad of equal services for women. Then, and even now, women will be asked to develop income-producing teams, for football and basketball for men cannot be expected to bear the burden of both sexes and all sports. Marjorie Blaufarb, speaking at the First Delegate Assembly of the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women in November 1973, posed an optimistic thought for the period of transition:

It seems to me that this should be a great liberating factor for both men and women--administrative liberation and emotional liberation from a perpetual fight for a good program. All those men who cried out through the years that the big time athletic programs were ruining the physical education and sports professions can take this time of upheaval, because of what it will be, to make constructive changes. Coaches and athletic directors who had to have a winning season to keep their jobs can now demand to be treated no more harshly than women. And the women can get in on the ground floor and demand that combined athletic programs be good, ethical, and non-manipulative.

It is somewhat of an enigma that athletic scholarships are being thrust upon women, frequently without being sought, at a time when sport is gaining acceptance and appreciation as an independent, meaningful experience. I hope that scholarships will be discouraged because I philosophically oppose them for both sexes. But it will not be possible in the evolutionary period to disavow scholarships for women, since women will copy the designs of men's programs and put aside their timeworn tenet stating that monetary payment prostitutes the meaning of sport experience.

In the evolutionary period there will be heated arguments and men will grudgingly give way to the legal force of equalization. I would hope there would be unity of programs in spirit, as well as in the eyes of law. Men's programs may suffer loss of financial support temporarily; in fact, the varsity team concept may alter with a coed varsity comprised of a team of men and a team of women who travel together, each playing an opponent and combining the scores to determine the winner of the intercollegiate event.

There is a new breed of women coaches emerging. No longer will the physical educator take a few hours from her week without pay and at the sacrifice of her classes, research, or writing to coach or chaperone; the new coach will be imbued with the concept of athletic excellence and she will be rewarded and retained on her ability to produce the mirror image of her concept of excellence.

The woman athletic director will schedule games, make travel plans, draft contracts, constitutions, bylaws, and charters, make and administer budgets, hire coaches, and conceivably recruit—for her teams and for the men's teams. She will develop and utilize women in just the ways she has abhorred and criticized when these ways were used by men; she will tout her teams as the most attractive, feminine teams, with uniforms designed for spectator appeal. She will give scholarships, since she feels she must to compete, to win, and to keep her job. However, she will rue the day she designed a program that required elaborate recruiting techniques, computer-based analyses of potential players, scholarships, conference schedules, and all of the snowballing effects of making money just so the process can continue. I do believe she will remember the importance of individuality in sports participation and I do think the ideals and objectives she once held dear—those of self-fulfillment, individual excellence, and the sheer joy of movement for the participant—will last a few more years. And so we leave evolution—the women's program evolving into a carbon copy of the present men's program of athletics. We seem to want not only equality but identity.

Revolution, an alternate to evolution, is obviously a path we will not tread in the foreseeable future. Such a revolution requires a complete and drastic change in the social and cultural system, as opposed to evolution, which applies corrective measures within the present system. An examination of some root questions will clarify the issues. Do the majority of women physical educators and coaches want highly competitive and equal programs? Do they want to compete with men and against them? Do they want athletic scholarships? Do we demand a program like the one held dear by the men? The majority would answer an emphatic no. Athletic programs as we know them are the private domains of the American male. They serve as the avenue for the development of characteristics of aggression, dominance, competitiveness, and sportsmanship—or at least they attract persons who can nurture these characteristics in sport. Note that the same persons who have decried the outrages perpetuated in men's

athletics now demand equal time and equal money. I propose a complete and drastic change—a revolution—conceived from the concept of social revolution proposed by women liberators who contend that society will never evolve to true male-female equality; society must be jolted to a new cultural form.

Women's programs will never be equal as long as they remain carbon copies of programs specifically designed and constructed by men to achieve the goals they have determined as meaningful traits for the development of masculinity—traits that are synonymous with superiority and dominance. Women must take the initiative to design programs that emphasize the values meaningful to women. Each person should have the right to participate in those activities that contribute to the sense of self as a human being, whether male or female. Women must determine the content and directions of programs desirable in achieving their goals and on that basis, not on the basis of legal action and forced equality, design athletic programs.

It will take strong men and women to control the transition and redirect athletic programs to fulfill their real purpose of affording meaningfulness to the participants. It is entirely possible for both men's and women's programs to benefit by deprivation, if the deprivation forces a reevaluation of the place of athletics at the apex of the triangle of sports experience.

I am reminded of Albert Einstein's comments some years ago when asked to foresee the holocaust of the possible third world war. He paused at length and then responded that he could not foresee the details of that war but assured the interviewer that if there were a *third* world war, the fourth would be fought with sticks and stones. I hope that we might avoid such a third world war between the men's and women's programs and seek ways of solution that maintain the values of athletic competition.

Women will have a program of athletic competition because as Edward Bellamy stated almost a century ago,

Be it remembered that until woman comes to her kingdom physically she will never come at all. Created to be well and strong and beautiful, she long ago sacrificed her constitution. She has walked when she should have run, sat when she should have walked, reclined when she should have sat. She is a creature born to the beauty and freedom of Diana.

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1. Arabella Kenneally, pamphleteer, 1809; dean of Wellesley College, 1903; and Ethel Perrin, chairperson of the women's division of the National Amateur Athletic Recreation, 1928; quoted in Marjorie S. Loggia, "On the Playing Fields of History," *Ms.* (July 1973): 63-64.

THE SOCIAL IMAGE OF WOMEN IN SPORT

L. MARLENE MAWSON
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Mirror, Mirror, on the wall
Who is the fairest of us all?

Reflect the truth, give the report
Reveal the image of women in sport!

Answer now, what social class?
Should it be a prissy lass?

Or could it be those tomboy girls
Who never cared about their curls?

Wait now, look! The image grows clearer.
You can see it better if you look nearer.

That's "Her" you see. Through your own eyes
She's yours to be as you surmise.

She's the feminine challenge engaged in sport
On any field, pool, track, or court.

The image of American sport and all that the term implies is continually defined and redefined by what the collective persons in our society agree that it is. Immediate visions of the typical American's mind instantly refer to masculine athletic endeavors. This is the image of sport that our American society has pressed upon us with the cultural values that have been accepted heretofore by men and women alike. Yet, recently on the sports scene, the feminine gender has edged into a position that makes this crystallized image of sport not so clear-cut. The feminine image in sport is not very well defined; in fact, it is confusing and contradictory from source to source and is thus causing considerable social discomfort and conflict among Americans concerned with sport. This difficulty in creating an acceptable social image for women in sport is exigent for not only men, both the sports minded and the chauvinistic, but also women, both the athletic and the sports unaware.

Why is it that our society seems to be unable to formulate a homological concept of how women fit into the sports world? A sociologist theorizes that social influence, conveyed through the processes of collective behaviors of society, is the powerful social force that causes individuals to respond to the actual or implied presence of one or more other individuals.¹ But some of the rationale for society's supposition of the role of women in sport may be attributed to our cultural background. Cultural values, sanctified by society members, certainly influence and dictate specific ways of thinking and acting.

The dominance of men in society is an age-old social phenomenon, exhibited in the Biblical writings that decreed woman was created to act as a helpmate for

man and in ancient Greek mythology where gods were recognized for their strength and power and goddesses were worshipped for their grace and beauty; social roles have been in keeping with the cultural images of "masculine" and "feminine" behavior.² For ages women were forbidden to engage in sports, but with the feminist movement of the latter nineteenth century, women began to participate in recreational sports for their self-enjoyment. Still, the social myths and taboos about physically active women persisted. Activities for women at that time were socially acceptable if they were performed without exertion, performed gracefully, and performed by upperclass women in private clubs. Women protected their girls from the onslaught of societal pressures by declaring excessively active sports as too demanding and dangerous to young ladies' health. The values and practices of women's sport were debated hotly, and the ultimate answer, which fit the accepted social feminine image of the time, was to avoid competition in women's sports completely.³ Although the battle was gallant, American sport was to remain with a masculine image for some time.

Now, we Americans are in the midst of another feminist movement in our society, and history is tending to repeat itself. Social tradition and cultural values are being dispelled, and sport is one social structure that will play a significant part in changing the contemporary social concept of women in American society as women shake off the severe disabilities that a millennium of prejudice and ignorance has imposed upon them.

In 1930, Florence Somers wrote in her book *Principles of Women's Athletics*, "The character of woman and her mental and physical reactions have probably arisen as an expression of the wishes of society. . . . the characteristics which the woman possesses today are the characteristics which man throughout the ages has wanted the woman to have."⁴ Pinpointed there is the real crux of the problem that still exists today. Since the beginnings of societal culture, the feminine role has been regarded as subordinate to the male role. The feminine gender has always been expected to find a mate, with the condition that the woman present a socially desirable image attractive to men, and, of course, this concept of femininity has always been established by the preference of men. Eleanor Metheny has pointed out how relative socially sanctioned images of femininity and masculinity are, and how they differ from era to era, from culture to culture, and from group to group. She defines this socially sanctioned image as "a composite interpretation of what the members of either sex may be, or do, without impairing their opportunities of finding a mate within their own social classification."⁵ The social image of American women is what men in our society imagine it to be. It follows, then, that the social image of women in sport is exactly how men of sport conceive it to be.

Men are initially responsible for the emphasis and importance of the feminine image in sport. Women in our society are motivated to be attractive to men, since men's judgment of their behavior is critical to their social position, as well as to their opportunity to participate in sports. The woman athlete faces a double dilemma; success in sports may bring failure in her social expectations. If she purposely fails in sports, then she may be successful socially, but either way she faces social discrimination.

What is the image that women convey to men as they participate in sport? Attempting to envision the aura of women in sport in our society is an unpropitious task that defies simple description. The gamut is quite extensive and ranges from the young girl who takes neighborhood tennis lessons in the

summer to the seasoned professional woman for whom winning or losing means more than merely the contest itself. This vast spectrum may be categorically grouped to identify better the qualities and assets of women in the different aspects of sport. Picture the feminine sport image of the professional, the Olympic performer, the collegiate athlete, the young girl, or the amateur athlete. Together these persons make up the group projecting an image of women in sport.

The professional woman athlete answers most publicly for all women athletes, for she is the center of the sports writers' attention. She finds a male-interpreted version of herself on any sports page whose writers consider her a phenomenon. The professional sportswoman at her economical best is a professional in tennis, bowling, or golf, since these are presently the leading money-making sports for women. She may be one of the few women who have dared challenge the more masculine-dominated sports roles as a jockey, baseball umpire, or motorcycle racer. The biggest money in women's professional sports is prize money, since salaried positions for women in athletics are something in the future. Women in professional sports are not there for show or for the publicity it may bring, but they are highly skilled sports competitors, matching their abilities against other professionals. When asked whether she used her professional role in tennis as a mechanism for advancing the cause of women's liberation, Billie Jean King replied, "I want to be treated as an athlete because that's what I am. I'm doing what I enjoy most and I'm getting paid for it." Robyn Smith responds to the same inquiry, "I'm not trying to prove anything as a female jockey. I do it because I enjoy it so much, and I think people should do whatever makes them happy."⁶ These sports professionals are mature women in a social world that reluctantly sanctions their behavior. They understand better than most other women how far social sanctions will allow them to go in the male-dominated sports world.

Probably the ideal sportswoman in the minds of the men in sports is the female Olympic athlete. She represents everything femininity should be. She competes only with women, offering no threat of invading men's events. All eleven sports in women's Olympic competition have been carefully selected to fit the social expectations of all entering countries. These events for women necessitate no visible effort but emphasize a show of skill and grace. Gold medal winners in figure skating or racing on skates, graceful gymnasts, skiers, swimmers, and even track participants depict an image all Americans are proud of. These attractive young ladies convey nearly all that Americans include in their socially approved image of what femininity is in sport. However, the end of these young athletes' efforts and aspirations comes with their final event in Olympic competition. Henceforth, their lives are expected by society to conform to the image of finding a mate and producing a family, since this is as high as the female's competitive talent should take her. Think back and try to remember whatever happened to Babe Didrikson, Althea Gibson, Wilma Rudolph, Muriel Grossfield, and all the other women Olympic medal winners of the past.

Look now at the image that the young coed with athletic talent presents as a freshman at her chosen university. Certainly, no effort has been made to seek out a female athlete to complement and please the sports-minded alumni. An athletic program exists now for her at the college level, but the college girl's interest must be in one of the sports that a woman professor has volunteered to coach. This young lady is extremely coachable, but her background, as well as

her college coach's background, has probably been limited to what the high school physical education teacher was able to teach her in a gym class with forty other girls who were not as interested in athletics, or perhaps she was provided the extra experience of before-school practice time allotted for high school girls' sports. If she was lucky, she may even have had some experience in community-sponsored sports. She is tremendously inexperienced compared to college men in athletics but probably has more desire to excel than most of her male peers. Somehow that combination of inexperience and desire does not seem to interest competitive-minded athletic administrators or sports fans who control the fate of modern athletic programs in college today.

Then, there is the image of the young girl who has not been convinced yet that boys are the only people in our society who are skilled at sports. Society may identify her as the tomboy, but often she is the girl performing individual skills on her own, without resorting to the cooperation of others who attempt to discourage her in her efforts. It already is an accepted fact that women athletes who excel begin to develop their sport skills at the ages of eleven, twelve, or thirteen.⁷ Picture here young, active girls who have not fully grasped the atrocities of the social world in which they will soon be denied a career in sports. These girls will soon realize that their peak performance years will be those of preadolescence, not because of their physiological limitations but because of the social restrictions that will psychologically limit their desire to excel in sports.⁸

The women athletes participating quietly in the various types of amateur athletics represent the multitude of women who seek satisfaction in performance of sports, unheralded except by chance in the sports world. These women have continued to participate in sport for their own pleasure, for exercise, or for the sheer excitement of amateur competition. Last year nearly 22,000 women were registered with the Amateur Athletic Union for competition in track and field, while swimming registration totalled more than 38,500.⁹ These women represent the quiet majority of women athletes who have learned somewhere the self-rewards of sports and are taking advantage of any sports opportunity wherein they exist. These women are no threat to the male-dominated sports world, since nobody ever hears about them from sports reporters, and their activities are never scheduled to conflict with men's sports. Who are these women, what are they like, and what do they contribute in creating the complete image of women in sport? A few scattered sport stories, for example, a woman pitcher in the American Softball Association who can pitch faster than a professional baseball pitcher¹⁰ or an amateur archer who held the National Junior Archery title at the ages of ten and eleven, surpassing her mother in world competition at fifteen,¹¹ depict amateur women athletes who were not barred from competing in the sport they do best. But what about the amateur female coxswain who made the crew at the University of Oregon but was caught between hostile male competitors from opposing schools and male teammates who chose to forfeit rather than compete against such prejudiced teams?¹² There are many more women amateurs who are very highly skilled but have not yet come to the limelight of the sports page.

One image remains to complete the social picture of women in sport. Female sports fans have multiplied tremendously, since the technology of television has afforded them the opportunity not only to see sports in action but to have a play-by-play explanation of what is happening on the sports scene and slow motion plays and replays. The interest created by television has brought more

women to follow sporting events than have ever been interested before. Although men still tend to believe that women are naturally ignorant about sports, women will not be kept from learning for long, and they not only will learn the mechanics of executing strategic plays in sports contests but will also soon develop strategies of their own in becoming active participants on the sports scene themselves. Women as sports spectators must not be underestimated, for gradually they will be changing the social image in sports as men come to expect women to understand the technicalities familiar to those exposed to sports. Television has also brought to the living room screens other less authentic women in the staged events of roller derbies and ladies' wrestling, which can only be defined as entertainment for social deviants. This type of image has only been detrimental to women in sport and reminds us of the exploitation of women by athletic box office aspirants of an earlier era. The mass media, both the television screen and the sports pages, have been controlled by men who report the sports scene from a male-oriented point of view. They slight women not only in reporting their sport events but even in presenting false, out-of-context accounts of athletic events as they occur. Those men responsible for selecting the sporting events that will be published obviously show a male bias.¹³ The nonparticipants on the sports scene, whether consumers or producers, contribute more to the social image of women's sports than usually is recognized. Yet the sports image that these nonparticipants form carries greater social influence than the participating athletes themselves.

Several research studies have revealed the importance of how men's ideas of women in sport fit socially into the sports world. Martinez and Emanuel, female tennis pros, questioned spectators at the U.S. National Tennis Tournament in Forest Hills, New York, to determine whether these fans came to see men or women play tennis. From their random survey of spectators, they found that men enjoyed men's matches only slightly more than women's matches but that women enjoyed both equally. Men thought male pros should receive twice as much prize money as female, but about half the women thought female pros should get prize money equal to what male professional tennis players received.¹⁴ College students have been solicited for their opinions about women's place in athletics. Although a study in 1968 showed considerable difference in opinion in how much college students favored women's athletics, there was general favor indicated equally by men and women students.¹⁵ A later study in 1970 determined that men students favor feminine participation in individual sports more than in team sports and that swimming and tennis were the sports men saw as most favorable for women.¹⁶ Another study the same year reported findings from a four-year study of women participants in intercollegiate tennis and golf championships. These women collegiate athletes were found to be typical college students and very similar to their nonathletic peers. However, they were more intelligent, more creative, and more self-sufficient and had enriched social backgrounds. These women athletes began participating in their sport at an average age of eleven or twelve.¹⁷

Other factual accounts of women formulating an image in the social world through sports are the reports of court cases where discrimination among sexes in sports participation has been challenged. Court decisions have been unpredictable and vary from state to state.¹⁸ IIEW has visited many campuses, causing concern for women's opportunities in sports to be considered seriously. Most school officials have attempted to settle grievances outside of court to avoid expense and public criticism of their schools.

Title IX of the HEW guidelines, with its promising implication about enforcement of equal support for men's and women's activities at federally funded institutions, will certainly have an impact on the social world of sport. If an opportunity is to be provided for women's sports equal to that currently afforded men's sports on campuses, either the women's sports programs will be expanded tremendously while men's programs have to be curtailed, or both programs will necessarily have to be modified to concur to an equal basis of program offerings. Title IX is an omnipotent force about to be signed into law. Are men's athletic programs prepared to meet the barrage of women who will be seeking their fair share in sports? Where will the expansion in women's sports end, if colleges begin to prepare women athletes as well as they have trained men for the "real" world of sports as a career in American society after college? There are as many young women athletes capable of promising future sports careers as there are young men in athletics today. With attention given to these young ladies equal to that given to college men athletes, they can fulfill similar potentials as athletes. The largest barrier facing women is the social hurdle put in their way by carefully taught cultural traditions. Men in American society hold the fate of women athletes in their social power as they choose to uphold or dispel these age-old cultural myths. As educated men in a sports profession, you are in a position to lead in formulating what the future image can be for women in sport. Her destiny is limited only by your imagination.

That's "Her" you see. Through your own eyes
She's yours to be as you surmise.

Women interested and skilled in sport need not be a threat to the masculine concept of the sports world; they can be a complement to the total image of sport in our society.

She's the feminine challenge engaged in sport
On any field, pool, track, or court.

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DISTINGUISHING CHARACTERISTICS OF SPORT

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Sport is something that most of us recognize and accept without giving much thought to what is involved. Conceptual analysis of sport has received relatively little attention even though sport is one of the more pervasive influences in society. It could be argued that this is entirely justifiable because some aspects of life might better remain unstudied. However, in recent years there has been some thrust toward the study of sport. If the study of sport is to continue and be meaningful, it seems logical to assume that we should at least attempt to circumscribe that which is being studied.

How, then, does one proceed to circumscribe sport? One way to begin is to look for those characteristics that collectively tend to make sport somewhat distinctive. That is not to say that all of these characteristics are entirely unique to sport. But together they provide a blend that tends to set sport off from other endeavors in life. There is also no inference that each characteristic is of equal significance in attempting to delineate the concept of sport. Subsequent analysis may well reveal that one or more characteristics is particularly critical in contributing to an understanding of the nature of sport. Each person will undoubtedly make his or her own analysis after assessing the preliminary analysis. At any rate, we tentatively suggest that there are seven characteristics that, as a group, tend to give a mark of distinction to what we call sport.

SPORT AND SPORTS

As a term, *sport* is used in both a generic sense and a specific way. Even though we might quibble about the peripheral cases of those activities that fall within the grouping known as sport, there is a fair amount of general understanding as to what is involved when sport is pursued as an activity or a topic for discussion. In the generic frame of reference, sport is comparable to music, art, literature, science, and religion. That is, we acquire a notion about sport that transcends an examination of any particulars that may be involved.

This generic use of the word has both advantages and disadvantages. One of the factors on the plus side is the recognition that similarities within the class or grouping known as sport tend to outweigh any differences. Superficially there would appear to be little in common among the sports of basketball, golf, and tennis, outside of the fact that a ball is used in each one; they are all games; and each is in some way or another physical in nature. However, that may be just enough to set these activities collectively apart from other endeavors in life.

A distinct disadvantage of the general reference to sport is that we may tend to jump to all sorts of conclusions that extend far beyond the realities of the situation. For example, we might conclude that a sportsman is a sportsman is a sportsman or that an athlete is an athlete is an athlete. Whatever evidence we have shows that this is far from being the case; sport skills are known to be quite specific. Nevertheless, it is amazing how often this fact is overlooked. We do know that there is an advantage in thinking, writing, and talking about sport as a collective enterprise, but anyone who does so should also beware of the pitfalls involved. The whole is always more than the sum of its parts and, yet, we often cannot arrive at a clear understanding of the whole without first giving attention to a detailed examination of the parts.

We conclude that it is necessary to begin by noting differences and similarities in uses of the terms sport and sports if one is to gain a fuller understanding of sport as a concept. Although the term sport is employed in a diversified manner, the various uses seem to have some relationship to sport as a *game occurrence*. In the remainder of this paper we will have in mind the totality of sports as game occurrences when we refer to the concept of sport.

SPORT AS PLAY

Sport is a form of play just as a game is a form of play. It seems important to begin by recognizing that play is a much broader concept than either sport or games. The need to play is universal; even though many people may tend to gravitate toward sport and other games in a highly organized industrial society, there is no reason to suggest that people will participate in sport or games as part of their play. Nevertheless, one of the more distinguishing features about sport is that it is playful. Sometimes the playful spirit is submerged amidst other drives (such as the desire to win), but the play attitude is always somewhat pervasive.

Sutton-Smith says that play is "a separate behavioral system."¹ We interpret this to mean that play is a life activity which cannot properly be viewed as being similar to other activities in life. Play has its own code of conduct even though it might be best not to attempt to spell out what constitutes that conduct. Now the question is whether or not sport is also a separate behavioral system. We began this discussion with the assumption that sport is a form of play. Superficially, this would lead to the conclusion that sport is part of a separate

behavioral system. However, the relationship may not be quite as simple as it first appears. The natural evolution in sport seems to be away from the purely spontaneous play origin that we associate with the word "frolic." As soon as sport is organized, part of the play dimension has disappeared. Furthermore, the tendency in sport is toward more and more organization. People who conduct sport programs and those who participate in sport cannot seem to resist the inclination toward increased organization. Does the play of children lead to sport participation by adults? Another way of wording that question would be to ask, Is play primarily a child's activity that is more or less replaced by sport participation when the child reaches adulthood? Sutton-Smith indicates that some theorists would answer Yes to that question. However, he points out that more recent research would reveal that this is not the case. The adult continues to play even though the play of the adult is manifested in different forms. Play is too large a concept to restrict it to the frolicking activities of children. Sutton-Smith suggests another dimension that may help to explain the relationship between children's play and adult sports. The key to both is to be found in dreams. Children play and adults play, each in their own forms. Children dream and adults dream. The play of children can be partially accounted for by an unconscious reaction to dreams, and the sporting activities of adults may also be traced in part to the same source.

We are not inclined to accept Sutton-Smith's analysis as the final answer on the relationship between play and sport. But he has added a provocative insight, which can contribute to an understanding of sport. Even though we may never comprehend all of the particulars of the intricate connections, sport is somehow properly associated with play, dreams, and daydreams.

SPORT AS A GAME

In attempting to analyze this particular characteristic, we begin with the assumption that sport is first and foremost a game. That is, sport in its purest and most complete form manifests itself in a game situation. We can observe numerous incidences of lead-up activities to a game of sport, and we also recognize that a game of sport is frequently displayed in an abridged or truncated form. But, if we are to search for the essence of sport, we are most likely to find it in some kind of a game situation. At the same time, we also know that all games are not games of sport. So, we can only gain a partial understanding of sport by analyzing the concept of games.

Whenever there is a game there are rules involved that tend to govern, more or less, the conduct of the game. We say "more or less" because there is an extensive continuum of structure involving rules in games. As games become more organized or formal, the rules tend to become more codified and, subsequently, binding. Games of sport, as we know them today, seem to fall more on the structured side of the game-rule continuum. The reason for this is fairly evident. Sport is inclined to some structure by its very nature. This is evidenced by an examination of several of the characteristics of sport delineated in this analysis.

Rules are not the only factor that characterizes the concept of games. Sutton-Smith classified games according to physical skill, strategy, and chance.² Loy also used this classification in his definition of a game.³ He also pointed out that these three elements can be employed in combination in a given game. If one reflects on this classification system in relation to games that are known and

played, the breakdown of games in this fashion seems to have considerable merit. We can all readily recognize elements of physical skill, strategy, and chance in games we play and/or observe. For instance, it would appear that many card games involve a combination of strategy and chance. By contrast, most games of sport seem to include all three factors even though the proportional significance among the three factors may vary considerably from one sport to another.

THE PHYSICAL DIMENSIONS OF SPORT

By and large there seems to be agreement on the idea that sport is somehow or another physical. This is certainly the central characteristic in setting sports apart from other kinds of games. However, as with many affirmations of that kind, the matter cannot be simply dismissed by stating that sport is a physical game. The basic problem is that "physical" is such a generic term. Loy uses the term "physical prowess," which denotes a latitude of possibilities.⁴ We think that his terminology is appropriate because it is sufficiently encompassing to prevent the exclusion of activities that technically should be called sports. Under that frame of reference football and a game of darts both qualify as sports. By the same token, the games of poker and monopoly do not meet the criterion. However, at the same time, the contrast between football and darts points to the problem of oversimplification that can be associated with the designation of sport as a game of physical prowess. From one standpoint, football may have as much in common with chess as it does with darts. If we are going to stick with the physical dimension of sport as a distinguishing characteristic, it might be fruitful to analyze further the scope of possibilities that fall under the rubric of physical prowess in sport.

We start with the recognition that people have certain physical attributes that contribute to performance. The word "performance" should be stressed in this context because there are a number of physical attributes, such as the color of one's eyes, that have no bearing on performance. Coordination, strength, speed, endurance, agility, and flexibility are among the attributes that influence what man or woman is capable of doing in sport. According to VanderZwaag, coordination is the only attribute that cuts across all sports to any significant degree.⁵ The reason for this is fairly obvious. Coordination, itself, is enough of an umbrella concept to permit a wide gamut of considerations. Of course, it could also be argued that attributes like strength and endurance are also pervasive in sport performance because a person needs some strength and endurance to participate in even one of the less strenuous sports, such as shuffleboard. But that may be stretching the point a bit.

This brief analysis of physical prowess as a significant dimension in sport leads us to conclude that Paul Weiss is probably correct in his assessment regarding the diversity of sports: "The sports we have today are heterogeneous. They do not explore every side of the human body."⁶ Weiss proceeds with a value judgment that this situation should change. Apparently he desires that more sports should be developed in an effort to arrive at a more complete physical appraisal of the participants. Regardless of whether one concurs with Weiss's opinion, he certainly has made a contribution by pointing out that physical prowess is not an equally applicable concept of all sports.

UNIQUE DEPENDENCE ON EQUIPMENT AND FACILITIES

In attempting partially to describe sport through a discussion of this characteristic, one treads on territory that is not easily covered. It is a bit difficult to explain how equipment and facilities contribute to a clearer understanding of sport. Yet, sport participants are so uniquely dependent on equipment and facilities that the topic cannot be properly avoided.

The first consideration that comes immediately to the foreground is the fact that there are relatively few sports that do not require something special in the way of equipment and/or facilities. A cross country race is one such exception. Another would be a swimming race across the English Channel or some other natural body of water. However, for the most part, specific facilities are constructed to accommodate one or more sports. Furthermore, sporting equipment tends to be more or less unique to a particular sport.

In brief, it would appear that part of the appeal of sport may be attributed to the extensive outlay of facilities and equipment that permeate the sport realm. What would golf be without a golf course? Furthermore, even the skill in golf is inextricably related to the differentiations among the various clubs. This kind of consideration may be one of the major factors in distinguishing between sport and certain other varieties of play. We don't need equipment to frolic, but we need specific equipment and facilities to play golf.

Finally, it seems important to recognize that the sportsperson or athlete is virtually inseparable from his or her equipment. This is particularly true of an athlete or person who pursues excellence in a given sport. Again Paul Weiss is most astute in his observation of this factor: "Ideally, the athlete eventually arrives at the point where he hardly notices his equipment."⁷ However, there is a paradox here. Even though the athlete may reach the point wherein he is scarcely aware of his equipment, he is, at the same time, uniquely dependent on that equipment. The dependence resides in the fact that the equipment must in no way hinder the normal effort. When a baseball player breaks his favorite bat, he becomes upset and distracted when his new bat has a different "feel" from the old one. Similarly, that baseball player prefers a glove that is well broken in so that he does not have to think about the glove. A glove that he has used for a long time becomes an extension of his arm, but a new glove is an attachment that must be molded to form the extension.

Certainly there is much more to sport than the mere utilization of facilities and equipment. But this in no way negates the fact that facilities and equipment represent a *sine qua non* for most sports. Once the matter of facilities and equipment are provided for, the other manifestations of sport can then be developed or unfolded.

THE NONACADEMIC CONNOTATION OF SPORT

Even those who have devoted their lives to sport would have to admit that sport is not first and foremost identified as an academic endeavor. The reasons for this are perhaps fairly obvious. When we think of sport the image of the "jock" comes first to our mind. Somehow or another it is difficult to equate the jock with the scholar. The fact that the physical dimension is so significant in sport also causes one to shy away from a direct association between sport and academic pursuits. Also, sport is either a form of play or an extension of play.

This further tends to cast a shadow of doubt on the academic quality of sport because any form of play seems to be too frivolous to be identified with the rigors of academic inquiry.

Naturally, the rejection of sport as an academic activity is not as simple and solid as that which is purported by superficial assessment. It would appear to be more fruitful if one could begin by offering a frame of reference for academic endeavors and then attempt to determine whether or not sport in any way fits into the picture.

The word "theoretical" looms large in any discussion of the nature of that which is academic. That which is theoretical does not necessarily produce a practical result. In other words there is a fairly sharp contrast between theoretical and applied pursuits. Theory may be applied, but the basis of theoretical investigation is to study something regardless of potential utility. Theoretical implies that which is liberal rather than technical or professional. Consequently, academic activities can properly be associated with what has been called liberal education. Hirst seems to offer an appropriate definition of a liberal education: "A liberal education is, then, one that, determined in scope and content by knowledge itself, is thereby concerned with the development of mind."⁸ This leaves us with the impression that an academic endeavor is one that is primarily concerned with the development of the mind. On those grounds, it appears that the nonacademic connotation of sport holds up quite well. At best, it might be said that sport offers only partial opportunity for academic development or academic development in a different kind of way. It is the latter alternative that will be further pursued here in an effort to enhance our understanding of sport as a concept.

If sport is academic in nature, it certainly is not so because it is primarily concerned with the development of the mind. On the contrary, sport offers an excellent example of an activity that provides abundant opportunity for the integrated development of the body and the mind. Should there ever be a reason to refute references to a mind-body dichotomy, this reason can be found by observing the athlete in action.

The need to have integrated knowledge, involving the coordination of the mind and body, is no better exemplified than in the ability of a fine quarterback. He is required to make many on-the-spot decisions while he is in action with 21 other participants, each of whom represents several variables. By contrast, one would be stretching the point considerably in suggesting that there is a similar mind-body knowledge component or knowledge-action component in the game of horseshoes. In addition to having the skill in pitching horseshoes, the horseshoe pitcher must also know what to do. However, the kind of knowledge required is akin to that needed by the tennis doubles player in determining where to position himself on the court.

In the final analysis what we are suggesting is that a sport like football may indeed be more academic in nature than a sport like horseshoes. This once more points to the problem of generalization about sport. At the same time it also seems rather nonsensical to suggest that football is academic in the same way that physics or psychology is academic. According to a pure conception of that which is academic, football would never qualify. To that extent, the nonacademic connotation of sport is one of the distinguishing characteristics of sport. However, it seems just as defensible and perhaps more productive to

suggest that sports can be academic but in a different kind of way. There may indeed be something academic about sport if the academic endeavor is not conceived as being limited to that which solely involves the mind.

THE PERVASIVE INFLUENCE OF SPORT

Sport touches the lives of many people in many different ways. This distinguishing feature of sport is perhaps the most obtuse among those considered, but the pervasive influence of sport may indicate something about the nature of that activity. If we were to confine our attention to direct participation in sport it would no longer be appropriate to refer to the pervasive influence of sport. However, spectator sport adds another dimension. This is particularly true when we include the television viewer as part of the spectator realm even though he may be once removed from the category of being a spectator in the primary sense. The truth of the matter seems to be that when people are not playing, they are watching sport; when they are not directly on the scene as spectators, they are reading about sport; and when they are not reading the sports pages, they are talking about sport.

There seems to be little doubt about the fact that television has been a most instrumental factor in contributing to the pervasive influence of sport. The number of sport participants may not have increased, but that in no way makes sport less pervasive. Evidence of increased pervasiveness of sport through additional television viewing and the accompanying talk about sport is not sufficient grounds to conclude that the quality of sport involvement has also improved. People may know more about sport than they ever have before, but such knowledge does not necessarily add to the escape and affective functions of sport. A release from personal problems or world concerns has long been recognized as one of the functions of sport or any other form of play. In other words, sport can serve as an escape mechanism. But there is reason to doubt whether television viewing of sport can offer the same degree of escape as spectator attendance at the event or actual participation in a sport. For one thing, television viewing usually takes place in the home where the personal problems may remain fresh in the mind in spite of any TV spectacular.

The affective function of involvement in sport via television has to be even more seriously questioned. We assume that affective functions are those that provide pleasurable or esthetic experiences. Television viewing of sport probably qualifies much better as a pleasurable experience than it does as an esthetic experience. Although it is most difficult to evaluate degrees of pleasure, there is also good reason to doubt whether the television viewer is likely to receive the same amount of pleasure as the primary spectator at the event or the sport participant in another setting. Any limitation of the television viewer's pleasure may be directly related to differences in the integrative function of the experience. That is, television viewing often does not provide an affiliative or other social experience between the spectator and other spectators. Likewise, the degree of emotional involvement between the spectator and the game itself tends to be heightened by being at the game.

Nevertheless, television viewing may qualify affectively as being a pleasurable experience. It is much more difficult to make the case for television observation of sport as being an esthetic experience, by contrast with participating in sport or being a primary spectator at the event. Colored television may have

heightened the esthetic potential, but even that cannot match the stimulation of the senses that is involved in being where the action takes place. In short, it is difficult for the living room or the family room to match the ball park or the golf course in this respect.

In spite of how people get their sport and what kind of experience it is for them, there is good reason to believe that sport is pervasive. Stone clearly confirms this assumption through his study, which was done over several years and involved 566 interviews. His study does show that sport was far more pervasive among men than among women, but this may be attributed to the social bias of the time in which the tendency was to think that sport was primarily for males. It is only within the past few years that there has been a general social awakening regarding the potential interest of females in sport. Stone found relatively more participation and less spectatorship among those of upper socioeconomic status. However, he also found a tendency toward the "U type" of distribution with relatively more spectatorship and less participation among the middle class than the lower class. Even more significantly, Stone's study reinforced what most of us suspect concerning the widespread nature of talk about sport. In his words, "if a man in our society does not have at least some conversational knowledge of sport he's viewed as suspect."⁹ More specifically, he found that among 274 male and 291 female respondents, only "three males and seven females never discussed sports."¹⁰

More than anything else, Stone's study clearly demonstrates the need for additional studies to determine the total impact of sport in the society. We know that sport is pervasive, at least for males in the United States. There is good reason to believe that sport is now becoming somewhat more pervasive for females. In both cases, we need to know more about the exact nature of the pervasiveness. For instance, there are at least five levels of involvement in sport: (1) People participate in sport in an active way. That is, they are physically involved in playing a game of sport or exercising through the medium of a sport skill. (2) People are spectators at a sporting contest. That is, they are physically present at the scene of the event. (3) People watch various sporting events on television. (4) People read about sport in newspapers, magazines, and books. (5) People talk about sport. The work that has been done to date would lead us to believe that sport is more pervasive in regard to levels 3, 4, and 5 than it is with respect to levels 1 and 2. But there is a continuing need to provide more data that will assist in answering a most significant question, How much emphasis is there on that activity we call sport?

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THE LEISURE OUTLOOK FOR THE PHYSICALLY DISABLED IN THE 1970s

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There is little exaggeration in the fact that approximately one out of every seven persons in the United States has a severe, permanent physical disability. They represent a vast range of causes and manifestations, each disability bearing its own particular associated problem.

A disability may be caused by an accident or by disease or it may arise at birth or be brought about in the aging process. It is safe to say that we will always have the disabled among us—the young and old alike.

Understanding this, we should be prepared to extend to the disabled the opportunities for a normal life that accrue to all people in our society. This means making accessible to the disabled equal opportunity for education, employment, and recreation.

For the physical educator, this has great import. He is in a position to aid the physically disabled people with whom he comes into contact by educating them in the use of their leisure time. Certainly this is one area in which many physically disabled people are lacking.

There is no doubt that more and more physically disabled people are attending regular public elementary and high schools these days. And considerably more are attending college than ever before. This has come about because:

1. New schools, as they have come into existence in the last 10 years, tend to be barrier free in terms of their architecture, permitting the disabled to use them independently.
2. Educating the disabled in normal environs has proven to be more effective in terms of rehabilitation than segregating them into classes or schools created especially for them.

How many are in the schools at this point it is hard to say, but nonetheless, a sizable population, increasing as time goes on, will be found attending regular schools at all levels. In the process, they will be seeking opportunities to express themselves in their leisure time—seeking activities that will fulfill themselves in the same way all of us do.

For the physical educator, this represents a unique challenge to utilize his skills, knowledge, and imagination. He can do much to assist the disabled in finding themselves in and through recreational activities.

Let me review briefly what has been done in the past and what the projections are for the disabled in the future. I am going to make reference basically to wheelchair sports, a realm of activity that has involved the physically disabled for just over a quarter of a century.

When World War II ended, there were a lot of disabled veterans in our V.A. Hospitals who were eager to do something physical. Many swam, bowled, or just played catch to help fill up the large amount of leisure time at their disposal. In a couple of locations, Corona Naval Hospital in California and Framington V.A. Hospital in Massachusetts, the vets got enough of their buddies together in the hospital gym to throw a basketball around and engage in a little competition. Before long, these little sessions became full-fledged games with a rough set of rules and some very avid competitors. Word spread to other hospitals about the birth of this new activity and soon teams were formed within hospitals to play each other. Because the activity seemed to have such positive rehabilitation benefits, V.A. officials encouraged the playing of games and permitted various hospitals to schedule games against each other. For four years, 1948-51, a national championship was awarded to the V.A. hospital team sporting the best record. It was a highly popular activity among the veterans.

Wheelchair basketball emerged in a community setting in 1949 when the 1st National Wheelchair Basketball Tournament was held at the Galesburg campus of the University of Illinois. In that year, six teams, all located in communities in the Midwest, met to play for the national championship. Out of the tournament grew the NWBA, which now has 95 teams in 15 conferences from coast to coast.

Wheelchair basketball is played according to NCAA rules with only three major modifications:

1. A man dribbles by holding the ball in his lap while he pushes on the handrims of his wheelchair. He must tap the ball to the floor for every two pushes. If he pushes more than twice in succession, it is a violation.
2. Six seconds are permitted in the lane instead of the conventional three seconds.
3. The wheelchair is part of the man for all out-of-bounds purposes and he must not rise off of the seat of the chair to play the ball.

Otherwise the rules are the same for wheelchair basketball as for able-bodied basketball. This underscores the basic premise of adapting activities for the disabled to keep the activity as close as possible to the original activity. This ensures that the experience gained by the disabled person is the same as that gained by the able-bodied person who engages in the activity. It is important that this element be safeguarded.

While wheelchair basketball was gaining in popularity, other sports for the disabled were making some headway.

In 1948 in England, at Stoke Mandeville Hospital, a spinal cord injury center, an enterprising doctor by the name of Ludwig Guttmann recognized the value of physical activity in the rehabilitation of his patients and put them to competing in archery and table tennis. In succeeding years, his annual games expanded to include the javelin throw, lawn bowling, and other events and he even invited teams from other countries to compete. Before long, the games involved countries around the world and the number of activities increased to

include the shot put and discus, wheelchair track events, weightlifting, fencing, basketball, and swimming. The games continue to be held annually and every fourth year are hosted by the country in which the Olympic Games are held.

In 1956, while the International Stoke Mandeville Games were in the early stages of development, a similar movement got under way in this country. In that year, the first National Wheelchair Games were held at Adelphi College in New York under the auspices of the Bulova School of Watchmaking, the Paralyzed Veterans of America, and Adelphi College. The games included the teams that made up the Eastern Conference of the National Wheelchair Association and were for men only. It was not until 1962 that women were invited to participate.

Seventeen successful National Games have been held since that first set of events in 1956. As many as 400 athletes, men and women, have competed in these games at one time. They come from all corners of the nation to compete. For the past two years they have had to qualify for entry into the National Games by participating in a regional meet. Performance standards have been set that must be met in the regionals. The 18th National Games will be held at East Washington State University in Cheney in June.

The National Games include all of the events programmed in the international games except lawn bowls, fencing, and basketball. A classification system has been devised that brings athletes to compete only against those who are similarly paralyzed. There are six classes into which a disabled athlete may fit, from 1A and 1B, the most disabled classes—quadriplegics—to V, where the athletes might have either residual paralysis from polio or an amputation.

Each year, the National Wheelchair Athletic Association, the governing body for all wheelchair sports, selects a team to compete in the I.S.M.G. and every second year, since 1967, a team to compete in the Pan American Wheelchair Games. This has afforded hundreds of disabled people an opportunity to do much traveling and gain marvelous experiences that they might not have been able to have otherwise. Such programs have untold benefits in this respect.

Sports for the physically disabled are now widespread and pretty well refined in this country. Yet they reach only a small percentage of the total number that could potentially be involved. A vast number of disabled of all ages wait to be served.

The great effort needed to reach these people will include the help of physical educators and recreators at all levels of involvement. This would greatly alleviate a situation, which now exists, where the bulk of the leadership resources comes from lay people. They have done a good job to date, but how much better a job could be done by those whose professional training and experience prepares them for such work? It would be a tremendous help to the total rehabilitation effort concentrating on these people if more physical educators were to become involved.

What is ahead in the latter years of the 70s?

1. More and more disabled will be attending regular schools. A good many now will be attending college as colleges become completely accessible and this will mean, for us, recognition that services are necessary for the disabled, especially in the area of recreation. Where sizable numbers of disabled have attended college, usually a program evolves, sometimes motivated and established by the disabled themselves. Examples of such programs are at the University of Illinois, Southern Illinois University, Hofstra University in New

York, Southwest Minnesota State College in Marshall, Wayne State University, Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, and the University of Houston. It is not far-fetched to think of an intercollegiate wheelchair athletic program to evolve out of this situation in the next few years.

2. Greater demands will be placed on community agencies to meet the recreational needs of the disabled. This will come about because there is a growing awareness that the community has a responsibility for furnishing leisure sources to the disabled in the same way that they do for all other people. The disabled will be using community facilities and involved in its programs at a greater rate than ever before.
3. One of the most pervasive problems for the disabled has been transportation, which in turn has had a serious effect on their participation in recreational programs. But it is foreseeable that as new mass transportation systems become accessible to them, they will extend themselves into community programs at a greater rate than ever before.
4. Lastly, there is the promise that the public's attitude toward the disabled will become increasingly more positive and a greater acceptance of the disabled as capable and achieving people will prevail. They will rightly take their place in society to benefit from all the goods available to all people. Not least of these will be the goods that accrue to the wise use of their leisure time.

SPORTS CLUBS—PHYSICAL EDUCATION'S NEW PARTNER

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Even a cursory review of the *Proceedings* of this association will reveal that one of the most frequent topics at its annual meetings has been the relationship between intercollegiate athletics and physical education. Throughout the years, concerned members of our profession have been attempting to solve a problem that might be compared to that emanating from a marriage between two incompatible persons. On the surface these two persons seem to have much in common, but deep within there are some fundamental differences that are always going to prevent them from achieving a happy and productive life. Perhaps my illustration is too "soap-operaish," but I believe my thesis is valid.

In view of the fact that the NCPEAM is now in its 77th year of existence and its basic objective, according to its constitution, is "the advancement of physical education in institutions of higher learning, including: the basic instruction program; intercollegiate athletics . . .," one would think that any problem that has been with us as long as this one would have been solved.¹ If there are any who feel there is no problem or that it is not worth further discussion, I refer them to the series of stories appearing this past fall in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* that dealt with "an unprecedented economic and ethical crisis" in intercollegiate sports.² This series gives ample evidence that there is a problem and that it is far from being solved. In fact, one might wonder if we have

accomplished anything, since the *Chronicle*, in the first issue dealing with this series, chose to run an accompanying story that pointed out that most of today's problems in intercollegiate athletics are identical to those brought out in the now dimly remembered "Carnegie Report," made in 1929. I am not suggesting that physical education is necessarily involved in *all* of the problems that have been and still are plaguing intercollegiate athletic programs but because of its very close relationship to this program, it is implicated in *some way* in almost every institution of higher education in this country. Thus in view of the lack of success we and others have had in solving this problem, I would like to propose that we stop attempting to patch up the marriage, get the divorce, and take on a new partner with whom we have more in common.

Before considering this rather drastic step, perhaps it would be of some value to look back and attempt to discover what caused the present problem. Let us start with a review of how athletic programs originated in our institutions of higher education. According to historians, there was some play in even our colonial colleges, despite stern warnings against it. One such warning was that delivered by John Wesley, writing in 1792 on education in church colleges: "The student shall be indulged with nothing which the world calls play. Let this rule be observed with the strictest nicety for those who play when they are young, will play when they are old."³ Unfortunately, a similar attitude to that expressed by John Wesley prevailed among educators in our country for many years. However, despite this attitude we have been told that even in the colonial period students were not to be restrained and that games played an important part in their lives. Undoubtedly it was an easy transition from impromptu participation in games and sports around the campus to organized intramural games among the various student groups. The inevitable next step occurred as skills were perfected and as other educational institutions developed in the same geographic area.⁴ This step was the arrangement of extramural contests and thus we had the first intercollegiate athletic contest, which, according to Lewis, was a race between one Harvard and two Yale boat clubs in 1852.⁵

In the period following that first rather inauspicious intercollegiate athletic contest, competitive athletics developed into an accepted and important aspect of campus life. They were, however, without an official sanction by those in charge of the institutions. As is inevitable when many small groups with rapidly changing leadership are operating completely independently, the situation became chaotic. It was then that the educational administrators finally stepped in, but instead of embracing this form of activity as an integral part of the mission of their institutions, they merely insisted that the students stop embarrassing them and that they organize themselves so that there would be "appropriate controls" over their activity. This demand led to the formation of student athletic associations with student-hired graduate managers to operate them. This action represented the first formal organization for athletics in our colleges and while some type of control was obviously needed, careful reflection on our part makes it evident that the precise action taken was a mistake from which institutions of higher education have never recovered.

In defense of the educational administrators of the last half of the nineteenth century, it should be pointed out that they had traditionally been concerned with matters relating to the academic and professional education of youth. It is not strange, therefore, that anything as far removed from classical learning and professional education as competitive sports would be resisted actively.⁶ (It must be kept in mind that this action occurred before physical

education was an accepted part of the college curriculum.) There is also another factor that must be considered in this matter—that of finances. Apparently money was as difficult to raise in those days as it is in our time. Thus by making the student athletic associations entirely responsible for their own financing, it appeared that the administrators were acting wisely. In retrospect, however, it is easy to see that this decision was the one that made the correction of the basic decision almost impossible.

Since the athletic associations had a function forced upon them that was largely financial and promotional, it was perfectly logical that their practices were those appropriate for business rather than education. And it was only natural that they took advantage of what the administrators of that day failed to consider: the enterprising nature of the students and alumni and the growing public interest in college athletics. Thus began a chain of events with which anyone who has read even casually of the history of sports, physical education, or higher education is readily familiar. So it should come as no shock that the University of Tennessee is budgeted to spend \$3,166,000 this year on its athletic department⁷ or that UCLA has a \$3-million-a-year sports program.⁸ While these two undoubtedly would be near the top of any list, if one were published, other reports indicate that Indiana University works with a budget of \$2.1 million, the University of Texas with one of \$1.8 million, and Kent State with one of \$1.1 million,⁹ while Bucknell expects to operate its program for only \$725,000.¹⁰ Although these budget figures do little to describe a program, they do add substantial support to the contention, which has been made repeatedly by persons in our own profession and by others who are truly concerned about higher education, that the typical modern intercollegiate athletic program is primarily a business operation.¹¹ Furthermore, it is well understood, of course, that this business is entertainment.

This does not mean, however, that there is no place for an intercollegiate athletic program of some type in this country's colleges and universities. Lewis, who examined its effect on higher education in its early years, concluded that it had a broad and substantial influence.¹² Mason, speaking of more recent times, cited a number of examples of how he thought his institution benefited from its program.¹³ Then, of course, there have been thousands of testimonies from former athletes who unquestionably felt they profited from their experiences. Thus, the intercollegiate athletic program probably will continue, but the point under discussion is whether it should be intimately related to the physical education program. Since it is clear that the former is a business operation, and a rather substantial one in many institutions, there should be little doubt that any such relationship is at best a contrived one and likely to be of little value to physical education. Therefore it seems clearly evident that there should be a clean break, with each going its separate way completely free to be judged solely on its contribution to the objectives of the institution within which it exists.

If this suggestion is taken, the physical educators must decide what they should do. No doubt many will feel that they should remain free and unencumbered. There is reasonably good support for such a decision. After all, physical education has had at least a toe-hold in the college curriculum for approximately three-quarters of a century and in some areas it has made significant strides toward genuine academic acceptance. However, some in the profession will have less strong feelings and will simply ask, Are we not complete

in ourselves? and/or Do we have any real need for a partner? As one who represents an institution primarily interested in what this association refers to as the basic instruction program, my answers to those two questions would be No and Yes. No, we are not complete in ourselves; yes, we do need a partner. Let me explain. I feel that even the best basic instruction program is incomplete because it is definitely limited in its ability to provide the carryover into postschool life that is so necessary if we are to achieve our objectives. What is needed is a transitional program from the rather formal pedagogical experiences of the physical education courses to the real world of postcollege life.

Perhaps it would be appropriate to pause at this point and consider what it is that the basic instruction program is attempting to do. If I were to ask any group of educators what the purpose of education is, I am sure I would get a variety of answers. However, I am equally certain that threaded through those answers would be three words, *preparation for life*. What do these words mean to physical educators? I would like to propose that, simply stated, this term means that our students can and will be able to apply easily in the future all that we have assisted them to learn while they are in our care. Thus, the real achievement is not how many of our students are playing badminton, practicing yoga exercises, sailing a dinghy, dancing, jogging, scuba diving, playing soccer, or horseback riding at the end of the course, but rather how many are engaging in the activity five, ten, twenty, or forty years from now! To get this type of carryover we must do more than give our students first-rate courses in these activities. I believe that we must wean them from our courses; we must provide an environment in which they can progress from dependence to independence.

Perhaps the clearest explanation of what is meant by "progress from dependence to independence" would be an illustration. For it, I will use one of the courses I teach, Elementary Badminton. The University of California provides the facilities for this course (a small but adequate gymnasium and locker and shower rooms); our department supplies the equipment (rackets, shuttlecocks, and nets, as well as clothing and towels if the students wish them); I arrange for the gymnasium to be free of other activities at that time and make certain that no other equipment is on the court areas, that the court surfaces are reasonably free of dirt and dust, and that the nets are properly hung. I provide the instruction and the encouragement. I suggest when and what they should practice. I frequently assign courts, partners, and opponents. I arbitrate disputes and arrange tournaments. At the end of the quarter the students leave, all reasonably competent badminton players; but are they really prepared to play badminton the remainder of their lives? I suggest that they are not, and that very few of them will continue to play even while they are attending UCSC, and perhaps none will play the game regularly after leaving the campus. No doubt everyone who has followed by example this far is astute enough to see why I have not accomplished my goal with this group of students. The problem is that in my efforts to attract the students to the course and to keep them in it long enough to learn the sport, I have done almost everything for them.¹⁵ All the students had to do was come to class. I assisted them to learn to play badminton (and hopefully something else!) but I caused them to become dependent upon me!

What physical education needs is some program into which students can go after they have completed their course work in the basic instruction program. This must be a program that bridges the gap between formal instruction and

free-play recreation; it should start students on the path to independence in a lifetime activity. This program is now available on every campus. Furthermore, in many cases it would be eager to be associated with a forward-looking, student-oriented body that has some status in higher education. Thus I can envision an extremely happy and satisfying marriage of physical education to that rather motley collection of student organizations generally called sports clubs.

While the traditional physical educator may be somewhat startled by such a seemingly ridiculous suggestion as I have just made, I believe there is substantial evidence to support it. Before I present this evidence, however, let me briefly describe the sports club program as I see it. Stated quite simply, it is a collection of student-organized, student-operated clubs, each of which originated because of the desire of several students with a similar interest to join together so that they might enjoy that interest more fully. This program is normally financed in part by student fee monies paid to the institution and in part by funds raised by the students in the clubs. It is most frequently administered by one or more persons assigned to the intramural sports or the recreation departments. The clubs represent a wide range of activities and the list varies from campus to campus depending upon the interests of the students, the breadth of the intercollegiate athletic program, and the facilities on the campus and those in the surrounding area.¹⁵

It is true, of course, that the clubs of today resemble in many ways those of the nineteenth century from which our present intercollegiate athletic program originated. However, it appears to me that there are two rather significant differences. One is that many of the activities are more recreational than competitive. An examination of the lists of clubs at institutions around the United States would reveal that many of the clubs involve such activities as rock climbing, folk dancing, sport parachuting, spelunking, horseback riding, scuba diving, and tai chi. The other difference that makes the sports club program of today unlike the one of the last century is that of the students' attitude toward competition. Today's students seem to want a much softer form of competition. This has resulted in the remainder of the clubs being formed around two slightly different groups of activities. One is composed of those that *could* lead to extramural competition but that usually do not. In this category one may find surfing, cycling, sailing, badminton, kayaking, and racquetball. The other group of activities are those that generally do lead to extramural competition but that might be characterized as play-hard-but-have-fun types. This group may contain such activities as rugby, handball, tennis, soccer, skiing, cricket, lacrosse, and volleyball. It is acknowledged that there are a few groups of students on some campuses who start a club with the hope that it will be accepted one day as a full-fledged member of the intercollegiate athletic program. There also are others who, after a few years at the extramural level, get to thinking along these lines. If such a move seems to be in the best interests of the students, the intercollegiate athletic program and the college or university, there is no reason why it should not be made. In view of the present financial difficulties of many athletic departments, however, such action is not likely to occur frequently.

Now let us examine the rationale behind my suggestion that the basic instruction program be merged with the sports club program. How will such an association better prepare the students for life? As was suggested earlier, I see the clubs as playing a role as what might be called transition agents. Physical educators would use them to assist their students to continue the activities they

learned in the instructional program and, more important, the students would learn that they can get along rather well without their instructors. In addition, participation in the club program can bring benefits that go beyond those of meeting their recreational needs, ones that are important in general life situations as well.

In listing the educational aspects of the sports club program, it probably is appropriate to begin with the leadership and organizational talents and efforts required to bring a club from conception to birth. There are numerous organizational obstacles which must be surmounted before a club can even begin to function on a campus. These initial efforts are followed by even more demanding ones as the club attempts to survive during the first year or two and then during its almost annual change of leadership. The students must learn to deal with all of the typical administrative problems: finances, communication, delegation of authority, assignment of responsibilities, etc. A partial listing of some of these problems and their attendant educational opportunities is as follows: (1) choosing an adviser and/or a coach; (2) arranging for places to meet and perform their activity; (3) preparing their needed facilities for use, e.g., lining fields, getting out standards and putting up nets, erecting goal posts, scraping and painting boats, marking fencing lanes, moving chairs and benches, and cleaning the floors; (4) purchasing, storing, and repairing equipment; (5) arranging for transportation, housing, and feeding; (6) contacting possible opponents and/or guests; (7) writing news releases and attempting to get the desired publicity; (8) preparing budgets and annual reports; (9) obtaining first aid or athletic training support and perhaps insurance; and (10) securing the services of officials, musical accompanists, and custodians.

In dealing with these matters, the students learn other even more valuable lessons that grow out of their many and varied responsibilities. They learn that by uniting and working hard they can be successful. They learn that they do not need a lot of money to accomplish things. They learn how to deal effectively with their peers, campus officials, and persons connected with similar clubs in other places. They learn the value of careful planning and attention to details. They learn that it is good to get together with opponents after a game or with people from similar clubs from other campuses or communities. They learn to make important decisions regarding themselves and the club. They learn that winning is not everything but that participation is rewarding in many ways.

Undoubtedly, there are many additional lessons which may be learned in a broadly based and well-organized sports club program. This paper is not meant to present every possible benefit; rather, it is intended merely to illustrate that there are many potentially valuable educational experiences connected with this program. It is hoped that the main point of the paper will be carefully considered by physical educators in regard to their own institutions. Is their present arrangement educationally sound? Is it really serving the students as well as it can? Would not a close relationship with the sports club program tend to increase the chances that their students in the basic instruction program might be more likely to continue their activities? If physical educators are really concerned about education and the long-range effects of their program, perhaps this paper will stimulate some interesting and significant changes in our profession.

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EXPANDING INTRAMURALS IN THE EMERGING STATE UNIVERSITY

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Why is it some universities have well-established, adequately funded, and sufficiently manned intramural programs and facilities, while other universities have facilities and programs barely worthy of the name? This question became more than academic for me when I accepted a position at Arizona State University and found ASU relegated to the latter category. Practically all directors of intramural programs would agree that most programs of excellence are those in long-established universities while the weaker programs are found in many of the emerging universities. It could be hypothesized that for every university with excellent facilities, funding, and programs, there was a concerned intramural director, physical education chairman, or athletic director who had the vision and who was willing to pay the price to bring his dream to reality.

Emerging universities are of two types. Many state institutions were located in rural areas and after World War II branches or satellite universities were started in the large cities, for example, the University of Illinois at Chicago Circle, the University of Missouri at St. Louis, and Louisiana State University at New Orleans. A larger number of emerging universities came from former teachers colleges that became state colleges and later state universities. Arizona State falls into the latter group. Generally, the emerging universities have grown fast and the priorities for sport programs, finance, and facilities have gone to intercollegiate athletics rather than to intramural sports and recreation.

RECENT HISTORY OF INTRAMURALS AT ARIZONA STATE

The history of intramurals at Arizona State is fairly typical of other emerging universities. After World War II the women's intramural program was good; however, the men's program lacked for leadership because it was given to an assistant football coach as an added responsibility. Both the men's and women's programs were funded from student body fees supplemented by HPER funds.

Students became dissatisfied with the men's program, and its administration transferred to the dean of students' office in the mid-1950s. The intramural program was always one step from oblivion, and as late as 1965 the budget including salaries was only \$11,000. Relations between Women's Physical Education and the Associated Students became strained in the mid-1960s and reached a climax in 1970 when the Student Affairs Committee decided not to fund either women's intramurals or women's collegiate sports teams. The intramural program was kept alive through the Department of HPER.

In the mid-1960s, a philosophy of all-campus recreation, including club sports, faculty and staff recreation, and informal student recreation as well as competitive intramurals, was advocated by persons in the Department of HPER and by the Vice President for Special Services. The University Recreation Committee was established. Accordingly, a position was funded for a campus coordinator of recreation. A national search was conducted, and an excellent person was employed in the fall of 1969 who held rank in the Department of

HPER as a part-time associate professor and was given the title "Coordinator of Campus Recreation." The position was funded through the College of Liberal Arts as a line position. Program funding came from student fees, but apart from funds for intramurals. Arizona State then had two programs funded and administered separately, actually three programs counting the small program for women, although the latter was brought back with the men's intramural program in 1973.

In 1971-72, the University Recreation Committee studied the question of financing and administering the recreation-club sports-intramural programs and made several recommendations in its report of May 1972. The term "physical recreation" was coined to include recreation, club sports, and intramurals to distinguish these programs from those recreation programs administered by the Student Union. The recommendations were:

1. The funding for physical recreation should be greatly increased.
2. The entire intramural-recreation-club sport program for students, faculty, and staff should be combined and administered through the Department of HPER.
3. Professional personnel administering physical recreation should be funded from state funds.
4. Separate funds for sport facilities should be accumulated from student fees to build facilities not likely to be funded by the state legislature.
5. A national search should be conducted for professional personnel.
6. Graduate assistants should be employed to assist with supervision.

The recommendations were given to the Vice President for Administration who responded by stating that the University Recreation Committee would be in a stronger position if it could document its request. Accordingly, a study was conducted in 1972-73.

THE STUDY

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to provide information that could support or reject the 1972 recommendations of the University Recreation Committee. Institutions similar to ASU were selected by criteria indicating that to be included in the study an institution must be:

1. a member of either the Western Athletic or Pacific Eight Conferences
2. an institution of a size comparable to ASU
3. located in a warm climate

Institutions are often compared with those in the same athletic conference or to universities nearby. The reason for selecting institutions of comparable size is obvious. Climate plays an important role in determining facility needs as indoor facilities are less important than for institutions located in a warm climate.

Delimitations

1. No attempt was made to include all institutions in the United States meeting the criteria.
2. Institutions had to meet two of the three criteria to be included.

3. To be acceptable, the report from any institution had to include programs for women as well as for men.
4. Field space was not included in the study because ASU has no immediate need for additional space. Actually, the major facility concerns were for tennis courts, swimming pools, and handball-paddleball courts.

Limitations

1. This study was based upon a selective rather than a random sample, which limits the breadth of conclusions that may be drawn. An attempt was made to balance established with emerging universities for each state.
2. The number of institutions finally accepted for study was further reduced when replies did not include programs for women as well as for men.
3. Full information was not received from all respondents—for example, either the funding or facilities section was omitted.
4. Several returned the study too late to be included.

Procedure

The instrument was created, critiqued, and revised several times based upon suggestions by HPER faculty members. The revised questionnaire was sent for further evaluation to the Intramural Directors at the Universities of California, Illinois, Michigan, and Minnesota. A covering letter explaining the project accompanied the instrument.

A total of 26 institutions were invited to participate and 17 acceptable returns were received in time. Participating institutions are listed at the end of the article.

Summary of Findings

General. ASU ranked seventh ($N=17$) in full-time student enrollment.

Facilities. The number of facilities was translated into the number of facilities per student to become more meaningful.

TABLE I

Facilities: Numbers and Ratio ($N=17$)

Facility	Number of Facilities			Ratio: Students to Facility		
	Range	ASU	ASU Rank	Mean	ASU	ASU Rank
Basketball courts	0-18	9	8	8,340:1	5,931:1	9
4-wall handball	2-21	6	11.5	3,542:1	3,954:1	13
Swimming pools	1- 7	1	14.5	12,445:1	23,722:1	16
Tennis courts	10-40	13	14.5	1,166:1	1,825:1	16
Volleyball courts	0- 8	8	1	7,491:1	2,965:1	3
Total	32-104	49	12	418:1	484:1	12

ASU ranked 12 out of 17 in both total facilities and ratio of facilities per student. The activities causing the greatest pinch in facility use at ASU were swimming, tennis, and handball-paddleball. It is noteworthy that ASU ranked low in facilities for all of these activities.

Finance. Various sources as well as the amount of funding were requested from respondents. This was the most complex part of the study because so many different patterns existed, such as an intramural faculty or staff person also serving part time with physical education or intercollegiate athletics.

TABLE 2
Annual Funding

<i>Source</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Range (\$)</i>	<i>Mean (\$)</i>	<i>ASU (\$)</i>	<i>ASU Rank</i>
		0-			
State funds*	10	151,800	29,807	11,150	8
		0-			
Student fees	11	580,600	96,273	46,450	7
		0-			
Faculty fees	3	13,500	1,686	--	--
		0-			
Athletic department	2	24,700	2,157	--	--
		0-			
User fees	1	5,000	357	--	--
		0-			
Others	3	23,500- 17,000-	2,214	--	--
Total	15	580,000	136,861	57,600	8

<i>Source</i>	<i>Annual Funding per Student</i>			
	<i>Range (\$)</i>	<i>Mean (\$)</i>	<i>ASU (\$)</i>	<i>ASU Rank</i>
State funds*	0- 6.60	1.55	.49	9.5
Student fees	0-19.61	3.32	1.96	7
Faculty fees	0- .64	.07	--	--
Athletic department	0- 1.97	.15	--	--
User fees	0- .27	.02	--	--
Others	0- 1.24	.12	--	--
Total	.63-19.61	5.42	2.45	10

*Institutional funds for private institutions

State funds and student fees were the two most common forms of funding. It is significant to note that only 3 out of 17 institutions used any other type of funding. Of interest is the fact that even though state funding and student fees were used by all institutions, all institutions did not use both types of funding. ASU would need to triple its funding per student from state funds to equal the mean amount allotted from state funds for physical recreation. The percent of funding from various sources would be of interest to those involved in intramural sports. They are indicated in Table 3:

TABLE 3
Amount and Percent of Expenditures from all Sources (N=17)

Source	Amount per Student (\$)	Percent of Total Funds
State funds	24.45	32.2
Student fees	46.56	61.4
Faculty fees	.93	1.2
Athletic department	2.11	2.8
User fees	.27	.4
Others	1.54	2.0
Total	75.86	99.8

Personnel. The study attempted to differentiate between the types of personnel used to administer intramural programs and the amount of funding for each type.

TABLE 4
Personnel Costs for Physical Recreation (N=13)

Type of Personnel	Range (\$)	Mean (\$)	ASU (\$)	ASU Rank
Nonacademic	0-139,000	25,346	5,000	6.5
Graduate assistants	0- 10,800	3,332	1,600	8
Faculty	0-212,600	28,982	17,500	3.5
Students	2,500-142,000	35,555	22,000	8
Total	15,750-488,300	93,218	46,100	8

The payment of personnel appeared to be one of the most divergent practices among the participants. For example, in the area of nonacademic personnel, ASU ranked near the median but would need to spend five times what is now spent to equal the mean figure. ASU would need to double its expenditure for intramurals for personnel employed in the programs to equal the mean figure.

The number of full-time equivalent (FTE) faculty and staff was also informative. The mean number of personnel employed was almost 9 and ASU employed 2.75 persons.

TABLE 5

Personnel FTE, Exclusive of Students, Employed for Physical Recreation (N=11)

Type of Personnel	Range	Mean	ASU	ASU Rank
Faculty	0-15	2.45	1.5	4.3
Graduate assistants	0- 3	1.09	.5	6
Nonacademic	0-32	5.36	1	6.3
Total	.3-32	8.9	2.75	7

ASU would need to triple the full-time equivalent employees to equal the mean of the FTE employed by 11 institutions reporting. Most institutions employed more nonstudent and nonacademic help than graduate students. The number of faculty employed for physical recreation averaged about 2.5 FTE per institution. The most interesting statistic was that no institution reported employment of faculty, nonacademic personnel, and graduate assistants.

Findings

1. For the 17 institutions studied, state funds account for only one-third of the money spent for physical recreation, while student fees pay for 61 percent of the costs.
2. Established universities have greater funding and more personnel in physical recreation programs than do emerging universities. This conclusion is not supported by tables, as the comparison of emerging universities with established universities was not a purpose of the study.
3. The total funding of physical recreation by the faculty, intercollegiate athletics, and users' fees amounts to less than 5 percent of all funding.
4. There is a tremendous range in funding per student for physical recreation, from 63¢ to \$19.61.
5. ASU ranks below the mean in the number of recreational facilities per student.
6. ASU would need to more than double its expenditure for physical recreation to equal the mean expenditure per student and would need to spend eight times its present amount to equal the institution spending the most for physical recreation.

Conclusions

Progress is usually made in a series of steps and compromises rather than in giant leaps. The University Recreation Committee, using the results of the study, made substantially the same recommendations in May 1973 as were made the previous year. The university administration accepted some recommendations and rejected others.

1. It appears the following positive results have been achieved. The administration of Arizona State University has been made aware of the inadequate physical recreation facilities, funding, and program and has responded in a positive manner:

- a. The funding for the physical recreation program will be increased substantially starting in the fall of 1974.
 - b. The number of professional persons working in the program will be increased starting fall semester 1974.
 - c. An undetermined amount of money from student fees will be made available specifically for sport facilities.
 - d. An additional swimming pool has been given a high priority in the legislative request for 1974-75, where previously it had not been under consideration.
2. The following decisions by the administration were counter to the recommendations of the University Recreation Committee:
- a. The physical recreation program will be administered through the office of the Vice President for Student Affairs and will be completely separated from the Department of HPER.
 - b. Student recreation will be separated from faculty-staff recreation.
 - c. No specific recommendations have been made as yet for faculty-staff recreation.
 - d. Professional leaders for student recreation will be paid from student fees rather than from state funds.
 - e. Graduate assistants will not be employed in the student physical recreation program.
 - f. It appears that a national search for all leadership positions will not be mandatory.
3. The many man hours spent since the fall of 1970 in trying to obtain support for the administration concerning the need for additional facilities and increased funding for physical recreation programs have been worthwhile. Arizona State University should soon have an adequate student physical recreation program and facilities will be built on a continuing basis.

INSTITUTIONS INCLUDED IN THE STUDY

Arizona State University
 Auburn University
 University of California at Berkeley
 University of California at Los Angeles
 California State University at Northridge
 California State University at San Diego
 University of Florida
 Florida State University
 University of Houston

Louisiana State University
 University of New Mexico
 University of Oregon
 Stanford University
 University of Texas
 University of Utah
 University of Washington
 Washington State University

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION

INNOVATIVE APPROACHES IN ASSESSING THE COMPETENCE OF PROSPECTIVE PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS

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The education of teachers is one of those nagging national problems that simply will not go away. Parents complain, university professors criticize, and school administrators feel that the universities are sending out teachers who cannot cope with daily problems of schooling. Teachers themselves complain about the quality of their preparation and training. What is the problem?¹

One factor to be considered in comparison with other professions is that teaching does not attract a large share of the nation's talented individuals. Only 13.6 percent of the students entering education are in the upper fifth of their high school graduating classes.

Another factor is that selection criteria are poor or nonexistent at most institutions. Both the process of selection into teacher education and the process of selection out of teacher education are inadequate. As a result of low selection criteria into teacher education and little involuntary selection out, standards for professional certification remain low. It is within our power to correct this if we wish to do so.

We in education generally agree that several types of qualifications are important for those planning to enter the physical education profession. These qualifications might well include the ability to do academic work as well as to perform physical skills. Also to be taken into account are the student's attitude, personality, emotional maturity, capacity to work with children, and, eventually, professional commitment to teaching.

It is the responsibility of the colleges and departments of physical education providing professional preparation to determine whether prospective majors possess these qualifications. However, we in the profession are often reluctant to refuse entry to the prospective majors for reasons other than academic ones. Although many teachers of students training to enter the profession of physical education accept in theory the importance of admission and retention policies, they find it difficult to deny a student the opportunity to pursue a career of his choice.

If we at the college and university level refuse to accept the responsibility of admission and retention, who shall? Should we as a profession police ourselves? Should we form ethics committees who would recommend withdrawal of certification from serious offenders or the very inept? Should we allow local and/or state certification agencies to determine who shall be retained in our profession? Considering that a college degree with a major or minor in physical education is approximately equivalent to a guaranteed life membership in the

physical education profession, we in physical education cannot abdicate the role of decision-making. To accept everyone is to make a decision. "And to condemn untold numbers of future students to a poor teacher may be a greater unkindness and error in judgment than to exclude one person from a career in physical education."²

The fulfillment of these responsibilities becomes increasingly complex because of the diversity of the entering students' educational backgrounds and needs, interests, and abilities. Therefore, if we are to individualize our program of instruction in order to meet these needs, it is imperative that we determine what they are. A course designed to provide measurements applicable to self-evaluation of a student as related to his potential in entering the profession as a teacher of health and physical education is essential. The measurements obtained from such a course could also be utilized in the counseling of majors and minors as they enter and progress through the teacher development program.

At LSUNO, a health and physical education skill evaluation course has been developed to aid in reaching these objectives. All incoming majors and minors are required to take this course as a prerequisite to any other physical education course. The prospective majors and minors are also assigned counselors who are prepared to work closely with them in counseling, both on an academic and a personal level.

Initially, this course was designed to obtain measurements in three areas. Each individual's physical makeup, physical capabilities, and skill levels in various activities are determined. Personality and attitude testing have been added to the original design.

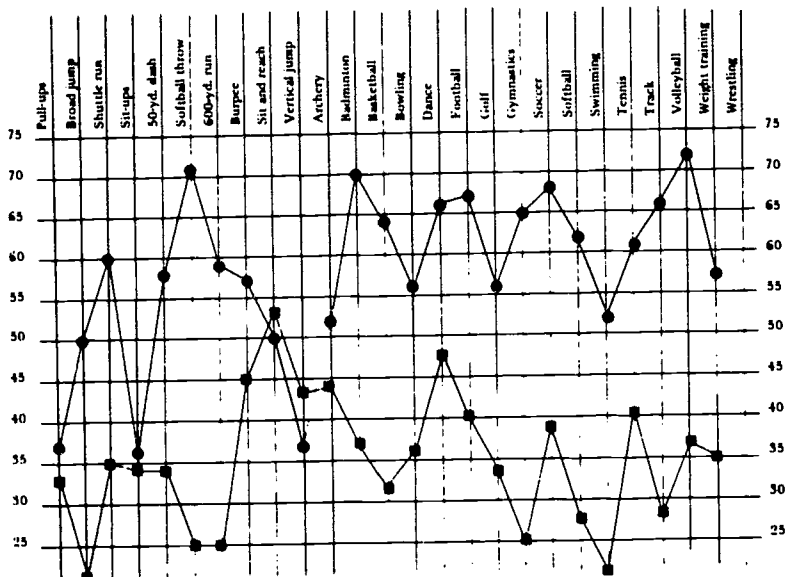
PHYSICAL TESTING

The physical makeup of each student consists of recording height, weight, somatotype, skin fold, vision, and personal habits, such as smoking and drinking. Physical capabilities are concerned with measuring the individual's physical fitness level (strength, power, and endurance), motor ability, reaction time, and flexibility. Next, skill levels are determined for each student in the following areas: archery, badminton, basketball, bowling, dance, field hockey (women), football, golf, gymnastics, soccer, softball, swimming, tennis, track and field, volleyball and wrestling (men). Finally, the personality and attitudes of prospective students are tested.

T-scores are computed for the physical capability and skill level of the various activities. These T-scores are then plotted to form a comprehensive profile for each student (Table 1). Through this profile the student is able to evaluate his abilities. Together the student and the counselor determine the strengths and weaknesses in each area. The student is then advised to take activity courses in the weaker areas in order to bring them up to an acceptable competency level (Table 2). The scores are then compiled to develop norms for future use.

In the case of a student who has shown strong or average competencies, there is little if any problem in counseling him into further activities that will be of benefit to him. However, the student with a low profile does present a difficult problem. If the student is consistently weak in many areas, he himself may realize that he is in the wrong field, or this may be pointed out by the counselor. Obviously, it is advantageous for the student to realize as a freshman,

TABLE 1
High and Low Profile Scores



Somatype _____ Sex _____
 Skin fold _____ Height _____
 Smoke _____ Weight _____
 Drink _____ Vision _____

Instructor's comments:

This student should schedule the following:

- 1000 Soccer, Soccerball, Volleyball - women
- 1001 Soccer, Soccerball, Volleyball - men
- 1002 Basketball and Sofball - men
- 1003 Basketball and Sofball - women
- 1004 Field Hockey, Track and Field - women
- 1005 Touch Football, Track and Field - men
- 1010 Golf
- 1011 Tennis
- 1012 Archery, Bowling
- 1020 Badminton, Swimming
- 1030 Basic Dance
- 1031 Folk Square, Round, 7, Social
- 1040 Beginning Gymnastics
- 1050 High Jump
- 1060 Height Training and Wrestling
- 2032 Creative Dance
- 2041 Rhythmic Gymnastics

TABLE 2
Activity Hour Requirements for Physical Education Majors

	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
Individual or dual	2	2
Team	2	2
Gymnastics	2	2
Dance	1	2
Swimming	1	1
Weight training and wrestling	1	—
Electives	2	2
Total	11	11

The profile of each student should be used in activity selection, with the lower T-scores receiving first priority.

rather than as a senior, that his chances for a successful, rewarding career may not be in physical education. It is unfortunate that a remedial program is neither practical nor available at this time.

Upon completion of the skill evaluation course the students who continue in the physical education program are faced with the responsibility of developing acceptable competencies in their weaker areas. This is demonstrated by a passing grade in all activity classes. Since many of the students will possess only minimal skill in many activities, it would be well to develop and administer a senior skills exit test. In this way the student would be held accountable to maintain and improve those skills learned and/or developed throughout his college years. For those students who desire to develop their skills further, advanced courses in various activities would certainly be advantageous.

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTING

Instruments used for personality and attitude testing are: the Cattell Sixteen Personality Factor questionnaires, the Cowell Sports Outcome questionnaire, and the Wear Attitude Scale. A battery of tests is being considered that would include the self-report inventory, one-word completion items, adjustment self-description, and directive imagination profile. The purpose of this is to diagnose and counsel maladjusted students out of physical education. The statement by Myron Brenton that "more than four and a half million students are exposed each year to seriously maladjusted teachers" emphasizes this need.³

The Cowell Sports Outcome questionnaire is used for general information to give an overview of the feeling toward sports of the prospective major. The students do not sign the Cowell; however, they do indicate sex. The Wear Attitude Scale is now being introduced with some strong reservations. Other attitude tests are also being considered.

The raw data from the Cattell 16 Pf is sent to the Institute for Personality and Ability Testing. A three-page computer read-out on each student is received from the Institute (Table 3). This information is used in counseling the prospective majors and minors. With the realization of the need for local norms a multilevel research design in which the Cattell and all other listed variables will be checked for significance is in the process of being developed.⁵

TABLE 3
16 PF
Personality Profile

<i>Low-Meaning</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	<i>High Meaning</i>
Cool, reserved						*					Warm, easygoing
Dull						*					Bright
Easily upset			*								Calm, stable
Not assertive					*						Dominant
Sober, serious					*						Happy-go-lucky
Expedient					*						Conscientious
Shy, timid			*								Venturesome
Tough-minded									*		Tender-minded
Trusting								*			Suspicious
Practical						*					Imaginative
Forthright						*					Shrewd
Self-assured								*			Apprehensive
Conservative									*		Experimenting
Group-oriented				*							Self-sufficient
Undisciplined					*						Self-disciplined
Relaxed									*		Tense, driven

Primary Personality Characteristics of Significance

Capacity for abstract skills is average. Involvement in problems may evoke some emotional upset and instability. He is shy, threat-sensitive, and retiring. As a person, he is tender-minded and esthetically sensitive. He is experimenting, has an inquiring mind, likes new ideas, and tends to disparage traditional solutions to problems. At present, he is rather tense, restless, and overwrought, possibly because of some feeling of frustration.

Broad Influence Patterns

The personality orientation is neither extroverted nor introverted. Attention is directed about equally toward the outer environment and toward inner thoughts and feelings. Tasks and problems are approached with emphasis upon emotional relationships. Less attention is paid to rational and objective considerations. This tendency is high (8.0). The life-style is balanced between need to control the environment and willingness to adapt the self to what is available.

Clinical Observations

Neurotic maladjustment is high (8.1). Anxiety level is high (8.3). Irresponsible acting-out behavior tendencies are high (7.7). Effectiveness of behavior controls is below average (3.9).

Treatment Considerations

Psychotherapeutic attack upon neurotic problems will be hampered by acting-out behavior. The influence of a controlled environment may help. Suggestions include a graded series of success experiences to improve self-confidence and a structured activity program to reduce anxiety. Best functioning is expected in emotionally supporting situations.

Occupational Fitness Projections—Academic Professions

Teacher—Junior High Level	Low
Teacher—Senior High Level	Low
University professor	Average

-
1. Skill score from evaluation class
 2. Grade from activity courses
 3. Rating of teaching ability from the method class
 4. Student teaching rating
 5. Principal rating after two years experience
 6. Cattell 16 Pf Form B
 7. Senior evaluation

Further, a study in Orleans Parish, the city of New Orleans, is being conducted, using 25 outstanding male and 25 outstanding female physical education teachers as chosen by the Parish Director of Physical Education. The teachers are to take the Cattell 16 Pf, indicate skill ability on a skill check sheet, and have a conference with the investigators. The subjects are asked a number of questions dealing with courses and experiences that aid in developing teaching competencies and courses or experiences that they would like to see added to help future teachers. They are also being asked their opinion as to what skill or skills levels a successful teacher should possess.

The purpose of the study is threefold: (1) to help determine a more relevant curriculum for LSUNO majors and minors; (2) to aid in counseling students on methods of combating the teacher strain that becomes especially pronounced in inner-city schools, where unique discipline problems, physical violence, verbal harassment, and lower-class life-styles conflict with the middle-class teacher's expectations; (3) to help in establishing needed competencies for prospective majors and minors.

From the Parish study and from the study of these students, it is hoped that information will be obtained that will enable physical education teachers to predict with some accuracy the success chances of prospective majors and minors.

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CONSOLIDATION AND INNOVATION IN GRADUATE STUDY IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT

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There is a definite need for both consolidation and innovation in graduate study in physical education and sport at the present time. (The terms *consolidation* and *innovation* may seem to be somewhat contradictory, but a case will be made for the inclusion of both.) In some quarters graduate programs in the field are being challenged, while in others their expansion in a reasonably controlled manner is being encouraged. Those that are developing do not typically seem to be following a plan in which the aims and objectives have been clearly delineated. Thus, the hypothesis is that there is not a completely rational explanation for developing programs based on the significant change that has taken place in the past decade.

To place this development in perspective and to offer some positive recommendations for the immediate and long-range future, the authors will answer the following questions: (1) What is the present status of graduate study in physical education and sport? (2) What needs to be done? (3) How should we go about the task? (4) What will we have then?

WHAT IS THE PRESENT STATUS?

The present status of graduate study in physical education and sport, considered on a North American basis, is difficult to ascertain without the benefit of a comprehensive investigation. Quite obviously it is not "going great," nor does it appear to be "on the way out." No one was making any great claims for the quality of graduate study and research programs in physical education in the 1950s, but there was a general feeling that programs were gradually improving. Thus, it was a distinct shock when James Conant in 1963 recommended that graduate programs in physical education should be abolished (3). McCloy had warned us in 1957 that graduate study was of a poor quality. Specifically he deplored the all-too-frequent elimination of the thesis requirement; the lack of prerequisites for graduate study in the field; the fact that many graduate faculty members were themselves not engaged in scholarly work; and the gradual elimination of reading competency in foreign languages as a definite requirement (4).

Whether one agrees with Conant's recommendation or the specifics of McCloy's criticism is no longer particularly important, but factors such as these, including the knowledge that a national conference on graduate study hadn't been held since 1950 (5), were undoubtedly somewhat responsible for the Conference on Graduate Education sponsored by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation that was held in Washington, D.C., January 8-13, 1967 (2). The report of this conference designated the following purposes of graduate study:

1. To add to the store of human knowledge through basic research.
2. To extend the range of nonverbal expression (dance, games, sports, etc.) through encouragement of human invention and imagination.
3. To prepare scientific research workers and humanistic scholars.
4. To provide advanced preparation for practitioners (teachers, coaches, supervisors, activity specialists, and administrators) at various levels of competency.
5. To develop leaders who have the ability to think and to employ their rational powers in gaining understanding, esthetic sensitivity, and moral responsibility (2, p. 21).

It would certainly be difficult to argue too strenuously against any or all of these five excellent purposes. The problem facing us, of course, is the extent to which we are achieving any of these purposes adequately in the early 1970s.

Quite obviously the 1960s was a decade in which disciplinary emphasis became a prominent influence in physical education. The Big Ten Body-of-Knowledge Project, which was spearheaded by the late Arthur Daniels of Indiana and King McCristal of Illinois, was an example illustrating the importance of such a trend (9). The 1967 Conference on Graduate Education included similar areas as central to the scholarly study and research of physical educators:

1. Meaning and significance of physical education including philosophical and historical considerations
2. Social, cultural, and esthetic aspects of physical education
3. Behavioral aspects of physical education
4. Motor learning and motor development
5. Biomechanics
6. Exercise physiology
7. Administration
8. Curricular aspects of physical education including supervision, instruction, and curriculum development
9. Evaluative aspects of physical education (2, p. 62)

Unfortunately just at the time when physical education appeared ready to add more of a disciplinary thrust, including the humanities and social sciences aspects of the field to an already heavily professional-preparation-oriented graduate curriculum, the financial outlook began to darken considerably. Research funds from Washington were cut drastically. Legislatures faced with ever mounting budgets found that educational spending at the college and university level could be cut without fear of political reprisal. Further, in many instances higher boards of education were created to keep a check rein on the universities, and it soon became apparent that political influences were pressuring these boards to exert a leveling influence on previous institutional profiles. On the other hand, it is undoubtedly fortunate that some controls were

instituted to prevent just about every university going from establishing PhD programs in a multitude of subjects (including physical education). Concurrently it suddenly became apparent that a PhD glut was developing in many different fields—a situation that practically no one had predicted.

WHAT NEEDS TO BE DONE?

The authors believe that there is an urgent need for both consolidation and innovation, and this must be preceded by *self-evaluation* on a local, state (provincial), regional, national, and continental basis (1). Many of us know particular universities that have recently taken a hard look at their graduate programs. Of course, there are institutions where physical education is being forced to do just that. Some states (e.g., Illinois) have professional organizations that are devoted exclusively to professional preparation matters, and quite recently the IAPHER zeroed in on the master's degree program and managed to achieve rather remarkable consensus among the participants (8). Most recently the voluntarily organized Council of Universities in Ontario directed each discipline to form a planning group composed of representatives from interested universities in order to plan for the next ten years at both the master's and doctoral levels (6). Earlier in this paper the 1967 Conference on Graduate Education in Physical Education was alluded to, and this represents planning at the national level. And recently the State University College at Brockport invited Canadian representation to a graduate study planning conference held at the upper New York State institution.

Recently Zeigler and Penny offered a number of generalizations about developing graduate programs in physical education (10). These thoughts were directed primarily at the master's programs, but they have direct implications for doctoral programs also. In the first place the development of a master plan for the program was urged in cooperation with all concerned. There is considerable merit in seeking advice from a highly competent outside resource person. This person should be selected only after it has been ascertained initially just which type or pattern of program is contemplated (e.g., discipline oriented). It is recommended strongly that any advisory person should be broadly based in orientation, with one highly specialized area of competency as a minimum.

Graduate faculty members should be added slowly, with consideration for the type of program for which they may be qualified. In the past, there has been a tendency to elevate people to graduate level work too soon; thus, it would be wise to "recertify" graduate faculty members each five years to make certain such status is still warranted. A reasonable balance between the numbers of men and women is important, but decisions must be made on the basis of qualification to serve according to the demands of the type of program being offered.

Local and regional needs must be served by universities within those geographical areas, but no one will ultimately thank an institution that becomes a diploma mill for tired teachers and coaches. Notwithstanding demands of school boards for upgrading, universities should resist the impulse to help with the creation of a glut because more bodies seem to increase financial leverage for larger budgets.

Whether one or more types of degree program patterns are implemented, it seems highly desirable to preserve a common core experience of physical education knowledge that all must have prior to elective course experiences.

There should be a reasonable amount of articulation between the competencies, skills, and knowledges required at the undergraduate program level and the common core experience of physical education and sport knowledge required at the master's level. This common core should include from twelve to fifteen semester hours of course work involving (1) research methods (including statistics); (2) the history and philosophy of physical education (from a persistent problems standpoint); (3) human motor behavior; and (4) a thesis or project seminar (credit or no credit) (8).

In addition to consolidation, i.e., a graduate program in which a discipline-oriented program combines its various offerings into two options (e.g., a humanities and social sciences option and a biosciences option), a need is seen for at least three different types of master's programs at universities situated in one region of a state or province. The greatest demand would naturally be for a master's program to prepare a more qualified teacher and/or coach (the MAT program or the MST program). A second type of program or degree pattern that should be available to a considerably smaller group within a state or a province typically would be the discipline-oriented master's program leading to the MA or MS. A third type of program deserves early consideration as well—a master's degree program in which the student could specialize in the theory and practice of some type of human motor performance, e.g., dance, gymnastics, aquatics (7). This idea is recommended on the assumption that it is time that we move positively to establish sport as a legitimate part of our culture that merits scholarly study at the university level. What should we call the degree? How about a master's degree in human motor performance (MHMP) with specialization in the theory and practice of gymnastics, aquatics, or racquet sports? If one is worried about these unusual letters, forget it. The letters "MPE" (or "DPE") are as strange and lowly as they come in the academic world; the fundamental question is whether the student graduates with a sound body of knowledge about human motor performance theory and competency and skill in human motor performance practice. At present one might guess that 70 percent of the students would be interested in the teaching-coaching degree program, while approximately 15 percent each would get involved with each of the other two program patterns (i.e., the discipline-oriented program and the human motor performance program).

Graduate programs in North American universities have traditionally been superimposed gradually on undergraduate programs. As a result they have grown organizationally in a relatively haphazard manner. The deans and assistant deans of graduate schools are usually here today and gone tomorrow—the assumption being that Professor Such-and-Such ought to be offered the post because of his scholarly achievements and ability to garner large research grants for the institution. As a result of this practice in many institutions, management policies and procedures have developed slowly in graduate schools. Typically the best way to find out how a problem should be handled was to ask "good, old Miss Murgatroyd" who knew six times as much about traditional practice as Dean Such-and-Such anyhow. All of this adds up to the firm belief that administrators of graduate physical education programs are well advised to develop their own policies and procedures manuals. Such a loose-leaf document should include (1) those policies and procedures that the graduate school insists on; (2) those policies and procedures that the physical education graduate faculty have decided upon—over and above those of the graduate school; (3) those policies

and procedures that the graduate chairman implements because they seem to be in the best interest of all concerned. In passing, it is recommended that, whenever possible, graduate programs should be constituted with a separate budget so that one and all will know just how much it costs to finance such a venture.

Moving from the assumption that both consolidation and innovation, which involve both new program emphases and combination of former options, are necessary, administrators and their executive committees should be most careful to see to it that money for equipment and facilities for scholarly endeavor and research should be made available to those who give every evidence of possession of the necessary knowledge, competency, and skill to carry out investigation. A proven track record—not promises or talk about what is under way—is undoubtedly the best recommendation as to where to put your money. There are far too many young men and women who are just about ready to get set to go in this regard. (This is not to say, of course, that a promising newcomer should not be offered the opportunity to make a modest beginning.) Along these lines administrators would be very wise to encourage young scholars with a humanities and social sciences orientation. For far too long the secret password of one of our favorite fraternities has conveyed a rather one-sided opinion as to the importance of the sciences in our outlook. It is now time to present our students with a comprehensive and balanced pattern of offerings in the humanities, social sciences, and physical and natural sciences at both the undergraduate and graduate levels.

Still further, the graduate programs of recreation and park administration and of health and safety education need and should have their own autonomous status so that these professions may develop fully in their own right. This is not to state that physical education and sport should not remain allied to these emerging professions or that the three programs cannot continue to function alongside each other in one overall administrative unit, such as a school, college, or faculty. A similar position seems possible for the field of dance and dance education, if it is possible to somehow make dance personnel feel at home in a physical education/athletics environment.

No matter where one turns, problems and difficulties confront those who would improve graduate study and research in physical education and sport. The focus of the various degree programs needs to be sharpened. The scholarly experience needs to be strengthened for some while the internship experience necessary for others needs to be improved immeasurably (or in many cases begun for the first time). No matter in which direction one looks, there is an obvious need for quality control. A better mousetrap can be built, if the field will simply set itself to the task.

The following incomplete listing of questions that can be raised bristles with unanswered needs that should be met as soon as possible in the 1970s:

1. What are the long-range aims and the specifically realizable objectives of the graduate department?
2. How do these aims and objectives correlate with the development plan of the university concerned?
3. How do these aims and objectives fit into the overall educational scheme for the state or province in which the institution is located?
4. How can the status of the graduate program in physical education be raised within the graduate school or faculty of the university?

5. Is it advisable for some qualified person to be made available—either within physical education or through the agency of the graduate school—who can assist professors to prepare excellent research grant applications?
6. Should there be a separate graduate department of physical education and sport with a separate budget? (What are the possible advantages and disadvantages of this type of arrangement?)
7. How can better qualified students be encouraged to apply for admission to the graduate program?
8. Has an admission quota been imposed on the graduate program in physical education? (What are the implications of the presence or absence of such a quota?)
9. How is the workload of graduate faculty members determined? (Is credit given for writing and research? Is thesis advisement considered a factor in the faculty member's workload? Are there limitations as to the number of master's and doctoral students that a faculty member may accept or be assigned? How is it determined whether a faculty member is qualified to advise at either level in a specific subdisciplinary area?)

HOW SHOULD WE GO ABOUT THE TASK?

If we are serious about improving our graduate study and research programs from the standpoint of both quality and breadth, we urge again the need for both consolidation and innovation. For example, a university may decide that it should consolidate its present conglomerate master's program into one specialized master's program that produces excellent coaches in one or more sports. Or it may be decided that a master's program at X University will be known for the outstanding elementary school teachers that it graduates. How about one university in a given state really specializing in the social psychology of sport and physical activity (most certainly an area of study that would seem to warrant positive reinforcement at the present time)? The idea here is to innovate through consolidation, while making certain that various needs and interests of graduate students are met in a particular geographical region. An extremely important point to make in this connection is that each and every student should be guaranteed a fine core experience in those subdisciplinary areas of the field that emanate from the humanities, social sciences, and biosciences.

Obviously, we are going to have to obtain most of our help from within ourselves—from people already in the field or at some stage in the educational training process. The important point to remember here is that graduate professors cannot and should not be all things to all people. It is an extremely rare person who is qualified to assist graduate students in thesis development in more than one or two subdisciplinary areas of research endeavor, not to mention helping advise research and/or scholarly projects relating to the teaching or coaching process. When to this is added the creativity and the understanding of human motor performance theory and practice in, say, dance, gymnastics, aquatics, or basketball that is needed for a degree program for the performer, it can readily be seen that a variety of professors with often different knowledge, competencies, and skills will be needed to fulfill the curricular aims and objectives of three different types of graduate programs. Obviously, any one university would be extremely hard pressed to offer the three types of programs

unless there was a most unusual commitment on the part of the institution concerned. Still further, the faculty needs required to staff these programs would of necessity have to be met by recruitment of truly scholarly physical educator/coaches from all levels and aspects of professional endeavor. We would need to seek out those men and women with potential and desire for knowledge, skill, and competency development—and even retrain them if need be!

As a field like physical education seeks recognition within scholarly circles, there is always an effort to draw personnel from related disciplines. This is unfortunately more easily said than done. In the first place the sincerity of the commitment of the related discipline professor being lured to relate to the physical education field must be examined most carefully. Quite often the professor may at heart feel that he is slumming when he goes over to the P.E. department. Or it may well be that he isn't doing so well in his own discipline for any one of a number of reasons, and he decides therefore to bolster his morale with a cross-appointment. Based on considerable experience along these lines, it is recommended that the appointment in physical education not exceed 25 percent for the first few years, and an identical percentage proportion is recommended for a physical educator with a cross-appointment to a related department. The idea of a 50-50 split is really not workable because of too many committee involvements, voting jurisdiction problems, etc. Appointments committees are well advised to search carefully for strong "physical educators' hearts beating within the breasts" of proposed cross-disciplinary responsibilities and duties.

WHAT WILL WE HAVE THEN?—A CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Considering the present status of graduate study and research programs in physical education and sport, this statement has offered a variety of ideas about what needs to be done as we look to the future. Recommendations have been made for consolidation and innovation as part of the implementation of three or more different types of graduate programs. The question of where we can get assistance—and *how* we should go about it—has been considered as well. Professors with a variety of talents are needed, and they must have a deep commitment to this field.

The internal and external environments in which we operate are, of course, most important and cannot be neglected in any future plans. However, a profession such as ours will develop properly only if it is based on a sound fund of knowledge provided by scholars and researchers. These men and women will be able to perform, teach, coach, administer, and supervise fine programs of physical education and sport according to the highest tradition of a respected profession.

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A WORKSHOP ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMPETENCY-BASED PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION PROGRAMS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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Physical education—"a field of study," "discipline," "integral and vital component of education," or whatever we choose to call it—is here and here to stay. At this point, it is necessary to define *physical education* as that part of the school program that deals with the knowledges, skills, attitudes, and values associated with physical activity. Children of all ages, men, and women need physical activity, whether in the form of an organized class, a competitive team, or just free play. There are many reasons why physical education is needed and there are prominent advocates of this stand in all phases of society. By the same token, however, there are also those who doubt the value of physical education. It is our job, as professional physical educators, to support, promote, and improve physical education to insure further its vital place in our schools and society.

The physical education programs in our schools (elementary, junior high, and high school) are rather direct implementations of what is being taught in the professional preparation programs at our colleges and universities across the country. It is, therefore, the salient task of the college physical educator to seek

out and encourage new and innovative approaches and programs in physical education that can be applied at all levels of education.

The purpose of this workshop is to allow you, the professional physical educator, to work toward the development of a relatively new strategy of professional preparation programs in physical education. This strategy involves a competency-based approach from, in particular, a performance-based perspective. *Competencies* shall be defined as those traits, skills, and actions that are necessary for the performance of teaching in physical education. Where applicable, attention will be focused on the development of performance-based (action type) competencies. (This does not negate the importance and development of cognitive type competencies where needed.) To date there has been little empirical evidence to support competencies deemed necessary for the successful physical education teacher. At best, this is acknowledged as an arduous task, but one that seems necessary for the insured future of physical education.

The following eight areas have been identified as crucial to the development of a well-prepared professional physical educator:

1. Sociology and psychology
2. Anthropology and history
3. Kinesiology and exercise physiology
4. Child and motor development
5. Curriculum and instruction
6. Evaluation
7. Administration and supervision
8. Research techniques

Each of the eight areas needs to have competencies identified within it. These should reflect the most important skills, knowledges, attitudes, and values necessary for the highest level of preparation of the professional educator. Competencies should be stated as descriptions of actions a physical educator may perform or be expected to perform.

Below are examples of such competencies for each of the eight areas.

Area: Sociology and psychology

Sub-area: Sociology

Competency: The physical education student can adequately explain the social necessity for the teaching of sport activities at the elementary school level.

Sub-area: Psychology

Competency: The physical education student can administer the Smith-Hopkins Attitude Inventory (fictitious name) to junior high school students and assess and interpret the results adequately.

Area: Anthropology and history

Sub-area: Anthropology

Competency: The physical education student can compare and explain the importance of the anthropological development of two distinct cultures and the games they play.

Sub-area: History

Competency: The physical education student can adequately research and write a historical account of a particular phase of physical education that has had a dominant influence upon our programs today.

Area: Kinesiology and exercise physiology

Sub-area: Kinesiology

Competency: The physical education student can adequately explain and demonstrate the kinesiological principles involved in the hammer throw.

Sub-area: Exercise physiology

Competency: The physical education student can adequately explain and demonstrate the effects of training at altitude for the long distance runner.

Area: Child and motor development

Competency: The physical education student can explain the differences in growth rates between elementary and junior high students and demonstrate activities appropriate for each group.

Area: Curriculum and instruction

Sub-area: Curriculum

Competency: The physical education student can adequately design, justify, and outline steps for the implementation of a junior high school physical education curriculum.

Sub-area: Instruction

Competency: The physical education student can adequately demonstrate three approaches to teaching a group of fifty high school students.

Area: Administration and supervision

Sub-area: Administration

Competency: The physical education student will study, compare, and explain the role of an athletic director of a high school and that of an elementary school principal.

Sub-area: Supervision

Competency: The physical education student will adequately supervise and evaluate two of his peers assisting in the teaching of a major's activity class.

Sub-area: Supervision

Competency: The physical education student will adequately supervise and evaluate two of his peers assisting in the teaching of a major's activity class.

Area: Research techniques

Competency: The physical education student will design, research, and conduct an experiment involving the high school physical education student and his parents.

These are merely examples and need not necessarily be important enough for inclusion as desired competencies for our physical education students. The number of competencies for each area will vary and there are no parameters that dictate an end number. Competencies that are identified as vital should indeed be vital. Our students are loaded down with enough irrelevancies and unusable trivia. The identification of competencies should be limited to only those that are truly important to the success of our students as professional physical educators.

It should be noted that all we are attempting to do here is identify the most salient competencies for our profession and not necessarily to identify the specific environment or the exact level of proficiency needed. These are, however, important tasks that need to be undertaken once competencies have been identified, for surely it is important for us to determine how well our students must understand, describe, and perform each competency. Once key competencies have been identified, we can set about the task of determining specific locales and situations and the accuracies, depths, and understandings that go along with these competencies. If these can be accomplished, the physical education student, the professional physical educator, and, consequently, the physical education profession can assume a more integral part in our schools and society.

Participants in the workshop were divided among the areas of importance to physical education. No one indicated an interest in the areas of anthropology and history; it is hoped that this was only because there was no one interested in those particular areas, not that everyone felt they are unimportant for physical education.

Presented below are the participants who worked in each area and a summary of what evolved as a result of their "skull" sessions. Granted, these are by no means the ultimate in competencies nor are they perhaps the most important ones, but they are a step in the right direction in an extremely important venture: identifying those competencies most needed by our physical education students who ultimately hold the key to the future for physical education.

Sociology and Psychology

Participants

Mary Estes	Northeast Missouri State College
John Nixon	Stanford University
Larry Locke	University of Massachusetts
Jim Odenkirk	Arizona State University
George Sage	University of Northern Colorado
Jay Ackers	University of Louisiana at New Orleans
Kieth Henschen	University of Utah
Frank Rife	Ohio State University
Dr. Baer	Southwest Missouri State College
Daryl Siedentop (discussion leader)	Ohio State University

Summary

1. There was some thought that "disciplinary" subdivisions were improper for a CBTE format. Many felt that the competencies would have been easier to generate if the subdivisions were built around the tasks that teachers perform in their professional roles.

2. We limited ourselves to performance and consequence assessment modes in the sociological and psychological areas. This seemed to restrict the discussion severely, as most of us are accustomed to conceptualizing these areas strictly in the cognitive domain.

3. There was substantial agreement that the teacher needs to be a model both in terms of skill and attitude. In other words, at the end of a unit on badminton the student should perceive that the teacher likes the game of badminton. The difficulty of assessment in this area was discussed, and most of us felt comfortable with using a Likert type instrument to assess student perceptions of the teacher in an area such as this.

4. The remainder of the discussion hinged on competencies that turned out to be in a clinical model. The real payoff of the sociological-psychological training of a teacher is for the teacher to act as an effective clinician in the school. This involves assessment skills, diagnostic skills, intervention and remediation skills, and validation and recycling skills. Each of these areas is capable of performance and consequence assessment.

5. There was substantial agreement that the use of this kind of model necessitates a substantially different use of the schools as training environments for preservice teachers.

Kinesiology and Exercise Physiology

Participants

Ray Welsh	Hunter College
Don Mapes	Western Illinois University
Dick Stebbins	Indiana State University
A.B. Harrison	Oklahoma State University
Harold B. Falls	Southwest Missouri State College
Ron Feingold	Adelphi University
Robert Beck	University of Illinois at Chicago Circle
Judy Blucker (discussion leader)	Florida International University

Summary

This group had trouble defining the word "competencies." It was finally decided that two types of competencies could be identified in these two areas. The first type would be cognitive competencies, which would be the student's acquisition of the knowledge of specific scientific principles presented in kinesiology and exercise physiology.

The second type would be performance competencies in which the student's application of these scientific principles would be assessed in practical teaching situations.

Example: Kinesiology

Cognitive

The student will have knowledge of the principle of conservation of angular movement.

Performance

The student will be able to identify the angular movement principle in a film analysis of gymnastic performance.

From our discussion, there seemed to be two basic implications regarding competency-based teacher education.

1. There must be a greater need for interdisciplinary cooperation within the undergraduate physical education program. The exercise physiologist must communicate with the methods teacher both in identifying and assessing performance competencies. The scientific concepts learned in kinesiology and exercise physiology must be integrated into other performance situations, i.e., methods classes, adapted physical education, etc. In one segment of the school term it would be difficult, if not impossible, to teach all of the body of knowledge concepts of an area along with the assessment of practical applications of these concepts to all students.

2. There must be a movement away from the traditional classroom setting to more practical field experiences early in a student's professional preparation career.

Child and Motor Development

Participants

Ken Church
David A. Field
Tom Burke
Hal Morris
Paul E. Hartman (discussion leader)

University of Maryland
Ball State University
Hunter College
Ithaca College
Florida International University

Summary

The group began its discussion by defining performance-based teacher education. Analogies were drawn to similar programs across the country and examples were cited by Dr. Hartman and pointed out in the syllabus distributed by Dr. William Fleming. Questions were raised by the participants in many areas, including how to write a performance objective, how to implement objectives into a program, how to evaluate the objectives, the rationale for the approach as opposed to current traditional programs in physical education, and whether or not public schools as well as universities seem to be headed in this direction.

Part of the discussion centered on the topic at hand, developing performance-based objectives in the area of child and motor development. Therefore, after reviewing these two areas, each participant was asked to write a performance objective for each area and then these objectives were shared with the rest of the group.

Following are four examples of performance-based objectives that were written by the group:

1. While teaching elementary school children, the trainee will demonstrate with 90 percent success those competencies associated with growth and development as listed in the enablers of this task. Success will be measured by the student's ability to perform the given task correctly.

2. The trainee will demonstrate with 100 percent success the ability to teach a series of given motor skills to junior high school girls. Special emphasis for the completion of the task will be placed upon the ability of the trainee to reach the atypical child.

3. The trainee will demonstrate his understanding of a phase in motor learning (whole vs. part) by planning and teaching a unit in basic racquet skills to a group of fourth grade children.

4. The trainee will demonstrate his knowledge of growth and development by planning and teaching a lesson in fitness in the category of endurance to a group of eight first grade children.

Curriculum and Instruction

Participants

Neil Dougherty
Ted Johnson
Bill Dellastatious
Chuck Lunder
Dave Leslie

Rutgers University
SUNY, Brockport
The Citadel
Saint Olaf College
University of Iowa

Tom Loughrey	Indiana State University
Rudy Moe	Brigham Young University
Dave Wurzer	California State University at Long Beach
Bruce Dick	University of Wyoming
Neil Hattlestad	Dakota State College
Dean A. Piase	University of North Florida
James W. Kent	Drake University
Gene Anderson (discussion leader)	Southwest Minnesota State College

Summary

The group that worked on competencies for curriculum and instruction divided into two groups. One group spent most of their time discussing the University of North Florida's program. The other group attempted to define some competencies in the area of instruction. One problem that seemed to cause difficulty was the spectrum of competency for instruction, which ranges from knowledge of a particular principle or construct to the actual skill of instruction that is measured by pupil outcomes. It was difficult to zero-in on single behaviors, since discussion would often generate ideas or concerns that led away from the competence under initial consideration. At this point we might be able to render some evaluation of the group leader's competence.

Examples:

The teacher will be able to predict his teaching behavior in a given instructional situation.

The teacher will be able to assess and modify his teaching behavior to meet a specified model.

The teacher will be able to evaluate pupil performance and redirect learning experiences.

The teacher will be able to create a classroom environment conducive to learning.

The teacher will be able to utilize effective reinforcement techniques.

When the student employs negative feedback, he is able to explain his reasons for doing so.

Evaluation

Participants

George Moore	University of Arkansas
Dick Laptad	Wichita State University
Larry Boleach	Northwest Missouri State College
Robert Takacs	Louisiana State University at New Orleans
Paul Dohrman	Illinois State University at Normal
Wendell Liemohn	Indiana University
Bill Gustafson	San Jose State College
Ed Shields	Mars Hill College
Ed Olson (discussion leader)	Texas Wesleyan College

Summary

The group was charged with making an effort to devise statements regarding those competencies that they felt were appropriate performance objectives in the area of evaluation and that were reasonable outcomes of an undergraduate major program. They used the sample that was given in the paper as a guiding statement. Based on this statement it was felt that the purpose of the workshop was to derive somewhat specific statements and not to be especially concerned with constructing an all-encompassing set of competencies pertinent to evaluation. The following five statements were the result of the discussion.

1. The physical education student can determine the most important five critical skill elements in two team sports.
2. The physical education student can define the following terms pertinent to evaluative techniques: objectivity, reliability, validity, correlation, standard deviation, and standard scores.
3. The physical education student can assign a grade to a group of students in relation to a list of specified objectives.
4. The physical education student can demonstrate a knowledge of the various philosophies of grading and the strengths and weaknesses of each.
5. The physical education student can develop an objective (multiple-choice, true-false) test in a given sport area.

Administration and Supervision

Participants

Deane E. Richardson	Arizona State University
Tom Kidd	Iowa State University
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John Byrd	Northwest Missouri State College
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Vivian Barfield	Colorado Womens College
Mike Morris	Northwest Missouri State College
Jim Ewers (discussion leader)	University of Utah

Summary

The discussion group recognized that there were two distinct areas of administration: (1) classroom administration and (2) the administrator. Since we were to focus our attention on the undergraduate curriculum, we felt that the beginning teacher would need the competencies of the classroom administration.

The following competencies were identified as being measurable and necessary for success in teaching and classroom administration effectiveness.

1. The physical education student should be able to implement preclass managerial skills relative to class organization, student assessment, and facility and equipment inventory.

2. The physical education student should be familiar with the authority structure of the state, district, and local professional governing organizations.

3. The physical education student should understand the authority structure within the community, the school board, the administration, and the department.

4. The physical education student should possess the ability to identify and implement the vehicles of communication in order to relate the programs of physical education and athletics to the community.

Research Techniques

Participants

Max Cogan	Northeast Missouri State College
Carleton Myers	SUNY, Buffalo
Troy Hendricks	University of Arkansas
Owen Holyoak	University of Florida
John Ingold	Goshen College
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Summary

The group discussed whether research is pertinent at the bachelor's level and concluded that it is. The following competencies were suggested:

1. The student will be able to identify problems.
2. The student will be able to read and comprehend research studies to become an intelligent consumer of research.
3. The student will become competent in setting up miniresearch designs.
4. The student will experience research to understand the value of research.
5. The student will demonstrate an awareness of the distinction between practical and statistical significance.

HOW TO USE PERSONALIZED SYSTEMS OF INSTRUCTION IN COLLEGE TEACHING

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The degree to which the competency-based movement is snowballing is evidenced by its high visibility at this conference and, if printed programs are reliable, at virtually every professional physical education meeting being held this year. Competency-based teacher education (CBTE) is certainly the "in" movement of the middle 1970s. There is good reason for this. Tightened educational budgets encourage us to look for ways to justify better what we do as educators. The fact that many state legislatures are now mandating

competency-based certification is more than slight encouragement to move in that direction. The free school and open classroom models have not been all that successful. And, of course, it is something new with an aura of sophistication and objectivity about it.

There is another compelling reason to jump on the CBTE bandwagon. It is a good model for education. The CBTE model is appropriate for our time for three reasons. First, it does make better use of what we know about under what conditions students learn most efficiently. Second, it places greater emphasis on what students can do rather than on what they can write on tests. And, in an era when students' rights are being examined and promoted, the CBTE model does offer a fairer, more individualized, and more humane method of education.

You will notice that throughout these opening statements I have been referring to the CBTE *model*. This was done purposely. In recently teaching a graduate seminar on competency-based teacher education, I gathered materials from many of the CBTE programs now operating. I am sorry to report that I have yet to find one that resembles closely the model upon which it was formulated. Indeed, some programs are bad cases of educational window dressing, i.e., old content and methods put in a new package without really changing the substance of the educational process.

We should all take a lesson from what has happened thus far in the CBTE movement. Too many have had CBTE thrust upon them without understanding the behavioral implications underlying the model. Too many departments have tried to move to CBTE in one massive effort. Too many individuals have had to make substantial changes in how they prepare materials, how they teach, and how they spend their day. Such change is often aversive, and plans are often compromised. It is also more than a little interesting to note that the CBTE movement has produced very little research, especially in the crucial area of the relation of teacher behavior to student performance, which is the heart of the model.

All of this is a roundabout way to get to my topic of "How to Use Personalized Systems of Instruction in Teaching College Courses." *PSI* (*Personalized Systems of Instruction*) is not a term that refers to a general approach to education. It refers specifically to a movement that has its origins in experimental psychology and has developed over the years into an experimental analysis of college teaching. This does not mean what has been learned in the PSI movement cannot be generalized beyond its boundaries and that is precisely why I would like to bring it to your attention in this paper.

It is my contention that utilization of the PSI format would allow for a much easier transition to a total CBTE program than has been evidenced and that use of PSI formats allows the individual teacher to have a much sounder base from which to effect gradual change in his or her teaching style. I see PSI as an extremely viable transition mode from traditional forms of instruction to what someday might truly be a competency-based education format.

It is more than a little interesting that PSI and CBTE have developed within the same basic time span without having much to do with one another. One could argue that PSI was born at the American Psychological meetings in Philadelphia in 1963 when Fred Keller read his now historic paper, "A Personal Course in Psychology."¹ The basic elements of what is now alternately referred to as PSI or the Keller method outlined in that paper were (1) a go-at-your-own-pace feature that permits the student to move through a course

at a speed commensurate with his abilities and other demands upon his time, (2) a unit-perfection requirement for advance to the next unit, (3) use of lectures and demonstrations as motivational tools rather than sources of critical information, (4) a stress on the written word in student-teacher communication, and (5) the use of student aides as proctors, thus permitting repeated testing, immediate scoring, and tutoring.

The basic PSI format has not changed a great deal from that described by Keller in 1963, although, as we shall see, several elements of the method have been extended, investigated, and refined. A general view of the method as it now is used reveals the following features:

1. The final performance for mastery is objectively and behaviorally specified.
2. The content and/or performances to be learned are broken down into units that are small enough for the student to master completely.
3. Performance is assessed and feedback made immediately available to the student.
4. Personal attention to each student is provided when the student desires it. The proctoring session is for all practical purposes a tutorial.
5. Aversive consequences are for the most part abandoned in PSI. Failing an assessment is penalized only to the extent that it requires a further time for the student to prepare for another try at the assessment.
6. The contingencies related to grading for the course are clearly specified in advance.
7. The student's performance is criterion referenced rather than norm referenced. At the end of a course students vary in amount of work completed, rather than how well they have done it. This obviously changes the meaning of the grade from that of a traditional course.²

It was not by mistake or change that PSI originated with men like Fred Keller. One might suspect that an experimental psychologist if asked to list the essential ingredients in shaping behavior would suggest breaking a task down into small units, creating a total environment in which responding is most likely to occur, rewarding the behavior immediately, and removing potential punishments. Translated into how to teach a college psychology class this came out as: if you want students to learn a lot and work hard, you provide small enough units for frequent feedback, set standards high enough to insure learning, give tutoring help when needed, provide good study guides, reward the work quickly by immediate grading and high visibility of progress toward the terminal reward, and remove the potential punishments of long units, long waits for test results, and information at a standard rate through lectures.

It is also interesting that when the PSI method is attempted without full understanding of the assumptions of the model, it is most likely to be compromised along precisely the features that are most basic to the model. One sets a criterion at 70 percent instead of 90 percent. Because one cannot get a sufficient number of proctors, one cuts the number of units down, thus creating fewer but longer units and more time between assessment sessions. One attempts to limit cheating by giving quizzes on Friday, thus eliminating the individual pacing feature. One cannot work with small groups, so tests are handed back several days later rather than graded immediately. What results, of course, is not a PSI course, even though the instructor may continue to discuss his use of the

Keller method. The same scenario could have been played along the CBTE theme, I am sure. One might even suggest that the CBTE model is more widely compromised than the Keller model.

The PSI movement is slightly over a decade old. To suggest that it is prospering would be an understatement. It has developed and spread across a wide range of disciplines. It has developed without substantial inputs of federal monies. It has developed a significant research base which has examined, refined, and extended the model. Although the movement clearly has its origins in psychology departments, within a few years of Keller's 1963 paper, PSI courses were being offered in virtually every college discipline—from physics to geography, from calculus to comparative politics, and from economic theory to comparative religion. If you indicate through the *PSI Newsletter* that you have developed PSI materials for a course in physical education, you had best be ready to receive requests for these materials from psychologists, physical educators, curriculum coordinators, assistant deans, and a variety of other types about whom you might wonder why in the world they would be interested in a PSI course in physical education.³

There are three distinct differences between the PSI and CBTE movements. On the whole, it should be obvious by now that the two models are similar in many respects. Those commonalities will become even more apparent when I trace certain developments in PSI models. There remains one distinct difference in method. PSI will not work unless you utilize students as proctors. In different PSI formats, proctors have been undergraduates who have previously taken the course, graduate students, and even students within the course who proctor a unit they have previously passed. The payoff for proctoring usually comes in the form of course credit, extra points within a course, and only occasionally in remuneration. To my knowledge, CBTE models do not use students in this way. The tutorial, immediate feedback, and individual pacing that are at the heart of PSI rely heavily on the use of student proctors.

A second difference is in the nature of the growth of the two movements. CBTE is almost totally a federally funded movement. In my judgment this has certain drawbacks. First it tends to be a bandwagon movement in which form becomes more important than substance. Second, it risks a short term commitment to the movement that fades when funding diminishes. I think that the CBTE movement has been hurt by "make-a-name" hustlers who have already faded from the movement even though it is younger than PSI.

A third difference may be related to the second; that is the appalling lack of development of a research base for CBTE. When one examines the Burdin and Mathieson review of research in CBTE one can only come away embarrassed.⁴ CBTE depends totally on developing causal relationships between teacher behavior and student performance. Without the growing examination of such causal relationships, both performance and consequence assessment will be rendered meaningless and could not begin to stand any rigorous accountability test let alone stand up as a basis for certification.

In this area the PSI movement has a great advantage. It was started by experimental psychologists. Its first publicity was in professional meetings attended and journals read by psychologists. To test the method empirically would seem to be the logical course of action to follow. That research was done and continues. It now forms the basis for what can be legitimately described as an experimental analysis of college teaching.

I would like to summarize briefly the major research findings. The first and most important of the research questions is quite obviously, Does PSI do a better job than a more traditional lecture-discussion method? The answer appears to be a rather clear Yes. McMichael and Corey,⁵ Sheppard and MacDermot,⁶ Alba and Pennypacker,⁷ and Born, Gledhill, and Davis⁸ have all reported similar results. Generally, a large number of students are randomly divided into sections utilizing PSI formats and traditional lecture-discussion formats. Dependent variables are usually midterm and final exams given to all students. Interestingly, the exams are most often the ones generally used in the lecture-discussion classes. Some studies have corrected for potential academic differences in sections by using cumulative grade point average as a matching variable for forming sections.

Grading of exams is always masked, so that grader bias is eliminated. In each of these studies the PSI sections have performed better.

Corey, McMichael, and Tremont retested their subjects after one semester and found that the original differences had been maintained, thus lending further credibility to the learning differences found in the above mentioned studies.⁹

In several of these studies, results of student attitude surveys were also reported. Generally, students tend to prefer the PSI method, although none of the studies had adequately controlled for what might be a novelty effect. Even though students regard PSI as more difficult or demanding, they rate it more favorably than the lecture-discussion method and indicate interest in having more courses using the PSI format.

Another interesting factor emerges from these studies. Normally, PSI quizzing relies heavily on fill-in and multiple-choice questions. Many of the dependent variables used in these studies included a variety of questions, including essay types. Even though proctoring utilized a restricted type of test items, it appears that whatever was learned was capable of expression in test formats different from those used during the learning sessions. Alba and Pennypacker test specifically for this.¹⁰ The "Pennypacker model" of PSI uses only fill-in items. Nevertheless, students who learned under this method scored better not only on fill-in items in the final exam but also on multiple-choice questions.

Several investigators have attempted to look more closely at the model. Lloyd et al. tested Keller's original assumption that lectures could serve as motivational devices.¹¹ Lecture attendance was the dependent variable while variations of lecture content served as independent variables. These included administration of unit quizzes, discussion of impending quizzes and course credit, lectures over reading assignments, and enrichment sessions, such as attractive films or speakers. Actual topics and lecturers were also variables. The results are clear and they refute Keller's original notion. No one who uses PSI today any longer talks about lectures as motivational. Indeed, Fred Keller must have been a special kind of person to have ever assumed that they were. Neither topic nor lecturer was related to attendance. Attendance was very closely tied to specific class contingencies. The more specifically the lecture was tied to a class contingency, the higher was the attendance.

The setting of criteria for unit quizzing and grading is of importance to PSI and had begun to be investigated. Johnston and O'Neill studied the effects of criteria and grade labels on performance within the PSI model.¹² One treatment used no criteria other than "let's do our best on these units." Three other groups

had criteria for an "A" grade defined, but the criteria were of substantially different difficulty. A fifth experiment studied the effects of grade labels as an additional criterion. Data reveal clearly that student performance tended to follow minimum criterion standards to a consistent and close degree. Stating only A-level criteria tends to produce better performance for all students. The confounding criterion of grade label lessens performance somewhat. The final sentence of this research study echoes a sentiment that I am sure is shared by most users of PSI: "In summary, the data suggest that with respect to criteria the teacher should start high and go higher."¹³

I have already suggested that the use of student proctors is quite important in the PSI model. Naturally, this aspect of the model needed to be investigated. Two studies are of sufficient interest to report here. First, Whitehurst and Grover have recently investigated the use of different kinds of proctoring formats.¹⁴ In this study all students had the same units, a 25-question multiple-choice quiz for each unit and a criterion of three or fewer errors for moving on to the next unit. Proctoring formats consisted of (a) a standard PSI tutorial, (b) a written tutorial that was corrected by a proctor and handed back the next day, (c) a group discussion over the unit material, and (d) no special preparation. Each group experienced each treatment, and results indicated that both forms of tutorial were superior to the discussion and no special preparation formats, although no differences were found between the oral and written forms of tutorial. An interesting sidelight of this study was that the student attitude inventory done at the end of the course indicated that the students not only found the group discussion more enjoyable than the other formats but also felt that it proved most helpful. Indeed, their perceptions of what were the most helpful formats were in inverse order from those that produced the best academic performance.

Individual proctoring obviously takes time. Person-hours are important variables for those of us who are committed to using a PSI format. Farmer et al. recently found that not all units need to have individual tutorials.¹⁵ There does seem to be a certain percentage of units that need to receive individual tutorial attention, but not all of them. Farmer's research team randomly assigned 124 students to 5 treatment groups. Several dependent variables were examined, including number of attempts needed to pass each unit, but the most important was a common final examination. The independent variables consisted of having 0, 25, 50, and 75 percent of the units proctored in the standard PSI tutorial format. The units not proctored in this fashion were simply tested, graded, and returned without the tutorial instruction or feedback. The 0 percent group received no proctoring on any units. They performed consistently poorer on all dependent variables. However, the analysis showed no differences among the groups that received variable amounts of proctoring. This shows that while proctoring is a necessary and sufficient condition for improved learning, continuous proctoring is perhaps unnecessary. In other words intermittent proctoring might produce the same academic benefits while saving many person-hours.

This latter feature is valuable for another reason. From a behavioral point of view one thing that any course should do is help to make the student a more self-sufficient learner. Intermittent proctoring tends to wean the student from the unique information and services rendered by the proctor. If a student can maintain and extend his academic achievement in the absence of proctoring,

then this can be viewed as a benefit to the student in the sense that it fosters independence as a learner. The exact tradeoff between this kind of independence and the social benefit derived from proctoring and other forms of student-instructor interaction has yet to be determined.

The point of all this is that PSI has not developed without some self-examination. The newcomer to PSI has a sound model to begin with, one that is constantly being investigated and revised. It is something that an individual can begin to use without mandates from state legislatures or department chairmen. More extensive use of PSI formats in teacher education programs would provide for a sound and useful transition to competency-based teacher education. I think that this can be demonstrated by citing some of the general extensions of the original Keller model of PSI.

Fred Keller, as most of you know, is one of our greatest experimental psychologists. The PSI format he first developed for the government of Brazil was for courses in psychology. He relied very heavily on the unit quiz assessment channel, even for those parts of psychology courses that one would normally refer to as laboratory experiments. Those who have extended the PSI model have not felt obliged to confine themselves to that phase of Keller's original model that stressed written communication between student and instructor.

H.S. Pennypacker developed a proctoring model that emphasizes verbal fluency.¹⁶ The student and proctor have their tutorial, and the assessment is based on rate of correct verbal responses to fill-in items printed on cards. The research of Pennypacker and his associates has shown that a rate of 3.6 per minute correct and 0.4 per minute incorrect is an "expert-fluency" level of speed and accuracy for upper-division college material. They have developed some very simple counters that make this kind of assessment technologically feasible for undergraduate proctors. I would suggest to you that this kind of performance is more than a little different from pondering over a unit quiz. My guess would be that students who learn under this PSI format do indeed have expert-fluency levels of knowledge.

However intriguing the Pennypacker method might seem, it still focuses almost exclusively on cognitive domain performance. It does not begin to approach the performance and consequence assessment channels that constitute the heart of CBTE. Lloyd and Knutzen began to move in this direction when they developed a PSI course that included many of the activities that psychology professors must do within their professional roles: standard unit quizzes, discussion formats, attending colloquia, reviewing research proposals, developing research proposals, and performing skills necessary to teach in an experimental laboratory.¹⁷

Collier and Smith carried that format a bit further in a course focusing on behavior modification.¹⁸ Principles and concepts were taught in the standard PSI format, but the entire course was designed to lead the student to develop skills necessary to modify behavior. Indeed, the final unit of the course was a behavior modification project that was assessed by the degree of behavior change effected in the subject. It is not far from this kind of PSI format to a CBTE model.

Most PSI courses now being developed utilize a variety of responses. The course guide that I will share with you this morning is developed in that vein. Our unit quizzes involve testing at four levels of a learning hierarchy that owes much to Gagne.¹⁹ Essentially, we use unit quizzes to test for memorization,

concept formation, principle learning, and problem solving. We use video tapes to assess observational and behavior rating skills. We use written projects to assess skills in things like writing objectives and contingency management plans. A discussion format is used to bring out issues inherent in the subject matter. Within the discussion format there is an attempt made to assess answering, listening, and questioning skills, although it would be less than honest to suggest that assessment of discussion modules was anywhere near the level of sophistication of the other three assessment channels.

PSI can be used by physical educators to teach everything from methods to physiology and from principles to biomechanics. More and more in the PSI movement, there is a trend toward assessing performance in more ways than just through cognitive channels. A change to PSI can be accomplished without most of the trauma associated with initiating a CBTE program. This includes the individual problems that one confronts when one loses many of the supports and controls inherent in the traditional pattern of courses. It also includes the institutional problems encountered when attempting to utilize CBTE within a system and bureaucracy geared to courses and credits in a traditional scholastic model. One might even be surprised to discover that when two-thirds of a faculty had changed to PSI, CBTE was only a step away and that step would not be so overwhelming.

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BODY OF KNOWLEDGE

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP: THE SACRED AND THE SECULAR

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Academicians rarely take the opportunity to speak their minds. Rarely because either frequently they have little to say or else because what they want to say isn't neat, tidy, and palatable. Academic vanity dictates that we display our best thoughts in the same way Hollywood actors display their best side or profile. All this is by way of saying that my presentation is a piece of logic-in-action rather than a slice of reconstructed logic. Rather than discussing reconstructed outcomes, I wish you to journey with me as I diagnose the ills of the body education. And while many of my thoughts will often dwell on the administration of educational enterprises, they will stray to the larger field of education itself.

THREE SYMPTOMS

My patient, the body education, has any number of symptoms. In the last few years it seems to have had its nose bloodied by one John Q. Public, it has displayed external symptoms of internal ulcers provoked by Holt and Kozol, and at least one diagnostician, Illich, has suggested it is dying, if not already dead.

From my standpoint, however, it appears to have three significant symptoms. First, it has indulged itself in a series of self-analyses, all of which suggest it is sick but seeking recovery. Second, although educators seem to be saying practically the same thing, none seems to be able to understand any other. Finally, although educators like to claim schools are different, schools appear markedly alike. Confronted by such a set of symptoms, what may we diagnose about the body education?

One pathology is evident even to the most casual clinician. We have no singular, agreed upon language for discussing the processes and products of education. The only truly common language system that does exist in the world of educational administration is that of exhortation. The language system is top-heavy with adjectives, pronouns, and verb forms and long on inspiration and social activism but remarkably short on specific subjects and objects. In the terms of our medical analogy, it is the language of "getting better" rather than the language of "diagnosing and prescribing."

If this piece of linguistic analysis is not too far afield, we should not be surprised to find that what appears to be a uniform rhetoric of educational leadership is in reality a babble of conflicting languages. In this babble, hidden

under "buzz" words or unexamined slogans, real differences in content and intent are sensed only imperfectly and obliquely. A language of exhortation, stripped of precise nouns and verbs, portrays shadows or chimeras more sensed than seen. Yet, as one seeks to move beyond this paucity of substance, real differences and shapes begin to appear. We recognize numerous dialects but eventually they cluster into the two distinct societies that encompass educational administration.

THE TWO SOCIETIES OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

The analysis presents a rather straightforward, simple view of educational administration. The one fundamental premise upon which educational administrators can agree, indeed, the one point at which the differing language systems permit genuine agreement, is that everyone in education ought to try harder and do better. However, beyond that singular point of tangency, two societies diverge in educational administration. As we shall see in a moment, these societies radically disagree on what trying harder and doing better look like. And, in their differing assessments, they are not societies stratified so that one is humble and the other proud. They are both proud. In order to explore these societies, we will utilize the sacred-secular extremes on Becker's continuum.¹

Becker divides societies into varying degrees of sacredness or secularity depending upon their reluctance or readiness to initiate social change. Change-resisting, or *sacred*, societies are characterized as either folk or prescribed societies. Societies marked by a readiness to change are termed *secular* and may be divided into principled and normless societies.

In a moment, we will utilize the division between sacred and secular societies to examine the two societies of educational administration. Before this is done, however, a caveat is necessary. We are far too prone to believe that education administration can be divided into the practitioners and the professors or the field and the university or the firing line and the ivory tower. Such dichotomies blur significant divisions within both the field and the groves of academe. After utilizing Becker's analytic framework, this point may be clearer.

Sacred societies do more than just resist change; they are constructed in ways that promote the active resistance of the socially new. In this sense, sacred societies seek mental isolation, develop only a limited literacy, and organize themselves around proverbs. One of the societies of educational administration is a sacred society.

The members of this sacred society, whether they be teachers, administrators, or professors, live in mental isolation. While they may brush shoulders with their neighbors, their values and value systems preclude significant alternatives. In this sense, they are set apart. Equally, their traditions are passed orally. What literacy exists is limited and based on well-grounded proverbs. The wisdom of these educators is contained in the proverbial maxims of their business.

The secular society of educational administrators, on the other hand, seeks social changes consistent with certain basic principles. These basic principles are subject continuously to scrutiny and interpretation. Rational debate serves to strengthen the link between education and other parts of society. Literacy develops as a way of explicating basic principles and ends by making possible a

literature for the unorthodox. Proverbs are replaced by prescriptions. Prescriptions tend to be explicit, to become codified, and over time to be internally consistent.

STUDYING THE TWO SOCIETIES

With the brief outline of Becker's constructed types in mind, this section will develop several lines of inquiry that may prove fruitful for analysing the two societies.

One persistent theme of the growth of American education has been the press for professional status.² Professional status implies that the expertise of educators warranted public confidence to the degree that educators could autonomously make judgments concerning the role of schools. As experts, the professional educators—teachers and administrators—could decide what schools ought to do. It is at this point, however, that public pressure has been most resistant, for rather than conceiving and conceding that educators are professionals, publics have frequently demanded control of "their" schools. Unwilling to relinquish control, publics often have sought to deprofessionalize teachers and administrators.

The sacred society of education has resisted public intrusion. Resistance has generally taken one of three forms. First, teachers have persistently demanded the rights of equality and autonomy. These rights have guaranteed the teacher the right of lawfully resisting mandates from administrators and publics. Second, administrators have deflected public criticism from teachers. In this way, the good principal defended his teachers from external influences. Finally, the system developed the notion that experience provided answers for dealing with batches of children that no parent could contradict because of experiences with a few. This resistance movement has developed a series of proverbs, some of which accentuate the values of "being there" and of "serving." One of the public school teacher's classic proverbs has been, Don't smile until Christmas. Thus, the mystique of experience supports and sustains the practicality of gaining control over children by the stratagem of starting out tough and softening into niceness later.

The secular society also has resisted public intrusion and frequently sounded the same themes but for markedly different reasons. Teacher autonomy has been protected because the secular society has assumed that teachers have the diagnostic and prescriptive skills of professional experts. Principals have had the right to deflect criticisms because they utilized a battery of professional techniques in the supervision of teachers that enhanced the teacher's capabilities. Systems stressed universalistic themes of equity that suggested that any parental claims were often pleas for special privilege or treatment.

The reform ideology of the progressive period permitted the two societies to utilize similar concepts but in decidedly different ways.³ Dewey's emphasis on the capabilities of the teacher to diagnose and prescribe permitted unlicensed autonomy; Thorndike's press for tests to assist teachers became an excuse for the failure of children and not the failure of schools; and Mort's press for uniform funding procedures became a way to provide schooling that cost little and remained invisible.

Perhaps the worst result of this period was the fact that the proverbial sacred society and the principled secular society really believed they were communicating with each other. Rather than being compelled to inspect the

systematically misleading uses of such terms as "professional," the two societies simply coexisted in the optimistic but fallacious belief that they understood each other.

One area of tension between the secular and sacred has been manifested in rites of passage and entry points for the administrative structure of the schools. In a recent study, Miller has traced how a single school system developed a procedure for selecting new principals.⁴ Interviews with principals suggested that many had consciously sought to capture a principalship while a few appeared genuinely surprised they had been selected. Miller's work carried him to the central office where he found a single individual who had sponsored candidates to the principalship. As director of personnel, this singular sponsor had established a series of trials that literally constituted rites of passage. For example, principals had to teach in the system at least five years, had to display considerable energy as teachers, and had to present themselves in certain ways. When this man alone, as sponsor, felt an individual was ready, that individual was then recommended to the superintendent.

What the sponsor most feared was what he called "political appointees." If friends of other people, such as the superintendent, were appointed, the sponsor had problems. He had not had the opportunity to "mold" these appointees so they would be "good" principals, by his definition of "good." In the case of existing political appointments, they were allowed either "to sink or swim" or urged to attend graduate school. Graduate training, with its ostensibly secular presumptions, was regarded alternately as a method of disposing of undesirable individuals through exile or, regrettably, of spoiling desirable men by making them strangers within the sacred corridors of the system. Nonetheless, the sponsor was tagged with the responsibility for the job performances not only of the political appointee but also those contaminated by the secularism of graduate study.

Finally, as the sponsor neared retirement he carefully selected his replacement. The individual selected had come through the sponsorship system, and Miller was led to believe that he was trained to perpetuate the system. Those who came after would look remarkably like those who had come before. The sacred society of that school system would be perpetuated because the proverbs that embodied the wisdom of schoolmen would still be uncritically mouthed and followed. Instead of a self-renewing society, this system was self-regenerating.

For the sacred society, it is clear that the most important characteristic of the school is its givenness. In the same sense that the topography of the land is given, that the wisdom of the elders is given, and that the structure of human nature is given, the school is given. The fundamental encounters of child and teacher, teacher and administrator are not chancy but common. Over time a fundamental set of common occurrences has generated a common sense about the school. This common sense eventually is distilled in a series of proverbs about the life of the school. These proverbs stress the commonalities of the school.

For a moment, let us examine two of these proverbs. First, teachers—Don't smile until Christmas. This proverb recognizes as a common fact of school life a tension, nay, a warfare, between teacher and students. The things that teachers are supposed to do to children are the things that children resist having done to them. Until teachers are able to do things to children, these children are not to be rewarded. And then, this reward is given to all children and is fleeting. Smiles can be quickly turned to frowns.

The proverb recognizes the batch of children, the artificially developed class, as the most significant unit in an analysis of the school. Although teachers look to individual children as embodiments of success or failure, a given part of the school is that teachers work with groups of children. The most crucial fact in the life of the teacher is that rarely does he or she face one child. Instead, the teacher has to learn to deal with a group. Every behavior of the teacher has to be couched in group terms. Hence, the mode of the classroom is one of making examples. If little Johnny steps out of line, he is made docile not only as little Johnny but in such a way that all other students in that class know what will happen to them if they ape Johnny's sins. Thus, not smiling until Christmas makes the class what teachers teach, the class what teachers control, and the class what teachers may fear.

The second proverb deals with administrators: Roughly, A good principal protects his teachers from public interference. Even if teachers have erred, this should be discussed privately, never publicly. This proverb stresses the precarious nature of the school in society. As the physical repository of knowledge and its symbolic representation, the school cannot admit either the tentativeness of what is espoused or the unevenness with which teachers do their work.

Although principals may brag of the diversity of teachers in their schools, they must admit that this range is circumscribed. For the ranks of teachers may include the socially approved deviant, the overly gregarious, or the slightly solitary but cannot include the iconoclastic or the bombastic. Within this narrow range, teachers may express themselves—may do their thing—with only limited fear of public intrusion. The slightly left-wing teacher may confront the slightly right-wing parent in a domesticated and well-understood hassle. But no far-right-wing teacher must be permitted to collide with a far-left-wing parent. Such encounters are not translatable into compromises that preserve the integrity of the school.

Teachers who fall within this sacred ring must also be protected in their dealings with classes, not children. Parents think and speak in the singular. They are always worried about the particular. The pleas of parents are direct assaults on the class and the pervasive pluralism of the language of administrators and teachers. These assaults lead to one of the ways teachers and administrators handle parents. While they feign interest in Johnny, their intent is to force parents to compare Johnny to others. Hence, in issues of discipline, Johnny must, and his parents must, be made to see that he is disrupting the class. Academically, Susie must be compared to national norms, local norms, and her classmates.

If we extrapolate from the proverbial wisdom, the folk sayings, of educators, the school takes on an interesting shape. It is a densely populated, potentially dangerous environment. It must be dealt with in terms of controlling groups of often unwilling people. The custodial emphasis results less from the native attitudes of teachers and more from the given nature of schools. Wide corridors permit not only rapid movement of students, but also maximum surveillance stations. Schools have few places in which to hide, and at least until the last few years, the best of these, the boiler room, belonged to the teacher who wished to smoke.

Let me pause for a moment. I have not indulged in this brief exercise to demean educators. What I have sought to do is to describe briefly one of the societies found in education. Its emphasis on the givenness of the school

underscores the continuity of present practice with past wisdom, accentuates the commonplaces of everyday life in schools, and ultimately provides a background in which school and teachers cohabit. Like the calloused hands and wind-fostered squint of the farmer or the rapid, impersonal bustle of the urbanite, teachers eventually begin to look alike. Their similarities reflect the life of a school with its given conditions. Eventually, they categorize students as either good or bad; they intuitively distrust all excuses and they grow accustomed to children not reaching their potential. While they may find either joy or despair in the few, the great majority are simply there.

While these two societies exist in education, each often seems unaware of the other's existence. However, when the issue of professionalism arises, they become only too aware of their significant dissimilarities.

For the sacred society, the nature of the professionalism is the professing of traditional wisdom. Professionals provide the structure that the world has exhibited over time to the new generation. The necessity to accumulate experiences about this structuring gained from teaching is paramount. In this sense, educational history is a tale that charts what ought to be done in schools. The wins and losses of the past are lessons for dealing with the on-rush of the future. Since the past must be revered, it must not be revised. The lore of the past is not to be either debunked or demythologized. The hero gods of the past must remain without feet of clay.⁵

It is at this point that the sacred society faces the charge of mindlessness. It is mindless because it has no tools for exhuming and exploring its assumptions. The sacred categories of thought encapsulate in proverbial form the best of experiences. The sacred society lacks any tools for describing or analyzing how random experiences become the basis for proverbial wisdom. Although the professional professes these proverbs, he has no instruments for examining the nature of proverbs themselves. Lacking this peculiar set of tools, the sacred society defines its service to mankind as exposition. Greatness involves those who can "tell it like it is" better than others. The techniques become the essence of the game. Mindlessness happens when the players become so embroiled that they forget why they are playing. In education, mindlessness occurs because the sacred society can find success in practical techniques without ever being able to discuss why students should have these techniques. Hence, students frequently were asked to read Jerry Farber's "The Student as Nigger" and then write a five-page, double-spaced critique with their name in the right hand corner. Such a critique proved that these students weren't perceived as niggers by an instructor who demanded they refer to him as "Doctor."

I am not concerned with the overreliance on form or the pompous professional correctness of the situation. What I am concerned with is the fundamental failure to develop introspective tools for the analysis of why we do things in education. The simplistic paradigm is all too frequently one in which the teacher is the ultimate independent variable—the First Cause, if you will—and the student is the dependent variable. I ask that you consider with me the ultimate independent variable to be the tools the teacher has available for examining the teacher as an independent variable. What categories, concepts, models, types of relationships, and variables do teachers utilize when they think of themselves as teachers? Equally, what categories do administrators use when they think about the goals of school, the task of managing that enterprise, or the supervision of the development of fledgling teachers? I would suggest that the significant characteristics of the sacred community are not only its lack of the

tools but also its unwillingness to see the need for these tools. If the school is given, then professionals adapt to it. Their major concerns and the contours of their activities are shaped by the persistence of the impact of the commonplaces of the school day.

Eventually, then, the sacred society consistently blurs distinctions that could be made about the means and ends of education. Education becomes the experiences offered by schools. The character of education is identical to the things taught and learned in school. The secular society, on the other hand, is skeptical of the intimacy of means and ends. Things taught in school may be linked to certain ends of society but other experiences may contribute as much, if not more, to the achievement of ends. Perhaps the greatest heresy of the secular society is its ability to think that maybe some things learned in school are inimical to the ends of society and have to be unlearned. In the process of conjecturing about the dysfunctional consequences that schools may possess, the sacred and the secular part company.

If the secular society has an outstanding characteristic, it is its preoccupation with changing schools. Rather than being institutions whose charters and characteristics are chiseled on granite tablets, schools change. Not only do schools change but they are amenable to systematic efforts to change them. Classically speaking, they are contrived organizations whose practices and very nature are responsive to manipulation. In this way, secular schools are future oriented. In place of the sacred givenness of the everyday experiences of school life, secular thinkers speculate on the chancy nature of the future. Efforts to predict future needs are involved, then, in systematic attempts to restructure the schools.

Two examples of this restructuring process seem clear. First, in the latter part of the nineteenth and the early years of the twentieth centuries, American education was convulsed by the finding that transfer of learning did not take place in the ways earlier thinkers had postulated. Latin, Greek, and geometry did not sharpen the mental tone of the mind. These findings staggered traditional pedagogy and sent it in search of a new method of teaching. Whatever new method was to be utilized, it had to provide ways of positing alternatives. Alternatives were necessary because the Darwinian thesis challenged the notion that fixed categories of the past were guaranteed future existence. The problems with which John Dewey wrestled seem abundantly clear today: if the past does not determine the future and if the mind is not trainable through intellectual exercise, what needs to be done to make tomorrow possible? Dewey found the answer to these problems in a universal methodology, a methodology that made rational manipulations to ensure future outcomes a virtue. Teachers, then, needed to possess skills for diagnosing and prescribing for children ways that would foster increased skills in utilizing a particular methodology. Rational problem-solving, however, is an important tool to possess only if we take the secular perspective that the future is a problem.

Second, in the late 1950s this country responded to the Russian Sputnik with systematic efforts to recast our schools. Math, science, and language received intellectual and financial resources to a degree unparalleled in our history. Schools became, in that now well-worn phrase, "instruments of national security" controlled by national policy. The point is manifest: such efforts are made only if the school is malleable.

Yet in efforts to compare and contrast these two societies, any discussor of American education begins to grow increasingly uncomfortable. For as one wag has put it, "American education covers the full gamut of alternatives from A to B." Schools are simply alike. They have remarkable similarities in organizational structure, concerns, and architecture. Teachers try to look like ads for Pepsi, secretaries look with calculated disdain on parents, and principals look as if they have had it all. There is the buoyancy of future hopes being eroded by the sins of the past generations etched into the face of every American schoolman.

Again, our task is not one of either defaming or praising educators. Rather, we must turn now to ask, Where does it lead us to know that education has two societies? I wish to follow three potential paths. First, the two societies suggest a research direction. Second, they suggest why educational criticism fails to change education. And, finally, the dichotomous societies help explain why education has its own peculiar brand of change and dissent.

First, it seems clear that occupations seek to distinguish themselves from other occupations. Under market conditions, bidding for new recruits and their talents, occupations seek to make themselves attractive by aspiring to higher rank than their competitors. Occupations may indicate differences from others by their emphasis on such things as skill level, prestige, security, risk to life and health, autonomy, and mobility. Frequently occupations indicate their societal ranking by stressing their income potential and its difference from other occupations.⁶ Hence, if we were usual researchers we would explore educational administration as an occupation, we could contrast its skill level to that of lawyers or bricklayers, its prestige to that of surgeons, or its mobility patterns to those of nurses. In fact, much of the scholarly work in the sociology of occupations and professions abounds in just such comparisons.

On the other hand, relatively few studies have analyzed the differences of prestige within any given occupation. Hughes, for one, has speculated that "the prouder or more prestige the occupation, as measured by its position on the scales used by students of the phenomenon, the greater the differences within it."⁷ Hughes suggests that some occupations may develop their own elite, lower-middle class, fundamentalists, and hangers-on.⁸

Quite simply, Hughes's categories present a lovely agenda for research in education. What are the systematic functions and dysfunctions of prestige grading within education? For example, in what ways is administrator prestige enhanced by increasing male hegemony in the field? Or, what follows from the obvious "leagues" of graduate training institutions? In terms of teachers, is the manifest press for equality of pay and treatment related to latent conflicts based upon prestige grading? My task, obviously, is not to spell out an agenda but to entice others to do some thinking and research in this area. Frankly, it is a paradigm that I find exciting.

My second path has to do with the lack of impact of much educational criticism. To help my point, I would like to draw your attention to a recent paper in which Willower presents a catalog of the sins of educational administration.⁹ While such an exercise appears commonplace in the field of education, Willower's effort is marked by a cogency rarely displayed.

He begins by suggesting schools encompass three domains: inquiry, values, and policy formation and implementation. Work in schools, then, should illustrate the best blend of what we know and what we desire to know in terms of what is possible. Willower suggests schools fail on all three counts. First, in terms of inquiry, Willower points out that it has become almost exclusively the

province of universities. Such a divorce from the world of practice is dangerous and may be fatal because a significant segment of the staffs of departments of educational administration denigrate this activity. Practitioners in the field find support for their wariness of theoretical enterprises in the camp of the enemy. Equally, the modes of inquiry taught are often overly psychological and evoke mechanical responses on the part of the student. Second, in the realm of values, Willower underscores the slippage between what schools ought to do to children and what actually happens to children in schools. Scolding us for our unwillingness to be deliberately reflective about the linkages of means and ends, Willower contends the values reflected in schools are those of the society and the community at the moment. Finally, Willower sees the world of practice as a world of coping. In a world disjunct from the domain of inquiry, schools respond in ways to reduce uncertainty and danger. "Routinization, universalistic processing and treatment of clientele, ornamental innovations, public relations efforts, controlled inspection and restricted entry, and other mechanisms function often latently, to reduce uncertainty and risk."¹⁰ Wisdom in the world of practice seems best illustrated by the ability to anticipate and weather the next crisis. Hence, Willower presents us with a litany of the sins of omissions and commissions in educational administration. We have divorced knowledge from practice, we have failed to link our values to our practices, and we are buffered by the world rather than commanding it. What is our response?

What I find so sad is that although Willower's criticisms are so elegant, they will be agreed to and then lost. Because administrators rarely know which society—sacred or secular—they live in and for, they feel no need for intellectual consistency. Only at the level of gut issues and gut decisions do belief systems stand in sharp relief. In the salon of discussion, on the other hand, administrators can chasten others for their reliance on the givenness of the school while advocating manipulation and then, moments later and in all good conscience, decry manipulation because the practical, given nature of the school makes change impossible. All too frequently, administrators shift from sacred to secular, from forward to backward, and from left to right without conscious regard. This intellectual pragmatism makes possible only slight displacement by the insights of Willower. Even more tragically, it means that far lesser minds receive equal attention. We are all too often intellectually paralyzed because we have failed to trace our ideas to their source and then to make distinctions in light of these ideas. All too frequently, educators are everywhere and nowhere.

Perhaps the clearest illustration of our intellectual gregariousness is our love for expanding our practical burden. As an organization, the school has become a bazaar with something for everyone. We persist in building gyms bigger than libraries, yet we require students to prepare for college entrance exams. We often extol virtues, such as the love of competition, and ponder to petty vices, such as the need to recruit athletes for the big business of football. We revel in our inability to think or act upon selected goals for education. Yet, in this strange lack of intellectual rigor, we find a third persistent theme of American education.

Simply, education is plagued by a persistent dream that by changing the schooling of Americans, you change America. It is a peculiarly moralistic conception. The dream equates the appearance of the divine in a mystical vision with mastering the multiplication tables. The dream equates completion of

twelve years or sixteen years of schooling with education and success. Hence, change in education carries with it a moral rhetoric of improving America. Often seeking educational improvement, however, critics present the most contrary of solutions. Schools are, at the same time, laying the foundations for a new tomorrow and preserving the best of our American heritage.

It seems to me that by fixing on the fundamental split between change and preservation, we overlook the major thing that American schooling does. While the sacred community now hammers home the nail of responsibility, the secular community now looses the tether of freedom. It becomes dangerous to American schooling and our civic culture when one of these societies becomes too powerful. Schools must learn to teach the fundamental ambiguity of American life: although we should lust for freedom and never attain license, we equally crave irresponsibility and should never be undisciplined. Not only do schools need to learn how to teach about freedom and responsibility, they also need to see how valuable teaching is.

The struggle between these two cultures, whether inside an elementary school, in a department at a university, or between university professor and practitioner, provides the opportunity for creating the best of all possible worlds. For in their persistent hassles, the options are expanded for all those who not only live in these cultures but are touched by them. By presenting different versions of what constitutes a good citizen or a good student or a good teacher or a good administrator, we foster a diversity and richness neither culture alone affords or can tolerate. If schools have broad yet conflicting goals, if schools are mindless yet mind oriented, and if schools crush students yet produce creativity, that simply may be enough.

Let us not confuse ends and means. For the schools may have no intrinsic ends—they may be only producers of means for people who must select their own ends. It would be too much, far too much, to ask of schools to present a singular view not only of what is but what ought to be. The schools ought to let us choose—and ought not be blamed if we chose the less desirable. For while the school may successfully teach us how to read, write, and cipher, we still may wither because our moral or esthetic vision of life is too limited. In that case, it may be our own preconceptions about life which are limited. Schools should help us by making us think about such issues, but, in opposition to classic Army lingo, there may be no book solution. We confront the dreadful freedom of choosing. If schools and their two societies help us see a few of the options, that may be all they ought to do. If they present to us two ways of looking at a sunset, for example, are they responsible because we don't see it in either fashion? I believe not.

Great societies need schools, and great schools may help create great societies, but even more important great societies permit a range of alternatives and discussions only hinted at in the process of schooling. The noble calling of the educator is to provide some inkling of freedom and responsibility, some love for ideas and order, and some sense of possibility and impossibility. In the ambiguity of teaching and learning, schools hint, insinuate, and suggest the richness of life. Schools mirror darkly the possibilities of man. To seek to make schools singular cultures is to destroy their greatest contribution: a sense of the ambiguity and choosing necessary for the good life in America. Hence, educational administrators need to be lovers of ambiguity. They need to clasp to their bosoms a broad range of people with a broad range of ideas. Instead of the three witches of Macbeth portraying a singular future or the Greek chorus

intimating fate's choice, administrators need to be bombarded with many alternate futures. They need to toy with Utopias and with anti-Utopias, they need to puzzle about the best and the worst of man. A significant piece of their time needs to be spent inefficiently—staring at walls.

Note how jarring such talk seems to both the sacred and the secular. For the sacred, schools need running. Administrators are engines. For the secular, schools need to be manipulated to achieve rational ends. Administrators are Machiavellis. Both require the habit of busyness. The school executive needs to look like an executive. He needs to order, to lead, or to administer. I prefer to think he needs to scheme. He needs to scheme about the range of alternatives he presents. If they are monochromatic, he needs to splash some new colors on the canvas. If the school is neat, tidy, and buttoned down, he needs to loosen it up. If it is sloppy and casual, he needs to structure it. He must present to the world a turbulent environment, one in which a host of possibilities exists.

Quite frankly, such a divergent strategy should please no one. For the sacred, it should be too future oriented and smack of ignoring both experiences and practicality. For the secular, it should be too traditional in its inclusion of past experiences and their irrationality. Each is correct, if we accept a singular, clear, explicit goal for American education. But it is my contention that in the long run, the task of American education is to present a muddled picture to children. This imperfect blueprint guarantees neither the power of tradition nor the idea of progress. Instead, it argues for a creative struggle whose function is not the resolution of the problem but the deliberate expansion of alternatives and goals. The best of all possible worlds may be the one waiting to be built. The future becomes the process of redefining once again what schools are, what people are, and what ways the American dream can be fulfilled. A singular dedication to multiplicity is a hard burden to carry, but nobody ever promised life would be easy. We should only promise that it be multifaceted and hence interesting. Hopefully, schools and administrators reflect some of the exquisite joy of having to create anew what life is about. And that, as Plato noted so long ago, is not just living. It is rather the quest for the good life. To that end, we in education should help.

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REACTION TO "EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP: THE SACRED AND THE SECULAR"

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Dr. Burlingame opened his address with a most revealing sentence: "Academicians rarely take the opportunity to speak their minds." Given that assertion we may at least be certain about one matter—he has been too long in Foggy Bottom. The NIE's corridors of power clearly are a long way from the groves of academe where Professor Burlingame used to stomp academic grapes with the rest of us.

Rarely speak their minds? When, Sir, were you last at a faculty meeting? Dr. Burlingame must stand corrected. Academicians often take the opportunity to speak their minds, even when the process reveals unmistakably that they don't have a great deal on them.

The following will illustrate the point admirably. There are two alternatives in responding to a paper of this kind. We can deal with it at the level of method, critiquing the "how" of its logic and asking such questions as, How valid are dichotomous typologies like sacred and secular? Alternately, we can eschew method and look at content, matching our own familiar world of college physical education against Burlingame's model of leadership and asking, Does it all make any sense? As an academic confronted with two alternative routes for speaking my mind, I will of course elect to take both.

The method here is not Burlingame's but Becker's and the conceptual framework of "Ideal Type" dates back to the turn of the century. Then typologies were a popular mode of thought among social scientists and from that mode came everything from the familiar inner- and outer-directed man to the ubiquitous mesomorph. Ideal types were popular then because scientific tools were as yet crude in the social sciences and scholars had to take an idea where it could be found.

Human polar types have great utility in the everyday world where men and women, young and old, and skilled and unskilled are functional categories. But whether in daily commerce or in science, all polarities have their limits and even the most commonplace can lead us into foolishness and error. Not all of the

chronologically old are equally old in spirit or wisdom, much less in body. Not all ectomorphs have insomnia or think dangerous thoughts, Shakespear's Cassius notwithstanding.

Human typologies fail us when they ignore the basic complexity of things. Like young and old, the categories of sacred and secular leave a gaping excluded middle into which most of us must tumble headlong. Further, formally constituted typologies too often provide only a glib recital of traits that tell us little about anyone who is recognizably real (truly sacred department chairmen are more often imagined than encountered).

We easily could reprise all of the leadership characteristics possessed by administrators in Burlingame's Beckersonian typologies by creating two lists of traits each mirroring the image of the other. Doubtless, in those human caricatures all of us would recognize some of the leaders we have known. The list of secular traits would be a fair description of at least one chairman under whom I served. The other administrators I have worked for, however, reveal more about the real nature of leadership in physical education than the single individual who happened to fit the ideal type. One chairman was a secular sacredist, another a sacred secularist, and my present dean is a clear-cut case of typological schizophrenia, being secular in this matter but sacred in that. All of which suggests that there are more varieties of administrator than are dreamt of in Becker's typologies—or anyone else's.

Burlingame knows all of this full well. He is using the polar typology not as serious commentary about particular people but as a conceptual platform for observations on the nature of public schools as subsocieties. The sacred leader stands as a symbol for the school society seen as a model of consensus—the school in the form of George Spindler's "Agency for Cultural Transmission."² The secular leader stands as a symbol for the school society seen as a model of conflict—the school in the form of George S. Counts's "Agency for Social Change."³

Whether or not consensus and conflict models have any explicatory power in understanding our schools has been argued at length and today's paper is yet another extension of that endless debate. The following coda is offered as a simple caveat for anyone who finds the method of creating ideal types an attractive form of analysis. When the dimensions that lie beneath a typology appear to be dichotomous, then the ideal type strategy may be a useful format for puzzling about the nature of things. If, for example, we were to find on the dimension of sex that all sacred leaders were men and all secularists women, we might feel quite comfortable with our categories. If, however, the dimensions look continuous (not like the male and female clusterings of sex but like the scalar qualities of height and weight) we would need to find a new contrivance.

Institutions such as schools, for example, have dimensions like size, complexity, and formality that are continuous rather than dichotomous. This suggests, at least, that we need some kind of profiling rather than typing. Schools and the leaders who inhabit them may be high or low on the continua of resistance to change, reverence for tradition, use of empirically based theory, and reliance on proverbial folk wisdom. The tools of modern social science offer even more complex multidimensional descriptions, such as the bipolar matrix, and multivariate models that even permit us to view the interactions between dimensions.

Only in sophisticated multidimensional models will we find much truth about ourselves as educators and leaders. Polar models using ideal human types

are good sports, especially over beer and pretzels, but as serviceable ways of explaining something as complex as a school or an administrator they just don't run very far.

This particular typology, however, could have been run far enough to ask a particularly interesting question. Is college physical education best typified as a secular or sacred society? The question was neither asked nor answered—a reflection, no doubt, of Dr. Burlingame's sense of propriety. He is our guest and at heart a kindly man.

Not being so constrained I will posit an answer to the question. College physical education predominantly has been a sacred society. I include here the enterprise of teacher preparation for physical education. Our physical education society has had the strength of any conservative posture: stability, a relatively high consensus about goals, a strong sense of purpose, and a clear-cut system of rewards and punishments. We also have had a list of less happy characteristics that exemplify in almost archetypal fashion many of Burlingame's sacred characteristics. We have accepted the givenness of schools—a fatal error in a time of change. We have operated on the basis of proverbs that are half-truths and screen us from reality. We have remained insulated from the rest of the educational enterprise, thereby too often failing to make use of new knowledge as a base for our decisions.

Take the area of administrative leadership as an example. As practice, as an area for theory and research, and as an area for the professional preparation of practitioners, administration in physical education has remained isolated from modern theory and knowledge about organizations and human behavior. The technology of organizational management based upon the application of behavioral sciences to the dimensions of leadership has come far in recent years. The world of physical education administration still is mired in the "democratic leadership" models of 1930.

I challenge you to take the occasion, as I recently did, to thumb through a dozen recent textbooks on organization and administration in physical education. Look particularly for the names and ideas of men who have shaped our modern understanding of leadership functions (particularly in education): Halpin, Moore, Iannaccone, Cunningham, Charters, Guba, Etzioni, Getzels, Gephart, and Willower. You will find two kinds of texts: those that ignore both the men and their theories and those that quote the men like bad dissertations, showing only that the author knows their names but can do little or nothing with their ideas. Like Burlingame's sponsor of principals, the books on which we nurture our future administrator are an element in maintaining a society based upon sacred presumptions.

I will close this brief commentary on an affirmative note by seconding Burlingame's main conclusion. If the concepts mean anything at all, sacred and secular are not polarities of good and evil or of light and darkness. They simply are alternative ways of being for people, for institutions, and for societies. The peculiar genius of American education may well have been its perpetual indecision about the proper roles of change and tradition. By not cleaving totally to one direction or the other we have kept open a sense of options. Here rests our cherished sense of choice, the experience (or illusion) that the great Sherrington thought to be the final source of the zest that made life itself possible.

Read again what Burlingame said about alternatives and choice.

It seems to me that by fixing on the fundamental split between change and preservation, we overlook the major thing American schooling does. While the sacred community now hammers home the nail of responsibility, the secular community now looses the tether of freedom. It becomes dangerous to American schooling and our civic culture when one of these societies becomes too powerful. Schools must learn to teach the fundamental ambiguity of American life. . . . To seek to make schools singular cultures is to destroy their greatest contribution—a sense of the ambiguity and choosing necessary for the good life. Hence educational administrators need to be lovers of ambiguity. They need to clasp to their bosoms a broad range of ideas.

My earlier comments suggest that college physical education has been too consistently sacred in its presumptions, too totally unambiguous in the world it presents to students and young teachers. Perhaps we can profit from a better balance of forces. The tension between the two polarities is a healthy source of open options only when there is an equal contest.

We do have some variety of viewpoint and style among physical educators, but I suspect that this is not enough, at least not enough if we think simply of mixing secular and sacred people in a kind of heterogeneous professional batter. We cannot, as Burlingame advises, clasp wider varieties of people to our bosom our collective bosom being somewhat overloaded with people already. We will have to get more behavioral variety out of the people we already have.

It is not a matter of shifting everyone's fundamental values toward the other (secular) side of the boat, and certainly we want to avoid Burlingame's model of the vacillating administrator, now sacred and then secular without reason or predictability. The trick is to help individuals work up the courage to try out other perspectives within limited segments of their activity. This is not becoming eclectic but "thoughtfully inconsistent." If each administrator could try on only a few alternatives for size, the overall effect would be to expand the range of choices and the sense of openness in physical education.

Any such suggestion will encounter our deep mistrust of experimentation with personal values. This is mirrored in our feelings about inconsistency as something always to be avoided. Inconsistency smacks of hypocrisy and no one is more despised in our society than the hypocrite. The hypocrite appears to win at both ends, obtaining rewards both for what he pretends to be and for what he really is. A sacred administrator who elects a secular course, even if only for a short time or for a narrow area of action, will quickly be accused of being a cheat, of trying to win at both ends of the game. But this does not have to be true. There is another more positive way to look at hypocrisy.

Anthony Comstock made a name for himself by purging the prurient from the printed page. While protecting the public morality, however, he also was getting his kicks from an extensive personal collection of dirty books. We rewarded his hypocritical sins by making Comstockery a pejorative noun in the American vocabulary. Thus Anthony is remembered as a man who dared inconsistency of values, not a crusader for decency.

In this morality play of sin and retribution, however, one thing has been forgotten. Comstock's view of things may have been decidedly different from ours. Put bluntly, those who have tried moderate doses of hypocrisy absolutely swear by it! The hypocrite, for example, may be the felon considering going straight (trying it on for size). The teacher who appears inconsistent at the

moment may deliberately be groping toward the resolution of a pedagogical problem. Having it both ways thus may be positive stage of growth, an effective strategy for learning, or a zestful expression of freedom.

To use the language of football, we need more physical educators who can go both ways. We need people who sometimes can espouse freedom and at other times responsibility; who can emphasize control and then liberation; who can emphasize the significance of both tradition and change; who can respond to both futurism and present practicality; and who can run and use the schools and abstract events and experience events and sometimes be comfortable with the irrational as well as the rational. We need to deliberately and thoughtfully expand the alternatives for ourselves by what we are—ourselves.

Burlingame says that in the long run it is the purpose of education to present a muddled picture to children. I do not pretend to know exactly what he means, but certainly it is a muddled world, no less in the gymnasium than in the rest of the school. We do ourselves and our students a disservice when we present the world in the monocolour of a perfectly consistent accounting (sacred or secular). The rich ticket of reality is not well represented by the pale and skinny outline visible from a single polar vantage point. In physical education as elsewhere, it is not so much a matter of tradition versus change or responsibility versus freedom as it is a matter of perceiving that there are genuine choices and significant consequences. Full participation in the experience of living demands confronting the exquisite agony of selection. Life in the gymnasium must be defined and redefined in a continuous struggle to create anew what that life is about.

To maintain the vital sense of choice for ourselves and our students we must understand and cherish our fundamental value commitments, no matter how many sigmas they are from the mean on a secular-sacred continuum, but we need also to wear them lightly enough to set them aside from time to time.

Perhaps we should be secular on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday; sacred on Tuesday and Thursday; and then go home on weekends to dream and scheme about yet other options. Why not try a little thoughtful inconsistency? *You'll like it.*

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REACTION TO "EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP: THE SACRED AND THE SECULAR"

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In the heat of a faculty meeting debate a colleague of mine once candidly (and undiplomatically) remarked to the chief college administrator that administration is really nothing but common sense. At the time, I failed to realize how nicely he would fit into a classification system such as we are discussing today.

The systematic study of any problem requires the establishment of some sort of structure to serve as a frame of reference. I must confess, however, to a distrust of classification systems in general (especially two-dimensional systems), because of the difficulty one always encounters in making everybody and everything fit somewhere. In this I agree with Dr. Burlingame that the division of education into dichotomies such as practitioners and professors, the field and the university, and the firing line and the ivory tower causes the blurring of significant divisions. Unfortunately any dichotomy or dipolar classification system is subject to this same criticism.

Another problem encountered was my lack of familiarity with Becker's conceptualization of the characteristics of the sacred and the secular societies. Upon first reading, it seemed to me that Dr. Burlingame might have communicated with me more easily had he simply used "conservative" and "liberal" as his polar entities and not introduced Becker's terminology at all. It has always seemed to me that if there is any greater barrier to meaningful communication than the invention of new terms and expressions, it is the deliberate use of well-defined and widely understood words in new ways and with altered meanings. After some further study, however, I am forced to concede that Becker's sacred-secular model has considerable merit not only for the identification and description of various groups but also for understanding why the societies are as they are and what conditions must be met in order for change to occur.

It still seems apparent that for one unfamiliar with Becker's ideas the polar extremities of the continuum were not adequately described. A fairly clear picture of the sacred extremity was painted, but insofar as I can recall, we seldom got very far to the left of center in examining the characteristics of the secular society. Although it was made clear that in contradistinction to the sacred society, the secular society is open to change and that as one moved from the sacred to the secular, rationality was emphasized, it was not pointed out that in the extreme, secularity demands bizarreness and fanatical dedication to being "in." It therefore becomes necessary to recognize that mindlessness is not monopolized by the sacred society. If the sacred society is mindless because it sees no need to analyze its assumptions, the secular society may be equally mindless in its compulsion to innovate and experiment, frequently discarding practices as old fashioned or outdated simply because they have existed for some period of time. A book copyrighted in 1974, for instance, is obviously superior to one written in 1935 or in 1600. Perhaps it would be fair to say that there exists a sacred society mentality (i.e., a resistance to change) in the secular

society, whose norm is change for change's sake. All the qualities of mindlessness, illiteracy, proverbial guidelines, etc., are intact. The only difference is that change is worshiped as an end in itself. Ends-means relationships are totally obscured and confused. Thus, it would appear that our sacred-secular continuum resembles the equator in that if we move out far enough from the center in either direction, we tend to meet ourselves coming back on the other side.

Although it has been clearly stated that we are dealing with an ideological continuum, most of the arguments appear to assume the existence of a dichotomy. I get a picture of a sacred society positioned about three standard deviations to the right of center being contrasted with a secular community located perhaps only one standard deviation to the left. So much more attention is given to a description of the sacred group than to the secular that I can only presume that either we know a great deal more about the sacred society's characteristics, or they pose a greater problem. (Perhaps both, since most schools and school administrators today appear to fall into the sacred category.¹)

Although there is very little discussion of the shortcomings of the secular community, I sensed little enthusiasm in Dr. Burlingame's paper for its accomplishments. His portrayal of the two administrative systems tends to make the choice appear to be between bad and worse, with the sacred coming out somewhat lower on the scale than the secular. As a matter of fact, it is difficult to see any good in the operations of the sacred society of administrators as presented. Perhaps there is a security of sorts accorded the membership, but it is difficult to comprehend why anyone outside the group would wish to see such a society share equally in influence with the secular society.

But since the membership of the sacred society is apparently so large, there must be something good about it. Why do members of the sacred society hold the views that they hold? Is it a consciously adopted position, or does it result from ignorance or stupidity? If it has value, it must have merit. Wherein lies its merit? Certainly not in crushing students or the development of proverbs advocating abstention from the expression of pre-yuletide merriment. However, the proverbial wisdom that is professed may be one of the keys. By definition, a proverb is a short, pithy saying expressing simply and concretely, though often metaphorically, a truth based on common sense or the practical experience of mankind. Ideas that have such an obvious rightness about them are bound to be attractive, despite any lack of understanding one may have concerning their origins.

There seems to be some implication that because the sacred society actively rejects the new, there is no means by which it can grow. Perhaps it can be assumed that it goes without saying that even though the new is rejected as the new, it is often accepted as something else (e.g., This is really what good teachers have been doing all along!).

The point to be made is that no administrative system should be endorsed if it exhibits no capacity for growth. The sacred society is greatly concerned with wisdom and truth as it understands them. So are the secularists. The thoughtful member of the sacred community will not fear change that is based upon thoughtful and careful analysis and experimentation (although he would be unlikely to volunteer as an experimental subject) because he believes in the existence of truth as an absolute. The conscientious member of the secular society may also believe that truth exists in ways more fundamental than are exhibited in social norms or customs. If this is not so, then his seeking a better

way means only a different way, and leads ultimately to nowhere. If the secularist concedes no givenness whatever of man or nature, then his quest for why is foolishness and his ultimate solution is ambiguity and his philosophy one of despair.

Despite some reservations I have concerning the utility of the Becker continuum, I must confess after reading the description of the characteristics of the sacred society of administration I had no difficulty in visualizing examples drawn from physical education, some of them representing pretty extreme positions. The degree to which the secular society exists in physical education is still subject to some uncertainty in my own thinking, however.

There can be no question that for many, "the techniques, the strategies become the essence of the game." It would be difficult to deny that many of us have become so embroiled in the game that we have forgotten why we are playing. And if "mindlessness occurs because . . . [one] can find success in practical techniques, without ever being able to discuss why students should have these techniques," then many physical educators qualify for that label.

It is equally certain that physical education suffers from the custodial emphasis attributed to the sacred society. The task of controlling large groups of unwilling people does appear to be one of the given aspects of our profession. We do tend to distrust excuses, and we worry too seldom about whether children are reaching their potential. Our awareness does center on the few (usually the gifted elite) in which we find exaggerated joy or despair. The great majority are simply there.

I cannot agree, however, that these conditions can be adequately explained on the basis of an imbalance between the influences of the sacred and secular. The tremendous investment of resources in math, science, and language in response to the "threats" posed by the Russian Sputnik was given as an example of the assumption of the malleability of schools—strictly a secular view. On the other hand, such an undertaking could never have occurred had it not been for strong feelings of patriotism and loyalty to one's own—characteristics that are viewed as virtues by the sacred community.

Are demands for change or efforts to resist change more to blame for our problems of energy shortages and water and air pollution? Who is to blame for the population explosion? Obviously it is impossible to answer the questions. But even if it were possible it would serve no useful purpose to do so. Regardless of the causes, however, it should be evident that the future has become a problem. Under such circumstances it can probably be agreed that a rational approach (i.e., a moderately secular approach) is indicated.

I was a little troubled by what seemed to be inconsistencies with regard to the matter of school diversity in Dr. Burlingame's paper. He observes, for example, that "the sacred society . . . lacks any tools for describing or analyzing how random experiences become the basis for proverbial wisdom. . . . [it] has no instruments of examining the nature of proverbs themselves." How then, can he seriously advocate the maintenance of such a system if he is sincere in stating that "What I am concerned with is the fundamental failure to develop introspective tools for the analysis of why we do things in education"?

Considerable concern is shown for maintaining a balance of power between the two societies in order to ensure school diversity. This insistence on equal power is especially disquieting following so closely as it does upon the enumeration of the sins of the systems. He seems to be saying, "Neither is any

good, so let's keep both." His conclusion, too, is perplexing: "If schools have broad yet conflicting goals, if schools are mindless yet mind oriented, and if schools crush students yet produce creativity, that simply may be enough." Are we to assume that the crushing of students is not only unavoidable but actually desirable as a means of ensuring diversity? Should we tolerate mindless schools for any purpose? Do broad and conflicting goals need to impose hurt on some simply for preservation of the system? Is this another way of asserting that if God had meant man to fly he would have given him wings? Are we admitting, in fact, that we are members of a sacred society dealing with that which is given, namely that the systems are and ought to be?

There seems to be at once distress that we cannot agree on objectives and dismay that schools look so much alike. Despite a clear plea for maintenance of diversity there is the suggestion that we really should have schools "that are too liberal for the conservative and too conservative for the liberal." To some this sounds very "middle of the road" and would seem to advocate the opposite of diversity.

In practice, the sacred-secular administrative society could not be simultaneously operative in any given school. Therefore, one group of children would be condemned to the mindless, crushing environment provided by one society while the others would profit from all the enlightened practices resulting from a system designed and equipped to examine and evaluate its own effectiveness and to make desirable modifications.

There is also the matter of the cultural setting of the school in question. Is it possible, or wise, to attempt to operate a sacred school in a secular community or vice versa? Yet with mobility of populations and other changes in social expectations involving freedom of choice, is it possible to avoid this situation if one insists on having both types of administration?

Perhaps most of us would agree that diversity of administrative systems is good so long as those in the system, including teachers and parents (and, maybe, even the children), have some choice in selection of their environment. If this situation were to occur, it would seem that there would be an inevitable gradual shift of both societies toward the moderate secular position on the continuum.

It seems to me that it is only as schools shift to this "rational position with roots" that administrators will ever be able to do anything other than "cope." I fully agree that administrators "need to clasp to their bosoms a broad range of people with a broad range of ideas." This idea, however, will not find favor with administrative extremists from either the right or the left. Therefore, if such richness of choice and all those muddled, multifaceted ambiguities are to be made available in any single American school, it will need to be orchestrated by an administrator who belongs to a society somewhere in between the two we have been discussing.

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PERCEPTUAL-MOTOR DEVELOPMENT IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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My task as I understand it is to present an overview of recent developments in the "Body of Knowledge" associated with the content area of growth and development and to attempt to show how such developments are or could be related to programs of physical education.

To cover the entire spectrum of recent developments in the subdiscipline of growth and development would be an impossible task. Therefore I have chosen to focus selectively on a single dimension of growth and development, perceptual-motor development, and to entitle the paper "Perceptual-Motor Development in Physical Education."

I will attempt to provide a general theoretical overview of perceptual-motor functioning and a working definition of the term *perceptual-motor development*. This will provide a common frame of reference from which to discuss the major processes that characterize growth and development in perceptual-motor behavior. Finally I shall point out what I feel is the relationship of perceptual-motor development to physical education and what the concern of physical education for perceptual-motor development should be.

Over a century ago, Sechenov, a Russian physiologist, suggested that all of human behavior could be thought of as a product of three very closely interrelated processes: (1) a sensory or afferent input, (2) a cortical or central process, and (3) an efferent or motor output. He further hypothesized that the motor or efferent process followed after and was based upon the outcome or effectiveness of the first two processes (1). If for the sake of clarity and simplicity, we were to lump the first two processes together and call them "perception" and label the latter efferent process "movement" or overt behavior, we find that what Sechenov was suggesting was that all of man's behavior could be thought of as a series of perceptual events followed by a series of motor or behavioral acts. In other words, the processing of specific sensori-perceptual or afferent information is both prerequisite to and necessary for adequate execution and control of overt motor acts. Furthermore, it is proposed that if the processing of such afferent information is slow or inaccurate, the probability of the subsequent motor or behavioral act being ineffectual and/or maladaptive is considerably greater than if the processing of such afferent information is rapid, precise, and efficient. Thus according to this formulation, most of man's behavioral or motor acts (whether as an adult or as a child) are, in large part, a product of the efficiency of the perceptual or afferent processes that precede them and upon which they are based (1).

It is because there is this very strong and identifiable link between overt motor behavior and sensori-perceptual or afferent processes that the term *perceptual-motor* has been coined and used so widely. The use of the term is, I believe, an attempt to draw attention to the importance of afferent or perceptual processes in human behavior. Thus motor learning is not just motor learning but perceptual-motor learning and motor development is not simply motor development but perceptual-motor development. In other words, learning and/or development by their very nature are inherently linked to

sensori-perceptual processes—processes that in essence provide the foundation upon which all such behaviors are built (1).

What are we talking about when we speak of sensori-perceptual or afferent processes? Sensori-perceptual processes, regardless of the kind of behavior ultimately involved, initially involve sensory input. That is to say, sensori-perceptual processes have to do with the picking-up or taking in of information from the external (and/or internal) environment of the individual. This information pickup is necessary so that the individual has something upon which to base his behavioral act. In other words, the individual always reacts, behaves, or moves in relationship to something, and the nature of that something and thus of the motor act itself is defined to a great extent by the kind and amount of sensory information picked up by the individual from his environment. Behaviorally, information pickup is most often described as the individual's seeing or paying attention to a set of visual stimuli in his environment; his hearing a sound or a series of sounds emanating from the environment; or his kinesthetic experience of a sequence or series of bodily movements (1).

Let us apply this notion to perceptual-motor development by looking briefly at the sensori-perceptual processes initially involved in a small child's attempt at catching a ball. First a pickup of information from the environment is required—a pickup of information about, for example, the size, shape, speed, and/or direction of the oncoming ball. In this case, most of the information picked up is through the visual mechanism. In other instances, however, additional sources of sensory information might also be involved (1).

The second step or stage involved in the sensori-perceptual processes that are prerequisite to the performance of motor acts has to do with the interpretation or evaluation of the information picked up by the sensory receptors. Once information has been picked up by the sensory receptors, it is transmitted to the higher regions of the brain where it is evaluated, interpreted, and/or compared to information already stored in the brain—information stored in the brain as a result of the child's past experience with similar stimulus conditions (in this case the child's past experience with ball-catching situations). This comparative-evaluative process is a very important part of the perceptual or afferent processes that precede the motor act of catching, for the broader, more comprehensive the child's past experience with ball-catching situations, the more likely he is to make an accurate judgment about the present ball-catching environment and thus the more likely he is to experience success in his attempts to catch the ball under the present circumstances. In other words, the child's skill in catching a ball or walking a balance beam is, at least in part, a result of the effectiveness with which he processes the sensory information that forms the basis for the execution of the motor act. Thus afferent or sensori-perceptual processes become an integral part of the chain of events leading to effective motor performance. (1).

PERCEPTUAL-MOTOR DEVELOPMENT: A DEFINITION (1)

In light of the foregoing theoretical formulation, it seems reasonable to suggest that the concept of perceptual-motor development deals with changes or improvements in the child's afferent or sensori-perceptual capacities—changes that are grounded in a steady and continuous improvement in the child's

capacity to perceive (to pick up and evaluate internally) increasingly more complex kinds and quantities of sensory information. Thus as perceptual-motor development proceeds, there is an accompanying increase in the refinement of the sensori-perceptual capacities of the child. This in turn is reflected in the increased proficiency with which the child performs a variety of different motor tasks: he catches a ball more efficiently, throws more skillfully, draws pictures with greater accuracy, walks the balance beam with greater control, and so on. *ad infinitum*. This concept of perceptual-motor development, then, deals with age-related changes in the child's capacity for exerting more and more refined afferent or perceptual control over his overt motor behavior.

DEVELOPMENTAL CHANGES IN SENSORI-PERCEPTUAL PROCESSES (1)

If perceptual-motor development is directly linked to efficient sensori-perceptual or afferent processes, then we need to be concerned with such processes and to know something about the nature of the changes that take place in them during the child's growth and development. Although such changes are described in slightly different language by different authorities (1), there is some broad general agreement about the nature of the basic changes which take place in the sensori-perceptual functioning of the child as he grows and develops. These developmental changes tend to manifest themselves in three major forms.

Shift in Dominance of the Sensory Systems (1)

The first of the developmental changes in sensori-perceptual processes is seen in the consistently and universally observed shift from the dominance or pre-eminence of the use of sensory input from tactile-kinesthetic or proximo-somatosensory receptors to the use of input from teloreceptors, mainly the eyes, for the control and/or regulation of behavior. Perceptual-motor development in the child thus is characterized by a shift in the reliance on information from the tactile-kinesthetic or somatosensory systems (from bodily involvement) to a greater reliance on information from the visual system as a basis for regulating or modifying motor acts. This move to dominance by the visual system represents a shift from the use of input from sensory systems with relatively elementary or crude information processing capacities to the use of input from a sensory system that has much more highly refined information processing capacities. The visual system is, of course, the most advanced of all the sensory systems with regard to the speed and precision with which it can supply information to the individual about his surrounding environment.

A good example of this change in the pre-eminence of the sensory systems is seen in the young child's attempts to jump rope while two adults turn it for him. If one observes a four-year-old under such circumstances, it becomes obvious immediately that the child simply cannot coordinate his bodily movements to the movement of the rope. In other words, this child is not able to use, in any precise way, the visual information derived from the swinging of the rope to initiate and/or carry on a successful jumping response. To perform successfully in this situation, the child has first to establish his own rhythm or pattern of jumping. Once this rhythm or pattern of movement is established, the rope can be added, but the movement of the rope must always be coordinated by the rope turners to coincide with the pattern of movement already established by the child. This suggests of course that the four-year-old child is still quite

dependent on tactile-kinesthetic (bodily) cues in performing motor acts and that he cannot as yet effectively use specific visual cues to initiate or regulate his motor behavior successfully.

In contrast to this, the child of seven or eight years, when faced with a similar situation, does not have to be led into the skill of rope jumping by first establishing his own pattern of bodily movement. This child has little or no difficulty in coordinating his rope jumping behavior with the visual cues derived from the movement of the swinging rope. This may be construed as a behavioral indication of a shift from the reliance on tactile-kinesthetic cues to the use of visual information for the initiation and/or regulation of such motor acts. Reliance on visual cues, of course, allows the child to make more rapid and precise judgments about the environment to which he must adjust. This in turn means that the child is capable of more refined, better coordinated motor acts—partly because he can make better use of the visual information available to him from his environment.

Improved Intersensory Communication (1)

The second clearly observable change in sensori-perceptual processes in the young child is that of improved intersensory functioning or intersensory integration. This simply means that as the child grows and develops he is increasingly better able to interrelate or match up the information he receives from different sensory systems for use in directing, regulating, or modifying his motor acts. In other words, as the child grows and develops, he is better able to compare what he hears with what he sees; he is more adept at evaluating what he sees against what he feels tactile-kinesthetically, and so on. Thus the older child becomes more skilled at using multiple sensory input in guiding his motor behavior. He can use visual cues *and* sound cues as well as tactile-kinesthetic cues to help him adapt his behavioral responses more precisely to the environmental conditions in which he finds himself.

To illustrate, in the case of the rope-jumping behavior, we saw that the older child was able to use visual input in initiating his rope-jumping response more effectively than the younger child. In the case of improved intersensory communicating, the child, as he matures, develops an ever-increasing capacity for interrelating the visual cues derived from the movement of the swinging rope to the sound produced by the rope as it comes in contact with the surface of the ground and to rely on a combination of these two sources of sensory input as a basis for initiating and carrying out the rope-jumping response. A part of the outcome of this improved ability to use multiple sensory input is a more efficient rope-jumping performance because the child can pick up and use more information from his environment.

One of the most important characteristics of perceptual-motor development is this very definite and identifiable trend toward multisensory (multimodal) functioning on the part of the child. This move toward multisensory functioning is important because it is believed to be a reflection of the growing integrative powers of the brain—powers that allow the child to match up or evaluate input from a variety of sources before a given movement or motor response is decided upon. That this process of intersensory communication is neither fixed nor fully functioning at birth is clearly supported by the numerous descriptions of the early "sensori-motor" stages of the child's development. Such periods of

development are universally described as stages during which the various sensory systems function independently of one another. Perceptual-motor development in the young child then is characterized by a definite and identifiable trend away from a reliance on single, separate sources of sensory information and toward the use of multiple sensory input.

Improved Intrasensory Discrimination (1)

The third major change that occurs in the sensori-perceptual processes of the child (and that seems to occur simultaneously with the appearance of improved intersensory communication) is an increase in the discriminatory powers of the individual sensory systems themselves. In other words, during growth and development, each individual sensory system develops a more and more refined capacity for differentiation and/or discrimination. This improved intrasensory functioning is clearly reflected in the child's increasing ability to see more and more detail in his visual surroundings and to detect even small differences in the visual stimuli that he comes upon as a part of his spatial environment. For example, with improved intrasensory discrimination the child is able to make finer and finer discriminations about the speed, direction, and thus the pattern of movement of the swinging rope. Because he "sees" more about the movement of the rope, the child is better able to coordinate the movement of his body to the movement of the rope and thus his rope-jumping behavior improves.

In general, all three of these basic changes in sensori-perceptual processes play a vital role in the child's total perceptual-motor development and are the means by which the child gains greater and greater afferent control over his motor responses. As a result of such changes, the child perceives more about his spatial environment and thus becomes more effective in adapting his behavior to whatever specific environmental circumstances he may be faced with.

PERCEPTUAL-MOTOR DEVELOPMENT AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

What does all of this mean for perceptual-motor development in physical education? If we think of perceptual-motor development in terms of the processes that I have just described to you—as changes in the basic sensori-perceptual functioning of the young child—then we must necessarily begin to think of physical education activities as developmental activities of a perceptual-motor nature. You may ask why.

Perhaps the best way to begin to answer this question is to say that, in my opinion, what has tended to confuse the whole perceptual-motor development scene is the fact that most people have, in their own way, become conditioned to think of perceptual-motor development in very narrow, stereotyped terms. For example, there are those people who think of perceptual-motor development exclusively in terms of changes that occur in specific visual perception skills, such as figure-ground or form constancy perception; then there are those who tend to emphasize, almost to the total exclusion of other relevant facets of perceptual-motor development, those changes that occur specifically within the auditory system and are concerned with the handling of auditory input; still others seem to look largely at body awareness characteristics—that is, they are primarily concerned with the child's ability to discriminate right from left, his ability to cross the vertical midline of the body, or his ability to name, identify, or locate various parts of the body. Such approaches tend to produce

narrow views of perceptual-motor functioning and to limit thinking about what constitutes the complex domain of perceptual-motor development. I do not mean to imply that these behaviors—figure-ground perception, right-left discrimination, and so on—are not a part of perceptual-motor development—they are—but they represent only one small part of the much more comprehensive domain of behaviors known as perceptual-motor development.

From this comprehensive point of view, development of visual perception skills—figure-ground, form constancy, spatial relations, and so on—becomes simply one specific instance or manifestation of the development of the intrasensory discrimination component of perceptual-motor behavior—that component concerned with the development of the refinement of the individual sensory systems—in this case the visual system. Likewise according to this theoretical schema, body awareness skills become essentially one instance of still another component of perceptual-motor development, intersensory functioning. This course strongly suggests that what is or has been thought of as physical education activities can be thought of, in the final analysis, as perceptual-motor development activities. They are perceptual-motor activities because they stimulate, regulate, and depend upon adequate sensori-perceptual functioning of the child. They require that the child make various visual and/or physical discriminations in such a way that the motor product is smooth and efficient, that is, that it meets certain specified requirements.

Let me give you a specific example. If we look at the category of ball-handling skills, which are, in one form or another, universally found to be a part of the physical education curriculum in elementary schools, we find that such skills can be described quite accurately as skills that rely heavily upon the coordinating and interrelating of visual and tactile-kinesthetic information. In other words, for a child to be able to perform any given ball-handling task efficiently, be it catching, throwing, striking, bouncing, or whatever, he has to be able to process accurately both visual and tactile-kinesthetic information and to coordinate these two sources of sensory information in an effective manner. If he cannot do this, he is not likely to succeed at mastering the ball-handling task. Simply by exposing children to various ball-handling skills via the medium of physical education activities, we are placing demands on the intrasensory and intersensory communication capacities of the child, thereby causing him to use and to develop such capacities. The more highly developed these capacities become, the better the child can process and coordinate multiple sensory input, and the more proficient the child becomes in executing these motor tasks. As a result, motor skill proficiency becomes an important behavioral manifestation of perceptual-motor development—more specifically of the level of intrasensory and intersensory development of the child. Because of this inherent link between gross motor skills and sensori-perceptual development, physical education activities are inextricably involved with the perceptual-motor development of the child.

The idea that physical education skills are indeed a manifestation of the level of development of sensori-perceptual capacities of the child and thus an important part of the perceptual-motor development of children can be supported in many ways. I recently took a sample of six- and seven-year-old children and classified them as either “slowly developing” (SD) or “normally developing” (ND) children, based largely on teacher observation of student behavior in the classroom (2). These two groups of children were then compared

on their performances on a battery of motor tasks that included three balance tasks, three agility tasks, two ball-handling skills, and one power skill, the standing broad jump.

Because research has suggested that the ND child tends to possess a higher level of intersensory development, that is, that he can process and use multiple sensory input more efficiently than the SD child, I predicted that the ND child should and would be more proficient in performing this series of motor tasks than the SD child. Behaviorally the ND child outperformed the SD child on all motor tasks included in this test battery; the ND child on the average, ran faster, displayed more skill in balancing, and was generally more agile in handling balls and in moving his body in space than the SD child (2). Statistically, analysis of these data indicated that in only four instances were these differences in performance statistically significant. However, the probability that one such group of children would consistently outperform another group of children at the chance level on every one of 17 measures is less than 4 in 100. This strongly suggests that the consistently superior performance of the ND child was due to more than just chance. I believe that the consistently superior performance of the ND child represented a true developmental difference between the two groups of children—a developmental difference related to differences in the level of intersensory development of the groups of children.

When one looks at the results of the statistical analyses themselves, they also tend to support, in a different way, the notion that motor skill proficiency may indeed be a reflection of the level of intersensory development of the individual. In three of the four instances in which statistically significant differences were found between the two groups of children, these differences were also theoretically significant. For example, on the three balance skills, one statistically significant difference appeared. On the simplest balance task, maintaining balance on one leg with eyes closed, the two groups performed equally well; there were no apparent differences in their ability to maintain balance in a static position. On the balance beam walk task, there was again no apparent difference between the two groups. However, on the most complex balance task, the balance beam kneel, the difference between the two groups was statistically significant. As was expected the ND child performed the balance beam kneel in significantly less time and with significantly fewer falls than did the SD child. Simply put, the ND child was more proficient in performing the balance beam kneel task than was the SD child. This suggests that as the balancing task became more difficult, thus placing greater demands on the intersensory communication capacities of the child, the ND child began to show a more readily identifiable superiority over the SD child, due in large part, I believe, to the differences in the level of sensori-perceptual development of the two groups of children.

The same kind of result also appeared in the comparison of performances on the 20-yard dash and the 50-foot hop. In the former instance, the two groups of children performed equally well—the ND children and the SD children both ran the dash with a comparable degree of proficiency. However, when the task was made more complex, again placing greater demands on the balancing mechanism of the child, through the skill of hopping, the ND children showed significant superiority over the SD children. Both of these occurrences suggest that when the successful performance of a motor task places high demands on the intersensory communication capacities of the child, the ND child is likely to display a definite superiority over the SD child, perhaps because the ND child

has progressed to a point of greater refinement in his intersensory development than has the SD child. This of course allows him to cope more effectively with the information processing demands of these more complex tasks. When tasks are less demanding in terms of their intersensory communication requirements, the differences between these two groups tend, statistically, to disappear, probably because both groups have progressed to a point in their intersensory communication development where they can adequately handle the demands of these less taxing tasks.

If one looks at group differences in terms of level of intrasensory development (differences, for example, in the refinement of certain visual-perceptual skills), the picture is much the same. In all categories of visual-perceptual functioning (as measured by the Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Perception), the ND child showed, behaviorally and statistically, significant superiority over the SD child. That is, the ND child's ability to process and interpret specific kinds of visual stimuli (input) is significantly more advanced than that of the SD child. This, of course, makes him much more capable of adapting his behavior in an appropriate way to the surrounding (visual) environment. What this says simply is that those of us who deal with the development of motor proficiency in the young child are, whether we realize it or not, vitally involved with the perceptual-motor development of that child. That is to say, we are inherently tied to at least one important facet of the perceptual-motor development of the child—that facet of perceptual-motor development that has to do with the development and use of the intersensory integration capacities of the child particularly as they relate to the learning and/or performance of gross motor skills. Development of proficiency in these skills, in my opinion, is an important part of the total domain of perceptual-motor development because such development stimulates and/or promotes refined sensori-perceptual functioning through the demands placed upon the intersensory communication capacities of the child in performing such tasks.

In closing, it is my belief that if physical educators become aware of the nature and character of the development of the sensori-perceptual processes of the young child and if they make use of this knowledge in the development of physical education curricula, they can and will make important, perhaps vital, contributions to the perceptual-motor development of young children.

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REACTION TO "PERCEPTUAL-MOTOR DEVELOPMENT IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION"

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Dr. Williams, basing her analysis on Sechenov's description of human behavior, makes learning motor skills appear quite simple and mechanized when she says, "most of man's behavioral or motor acts (whether as an adult or as a child) are, in large part, a product of the efficiency of the perceptual or afferent processes that preceded them and upon which they are based." Using this as the basis for her explanation, Dr. Williams ignores the possibility of any influence from the social sensory input or from the social psychology aspects that exert a great deal of influence upon the learning patterns. More important than assessing or picking up information about the size, shape, speed, and/or direction of the oncoming ball when learning to catch it, may be the social context of catching that ball, who is throwing it, the role model setting the stage of the "appropriateness" of ball throwing, and what the rewards are for throwing it.

Williams neglects to acknowledge anything other than the neurological processes involved in ball catching when she explains the pickup of information by the sensory receptors and the transmission to higher regions of the brain where it is evaluated, interpreted, and/or compared to information previously stored, that is, those influences of prior experience in ball catching.

If indeed it is all that simple, then why are there so few girls who throw and catch balls efficiently and so many boys who do? Are boys and girls that different in neurological pickup of information via the sensory receptors? Do girls transmit information to the higher centers differently? Are boys better at evaluating, interpreting and/or comparing information to previous experience? I think not. The whole person learns; you are all that you have been and that goes beyond the stripped down model of sensory receptors, transmitters, and effectors. If we were to take Williams's analysis of learning motor skills, specifically ball catching and throwing, and apply it to young boys and girls, we might conclude that this skill is a sex-linked one. Upon observation of throwing and catching skills, or at least the end results, one might observe that on the average, boys indeed appear to learn much more readily. What influences this difference? Is it only the increase in the refinement of the sensori-perceptual capacities? I think the factors influencing learning skills are far more complex.

I would like to argue that skills are reinforced and learned as a consequence of the behavior. Although the consequences of the child's catching and throwing performance may be structured by the role model as to what is good, the consequences are expressed or controlled in terms of what the child perceives as positive or negative. Ellis, in presenting a paper entitled "Rewarding Children at Work and Play" at the Canadian National Conference on "The Child in Sport and Physical Activity" last May, illustrated this point in reporting some of the research done at the University of Illinois.

Linford and Duthie taught two mongoloid children a simple but energetic circuit training routine utilizing standard teaching procedures. One youngster was burly and overweight while the other was thin. Both children learned the circuit training routine but would perform to the level of elevating the heart rate

to 180 only when rewarded. Kathie, the thin female, would work for smiles while Geoff would only work for mayonnaise sandwiches.

The point being quite clear in this case, adults may achieve control over the behavior and the learning of children but can do so only by recognizing and exploiting the individualized motivations of the child. Regardless of whether we have society's or the child's benefit in mind, we need a much more clear view of the structure of the motives or incentives for learning skills necessary for play and sports. These are the forces that motivate the child to learn skills so that he or she can participate. A better understanding of the rewards inherent in the learning is also needed. These factors may be far more influential than the sensori-perceptual factors in some cases.

One motive, considered as a primary intrinsic motive that reinforces responses that generate information flow to the central nervous system, is the mechanism that appears to elevate the level of stimulation. Ellis suggests that it is fruitful to claim that this arousal-seeking mechanism causes the child to learn the responses that optimize arousal. Further, certain classes of responses lead to reinforcement. This is a dynamic process; the child consumes sensory input, but the need for further input of information necessary for arousal keeps the child motivated to consume more information.

However, human behavior and learning are complex and much behavior appears to fall under control of another mechanism, commonly called *secondary reinforcement*. The establishment of a secondary reinforcer is a process originating in the experience of the child. In different cultures and different societies, different sets of stimuli are associated with patterns of primary extrinsic and intrinsic reinforcers. Thus the stimuli that serve as the secondary reinforcers will be linked to the individuals and to their particular experiences. Since humans have many experiences in common, many classes of secondary reinforcers that have similar effects upon learning and behavior can be observed.

The manner in which humans are influenced by others serves as a major secondary reinforcer. These stimuli are those involved in the interactions of people and the influences of these interactions. The ability to react and to respond to these interactions is frequently defined as the level of social competence of the individual. The acquisition of social competencies unique to a given society or culture is called *socialization*. This implies the development and application of predictable responses or behaviors to certain sets of social stimuli for the individuals in the given society or culture. As an example, smiles are generally interpreted as possessing positive incentive value and are commonly used as signals or stimuli to influence others. A smile frequently serves as a useful secondary reinforcement mechanism to physical activity professionals as they attempt to influence the behavior of those individuals with whom they are working and teaching. Additional positive secondary reinforcers that humans use to interact with one another include touching and gesturing, nodding, and praise statements; negative reinforcers include frowning, shaking the head, ignoring, and so forth.

Secondary reinforcers specifically applicable to those of us interested in working through play and sport have also been studied and discussed in social psychology. The effects of long-term reinforcement produce three processes that constrain behavior. These three processes, which all interact, are (1) those embedded in the individuals and their past experience, (2) those embedded in the present events within the circumstances, and (3) those responses that are possible within the situation. All three processes are, in fact, collections of

constraints on the behavior of the individual. Each individual's past history of reinforcements, both primary and secondary, has developed expectancies about outcomes that produce sets toward the stimuli, and the individual acquires dispositions to interpret these stimuli in a given manner. These regular and predictable sets toward stimuli can be used to categorize people. As an example, often we talk about personality types; personality variables can frequently be tracked back to common rearing patterns that are influenced by common cultural, religious, socioeconomic factors.

The setting in which the behavior takes place defines the expected role for the individual who has learned those roles during the process of socialization. The situation demanding the behavior response may allow a wide variation in role behavior or allow the individual an opportunity to respond expressing deeply engrained personality dispositions. On other occasions, the behavior response may be so constrained that there is little expression of individual behavior.

The responses that are possible to display within the setting are clearly linked to the setting and to the skill of the individual. If the setting is a gymnasium, many classes of responses are eliminated. At the same time, the past experience of the individual will constrain the responses; if the gymnasium is set up for gymnastics, the gymnast will react differently than if it were set up for basketball.

As indicated, all three processes—personality attributes, the social influences in the setting, and the responses available—influence and modify the behavior of the child. Again, as previously discussed, the commonalities of experiences among individuals of a culture or subculture interact with the genotype of the individual during development to produce dispositions to interpret stimuli from the situations and to respond to them in a predictable fashion. Some of these dispositions, usually referred to as personality factors, have been shown to influence physical activity performance. Dispositions such as achievement motivation or need achievement, need for affiliation, anxiety, and internal versus external control of behavior have special relevance to those of us working with physical activity and sport. However, a single disposition will not govern the behavior of an individual; the disposition is modified by the social influences and the types of responses available in the situation. The fact that dispositions are complex and the study of the influence of the social situation is in its infancy limits the understanding of the interaction of dispositions and social influences in the physical activity situation. This is compounded by the fact that dispositions have a long history of development in the individual and are difficult to modify.

Social influences relevant to our concerns have been studied to the extent that we can gain some insight into how they may affect behavioral response. One such social influence, social facilitation, is the effect upon behavior that results from the presence of other individuals. *Facilitation* was the term used initially because improvements were noted in performance with the presence of others. However, the concept now includes inhibition of performance as well. The individual's performance is altered by concern for the evaluation of the performance by others. This suggests that several other factors are interacting, such as need for achievement, the significance of the onlookers, the skill of the individual, and so forth.

The subjective estimate of the importance of the evaluation, that is, the rewards or punishments contingent on the performance, appears to be the prime organizer of these factors. The effect of the apprehension that the situation creates interacts with the difficulty of the task. This is influenced by the disposition of the individual to react to evaluation; dispositions such as trait anxiety, need achievement, need affiliation, etc., affect the level of arousal. This, in turn, influences the individual's ability to perform differently if he or she is just learning the task as compared to performing a well-learned behavior. It has been well established that the performance of a simple task or one that is well learned is facilitated by arousal, but when the task is being learned or is difficult to perform, arousal reduces the performance. According to Ellis, this suggests in general that tasks difficult for an individual should be taught as privately as possible by someone who does not generate threatening evaluative anxiety. On the other hand, performance can be expected to increase after the individual has mastered the skill when an evaluative group of spectators is on the scene.

Another social influence affecting learning and performance is observational learning. Change in behavior occurs by observing the consequences that are applied to another individual's responses. The motivation to copy another's behavior is influenced by personality dispositions and by other social learnings. Fairly soon in the process of socialization, we learn which models and which performances are desirable or undesirable. In fact, this, along with the rewards for doing so, may have a great deal to do with why boys on the average learn to throw and catch balls much more efficiently than girls do.

Obviously, not all behaviors are capable of being learned by observation, some require going through the process of trial and error. However, in the process of observational learning, the amount of information available for the learner is the responsibility of the teacher, but the motivation to receive and to assimilate rests in the desire of the learner and in the confidence the learner has in the teacher. The first factor, the quality, quantity, and type of information, is one for educational consideration. The second factor, motivation to receive and to assimilate the information, resides in the social influences affecting the learner. These social influences, such as status, age, sex, size, and so forth, have not been researched to any degree in terms of ascertaining the influences they might have upon learning motor skills.

Social reinforcement is yet another social influence upon learning and behavior. This is described as the feedback the performer receives from others in the form of a smile, praise, or verbal report of the performance. The feedback can also be of a negative form. Social reinforcement provides information that influences the motivational and effective state of the learner or performer. The potency of smiles and censure in our society is well established. However, individual dispositions and specific situations modify their effectiveness. Factors that have been observed as influential in social reinforcement are: more intelligent and younger children are influenced to a greater degree; the social reinforcement of someone unfamiliar is more effective than of someone familiar; lower class children are influenced more by praise than middle class youngsters; and praise from disliked peers is quite effective.

The individual's past experience with social reinforcements also influences current reinforcement. Deprivation increases its power: it appears that the child develops a level of expectation for social reinforcement and deviations from that level reduce the effectiveness of social reinforcement. What is perceived as a poor

response weakens the effect of social reinforcement on learning. This in turn reduces the incentive to learn; some children will deliberately produce a poor response just to see what the consequences will be.

Personal dispositions also interact with the degree of influence social reinforcement will have upon the performance. Social reinforcement is less effective with those individuals who perceive the control of events to lie outside themselves. They do not see the reward of social reinforcement as being a result of something determined by their response.

Negative social reinforcement or punishment can also be effective if it provides information that the response was wrong or was executed incorrectly. However, if no positive reinforcement is given, there is no incentive in trying to produce the correct response. Constant positive reinforcement of the correct or improved response enhances learning when the skill to be learned is complex. When reinforcement by other modes, such as knowledge of results in the case of hitting a target, is available, social reinforcement may have little effect. This may also be true when the performer knows what is good and correct. In these cases the information perceived by the performer may provide adequate feedback from outside or from inside through personal dispositions to allow the individual to be self-correcting.

Social reinforcement influences performance in two general ways: first, it may provide a general encouragement to continue to try to learn the appropriate response, and, second, it may maintain the processes whereby highly learned skills may be maintained by associating other external positive reinforcers to it.

The manner in which the performer perceives the competitiveness of the task also affects the performance. Performance of well-learned skills is generally improved in competition; the performance of poorly mastered skills or skills being learned is diminished. The consequences of the competition can make the performance stressful if the results are perceived as important. Competition consists of activities directed more or less consistently toward meeting some standard or achieving a goal in which performance by a person or by a group is compared and evaluated relative to that of selected other persons or groups. By definition, competition implies a social context involving certain other people. Not any person will do, for there is invariably a selective process determining to whom one's performance is compared, what the standard or goals shall be, and who does the evaluating. Such social interaction is quite as essential for individual as for group or team competition. As a matter of fact, the social context is essential for understanding the structure of standards and goals for one's own performance. It follows, then, that the individual's level of aspiration, expectations, and standards for performance, including those defining excellence or achievement in some respect, are related to social standards held by some other persons. The child's experiences of success or failure in various performances are relative to such standards and are therefore determined within the social context even though the performance is private.

Body image, how one perceives one's body, is another socially determined concept that influences movement patterns and sport involvement to a great extent. I do not have the time to go into a lengthy discussion of those implications concerned with body image.

What, then, are the implications for teaching and learning skills? Knowing the sensory mechanisms that influence the individual's response to novel, complex, and dissonant stimuli allows us to provide situations in which the

learner can sustain the kind of information-seeking behavior that is intrinsically rewarding. Children learn rapidly which kinds of activities and experiences lead to stimuli worth attending to from their point of view. To maintain motivation for the performer, these activities must contain sufficient complexity to allow for uncertainty and the possibility of correct behavior in terms of the individual's own expectancies. Some sort of feedback, either intrinsic or extrinsic, is essential if interest is to be maintained. If the outcome is completely predictable or if the correct response is always assured, the performer will withdraw unless other consequences hold the child. The concept of interest and intrigue is individualistic; what is interesting today may be boring tomorrow. Arousal and interest must be maintained by constant and increasing complexity of the task as the child masters preceding levels. Novel, complex, and dissonant stimuli should be offered in abundance, with careful attention to the individual's preferred patterns and to their generation.

Physical activity is not just play but the expression of the individual's cognitive interaction with the situation physically and socially. A thorough understanding of the nature of intrinsically reinforcing factors is of the utmost importance in the programming of physical activity experiences for others. The knowledge of social influences, especially those that are common to many individuals, provides the opportunity for recognizing and applying the information in physical activity situations. More effective teaching should take place when the interactive nature of dispositions and social influences can be recognized and employed.

As Dr. Williams said, "Those of us who deal with the development of motor proficiency in the young child are vitally involved with the perceptual-motor development of that child that has to do with the development and use of the intersensory communication capacities of the child—particularly as they are taxed or called upon to be used in the learning and performance of gross motor skills." In the process, I plead that we do not overlook interhuman communication and the manner in which humans are influenced by others or the social factors that influence learning. We desperately need research on the processes of reward that fall under our control in teaching skills. We need to emphasize the need for research on the social and psychological implications influencing the performance of motor skills. At this point, we know a great deal more about the physical adaptations to physical activity and skills than we know about the social and psychological mechanisms that provide the motivation to sustain the activities or skill learnings long enough to create those adaptations. Somehow, we have put the cart before the horse in attempting to understand how individuals learn, or even why they learn. Perhaps in the next few years we can make headway toward correcting this oversight.

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REACTION TO "PERCEPTUAL-MOTOR DEVELOPMENT IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION"

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In her commendable paper, Dr. Williams suggests that by the very nature of the activities included in the physical education curriculum, we are inherently involving ourselves in the perceptual-motor development of the child. Dr. Williams also indicates that by exposing children to various activities, we are placing demands on the child's perceptual-motor capacities and thereby causing him to use and to develop these capacities. Unfortunately, many elementary school physical educators view the child's developmental level as a limiting factor rather than purposely structure the activities to contribute to this development. Admittedly, this is an attitudinal concern, but a very important one.

If we are to be concerned with facilitating perceptual-motor development, a major question is, How does movement experience contribute to the process? The application (1) of Pascual-Leone's Neo-Piagetian Model of learning and development to the motor domain (2), although an incipient theory, provides an insightful vantage point.

Central to the Neo-Piagetian Model is the Piagetian construct of a scheme. This is defined as "an organized set of reactions capable of being transferred from one situation to another by assimilation of the second to the first" (3). As the model is adapted, the Brunerian term "constituent acts" is roughly parallel to that of a scheme (4).

As an example of how these schemes are used let us look at the conservation of identity. The age at which this task is first passed is five to six years. In solving it, children appear to activate the following schemes:

An Executive Scheme representing the instructions and directing an appropriate scan of the ball as it is transformed.

A Figurative Scheme representing the fact that "nothing has been added or taken away."

A Figurative Scheme representing the rule that if nothing is added or taken away, then the amount remains the same.

If the children do not coordinate the above schemes, they fail the task, apparently because they activate another scheme already present in their repertoires, one that is misleading in the conservation situation. It may be:

A Figurative Scheme representing the rule that things that look bigger contain more.

Other tasks such as the Conservation of Equivalence and Conservation of Weight require the coordination and enactment of additional schemes, which are not possible until the ages of seven to eight and nine to ten respectively. In short, the child's capacity to coordinate schemes appears to increase with age.

Piaget refers to this increased capacity as an increase in the "field of consciousness." In the Neo-Piagetian Model it is referred to as an increase in *Mental Space*. According to the model, one of the main reasons children are not capable of performing tasks before a certain age is simply that their Mental Space is not yet large enough for them to integrate the required number of schemes. The limitation imposed by inadequate Mental Space is prohibitive even if the necessary schemes are in the child's repertoire.

Pascual-Leone equates development largely with the growth in Mental Space and learning with growth and change in the repertoire of schemes. He sees learning as primarily of two kinds: a child may incorporate new cues into an old scheme—Piaget's differentiation—or a child may also incorporate two formerly discrete schemes into one compound or superordinate scheme—Piaget's reciprocal assimilation. Bruner provides a concrete example of differentiation:

Once the act is successfully executed and repeated with success, that is, constituents are put stably into proper serial order, there often appears a sharp alteration in the structure of the act used for achieving the intended outcome. For example, shortly after the first successful taking of an object, the fist, rather than being closed prematurely which often happens before successful capture, now remains open at maximum extension until the object being sought is touched. There appears to be a reorganization of components, with a substitution of hyperextension ended by contact with the object for the previous routine of closure that begins with extension of the arm. A constituent is drastically altered to fit the task requirements, in this case the alteration being in direct contrast to the act replaced (4, p. 3).

Bruner suggests that this differentiation of function is followed by a process called modularization, in which the act gradually becomes less variable in latency and execution time and more economical in expenditure of energy. The act is now ready for assimilation:

... the increasingly successful act is soon supplanted by a new pattern of action which may in fact include the previously mastered act as a component part. Thus, in place of the by now well modularized bilateral pounce reach, the infant now 6 or 7 months old reaches in two steps: the first extends the hands out to the plane of the object, and the second closes in with the familiar anticipatory hand-closure pattern, a pause of some hundreds of milliseconds separating the two. The old program does not "disappear"; under stress, with overload, in unfamiliar surroundings, it appears intact—as also when the more complex act fails to attainment (4, p. 4).

Both types of learning result in an irreversible modification of the child's repertoire of schemes.

Consistent with the model, Case has demonstrated that for the Piagetian conservation tasks, instruction allowed children to construct new schemes, but did not affect their developmental capacity, that is, their Mental Space (3). Practically speaking, with experience the child may be able to perform certain complex tasks through modularization and the creation of superordinate schemes. This reduction in the required information processing is necessary to comply with the Mental Space available. It is important to note, however, that even with practice many complex tasks could not be effectively performed until the Mental Space is increased.

Using some age-related data provided by Dr. Williams (5), I would like to illustrate the model. Children in this study were asked to judge the speed and direction of a projected ball. Upon the projection of the ball they were to move as quickly as possible to the anticipated spot where it could be caught. In reality, the ball's flight was interrupted by a canvas suspended over the children's heads. Two measures were obtained for each child: (1) the speed of the perceptual response, that is, the time taken to make his or her initial movement after the ball left the projection machine, and (2) accuracy of perceptual response. This was recorded as the deviation from the optimum area of interception, which was determined from the flight characteristics of the ball and the child's height.

The children of the first, second, and third grades were capable of very quick responses but on the average misjudged the flight of the moving ball and went 22 feet beyond the optimum interception point. By the fourth grade, the children reversed their behavior. The children were quite accurate in judging where the object was going and in judging where they should go in order to catch it. However, the speed of perceptual response increased considerably. In terms of the model presented, it would appear that by the fourth grade the children had in their repertoire well-refined schemes or constituent acts to deal with both rapid judgments of a temporal nature and accurate judgments of a spatial nature. Although the children could efficiently deal with both performance variables, they could not process them simultaneously. According to the model, they were limited by their available Mental Space.

In the fifth grade, a greater interplay between temporal and spatial variables seemed to occur. Children were now a little less accurate in their judgment of flight of the moving object but were much quicker in making the decision to move. It would appear that spatial and temporal aspects of performance had become more integrated in their operation but had not yet reached a mature or adult level of functioning. It is conceivable that sufficient Mental Space was available but practice or experience was necessary for modularization to occur. As one would expect from the model, within the next year the children were capable of making the decision about the moving object both quickly and accurately. That is, they seemed to process the incoming visual information quickly and accurately and their motor responses followed easily and smoothly.

Admittedly, this illustration does not consider the possibility that extensive practice prior to the fifth grade may have resulted in the integrated and more mature response. In addition to the earlier discussed study by Case (3), there are other investigations that indicate extensive practice will not bring on a more complex behavior prior to a certain age. Goldstein, for example, demonstrated that the ability to reproduce a diagonal pattern is modifiable by training in some four-year-old and five-year-old subjects but not in any three-year-old subjects (6). The training results indicated that some children were able to learn how to reproduce a diagonal pattern without verbal instruction, extensive training, or feedback from the experimenter on the correctness of their reproductions. Only experience in making patterns was required. It is conceivable that, for these subjects, the necessary schemes or constituent acts were already in the child's repertoire; yet experience was needed to achieve the integration required.

An alternative method of looking at the role of experience is to examine the relationship of two similar and novel tasks, before practice and after performance has reached an asymptotic level. A study of my own, although not designed with the Neo-Piagetian Model in mind, does support its application to motor development (7). The subjects in this experiment composed three age

groups, each with an N of 50. They were given thirty practice trials on each of two discrete motor tasks. The tasks, a peg-shifting task and the Rho task, both required reaction to a light stimulus followed by a rapid arm movement. The object was to perform each trial as rapidly as possible.

At the initial performance level, the peg-shifting and Rho tasks exhibited 23, 6, and 10 percent common variance for six-, eleven-, and eighteen-year-old subjects respectively. In light of the model, it may be suggested that the two older age groups had a greater repertoire of schemes, which permitted more task specific performance.

The observed effect of practice was also found to be in line with the Neo-Piagetian Model. Six-year-old subjects evidenced 23 percent common variance in initial performance of the two tasks. Following practice this was reduced to 5 percent common variance. Apparently the practice afforded the subjects the opportunity to develop more task specific schemes or constituent acts.

Even though the six-year-old subjects were responding to the tasks in a more specific manner following practice, their mean performance scores were considerably poorer than either group of older subjects. According to the model, the Mental Space available to the six-year-olds would not allow them to coordinate the same number of complexity of schemes as the older subjects. If this were the case, they would be forced to utilize a less sophisticated and effective composite of schemes in their performance.

In line with the thinking of Fitts and Posner (8) and Ferguson (9), it is conceivable that there is some limit to the ability differentiation that can occur. Once this point is reached and maximum Mental Space is available, practice should not lead to greater specificity of task performance. This position was supported, since the common variance in initial performance of 6 percent for eleven-year-olds and 10 percent for eighteen-year-olds increased to 28 and 25 percent respectively after thirty practice trials. The observed increase in generality is explained in the following manner. It should, however, be noted that this explanation applies only in situations where ability differentiation is no longer occurring. Whatever relationship exists in the performance of two tasks, it should persist with practice. The correlation between initial performance on two motor tasks may be bolstered by widespread factors that subsequently are eliminated. Simultaneously those factors that remain will comprise more of the total variance than in early trials. Hence, if persistent factors in the two tasks are closely related, the gain in interest covariance that comes about through their increasing prominence may more than compensate for the loss of covariance from the elimination of more widespread factors.

Now to the original concern for the facilitation of perceptual-motor development. Is this a matter with which we should be concerned or does nature have it under control?

Approximately 15 to 20 percent of the children in the early elementary grades are being diagnosed as learning disabled. A large proportion of this group evidence perceptual-motor deficiencies. Consider the fact that there is a more or less continuous distribution between the exceptional child and those with disabilities. How many children are there who have perceptual-motor capabilities that are less than optimum yet not severe enough to be considered disabled?

Each year many school districts send home potential first graders because of developmental immaturities—apparently nature is given another year to work her magic.

If the theoretical notion that ability differentiation stabilizes in early adolescence can be substantiated, we certainly should attempt to provide for maximum development prior to stabilization.

Since the rapid and continuous growth of pre-adolescence and adolescence requires constant reevaluation and calibration of perceptual-motor functions, shouldn't we be concerned with optimizing opportunities for this to occur?

Unfortunately, the how-to of facilitating perceptual-motor development is impossible to answer with any degree of empirical certainty. The theory presented here does, however, provide a frame of reference from which to focus more specifically on the problem.

In most tasks, two stages of perceptual-motor functioning are readily observable. First, the stage where the essential schemes or constituent acts have been observed to be in the child's repertoire, but as of yet do not appear simultaneously with any effectiveness. Second, a stage where rudimentary integration of the various constituent acts appears to be occurring, identifiable by the fact that the more mature version of the behavior has appeared in an unrefined form.

It seems logical that if a child has not demonstrated all the necessary schemes in his or her repertoire, then practice should focus on the appropriate differentiation. But how? Should the child continue to be exposed to the complex task or a less complex version? If the mature version of the behavior has emerged, it is perhaps clear that practice of that task will aid the integrative process. What do we do with children who have demonstrated that the necessary schemes are in their repertoire, yet are not capable of being totally integrated? Should the child work at integrating the schemes even though his Mental Space may not allow for successful integration, or should the child further refine the existing schemes to be in a position to take maximum advantage when the Mental Space becomes available?

The earlier discussion of the role of experience in perceptual-motor development seems to have raised more questions than it provides immediate answers. I hope it serves as a meaningful frame of reference from which to become concerned about the role of physical education in the process, or provides stimulation for challenging the position with empirical data. In short, I am soliciting physical educators to become concerned about the role of our programs in the perceptual-motor development of our students.

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REPORTS

PRESIDENT'S REPORT

Vernon S. Sprague

In conformance with the functions of the office outlined in the NCPEAM constitution and bylaws, the following activities were performed by the president during 1973:

Appointment of Committees

1. *Standing Committees*

Appointments were made to fill expired terms and vacancies on the standing committees. Chairmen were appointed and when acceptances were received from identified nominees, the chairman was notified of the composition of the committee. These appointments were approved by the Executive Council at the Minneapolis meeting. Because of the reorganization of the association, not all committees had current operating codes, and the president when possible provided each committee a definition of its functions.

2. *President's Committees*

The following committees were appointed and charged with their duties:

Committee to Review and Develop Special Programs

Committee to Review Publication of the *Proceedings*

Committee to Review the Purposes and Objectives of the Association

3. *Other Appointments*

- a. Appointed Burris Husman representative of NCPEAM at the inauguration of President Ralph Candler John of Western Maryland College.
- b. Appointed Samuel Cooper NCPEAM member of the new Task Force on Program Standards for the General Program of the College Commission of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation.
- c. Appointed Daryl Siedentop associate editor of *Quest* and Warren Fraleigh a member of the *Quest* board.
- d. Reappointed Marvin Eyer NCPEAM representative to the College Commission of AAHPER.

Meetings

1. Arranged and conducted the Executive Council meeting of NCPEAM at the AAHPER convention in Minneapolis.
2. Met with the NCPEAM-NAPECW Conference and Projects committee in Minneapolis.
3. Attended *Quest* advisory board meeting in Minneapolis.
4. Met with First Vice President Sheldon Fordham in Salt Lake City in November to finalize the Kansas City program, review past and future programs of the association, review the constitution and operating codes, and orient him to the duties of the president of the association. During the same period, the

president met with Jim Ewers for a preliminary discussion on the report of the committee to review the preliminary report of the Committee to Review the Purposes and Objectives of the Association.

5. Met with Ann Jewett, John Nixon, and Deane Richardson in New Orleans at the Professional Preparation Conference for informal discussion of mutual concerns of NCPEAM and NAPECW.

6. Extended NCPEAM good wishes and announced the Kansas City conference at the Western College Men's Physical Education Society meeting in Reno. Urged the membership to attend.

Correspondence

1. Communicated with Ann Jewett, president of NAPECW, concerning publicity, plans for the Kansas City conference, and programs of mutual interest to the association.

2. Exchanged viewpoints with Ross Merrick of functions and relationships of the NCPEAM-NCAA-AAHPER Committee on Physical Education and Athletics. Discussed the publication of the "Position Statement" published in the June issues of the AAHPER journal.

3. Carried out extensive correspondence with university and college administrators concerning the continuance and finance of physical education service course programs.

4. Communicated extensively with the membership of NCPEAM about expressed concerns regarding the association. Topics involved were the reorganization of the association, the status of the Research Committee and the potential for a research division, international relations committee, and time and site of the convention.

5. Communicated with Marvin Eyler concerning the functions of the College Commission and the New Task Force for Program Standards of the College Commission.

6. Communicated with Betty Spears, editor, and Maryann Waltz, chairman of the *Quest* board, concerning board policy, publication dates, and contents of the future issues of *Quest*.

7. Distributed the agenda for the meetings of the Executive Council in Kansas City.

8. Granted permission to quote material from the *Proceedings*.

Newsletter

Prepared copy for the *Newsletter*.

Convention Program

Worked with Sheldon Fordham, Burreis Husman, Pat Mueller, Wayne Osness, and the division officers in developing the Kansas City program.

Recommendations

It is recommended that the association:

1. Reconsider the importance of including the reports of the business activities of the association in the *Proceedings*.

2. Reactivate a strong membership and participation program for past and future members. Positive action in this respect could be attained by implementation of Chalmer Hixson's former recommendations:

- a. Personal letters to college physical educators throughout the states.
- b. Face-to-face contacts with potential members.
- c. Telephone calls to colleges and universities in the state.
- d. Promotional announcements in college section meetings of state and district conventions.
- e. Supplying of membership blanks, brochures, and lists of inactive members to Membership Committee state representatives.
- f. Compiling of lists of college physical educators.
- g. Urging chairmen and directors of departments of physical education and athletics to promote NCPEAM.
- h. Display of brochures and membership blanks at state conventions.
- i. Encouraging all NCPEAM members to promote membership in NCPEAM.
- j. Seeking a faculty member in each college or department of physical education to recruit and present the values of membership in NCPEAM.

4. Create a special task force to develop a plan and provide leadership for the definition and coordination of the missions critical to the physical education profession. A coordinated plan is essential at this point to eliminate the weakening of the profession by fragmentation and diversion of efforts by multiple single-interest power structures.

Special thanks and recognition are extended to Past President Dave Bischoff for the direction he gave in the reorganization of the association and the projects for the future that he initiated. Further thanks are expressed to the Executive Council, Sheldon Fordham, Burris Husman, and Wayne Osness for their inspirational and dedicated efforts in developing the convention program for the Kansas City conference.

Particular note should be made of the continued dedicated efforts and support of C.E. Mueller, our secretary-treasurer.

The presidency has been a most challenging and rewarding experience, and sincere appreciation is expressed to all the membership who made it possible.

SECRETARY-TREASURER'S REPORT

C.E. Mueller

In addition to administering the routine affairs of the secretary-treasurer's office for the fiscal year 1973, the following items are presented for your information.

1. Three *Newsletters* were printed and mailed to the membership in the months of October, February, and May.
2. The 1973 *Proceedings* was distributed during September. An ad hoc committee to review the *Proceedings* recommended that all of the reports in the back of the *Proceedings* be eliminated. This resulted in a savings of \$1,259 from the previous printing.

3. The 1973 Auditor's Report, prepared by Paul Huber, Certified Public Accountant, shows income of \$17,071.84, expenses of \$15,582.98, and a bank balance of \$1,488.86. However, these expenditures do not include the cost of the 1973 *Proceedings*, which is \$2,084.

4. During fiscal 1973, 1,273 memberships were processed. This is 55 more than the previous year and 9 fewer than the all-time record reached in 1971.

Membership Summary

	1972	1973
Emeritus members	91	97
New members	133	132
Active members	994	1044
Total	1218	1273

CONVENTION MANAGER'S REPORT: 77th ANNUAL MEETING

Wayne Osnes

The following is a report of the 77th meeting of the National College Physical Education Association for Men held at the Crown Center Hotel, Kansas City, Missouri, on December 26-29, 1973.

Facilities

Arrangements for the use of the Crown Center Hotel were made fourteen months in advance and prior to the end of construction of the facility. Several preconvention meetings were held prior to the written confirmation of the conference. The meeting rooms were spacious and provided a pleasant and comfortable setting for the presentation of the program. Many other facilities were available to the attending members for leisure time activities.

The meeting was held with a special invitation to the members of the National Association for Physical Education College Women. A fine group of women from that organization attended and many of them participated in the program.

Program

Dr. Sheldon Fordham was responsible for a fine program involving sessions on "Sport and Leisure," "Professional Preparation," and "Body of Knowledge." These sessions were chaired by Dr. Art Gallon, Dr. Carlton Meyers, and Dr. John Lucas. An open forum on the purpose and future of NCPEAM was led by Dr. Deane Richardson, past president of the association. Two sessions of special interest groups were held covering many of the current issues facing the association and the profession.

The convention luncheon featured a presidential address by President Vernon Sprague, who related the present status of the association and the future as he views it. Vice President Fordham presided at the meeting.

President Sprague also presided at the two general sessions, the first involving the business of the association and the second, a presentation by Dr. Archie R. Dykes, chancellor of the University of Kansas, who spoke on "The Role of Physical Education in Higher Education."

Convention Organization

Special congratulations are offered to Dr. Pat Mueller for registration, Ms. Jean Milroy for luncheon and secretarial responsibilities, Mr. Henry Shenk for publicity, and Ozdemir Karatun for assisting in program presentation. The program chairman made a special effort to display pictures and publicity for each of the sessions presented, which was a fine addition to the conference. These people provided the support for a very smooth running meeting.

Summary

Despite the fact that the meeting was held during the Christmas holiday week, the attendance was very good. Those attending were impressed by the beautiful setting for the conference and the quality of the programs presented. The officers of the association did excellent preconvention work in preparation for the meeting and conducted the sessions with pleasure and efficiency.

MINUTES, EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING LEAMINGTON HOTEL MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA APRIL 13, 1973

Members present: James Ewers, Sheldon Fordham, Art Gallon, Dale Hanson, Paul Hartman, Burris Husman, John Lucas, Carlton Meyers, Barry Pelton, Jim Peterson, Fred Roby, Vernon Sprague

Others in attendance: Max Cogan, Wayne Osness, Robert Serfass

1. The meeting was called to order at 12:30 p.m. by President Sprague.
2. Minutes of the Executive Council meetings held in Pittsburgh were approved as distributed.
3. Max Cogan reported on the revision of the Operating Code. A May 10, 1973, deadline has been set for getting the revision to the secretary-treasurer's office for updating.
4. The 1973 NCPEAM committee list was distributed to the members for approval. The committee appointments were approved as distributed.
5. A *motion* was made and seconded to have the NCPEAM committee list sent to all current members. *Passed.*
6. Bob Serfass reported on the NCPEAM-NAPECW booth at the AAHPER convention. Robert Pestolesi from Long Beach State will be contacted to organize the booth at the Anaheim convention in 1974.
7. Wayne Osness reported on the progress of the Kansas City meeting. An all-out effort will be made to increase the attendance at the conference by planning a special program for wives. He will select a committee to look into the types of activities available in the Kansas City area.
8. Division chairmen were reminded that they are to prepare nominating slates for the various sections and present them at the Kansas City convention to be voted on by the membership.
9. Sprague asked the Executive Committee members to write to Betty Spears, per her request, informing her of people she might contact regarding articles for publication in *Quest*.
10. The council moved that President Sprague should extend congratulations to Dr. Elizabeth McCollough, on behalf of NCPEAM, for the fellowship awarded to her by the American Council on Education. Seconded. *Passed.* A copy of the letter will be sent to Dr. Chellman, Dean of the School of Health Sciences, Indiana University of Pennsylvania.
11. First vice chairman of each section reported progress being made for the Kansas City conference.
12. After considerable discussion as to who should be NCPEAM's representative to the AAHPER Representative Assembly, Wayne Osness brought it to the

council's attention that, on page 19 of the Operating Code, the secretary-treasurer is designated as the representative, and if he is unable to attend, the president shall designate a proxy. Burris Husman was appointed to attend in the absence of C.E. Mueller.

13. A *motion* was made and seconded to appoint a committee to review the purpose of NCPEAM. *Passed*.

14. A *motion* was made and seconded to appoint Jim Odenkirk as manager for the 78th annual convention. *Passed*. The site is Phoenix, Arizona, and the date is January 9-12, 1975.

15. A *motion* was made and seconded that the first vice president in connection with the secretary-treasurer, have the responsibility to prepare convention highlights for news release on the last day of the convention. *Passed*.

16. A *motion* was made and seconded to accept the following *Quest* Advisory Board amendment:

This Operating Code may be amended by a majority vote of the Advisory Board and approval of the Executive Councils of NCPEAM and NAPECW.

Passed.

17. The meeting adjourned at 3:35 p.m.

Respectfully submitted,
Sally Blass
Acting Secretary

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING
KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI
DECEMBER 26, 1973

Members present: Jim Ewers, Sheldon Fordham, Dale Hanson, Paul Hartman, Burris Husman, John Lucas, Carlton Meyers, C.E. Mueller, Barry Pelton, Jim Peterson, Fred Roby, Vernon Sprague

Others in attendance: Dave Bischoff, David Field, John Friedrich, Bill Gustafson, Bob Korsgaard, Larry Locke, Jim Odenkirk, Wayne Osness, Bob Pestolesi, Jim Stevens

1. The meeting was called to order by President Sprague at 1:30 p.m.
2. Minutes of the April 13, 1973, meeting were approved as distributed.
3. The following committee reports were received:
 - a. President's Report
 - b. Research Committee
 - c. Joint Committee on Physical Education and Athletics
 - d. Policies Committee
 - e. Convention Program
 - f. Purposes of the Association
 - g. Affirmative Action for Minority Members
 - h. College Physical Education Commission of AAHPER

4. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the report of the Nominating Committee. *Passed.*
5. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve resolutions 4, 5, and 8 presented by the Resolutions Committee. *Passed.*
6. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the Operating Codes Committee report. *Passed.*
7. A *motion* was made and seconded to amend the proposed budget for 1975 to increase the officers' travel fund from \$600 to \$800. *Passed.* A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the 1975 budget as amended. *Passed.*
8. The secretary-treasurer's report was approved as presented.
9. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the report of the Committee to Review the Publication of the *Proceedings*. *Passed.*
10. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the report of the Committee to Review and Develop Special Projects. *Passed.*
11. The Necrology Committee reported that memorials were not printed in the *Proceedings* last year. A *motion* was made and seconded to briefly summarize memorials for last year's and this year's deceased members. *Passed.*
12. A *motion* was made and seconded that President Fordham send letters to appropriate minority leaders informing them about NCPEAM and inviting them to become members. *Passed.*
13. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the report of the Membership Committee. *Passed.*
14. The meeting recessed at 5:00 p.m. and reconvened at 8:00 p.m.
15. Pestolesi reported on the progress of the NCPEAM-NAPECW booth that will be set up at the AAHPER convention in Anaheim. Executive Council members will sign up to assist with the supervision of the booth.
16. A *motion* was made and seconded to accept Hot Springs, Arkansas, as the 1975-76 meeting site, contingent upon the presentation to be made December 27 by a representative of the Arlington Hotel. *Passed.*
17. A *motion* was made and seconded to take a straw vote at the annual business meeting to determine preferred dates for January or February, or alternating between January and February. *Passed.*
18. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the report of the Constitution Committee.
 - a. A *motion* was made and seconded to amend article 4, section 4e, to read: "The election of officers shall occur at the business meeting of the annual meeting." The division vice chairmen shall be listed in alphabetical order. *Passed.*
 - b. A *motion* was made and seconded to amend article 4, section 8, to read: "The secretary-treasurer shall be bonded by the association." *Passed.*
 - c. A *motion* was made and seconded to amend article 2, section 3, of the bylaws by striking "fail to elect officers for three successive years." *Passed.*
 - d. The main *motion* passed.
19. A *motion* was made and seconded to include the revised constitution in the next *Proceedings* and thereafter as directed by the Executive Council. *Passed.*
20. A *motion* was made and seconded that presiding officers will request speakers' permission to use tape recorders and it will be announced to the audience. *Passed.*

21. A *motion* was made and seconded that the president appoint an editor for the *Newsletter*. *Passed*.

22. A *motion* was made and seconded that Sprague and Fordham be reimbursed for transportation expenses to their meeting in Salt Lake City. *Passed*.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING
KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI
DECEMBER 29, 1973

Members present: Wayne Brumbach, Ken Church, Jim Ewers, Sheldon Fordham, Dale Hanson, Paul Hartman, Burris Husman, C.E. Mueller, Barry Pelton, Jim Peterson, Fred Roby, and Harold VanderZwaag

Others in attendance: Bill Fleming, Jim Odenkirk, Wayne Osness, Vernon Sprague

1. The meeting was called to order by President Fordham at 7:00 a.m.
2. A *motion* was made and seconded that the president appoint someone to visit Hot Springs, Houston, Dallas, New Orleans, and Fort Worth and report back to the Executive Council meeting in Anaheim. *Passed*.
3. President Fordham appointed Bill Fleming as editor of the NCPEAM *Newsletter*. A discussion was held regarding the kinds of information that could be included in the *Newsletter*.
4. A *motion* was made and seconded that NCPEAM invite NAPECW to assist in planning jointly some of the sessions for next year's conference. *Passed*. President Fordham suggested that relationships between NAPECW and NCPEAM be placed on the agenda of the Executive Council meeting to be held in Anaheim.
5. President Fordham requested assistance in selecting members for the standing committees.
6. President Fordham will appoint NCPEAM members to the Projects Advisory Board, Scholarly Directions Committee, and Professional Directions Committee. Although some of the officers of NAPECW reacted favorably to joint projects with NCPEAM, they will not be able to make specific commitments until their board meets in February.
7. President Fordham appointed Leo Gedvilas to serve as editor of the *Proceedings*.
8. Odenkirk reported that next year's convention would be held at the Towne House in Phoenix, Arizona, January 9-12, 1975. Jesse Owens and Joe Black were suggested as potential general session speakers.
9. The next Executive Council meeting is scheduled on Friday, March 29, at 12:00 noon in the Jolly Roger Motel at Anaheim, California.
10. The meeting adjourned at 8:30 a.m.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

MINUTES, ASSOCIATION BUSINESS

FIRST GENERAL SESSION BUSINESS MEETING KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI DECEMBER 27, 1973

1. The meeting was called to order at 10:30 a.m. by President Sprague.
2. Councilman Brownfield presented greetings on behalf of Mayor Wheeler and the councilmen of Kansas City.
3. Min Psai expressed greetings from the College Physical Education Association in the Republic of China, Taipei, Taiwan.
4. The secretary-treasurer's report was approved as read.
5. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the budget for 1975. *Passed.*
6. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve resolution 1 of the Resolutions Committee report. A *motion* was made to amend the resolution by deleting the second "whereas." The amendment was *defeated* and the main motion *passed.*
7. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve resolution 2. A *motion* was made and seconded to amend the resolution by including research in both teacher-administrator, not to say these programs shall be without research. *Passed.* A *motion* was made to amend the resolution by deleting, "Be it further resolved." *Passed.* The main motion as amended was *defeated.*
8. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve resolution 3. *Passed.*
9. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the following resolution:
Whereas, the National College Physical Education for Men has been concerned with the improvement of its program; and
Whereas, this organization could enhance its effectiveness with new and more meaningful programs;
Therefore, be it resolved that the NCPEAM have a convention theme with all the divisions concerned with its implementation. *Defeated.*
10. Bischoff, chairman of the Nominating Committee, presented the following nominations:
 - a. 2nd vice president—Bob Korsgaard and Wayne Brumbach
 - b. Secretary-treasurer—C.E. Mueller
11. The results of the election were as follows:
 - a. 2nd vice president—Wayne Brumbach
 - b. Secretary-treasurer—C.E. Mueller
12. A *motion* was made and seconded to make the following individuals emeritus members: T. Erwin Blesh, John J. Conroy, Reuben B. Frost, Chalmer G. Hixson, Ernst Jokl, Maurice E. Ostrander, Peter O. Sigerseth, Raymond F. Struck, William L. Terry, and Carlos L. Wear. *Passed.*
13. A *motion* was made and seconded to send memorial tributes and certificates to the next of kin for the following deceased members: John A. Scannel, Clyde G. Knapp, Albin P. Warner, Dick T. Dowell, Clair Van Norman Langton, David Dean Rains, Arthur A. Esslinger, Mark Salzman, Lysle Butler, Kenneth Robbins, Fay Bartlett, Harold Jack, and Bill Hoover. *Passed.* Last year's deceased members were not included in the *Proceedings* but will be in the 1974 *Proceed-*

ings. They include C.J. Hart, Harold Kenny, Paul Dunsing, Howard Way, Robert Meyne, Edward Dorey, Glen Galligan, and Harry Scott.

14. The Time and Site Committee identified three locations for the 79th convention.

- a. Arlington Hotel, Hot Springs, Arkansas
- b. Baker Hotel, Dallas, Texas
- c. Blackstone Hotel, Fort Worth, Texas

No action was recommended.

15. A straw vote was taken to determine January-February meeting dates. Forty-seven favored the second week in January, eight preferred a date in February, and three voted to alternate between January and February.

16. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the constitution as amended. *Passed.*

17. The following committee reports were received:

- a. Operating Codes
- b. Purposes of the Association
- c. Review and Develop Special Projects

18. Odenkirk issued an invitation to attend next year's convention, which will be held at the Towne House, Phoenix, Arizona.

19. The meeting adjourned at 12:30 p.m.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

STANDING COMMITTEES

CONSTITUTION COMMITTEE

Two years ago, the NCPEAM adopted a new structure causing major changes in the functioning of the association. In order to permit immediate facilitation of these changes, the Constitution Committee directed its energies last year toward the incorporation of the changes into the existing constitution. It made it possible to function legally, but it was a patch-up construction. Recognizing the reason for such an approach and that it was an expedient, this year's Constitution Committee addressed itself to a complete revision of the document.

The following constitution is the work of this year's committee. Some changes are nothing more than editorial, some are more or less just rearrangements, some attempt to provide procedures that were omitted in the previous constitution, and some are new concepts. Procedures for completing unexpired terms are included for the offices of first and second vice presidents and vice chairmen, Article IV, Sections 6-11. Procedures to permit delinquent members to become reactivated are designated in Article I of the bylaws. The necessity of the membership to vote to accept persons to emeritus status has been eliminated. The matter of other groups identifying with the NCPEAM, such as the Western Society of the NCPEAM, has been treated in several places in the constitution and bylaws and merits the attention of the membership.

The Constitution Committee submits that although radical surgery was performed, the situation called for it. It is hoped that the patient is still the recognizable organization it has always been but in an improved condition as the result of the Structure Committee's contribution of two years ago and the refinement of the constitution and bylaws as represented in this report.

Respectfully submitted,

Bob Korsgaard
Chairman

CONSTITUTION

Article I—Name

Section 1—The organization shall be known as the National College Physical Education Association for Men. Hereinafter it shall be referred to as the association.

Article II—Aim and Objectives

Section 1—The aim of the association is to further the advancement of physical education and sport in institutions of higher education.

Section 2—The objectives are:

- a. To improve the contributions of physical education intramurals, sport, and athletics and, when appropriate, the related fields of health education and recreation to higher education.

b. To identify and define major issues and problems confronting the profession, particularly those of higher education, and encourage and organize research including the gathering, analyzing, and interpreting of data in an effort to resolve these issues and problems.

c. To develop interdisciplinary relationships with kindred fields of knowledge for the insights they may be able to contribute on the nature and values of physical education, e.g., anthropology, history, philosophy, physiology, psychology, sociology, sports medicine, and other disciplines.

d. To improve public relations through increasing public awareness and understanding of the nature and purposes of physical education.

Article III—Membership

Section 1—There shall be three (3) types of membership: active, emeritus, and affiliated societies.

Section 2—Active members are men actively engaged in physical education—teaching, research, or administration in colleges—or are male physical education graduate students or are men associated with allied fields.

Section 3—Emeritus members are those who were active members at the time of retirement and had been active members for a minimum of fifteen (15) of the previous twenty (20) years.

Section 4—Affiliated societies are those organized groups whose purposes, qualifications for membership, and standards are in harmony with the association and who have petitioned for and been accepted by the association.

Section 5—Emeritus members enjoy all rights and privileges of the association with the exception of holding office or sitting on the Executive Council.

Section 6—Individual members of affiliated societies must become active members of the association to be eligible for its rights and privileges.

Article IV—Governance and Duties of Officers

Section 1—The governance and functioning of the association shall be vested in its officers, Executive Council, committees, and members as hereinafter provided.

Section 2—The officers and the Executive Council shall be the governing body of the association and consist of:

- a. The president
- b. The first vice president
- c. The second vice president
- d. The secretary-treasurer
- e. The chairman of the Division of Sport and Leisure
- f. The first vice chairman of the Division of Sport and Leisure
- g. The second vice chairman of the Division of Sport and Leisure
- h. The chairman of the Division of Professional Preparation
- i. The first vice chairman of the Division of Professional Preparation
- j. The second vice chairman of the Division of Professional Preparation
- k. The chairman of the Division of Body of Knowledge
- l. The first vice chairman of the Division of Body of Knowledge
- m. The second vice chairman of the Division of Body of Knowledge

Section 3—The Executive Council shall manage the general affairs of the association except as hereinafter specified and each member shall exercise equal voting powers. Its responsibilities include: (a) fulfilling directives charged to it by the membership at the annual business meeting, special meetings, or actions resulting from mail votes; (b) presenting matters of policy to the membership at the annual business meeting, special meetings, or through submitting such matters for the casting of a mail ballot for approval; (c) acting for the association between annual meetings; (d) maintaining an active program throughout the year; and (e) making appointments to fill vacated offices not otherwise provided for.

Section 4—Officers and Executive Council members shall be elected for their terms of office at the annual meetings of the association.

a. A nominating committee consisting of the three immediate past presidents, with the retiring president as chairman, shall prepare a slate of two names for the office of second vice president-elect. They shall also prepare the slate for the position of secretary-treasurer and may, at their discretion, submit only the name of the incumbent secretary-treasurer.

b. At least three (3) months prior to the annual meeting, each division chairman shall appoint a nominating committee consisting of three association members to prepare a slate of two names for the position of second vice chairman for each of the respective divisions.

c. Additional nominations for the positions of second vice president, secretary-treasurer, and second vice chairman for all divisions may be made from the floor.

d. With the exception of the secretary-treasurer, officers and Executive Council members are not eligible for reelection to the same position (or a position that ultimately leads to that same position) immediately upon the expiration of their terms of office.

e. The election of the following officers shall occur at the business meeting of the annual meeting:

1. Second vice chairman, Division of Body of Knowledge
2. Second vice chairman, Division of Professional Preparation
3. Second vice chairman, Division of Sport and Leisure
4. Second vice president of the association
5. Secretary-treasurer

f. A majority vote shall be required for election. If no candidate receives a majority on the first ballot, the two candidates receiving the highest number of votes shall then be voted upon. When there are two or more nominees for one office, voting shall be by secret ballot.

g. All officers and Executive Council members (division officers) shall be elected to a one-year term of office that shall extend from the close of the annual meeting at which they were elected to the close of the next annual meeting.

h. Under unusual circumstances (e.g., the lack of a quorum at the designated meeting for elections) the incumbent officers and Executive Council members shall remain in their respective positions for the ensuing year.

Section 5—Duties of the president: The president shall preside at all association and Executive Council meetings and appoint all committees as prescribed in the bylaws. He shall call and make appropriate arrangements for the place and conduct of all meetings of the association and the Executive Council as hereinafter provided. He shall supervise the program planning for all

association meetings as provided in Section 6. He shall provide for an annual audit of the secretary-treasurer's accounts. He shall be authorized to sign checks in the absence of the secretary-treasurer.

Section 6—Duties of the first vice president: The first vice president shall plan the program for the association's regular annual meeting under the supervision of the president. While his primary responsibility shall be the arrangements for the general session(s), he also shall work with the division first vice chairmen. He shall, during the absence of the president, perform all of the duties of the president and, if the office of the president becomes vacant, the first vice president shall succeed to the presidency for the unexpired term.

The first vice president shall succeed to the presidency at the normal expiration of the president's term of office. Should he complete a vacated president's unexpired term, he will succeed himself for the succeeding (his own normal) term of office as president.

He shall familiarize himself with the duties and responsibilities of the president in preparation for substituting in that role and succeeding to that position.

Section 7—Duties of the second vice president: The second vice president shall be in charge of arranging for the special interest section meetings of the annual meeting. He shall succeed to the position of the first vice presidency at the normal expiration of the first vice president's term of office.

Should he complete a vacated first vice presidency, he will then succeed himself as first vice president at the normal expiration of the original first vice president's term of office.

The second vice president should use his term to prepare for and learn the duties of the first vice president and of the president in addition to such duties as the president may wish to delegate to him.

Section 8—Duties of the secretary-treasurer: The secretary-treasurer shall perform all duties usually incumbent upon these offices: edit and cause to be published the *Proceedings* of the annual meeting as well as other publications of the association, collect dues, pay association bills on approval by the president, assume general charge of all monies belonging to the association, render a financial account to members at the annual business meeting, and conduct mail voting procedures as authorized by the president.

The secretary-treasurer shall be bonded by the association. He shall receive an annual budget for clerical and other services as determined by the Executive Council.

Section 9—Duties of the division chairman: The division chairman shall preside at all division meetings. He shall supervise the program planning for all division meetings held during the annual meetings of the association. He shall assume the responsibility for pursuing professional activities throughout the year that are pertinent to the interests of the division. He shall be responsible for the conduct of division activities in a manner consistent with the intent and stated provisions of the association's constitution and bylaws. He appoints his division's nominating committee and such other committees that are within the purview of that division.

Section 10—Duties of the division first vice chairman: The first vice chairman, under the supervision of, and with the assistance of, the chairman, shall plan the division programs for its regular annual meetings. Additional assistance shall be obtained from the second vice chairman and committees appointed by the chairman.

During the absence of the chairman, he shall perform all the duties of the chairman and, if the office of the chairman becomes vacant, he shall succeed to the unexpired term of the chairman.

He shall succeed to the office of chairman at the normal expiration of the chairman's term of office. Should he complete an unexpired term for the chairman, he will then succeed himself for the succeeding (his own normal) term of office as chairman.

He shall familiarize himself with the duties and responsibilities of the chairman in preparation for fulfilling that position.

Section 11—Duties of the division second vice chairman: The second vice chairman shall serve as secretary for his division: keeping minutes, forwarding all papers and reports presented at division meetings to the secretary-treasurer for publication consideration in the *Proceedings*, and passing along the minutes and such other documents and information that may be indicated to his successor. He shall, at the request of the chairman or the first vice chairman of his division, assist with the program planning for his division.

He shall succeed to the first vice chairmanship at the normal expiration of the first vice chairman's term of office. If the first vice chairman's office becomes vacant, he shall succeed to the unexpired term of that office. Should he complete such an unexpired term, he will then succeed himself for the succeeding (his own normal) term of office as first vice chairman.

He shall familiarize himself with the duties and responsibilities of the first vice chairman and chairman in preparation for fulfilling these positions.

Article V—Meetings

Section 1—The association and its Executive Council shall each hold at least one annual meeting at a time and place designated by the Executive Council.

Section 2—Special meetings of the association or the Executive Council may be called by the president upon authorization by the Executive Council.

Section 3—*Roberts' Rules of Order* shall govern the conduct of all business of the association not covered in this constitution and bylaws.

Section 4—Quorums necessary to conduct business are:

- a. At the regular annual meeting of the association a quorum shall be 30 percent of the members registered for that annual meeting at the times of the business meetings.
- b. A mail vote quorum shall consist of 15 percent of the current membership. No mail vote shall be valid after thirty days from the date upon which the question was mailed by the secretary-treasurer to the members for action.
- c. A quorum of the Executive Council shall consist of at least three-fifths of the members.

Article VI—Amendments

Section 1—The constitution may be amended by *either one of two ways*:

- a. Submission of an amendment to the Executive Council at least one Executive Council meeting preceding the one held in conjunction with the first day's activities of the regular annual meeting. The amendment must be received in sufficient time to be included in the *President's Newsletter* or a special letter to the membership that can be received by the members at least two weeks prior to the regular annual meeting of the association.
- b. Submission of the amendment at a regular business meeting of the annual

meeting of the association for consideration at the succeeding (next year's) annual meeting of the association.

Section 2—After meeting the requirement(s) of Section 1, the constitution may be amended at any regular or special meeting of the association or by a mail vote of the association. A favorable vote of two-thirds of the members present (if a quorum exists) is required. A mail vote shall require approval by a majority of the current membership. No mail vote shall be valid if received beyond thirty days after official notification.

BYLAWS

Article I—Membership Application and Dues

Section 1—Active membership may be obtained by virtue of completion of the application, contingent upon establishment of eligibility and payment of the annual dues. Dues shall be established by the membership and are payable to the secretary-treasurer upon notification. Delinquent members are those whose dues are one or more years in arrears, and they shall be dropped from the roles. Reinstatement is made upon payment of the current annual dues. A delinquent member may reestablish continuity of membership upon his payment of his arrearages at the current dues rate.

Section 2—Emeritus membership is obtained upon retirement, if qualified (See Constitution, Article III, Section 3). Emeritus members are exempt from dues.

Section 3—Affiliated society membership shall be awarded upon application by the society to the Executive Council and a two-thirds favorable vote by the membership at a regular business meeting at the annual meeting of the association. Dues shall be established by the membership and are payable to the secretary-treasurer and are payable upon notification.

Article II—Divisions

Section 1—Three divisions within the association are established in order to promote its activities and realize its objectives. The divisions are:

a. *Division of Sport and Leisure*, which includes interests such as basic instruction, intramurals, sport clubs, campus physical recreation programs, and intercollegiate athletics.

b. *Division of Professional Preparation*, which includes interests such as teacher education, undergraduate and graduate programs in the broad field of physical education, and programs or curricula leading to the preparation of personnel for other types of services related to physical education.

c. *Division of Body of Knowledge*, which includes interests such as the history of sport, comparative and international physical education, sociology of sport, motor learning, physiology of exercise, sport psychology, administrative theory, and similarly related areas.

Section 2—Additional divisions may be established upon: (1) receipt by the Executive Council of a petition indicating the purpose and need for such a division, said petition to include a minimum of twenty-five signatures of current members; (2) recommendation by the Executive Council; and (3) approval by a two-thirds vote of the membership at an annual meeting of the association.

Section 3—Divisions may be dissolved upon: (1) receipt by the Executive Council of a petition requesting such a dissolution, said petition to contain a

minimum of twenty-five signatures of current members, (2) recommendation of the Executive Council, and (3) approval of the dissolution by a two-thirds vote of the membership at an annual meeting of the association.

In lieu of the receipt of such a petition, any division that has failed to provide a program for three successive annual meetings or whose programs have failed to attract an audience of at least five members for three successive annual meetings shall automatically be placed in review by the Executive Council.

Council recommendation shall be presented to, and voted upon by, the membership at a regular business meeting at an annual meeting of the association. Approval of the recommendation shall require a two-thirds vote.

Article III—Committees

Section 1—Committees shall be designated as President's Committees, Continuing Committees, Standing Committees, and Joint Committees and are appointed by the president.

Section 2—President's Committees are charged with specific tasks or assignments, the nature of which is such that they can reasonably be expected to be completed during the incumbent president's term of office.

Section 3 Continuing Committees are those authorized by the membership and are assigned to those projects or problems that are specific in nature and are amenable to final resolution and/or conclusions but must function beyond the term of office of the appointing president. Their appointment shall be approved by the Executive Council and they shall continue to function until discharged by official action of the membership.

Section 4—Standing Committees are those authorized by the membership at a regular business meeting or by mail vote and are approved by the Executive Council. They are assigned a specific task related to the ongoing functioning and purposes of the association and its programs. Examples include: Annual Meeting Program, Constitution, Finance, International Relations, Historical Records, Legislative, Membership, Necrology, Nominations, Operating Codes, Policies, Public Relations, Research, and Resolutions.

These committees follow a policy of rotating membership with no member to be appointed for a period to exceed three years. The number of members on a committee is prescribed by the Executive Council. Each committee shall have its own operating code, and, if none exists, the concerned committee shall prepare and submit one to the Operating Codes Committee and, in turn, to the Executive Council for approval.

Section 5—Joint Committees concern themselves with specific tasks or problems and function in a cooperative relationship with one or more associations, organizations, or societies. They are authorized by the Executive Council and may have either a brief and terminal function or a continuing one.

Article IV—Publications

Section 1—The association shall publish or cooperate in the publication of: the *Proceedings* of the annual meeting, the *President's Newsletter*, and *Quest*. All members in good standing shall receive copies of these publications.

Section 2—The *Proceedings* is the official publication and contains a record of activities, selected papers read at the annual meeting, committee reports, the president's message, membership roll, and other official business of the association. The *Proceedings* shall be edited and published as soon as possible after each annual meeting.

Section 3—The *President's Newsletter* shall be published at the discretion of the president, but no less than semi-annually. It includes committee assignments, messages, a synopsis of the program of the annual meeting, announcements, and such other matters as the president may elect to bring before the membership.

Section 4—*Quest* is a joint publication of the association and the National Association of Physical Education for College Women. Both associations appoint members to an editorial board that is charged with the responsibility for each semi-annual issue. *Quest* contains articles that generally relate to a theme concerning physical education.

Section 5—The secretary-treasurer shall arrange for the publication and distribution of such other matters as the Executive Council may direct.

Article V—Finance

Section 1—Monies obtained by the association shall be allotted to (a) operating budget, (b) reserve fund, and (c) special projects as designated by the Executive Council.

Section 2—The operating budget shall consist of those funds deemed necessary by the Executive Council to meet the obligations of the association throughout the fiscal year, including those of the annual meeting.

Section 3—The reserve fund represents those monies that accumulate in excess of needs of the operating budget. The secretary-treasurer shall invest these sums upon recommendation of the Finance Committee and approval by the Executive Council. Such surplus and interests or dividends from invested monies shall accrue to a fund known as the Reserve Account. The Executive Council may authorize the withdrawal of funds from the Reserve Account for such use as it sees fit.

Section 4—The special projects fund is dedicated to those projects authorized by the membership that are not funded through the operating budget. A portion of each member's dues is allocated to this fund.

Section 5—The Finance Committee shall be responsible to the Executive Council and shall: (a) in cooperation with the secretary-treasurer, prepare and submit to the Executive Council a proposed annual budget, (b) make recommendations for the investment of surplus funds, (c) evaluate the fiscal policies of the association, (d) cooperate in the fiscal responsibility of the special projects fund, and (e) evaluate the fiscal policies of the association.

Section 6—The fiscal year shall extend from September 1 through August 31.

Section 7—In the event of the dissolution of the association, all unencumbered funds will be forwarded to the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Washington, D.C.

Article VI—Affiliated Societies

Section 1—Affiliated societies may hold one meeting (i.e., one session) of their society in conjunction with the association's annual meeting. Requests shall be processed through and by the association's first vice president and must be received by him no later than the spring Executive Council meeting. Special consideration is extended to societies whose membership is restricted to a defined geographical area in order that they may meet when the association's annual meeting takes place within that society's geographical boundaries.

CONVENTION PROGRAM COMMITTEE

Activities

1. The chairman met twice during the year with convention manager Wayne Osness—in April at the national meeting of AAHPER and in November at the convention site.
2. The chairman wrote to section chairmen in April urging them to submit program material by June 1 and audio-visual needs to convention manager by September 1.
3. The chairman began contacting potential speakers for the general session in April. Among possible speakers contacted were Senator William Proxmire, Dr. Karl Menninger, Dr. Kenneth Cooper, and Chancellor Archie Dykes (University of Kansas); on June 22, Dr. Dykes accepted the offer to speak at the second general session.
4. The chairman submitted final program copy to the secretary-treasurer in October.
5. The chairman met with President Sprague in November to firm up final convention arrangements.
6. Burriss Husman arranged for speakers for the special interest groups.
7. The chairman wrote to section chairmen in November requesting photographs of program participants to display at the Kansas City meeting.

Recommendations

1. Solicit names for general session speakers from Executive Council members before leaving convention site and make contacts as early in the year as possible.
2. The chairman should meet at convention site with convention manager prior to the annual meeting if possible.
3. The chairman should meet with the president sometime between October and the convention date.

Respectfully submitted,
S.L. Fordham
Chairman

FINANCE COMMITTEE

Because of the efficiency of all concerned, especially the Membership Committee, our active members have increased slightly over the past year. This has been especially rewarding, since travel funds in many universities have been reduced.

This committee wishes to give a special vote of thanks to our secretary-treasurer, C.E. "Pat" Mueller, for his efficiency and dedication.

The proposed budget for 1975 is for your consideration.

Proposed Budget for 1975

<i>Balance Brought Forward</i>		1975
1. Estimated balance, September 1, 1974		\$ 1,000.00
<i>Receipts</i>		
2. Membership dues (1,000 @ \$20.00)		20,000.00
3. <i>Proceedings</i> sales		2,400.00
	<i>Total Receipts</i>	<u>\$23,400.00</u>
<i>Expenditures</i>		
4. <i>Proceedings</i>		\$ 6,000.00
5. <i>Quest</i>		3,300.00
6. <i>Newsletters</i>		600.00
7. Annual meeting		2,500.00
8. General Operations		3,500.00
9. Secretary-treasurer's fee		1,000.00
10. Officers' travel fund		800.00
11. Special projects		5,000.00
	<i>Total Expenditures</i>	<u>\$22,700.00</u>
12. Estimated balance, August 30, 1975		\$ 700.00

Respectfully submitted,
Frank Bearden
Chairman

MEMBERSHIP COMMITTEE

Activities

1. Each committee member was assigned a region consisting of four or five states and/or provinces. He was then to secure a state or province chairman for each of the states or provinces in his region.
2. Each state or province chairman was then assigned the task of securing a membership representative for each of the universities or colleges in his state or province.
3. The Membership Committee chairman forwarded the names of the state and province chairmen to the secretary-treasurer so that he could distribute membership materials to them. They, in turn, were instructed to distribute these materials to the university and college representatives.
4. Recommendations for emeritus membership were certified for eligibility through the office of the secretary-treasurer.

Action Items

1. Nine members were recommended and determined eligible for emeritus membership: T. Erwin Blesh, John J. Conroy, Reuben B. Frost, Ernst Jokl, Maurice E. Ostrander, Peter O. Sigerseth, Raymond F. Struck, William L. Terry, and Carlos L. Wear.

Respectfully submitted,
William F. Gustafson
Chairman

NECROLOGY COMMITTEE

Activities

1. To ascertain those NCPEAM members who have died since the last report of 1973. They are:

Fay C. Bartlett
Lysle K. Butler
Dick T. Dowell
Arthur A. Esslinger
Glen E. Galligan
William R. Hoover
Harold K. Jack

Clyde G. Knapp
Clair Van Norman Langton
David Dean Rains
Mark Salzman
John A. Scannel
Albin P. Warner

2. To write tributes for each and submit them to the secretary.

Recommendations

None.

Respectfully submitted,
David A. Field
Chairman

Fay C. Bartlett (1890-1971)

On December 28, 1971, after a short illness, Fay Conant Bartlett, at the age of 81, succumbed at St. Luke's Hospital.

Professor Bartlett was educated in the early years of the century at Harvard's pioneering school of physical education and was himself a pioneer of sports in the field. After serving as director of physical education at various institutions in the areas of Boston and Philadelphia, he was called to Lehigh University in 1917 by Lehigh's famed director of athletics, Howard ("Bosey") Reiter.

Since courses in physical education were compulsory, they were not always popular with all students. Here the warm, outgoing personality of Fay Bartlett generally bridged the gap. It is probably no exaggeration to say that at his retirement from Lehigh on June 30, 1956, he knew more Lehigh men than almost any other man in Lehigh history.

Early in his Lehigh career Bart was made an honorary member of the class of 1921 and was closely associated with them the rest of his life. Their regard for him is attested to by the large portrait that has hung for years in the lobby of Taylor Gymnasium.

In his long and busy Lehigh career, broken only by service in the U.S. Army in World War I, Bartlett never missed a class because of illness and was always on the campus or close to it. In his 39-year active career at Lehigh, his coaching assignments included basketball, baseball, swimming, boxing, and track. But the main activities of those years concerned gymnastics and intramural sports.

Fay Bartlett and his wife Marie produced a Lehigh family. Their two sons are Lynn, '43, who was a member of the Department of English at Lehigh for a short period after his service in Asia in World War II, and Bert, '46, who has the accidental distinction of being the first recipient of a Lehigh degree during the reign of the late President Whitaker.

In 1956, Bart received Lehigh's Outstanding Alumni Award. How can one summarize adequately the contributions of a man who devoted practically his whole adult life to Lehigh? His friends feel that Bart's life can best be epitomized by a well-known Latin phrase: *Esse quam videri* (to be rather than to seem to be).

Lysle Kendall Butler (1903-1973)

Lysle Kendall Butler first arrived in Oberlin with the freshmen of the class of 1925. He returned as a member of the faculty in 1930 and devoted the rest of his professional life to Oberlin, physical education, and the relationship of the two. His zealous belief in the educational—as opposed to the commercial—potential of college athletics, a philosophy he adopted, developed, and espoused at Oberlin, characterized his career not only here but also as an outspoken and influential leader of the Ohio Athletic Conference.

Lysle's publications, his service to the National Collegiate Athletic Association (with whose policies he often took exception), and his role in the establishment of the National Association of College Directors of Athletics gave further voice to the athletic policies of Oberlin in which so many of us took such pride of association.

Active in church and town, where some of us knew him best, and tempered with that warm good humor, Lysle maintained an unruffled poise and an unswerving confidence in his charted path. His friends and admirers were legion, surely more than "ten thousand strong."

Dick T. Dowell (1932-1973)

Dr. Dick T. Dowell, the chairman of Midwestern University's Department of Health and Physical Education, died unexpectedly in Houston July 18, 1973, while playing tennis.

Dr. Dowell was an associate professor and had been associated with Midwestern since 1963. He had been named department chairman in 1966 and recently assumed the responsibility of tennis coach for the coming academic year.

He received a BS from Texas A. & M., where his father had taught for a number of years, and an MTA in education from Tulsa University. His EdD was

conferred by North Texas State University in Denton in 1970. In the U.S. Army 1953-55, he served in the artillery branch in Korea.

A native of Abilene, Dowell taught in the Tulsa and Midland public schools before joining Midwestern. He was an avid sportsman and served on numerous city, area, and state committees, including the Governor's Advisory Council on Lifetime Sports. He was prominent in the professional activities of the Texas Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation and served as president of the Southwest Badminton Association in 1970.

He was listed in "Outstanding Personalities of the South" and "Community Leaders of America." He was a member of Faith Village Church of Christ and served on the board of Hopecrest Hospital.

Survivors include his wife Kathleen, his son Randy, 10, and a young daughter.

Arthur A. Esslinger (1905-1973)

Arthur A. Esslinger was born in Cincinnati in 1905. He began his professional career at the University of Illinois, where he earned his BS in 1931 and his master's degree in 1932. He was awarded his PhD by the University of Iowa in 1938.

His first position was at Bradley University as an assistant professor. This was followed by the position of director of physical education at Stanford University from 1938 to 1943. From 1941 to 1942 and 1943 to 1946, he served in the U.S. Army with distinction. After the war, he served as director of physical education at Springfield College from 1946 to 1953. He served as the dean of the School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation at the University of Oregon from 1953 to 1971. Following his retirement as dean, he participated actively in teaching and advising graduate students at Oregon from the fall of 1971 to spring term 1973. At the time of his retirement in 1973, he was invited to teach at the University of Buffalo, where he taught graduate students and lead the graduate faculty in a curriculum study that resulted in a major revision of the graduate program there.

From the base of these professional positions, his contributions to professional societies have been legion. He was a member of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, the National College Physical Education Association for Men, the American Association of University Professors, the American College of Sports Medicine, the National Education Association, the Association of Secretaries of the YMCA, Phi Epsilon Kappa, and many others. A leader in almost every one of these associations, he was president of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation in 1959 and 1960, president of the American Academy of Physical Education, and chairman of the National Conference for Preparation in Health, Physical Education and Recreation in 1962. The report that evolved from this conference has been the model for professional preparation programs in physical education for the last decade.

Dean Esslinger's publications were voluminous. He is best known for *Organization and Administration of Physical Education*, a widely used text being revised for the fifth time.

In public service his contributions are many. Among the most noteworthy were his membership on the Board of Directors of the YMCA and the National

Board of Directors of Little League Baseball. He also initiated the Boys' Sports Program in the Department of Physical Education at the University of Oregon. He served as a special consultant to the Secretary of War in 1941 and 1942 and from 1945 to 1946 was assigned to the office of the Surgeon General in the Physical Education and Conditioning Branch. In the postwar years, 1946 to 1949, he again served as a consultant to the Surgeon General.

The quality and success of his professional endeavors are most realistically identified through his many professional and academic awards. At the University of Illinois he received the High Scholarship Key, the Kappa Delta Pi, and the Delta Theta Epsilon academic awards. He received Honor Awards from the American Academy of Physical Education in 1950, the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation in 1952, and the Northwest District of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation in 1958. In 1967, he received our profession's highest award from the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, the Gulick Award.

Dean Esslinger was a prodigious worker. He followed a regimen of work that would exhaust the strongest of men. He loved students and was proud of their achievements. His students went out to positions of leadership throughout the nation and in some foreign lands, and he never ceased to follow their progress with enthusiasm.

A humble, sincere Christian with realistic empathy for his fellow man, he was sensitive, kind, and thoughtful but also plainspoken and forthright. His love for his family knew no bounds. He was truly a devoted husband, father, and grandfather. Dean Arthur Esslinger left a heritage in the students whom he taught and in the future generations that they will teach. It is a heritage that will live beyond many of us.

Glen E. Galligan (1897-1972)

Glen E. Galligan, educator, community leader, scholar, lecturer, and administrator, died suddenly on December 11, 1972, at his retirement home in Friday Harbor, Washington. He is survived by his wife Freda and his son William and daughter Patricia.

Dr. Galligan was born in Marshfield, Wisconsin, in 1897. He received his degree in science and physical education in 1922 from the University of Washington.

Desirous of getting a better education, he left Sedro Woolley and enrolled at Columbia University, New York City, where he received his master's degree in 1927. He then became chairman of the Department of Physical Education and Athletics at Winona State Teachers College, Winona, Minnesota, where he remained until he came to Washington State University as a professor in 1948. Made department chairman in 1954, he held this position until his retirement in 1963. It was at Winona that he took time out to complete his work for the doctorate at New York University in 1937.

He held a number of important positions in professional physical education organizations, including president of the Minnesota State Association of HPER, member of the Executive Committee and Central District of AAHPER, and president of the Northwest District and Northwest of the charter members of

the Western Society of NCPEAM, to which he gave outstanding leadership in its development. He was also a member of a number of other professional organizations, including Phi Epsilon Kappa, Phi Kappa Phi, and Phi Delta Kappa. He was author of a large number of articles that appeared through the years in professional journals.

William R. Hoover (1914-1973)

William R. Hoover, associate professor of allied health sciences and assistant coordinator of intramurals, came to Kent State University in 1948. He taught in the health and physical education department and, through 1968, enjoyed many successful seasons coaching the swimming team. When the department became a school, he accepted the assignment of instructing in the department of allied health sciences and supervising intramurals.

Born in Richmond, Indiana, he spent most of his life in Ohio. He received a Bachelor of Science in 1939 and master's degree in 1947, both from Ohio State University.

From 1939 to 1942, Bill taught and coached football and basketball at Waynesburg High School. He had the same duties at Cincinnati Wyoming High School from 1942 to 1943. At the end of that school year he went into the Navy and served as a lieutenant during World War II.

When Mr. Hoover returned from the service, he directed the men's physical education program at Paul Smith College in New York from 1946 to 1948.

Among the professional organizations in which he was active were NCPEAM, AAHPER, OAAHPER, and HIA.

Harold K. Jack (1906-1972)

Dr. Harold K. Jack, professor of health, physical education and recreation, died suddenly at his home in Meadowbrook, Pennsylvania.

Dr. Jack was 66 years old and had planned to retire in August 1973. He is survived by his wife, the former Margaret Wulff; his son Richard, Chambersburg, Pennsylvania; one granddaughter; and two sisters, Dr. Laurine Jack, St. Louis, Missouri, and Mrs. Steven Jochums, Berkeley, California.

Dr. Jack received a bachelor's degree at Hamline University in Minnesota in 1930 and a second bachelor's degree at the University of Minnesota in 1932. He earned both his master's degree and PhD from New York University, receiving the latter in 1944. He served as a public school teacher in Minnesota and as the state director of Health, Safety, Physical Education and Recreation in both Minnesota and Virginia prior to coming to Temple University in 1958. From 1958 to 1968, Dr. Jack served as chairman of the department as well as director of a research training grant under the auspices of the National Institutes of Mental Health.

Dr. Jack has been a scholar of the first magnitude in his academic field. He has written several books and monographs as well as numerous articles in health, physical education, recreation, and safety. He was a nationally recognized authority in facility planning as well as in the development of activity programs for mentally and emotionally handicapped children. He was a member of numerous professional organizations and has contributed regularly at national conferences and workshops.

Honor Award—American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation

Honor Award—Southern District of the AAHPER

Honor Award—Pennsylvania State Association for HPER

Honor Award—Helms Foundation

Citation—Society of State Directors

Fellow—American Academy of Physical Education

Fellow—American Academy of Safety Education

Clyde G. Knapp (1905-1972)

Clyde G. Knapp died while jogging in the armory on the campus of the University of Illinois on Friday, December 22, 1972, apparently of a heart attack. Clyde was born in Grant County, Wisconsin, in 1905, where he spent his childhood. He earned a BS in physical education at the University of Illinois in 1927, an MS in education at the University of Michigan in 1939, and a PhD at the University of Wisconsin in 1945. His dissertation was "Achievement Scales in Physical Education Activities for Secondary School Boys."

From 1927 until 1935, he was in the Fremont, Nebraska, public schools; from 1935 until 1947, at the University of Wisconsin, he was an instructor, a coach, the director of physical education in the university high school, and an instructor on the university level. Since 1947 he had taught at the University of Illinois, where for some time he had been a professor of secondary education and physical education.

After his Wisconsin experiences, he began his international activities, serving first as a consultant to the Chilean Ministry of Education, spending part of a sabbatical leave in South America, and then, in 1970, dividing a sabbatical year between Chile and Europe (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway). His contributions in all areas have been significant, but especially so in South America.

Among his many professional activities has been membership in many organizations, both state and national, including the National College Physical Education Association, Phi Delta Kappa, and Phi Epsilon Kappa, but his most important contributions were in student teaching and in his writings. During his tenure, student teaching in physical education at the University of Illinois was completely reorganized and is today recognized as outstanding as a result of his dedication and many worthwhile innovations.

Included in his writings (with other authors) are *Teaching of Physical Education in the Secondary Schools*, *Teaching Methods for Physical Education*, and *Physical Education: Student and Beginning Teaching* (McGraw-Hill); *The Growing Years: Adolescence* (AAHPER); and chapters in *Teaching Health and Teaching Physical Education* and in *Salud y educación física: Metodes de enseñanza de educación secundaria* (Ministerio de Educación, Santiago, Chile).

During his undergraduate years Clyde was a member of the University of Illinois football team and later served his profession by giving leadership to many important state and national committees and other organizations. In his teaching and supervising years, he was always a believer in meeting the needs of individual students, rather than developing broad programs primarily for the average student.

He became a member of the National College Physical Education Association for Men in 1954 and was present and active at conventions of his organization and of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation. Clyde is survived by his widow, a son, a brother, two sisters, and two grandchildren.

His dedication, worthwhile contributions, and friendly spirit mean that he will be sorely missed, but happily remembered, by his many students and his hosts of friends. Our world and our profession are better because he walked and taught among us.

Clair Van Norman Langton (1895-1973)

Clair Van Norman Langton, retired director of the Division of Physical Education at Oregon State University, died on April 19, 1973, at Corvallis, Oregon. Dr. Langton served as director at Oregon State from 1928 until 1964.

Dr. Langton received the Bachelor of Science, Master of Science, and Doctor of Public Health from the University of Michigan; the Doctor of Education from the University of Oregon; and an honorary Doctor of Laws from Eastern Michigan University. He received the Gulick, Anderson, and Honor Awards from the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation and Honor Awards from both the Oregon and the Northwest District of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation. He was the recipient of the Distinguished Service Award from the Oregon Public Health Association. Dr. Langton is listed in *Who's Who in Oregon*, *Who's Who in American Education*, *Who's Who in America*, *Who's Who in the West*, and the *Writer's Directory* in England.

Dr. Langton was an organizer and cofounder of the Northwest District of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation and the Western College Men's Physical Education Society. He was a member of Phi Epsilon Kappa, Phi Delta Kappa, Delta Omega, and Phi Kappa Sigma. He served several terms on the Board of Directors of AAHPER. Dr. Langton was a member of the American Academy of Physical Education, the American Public Health Association, the American School Health Association, and the National College Physical Education Association for Men.

Dr. Langton maintained a lifelong interest in the health and physical education fields. He exerted a powerful influence on the development of quality health and physical education programs in the schools and colleges of Oregon and the West Coast. He was the author or coauthor of *Orientation in School Health*, *Health Principles and Practices*, *School Health Organization and Services*, *Principles of Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, and numerous articles for professional journals.

Dr. Langton maintained a constant zest for life and living. His incisive and candid analyses of professional and administrative problems were laced with humor and congeniality. His professional and personal contributions to the fields of health and physical education will be long remembered.

David Dean Rains (1913-1973)

Dr. David D. Rains, chairman of the Division of Health and Physical Education at Texas Southern University for 22 years, died on March 6, 1973. Devoting his life to the profession, he had an illustrious career as a director and developer of school health and physical education programs in Texas and elsewhere. Besides his administrative, consulting, and teaching duties, he was active in the Southwestern Athletic Conference and served as its president since 1966.

Dr. Rains was born in Atlanta, Georgia, but spent his early childhood in Columbus, Ohio. He received his BS from Central State College of Ohio in 1937, his MS from Ohio State University in 1940, and his PED from Indiana University in 1950. He did extensive research on hand grip norms and growth studies utilizing the Wetzel Grid Technique and contributed articles to the *Physical Educator*, *Research Quarterly*, and *Current Research*.

He served as an instructor of physical education at Butler College in 1940 and at Alabama A. & M. College in 1941; the physical director at the YMCA in Buffalo, New York, in 1942; an assistant professor at Tillotson College in 1943 and at Lincoln University from 1944 to 1948; a graduate assistant in research at Indiana University from 1948 to 1950; and a professor of physical education at Texas Southern College since 1950.

He was an active member in numerous civic, educational, and state and national organizations, including AAHPER, Phi Delta Kappa, and Phi Epsilon Kappa. Upon his death, his contributions to Texas education were recognized by separate resolutions from both the Texas House and Senate. A Presbyterian, he was survived by his wife Alice, a son, and a daughter.

Mark Salzman (1922-1972)

H. Mark Salzman, former Pacific Lutheran University athletic director and director of physical education, died November 30, 1972, in Tacoma following an extended illness.

Salzman, 50, served as athletic director for eleven years and was a member of the PLU coaching staff for seventeen years until disabling illness forced his retirement in the spring of 1963.

During his tenure PLU's athletic and physical education program showed probably its greatest growth. Under his direction plans were developed for the construction of Olson Auditorium, one of the finest athletic plants of its type in the nation.

Salzman coached three national track champions, who won eight titles, and was named NAIA District I Track Coach of the Year in 1965. He was also honored by the NAIA for his services to the national small-college athletic body, including three terms as District I chairman.

Known as "Duke" in his college days, Salzman earned letters in football, basketball, and track at Carthage College of Illinois, from which he graduated in 1947. While there, he was voted most valuable basketball player and outstanding athlete of the year.

He did graduate work at Northern Illinois State College and George Williams College before receiving his Master of Arts from the University of Iowa in 1951.

He is survived by his wife Marjorie, his daughter Cheryl (Mrs. Peter Falk) of Seattle, his son Mark, his parents, three sisters, and a brother.

John A. Scannel (1904-1973)

John's first move toward a career in physical education was his enrollment at East Stroudsburg State College in Pennsylvania (then a Normal School) in 1922. After completing the then standard three-year teacher training program, he began to work as a physical education supervisor with the Easton, Pennsylvania, schools. He returned to East Stroudsburg in 1926 and earned a baccalaureate while securing college-level teaching experience. He also met and married Lois Dimmick during this period.

After completing his second stay at East Stroudsburg, he moved to Yonkers, New York, for two years and, while teaching and coaching in the public schools, earned a master's degree at New York University.

In 1929, he made what was to be his last professional move, accepting a position at Notre Dame. The physical education professional preparation program at Notre Dame was in its infancy at that time, having been started by Knute Rockne in 1927. John was the second physical education professional hired for the program. Shortly after his arrival he was named department head and occupied this position until his retirement in 1969. After retirement he continued his active involvement with the university for three more years, serving as an assistant dean in the Office of the Freshman Year of Studies.

During his early years at Notre Dame he continued his graduate professional education, earning an EdD in physical education from Indiana University.

After the death of Knute Rockne, he was responsible for the operational design of the Rockne Memorial Building, a physical education complex. He occupied this building in 1939 and was its director until his retirement.

While at Notre Dame he developed a very highly regarded professional preparation program that reached its zenith in the years immediately preceding and following World War II. During the 50s the program was gradually phased out as the university moved toward a mandatory common two-year program for all students and moved its education professional preparation efforts toward the Master of Arts in Teaching approach under Ford Foundation sponsorship.

Among the Notre Dame family, he is best remembered as a rather reserved individual who kept the welfare of the students, especially physical education majors, foremost in his mind. His teaching excellence was recognized by the university in 1943, when they presented him the outstanding service award. He is also remembered with mixed emotions by thousands of Navy trainees who came under his direction during World War II, when he was responsible for the physical training part of the extensive Navy training programs at the university.

He was active throughout his career in a variety of professional roles but placed his basic emphasis on the CPEA and the Indiana State AHPER, serving as president of the latter.

John is survived by his wife Lois, who lives in South Bend, and three children, one of whom, as might be expected from the marriage of two physical educators, serves as dean of the College of Health, Physical Education and Recreation at Pennsylvania State University.

Albin P. Warner (1923-1973)

Albin P. Warner was born on July 11, 1923, in Chicago, Illinois. He died on September 29, 1973, as the result of a heart attack.

He received the BS and MS from the University of Illinois and the PhD from the University of Michigan in 1952. He served as chairman of the Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation at DePaul University in Chicago for several years before moving to Oklahoma State University in 1962.

At Oklahoma State University he was head of the Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation. While at OSU a new \$3.3 million physical education complex was completed and occupied by the department. He was a president of the Stillwater Rotary Club and a member of the Stillwater Park and Recreation Board.

He is survived by his widow Kaye; his son Tom; three brothers, Alexander, Walter, and Stanley; and three sisters, Bernice Warner, Eleanor Warner, and Irene Shenasky, all of Chicago, Illinois.

OPERATING CODES COMMITTEE

Purposes

1. Assist the Executive Council and committees of the association in developing and maintaining efficient operations.
2. Maintain an up-to-date operating manual.

Activities

The primary work of the present committee has dealt with a follow-up of the extensive work of the previous committee. Congratulations are herewith extended to that committee, which, under the director of Max Cogan, has done an outstanding job.

Changes that had been recommended were reviewed in reference to their proper inclusion in the revision of the operating manual.

Inasmuch as extensive changes and revisions were included in the operating codes report of May 1973 and will be included in revised codes publication, such detailed information is not included in this report. Only the additional changes since August 6 are in this report. It has not been possible to list all of these since certain areas are still in the process of change.

During the year, correspondence was carried on with various officers of the association in an attempt to help finalize the status of our organizations' operating codes. June 15, 1973, was set as the deadline for revision materials. The materials received up to that time were integrated in the manual and included in a codes report of August 6, 1973. Additional data will be adapted during the year ahead. A copy of the revised manual was sent to Pat Mueller so that additional materials might be reproduced. It is hoped that these will be available for the Kansas City meeting or soon thereafter.

Recommendations

1. The items that have been suggested for code revision since August 6 should be integrated into the operating manual.

2. Operating manuals should be revised and reprinted. Copies should be made available for all members who need them.

Recommendations and Suggestions since August 6

At a meeting November 5-6, 1973, in Salt Lake City, S.L. Sheldon and V. Sprague reviewed the revised codes. A revision of the organization chart was made.

There was some confusion regarding the procedure for the election of division officers. This has been clarified through consultation with Robert Korsgaard and Max Cogan. Procedures recommended were:

1. The present officers of each division shall function as a nominating committee to present two candidates for the position of second vice chairman of that division.
2. The chairman of the division or his designated officer shall prepare the votes and ballots for the election.
3. The election shall be held at the scheduled division meeting, which, in the program, is designated as the business meeting of the division.

The following item, which came out of the meeting of the Executive Council in Minneapolis, should be included with the responsibilities of the first vice president: "The first vice president, in cooperation with the secretary-treasurer, shall have the responsibility to prepare convention highlights for news release on the last day of the convention."

Some questions have arisen regarding the status of the operating code for the Research Committee. President Sprague has been in contact with George Sage in reference to this matter. A proposed operating code for this committee is being studied for further revisions.

The foregoing deals with primary changes in the NCPEAM operating codes as of the present time. Obviously other changes must be made. All of the members of the association who have been involved in the many recent changes and revisions are to be congratulated on a job well done. It is through such cooperative and dedicated work that we can continue to grow and develop as an outstanding organization.

Respectfully submitted,
John A. Friedrich
Chairman

POLICIES COMMITTEE

1. Because of the reorganization of the association and because of the change in the operating code, the Policies Committee was relatively inactive for the past year. (The revised copy of the operating code did not reach the chairman's hands until late in November.)
2. The chairman did review the minutes of the meetings of the Executive Committee at Pittsburgh and at Minneapolis, and in his opinion there were no items in the minutes that indicated that new policies should be recommended as a result of actions taken by the Executive Committee.

Respectfully submitted,
Axel Bundgaard
Chairman

RESEARCH COMMITTEE

Activities

1. Most of the activities of the Research Committee this year have centered on correspondence with various members of the Executive Council with regard to codifying the role of the Research Committee under the new structure of the NCPEAM. On the basis of this correspondence, several recommendations have been formulated.

Recommendations

1. In the Operating Codes Report of May 1973, it is suggested that the Research Committee should "encourage presentation of appropriate research papers at divisional meetings at the annual meeting of the association." A procedure must now be developed whereby the Research Committee will actually be allocated time in the convention program for scheduling speakers. At the present time, no procedure of this type exists. For example, in the February 1973 NCPEAM *Newsletter*, members desiring to be on the program were asked to contact chairmen of the three new NCPEAM divisions (Sport and Leisure, Professional Preparation, and Body of Knowledge). Thus, the Research Committee was given no input to the convention program.
2. The current operating code of the Research Committee contains such words as "encourage," "promote," "identify priority problems," with regard to research, but terms like these do not have much meaning unless they are tied to specific tasks. Furthermore, the association now has the Special Projects Committee, which functions independently of the Research Committee. Therefore, it is recommended that the Executive Council or a special committee of the council identify specific research projects that they wish the Research Committee to undertake. I am sure that members of the Research Committee will be willing to undertake tasks that will help the NCPEAM, but they do need some specific research assignments.
3. The operating code for the Research Committee should be reviewed by the members of the 1974 Research Committee with a view toward modifying it in light of the above recommendations and the new structure of NCPEAM.
4. George Sage and Walter Kroll have served three years on the Research Committee and should be replaced. The remaining members are: Glen Albaugh, Hans Brockhoff, Dale Hart, Jack Adler. Since the operating code for this committee indicates that it should consist of seven persons, the new president should appoint three new members. There were only six members this year.

Respectfully submitted,
George H. Sage
Chairman

RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

Resolution 1

Whereas a profession is only as good as the quality of its professional practitioners, and
Whereas there is ample evidence that retention standards for physical education major programs are typically minimal, and
Whereas every indication leads to an understanding that there is a considerable over-production of undergraduate physical education majors with the secondary teacher/coach specialty, therefore
Be it resolved that the National College Physical Education Association for Men urges the profession to take careful stock of the question of supply and demand of qualified physical educators, and
Be it further resolved that the various state associations, in cooperation with the colleges and universities in the individual states concerned, make an assessment of the situation in the United States, the purpose being to identify special areas where employment is available, and
Be it still further resolved that institutions responsible for the professional preparation of Physical Educators be urged to introduce more selective recruitment and retention policies, thereby raising the quality of professional practitioners.

Resolution 2

Under NCPEAM provisions for committee functions, resolutions of a five-year duration must be presented for reaffirmation. Resolution 2 is for reaffirmation.

Whereas the members of the National College Physical Education Association for Men are members of higher education, and
Whereas we hold that academic freedom and tenure of our members is appropriate and necessary, and
Whereas the 1940 Statement of Principles of the American Association of University Professors, presently endorsed by 65 learned societies, is worthy of support by our organization, therefore
Be it resolved that the National College Physical Education Association for Men endorse the 1940 Statement of Principles of the American Association of University Professors, and
Be it further resolved that the secretary of the National College Physical Education Association for Men send a copy of this resolution to the deputy director of the American

Association of University Professors, with a request that the National College Physical Education Association for Men be included among endorsers of the 1940 Statement of Principles.

Respectfully submitted,
Barry C. Pelton
Chairman

TIME AND SITE COMMITTEE

According to the rotation plan, as of February 7, 1966, the 1975-76 convention of the NCPEAM will be held in December 1975 in the south central section of the United States.

The committee by a mail vote ranked their convention site preferences as follows:

- First: Arlington Hotel, Hot Springs National Park, Arkansas
- Second: Baker Hotel, Dallas, Texas
- Third: Blackstone Hotel, Fort Worth, Texas

The chairman of the committee has discussed the first choice with Troy Hendricks, head of the Department of Physical Education, Fayetteville, Arkansas. Though it is not the chairman's prerogative, I know that Dr. Hendricks would be willing to serve as convention chairman and I am confident that he would do an excellent job in planning and arranging for the meetings.

J.E. Lewis, Conference Sales Manager of the Arlington Hotel, would be happy to appear before the Executive Council and present a movie or slide presentation of the hotel facilities and the other various offerings of Hot Springs as a convention site.

Respectfully submitted,
Lewis A. Hess
Chairman

PRESIDENT'S COMMITTEES

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FOR MINORITY MEMBERS COMMITTEE

Purposes

The committee is charged with the continuation of a study of the ethical problems of the association with immediate attention to be directed to the lack of participation and involvement by black men of our profession, specifically:

1. To recruit ethnic-minority professionals into the association from schools with predominantly minority faculty or student composition.
2. To increase their attendance at association annual meetings.
3. To increase ethnic participation that will enhance the total program and help NCPEAM become more representative in its membership.

Activities

1. The committee cooperated as best it could with the Program Committee, who did a marvelous job of planning and including blacks as speakers, panel members, etc., on the program for Kansas City, Missouri, 1973.
2. Special letters were sent out to a special group of professionals in black schools.
3. Continued to publicize through correspondence the values derived from membership.
4. Collected important data and information about black department chairmen and/or directors and staff members for a follow-up plan to be used annually.

Action Items

After continued concentration, correspondence, and research on black professionals, we find that we have in our own organization (NCPEAM) a number of blacks who have made a great contribution to the profession. As a result the committee wishes to make the following recommendations for a specific action:

1. That the association weigh the idea of the opportunity to recognize and involve our own black members by setting up programs specifically devoted to recognizing their contributions.
2. That we begin now the action of planning and setting up sections of our future programs to include our black members.
3. That we start with one of our outstanding, internationally recognized professionals and keynote him or set up a panel or symposium to include three (3) or more members on the program. If the Executive Committee's thinking proves favorable toward such a recommendation, the committee stands ready to furnish the committee the data and information on each member along with suggestions for initiating such a plan.

4. The committee would like to table the idea of the questionnaire (approved recommendation from the Pittsburgh meeting) until after the 1973 annual meeting.

The committee is highly appreciative and recognizes with humble gratitude the great support and cooperation the association has furnished under great leadership.

Respectfully submitted
James A. Stevens
Chairman

COMMITTEE TO REVIEW AND DEVELOP SPECIAL PROGRAMS

Purposes

1. To generate explicit plans for special projects that would extend the work of NCPEAM beyond the confines of the annual meeting and committee efforts conducted by mail.
2. To generate explicit plans for projects that could be supported (in part or in whole) by the fund for special projects created under the new dues structure (\$5.00 for each member is to be designated for special projects each business year).
3. To generate explicit plans for special projects that would take into account the issues and problems raised in the President's Report of the 76th Annual Conference.

Activities

1. The business of the committee was conducted by mail, telephone, exchange of draft proposals, and direct meetings for consultation.
2. In addition to discussions within the membership of the committee, the following individuals were consulted in the development of the recommendations noted below: Ann E. Jewett, president, NAPECW; Vernon Sprague, president, NCPEAM; David C. Bischoff, past president, NCPEAM; C.E. Mueller, secretary-treasurer, NCPEAM; W.R. Morford, chairman, SDC, AAHPER; Waneen Wyrick, member, SDC, AAHPER; R.H. Sherwin, president, Vermont Press.

General Recommendations

1. Granted that the respective memberships of NCPEAM and NAPECW may elect to retain independent associations for the foreseeable future, it nonetheless is evident that close cooperation in specific enterprises can yield impressive benefits for both organizations. In this regard, we recommend that NAPECW be invited at this time to join with NCPEAM in the creation of a jointly sponsored structure for the support and conduct of special projects.
2. The NCPEAM already has created a separate fund for the support of special projects. It would be most desirable if NAPECW could establish a similar

provision for funding projects. The combination of resources would provide the expanded fiscal base required for many substantial enterprises. In this regard, however, it is our strong and explicit recommendation that a joint substructure of the two associations be created within which the membership of NAPECW would be a *full participant, exercising full parity in functions, and receiving full benefit from all services and products, irrespective of their initial level of fiscal contribution to the support of projects.*

3. If the membership of NAPECW decides that such a merger of effort is inappropriate at this time, we recommend that NCPEAM undertake unilateral action to create the structure described in this report.
4. The general purpose of the proposed structure would be to provide a regularized system within the association(s) for the management of such functions as *selection, design, funding, implementation, and control of special projects.*
5. Concurrent with the creation of the structure described above, we recommend that particular units within the new structure be charged with the immediate initiation of several specific projects (to be described below). The initial projects would establish the broad directions to be taken by future projects and, although necessarily funded at a modest level, would provide concrete examples of the services to be made available to the membership(s).
6. In establishing the structure for managing special projects, we recommend that the association's experience with the joint sponsorship of *Quest* be given special weight. After a decade of operation it has become clear that the concept of vesting a high level of control in small, autonomous work groups, while sustaining a high level of responsiveness to the needs and interests of a constituency, has borne significant fruit. As the *Quest* organization has performed tasks much like those demanded in the proposed special projects system, there is strong reason to recommend the extension of the same organizational concept to the present case.
7. In establishing the structure for managing special projects, close attention should be given to the problems and issues raised in the President's Address at the 76th Annual Convention, as well as to the rationale that supported the membership's decision to create a fund for special projects. Most important among these are:
 - a. The need to confront a variety of divisive forces that increasingly threaten the association.
 - b. The need to create a year-round base of significant services, both to the membership and to the profession at large.

Specific Recommendations

8. We recommend a structure based upon the concepts implicit in the attached chart (Fig. 1). Within such a system two contesting needs are served and held in balance:
 - a. The need to create work groups that can perform their tasks with a maximum of efficiency, speed, and flexibility.
 - b. The need to sustain in such work groups a high level of responsiveness to the interests and needs of a constituency in the parent organization(s).

9. To achieve these dual ends, we recommend a system that operates at two levels. First, two small working committees, the Scholarly Directions Committee (SDC) and the Professional Directions Committee (PDC), should be charged with the direct tasks of selecting, designing, and implementing special projects. The two groups at this primary level would have the following characteristics:
- A high level of autonomy through the exercise of final authority in selecting and designing special projects.
 - An efficient membership structure, being both small (three members for each group) and stable (three-year terms for each member).
 - An explicit accountability for providing services within limited and defined areas of operation. The SDC would be charged with creating projects related to scholarship generally and research activities specifically. The PDC would be charged with creating projects related to professional operations in the field of college physical education.
- Although it is true that scholarship and professional operation are not dichotomous elements, it also is true that individuals do have specific interests, backgrounds, abilities, and knowledges that make them more capable of creative action and sound judgment in one area than in the other. By so dividing functions between the SDC and PDC we intend only to create strong work groups, each with a clear charge and each fully capable of executing its function.
10. It is recommended that the SDC and PDC be constituted as follows. If a jointly sponsored structure is possible, the members of the two committees should, with the exceptions noted below, each serve a term of three years, one new member being appointed each year in turn by NCPEAM and NAPECW.

Scholarly Directions Committee

NCPEAM	(Chairperson, 1-year term)
NAPECW	(Member, 2-year term)
NCPEAM	(Member, 3-year term)

At the end of the first year of operation (January 1, 1975), NAPECW will designate a new three-year member to initiate the regular appointment cycle for the SDC.

Professional Directions Committee

NAPECW	(Chairperson, 1-year term)
NCPEAM	(Member, 2-year term)
NAPECW	(Member, 3-year term)

At the end of the first year of operation (January 1, 1975), NCPEAM will designate a new three-year member to initiate the regular appointment cycle for the PDC.

If a jointly sponsored structure is not possible at this time, members of NCPEAM should be appointed to fill all positions.

11. At a second level of the system the Project Advisory Board (PAB) would be charged with monitoring and exercising advisory influence over all operations of the SDC and PDC. The PAB would provide direct comment, consultation, and advice for proposed projects, would provide both primary input and responsive feedback from the membership(s), and would establish the division of available funds between the SDC and PDC. The PAB would have the following characteristics:

- a. A relatively large membership base designed to represent a broad spectrum of interests within the parent organization(s).
- b. Designated functions that would guarantee the attention and responsiveness of the SDC and PDC, despite the vesting in those groups of substantial authority for day-to-day decisions.

12. To accomplish this latter end, we recommend that the PAB be charged with the following specific tasks:

- a. Subsequent to the first fiscal year (1974), as a prerequisite to the approval of funds to be expended in any fiscal year, the PAB should receive from the SDC and PDC specific proposals and projected budgets for all projects, both new and continuing. These materials should be submitted at such time as to provide a suitable interval for the exercise of the PAB's advisory function prior to the approval of budgets.
- b. After exercising the advisory function provided above and, when appropriate, after allowing the SDC and PDC to submit revised proposals and budgets, the PAB should employ its judgment in establishing the initial division of funds for the fiscal year (the chairperson of the PAB having the authority to make adjustments as needed during the year).

It is desirable for the working committees to be in a position to anticipate at least a minimum level of funding each year. To that end we recommend that the PAB attempt to provide roughly equivalent shares of the available funds whenever they are presented with projects of equal merit. Nevertheless, the PAB should not hesitate to employ its budgetary power to encourage project services that are responsive to the needs and interests of the membership(s).

13. It is recommended that the Project Advisory Board be constituted as follows. If a jointly sponsored structure is possible, the PAB should consist of six members (plus the presidents of NCPEAM and NAPECW as voting ex officio members). The members of the board should, with the exceptions noted below, each serve a term of three years, one new member being appointed by both NCPEAM and NAPECW each year. The board would be chaired by a member in the last year of service, being a woman in even numbered years and a man in odd numbered years.

Project Advisory Board

NAPECW	(Chairperson, 1-year term)
NCPEAM	(Member, 1-year term)
NAPECW	(Member, 2-year term)
	etc.

At the end of the first year of operation (January 1, 1975), each organization will designate a new three-year member to initiate the regular cycle of appointments to the board.

If a jointly sponsored structure is not possible at this time, members of NCPEAM should be appointed to four board positions, the president of the association serving as a fifth, voting ex officio member.

14. The SDC should be charged with initiating a program to provide financial support for the conceptualization and design of scholarly enterprises through a program of grants. We recommend that this program be based directly upon a model established by the AAHPER-sponsored Scholarly Directions Committee. A brief description of the intent, rationale, and operating procedures of this program follows item 15 of this report.

The budget established for the first year of operation (1974) would contain three main elements.

a. Three scholarly facilitation grants @ \$700.00	\$2,100
b. Operating expenses	100
c. Support for meeting to transfer ongoing operations from AAHPER committee to the SDC	500
	\$2,700

15. The PDC would be charged with instituting a publication series tentatively titled "Earlybird." These monographs would be provided to each member of the association(s) without cost. Earlybirds would serve the following specific purposes.

- a. Provide an early-into-the-field resource in areas of immediate interest to professional workers in college physical education.
- b. Anticipate issues, problems, opportunities, and movements within higher education so as to provide maximum lead time for physical educators.
- c. Provide basic definitions, analyze issues, identify problems, develop alternative models for operation, and provide annotated lists of resource materials.
- d. Reach the individual member before he or she is confronted by the need to make professional decisions in the area treated by the monograph.

For example, any of the following would have been ideal targets for such a publication in recent years: accountability, behavioral objectives, women's athletics, university physical education requirements.

At this time there is great need for a resource that deals with competency-based teacher education from the physical educator's point of view. It is evident that in many states members of the association(s) will be confronted by CBTE and the associated problems and opportunities long before needed background material appears in the usual physical education literature.

Speed of publication, low cost, anticipation of new issues, careful preliminary analysis, modest format, and clear, uncluttered writing are the elements intended for Earlybird publications. Each monograph would be short (50-90 pages) and devoted to a single topic. By giving small work groups or single authors support in planning and developing manuscripts, PDC could provide an important service not otherwise available in the field of physical education.

The budget established for 1974 should contain provisions for one monograph. Quotations from the *Quest* printer suggest the following:

Printing, 2,500 copies	\$1,800
Mailing	600
	\$2,400

Conceptualization and Design Grants
Awarded by NCPEAM/NAPECW (Scholarly Directions Committee)
(Prospectus Only)

Intention

The NCPEAM and the NAPECW wish to facilitate research through the encouragement of scholarly interaction. This is accomplished through the provision of financial support for the conceptualization and design of scholarly enterprises by small groups of scholars with common interests (a small group is taken here to mean three to five persons). Through such grants, scholars living in diverse geographic areas may meet together and formulate research proposals such as the following:

1. Multiple replication of single research design.
2. Simultaneous attack on several phases of a single problem.
3. Large-scale field projects.
4. Cross-disciplinary research.
5. Develop an authoritative review of knowledge in a discrete area of scholarly interest.
6. Design organizations or publications to serve scholarship.
7. Undertake any form of cooperative research or creative scholarship that would further basic knowledge concerned with man's physical performance, the learning of motor skills, or the cultural status of sport, dance, and related physical activities from either an historical or a contemporary perspective.

Priority for support is accorded to studies and activity that are unique in their focus and take particular advantage of the provision for planning and interaction. In particular, the SDC will encourage scholarly activity that serves the interests and needs of the memberships in the parent organizations.

Rationale

While it is recognized that NCPEAM and NAPECW are sensitive to the need to foster the research and creative talents of their professional scholars, nevertheless, it is unreasonable to expect the organizations to provide direct financial support for individual research projects. On the other hand, the provision of funds for the purpose of formulating ideas and plans for research (as distinct from support for the research itself) is well within the associations' fiscal capacity.

Procedure

1. Individual scholars must initiate contact among themselves before submitting a proposal to the SDC. Proposals must contain the following information.
 - a. A brief description of the area of concern.
 - b. A statement of the background, qualifications, and experience of the persons named in the proposals.
 - c. The place, date, and alternates for a proposed meeting, together with copies of prior correspondence indicating interest in the project and preliminary preparation.
2. All proposals are promptly screened by the SDC. Grant applications ordinarily will learn the decision concerning their proposal within a matter of weeks.

3. The amount of money allocated will permit all participants in the proposed meeting of scholars (with the exception of the host) to receive adequate expense allowances to defray economy air fare and living costs. Typically, such meetings are for a minimum of two full days and may not exceed four full days (without special justification).
4. Subsequent to the meeting (within a period of one week) a prospectus for the ensuing scholarly undertaking is filed with the SDC. This prospectus must contain a timetable for completion of the joint venture.
5. The SDC entertains requests for a second meeting via conference telephone, the timing to be at the discretion of the investigators. Normally, the purpose of the telephone conference is either to discuss the preparation of a final report or to deal with unanticipated problems.
6. A final report of the research undertaken will be filed with the SDC. A summary of such reports is provided each year for the Project Advisory Board of NCPEAM/NAPECW.
7. Grants are available to all scholars working in the broad area of physical education, dance, and physical activity—irrespective of the investigator's organizational affiliation.
8. Scholars must meet in such a manner that one or several members of the group can serve as host, for whom no funds are provided.
9. A typical budget:

Return air fare for 3 (averaged)	\$500
Expenses for 3 days	90
Lodging for 3 days	98
	<hr style="width: 100px; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/>
Total grant allocation	\$700

The following are examples of scholarly projects initiated with the assistance of SDC facilitation and design grants.

1. The new publication *Annual Reviews of Research in Physical Education* (Vol. III in preparation).
2. The creation of a new Spindex Data Retrieval System for information in the history of sport and physical education.
3. A cross-disciplinary field study of group structure in athletic teams.
4. A study of validity for the 12-minute run test in an elementary-school population.
5. The creation of the Biomechanical Archives of Olympic Performers.
6. Preparation of the new monograph *Reliability Theory in Tests of Motor Performance*.

Respectfully submitted,
L. F. Locke
Chairman

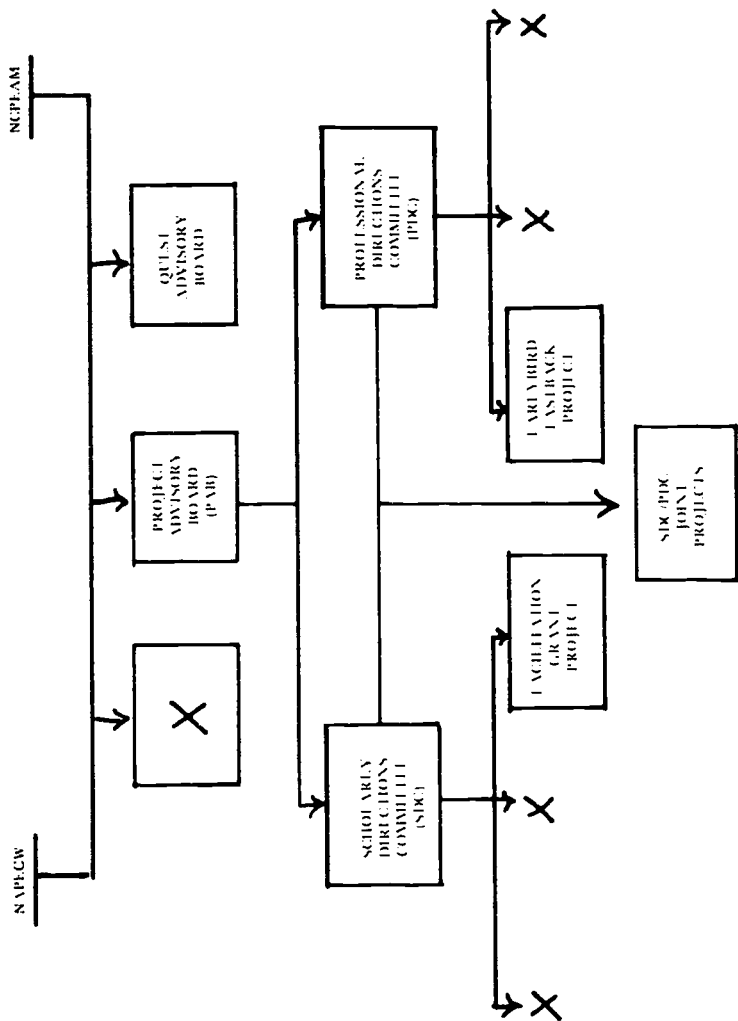


Figure 1

PRESIDENT'S COMMITTEE TO REVIEW THE PURPOSES OF NCPEAM

Purpose

To review the purposes of the National College Physical Education Association for Men.

Activities

1. A list of key questions were identified and distributed to committee members for their responses.
2. These key questions were also directed to the entire membership in the October 1973 issue of the *Newsletter*.
3. A summary of the responses was compiled and forwarded to committee members for review.
4. From this careful review by each committee member, the following preliminary report was compiled.
5. Since President Vern Sprague and President-Elect Sheldon Fordham selected Salt Lake City as a meeting place to finalize their plans for the Kansas City convention, this provided me with the opportunity to discuss the progress of the committee and to review the procedures for completing this important task.

Preliminary Report

Introduction

The following preliminary report is the result of the committee members' efforts as well as those of other association members responding to such questions:

1. What should be the role of NCPEAM?
2. What general objectives should be accomplished by the association?
3. Should specific objectives be stated for each annual meeting?
4. How actively should the association become involved in major issues and problems confronting the professions? How might this be accomplished?
5. What should be the working relationship of NCPEAM and NAPECW?
6. How could the association better serve its membership?
7. How could the association appeal to a larger population of college physical educators? Should this be a concern of the association?
8. Are there sufficient common interests among association members and can the association provide for those interests?
9. Are there compelling reasons for having a separate college association, which by inference excludes physical educators working at other levels?

This preliminary report is to be used as a working draft for (1) the President's Committee, (2) the Executive Council, (3) the Open Forum, and (4) the members in attendance at the Kansas City Convention. The committee is interested in receiving as much "input" as possible from the association members in Kansas City in order to develop purposes for NCPEAM that the association is capable of achieving. Feel free to direct your suggestions to any member of the Executive Council or members of the committee.

Aim of NCPEAM

The aim of the National College Physical Education Association is to assist with the advancement of physical education at all educational levels.

Objectives of NCPEAM

The objectives of the National College Physical Education Association are:

1. To provide a forum where scholars interested in one phase of physical education can meet both formally and informally to exchange ideas and information.
2. To identify, debate, and adopt definitive policy statements with respect to major issues, problems, and trends related to the profession.
3. To publicize the resolutions and policy statements through the *Proceedings* and other professional journals.
4. To carry on a vigorous program of informing college presidents, governance boards, etc., of the professional recommendations of the association.
5. To review recommendations periodically for reaffirmation, change, or abolition.
6. To identify, support, and encourage organized research concerned with basic problems confronting physical education.
7. To initiate and promote an interest in, and improvement of, teaching and administrative standards.
8. To maintain effective liaison with related professional organizations whose common interests and problems require coordinated efforts.
9. To encourage each individual member to identify and recruit well-qualified people to the profession of physical education.

Achieving Association Objectives

The National College Physical Education Association will strive to achieve the adopted objectives through the following:

1. Annual meeting:
 - a. The primary purpose of the annual meeting of the association is to provide the largest number of members with opportunities to discuss problems, exchange ideas, and share information related to physical education.
 - b. Each annual meeting should have a theme relevant to the times and appropriate to the association.
 - c. Dates and location of the annual meeting shall be selected in order to encourage maximal attendance by the members of the association. A rotation system among geographical areas shall be continued in the selection of the site for the annual meeting.
 - d. Consider site locations for the annual convention that place no restriction on association members with reference to housing, attendance at meetings, or other factors tending to divide the membership.
 - e. Limit the length of the official convention to three days. This does not prevent any group from meeting before the convention, but group meetings shall not be included in the official program nor shall any papers or summaries of preconvention meetings be a part of the *Proceedings*.

- f. Any issue that is to be brought before the entire assembly as a formal proposal in which the association is requested to take a position will be subject to the following procedure:
 - (1) All issues will be directed to the Resolutions Committee for review.
 - (2) The Resolutions Committee chairman will request issues to be the topic for informal discussion groups.
 - (3) The Resolutions Committee chairman will present the issue to the Executive Council.
 - (4) Upon the approval of the Executive Council, the issue will be presented to the entire membership as an information item.
 - (5) Action relative to the association's position will take place at the next regular scheduled business meeting (one year later).
 - (6) A reminder of the issue will be included in one of the issues of the *Newsletter* prior to the meeting in which action will be taken.
 - g. Program chairmen should be encouraged to reduce paper-reading to a minimum in planning their sessions and initiate innovative and meaningful presentations.
2. Publications:
- a. Disseminate deliberations of the annual meeting through the published *Proceedings* and through reports covering such special projects as may be authorized by the association.
 - b. Edit carefully all publications of the association to make certain that they represent a high quality of scholarship and follow approved methods of conducting and reporting educational research.
 - c. Reject advertising or other extraneous material for publication in the literature of the association.
 - d. Collaborate with the National Association for Physical Education of College Women in the publication of *Quest*.
 - e. Display the following statement on the inside cover of the *Proceedings*: Nonprofit organizations may secure reprints of articles in the *Proceedings* by paying cost-plus handling charges. Additionally, said organization must secure the author's permission and then may request the privilege of reprinting and/or translating articles, giving appropriate credit to the author and the *Proceedings*.
3. Coordination with the National Association for Physical Education of College Women (NAPECW):
- a. NCPEAM should continue efforts to combine with NAPECW to form one unified college physical education association.
 - b. NCPEAM should continue to invite NAPECW members to attend the annual meetings of NCPEAM.
 - c. Programs at annual NCPEAM meetings should be planned to involve women participants.
 - d. Joint projects, in addition to *Quest*, should be encouraged between NCPEAM and NAPECW.
4. Coordinating with other agencies. The association shall:
- a. Cooperate with other educational agencies to improve professional preparation programs in health, physical education, and recreation.
 - b. Cooperate with other educational agencies in promoting the objectives of health education, physical education, and recreation.
 - c. Call upon all school and college administrations to secure properly

- qualified professional personnel to teach, coach, and administer physical education and athletic programs.
- d. Cooperate with other educational organizations in sponsoring and/or having official representation at conferences in health education, physical education, and recreation.
 - e. Coordinate whenever possible the work of committees and projects with similar committees from other professional organizations.
 - f. Cooperate with other professional societies in formulating education standards and in recommending them to colleges and universities for the development and control of programs of health education, physical education, and recreation.
5. Membership and promotion:
- a. The Membership Committee should be encouraged to distribute to prospective members as much information as possible related to the purposes, program highlights, publications, and special projects of NCPEAM.
 - b. Each individual association member should assume the responsibility to identify and invite colleagues to take an active role in NCPEAM.
 - c. The Public Relations Committee should be encouraged to assist the NCPEAM president in communicating the association's positions on issues, standards, and trends to college presidents, college deans, and governance boards.
6. Committees. The association shall:
- a. Require each committee to submit its operating code to the Operating Codes Committee, which will in turn request that the Constitution Committee check each code to see that it is in keeping with the constitution.
 - b. Rotate committee membership in order to involve as many members as possible.
 - c. Strive to seek committee representatives from institutions in all areas of the nation.
 - d. Provide a fund for use by the president in executing his duties. Normally all of his expenses shall be borne by his institution; therefore, this fund is to serve only as an emergency fund.

Respectfully submitted,
Jim Ewers
Chairman

JOINT COMMITTEES

JOINT COMMITTEE ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND ATHLETICS— NCPEAM—NCAA—AAPER

Purpose

This committee is designed to promote cooperation and coordinated efforts among the NCAA, AAHPER, and NCPEAM.

Activities

The Joint Committee on Physical Education and Athletics met in Pittsburgh on 9 January 1973 at the NCPEAM convention. The next meeting of the complete committee will be in Anaheim, California, on 31 March 1974 at the AAHPER Convention.

1. During the year a subcommittee met at Kent State University to study the "Organization and Administration of Club Sports in Colleges and Universities." Members of this subcommittee were: Harry Fritz, Buffalo University; Jay Arnold, Valdosta State College; Frank Spechalski, Eastern Montana College; Carl Erickson, Kent State University. Representing Women's Intercollegiate Athletics was Winona Varoy of Kent State.
2. The position statement of the Joint Committee on the Professional Status of Collegiate Coaches will be thoroughly discussed and possibly revised at the Anaheim meeting of the joint committee. The purpose of this statement is to protect college administrators who are faced with these problems. During the past year there has been concern expressed in regard to the implied endorsement of this statement by the various associations—including the Executive Council of NCPEAM. In final form, the joint committee will resubmit the statement to the various groups for their "official approval." The position statement was presented in 1973 to a large number of associated groups, such as NACDA, NCATE, AAUP, and various coaches' organizations.
3. It was recommended and passed that the joint committee endorse the position statement of AIAW concerning policies and procedures for Women's Intercollegiate Athletics. Ross Merrick communicated this action to the officers of AIAW.
4. It was agreed that the list of research topics from the minutes of the 10 January 1973 joint committee meeting dealing with physical education and athletics be developed and presented on the college and university level.
5. A committee has been appointed to make a revision of the operating code of the joint committee. This committee will be chaired by Harry Fritz and he will be assisted by Tom Meinhardt. It is hoped this revision will add to the present members of the joint committee the NAIA and the AIWA.

Respectfully submitted,
Carl Selin
Chairman

AD HOC COMMITTEES

COMMITTEE TO REVIEW PUBLICATION PROCEDURES OF THE NCPEAM PROCEEDINGS

Purposes

1. Review the traditional content of the *Proceedings* to determine if reduction in materials may be made without losing its effectiveness.
2. Determine if smaller print or more effective format could be used in some sections (i.e., listing of members) in order to reduce the size.
3. Explore the possibility of requiring members presenting papers to abstract lengthy materials.
4. Review generally the production costs.

Recommendations

1. The committee reports should be eliminated from the *Proceedings*. This assumes that the reports are available in the secretary-treasurer's file for those people who might be interested in reading the reports.
2. Much can be done to save space in the publication by reducing the amount of space found within various sections, such as the listing of contents and committees and the membership list at the end of the publication. For instance, the membership list can probably be compressed to half of its present size in terms of allotted space.
3. We suggest that you explore the possibility of more flexible use of type size. Overall, the printing of this publication seems to take more space than seems necessary according to the content.
4. Something should be done to improve the cover. We suggest that a colored cover should be utilized and the cover should have a standardized format. Even though we are suggesting this for immediate implementation, this may be a matter that will have to be taken care of in the future.
5. One additional page should be included. This page would provide a listing of all NCPEAM presidents.
6. Some space can also be saved by utilizing the inside of the front cover and also eliminating those pages in which very little material is found, such as the page announcing the dates for the next meeting. Such an announcement might well be on either the inside of the front or back cover.

Action Item

It would appear that an editor is needed for this publication. The position of editor could be a presidential appointment with the approval of the Executive Council. The editor would be responsible for the screening of all manuscripts. A standard format guide such as APA could be adhered to. Basically what we are suggesting is that the editor's role be handled in a manner that would be similar to that currently utilized by *Quest*.

NCPEAM PRESIDENTS

YEAR	PRESIDENT	YEAR	PRESIDENT	YEAR	PRESIDENT
1897	Edward Hitchcock	1923	James H. McCurdy	1949	Louis Keller
1898	Jay W. Seaver	1924	J. Herbert Nichols	1950	Glenn Howard
1899	Dudley A. Sargent	1925	William H. Geer	1951	Thomas McDonough
1900	William G. Anderson	1926	Dudley B. Reed	1952	Fred Holter
1901	R. Tait McKenzie	1927	Allison W. March	1953	Elmer Mitchell
1902	Paul C. Phillips	1928	Jesse F. Williams	1954	William Meredith
1903	Watson L. Savage	1929	Albert I. Prettyman	1955	Seward Staley
1904	R. Tait McKenzie	1930	William R. LaPorte	1956	Ernest Smith
1905	George L. Meylan	1931	T. Nelson Metcalf	1957	Arthur Daniels
1906	George L. Meylan	1932	Oliver F. Cutts	1958	John H. Shaw
1907	Thomas A. Storey	1933	George E. Little	1959	C. O. Jackson
1908	Thomas A. Storey	1934	William L. Hughes	1960	Raymond Snyder
1909	R. Tait McKenzie	1935	Chester L. Brewer	1961	J. W. Kistler
1910	Amos Alonzo Stagg	1936	E. LeRoy Mercer	1962	Richard Jamerson
1911	Amos Alonzo Stagg	1937	Walter J. Livingston	1963	Karl W. Bookwalter
1912	Fred E. Leonard	1938	Harold S. Wood	1964	John E. Nixon
1913	William A. Lambeth	1939	Lawrence C. Boles	1965	Arthur Weston
1914	James A. Naismith	1940	Harry A. Scott	1966	Richard J. Donnelly
1915	Charles W. Savage	1941	Oliver K. Cornwell	1967	Louis E. Alley
1916	Charles V. P. Young	1942	E. Craig Davis	1968	Charles Kovacic
1917	Joseph E. Raycroft	1943	Carl P. Schott	1969	David O. Matthews
1918	Joseph E. Raycroft	1944	Carl P. Schott	1970	Chalmer G. Hixson
1919	Edwin Fauver	1945	Delbert Oberteuffer	1971	Deane E. Richardson
1920	Edwin Fauver	1946	Allison Marsh	1972	David C. Bischoff
1921	Fred W. Luehring	1947	Carl Nordly	1973	Vernon S. Sprague
1922	Edgar Fauver	1948	Lloyd Jones	1974	Sheldon L. Fordham

EMERITUS MEMBERS 1974

A

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(1931, 1968)
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(1935, 1955)
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ASHBROOK, WILLARD P., PhD
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BARR, J. SHOBER, MA
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BARTELMA, DAVID C., EdD
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(1951, 1974)
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Williamstown, Massachusetts

C

CHAFFEE, CLARENCE C., MA
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Williams College
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CLARKE, H. HARRISON, EdD
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University of Oregon
Eugene, Oregon
CONROY, JOHN J., EdD
(1949, 1974)
Princeton University
Princeton, New Jersey

Legend:

- *Attended 1974 Convention
- (1) Past President
- (2) Past Secretary-Treasurer

*CURETON, THOMAS K., PhD
(1929, 1970)
University of Illinois
Champaign, Illinois

D

(1)DAVIS, ELWOOD C., PhD
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FENSTEMACHER, WILLIAM R., MA
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FRALEY, LESTER M., PhD
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Los Angeles, California

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Springfield, Massachusetts

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Brigham Young University
Provo, Utah

HEFFERNAN, JOHN M., MED
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HEIDLORFF, RAYMOND C., MPE
(1935, 1973)

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Charlottesville, Virginia

HERMANCE, GILBERT L., MA
(1932, 1972)

William W. Marsh Rice University
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HEWITT, JACK E., EdD
(1953, 1973)

University of California
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(1)HIXSON, CHALMER G., EdD
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(1)KELLER, LOUIS F., PhD
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Texas A & M University
College Station, Texas
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University of Tulsa
Tulsa, Oklahoma
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University of California
Riverside, California
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Kent, Ohio
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Manhattan, Kansas
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Cumberland College
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University of Arkansas
Fayetteville, Arkansas
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Grambling College
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Niagara University
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St. Lawrence University
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Skidmore College
Saratoga Springs, New York
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San Fernando Valley State College
Northridge, California
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University of Houston
Houston, Texas
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Northeastern State College
Tahlequah, Oklahoma
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Indiana State University
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Eastern Kentucky University
Richmond, Kentucky
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Northern Virginia Community College
Alexandria, Virginia
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University of Florida
Gainesville, Florida
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Southern Methodist University
Dallas, Texas
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East Carolina University
Greenville, North Carolina
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Wayne State University
Detroit, Michigan
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Northwest Nazarene College
Nampa, Idaho
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University of Wisconsin
Madison, Wisconsin
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Queens College
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University of Illinois
Champaign, Illinois
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Southwest Missouri State University
Springfield, Missouri
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University of Maryland
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Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa
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Carleton College
Northfield, Minnesota
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University of North Carolina
Chapel Hill, North Carolina
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University of Washington
Seattle, Washington
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Goshen, Indiana
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Grand Valley State College
Allendale, Michigan
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University Park, Pennsylvania
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Avery Hill College
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Kansas State Teachers College
Emporia, Kansas
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Old Dominion University
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San Jose State College
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Southwest Missouri State University
Springfield, Missouri
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George Peabody College for Teachers
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California State University
Fullerton, California
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University of Missouri
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Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan
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University of Toledo
Toledo, Ohio
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University of Georgia
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Ohio Northern
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Utah State University
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Columbia University
New York, New York
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Miami University
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Lock Haven, Pennsylvania
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Ashland College
Ashland, Ohio
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Texas Tech University
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 Manhattan, Kansas
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 University of Windsor
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 College of Charleston
 Charleston, South Carolina
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 Louisiana State University
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 Oregon State University
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 Kearney, Nebraska
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 South Dakota University
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 Marion College
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 Mankato State College
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 Berea College
 Berea, Kentucky
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 University of Northern Florida
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 California State College
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 University of Wisconsin
 Madison, Wisconsin
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 University of Pittsburgh
 Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
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Eastern Kentucky University

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PILICH, ARTHUR H., EdD (1974)

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Northeast Missouri State University

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PIPER, JOHN D., PhD (1971)

Bowling Green State University

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PLEASANTS, FRANK, EdD (1969)

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Colorado State University

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Capital University

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University of Rhode Island

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Brooklyn College

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Institute for Aerobics Research

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University of Guelph

Guelph, Ontario, Canada

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Ohio State University

Columbus, Ohio

PRICE, REGINALD L., MA (1967)

MacMurray College

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Trenton State College

Trenton, New Jersey

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University of Omaha

Omaha, Nebraska

RAFELD, JACKSON W., MA (1956)

Mt. Union College

Alliance, Ohio

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Portland State University

Portland, Oregon

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State University College

Plattsburg, New York

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University of California

Berkeley, California

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Northern Arizona University

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S.U.N.Y.

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RAY, HAROLD L., PhD (1957)

Western Michigan University

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University of Illinois

Urbana, Illinois

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Central Missouri State

Warrensburg, Missouri

REARDON, PAUL L., MEd (1964)

Washington and Jefferson College

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University of Kentucky

Lexington, Kentucky

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Middle Tennessee State University

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Bryan College

Dayton, Tennessee

REEVES, WARREN E., PhD (1967)

California State

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University of Florida

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 University of Houston
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 Iowa State University
 Ames, Iowa
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 Northern Virginia Community College
 Annandale, Virginia
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 Ball State University
 Muncie, Indiana
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 Kent State University
 Kent, Ohio
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 Michigan State University
 East Lansing, Michigan
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 Jacksonville State University
 Jacksonville, Alabama
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 Arizona State University (1953)
 Tempe, Arizona
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 Indiana State University (1967)
 Terre Haute, Indiana
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 University of Minnesota
 Duluth, Minnesota
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 Ohio State University
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 Youngstown State University
 Youngstown, Ohio
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 Lincoln University
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 University of Missouri
 Columbia, Missouri
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 Adelphi University
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ROGERS, MARTIN H., EdD (1945)
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 Western Illinois University
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 Denton, Texas
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 George Williams College
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 Grambling College
 Grambling, Louisiana
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 University of the Pacific
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Dyersburg State
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