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The Theory and Practice
of Organized Play

In Two Volumes

Vol. I. "The Theory of Organized
Play."

Vol. II. "The Practice of Organ-
ized Play."

By

WILBUR P. BOWEN, M. S.

and

ELMER D. MITCHELL, A. M.

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THE THEORY OF ORGANIZED PLAY

Its Nature and Significance

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DEDICATED
TO THE FRIENDS AND PATRONS
OF PLAY

PREFACE

Too many people consider Play apart from the general social movement. This is wrong, for all our modern welfare movements are closely linked together and in many places they overlap. The Play teacher, Physical director, Health worker, Social worker, Religious worker, Americanization worker, and the general Educator, all have many interests in common. There are times when each must act in the other's capacity, or at least have an understanding of the procedure that is necessary. For the reason of this close inter-relationship, this book has been written in the hope that it will give students and teachers of Play a broad perspective of their profession; and at the same time that it will carry an interest and appeal to many individuals who are not directly concerned with Play activities.

The term "Play" has been used in a broad sense throughout. It has been used to include many things which the general public does not think of as being play. Many educators may think that altogether too many values have been claimed in behalf of it. The writers believe, however, that anything that is accomplished in the spirit of play is Play regardless of what the popular conception of the activity may be.

The freedom with which the writers have included activities within the scope of Play does not mean that they consider that all the ordinary tasks of school life and occupational life must be "sugared over." On the other hand, they do not think that school work must remain irksome—as some educators would insist—in order that benefits may be obtained. The idea is not to remove all obstacles; nor is it to put unnecessary obstacles in the way: but rather to infuse each individual with a Play motive that is strong enough to counteract the distaste he may have for the drudgery that is found, not only in work, but even in the highest forms of play and art.

The reader must not get the impression that Play of itself contributes so many of the benefits that are needed in our life of today. Play does possess many possibilities for good, it is true; but there

must always be wise regulation and direction. Perverted play is a possibility just as much so as beneficial play. The claims of this book are based on the assumption that the influence of trained leadership is present.

In general, four lines of thought have been followed out in the subject matter: first, a background for the present Play movement; second, an analysis of the phases of the movement; third, a study of the types of play activity, and the methods of organizing them; and lastly, the consideration of Play's place in education.

An extensive bibliography has been included with each chapter in order to assist the teacher who wishes to assign outside reading, and to save time for the reader who wishes to get other viewpoints on any particular question.

There has been occasion to quote from other sources. Certain chapters have used material resulting from the experiments of other workers in this field. The writers are grateful for all assistance that has been given in this way.

The various plays, games, and athletic sports, have been described in another book, Vol. II., "The Practice of Organized Play." The present book deals with them in a general way only.

WILBUR P. BOWEN
ELMER D. MITCHELL

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CHAPTER I

THE GROWTH OF THE PLAY MOVEMENT

Play is universal. All over the civilized globe girls play with dolls, boys wrestle, and older people dance and otherwise disport themselves. Even certain specific games are found almost everywhere; a simple childhood game such as our "Blind Man's Buff" may be seen in France or Scotland under a different name; or, the game called "Fox and Geese" in one section of our country may be found, slightly altered, as "Fox and Chickens" in another section. Play, a part of our civilized life, is just as much a part of uncivilized life; for explorers, whether searching among the jungles of hottest Africa or the frozen plains of Iceland, will find the peoples, both aged and young, indulging in peculiar amusements and pastimes. Play, too, is old. Excavations in the ruins of ancient Egypt and Babylonia reveal toys such as dolls, tops, rattles, and various other trinkets of pottery and metal, showing that the boys and girls of these remote civilizations were wont to play. The Chinese, Koreans, Peruvians, Aztecs, and other ancient races have left traces of their play in the toys of children and in the drawings and crude sculptures that depict boating and hunting, and festival scenes.

While some form of play has always existed, the present play movement is clearly a product of the twentieth century. To-day, play exists as a highly organized institution which is being promoted and fostered by the public as a whole. It is true that certain races like the Spartan and Roman have given national backing to types of warlike play, and that the Athenians in the period of their ascendancy gave a play training for the cultivation of bodily beauty as well as for the attainment of moral aims in keeping with their idea of citizenship. For the most part, however, play has been an unorganized activity in which children and adults have engaged only on impulse or because certain holiday occasions have been associated with merriment. Even as late as our last generation this was its status. There are many people who think that the artificial stimulation of to-day is not in keeping with the play spirit; but the point is

that this resort is needed to attract children to the play centers and to induce the adults to leave their ordinary cares and work, for once they become engaged in plays and games there is no loss of freedom whatsoever. Play is extended not only in scope of numbers of people and of ages taking part, but the curriculum of games and other activities has been largely widened and expanded. In accord with the rise of play to a movement, many new games are being invented by combining features of the older traditional ones.

Play Among Primitive Peoples

The thing that the student of play should note is that the forms of play become more varied and complex as the civilization of human beings advances. "There is, in fact, a hierarchy of plays ranging from the gratification of physical appetites and the pleasures of simple sensation at one end of the scale up to the highest forms of intellectual play as found in science and philosophy." (Bobbitt). Among the lowest types of savages the only pleasures are almost purely animal ones, such as are found in appeasing the cravings of hunger, thirst, and sex, in finding shelter, and in waging successful strife against wild beasts and human enemies. The little true play that is found also gives evidence of the close contact of man with the primitive life, for it is an impromptu and aimless mimicry of animals and men, and a crude attempt to express the emotions by means of rhythmic movements. As savage life progresses there is found an increasing ability in the power of man to appease his wants and otherwise control his environment. Attendant with this new freedom, there is a demand for expression of a new independent personality. Hence, organized play and art arise. Crude as these may be in the beginning, they lift man above the level of the lower animals; he is then thinking in the abstract and giving meaning to life. He does this of his own free will, without any coercion whatsoever—he simply desires the pleasure of conscious personality.

It is not peculiar that savage tribes like mimicry, pantomime, and rhythm as they do. Savages are impressed by action more than by speech; and consequently they like to dramatize their thoughts. Being creatures of strong elemental emotions, they are peculiarly susceptible to music, either of voices, or of crude tom toms or other musical instruments. Their bodies react somewhat as sounding boards, and different vibrations produce different excitements. Passions of anger, love, sorrow, etc., can easily be aroused and then

continued almost indefinitely. Many cases are cited by travelers where the performers will continue to dance until they fall to the ground completely exhausted. In the crudest forms of the dance, the animal dances, the savage will imagine himself invested with the spirit of some animal, which, throughout the dance, he tries to imitate. The hunting, war, and religious dances are intensely dramatic. In the first case the killing of the prey is vividly portrayed. Everyone is acquainted with the way in which the Indian tribes aroused their braves to a mad frenzy by means of the war dance and through the exhortations of the grotesquely painted and ornamented medicine man. The place of dances as constituting acts of worship is quite natural, there being needed in such instances, too, an outlet for the feelings. Peoples that have reached the agricultural stage of progress also use the dance as the appropriate way to express thanks to their gods for an abundant harvest, or on the other hand to express sorrow and supplication in time of famine.

In general, primitive play takes the form of exercise that is expressed spontaneously with little or no preparation or organization; it brings into use all the large muscles of the body; it exercises the senses in crude and fantastic manner as by bright colors, discordant sounds, etc.; it gives vent to a display of imitation, mimicry, pantomime, and rhythmic song or incantation; and the particular form of activity is done over and over again with monotonous repetition.

The play of the younger children is almost entirely aimless and impromptu, and takes the form of dramatic imitation of the pursuits of the elders. The play of children is overlooked by the elders until the time comes when the boy is strong enough to be considered as a hunter and warrior; then he is given practice in these arts. The girl approaching womanhood is taken in hand by the older women and prepared to assist in the usual tasks of the hut and settlement.

Only in the case of the more advanced savages do we find contests or games of strength and skill entering in. Wrestling plays, and running and throwing contests and games are then found, and even games in which a ball is thrown and caught. Gambling and guessing games are also characteristic of the more highly civilized tribes only. When tribes have remained for some time in touch with the white civilization, it is not uncommon to find tag, hiding, and courtship games indulged in by old and young alike, as well as some of our lighter pastimes of marbles, jacks, dominoes, target-pitching, and kite-flying.

The Evolution of Play

The way in which a play consciousness, both individual and group, arises among primitive peoples, has already been explained. In any progressive civilization it is easy to see how play gradually expands in a variety of ways. An increasing amount of leisure time gives more importance to festivity. Too, the time that is no longer needed for the hunt and battle has to be spent largely in preparation for these things, much as the athlete trains to-day for the contest; and so there is a play imitation of pursuits necessary to existence. Children seeing these things going on about them, begin to imitate them. Too, as tribes progress, these things are handed down from generation to generation, and a background of play traditions is established.

It is in lands of plenty like Egypt, where the river Nile overflows and leaves a fertile plain, and in Babylonia, where the river Euphrates similarly contributes, that we see the dawn of recorded civilization. The fertile land can support a heavy population and as certain tribes grow stronger and better organized they conquer others and set themselves up as a ruling class. This still further increases the time for leisure pursuits. The higher play of man is dependent upon adult leisure. With material wants satisfied, there is time for art, literature, philosophy, and other intellectual achievement that can be preserved for the benefit of future generations. All these things in their cumulative value make for progress.

It is peculiar that as man progresses in intellectual attainment he clings to his old customs, outworn as they may be. Therefore, while civilization goes ahead in creative accomplishment, it links itself with the past for the benefit of the grown people who need restful play and for the little children who need to develop their inheritance. As a consequence, we find that many of our modern plays are relics of ages long passed by. It was only natural that, as man kept improving upon his environment and advancing in mental stature, he should choose new modes of living and look upon some of his former occupations in a trivial light. Many of the old religious ceremonies lost dignity as different gods gained ascendancy; and the customary rites, though maintained, were considered of less importance, the sportive aspect superseding the serious one. Tribal customs easily degenerated into mock ceremonies as time went on. Thus, for instance, it is claimed that such customs as the bridal veil, rice throwing at wedding ceremonies, and the 'drink to one's health,

are all survivals of once serious rites and profoundly solemn covenants. Many of our gambling games are remnants of old practices in omens, superstitions, and magic. Our well-known children's singing plays are traced back to the old customs of dancing, the once serious ceremonial now garbed as play. Children's counting-out rhymes like "Eeny, Meeny, Miny, Mo" are said to have originated in primitive methods of selecting by lot a person to be a hostage or a victim. In the same way, the line games of to-day are compared to meetings between hostile groups of old, the words called out—as "Pull Away"—signifying a challenge of one side which was answered in defiance by the other; the circle games, likewise, to old customs performed by a group joined in friendship; the games like "Blindman's Buff," etc., to old ceremonies of sacrifice; the serpentine games, to acts of worship in which a sacred tree was encircled. Tag and goal games in general are likened to old racial activities, such as flight, pursuit, capture, and escape, the last possibly depending upon reaching a place of refuge in time. In addition, games like "Fox and Geese" are supposed to be symbolical of a domestic animal striving to protect itself and young against a beast of prey; whereas, games like "Baste the Bear" and "Hare and Hounds" represent the chase. Many of these conclusions, and more, are voiced by Mrs. Alice Gomme in her book of folk lore "Traditional Games of England, Scotland, and Ireland." She draws the interesting conclusion that our children's marriage games in line-form indicate primitive customs of marriage by capture or purchase; while the marriage games in circle-form, on the other hand, mean an advance to the point where courtship and love were necessary preliminaries. The well-known dance "Round and Round the Village" is pictured as a survival of a periodical village festival, on which occasion marriages were celebrated.

Most of our modern contests of strength and skill, such as running, jumping, throwing, and wrestling, date back to ancient Greece. Our first record of athletic contests is that given by Homer in his description of the funeral ceremonies that Achilles instituted in honor of his friend Patroclus. The origin of the great Olympic festivals is wrapped up in myths and legends, and it is not until the year 776 B. C. that the names of the Olympic victors were publicly recorded. Throughout their course these occasions maintained a religious significance.

The Olympic games showed a high civilization. They were proof that a people had advanced beyond the tribal stage and to the

status of a highly organized state. There, groups from widely scattered territories were invited to compete in the contests and festivities that were held, all assembling together for the big event. Certainly play in this premeditated and highly organized form had progressed far from the impulsive plays of savages.

This love for strenuous athletic sports and competition is inherent among peoples who possess a strong loyalty to their tribe or state and who have not as yet lost their primitive hardihood. Thus, in the republics of early Greece and Rome, where the citizens, though belonging to a superior class, were still ready themselves to take the field, there was a common willingness to engage in virile exercises that keep the body hardened and the spirit courageous and resourceful. While it is to these particular peoples that we look to find the origin of many of our popular athletic contests, still their later history shows a citizenship indulging in luxury, entirely content to watch hired performers play at active sports, and satisfied at the same time to entrust the protection of the state to armies of mercenaries. Among the early Germanic tribes, where a new idea of freedom, equality, and democratic citizenship prevailed, strenuous sports again are found. At first they were largely connected with war and hunting. The Teutons were devoted to swimming, wrestling, horsemanship, footracing, spear throwing, broad and high jumping, and putting the stone; and these sports persisted with them down through the Middle Ages. It is in the period of chivalry, when knights fought for land, title, and love, that a new type of contests arose to prominence. Then fencing, tilting, archery, and genteel horsemanship were popular; and along with skill in the new accomplishments, there came into existence a spirit of courtesy and respect for opponents that manifests itself to-day in the sportsmanship that we consider a necessary part of the atmosphere of our games. Our pole vault, bar work, and climbing stunts are of comparatively recent origin, the founders of the gymnastic movement in Germany having first given importance to them.

It will be noticed throughout, that games signify a certain amount of organization, whether little or large: the very fact that games have rules shows that people are living under laws and that play likewise has been socialized. The most highly developed type of game—the team game—while modern in its present form, has come to us through a long process of evolution. Tennis is even said to date back to the days of the Roman Empire. Football, baseball, soccer, cricket, hockey, polo, golf, bowling, croquet, handball, and

others have taken centuries to assume their present point of organization. A few games, basket ball and volley ball, for example, are the invention of our own day and age.

It must not be thought that all the play which has been preserved and handed down to us in this way is of the kind to which only our higher instincts are attracted. A reversion to the degrading type of play cannot be escaped at the same time. The brutal gladiatorial games of Rome find their prototype in modern play in prize fights, in bull fights, in the spectacle of fights between dogs and other animals, and in the free-for-all brawl, in which the last survivor wins the purse. Gambling practices have not diminished in intensity as time goes on. The encouraging thing about all this, though, is that society no longer countenances any of the above acts; they cannot be practiced openly, for the reason that they are under the ban of law as well as of public sentiment.

Play and Environment

Play is indeed found in all climes and during all ages, but admittedly it differs in certain respects according to the immediate environment of physical and social influences. It is easily recognized that a child of the desert will not be likely to play at boating, nor could the child of the rocky seashore play at "Sandstorm." It is therefore pertinent to the material of this chapter to interpose with a few notes on the influence of environment in shaping the character of play.

Physical

In cold regions like Norway and Sweden, we find skating, skiing, snowshoeing, tobogganing, and like sports favored by the people; and indoor gymnastics are more popular than the competitive games. In temperate climates we find the vigorous out-of-door games of England and its colonies, and America. But in hot climates we find the leisurely pastimes such as those in which the Latin indulges; and likewise in the hot climates we find that many are content to assume the simple rôle of spectators. For sustained effort, the temperate zone is quite the most favorable.

Where the sea is found, as in England, Australia, or on our own eastern and western coasts, we find water sports such as swimming, rowing, water polo, and the water joust; and children rapidly

learn to take part in them even at an extremely early age. On the other hand, inland countries like Germany and Switzerland have a strong leaning toward indoor games and gymnastics; and here likewise the children will be found playing games very similar to those of their elders.

Where stretches of sparsely settled land are found, such as in Canada, in Finland, in South Africa, there is a predilection to long distance running, to weight throwing, to wrestling, and to feats of strength; while the complex conditions of city life produce the nervous temperament and coordination for the different jumps, for motor accuracy and speed, for feats of dexterity and skill. The country-developed child is usually a much stronger being than the city product, but on the other hand lacks the grace and quickness of the latter. Often he is beaten in contests because of a tendency towards clumsiness and a lack of quick reaction.

Social

The customs and manners of each people often determine the type of play in which their interest lies. This is easily shown by the statement that all nationalities manifest some interest in sports in the United States, even though never having been interested in this kind of exercise in their native country. For instance, the German, although adverse, and not in the least attracted to team games in his own country, becomes interested and proficient in them in this country. Another example is that of the Irish, who are a big factor in our American games when played here; yet, when an attempt was made to introduce baseball into Ireland by American sailors during the War, it met with but little or no success. Again, while the English rugby is almost unknown in our country as a whole, still it is very popular on the Pacific Coast, where the influence of Australia and New Zealand is strong.

The above points do not hold true in the case of foreign-born settlers in a country new to them. The habits and attachments of the old games are too strong to give up at once. English colonists even take their games with them into the hottest of climates; and English and South African students at American universities play at their own games of rugby and soccer without being attracted by the American games going on about them. German ^{immigrants} in this country strive to keep up their gymnastic exercises ^{as is} the social spirit of the Turnverein. It is quite noticeable, ⁱⁿ that the children of the above-mentioned immigrants ^{seldom} ^{hand} ^{over} ^{to}

the physical exercises of the "old" country; they become Americanized in games just as in everything else.

In almost every way play in its various forms is representative of the customs and traditions of a people. It certainly is a means of determining the trend of a nation's life, and a mirror of national character can be found in the easy-going, long-drawn-out, conservative and individualistic English game on the one hand, and the high-strung, tense, changing, and success-seeking American game on the other. Primitive peoples are attracted to very elementary games which are imitative of the life around them, and which involve a few movements gone through with monotonous regularity. Decadent nations find enjoyment in watching play of the degenerate type such as bullfights, cockfights, and professional boxing and wrestling; autocratic nations specialize in the disciplined, machine-like, and systematic gymnastics; and democratic nations produce sports. All through history, democracy has been accompanied by an interest in amateur sports. This is true of Greece in its "Golden Age," and of Rome in its "Republic." The sports of Greece and Rome compared to those of to-day, however, were as far lacking in the element of team play as were their governments in scope of democracy when compared with the governments of to-day. Team games and democracy are inseparable; the one goes with the other as a training for free citizenship. Democracy desires to develop leadership in its masses, and therefore is willing to foster the athletic sports which call for initiative and a keen exercise of the reasoning powers. The social environment becomes thus a criterion for the type of play indulged in by any people, the type of government, especially, affecting and determining the habits of play.

HISTORICAL ATTITUDE TOWARD PLAY

Play, it is true, has always been a function of the activities of the human family, yet one thing should be kept clearly in mind: that is, that play as an activity is not identical with play as a movement and as an institution. The general attitude toward play has been to regard it as something frivolous, aimless, and childish. It can easily be seen how this should exist. The material and content of which play consists is largely as follows: a make-believe of occupations and customs that were once serious and all important; an imitation, especially by children, of the present-day serious occupations of men

and women; and lastly, a play gratification in creative accomplishment or achievement. The last phase shows play and art synonymous and has been the only one which adults have considered in a serious light—here is expressed again the viewpoint that primitive peoples had toward their first play. All creative play in its turn is discarded for the mere acting of the once real thing. It is from the first two phases, however, that the viewpoint of the ordinary adult has been formed. Quite naturally, when he engages in activities which are ancestral or imitative, he considers his performance as rather undignified. He cannot help but connect this play with his own childhood, and yet he feels that the desire to act in this manner is something to congratulate himself upon, for the very reason that it shows that the spirit of youth is still alive in him. While he may think his play a childish trait that he has not outgrown, still he does not want to outgrow it. At the same time, he feels that this exuberant spirit must be curbed and subordinated to the more serious responsibilities of life, and should only break forth on occasions set aside for frolicsome fun. This idea of associating his own play with that of his younger days, is the one that makes the adult fall into the error of thinking children's play is just as trivial. His attitude assumes that the child should be allowed to occupy himself in such a manner because he is not yet old enough to do real work. The most sympathetic view along this line is that of parents, who having had to toil incessantly themselves, are anxious to let their children play as much as possible before having to shoulder the many responsibilities that come with maturity. This lack of serious thought toward the play of children is most prevalent among the less intelligent classes. Without exception, it means that the smaller children are neglected, and that no direction is given to their play. As a consequence, the youngsters imitate not only the good but the bad characteristics of their elders.

The Military Attitude

Certain nations discovered that play could be directed toward a certain desired end. Most often this end has been a military one. This was the case in the ancient Persian state and with the Spartans and Romans. The Persians made the training of the boy a matter of public concern. At the age of seven he was taken in charge by the state and taught to hunt and ride; to shoot with the sling and with the bow, and to throw the spear. Practically all his education was of the physical type. Certain moral virtues, particularly telling

the truth and showing gratefulness, were emphasized. The girl's education was of the domestic type, but did include singing and listening to fairy stories.

Warlike Sparta went so far as to give their boys a scouting education that is somewhat similar to the outdoor life of our Boy Scouts of to-day, but the courageous, self-reliant, uncompromising, and hardened warrior was always the goal in sight; similarly, a health training for the girls was to produce strong mothers for the state. Part of the boy's education was to bear all sorts of physical hardships, to learn to steal without being detected, and to bear pain unflinchingly in public. Obedience and reverence for parents were prized moral traits. All music was of the martial type. This was a state which, under the rule of Lycurgus, was so severely disciplined that the freemen lived in barracks, and iron money was used in order that the citizens could not carry enough to buy luxuries. No wonder the God-speed of the Spartan mother to her son: "Come home with your shield or dead upon it;" no wonder the taunt of the Athenians, their rivals: "The Spartan's life is so unendurable that it is not surprising he gives it willingly in battle."

This idea of parental and state attention to children's play from the standpoint of its military usefulness was taken up by the Romans, a stern and practical people. Their play training allowed the younger tots to go their way largely unhampered; and as children will do, they played with toy carts and houses, dolls, hobby horses, stilts, tops, hoops, and at catching a ball. However, when the state felt that the children were old enough to be given serious attention, a different kind of exercise was in store for them, especially the boys. Running and jumping both armed and unarmed, wrestling, sword and spear play, swimming, and horseriding then comprised the play—if it can be truly called play under the rigid spirit in which it was carried out. So possessed were the Roman people with this one ambition of preparing mind as well as body to meet the conditions of warfare that their public games, the notorious gladiatorial shows, would not satisfy unless much blood was shed. This cruelty was considered of practical importance in keeping the people, even in time of peace, hardened to the sight of death and suffering. Even the Roman matrons, who possessed considerable freedom in family life and in public, found great delight in these cruel spectacles.

None of these attitudes in respect to play can scarcely be dignified by the name of movement. Play was considered as an educational factor, to be sure, but only from the one standpoint—the

making of a warrior. This same viewpoint was held later, in the period of Chivalry during the Middle Ages, when knights held that their sons should learn to throw the spear, fence, swim, use the battle ax, ride in armor, and otherwise play at war. It is a pleasure to note, however, that a gentler spirit was creeping in, and that the youth was brought up with higher conceptions toward his opponents and toward women.

The boy was trained from childhood with this ideal in mind. At the age of seven he became a page. For the next seven years he was trained in domestic duties and in the deportment of polite society, the latter including reading, writing, singing, dancing, chess and backgammon, gallantry, and listening to tales of brave deeds as sung by the troubadours. At fourteen he became a squire. He now waited in attendance upon a knight, and his duties were vigorous ones. He learned to hunt and to hawk, to vault and climb in armor, to ride, and to become proficient in the weapons of war, such as the lance and battle-ax. Running, jumping, wrestling, and swimming helped to harden the body for these feats. At twenty-one when he was dubbed a knight, he had learned the art of war in company with his chosen knight, was ready to tilt in the tournaments, and was thoroughly imbued with a spirit of loyalty and gallantry and the desire to champion the cause of the weak and oppressed. The tournaments of this time rank as one of the great picturesque sights of history.

The Art Attitude

By far the brightest page in the history of play down to the present day is that which tells the story of the little republic of Athens, during the Golden Age of Pericles in the 5th century B. C. The Athenian ideal of citizen was soldier, athlete, artist, statesman, and philosopher all in one. These people believed in play and practiced it. They exalted play to the level where it can be called a movement, the only true one outside of our own to-day.

An examination of the curriculum of studies shows the importance attributed to play in the making of this all-around citizen who could so enjoy the higher things of life. At an early age the boy and girl were given a nursery training that is not inferior in aim, if in equipment, to our modern kindergarten. There were infant chairs similar to our baby swings, colored rattles, many types of dolls, and toy boats, carts, and houses. The familiar toys—marbles, jackstones, hoops, hobby horses, stilts, skipping ropes, kites, swings,

and see-saws—were in evidence, though often in a form that appears to us as crude and amusing. Then there were also childish games that resemble our Tag and our Hide and Seek, guessing games like Odd or Even, prisoners' games, simple ball games, and so on. After this stage we must follow the fortunes of the boy, for girls received little attention thereafter, women having but little part in public life.

At the age of seven the boy attended school in charge of a private tutor. In general two subjects were followed: gymnastics (for the body) and music (for the soul). The latter gave him instruction in reading, particularly of Homer, also in writing, arithmetic, singing, rhythm, and in the use of the lyre and flute. But it is in the palaestra, the school of gymnastics, that we see our modern conception of play carried out. Here, the boys continued their free play, and were given instructions in running and leaping (for the lower limbs), discus and javelin throwing (for the arms and co-ordination with the eye), and wrestling (for the whole body as well as the control of temper). Dancing was also fostered as an art that would add grace to the movements of the body. Other activities were swimming, games with ball, and simple boxing.

At the age of eighteen the youth was initiated into the company of the grown men and went through an apprenticeship of two years before being received into full citizenship. He continued his bodily exercises but left the palaestra and associated with the elders in the gymnasium. In addition to the old sports he had known he was now introduced to a five-fold exercise called the pentathlon, and to a combination of boxing and wrestling, the pancratium. The gymnasium also possessed a great influence as a social and intellectual center, and the youth was brought into contact with the great philosophers and statesmen. The gymnasium has been aptly described as a combination of a modern city club house with a city playground and park.

The athletic skill which the Athenian training developed was tested out and exhibited in the wonderful spectacle of the Olympic games. So important were these games to Greece as a whole that the reckoning of time was dated by the Olympiads, the four-year intervals between the holding of the festivals. All hostility ceased between warring states and the occasion was one of general rejoicing and celebration. The athletes contended for the championship in all the popular athletic events as well as horseback races and chariot races. Not only did athletes vie for superiority, but the great poets

and sculptors contested as spiritedly in their lines. To attain the prize, the simple wreath of olive, was considered the peak of Greek ambition. But there was further honor forthcoming to the Olympic victor. His home city heaped honors upon him. Poets like Pindar celebrated his name in odes, and sculptors like Myron made him immortal in marble. It is quite easy to see why the great Olympic games could not remain unstained. The temptations to attain these honors were so great that athletes of the professional type did nothing but prepare for the games, and disreputable practices crept in, until by the time the Romans had conquered Greece, all the wonderful spirit that had once accompanied the games had been entirely lost.

The words of the Athenian men of wisdom still preach to us the lesson that the play of the children is important and must be directed. To quote Plato: "Education should begin with the right direction of children's sports. The plays of childhood have a great deal to do with the maintenance or non-maintenance of laws." Aristotle voices the opinion: "It is also very necessary that children should have some amusing employment." Pericles, the statesman, in his great funeral oration states the broad aim of Athenian education in the following words: "We cultivate the mind without loss of manliness . . . whereas our adversaries from early youth are always undergoing laborious exercises which are to make them brave, we live at ease and yet are equally willing to face the perils which they face . . . We have our regular games to provide our weary spirits many relaxations from toil."

The art attitude of the Golden Age is summed up in the words of Plato when he says "The mere athlete becomes too much of a savage, and the mere musician is melted and softened beyond what is good for him . . . the two should therefore be blended in right proportions."

The Religious Attitude

Following the break-up of the Roman Empire, A. D. 486, there ensued a period of such great chaos that it is known as the "Dark Ages." Barbarian tribes were overrunning all civilized Europe. People turned for solace to a spiritual conception of life. Everything was sacrificed to preparation for the world hereafter. Inasmuch as the body was looked upon as antagonistic to the higher searchings of the soul, every means possible was taken to deny the body its natural comforts, and even voluntary measures of self

torture were resorted to. It is quite natural that play should be not only ignored but vigorously combated in such an age. The monks considered it as derived from heathenish practices and also as being one instrument of Satan for leading the physical self into pleasure and temptation. The following quotation expresses a saintly warning against allowing children to play: "Play of whatever sort should be forbidden in all evangelical schools, and its vanity and folly should be explained to the children with warnings of how it turns the mind from God and eternal life."

The monastic viewpoint of regarding all amusements as sinful is found recurring later in the Puritan era. Even to-day we have not entirely outlived the religious fanaticism of the days of Cromwell, and much of the opposition to the play movement has come from people who feel that the only way to salvation is to practice rigid self-denial even as regards the most harmless type of pastimes. On the whole, however, the Church to-day has swung over to a liberal attitude which even makes it an active promoter of the play programme.

The Scientific Attitude

Man by nature could not remain long in such an unworldly atmosphere as both the monastic and chivalric attitudes represented. Toward the end of the Middle Ages a large number of influences brought about a changed attitude. The invention of gun-powder meant an end to the ascendancy of the knightly class; and that of the printing press, likewise, to the clergy's monopoly on learning. The common people began to assert an independence they had never before possessed. The spirit of the age was one of questioning and of critical research: men no longer were satisfied with superstitious beliefs and theoretical speculations. They wanted to find out the real existing things of life for themselves; to understand themselves and the actuality of the world about them. The contact with the Saracens, a scientific people, and the rediscovery of the long lost knowledge of the ancients, especially of Aristotle, gave material which satisfied for a short time only. Then we begin to hear of discovery after discovery in the field of science.

The great progress in the field of the physical, biological, and medical sciences, meant a revolutionizing of the attitude toward the place of physical exercise in education. The interrelationship of the mind and body as one distinct individuality was made evident to thinkers. In the Renaissance period, writers like Rabelais and

Montaigne in France, Mulcaster and Locke in England, and Comenius in Germany, were found pleading for play as a necessary thing in the life of children. Rousseau and Richter followed later; and as the modern period was ushered in, experiments were beginning to be made in the practical application of play in the school curriculum.

The scientific attitude not only evolved the idea of play as having educational value to the young child, but it attempted to place physical exercise on a scientific basis from the *health* standpoint. Patriotic motives were largely responsible for this latter experiment, which resulted in the great national systems of gymnastics in Germany and Sweden. These in turn have affected all of Europe and even the United States. The faults of the attempt to reduce the body to a machine-like basis, are in the main a repression of natural interests and of individuality. Such a training provides the material for exploitation when a militaristic class gains control as in the case of Germany. To-day's attitude goes further and considers *interest* as a factor. The newer studies in psychology have shown that the value to be gained from any pursuit is largely dependent upon the liking shown for it, and therefore individual tastes and preferences must be taken into account. From this standpoint play is superseding the formal gymnastics, for true play harmonizes exercise with the instinctive tendencies of the mind.

The Social Attitude

The present play movement surpasses all others in magnitude and in breadth of aims. While placing less emphasis on the æsthetic side than did the Athenians, still in other ways it has broadened out in a manner unknown to the ancients. Above all it is democratic. In the past it has been only too true that the leaders alone were allowed free scope of their impulses. There were slaves or a down-trodden peasantry to do the work. Then, too, the modern freedom of women was unknown. The play movement that is known to America fosters no class. In fact, through the opportunities offered, the child of the tenements may become better fitted for life than the pampered and secluded child of the rich home.

The democratic tendencies of the twentieth century have brought about a changed social understanding. Our whole structure of society is built upon team play. Life is now looked upon as a great game. The rules allow complete freedom to the individual just as long as he acts in accordance with the ideals expressed by the people

as a whole. Therefore, he must be trained to be a social agent, to act of his own accord for the common good. Each individual must do his part or the cooperative whole must suffer. The state is for the people and not the people for the state. As a consequence of these tendencies, the scientific attitude, so long focused on natural phenomena alone has now been turned on man himself. The social sciences are being brought to the advanced level of the natural sciences.

As never before in all history, the schools are attempting to turn out an individual well trained in social relationships. The school has linked itself with the community and has taken on the aspect of a great social center. Here, young and old alike are taught the fundamentals of social citizenship in studies like history, civics, sociology, economics, and Americanization. This new attitude makes the school to-day a promoter of the playground and the gymnasium, as well as of extra-school activities such as athletics, dramatics, music, debating, and boys' and girls' clubs. Not only is this true as regards children, but the adult's leisure time is also provided for in the way of recreation and personal growth.

This social attitude of the school is being reflected in other institutions, and the combined efforts of all are creating a high play level for the life of the people of our nation.

THE WORLD PLAY MOVEMENT

The modern play movement is not the characteristic of a single country. It had its peculiar beginnings in practically every country and shaped itself according to the especial social and physical environments of each nation. Countries of Europe and our own United States have been most prominent in the rise of the play movement and demand a general survey of their respective backgrounds, developments, and influences.

Germany

Probably Germany has had the most extended modern background in the development of physical education and the impulse to a play movement. Physical exercise first found a place in a modern school when Basedow, in 1774, founded the Philanthropinum. Some of the exercises were dancing, riding, fencing, vaulting, planing, carpentry, running, and wrestling. The emphasis was on the

first four, the "knightly exercises" of chivalric times. The Philanthropinum attracted wide attention and many institutions were founded as offshoots. Salzmann instituted Schnepfenthal; and Guts Muths, the successor of Salzmann, elaborated on Basedow's scheme, giving great emphasis to the recreational phases of physical education. The work of these men, Guts Muths in particular, influenced continental Europe to a great extent: to wit, Pestalozzi and Fellenberg in Switzerland, Nachtgall in Denmark, Ling in Sweden, and Father Jahn and Adolf Spiess in Germany. It is noteworthy that the first one to stress strongly the educational side of play was Froebel in 1826 and that his studies and experiments resulted in the present-day Kindergarten.

Until the time of Father Jahn there was no popular, general participation in gymnastics. Jahn, however, was an aggressive organizer. His aim was to arouse a national consciousness in Prussia that would result in the throwing off of the yoke of Napoleon. His "Turner" associates mingled politics with gymnastics so much that they received many setbacks at the hands of unfavorable governments. Jahn contributed in the way of equipment by the invention of such heavy apparatus as the bars.

Adolf Spiess is called the father of school gymnastics (for girls as well as for boys) just as Jahn is called the father of popular gymnastics. Owing to Jahn's difficulties with governments, Spiess experienced much trouble in overcoming governmental hostility, but in 1837 gymnastics were allowed in the secondary, teachers', and military schools; and in 1851 there was established in Berlin the first Royal Institute for the training of teachers of gymnastics. The elementary schools were given gymnastics in 1860; but even then there was much prejudice against teachers of physical education, and punishment for those who delved at all in politics.

The politician von Schenckendorff finally succeeded in making the government quite favorable to play and physical education, and prone to pardon those gymnastic teachers involved in political offenses. In 1882 von Schenckendorff established in Görlitz a good organization of physical education in the schools and this gradually spread throughout the nation. In 1890, also in Görlitz, a course was established for the training of teachers in play (Jugendspiele). The final act of von Schenckendorff in giving the play movement a good start was the founding in Berlin, May 21, 1891, of the "Central Committee" for the establishing of child and adult recreation in Germany. Many institutes have been held by the committee as

well as normal courses organized to educate teachers both in theory and practice of play.

It was during the primary activities of von Schenckendorff shortly after 1880 that the play movement actually began in Germany and the first playgrounds were established in Berlin. These were simply sandlots for little children and babes. The development of the movement in Germany, however, has been primarily a school affair. At the present time we find many of the *Volksschulen* (the schools for the masses) equipped with an outdoor play space (*Turnplatz*) as well as the indoor gymnasium (*Turnhalle*). The children find a great variety of games introduced into their three hours of compulsory gymnasium work; also, there is a tendency to give one afternoon a week over to play alone. The play periods are supervised by the regular teachers. The Gymnasium, or higher school for the privileged class does not have much that can be called play. Gymnastics in charge of special teachers prevail. Some attempts have been made to introduce competitive team sports into the higher schools, but this has been unsuccessful. The school programme does not allow much free time—the student on the whole is forced through a strenuous day's work. The universities do not have anything corresponding to the English or American competitive athletics. The students form voluntary associations for the practice of "turning." Many also take special instruction in fencing and horsemanship. The practice of duelling is common and facial scars are regarded as badges of honor. A rather unique part of the elementary school is that of journeys, which last from a day to several days during the winter and from two to six weeks during the summer vacation. They are in charge of the masters and are made instructional as well as recreational.

The municipally controlled playgrounds are becoming more common in Germany, and there are in addition many private playgrounds. We find them especially among the *turnverein* and athletic associations. In Berlin every tenement house must provide an interior court with a playground and this also adds to the number of private grounds. Since the War there has been an increasing interest in competitive sports for both men and women, and many athletic and outing clubs have been organized. As yet more proficiency has been shown in track and field sports than in the team games.

We are greatly indebted to Germany for its extensive curriculum of graded plays and games for younger children and the educational application of them. In this connection it is interesting to note that

Germany leads all others in the industry of toy-making. The play interests of our older American youth have departed from the German idea and have followed the lines of participation in strenuous sports and athletics; still German gymnastic exercises have had a great influence on our compulsory physical education work, especially that applied to boys' and men's classes in high schools, colleges, and Y. M. C. A.'s. The apparatus stunts, in particular, if interspersed in the programme to a limited degree, offer a play and recreational incentive.

England

The English play system is a natural growth rather than a manufactured product of particular educators. For this reason there is not such a trustworthy account of its development. From earliest times, the liberty-loving Anglo-Saxons have enjoyed sports, games, and amusements, and they have preserved these primitive instincts. Their system has grown up empirically, such changes as were inevitable being due to efforts to make the games more social and general rather than to the work of innovating educators.

During the age of chivalry the recreations involved archery, dancing, leaping, vaulting, wrestling, weight throwing, and ball games; but with the ascendancy of the Puritans all these were rigidly suppressed. It was not until the eighteenth century that games came back into universal favor again. The return was due to the rise of the Boarding Schools for boys of the higher classes. These served as the nurseries of the national pastimes. At first the teachers merely tolerated the sports but with a new generation of teachers, who themselves had played, a new interest was added. Arnold, as headmaster of Rugby, about 1840, recognized the character value of athletics and made them a necessary part of the curriculum. Since then, headmasters of all schools through the force of their opinions have made participation obligatory.

The English schools of this type, which correspond to the private secondary schools of our country, demonstrate the spirit of athletic play at its best. There are large and wonderfully kept fields to take care of everyone. As a result of long vacations, frequent holidays, and considerable freedom in the afternoon there is much time available for play. Practically every season has its round of sports. In the fall we find that rugby football, soccer, cricket, and lacrosse are indulged in; in the winter, rugby football, lacrosse, hockey, harriers, and practice for athletic events; in the spring, athletic events such as

sprinting, jumping, throwing, long races, wrestling, and boxing; and in the summer, cricket, tennis, rowing, and swimming. A very commendable feature of the English schools is the close mingling of masters and pupils on the playing field. The result is a clean type of athletics and an amateurism that is of the highest grade. The higher schools for girls give the same emphasis to outdoor sport, and the result is that the girl who attends the school is usually possessed of enthusiasm, independent spirit, and abounding health. In their case the favorite activities are field hockey, tennis, swimming, basket ball, track and field, and to a limited extent, soccer and cricket.

The universities do not make play compulsory; yet, the habit persists and many athletic clubs are organized. The most prominent sports are football, cricket, and rowing, with tennis, golf, hockey, and canoeing also well in favor. Much free time is available.

The presence of a large leisure class in England has helped to boom the popularity of all sports of recreational nature with adults as well as students. Even with the less favored people, however, there is a strong love for sport as is evidenced by their assembly for this purpose upon the village green after the working day is over. Professional leagues flourish as in America. The average Englishman, however, is not content merely to watch but wishes to be a participant.

It can be seen that the English system features sports and competitive play almost to the exclusion of everything else. Even in the elementary schools, this type of play is introduced at an early age. Only with the recent movement to improve the schools for the common people have there been play activities that are graded in difficulty according to age. These new Council schools, as they are called, have gymnasiums, and a certain amount of gymnastics of the Swedish type is required. In the crowded districts some of the newer schools have roof gardens for the purpose of organized play, while playgrounds are rented in the suburbs for the older children's sport which requires more room.

The municipal play spaces are not supervised except in the sense that a caretaker is provided. There is little apparatus. The social center idea has not progressed as in America, although some headway has been made as a result of the efforts of Mrs. Humphrey Ward.

England's play system, so largely spontaneous, has influenced all its colonies. Continental Europe has taken to English recreative sports, such as golf, tennis, swimming, and rowing rather than the

more specialized sports of rugby, soccer, and cricket. The early colonists introduced outdoor sports into America with the result that athletic games furnish the major part of our physical education in this country. The Americans, however, have evolved distinctive national games of their own such as baseball, football, and basket ball. The Americans, too, have built up a play system that is broader in the educational aspects and that is more socially-spirited in the sense that caste is a negligible factor. In some respects, the English still remain superior: these are in the love of sport for sport's sake (less emphasis on the winning side), and in the practice of keeping up participation in sport throughout life instead of ceasing abruptly after leaving school.

Sweden

In Sweden the impulse towards gymnastics was given by Peter Ling, who was influenced by the writings of Guts Muths in Germany. Ling's motives were primarily patriotic so that his methods were at first almost entirely of a military nature. He urged his views so strongly and constantly that in 1814 the Royal authorities established a Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics and appointed Ling as the director. This institution trained teachers of gymnastics first for the army, and then for the schools. It is still in existence and is the oldest of its kind in the world. Peter Ling's son, Hjalmar, systematized the exercises for use in the schools, adding new ones at the same time.

The Swedish system has influenced other countries to a great extent, especially, France, Belgium, Norway, Denmark, and Greece. England uses the Swedish exercises in its public schools to supplement the effects of games; and they are also used in the British navy. The United States models its so-called "setting-up" exercises of the army and navy after the Swedish type. Our elementary schools and our higher schools for girls also borrow from this foreign source. The schools consider the exercises particularly valuable for their effects on posture.

The play movement in Sweden has taken the form largely of artificial stimulation of interest in its gymnastic system; although a small part of the day's programme is given over to games and dances. Since the revival of the Olympic games people of Sweden have become intensely interested in track and field, and have invited American trainers to their country in order to become acquainted with the American methods. The Swedes have always ranked high

in the Olympic games, excelling in all-around track events such as the decathlon and the pentathlon.

Sweden has contributed largely to the play movement in America in that its exercises are being used more and more, our teachers introducing them under the guise of plays and games.

France

Until very recently, since the World War, the French have not taken to play, nor to sports; and the introduction of physical education in France has been very slow. The first attempt to introduce gymnastics into France was in 1817, following close on the Napoleonic Wars; but the outgrowth of this soon centered almost entirely on the training of gymnastic teachers for the army.

The first concerted attempt to introduce physical education in the schools came in 1890 through the adoption of the Swedish system of gymnastics, and the issuing of a manual on physical training. This manual was very elaborate—ridiculously out of keeping with the facilities that were available. Only fair results were obtained.

In the way of sports, the French people have inclined toward recreation of a milder type in which the element of team play is small—handball, tennis, walking, cycling, croquet, fencing, and shooting, for example. M. Coubertin, who was responsible for the revival of the Olympic games, agitated a movement for the introduction of Anglo-Saxon games into France, but with indifferent success.

Organized play made but little headway until the World War. The instinct to play was not wanting among the French children, but it was stifled by lack of opportunity and by the pressure of studies. During the World War, however, the French caught the spirit of play from contact with the American and British armies. The American Red Cross, in addition, took an interest in giving French children an adequate chance to play. Playgrounds were organized and the Red Cross directors went from city to city teaching games. The most recent trend in connection with the new enthusiasm of the French people for play is the hold that sports have taken on the women. This has been a big stimulus to the inauguration of the first Olympic Games for Women, held in Paris in 1922.

The Orient

It has only been in recent years that the nations of the Orient have been aroused to an interest in play and athletics. The peoples

of the Far East, however, when once interested in Western Civilization, began to borrow plays and games as well as many ideas along other lines. The result has been that the peoples of China, Japan, the Philippines, and Hawaii now claim baseball, basket ball, soccer, volley ball, and track teams of their own, even going so far as to hold Olympic Games of the Far East. In addition, there is a movement for the public promotion of playgrounds of the type found in America. Governments in both Japan and China have been active in educating native teachers for supervisors of playgrounds and gymnasiums. Previously, they had been interested in forms of combat and personal strength such as wrestling, and the Jiu-Jitsu art of defense of Japan. The play movement bids fair to be a factor in the rebirth of the Chinese national consciousness. Credit for this introduction of the play spirit of western civilization into the Orient is largely due to the Y. M. C. A. In the case of the Philippines and Hawaii, the American rule has been accompanied by a governmental educational programme in which organized play has a very prominent place. The competitive games are so well organized that district championships lead eventually to a championship of the entire territory.

It may be of interest also to mention that even Siberia has been touched by the play movement. In Irkutsk, a city of 150,000, there are two playgrounds equipped and supervised like the modern playground of the United States.

South America

The nations of South America, too, have felt the impetus of the modern play movement. The first interest came as a matter of chance, the many foreign inhabitants bringing their games with them. In this way soccer, pelota, tennis, cricket, golf, track, and baseball became known. The first efforts at actually promoting play were made by the Y. M. C. A. Then basket ball and volley ball were added to the list of popular sports. Of late, many soccer associations have sprung up and compete in championships which finally lead to international affairs, with great throngs present. Olympic meets are now held by the ABC countries. Playgrounds of the American type are found in Montevideo, Uruguay, Buenos Aires, Argentina, and Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

The Play Movement in the United States

Statistical Survey.—The play movement in the United States is always spoken of as beginning in the late nineteenth century, but it is

only too evident that it was a very meager beginning, for the most part the struggles for birth. According to records of the Playground and Recreation Association of America there were only ten cities that had established playgrounds in charge of play leaders previous to the year 1900. These were as follows: Boston in 1886; and then from 1890 to 1900, Chicago, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Baltimore, Hartford, New Haven, New York City, San Francisco, and Albany. Some authorities also include in this last period the cities of Brooklyn, Providence, Milwaukee, Cleveland, Minneapolis, and Denver. At least these cities of the latter group have legal documents showing that the play movement was receiving consideration at the hands of the various city fathers.

The interesting part of the beginnings of play in the United States is that practically all the first cities to have playgrounds had independent movements. After Boston's move, it was still a score of years before there came the national organization to facilitate, encourage, and urge the spread of the movement throughout the country.

The big impetus came following the organization of the Playground and Recreation Association of America in 1906. A report of this Association issued in 1916 states that in addition to the ten cities it mentions above, there were twenty-six others that established playgrounds during the period from 1900 to 1906, an average of approximately four new cities a year. In the four years that followed the founding of the national organization, eighty-three more cities were added to the total, an average of twenty a year. In the years 1910, 1911, 1912, and 1913 an average of forty cities a year was established. From 1914 through 1916 the average was raised still higher, to that of fifty-five a year. In 1916 a total number of 414 cities, maintaining 3270 centers under leadership, is given. The figures compiled for 1925 show that the remarkable growth of the playground movement is still continuing, for a total of 748 cities is found. The play centers numbered 8608. The cost of maintaining them was close to twenty million dollars—over twenty times as much as in 1906, the first year that figures were obtained by the association.

The Background.—The movement that has just been traced was not without the usual background. There is no direct connection with any previous tendencies, however, for the line of continuity is always broken until we reach the movement which Boston inaugurated in 1886. To find the earliest beginnings of public interest some people would take us back to the time when the old New

England commons were used by the boys in their games and by the forces training under arms. Others would start off with the year 1821 when efforts were made at out-of-doors physical education by the Latin School of Salem, Massachusetts; or the Round Hill School of Northampton, Massachusetts, which in 1825 conducted an outdoor playground and gymnasium. These attempts were of short duration. Similarly, in the period between 1825 and 1830, outdoor gymnasiums that were established at Harvard, Yale, Williams, Brown, and Amherst Colleges and at the New York High School, held public interest for a short time only.

The incentive for these experiments was largely brought about by the efforts of German political refugees who hoped to make their gymnastic system popular in this country. Following their failure, there was no sign of a revival of interest until about 1850 when the new German immigration to the United States led to the organization of gymnastic societies (Turnvereins) and ultimately to an endeavor to incorporate gymnastics in the public schools. Somewhat later there arose the rival movement to popularize the Swedish system of gymnastics. Both systems have influenced the American tendencies in physical education to-day.

It was in the 1860's that athletic clubs began to be found in colleges. Forerunners of municipal interest in recreative projects were the free public baths established by Boston in 1866, and the vacation school started by the old First Church of Boston in the same year. Private influence opened a vacation school in Providence in 1868. The vacation school brought in subjects like carpentry, singing, and nature-study, and others not directly in line with the usual course of study in the regular schools. In 1872 the first instance was recorded of funds being voted by a municipality for the purchase of land to be used for playground purposes. The city voting this money was Brookline, Massachusetts, but no purchases were made at the time. Then in 1876 there is another outstanding event in the opening of the first known park to possess recreation facilities. This was Washington Park, Chicago; but there was as yet no thought of supervision.

The Earliest Beginnings.—All these things were introductory to the experiment which took place in Boston in 1886. This was the opening of sandgardens for the little children. The idea was one borrowed from Germany. A visitor to Berlin, Dr. Marie Zakrzewska, was much impressed by seeing little children playing at sea-shore games in sand heaps placed in public parks. She wrote

to the chairman of the committee of Massachusetts Emergency and Hygiene Association and told what she had seen. Interested women were responsible for the consequent placing of three piles of sand in the yards of the Children's Mission on Parmenter Street. This was the beginning in Boston and it led to inquiries from other cities. Miss Ellen Tower, Chairman of the Association, was called upon to lecture in several cities regarding the success of the sand gardens.

Other cities were in a mood to follow Boston's lead. It was becoming only too evident that there must be found some solution for the many problems confronting child life—in fact adult life—in the fast congesting cities. Foremost of all, stood out the need for removing the play of the children from the streets, where danger impended every moment; and of offering, instead, wholesome environment that would tend to cut down the amount of juvenile crime and delinquency. These were phases of an Anti-slums Campaign of which Jacob Riis of New York City was one of the most active leaders. In addition, the public attention was beginning to be aroused to a fuller appreciation of the value of health, and to be focused also on the social aspects of education. Laws prohibiting play in the streets, citizens complaining about children playing on their lawns, accidents and arrests from play stolen in the streets, loss of life from swimming in dangerous waters—all these things showed how impossible it was for the child to grow up normally in the cities. The passing of the child labor laws, the including of long summer vacations from the school, and the shortening of working hours for the laboring man, were other causes that helped to spread the agitation for municipal provision for play and recreation, once it was begun.

Local Developments.—Significant developments began to follow on the sandgarden stage, which merely meant supervised play for children of very tender years. In 1889 the Charlesbank Outdoor Gymnasium in Boston was opened; it was a place equipped with apparatus, running track, and space for games, and also provided with supervisors. This took care of older boys and men, and two years later, a section was added for women and girls. The Charlesbank Gymnasium was the forerunner of the movement for park playgrounds which came following 1900 and reached its climax of achievement in the South Side Playgrounds of Chicago. Another outstanding event, one which reflected the beginnings of the new social attitude toward play, was the opening of the Hull House

Playground in 1894. It was equipped with leaders and modern apparatus, and it gave the name "Model Playground" to the type that became popular at this time and which has since been the standard of most school playgrounds. The model grounds, being inadequate in size to permit popular sports like football and baseball, were a contributing factor to the invention of space-economizing games like playground baseball, and to the adaptation of indoor games like volley ball and basket ball, to outdoor use.

In the year 1899 New York opened several schoolyard playgrounds and the significant thing about this step is that it showed a growing tendency for public support to the new movement. Chicago, however, went ahead in assuming public responsibility when in 1903 it opened the South Side Park Playgrounds. In the short time of two years Chicago taxed itself to the amount of \$10,000,000 for park playgrounds—an amount that seemed enormous at that time. President Roosevelt characterized this "the most notable civic achievement of any American city." A feature of the new parks was that they provided both outdoor and indoor recreational facilities, the latter being handled by magnificent buildings called "field houses." Armour Square, a recreation center costing in the neighborhood of \$220,000, can be described as typical of all. The field, which covers ten acres, contains tennis courts, baseball fields, a running track, complete apparatus, and both a wading pool and swimming pool. It is fenced off into three separate divisions for children, men, and women. The field house contains two gymnasiums, several shower baths, an auditorium for concerts, lectures, and dramatics, a dance floor, several club rooms, and even a restaurant. Everything was done to make these recreation centers completely equipped from the standpoint of adults as well as children. Many cities followed the example of Chicago in respect to its recreational centers, Los Angeles, in particular, making great strides. The latter city was the first to appoint a separate recreation commission to overcome confusion in administration which results when different agencies like the Park Board, School Board, and private interests work independently. This tendency toward consolidation was slow to develop; the lead was afterward assumed by Philadelphia and New York.

Unifying Tendencies.—There were a few other events that helped determine the course of the playground movement. In 1903 Luther Gulick organized in New York City the first Public School Athletic League. This meant that an interest in promoting amateur

athletics was in its beginning. In 1906 a great rural play festival and field day held at New Paltz, New York, was interesting inasmuch as it showed the need for play was being felt in other than city districts. In the same year was organized the Playground and Recreational Association of America, a propagandist body made up of the leading men and women in the field of play and recreation, health, and social work. This organization helped unify the playground movement. In addition, its field workers went from city to city putting on campaigns of publicity, stirring up local interest, and giving practical aid in helping each municipality launch its individual movement.

Other tendencies were beginning to make themselves manifest at this time. Certain cities where particular problems had to be met became leaders in various trends. For instance, Pittsburgh went ahead in broadening the sphere of play activities so as to include many things that formerly had not been listed in the category of play. An entirely new meaning was given than the old one which merely gave play the interpretation of fun and games. Rochester made the first move toward having the school plant serve the purpose of a field house and thereby avoided duplication and economic waste. A growing movement to have a comprehensive play system put into force by the schools was headed up by Gary, Indiana, which probably has gone farther than any other city along this line.

Since 1910, there have been other, no less interesting, developments. Outstanding among them was the growing idea that the playgrounds in themselves are of little value, unless supervised by trained leaders. About this time, also boys' and girls' organizations of the type of the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, and others first got under way. Camping grew in popularity. With schools as well as municipal authorities taking hold of play, there began to be found faculty control of competitive athletics, which previously had been allowed to run wild. There was also the beginning of efforts to get the student body as a whole to participate.

The War was not without its influence. Its statistics, showing one-third of the army recruits unfit physically, its demonstration of the marked ability of athletically trained men to assume positions of responsibility, and its use of play as a great factor in maintaining the morale of the army—all these things were responsible for the present boom for compulsory physical education and health training. The new importance given to physical education in the schools has necessarily meant a shortage of teachers, and normal schools and

universities are rapidly instituting courses in this particular subject.

Summary.—In the way of summary it is well to quote from Rainwater, whose book, "The Play Movement" (p. 192), gives a very complete analysis of the growth of this particular field in the United States:

"The transitions of the play movement are nine in number, as follows: (1) from provision for little children to that for all ages of people; (2) from facilities operated during the summer only to those maintained throughout the year; (3) from outdoor equipment and activities only, to both outdoor and indoor facilities and events; (4) from congested urban districts to both urban and rural communities; (5) from philanthropic to community support and control; (6) from free play and miscellaneous events to directed play with organized activities and correlated schedules; (7) from a simple to a complex field of activities including manual, physical, aesthetic, social, and civic projects; (8) from the provision of facilities to the definition of standards for the use of leisure time; (9) from individual interests to group and community activities."

It must not be forgotten that there are certain men and women who have given a life of service to the cause of play. Joseph E. Lee, Dr. Luther Gulick, George E. Johnson, and Henry S. Curtis are outstanding figures who through their writings and personal influence, have helped to keep the movement before the people and have shaped its course. Philosophical dissertations on the meaning and value of play by G. Stanley Hall and John Dewey have helped make educators sympathetic with this new phase of school life.

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CHAPTER II

THE PRESENT NEED FOR PLAY

In the United States many states have passed laws making the teaching of physical education compulsory in their public schools. They have enacted such legislation because they have recognized that it is necessary for the welfare of both the present and the succeeding generations. There is, in addition, an extensive movement in the way of national encouragement. Moreover, foreign nations of Europe, of the Orient, and of South America are becoming interested. Such a condition is highly significant; there must be urgent reasons for such a world-wide movement in favor of this particular type of education. Some of these arguments are developed in the following material.

The Need for All-around Physical Exercise

Man's Active Life Has Disappeared

A general survey of man's physical activities previous to the present era of civilization shows that he was an active person. In the remote past, members of both the upper and lower classes of society were forced into all-around physical development: the lower classes tilled the soil, erected buildings under the direction of their superiors, dug canals, built roads, manned boats, and gave military service when drafted for that purpose; the upper classes were constantly engaged in supervising all work—which was done out-of-doors—and were leading military and trade expeditions. There was no escape for a man, whether of the one class or the other; the very type of civilization demanded an active life spent in a wide variety of employments. Later types of civilization until very recently have also made the same demands on individuals. The pioneer settlers in our own country fought with Indians, felled trees, cleared land, and dug stumps; they depended solely upon their own efforts to sustain their entire existence. Even in the passing generation we find

the majority of people possessed of well-rounded physical development. Almost all were born on the farm and had their daily chores to perform; or, if in the city, were brought up in close touch with the daily tasks of their parents, and were called upon to assist whenever they were free from school work. The work was of a general nature so that the craftsman or tradesman had to start in the process from the beginning and carry it through until the salable article was ready for the market. This made for care and pride in the article, as individual tastes were given a chance to be displayed. In the household duties, the women made their own bread, churned their own butter, fashioned all the clothing, and so on. The whole family was called upon to contribute to the problem of everyday living. Moreover, the children of this last generation walked to school, to town, to the picnic grounds, to the river or lake—they always walked when it was a matter of a few miles. Whatever trade was pursued was learned fully: the kind of specialty then differentiated between the general occupations of the shoemaker and of the baker, for instance, and not between the specialized duties of the designer, the detail draughtsman, the pattern maker, the cutter, the shaper, the assembler, the finisher, the packer, the carrier, and the salesman, as is now the case. Each individual tradesman was all these in one; and, in being all, he could not escape the physical development that these various activities brought.

Work Has Become Highly Specialized

In grown-up life, the all-around craftsman has given way to the laborer who contributes but one small item to the final product of the industry; to the supervisor who uses the telephone, telegraph, messenger boys, charts, and diagrams; to the housewife who disposes of nearly all forms of physical work by means of electrical appliances and of ready-made articles of food for the table and garments for wear. The individual in general is permitting but casual development of a very few muscles in his body. The very devices that are termed *labor-saving* must be recognized at the same time as *body-weakening* forces. This is an age of intense specialization with almost a total disregard for bodily abilities. The opportunity for all-around work that will contribute to the development of the big muscles of the body—this opportunity has quite disappeared. There has been an appalling emigration from the country to the city. In the city there has been an evolution from the handy man to the specialized man. The type of the specialist's work can be seen in

the automobile assembly room, where the worker stands by a moving track tightening one particular bolt as one machine after another passes slowly on to the next specialist. The tendency in piece work is to force specialized labor upon the individual if he wishes to do quick work and gain the highest possible wages.

Chores and Work of Children Eliminated

So true is it that, until the present generation, physical education has been provided by the type of work in which a man was engaged that frequently prominent older members of our society to-day will deride the present play movement; and, for an all concluding argument, will point to themselves as having managed to grow up successfully without having a gymnasium, a playground, or a play-teacher. Their argument is sound so far as it applies to themselves, but they forget that times have changed. To-day we cannot have access to the chores which they extol so highly. These chores have disappeared. The boy's present apprenticeship lacks the woodpile and other kindred sources of muscle building. Errands are scarce. Even walking, such as to school, or to the party, is giving way to the ride in the motor car or the taxicab.

Increased Leisure Time Offers Solution

It can be seen that, whereas the past gave man an all-around physical education, the present has robbed him of that phase of life; and that there is now a dire need for some method of regaining the degree of bodily perfection that formerly existed. Modern civilization, through the invention of so many time-saving devices, has provided one thing that the past could not give—leisure time—and it is here that we find the opening that will admit some means of bodily development. It is during the leisure time that the body must be trained in the wholesome activity that one's occupation denies.

Science, in all its advances, has tended from a medical standpoint to prolong life, and to make it less harsh from the standpoint of material comforts; but, science has tended also to encourage the physical degeneration of the individual. The present conditions that it has produced, compared with those of the past, refute all argument against all-around physical education; rather, they emphasize the immediate and future need of it. Knut Hamsun, in his "Growth of the Soil" repudiates the city life and idealizes the all-around physical development of man. In a man of that type alone, he tells us, are the seeds of life for future civilization planted. We have no

such quarrel with the city life; we would not overthrow it as would Hamsun, but we do demand that leisure, which science has granted, be used in the physical upkeep of the individual. Unless some remedy be supplied, it is safe to say that the decay of modern civilization has already set in, and that there is a grain of truth in the assertions of the present-day extremists who predict that the future race of human beings will have abnormally large heads, but spindlelegs, the latter having dwindled away to mere appendages from disuse.

The Need for Wholesome Recreation

To Counteract the Effects of Specialized Work

It has been shown that specialized labor gives niggardly and one-sidedly to physical development and that play is needed to supply all-around use of the muscles in a normal way. There is a second point: specialized labor does not command the interest of the worker as does all around general work. The tradesman of the past was an all-around cobbler, baker, smith, and the like; he began with the raw material and did not leave it until he delivered it to the customer. His work, then, was of varied interests. As the article which he was making went through the process of manufacture, the tradesman was given a variety of experiences; and then, above all, he had the satisfaction of selling his product directly to the consumer. Not only did the worker find plenty of interest in his work, but he did his work at home with the good wife close at hand to drop a pleasant word at times, and the children to stand around and watch him fashion the raw material into the finished product. Then, too, he had time to gossip as he worked. His customer would discuss the topics of the day with him, and, as a result, both assumed the position of casual philosophers and students of literature. There was a certain pleasantness about the work that gave relaxation to offset the weariness naturally brought on by twelve and sixteen hours of daily work. It was somewhat of a leisurely business; the working man mixed his work, play, and literary efforts thoroughly in the day's routine.

To-day, however, such conditions no longer exist; machines do nearly every kind of work imaginable, and the operator controlling the machine simply puts the unfinished product through one very minute step in the process of manufacture. For instance, a man operating a punch press shapes one particular type of metal accord-

ing to one particular die; and he may do this same thing thousands of times during a single day's work and repeat it over and over with endless monotony for months and years. Moreover, his machinery is noisy, conversation of any length is not tolerated in the necessity of speeding up the output, and the result is that the man is isolated: one machine with a single type of operation to perform. Monotony enters and with it the relaxation offered by change and a variety of interests disappears. The man is almost in the same position as the prisoner in solitary confinement who has only thirty-six square feet on which to walk and nothing but bare walls and a hard floor to consider, in attempting to offset the monotony of walking. Strain enters in, and the tension causes the working man, after a certain limit, to become nervously exhausted, with the work assuming the nature of drudgery. This strain has been recognized almost universally during the last decade or so, for we note that the working man's hours are tending to a standard limit of eight hours daily. Almost all industrial experts are forced to the conclusion that over a definite period of time, the man who works only eight hours a day will ultimately produce more and better work than the one who labors ten or twelve hours a day. For this reason the time that the laborer must work has been shortened greatly; and, with this lessening of working hours, the leisure period of the day has been increased.

To Offset Strain of Modern Environment

Not only has strain entered into our work but also into every activity of the day. The modern individual is forced to maintain a tremendous pace. Everything is speeded up: his work, his lunch hour, his pastimes, and even his time for sleep. The industrial revolution is the cause. The cross-country trip by horse and carriage or oxen has given way to the mile-a-minute train; the walk or the drive with the horse and buggy, to the high-powered motor car; and the aeroplane is now beginning to supplant these. The speeding-up process together with that of specialization have combined to make our daily life one of minutely cooperative affairs, one with many appointments that must be kept to the minute. We are always hurrying with a timepiece as the autocratic driver.

The city life is the popular life of to-day. We crave excitement, and have unnatural appetites for it. We want thrills instead of repose in quiet companionship, communion with Nature, and the reading of the best of books. The devices that brought speed and broke down the span of distance at the same time broke up the close

family and neighborhood ties. The automobile allows people to find pleasure where they may; they do not need to cultivate the acquaintanceship of their neighbors within the block.

The laborer leaves the close confinement and monotony of his specialized work, dodges the traffic of street cars and automobiles, finds his recreation in a crowded, air-stuffed movie house or in a speeding auto ride, and sleeps to the accompaniment of shrill whistles and horns and the grating of gears. The child finds himself shut up in a schoolroom, his activity curbed, with restlessness and tension prominent factors of his daily existence. He saves his pocket money to see a film thriller.

This is all wrong as regards the way Nature meant things to be. Instead of the condition of noise, hurry, tenement living, personal danger, impersonal relationship, and vice—instead of these, Nature supplied an environment where space abounds, where air is fresh and free, where food and water are pure, and where recreation can be found in swimming, hunting, fishing, hiking, skating, and the like.

Yet man is not so easily defeated when his environment becomes an unnatural one. Man has always shown himself to be a most adaptable person. The highly developed system of supervised play and recreation—to the point where it has become an institution of progress—is man's reaction to an unnatural life with all its disturbing influences. Even in our play we must heed a caution: we must not let our play become so highly competitive and dependent on winning that it excites our nervous system to an additional extreme rather than soothing and stabilizing it, as it should.

To Offset the Influence of Harmful Amusements

The advent of leisure time along with the strain of modern conditions, however, has brought about a new problem; namely, the use to which the leisure time may be put. So long as the workingman abuses his leisure time, he is just as subject to strain as before; and, in some cases, may be in a far worse physical condition than could ever result from the monotony of long working hours in a factory. The saloon was one argument against the lessening of working hours; for, in such a place, the relaxation was accomplished at the cost of bodily injury. The laborer, through shorter working days, had more time to spend in the saloon than under the old régime of long hours, and, consequently, was quite likely to debauch during an entire night, and be wholly unable to report for work the following day. The saloon, however, has disappeared and no longer is

the place of diversion for the working man—the “poor man’s club,” as it was called. According to some, the problem would here be solved, but it must be remembered that although the undesirable form of diversion has been removed, nothing has been offered in its stead. It must also be recognized that 90 per cent of the people need guidance of some sort for their leisure time. The commercialized forms of amusement, such as the pool room, gambling dens, and dance halls, are the breeding places of many bad habits leading to the worst forms of vice. The moving picture shows and other passive types of recreation do not suffice. The active, all around, and spontaneous forms of play are the ones desired; and schools, factories, churches, and clubs are all promoting programmes along these lines.

It is for the reasons just stated that industries have come to recognize that their duties are not finished when the working hours are shortened, that there is still more to be done, and, in many instances, the “second mile” is being traveled by the employers. The Grand Rapids factory of the American Seating Company has a factory magazine, a Senate and a House of Representatives, a baseball team, a bowling league, and other means of affording their men useful but recreative expenditure of their leisure time; and the men feel that they themselves are doing this. It is very necessary that a democratic atmosphere be maintained so that the employees do not think that they are being patronized by a programme forced down upon them from above—a thing they are apt to resent. This is only one example of what tremendous strides are being made in the industrial recreation. The Goodyear Rubber Company, of Akron, Ohio, and the Carnegie Steel Foundation at Pittsburgh have well-paid organized staffs of play leaders, and complete equipment for mass programmes of athletic exercise. One danger that must be guarded against here is that of professionalism. In the enthusiasm and support that is aroused for the team that represents the concern for outside competition, the professional spirit may creep in, and subsequently the less capable groups are given less and less consideration until finally they are wholly neglected. So soon as expert players are induced to come to a factory, with the promise of “snap” jobs, the good that is accomplished is largely nullified, for the workers as a whole are bound to become critical and dissatisfied and their morale largely disturbed.

The Sociological Factor of Play

The sociological factor of play is intimately bound up with the preceding need for wholesome recreation and with the succeeding expression of the economic phase of play.

The question of juvenile delinquency has received careful study in recent years. Statistics of many cities, particularly those of Chicago as recorded in the proceedings of the Second Annual Playground Congress, show that wherever a playground has been started, the juvenile delinquent has begun to disappear; also, that he has continued to predominate only in those districts of the city where there are no playgrounds. The inference is that much juvenile crime is simply the bursting out in some form or other of the child's inherent desire for action. The more this action is repressed or undirected, the more extreme is the outburst when it does come. Stealing, breaking windows, defying the "cop," playing craps, and the like are the perversions which the child's inherent love for activity brings about in congested districts without playgrounds. The directed playground transfers his ambition from stealing apples from the corner grocer to an ambition to be a member of the team. "Bill has been so busy stealing bases this summer he has not had time to steal anything else, and has not been seen in our court," one juvenile judge is reported as having said recently.

The playground is also a social factor in forming community consciousness. Not only do children form friendships but parents do likewise. Play brings out the primary virtues of friendship, love, and loyalty so necessary for a union of family and of neighborhood. The closer union of these smaller groups is necessary before a larger community consciousness can be brought about.

Optimism is another keynote of the play situation. The child who is stealing, or gambling, or doing things he knows are forbidden, is not particularly happy or contented; he is always worried and afraid of the outcome. On the playground, however, the child is free to express himself without any restraints save those of the rules of fair play. He becomes a happy child, developing in a normal way and having an optimistic outlook on life. This atmosphere spreads to the homes and creates a similar congeniality there.

Another element towards social improvement is the industry and ambition developed by well-directed play. Play itself is a growth, a progress toward something more difficult—yet unattained, but much desired. There is continual contact with the play instructor,

who can do almost anything, so it seems to the child. The result is that the child strives in emulation, and learning becomes a pleasure to him.

The Economic Value of Play

The economic factor of play dovetails closely with the sociological. Wherever we find that man is more contented, is under the urge of progress, we also find that there is a saving of energy, and an elimination of waste; there is forthcoming a better product. The betterment of social conditions is reflected immediately in an improvement of the economic.

To illustrate: when the delinquent boy is given a chance to accommodate his burst of energy in the activities of the playground he is also made an economic asset. This is true from two points of view: first, there is saved the cost of penalizing him for his delinquency, that of keeping truant officers and of paying upkeep for juvenile courts and of juvenile reform institutions; second, there is a new valuation that must be placed on him by his change from the irresponsible gangster to the boy educated on the playground. True, it does cost money to run the playgrounds. It has been found, however, that the cost is very slight in comparison with the other alternative; for example, statistics show that ten Boy Scouts can be taken care of by the exact amount spent on one average delinquent boy.

The schools have found that the healthy child makes faster progress than the child who is subnormal in physique. The pupil who fails in his studies belongs largely to the latter class, and this is especially true of the student who must repeat a full semester's work. In the sense that play makes a positive contribution to health, it must be counted as an economic factor in the reduction of the enormous amount of money that is being spent on "repeaters."

The industries have come to consider play in the economic valuation of their workers for utilitarian as well as benevolent reasons. Wherever there are efficiency experts in factories we find that they are also advocates of play and of amusements for the workers. The Carnegie Steel Company found that short play recesses during the working day so increased the efficiency of the workers in the actual time they were working, that an increased daily output was the result. Inasmuch as play conduces to health, it must also be figured from the standpoint of reducing the worker's days of sickness. Then, again, workers who are well contented do not become tran-

sients, and herein is one of the biggest savings to the corporation and possibly the biggest reason why it favors broad recreational programmes. A big economic loss is involved in breaking in new workers; the output is temporarily less than normal; a trained instructor must spare valuable time; and wear and tear on expensive machinery is considerably greater when operated by a beginner.

Summed up, these points stand out: decreased juvenile delinquency, fewer institutions to provide for this factor, decreased shiftlessness, poverty, vice; and, from the positive point of view, increased industry, ambition, and support for the institutions of social improvement. The economic value to the nation as a whole is shown by the cumulative benefits of the separate communities.

Need of Play Space in Congested Cities

In the rural districts there is almost unlimited space in which the children can play; but our modern cities, congesting space in every possible way, even needing high skyscrapers, have found the matter of play spaces a grave problem. Left to themselves, the children would have no place to play except in the streets and alleys, and the danger from automobiles practically excludes the former. Some cities have had to close certain streets to traffic at special hours that they might be used for children's play; and roofs of buildings have even been used for playground purposes. Because of this condition artificial play spaces need to be created—the modern playgrounds—and economy demands that these spaces be carefully allotted to the different sections of the city in order that all may benefit. The playground does not leave the child close to his doorstep, however, but may take him several blocks from home, and thus away from the guidance of parents. This creates another problem demanding solution in the way of wise supervision; otherwise the playground will not be given the maximum amount of use, because the larger children will monopolize the space to the exclusion of the weaker ones. In addition, the apparatus will not be safe. To conserve the use of these precious play areas and get the most use out of them, it has been necessary to invent space-economizing games, such as playground baseball and volley ball, and also to have the children organized so that every possible bit of ground is utilized in some form of activity. This organization and supervision cannot be done by mere police officers with the police type of discipline. The children would

continue to play in the streets near their homes, not making the effort to go to a distant place for something that is not attractive. Their physical activity must be organized and made attractive by play teachers with winning personalities. The playground must have magnetic force, and must be run on a self-governing principle, as the out-of-school attendance is purely voluntary.

Play as a Rural Necessity

There is always much hue and cry about the need for play in the cities; but, when one mentions the rural community the answer is nearly always that the country children have plenty of play space and also receive the healthful exercise of daily chores. While it is true that the conditions of the city make the need for play stand out more strikingly, there are also many sound reasons why the play center should have a prominent place in the rural locality.

The rural child needs play partly *because* of his chores. Though these chores develop strong muscles and make the child apparently a healthy being, yet the type of chores is such that it makes him stoop-shouldered, weak in lung and heart development, and only too often an ungraceful and clumsy creature. Country boys of great strength are often unable to make high school or college athletic teams, for the reason that they are so lacking in coordination. This surprising weakness is evidenced too in the inability of the country boy to cope with his city brother in passing the playground efficiency tests. Play is needed to do away with these irregularities, to make the country child what the opportunities of the farm should make him; that is, the finest creature of the nation.

Not only is organized play of physical importance to the country child—it is also a means whereby he can become acquainted with a large circle of friends. Conditions are such that even though the child may have space to play he will have no one to play with, and the result is he is almost as bad off as the city gangster who has no place in which to play. It must be remembered that in the country as well as in the city the full value of play cannot be exacted unless there are children, space, and directorship.

The country boy needs play because of its social values. He is reticent, shy, and narrow-minded unless he can be brought into friendly contact with other youngsters of his age. At present, country children, until they are educated in play, do not know the meaning of sportsmanship.

The rural community as a whole needs a community place where the old and young alike may gather and enjoy themselves to the fullest extent. When every rural school becomes a "country club" there will be given a new vitality to the farming industry. This is a big problem that rural social workers are aiming at to-day: to develop general contentment and an attachment to the farm that cannot be broken by the lure of the city.

The Need of Play to Overcome Physical Defects

Statistical studies, especially those of the draft in connection with the late war, have shown that many of the physical defects of adult life could have been prevented had the proper corrective exercises been given in childhood. Play can accomplish much in giving natural posture, and corrective gymnastic exercises can offset many of the physical abnormalities caused by the environment of confinement and strain under which people are living to-day. This is one of the future trends of physical education. Many public schools are employing special teachers to take care of this feature alone, much in the same way that they employ a special teacher to take charge of the ungraded or abnormal children. To show the good that can be accomplished it may be well to refer to the statistics concerning the physical examination of freshmen at Columbia University. Since the movement for remedial work has gone into effect in the public schools, the number of freshmen with curable defects has dropped from 30 per cent to less than 10 per cent.

The Need of Play as an Educational Factor

Recent studies in psychology and pedagogy have demonstrated beyond a doubt the value of games, gymnastics, drills, and other forms of physical exercise in the school curriculum. They supplement the other studies in assisting mental and moral growth and the aim of the school at large. Such qualities as mental alertness, accuracy, concentration, courage, discipline, self-confidence, self-control, sportsmanship, and so forth, are engendered. This is one of the most important points of all—but it is not necessary to amplify here, as later chapters take up the matter in detail.

The Need for School Instruction in Proper Health Habits

The schools have arrived at the point where they offer exercise in the form of plays and games, athletic work, gymnastics, and possibly military drill. Too, they often require a physical examination to determine whether or not the pupil is in normal health. Some have gone farther than this, and have attempted to direct the habits of the child who is physically defective. This is excellent work so far as it goes, but it is not enough. Schools must teach proper health habits to the entire group under their supervision; they must put into their curriculum the types of physical education that inculcate the habits of building up vital resistance. This in itself will mean a preventive method. Along these lines the schools, and physical education itself, have been woefully weak. The field outside of muscular exercise has been too much neglected, with practically little or no emphasis on hygiene and proper health habits. Health habits should be taught, not in a general theoretical way, but with practical hints on how the individual should take care of himself. Physical education thus taught should equip the student during the formative years with knowledge essential to keeping the body in as perfect working conditions as possible, should make him aware of the danger signs which will caution him against exposure to contagious disease, and should make him able to be of help when emergencies are at hand. Instruction in the form of health plays, games, and pageants has been a great aid in getting the children to practice health and to build up permanent health habits.

The Need of Play in Americanization

All forms of play are most useful in our country in Americanizing our great influx of aliens, both children and adults. The foreigners come to this country with national hatreds centuries old, prejudices so deeply rooted that one finds traces of them even after they have been settled in the United States for several generations. It is not sufficient to teach them how to handle the English language; that simply makes them the more easy prey for agitators, and Americanization is then much farther removed. The appeal to the intellect alone leaves them cold, unresponsive, shy. Play, instead, touches the emotions of these aliens and makes them a part of the social group, team-mates in the common cause of happiness, good will, or victory, as the case may be, and breaks down the antipathies more quickly than can anything else. Elsewhere in this book the influence

of play in teaching friendliness, kindness, and sympathy is explained. Play affords a common meeting ground where people of any race can find an interest. The athletic teams in this country, whether school or professional, are made up of players of practically every nationality. Even new comers who have never played at sports in their own countries in the way we do, readily take to them if at all encouraged. Especially so do the children of these immigrants take to play, just as wholeheartedly as any American of Revolutionary ancestry. Because of its socializing influence, Americanization centers use play and recreation to attract the foreigner, and often by gaining his trust find him responsive to the idea even of exhibiting some of the dances and plays of his own country, a thing he takes pride in doing. The influence brought about by wholesome play will tend to stamp out the spirit of discontent more easily than the fear of the police.

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CHAPTER III

HOW PLAY IS PROMOTED

Play is too big a thing to be handled by our schools and public playgrounds alone. It is so necessary a phase of our daily life that many of our institutions like the church, the factory, and other organizations not dependent upon public taxation have incorporated it into their programmes in order to further their own social aims. So necessary is it too that people find recreation and relaxation, that enterprising promoters are able to secure large profits by furnishing opportunities to satisfy these needs and cravings.

For the purpose of further analysis in our discussion, we shall classify the agencies which we have just mentioned as being interested in promoting play, as Public, Semi-public, and Commercial.

PUBLIC PROMOTION

This is the highest type of play promotion. Through such support as the community gives, a broad field of play activities is furnished without direct charge to the players. The purpose is to invite universal participation, so that all alike may share in the benefits. The programme seeks a better citizenship by fostering play that is educational, and yet at the same time filled with wholesome amusement.

The local community does not need to be without help in the financing and direction of its play programme. Many of the playgrounds in our cities bear names of local benefactors who have donated expensive grounds. Playground funds are very frequently swelled by subscriptions from organizations such as Parent-Teacher Clubs, Rotary Clubs, and others similarly interested in civic improvement. Industrial concerns, too, may throw open their privately supported play spaces to the general community use. National encouragement for physical education is also being given. Another aid of most significant value comes from such philanthropic institutions as the Playground and Recreation Association of America, and the Russell Sage Foundation. The former undertakes surveys of recrea-

tional needs and the placing of field organizers to develop new city systems, and publishes much literature that is sold at a nominal cost. The Russell Sage Foundation likewise publishes valuable play literature which is sold very cheaply; and undertakes, to a limited extent, the giving of advice and field help. Both institutions are instrumental in the spread of play propaganda.

Play as a public function requires an extensive plant in putting its programme across: municipal and school playgrounds, field houses, social centers, parks, and bathing beaches—and these are the meeting places used by the public organizations in carrying on and extending the many and varied activities which we have included in our broad interpretation of the play curriculum. It is the work of these institutions with which we are primarily concerned in this text; all the many needs and benefits which we ascribe to play in education and recreation are being promoted through their programmes. The PLAYGROUNDS and SOCIAL CENTERS are the biggest factors in the success of organized play, and the succeeding chapter has been reserved for the discussion of these two institutions. The parks, in so far as they deal with organized play, are treated later as one and the same thing as municipal playgrounds. There is, however, one feature of recreation found in the parks that is not of the nature of organized play; therefore, it will be well to speak of this in a few words and dismiss it. This includes the inviting surroundings of trees and greens where individuals may rest, stroll, or use the many benches to read in the quiet; and, further, the park bench is intimately associated with courtship. The city often improves on the natural surroundings by adding winding channels for canoeing, and picturesque lagoons where there are swans, ducks, and fishes that may be fed. Often, a zoo may be added where the family on its outing may see strange birds and animals, and may watch the antics of the bears, or the monkeys in their trapeze stunts. Frequently, the city provides band concerts or other special attractions to entertain its people in the leisure hours of the week and on holidays.

There is but little to say about bathing beaches: the city controls them and furnishes attendants, guards, and equipment. These beaches are the most popular in the summer time and from the play standpoint the interest is in furnishing the opportunity for and in giving instruction in swimming, water sports, and life-saving. Usually one day in the summer is reserved for a special aquatic programme.

In one way the public type of promotion takes on a commercial aspect. This is true most especially of such activities as public school and college athletics, dramatics, musicales, etc. Here we find that the general public does not participate, but pays an admission fee to be entertained by selected and skilled performers. At first this brings the idea of commercialism to mind, but it must be remembered that the proceeds are not used for individual gain, but are turned back into the control of the school authorities. In this way the extra funds that are necessary to develop talented performers for public presentation are forthcoming. Such a semi-commercial phase of promotion serves as an entertaining spectacle or exhibition, and one that has educational value as well. However, it is always confronted with a singular danger: namely, that of becoming almost entirely commercial. In athletics, particularly, we are always finding charges of professionalism of some sort or other. And these charges are often true, the result being that many athletes of low moral standing are induced to attend our educational institutions where they continue to demand favors and easy positions for their services. When the commercial factor becomes too strong, the inordinate desire to win that is kindled makes the students forgetful of fair play and considerate treatment of opponents; it may cause a disregard, too, for the future health of the players; and (this applies to all types of play entertainment alike) it may end in a concentration of practically all the play equipment, facilities, and money on a small minority of students. In spite of these dangers, however, the interschool athletic movement has taken a firm hold on the public. Therefore whole chapters have been given later in the book to the question of ATHLETICS IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

The community besides promoting the public type of play is a big help in the promotion of semi-public play activities. This help is evidenced in granting the use of public facilities to organized groups. Thus we find the industrial and other teams receiving permits to use the athletic fields in the playgrounds and parks, and certain groups receiving consent to use the gymnasium or rooms of the social service building for meetings. Often the play staff volunteers to furnish officials, to give advice, and to aid in organization.

The community exercises authority over all types of play. While the semi-public and commercial agencies are allowed, in a great measure, to carry on their programmes unhindered, still they

must be subject to the censorship of public approval and regulation. In this way it can be said that the community actually stands back of and promotes all forms of recreation.

SEMI-PUBLIC PROMOTION

This type of promotion includes all clubs and organizations having an interest in play from the standpoint of the participation and benefit of its members. Such clubs usually have a membership fee, which must be paid before the privileges are extended. On certain occasions admission is charged, but the purpose of the commercial profit is a worthwhile one. The money taken in does not go to individual gain; instead, these fees are used for the upkeep of fields or halls, rental or equipment, and the payment of the janitor or caretaker; or, in the case of dramatics and music, they may be used to pay lecturers, dramatic artists, or musicians.

Naturally, as groups are organized along many lines, there is a great variation in the size of the units, in the type of activities favored, and the kind of individuals catered to. These variations therefore give rise to sub-groups which, in the main, are three in number: (1) *Open*, where the restrictions on membership are very few, the one essential requirement being good character, and where the fees of membership are nominal enough to invite the public, or may be omitted altogether; (2) *Exclusive*, where the membership is kept very limited through ballot selection, through limiting the enrollment to a certain definite number, or through fees that are kept so very high as to exclude automatically all except the very wealthy; (3) *Informal*, where individuals or groups promote their own play without connection with any permanent organization.

Open

Under the caption of open groups we must include the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, Summer Camps, Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., Churches, Settlements, Industrial Organizations, certain athletic and social clubs, and miscellaneous organizations where play is incidental. The BOY SCOUTS, CAMP FIRE GIRLS, GIRL SCOUTS, and SUMMER CAMPS are recent outgrowths of the play movement whose programmes stress the objectives of character-building and citizenship, and thereby give a valuable supplement to our school training. They are so important that they

are taken up under separate chapters in this book and need no further mention here. In general, it should be noted that they consider the welfare of their members along broad lines. For this reason, part of their support is provided by the public through drives and subscriptions.

Y. M. C. A.

This organization in its first form was really what the words imply: The Young Men's Christian Association. It was organized in the early part of the eighteen thirties and its purpose was the reading and discussion of the Bible. Soon, however, the work of the association increased and the original religious interpretation for membership became slightly broader. Buildings were put up and the Y. M. C. A. began to take on the character of a place where young business and working men could obtain room and board, and spend their spare time; especially a place of good influence for the young men in the cities, who were working away from home and likely to fall into bad habits. Then the physical education phase of the work came in and the gymnasium and swimming pool became features of nearly every building. At the present time the Y. M. C. A. has buildings in nearly every country in the world and gives service to any demand that is made. The latest phase of the work has been general education: night school courses and correspondence school facilities have been offered in a great variety of subjects to many young men. The recreational side has also been enlarged: we find representative teams in basket ball, swimming, volley ball, track, and baseball; and there are reading rooms, pool and billiard tables, and bowling alleys. The modern Y. M. C. A. buildings also combine hotel and club features with those of an educational institution.

The influence of the Y. M. C. A. reaches beyond its immediate membership. It is a factor in the organization of church and industrial recreation; also, in the bringing of religious and social influences into the high schools, as illustrated by the Hi Y clubs; and in helping to form Student Christian Associations in the colleges. In many cases the Y. M. C. A. acts as a student employment bureau. The Junior Y is very similar to the Boy Scout organization except that its programme stresses religion much more. This similarity is quite noticeable when one compares the handbooks of the two organizations. The Junior Y, as well as the Senior, has finely equipped and well conducted camps during the summer months.

Y. W. C. A.

This is so much like the Y. M. C. A. in its principles and activities that it would be repetition, to a large extent, to give a full description of its activities here. It is doing a great service for young women. It offers social, recreational, and educational advantages needed by the working girl.

Churches

The rise of the church athletic leagues and recreational departments may be ascribed to the influence of the Y. M. C. A., the spread of doctrines of social service, and the desire to retain the young folks in church. This last aim has been justified in many cases; often a young man has attended Sunday school simply for the purpose of playing on a church team and the influence of the new associations has molded in him a more worthy character.

The new socializing movement of the church makes that institution assume something of the character of a social center. It is not uncommon for a church to possess a separate building, called by such names as "Guild House" or "Parish House," that is used for the showing of movies, for dancing, basket ball games and gymnasium work, social parties, lectures, dramatics, etc. Again in larger cities like New York, Chicago, and Detroit the larger churches have organized many small missions in the thickly populated districts hitherto unreached by church influences. These community missions combine religious, educational, social, and recreational features.

The church has one advantage in that it has a closer touch and more common aim among its members than the public social center; the feeling of sociability is already present and does not have to be stimulated. In the way of disadvantages, there is the group limitation of creed; also, the antagonism and lack of support on the part of some members who are still Puritan-minded in their attitude towards play.

The church does give definite support to the public play movement by organizing teams to participate in the various municipal athletic leagues—The Twilight Baseball Leagues for example.

Settlements

Settlement houses are instituted and conducted by social welfare and religious organizations, and receive much help from wealthy individuals who lend philanthropic support. The settlements have

social uplift in view and are primarily concerned with bettering conditions in the slums and foreign districts of our cities. They have done a great work. Their programme, including as it does, child welfare, individual help, family help, medical help, betterment of housing conditions, Americanization, and improvement of leisure time activities, uses play as one of the means to attain the aims at large. Many settlements conduct small playgrounds of their own. The work in Americanization and in leisure time education makes of the settlement house a social center where games, singing, and dancing take place. Among the foreign people, the chance is given to revive the old folk dances and plays of their native lands. The social workers have been friendly to the play movement. They were an early factor in influencing the public to open up the school plant for social and recreational purposes.

In this social service work, one institution has made its name known to everyone—the Hull House of Chicago. Its progress has been guided by the inspiration of the famed social worker, Jane Addams. Such an achievement has helped to keep alive a faith in humanity in this age which has experienced so much of modern warfare and industrial unrest.

Industries

Many of the industries have joined in the new social movement; and we find them actually taking an interest in the welfare of their employees. Naturally, as health is one of the first concerns of welfare, much has been done to promote recreation of a proper type. Some of the larger companies own their own gymnasiums and athletic fields. Here the employees can meet for informal games, or for games where the competition is based on the different units of the factory: office, supply room, foundry, machine shop, and assembly, for instance. The sports that prove successful for the formation of leagues are baseball, playground ball, basket ball, volley ball, and bowling. An occasional track meet proves popular. The above leagues pertain to competition within the factory and aim to get everyone in the game. There are, however, selected teams that represent the factory much as the varsity team represents the college. When such representative teams participate in city or "twilight" leagues under the direction of the community recreation authorities, the tendency is toward play of an amateur type; however, when the leagues are directed by corporations themselves, with games scheduled outside the immediate locality, professionalism becomes a

factor, just as it does in intercollegiate athletics. Care should be taken that the ideal of plant-wide participation is not lost.

Athletics form only one part of the new industrial welfare movement. The health of employees is being safeguarded in other ways. There are rest rooms, dispensaries, and sometimes a company hospital. Health is also considered from the standpoint of leisure. To furnish the element of contentment, garden associations are formed; exhibitions are staged in the auditoriums; orchestras, bands, and glee clubs are organized; amateur theatricals are promoted; and special outings and picnics furnished. The employees are further made to feel that an interest is being taken in them by other schemes which may include a shop government in which everyone has a voice, a company bank to encourage saving, a magazine in which considerable attention is given over to side-lights on shop life and shop characters, and a cooperative plan whereby assistance is rendered in home building.

The Bell Telephone Company stands as an example of what industries can do for women employees. Many of the above ideas are incorporated in the company's plan to keep its highly trained employees at the peak of efficiency—for the idea of efficiency and plant unity must be added to that of social sentiment in accounting for every corporation's interest in promoting recreation programmes. In the line of active recreation, women workers seem to enjoy dancing, tennis, swimming, bowling, and basket ball.

In many cases where industries have maintained playgrounds through their public welfare departments, the original aim of catering to their employees has been enlarged into a neighborhood project, with directed play for all. In this philanthropic capacity, the industry allies itself directly with the public play movement.

Athletic Clubs

The foremost example of athletic clubs of open type is the Amateur Athletic Union, commonly called the A. A. U., which is national in the scope of its membership. The A. A. U. requires a fee for membership, also an amateur standing; and it rigidly controls the participation of its members in competitive sports. Its programme features track and swimming competition. Sectional meets are held as well as national ones.

There are many types of local athletic clubs. For the most part, they are composed of young men, the purpose being to organize teams and secure competition. Young men of the same nationality

will often group themselves together in this way; neighborhood groups also are common.

Social Clubs

These have the social aim uppermost, rather than the exclusive athletic aim which was noted above. The Unions for men and women in the large Universities, which really correspond to social centers, must be listed as semi-public for the reason that membership cards and privileges prevail and outsiders are excluded except on invitation. Likewise, the University clubs of our various cities, which are composed of alumni from one particular institution, illustrate this class. These organizations confine themselves largely to the indoor type of activities, such as billiards, pool, bowling, and cards. Usually, there are reading rooms and dining rooms which serve the purpose of repose and fellowship. The program is not so elaborate as to require expensive fees. Another example is the American Legion, which has assembly places for social and recreational purposes. The foreign clubs of our large cities group themselves in this manner. They have rich contributions in the way of music, dancing, and festivals, and often gymnastics and games. The Turnverein as representative of the German nationality illustrates this class. There are associations just as typical to represent the Polish, Bohemian, Slovak, and other nationalities. The objection has been raised that these distinctive racial groupings hinder the process of assimilation. This is partly true; but they do carry on an important recreation programme that our public play facilities and settlement houses are not yet able to handle effectively.

Miscellaneous Organizations

Here we have reference to organizations whose members find their ties governed by some particular business, trade or profession. Examples are found in the various business men's clubs, the many labor and trade unions, the Grange and newer Farm Bureau. While the foremost purpose is improvement in the conditions of the particular kind of work, still recreation does enter into the life of the association. This is evidenced in picnics, banquets, dances, carnivals, and bazaars.

Exclusive

As mentioned briefly before, the membership of the organizations referred to as exclusive is limited to a considerable degree,

eligibility for the most part being determined by wealth or social influence, and often being dependent on the sanction of the active members. This group at large includes our select civic organizations such as the Rotary Club, Exchange, and Kiwanis; the fraternal societies, such as Masons, Elks, Knights of Pythias, Knights of Columbus, Odd Fellows, and school fraternities, for the men, and corresponding secret organizations such as Eastern Star, Maccabees, etc., for the women; private schools that limit their enrollment and have a long waiting list; and, lastly, the many exclusive city and country clubs.

For the most part the programme is not one of public improvement and citizenship, but one of recreation and fellowship that is confined to the particular group concerned; although this is not true of the civic clubs which have done much to secure community support for play centers and for the Boy Scout type of organization. In so far as the members are concerned, both the civic and fraternal organizations maintain first of all the social club idea. In addition, celebrations, picnics, bazaars, and dances are held, and athletic teams are organized to participate in city leagues. To a smaller extent, some of the fraternal orders have also given support to the public play movement.

Turning our attention to the exclusive schools, it is not too much to say that they offer the best individual advantages in the way of play of any institutions in the country. Many private schools of small enrollment possess athletic fields, gymnasiums, and swimming pools that are superior to those of many large universities. The English idea of sport is followed out: every boy or girl attending the school being encouraged to take part in play and then receiving very careful individual coaching.

As regards the exclusive city and country clubs, it must be said that they are of but little significance in the community play idea, for the reason that their privileges are confined to so small a number. The palatial buildings and equipment of the exclusive type of city club, and the well cared for greens and boating courses as found in the country, offer a wonderful opportunity for entertainment, but of the amusement type almost entirely. The men and women of wealth and leisure who use the advantages offered in the way of golf, tennis, swimming, and boating are bound to be benefited in health and mental well-being. From the public standpoint, the good points which must be set forth for the play of exclusive clubs are only too often offset by the extravagance of fashionable

yachting and polo, and of over-elaborate dances and feasts; the fact that stands out as regrettable is that so much money should be squandered on useless and fastidious play when the general public is so greatly in need of funds for its recreation.

Informal

The type of promotion referred to here is that of self-promotion. Its scope includes all the forms of play that are planned by single individuals or small groups without a definite organization. There are always enthusiasts, singly or in company, for such outdoor recreations as hiking, swimming, fishing, hunting, canoeing, skating, touring, camping, picnics, and informal or "scrub" games; and, similarly, for such indoor play as reading, cards, checkers, chess, and music. Then there are congenial groups which will come together of their own accord for dances, lawn socials, card parties, or parlor games. In a sense, children's play at home and in the streets is of this type; it is characterized by lack of permanency and direction.

At first glance it would seem that the informal type of play is one of which the public recreational systems need not take cognizance, but this is not the case. Above, we have mentioned a list of activities that should be encouraged; but it is only too true, that people left to themselves will find amusements that are wholly objectionable. Children, not knowing the best that is in play, will be apt to find their fun in smoking, playing marbles for "keeps," pitching pennies, predatory raids, truancy, and sex delinquencies—all which are violations of our best ideals of social conduct; and our older youth and our adults often find their way into the commercialized vices for their source of pleasure. Therefore, the public play movement carries with it the responsibility of combating the tendency of informal play to degenerate.

It has been shown that the people need education in their choice of informal play. Chosen rightly, this type should be supported to the utmost. The public recreational leaders should make themselves a source of information concerning interesting home forms of recreation suitable for all occasions, and should be ready to give instruction in certain sports that require a special technique. They should also disseminate a knowledge of athletic hygiene and out-ing hygiene. In truth, it can be said that the organized play system is not successful unless it reacts both directly and indirectly to create a wide-spread interest in informal play. Informal play will

be seen at its highest type when individuals will choose wholesome recreation and will systematize that part of it which deals with the regular daily practice of bodily exercise.

COMMERCIAL

We can judge somewhat how fully the need of play is supplied by noticing the number of commercialized amusements and the extent to which they are patronized. By commercialized amusement is meant the type that is provided by private concerns in order that they may make money from the patrons. It includes not only the toys and games purchased and taken home for the play of children and of adults, but more especially the amusements for which one pays admission. In this class are the baseball parks, bowling alleys, pool rooms, carnivals, circuses, dance halls, excursion boats, fairs, gambling dens, horse races, moving picture shows, burlesques, roof gardens, scenic railways, skating rinks, music halls, theaters, etc. The sums spent for these amusements by people in our cities are enormous, and far exceed all that is spent for schools, playgrounds, streets, and municipal improvements met by public taxation.

Commercial enterprises, always seeking big dividends, really anticipated and gave opportunity for play before the public was stirred into making appropriations for this purpose. In this respect commercialized play has had a great opportunity; but it has largely failed. It has considered profit first of all, and in catering to the spirit of the modern generation it has fostered amusements that are useless and vicious. It has specialized in organized thrills that unduly excite the nervous temperament. Too frequently, as in the cases of our movies and professional athletics, the people pay to see the others perform, and themselves assume the passive rôle of onlookers. Almost in every instance the public has been exploited in the sense that exorbitant prices have been charged in order that the promoters might amass huge fortunes.

Commercialized forms of play are both good and bad; and moreover, many of them that are now distinctly evil influences can be converted into useful and artistic forms of play. There is no question but that the theater, music halls, and the movies can all be molded from the standpoints of art, education, and recreation; and, many amusements like pool and billiards, now frowned upon, can be made very desirable simply by improving their environment. Gambling dens, opium joints, low resorts, and like places of vicious surroundings, however, have no worth-while function in our civiliza-

tion and should be wiped out entirely. These latter influences have helped to mar and prostitute many legitimate forms of amusement. A significant point of commercialized play is that people will pay fancy prices to be amused, or for a chance to play. Also, its very extensiveness shows that the playgrounds and other municipal provisions are still inadequate; and that until the demands are met, there will always be undesirable forms of commercial amusement.

SUMMARY

With this general survey of the impetus behind the play movement we are able to suggest the most desirable and feasible means of promoting play activities. There is no question that the public type of promoting play should be greatly enlarged and expanded: every city, village, and rural district should feel the influence of the playground, gymnasium, and social center. School and playground exhibitions should be carefully managed so that undesirable professional practices do not creep in.

The semi-public promotion is also a contribution to community welfare. In one way, through close personal touch because of its smaller groupings, it can accomplish things better than can a public organization. Therefore, encouragement should be given to all agencies of this type, especially so to those which proceed along broad educational, social, hygienic, and cultural, as well as recreational lines. This is apt to be true of nearly all the open cooperative groups. Even the exclusive groups have their uses. Those interested in civic welfare should be kept awake and informed as to the play needs of the particular community, and their valuable backing secured; those clubs carrying on fraternal and social spirit have an invaluable place, especially in dealing with adult leisure, and, in addition, it is possible to get these clubs to participate in the public play programme; and even the exclusive clubs of privilege, in spite of the gulf between their programme and the public one, do give needed recreation to many business and professional men, as well as to give publicity to outdoor life and its sport. Then there is the informal type of play, which cannot be overlooked. The public needs to make its programme so attractive that vicious types of informal play will lose their hold; and it must everlastingly encourage people to seek exercise and recreation.

Lastly, we come to the commercial forms of play. Those that are vicious should be suppressed; those that are of value should be carefully regulated. In the long run, the solution to such problems

as arise from this source will be accomplished by the whole-hearted promotion of public recreation. This point of view is strongly emphasized in the words of Patten in his book "The New Basis of Civilization." "Vice must first be fought by welfare, not by restraint; and society is not safe until today's pleasures are stronger than its temptations. Amusement is stronger than vice and can stifle the lust for it." It is only natural that with the ascendancy of public promotion of wholesome play we shall find that vice will gradually eliminate itself; for play in its fullest sense is much like humanity itself—primarily good and seeking clean expression.

This discussion makes it evident that the public stands inter-related with all other phases of play promotion; also that it carries a definite responsibility towards them. All are needed. An interesting study of recreation made in Cleveland goes to show that the task of taking care of the recreation hours of our population is one to tax every type of agency. The public playgrounds alone could not begin to do so. This study shows that approximately 60 per cent of the hours available for recreation are under the direction of the individual himself—the type of play we have classed as informal; such a condition emphasizes the importance of wise direction of leisure time activities. As regards the remainder of the time—the time spent under the direction of some specific agency—the following facts come to light: the public play centers took care of 43.4 per cent of the away-from-home leisure hours, with emphasis on younger children, however, for they handled 76.5 per cent of the play of the age group five to fifteen, whereas they handled only 20.8 per cent of the age group sixteen to twenty-five and only 12.5 per cent of the group over twenty-five. The semi-public agencies took care of 35.7 per cent of the total hours away from home; in this case, however, the adults were given the greatest attention to the extent of 62.5 per cent as against 17.6 per cent for children under fifteen, and 41.7 per cent for ages sixteen to twenty-five. The commercial agencies handled 20.9 per cent of the problem: ages five to fifteen, 5.9 per cent; ages sixteen to twenty-five, 37.5 per cent and over twenty-five, 25 per cent. An analysis of this shows them catering mostly to our youth—young men and women.

The publicly controlled play programme, even though it can never function so as to take the place of all these various agencies that have been mentioned, must still accept the place of leader. It can direct the future expansion of play and recreation so that the maximum benefit may be forthcoming.

To date, in spite of all the good that the play movement has accomplished it is only a mite compared with the possibilities. The public thinks that it has contributed lavishly; but in this, as in other institutions supported by taxation, the people fall short. This fact is only too evident when it is considered what is paid out each year in the United States for luxuries. There needs to be an awakening concerning our national habits of extravagance in personal forms of amusement. This, the following table of expenditures, as based upon the revenue and sales tax, shows conclusively:

YEAR 1921.

<i>Type of Recreation or Pleasure</i>	<i>Amount Spent</i>
Movies, theaters, music.....	\$1,121,000,000
Automobiles	2,435,700,000
Chewing Gum.....	51,000,000
Candy and soft drinks.....	901,000,000
Tobacco	1,696,600,000
Recreation (Public Expense).....	8,858,716

Some of the facts are startling. We pay almost five times as much for chewing gum as we do for public recreation. For tobacco, we spend 200 times as much. The charge per capita for amusements other than public recreation (the five listed above) is \$58.81; whereas, that of public recreation amounts to 8-3/10 cents. It must be remembered too, that the item of cosmetics for women is not given a place at all in the above list.

The above amusements, while they may be considered as conducive to personal pleasure, still tend to be selfish in nature, and without any real value. The conclusion brought about by the table is that the public recreation movement does not necessarily have to be hampered because of the excuse so often given—lack of funds.

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CHAPTER IV

THE PLAY CENTER

The term "play center" is a broad one. It may be used to include the school ground, park, bathing beach, roof garden, closed street, vacant lot, school building, field house, gymnasium, swimming pool, factory, hospital, church, parish, settlement, library, art museum, home for the delinquent, or many other miscellaneous places that play authorities make use of to promote their work. Two types of play center stand out, however, in connection with organized play. The first of these is the playground as found in connection with our schools and parks. The second is the community play building, in the form of the field house and newer school house. These two types of center taken together offer a programme of widest possible nature, and one that is in service throughout the entire year. A description of their work is therefore sufficient to show in a general way what all the other play centers are doing.

The Administration of Play Centers

The question of proper administration has been a perplexing one ever since the playground movement was inaugurated.

Many cities have maintained playgrounds where the support has come through donations or popular subscription, and in this case the body of people primarily responsible for the interest has continued in control in the form of a Board of Directors usually called a Playground and Recreation Association. The great majority of playgrounds, however, have been supported by public taxes, and in this case there has been no settled policy as to which municipal department should be in control. As a result, several different plans of management have been followed; in most cases the authority has been vested in the School Board, but the Park Board has also been given this responsibility, and of late the idea of a separate Recreation Commission has been growing in favor. Still another plan that has been followed is to divide the authority, by allowing the

schools to operate their own playgrounds, and the Park Boards to control the play in the public parks. The extreme of the divided type of management has come when in the same city there would be found schools, parks, and private agencies conducting playgrounds independently of each other. Each of the above plans has its special adherents, but in general it may be said that no one of them can be effective without a considerable amount of cooperation between the different parties whose properties are being used. Possibly a lack of cooperation in this respect, and the factor of political interference, also, have been the two most serious handicaps that have stood in the way of efficiency in playground administration.

The controversy over which department should control the play activities can only be settled by a careful survey of local conditions. There are certain advantages and drawbacks in each plan, as the following analysis will serve to show.

The School Board

The modern type of school has facilities for both playgrounds and social centers and already conducts a play programme of its own during the school day. There is no other agency that can compare with the school in having close touch with the children and neighborhood conditions. Also, the school is closest to the ideal from the standpoint of location. Through the children, whole families are reached. Superintendents are aware of the educational value of play. Where the schools as a whole have fallen down, the blame may be laid to a limitation of facilities. Very few schools have large enough playgrounds to carry on the team games which attract the older boy or girl and the adult. Then, too, unless a separate staff of teachers is employed for after-school and evening hours, and provision made for the summer months, the school cannot properly function as administrator of the complete play programme that each city should possess. Some one has estimated that only 15 per cent of the population goes to school and that even with this small group most of its play takes place during out-of-school hours. It is safe to say that 80 per cent of all the community play occurs when the school is not in session. Therefore if the school is to handle the community play programme it must be given additional funds, take on a new force of workers, and continue twelve months in session. Gary, Indiana, has managed to consolidate such a scheme under the Board of Education, and it has produced gratifying results. Many other cities,

especially those of smaller population, have enlarged their original facilities, and have been similarly successful.

The Park Board

The Park Board scarcely seems the proper municipal department to handle the playground and recreation problems. It is true that in many cities the Park Boards have attended to this function with considerable success, and they must also be credited with having been a great help in the early days of the playground movement, when the city parks were practically the only spaces available. Even so, however, it seems a misplacement of authority and responsibility to let the Park Boards handle our community play, especially that of the little children. In the first place, such officials have had no training in this type of work, neither from the practical nor the theoretical standpoint. It stands to reason that they would have only a secondary interest in play, and would subordinate it—if not actually discourage it for the reason that spirited youngsters wear out the grass and in many other ways disturb the appearance of the city's beauty spots. Then, too, the Park Board is invariably mixed up with politics, and changes of administration are frequent. Whenever the park administration remains in office by virtue of a platform of economy, the play programme is bound to suffer. In conclusion, it must be repeated that if the Park Boards are to stand as the proper solution of play administration, radical changes will have to be made in the present composition of the park staff and in the parks themselves.

The Playground and Recreation Association

The private Playground and Recreation Associations were a great factor in the early history of the playground movement, when interest had to be stirred up in the different cities by people who were interested in social welfare work. Nearly always these bodies have dropped out of existence as soon as the city has taken over the movement, or have continued in an advisory capacity only. Actual authority then comes only from the distributing of funds that have been raised from private sources. The Playground Associations are organized the same as other organizations that have a Board of Directors. The directors represent other important organizations of the city. Such a board is efficient if the members are really interested in the work. They are not paid and hold this position in an honorary sense rather than from any special ability in recreation work. They

can render a great service, however, in checking up on the work of the staff in charge of the recreation work. Because of the standing and influence of the members in the community, the Playground Association is in a good position to give publicity, secure appropriations, and enlarge the scope of the work. The members are often found acting as volunteer club leaders, chaperones for dances, and in other capacities that help to spread the spirit of neighborliness and social improvement.

The Combination Plan

Many cities have experimented with a combination Park-School plan whereby the schools direct their playgrounds during school hours, then close them up, shifting the responsibility to the park playgrounds. This means also that the Park Board runs the summer playgrounds. The details of dividing authority in this manner vary in different cities. In such a division of control, the parks control community activities in field houses, and schools usually control the use of their buildings for social centers. Such a system carries with it considerable duplication of effort, and involves constant overlapping and friction between the two different departments.

The Recreation Commission

The special Recreation Commission has been devised in an attempt to place all the city resources for play at the command of one trained body. This body then is responsible for all public play other than that which the school supervises for children during its regular day session. The fact that it stands as a board entrusted with this one particular purpose makes the school or the park more willing to recognize other authority and cooperate in carrying out its wishes, than is the case where they have dealt with each other.

Some other advantages that are claimed for this separate governing board are as follows: it gives sole and undivided attention to this one thing whereas other departments are already overloaded with work that belongs to their own respective fields, and can give the recreation problem only secondary attention; it insures specially trained leaders in recreation work; it has a budget of its own, which cannot be diverted to other use, as has happened when other departments have been in control, and have had their budgets reduced, or have been entirely out of sympathy with the needs of the play center; it is interested in giving publicity to the play movement, and by so doing, keeps the public closely in touch with it, and more will-

ing to back it with funds; and, lastly, it makes it possible for responsibility to be placed when things go wrong, and praise to be granted when good work is done.

The members of the commission may be elected in the same manner as the School Board or they may be appointed by the Mayor or City Commission; and may have the same relation toward the Recreation Superintendent and directors as does the School Board toward the School Superintendent and principals. The Recreation Commission plan has proven especially feasible in large cities.

The Functions of a Recreation Commission

The functions of the Recreation Commission may be taken to apply to any of the administrative bodies that have been described.

The functions of a Recreation Commission as outlined by the city of Detroit are:

1. To provide a safe place to play. Over 250 children have been killed by playing in the streets during the past three years in Detroit. (Report of 1922.)
2. To decrease juvenile delinquency and crime. Prominent judges in United States claim that 70 per cent of the delinquent cases could have been prevented, if, during the adolescent period of the boy or girl, a proper place to play or recreate had been provided for them.
3. To build up the health and physique of the people.
4. To break down race prejudice through competition in play.
5. To educate through play and games.
6. To teach citizenship, Americanization, and to assist in the assimilation of the foreigner.
7. To develop a community spirit and civic pride by bringing neighbors together in play.
8. To promote, control, and regulate proper leisure time activities.

The last function brings up much controversy. Some people claim that the Recreation Commission should handle the work of investigating commercialized amusements, such as dance halls, pool rooms, etc. The experience of certain cities along this line has shown that this responsibility is one not to be desired. Even when the commission finds that unwholesome conditions exist, there is no direct means of correcting them except through appeal to the police. Then, too, the problem of vice presents so many angles in connection with health, housing, sanitation, and politics, as well as with recreation, that it should be given special study. The Recreation Commission should proceed on the basis of furnishing wholesome amusement that will counteract the attraction of the vicious type; and this is a field of opportunity that demands undivided attention.

The Functions of a Recreation Superintendent

The preceding paragraph has shown the aims at large that the Recreation Commission strives to accomplish. This commission acts through an administrative officer, the Superintendent or Commissioner. In order to bring about the results that are sought, the Commissioner must handle a programme of practical administrative duties, as follows:

1. He should make a survey of the community and its recreational needs.
2. Select and train a play staff.
3. Outline and conduct a programme of activities.
4. Superintend the purchase, installation, and care of equipment.
5. Superintend the construction of new play centers.
6. Cooperate with other organizations interested in promoting play.
7. Administer office details; i.e., budget, records, salaries, inventories, etc.
8. Keep the public interested in the work that is accomplished. This includes newspaper publicity and news items, talks to civic organizations, etc.

THE PLAYGROUND

The Construction of the Playground

Location

The location of the playground is all important. No matter how well equipped and administered, a playground is limited in usefulness unless it is convenient to the people it is to serve. The ideal location is seldom possible to-day for the reason that our cities are already built up and available land difficult to secure. Because of present conditions it has been found that little children of pre-school age use vacant lots for their play, school children use the available space adjoining the school building, and older children and adults have to journey some distance to the parks, which are the only places large enough to allow the usual competitive type of sport.

In locating play spaces it is of practical value to know the distances that people will go to attend them. Statistics have been gathered to show that the limit of distance individuals will go is as follows: younger children under six, one quarter of a mile (for safety reasons they should not go farther); children from six to twelve years, of grade school age, one half a mile; and older boys and adults, three quarters of a mile and more, according to the permanence of their organization and the intensity of their interest. The effective radius of distance for the community center has been estimated at one half a mile. In general, the distance that people

will go is governed largely by the extent to which the particular community has been educated and interested in play activities.

There are other factors, besides convenience, that should be considered. If possible, the ground should be distant from railroads, street car lines, deep water, dumping grounds, low undrained lands, and any other source of danger to the child's health and safety.

Size

The size of the playground is governed largely by the same provisions that apply to the location; namely, amount of available space and funds, and the particular age group that needs to be accommodated. The amount of space required for each child varies according to different authorities. In England the Committee of Council on Education has set 30 square feet per child as the minimum standard; that is, the number of children in the particular school would be multiplied by 30 in order to get the play space in square feet. In the United States the standard is left to the local authorities, but almost everywhere the tendency has been to demand a higher minimum and to continue to raise it. The difference of opinion ranges all the way from 30 square feet to 300 square feet per person, but the higher estimates make allowance for older people also being present and playing games like baseball and soccer that require a large space. The Playground and Recreation Association quotes the general opinion as being 140 square feet per child (300 to an acre) as "the point of saturation", but suggests that many people use a smaller estimate when only little children under ten years are to be accommodated. A smaller estimate is also sometimes justified on the basis that no more than one half the children will ever be present at one time. As regards the standard for the school, opinion is fairly well settled that each elementary school should occupy a city block, and this usually means an acre of play space for a school of less than 600 pupils. This conforms quite closely to the standard of the playground authorities since only a portion of the children will be using the ground at one time. The Junior and Senior high school standards for the same number of pupils are larger, being two acres or more.

It is seen from the above estimates that are given that the age of the children has much to do with the amount of space required. It goes without saying that a small child does not require as much space for play as an adult, and that directed play requires less space than undirected play. The ideal situation would have numerous

playgrounds of one half an acre generously sprinkled around the city for the small children, for they are unable to go far to play unless accompanied by their parents or older children; and for the older children would have playgrounds of two acres and as much more space as possible, but which would not need to be as numerous. Playgrounds for community purposes should be reasonably accessible, and from four to twenty acres in size.

Divisions

Quite frequently the individual playground is found divided into sections with shade trees or hedges used to denote the boundaries of the smaller units. In some places the idea of two sections is followed out; one for boys over ten years, and the other for girls and little children. The more standard division, however, is the division into three sections (such as is found in the Chicago park playgrounds), which gives over one half of the ground to boys over ten years of age, one quarter to girls over ten, and one quarter to groups of little children under ten. The reason for the older boys having more space proportionately is that their favored activities, team games, demand more room.

It is evident that some division is necessary. Otherwise the little children will be getting in the way of the large players. Again, older boys will need a man director to direct their team sports, whereas the little boys and girls will play together under the guidance of a woman teacher. The three-fold division answers the purpose in a practical way, although some objections are made to it on the ground that the demarcation at the age of ten is not correct from the standpoint of age interests, that instead the children should be separated at the approximate ages of six and twelve. This, however, would divide the playground into too many restricted areas.

On the whole the three-fold division at ten continues to prove satisfactory, since children of both sexes will play together until that age is reached. In one way it has the advantage of allowing plenty of leeway in satisfying age interests, and then the director of each area can usually provide other interests for the children who happen to have older or younger tastes than the average group. A suggestion has been made that another division be added for adults. This seems unnecessary, considering that adult play is mostly in the evening when they should be allowed preference in the use of the grounds.

The smaller types of playground, such as the ordinary school grounds, are rarely found divided and they would lose in value if such a project were attempted. The usefulness of the divisions applies to grounds where space is fairly ample, where two or more teachers are always on hand, and where there are heterogeneous groups of people attending.

Shade and Attractiveness

Utility should not be sacrificed in order to beautify the grounds, but on the other hand the children have the right to enjoy attractive surroundings. To the city child, especially, an aesthetic value arises in having shade trees, vines, plants, flowers, and grassy plots, but they should not be allowed to interfere with the play. There is the chance to place these things at the entrance to the grounds, on the borders, along walks, and close to buildings, and in such a case, most objections to their use will disappear. Vines help beautify the appearance of a fence. When trees follow along the walks, it is practically as economical as regards space to have a double row (one on each side of the walk) instead of one alone, and this is what most cities do in this respect.

However, trees have another important value in addition to beautifying the grounds. In the case of the parks, they attract picnic parties, who often are induced to make active games a part of their outing. In all playgrounds, trees are needed for their shade, especially in the sections where the little children play, such as about the sandbox, swings, and other apparatus, and about the wading pool. They are also needed to shelter the benches where parents sit and watch their children. During the hottest periods of the day, the shaded portions of the playgrounds are the only ones that are kept busy. The trees that are best suited for playground purposes are the hard maples and the elms, for they have a large heavy top and give a dense shade. They have one drawback—they grow very slowly; but this can be overcome by planting alternate quick-growing trees which can be used until the maple and elm trees grow up.

The hedge also can serve a practical purpose. Many cities use the hedge as a fence, especially where it is desired to bound spaces within the playground.

Once the playground is beautified, care must be taken to keep up its appearance. The trees must be protected against injury, both from children and from destroying insects. Of course, in the parks, the park officials would see to the upkeep of the plants and flower

beds, but on the school grounds, the little children are often interested in watering and caring for these things, and under the teacher's direction, they can be taught a sense of appreciation and responsibility in this way.

Fencing

The general opinion favors fencing. The reasons given are several in number. The children are safe from the street traffic; otherwise they are apt to run into the street after a ball or to escape being tagged, and in the excitement of the game, forget the danger. Fencing will make the problem of supervision much easier, because it sets the playground apart from the outer world; by doing this it gives the playground a distinct individuality and makes of it an institution that will cultivate loyalty. Fences make the difference between vacant lots and playgrounds.

Too, the problem of discipline is reduced because people who enter the enclosed space usually intend to play instead of to idle. Undesirables can be kept out—a matter very difficult otherwise. The apparatus and courts are safeguarded, because the grounds can be locked up when the director leaves. Furthermore, the playground, when locked up, cannot be used as a "hanging out" place. Another thing is that at times when the playground is closed, the children are not apt to be found climbing about on the supports of the apparatus and trying dangerous stunts.

It is more essential that the small playground be fenced than the large one. In a sense the large park playground is fenced off by the park areas that usually surround it; and the location is far removed from many of the objections that have been brought up previously. The park, also, is usually well policed. In such a situation, any fence, unless a hedge, would detract from the appearance of the park as a whole. In a sentimental way there is an argument against using a fence on a large area of several acres. Here, there should be no feeling of confinement—nothing that would detract from the idea of space and freedom. The city person who is continually hemmed in and cramped for space finds much of his enjoyment in visiting the park in the sense of repose and freedom that it gives.

Fences should be high enough to keep the balls inside; and so constructed as to deter people from trying to climb over them, and to be strong enough to stand up under the strain they are subjected to when children run into them or use them to lean upon. There are many types of fences which are satisfactory. Steel art fences

are very good, but are expensive. A hedge of evergreen is favored by some authorities, and is a type of fence that is especially well adapted to park uses. Woven wire fences are most commonly used. These have wooden posts at intervals, and may be further strengthened by the addition of a wooden rail at the top and bottom. The wire meshes should be fine enough to keep in the balls that are being used in the games.

Fences near sections where ball games are played should be at least ten feet high. In some places where they are needed as a back-stop for the particular game, it may be necessary to build up additions on top of the regular fence.

Grading

The playground surface must be level, therefore the grading problem must be given consideration. Although technical in nature, a few of the more general points may be touched on here. If the playground is on a low level, it may be advantageous to have the grounds slope gradually to the center; then the drainage can be handled by having small catch basins leading to a larger catch basin at the center of the depression. This type of field can be easily flooded in the winter time for skating. Another type of playground is the one that has the high point in the middle so that the water will run off toward the sides. Still another type, and one that needs considerable grading, is the playground that is found along the side of the hill. Quite often some excavation is necessary before the playing space can be made level. This requires special attention, such as heavy sodding and arrangement of shrubbery on the terraces. The drainage in this case will be in one direction—in the general slope of the hill—and following heavy rains, the water will wash out the ground and leave gullies.

Surfacing

The surfacing problems differ according to the locality and nature of the grounds, and according to the games that are to be played. No one type of surface can meet all needs. A surface to meet all the demands made upon it should be smooth and level, and firm and springy under the feet; should resist wear, not be dusty, and absorb water readily. For general all-around use there is probably no better surface than grass turf, yet this is impossible to maintain where the grounds are being used intensively. Grass does prove practical for folk dancing, kindergarten plays, elementary games, and

for the larger athletic fields. However, spaces that are being used all day long, like the ordinary school ground, or the concentrated areas where popular competitive games like volley ball, Newcomb, tennis, and playground ball are being played, require a more durable surface. Some of the methods of surfacing that have been experimented with most successfully are given below.

The simplest type of surface and one that proves fairly satisfactory is sandy loam, or better yet, the loam mixed with clay. The loam alone is not firm enough; and the clay alone stays muddy after a rain, and during a dry spell bakes too hard and cracks. This mixture is very dusty in dry weather and must be sprinkled frequently. Another surface that is recommended is a mixture of clay, loam, and fine cinders, placed over a subsoil of coarse cinders or gravel. The addition of the cinders aids in consistency and drainage.

The park playgrounds of Chicago have had fairly good success by using "torpedo sand," a fine, round gravel. This is mixed with a sandy clay. The torpedo sand must be renewed from time to time. The subsoil is first prepared by placing cinders, which are made wet and rolled, and on top of this is placed stone which is rolled. This provides good drainage, but the process is too expensive for most places. Other cities, Philadelphia in particular, have experimented extensively with the surfacing problem. The booklet "Lay Out and Equipment of Playgrounds" published by the Playground and Recreation Association gives some of the more detailed and expensive processes.

The surface of gravel, and that of concrete, such as are sometimes found, are very objectionable. The loose gravel makes an unsure footing, and children are tempted to throw the stones. The concrete is not only too hot in the summer but the jar from playing on it tires the legs and makes a strain on the whole nervous system.

During the hottest parts of the summer, some cities find it necessary to treat the playground surfaces so as to hold the dust down. Ordinary sprinkling sometimes suffices but more often an artificial dressing like glutrin or calcium chloride is necessary.

Special surfaces are needed for certain parts of the more elaborate playgrounds. The cinder track and tennis courts are examples. Many cinder tracks are made simply by using fine cinders with loam (approximately three to one). This is placed over a porous surface such as crushed brick, stone, etc., and then watered and tamped. Tennis courts need very careful construction. Clay courts are the best all-around practical ones. They are the most easily con-

structed and the upkeep of them is not great. They are very fast. If sloped properly, the water will not stand on them. Grass, asphalt, and concrete tennis courts also are found, but less frequently. On a playground where there are several courts, it is advisable to have one or two of asphalt or concrete, as these permit tournament games to be played while the other courts are drying off after a rain.

It is well to have sand or sod under the seesaws, at the end of the slides, and under the hanging apparatus from which little children are apt to fall.

When the playground surface is used for skating in the winter time, a good foundation of two to four inches of ice should be built up before people are allowed on it. Then each night a thin layer of water should be put on with a hose. To insure good ice the surface should be swept carefully before sprinkling, and any open cracks filled up with snow.

Lighting

Playgrounds that are large enough to serve the working boys and girls, and the older people of the neighborhood, should be kept open at night, and results go to show that this period is probably the busiest one of the whole day. Parents bring their children with them and the whole family plays. The presence of older people on the grounds helps in the discipline.

Much of this bustle will cease when darkness comes, but there are still many older people who will stay for volley ball, indoor baseball, horseshoe pitching, folk dancing, and other suitable activities if the playground is well lighted. The lighting of the playground is not an expensive proposition, and most cities now provide for it. The lighted playground not only increases attendance but prevents loitering and vandalism after dark. The objections that have been made to opening the playgrounds at night have centered about the point that gangs congregate together and become unruly. This is a problem of supervision. The strong director can make his influence felt in the way of guiding the gang spirit toward very desirable ends.

The Equipment of the Playground

The fully-equipped playground must provide space and apparatus for play, and play materials of all sorts. There must be adequate provisions for the comfort and welfare of the children and parents. The accessories necessary for the general maintenance of

everything pertaining to the playground must be on hand. The size of the ground, money available, and ages of children, and the special neighborhood interests, are all factors that enter in when playground equipment is being planned.

In general the problem of equipment may be discussed under four heads: ground facilities, play apparatus, play supplies, and miscellaneous supplies.

The chart that follows gives a comprehensive list of things that belong to a fully equipped playground. The subject is considered from the standpoint of a large playground. The smaller playground can select the things that it needs the most and can best afford.

Ground facilities

Field house
Shelter house
Toilets
Drinking fountains
Water faucets
Flag pole
Swimming pool
Wading pool
Track and Field athletics
 Running track
 Jumping pits
 Shot pits
Fields for games
 Baseball
 Playground ball
 Soccer or football
 Field hockey
Courts for games
 Tennis
 Volley ball
 Handball
 Basket ball
 Croquet
 Tether ball
 Quoits or horseshoes

Play apparatus

Swings
Sand bin
Giant stride
Horizontal bar
Seesaws
Slides
Teeter ladders
Parallel bars
Traveling rings
Swinging rings
Merry-go-round
Bag swing
Balancing board
Jumping stairs
Sliding pole
Flying Dutchman
Vaulting horses
Junglegym

Play supplies

Balls for games
 Playground ball
 Basket ball
 Volley ball
 Baseball

Miscellaneous supplies

First-aid outfit
Repair kit
Benches
Tools for maintenance
Roller

Play supplies

Football
 Cage ball
 Tennis balls
 Handball
 Hockey (field)
 Water polo
 Tether ball
 Vaulting standards and pole
 Measuring tape
 Quoits
 Horseshoes
 Croquet sets
 Boxing gloves
 Bean bags
 Ring toss
 Target board
 Medicine ball
 Handicraft materials

Miscellaneous supplies

Marker
 Equipment chest
 Awnings
 Attendance blanks
 Prizes
 Cards for tests

Ground Facilities

Field House: The field house is found only on the large park playgrounds. Chicago has erected the most elaborate buildings of this type. Its field houses, however, range so high in cost that they are beyond the means of the ordinary city. Fuller Park Field House cost \$318,000. The Chicago type of field house is equipped with an assembly hall, two gymnasiums (one each for men and women), locker rooms and showers, toilets, four club rooms, a small restaurant, a branch library, and offices for the directors. Information concerning the activities of the field house is given in later sections of this chapter.

Shelter House: Where field houses are not found, some sort of shelter is necessary, not only for the rainy day activities, but to store equipment. The four or five acre park playground is large enough to accommodate a kind of clubhouse and storehouse combined. This may be built in pavilion style: in the lower part the storehouse may occupy the center and the lavatories both ends of the building. The top of this building should then be provided with a railing and either a canvas awning or a permanent roof. This provides a place to gather for stories in case of rain, and when equipped with easy chairs makes a comfortable resting room for either the parents or the play-tired children themselves. When the playground is used for any kind of community celebration or gathering, this building becomes a suitable speaker's platform, or a place for the band to be seated. This building need not be very elaborate but can be inexpensively built, and janitor service can be given by one of the caretakers of the plot.

Swimming Pool: The concrete type is generally found. It is well to segregate the sexes if they are both using the pool at the same time. Separate dressing accommodations must also be provided. Usually a small frame building that is partitioned will answer this purpose.

Every precaution must be taken for the safety of the swimmers. It is not

possible to be too careful. The diving platform should be at the deep end of the pool; and then further to safeguard the divers, the bottom of the pool should have a very gradual rise in the direction away from the dive. The swimming pool should never be open for use unless a director is there for immediate service. The swimming director should also give instructions to those unable to swim and should appoint some of the best swimmers as assistant life guards. The pool must be drained regularly and kept sanitary. In case the playground is on the shores of a river or lake it may be necessary to rope off a safety area of the water and to provide boats and additional guards. The guards should be assigned to different sections of the water and given instructions to keep the children within bounds of the protected area of the river or lake.

Wading Pool: Every child likes to wade and paddle his feet in water—hence the wading pool. It may be any shape but is generally made circular or oblong. The slope should be very slight and to the center, where the depth should not be more than 18 to 24 inches. The pool should be built of concrete, but clean sand is often placed around the edges to give a closer resemblance to the beach. Sometimes a fountain effect is given by having water jet up in the middle of the basin. The pool must be drained frequently and given a good bake in the sun before being filled again.

Play Apparatus

Apparatus has its biggest need on the small playground where space is at a premium and it is desired to accommodate as many individuals as possible. Its appeal too, is primarily to the younger boys and girls, who are most apt to be frequenting the small playground.

There are certain pieces of apparatus that have come to be accepted as standard for all playgrounds, and these should be purchased first. The following represents the popular preference: swings, sandbox, giant stride, horizontal bar, teeters, and slides. All these things hold the interest of the children, and have the least amount of danger connected with their use.

The succeeding paragraphs deal with some of the more common pieces of apparatus. It is not necessary to go into detail as the catalogues of the well-known playground manufacturing companies illustrate and carefully describe all types of apparatus. These companies will also send plans to fit any playground and will offer expert advice in other ways.

Swings: The standard swings are so well known as to need almost no comment. There is danger in their use, but not so much from falling off, as from children being struck while running by. To prevent this, the swinging area should be roped off.

The swings for the little tots should be of the cage or basket kind. In this type the child can be lifted into the basket, which is caged in by straps to prevent falling, and then swung by an older person. These swings are a useful adjunct to any playground, especially so in the tenement districts where young girls come to the playground with babies in their care. This arrangement allows the guardians to be free to play themselves.

Sand bin: The sand bin is a box that can be made any size depending upon the number who are to use it. It may have a bottom, or can be a framework only. If the box is set flush with the ground, the sand will not dry out so

quickly. The sand should be changed quite often to keep it clean and sanitary. Utensils such as spades, pails, etc., are sometimes furnished.

Giant stride: The giant stride is a kind of May-Pole built for rough usage. It may consist of a strong wooden pole, or a hollow pipe of five inches in diameter. This is capped with a hood fitted with ball-bearings so that the top may rotate about the end of the pole. To this hood are fastened several ropes or chains which reach down almost to the ground. The child grasps one of these and with a stride every five feet or so whirls himself about the pole. This strain demands that the pole be securely planted in a base of concrete.

Horizontal bar: The horizontal bar is used by boys. It is not only needed for stunts that they will try of their own accord, but is needed for the chinning event, which is found in practically all efficiency tests.

Seesaws: Seesaws should not be too high from the ground nor describe too great an arc in operation. It is also well to equip them with bumpers so that children will not get their feet and legs crushed under them; and for the small children it is best to put handles on the boards so that there may be something to cling to. Children should be forbidden to stand on the seesaws or to try to operate them alone from the center piece; and they should also be cautioned against jumping off the one end to give the child on the other end of the board a sudden drop and hard bump. A recent type of seesaw has springs in the center which prevent the jar that is so apt to come otherwise.

Slide: The slide of the chute variety is very popular and there is practically no danger connected with it. The child has a staircase to mount, and then there is a straight slide or a wavy slide ahead, depending upon the type of chute. The chute should provide a railing at the top so that the youngsters will not fall off or fall down the slide while they are getting seated. The galvanized finish is to be preferred.

Other types: Of the many other pieces of apparatus that are listed the Merry-Go-Round is as good as any. It entertains a large number of children at the same time. There are many varieties, and the director should choose a type that is safe; also one that does not run too easily, otherwise the children will become seasick.

The Flying Dutchman consists of a horizontal plank fastened in the middle to a post and fitted with ball bearings so that it will revolve easily. Children lie or sit upon the ends of the plank, and are wheeled around by other children until they become sick or dizzy. It is too dangerous for general playground use. Children get caught between the revolving ends of the plank and cannot get out of the way in time.

In general all the more special types of apparatus try to appeal to the natural instincts of the child want to climb, swing, jump, and suspend himself. An excellent combination scheme, including twelve different types of apparatus, is known by the name of Junglegym. It is compact, safe, and allows chance for the children to invent stunts and games upon it.

Play Supplies

The playground does not necessarily furnish all of the supplies. This is especially true of tennis, where the playground rarely furnishes the balls. It is also true in the event that outside organized athletic teams receive permits to use the grounds. Although the custom is not to furnish any of the equipment for

regulation baseball, the playground sometimes furnishes a mask, protector, and mitt for the catcher's use. Balls should be kept inflated and sewed up as soon as a rip appears. They should not be allowed to lie around the playground when they are not being used. Nets and removable apparatus should be taken in at night. The medicine ball is for the use of older people.

Miscellaneous Supplies

A first-aid equipment is absolutely essential, and the director should know how to use it. As a precaution it is advisable to have on hand the names, addresses, and telephone numbers of several physicians in the vicinity.

Benches are provided for the comfort of the parents who want to sit and watch their children play. They should be shaded. Awnings are needed to protect the little children's play where there are no trees to give shade.

The marking of the courts and fields is a tedious task, but the older boys will often help with this. For best results the grounds should be kept well marked, as this adds an incentive to play, helps avoid disputes, and is a criterion of the efficiency of the director.

Activities of the Playground

The bulk of the playground programme of activities consists of the well-known types of organized plays, games, athletics, outdoor sports, and folk dances, as well as the use made of the various pieces of apparatus and of the swimming and wading pools. Since these things are classified and dealt with in other chapters, there is no need here to consider them in more than a general way. Playground activities should be chosen from the constructive standpoint of contributing to the all-around development of the individual. In doing this, it is necessary to make the activities that are to be used correspond with the age and sex groups. There are several different age groupings worked out by people of long experience in playground and school work which have been discussed in another chapter of this book; and the different interests of the two sexes are also reserved for later discussion.

Regular Programme

Although not wholly accurate as far as age and sex interests are concerned, the three-period division of the playground that has been previously described, can be used as a basis for illustrating in general the play activities that are most found. The section for older boys provides for sports like baseball, playground ball, volley ball, tennis, basket ball, and track and field. The section for older girls is mainly devoted to newcomb ball, tennis, playground ball, modified track and

field, relay games, field hockey, captain ball, long ball, and folk dancing. The mixed group of younger boys and girls play Soldier Boy, London Bridge, Farmer in the Dell, Jolly is the Miller, and numerous other plays imitative and dramatic in nature, with or without singing; but tend, as they approach the age of ten to separate somewhat, and to play group games of simple organization like Cat and Mouse, Three Deep, Duck on the Rock, Dodge Ball, Pom Pom Pull Away, Circle Ball, Snatch Tag, and Two Old Cat, all of which are found in infinite varieties. Such games as croquet, handball, and tennis will be used not only by the older boys and girls but by adults who come in the evening. A swimming pool, if available, will be used by all groups.

Occasional Programme

There are many activities of play nature which are not used all through the day on the playground, or possibly may come only on occasional days. Such activities are interspersed and serve to lend some variety. Included in this group are story-telling, handicraft, nature-study, gardening, community singing, movies, band concerts, novelty stunts, and practice for special events that are planned. Along this line there is also an additional programme if the playground affiliates with related play movements such as the Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, and the summer camp.

Special Events

These events are definitely scheduled ahead of time, with the purpose of arousing interest and bringing out a lot of participants and spectators. An event of this type may occur only once during a season, but it is the means of arousing intense interest in the particular activity. Included in this group are field days, pageants, aquatic days, holiday celebrations, festivals, winter carnivals, exhibitions of work, picnics, excursions, special hikes, kite days, marble days, scootmobile days, block parties, and any number of others.

Summary of Activities

The previous material, without any attempt at a classification of play activity, has served to give a general idea of the ways in which the playground is used—also the abundance of play material the director has at his disposal. In the way of summary it may be well to quote from the application blank of the Playground and Recrea-

tion Association. Prospective workers are questioned as to their experience in the following activities:

Athletics	Dramatics	Pageantry
Boy Scouts	Folk Dancing	Physical Training
Camp Fire Girls	Games	Sewing
Children's Gardens	Girl Scouts	Story Telling
Clubs, Adults	Gymnasium	Summer Camps
Clubs, Children	Industrial Work	Swimming
Community Singing	Orchestra	

Attendance

Attendance blanks are found on all playgrounds. Statistics are needed to show the relative increase or decrease of playground interest in a city as a whole, and in particular localities. Many methods of compiling statistics are followed. Most cities count morning, afternoon, and evening attendance separately. They keep the attendance of the swimming pool and field house separate from that of the playground; also count the sexes separately; and keep attendance of the various rooms of the field house separately. It is impossible to devise any practical method of keeping accurate attendance records; and for this reason the general custom is to make an approximate estimate. Some cities count the attendance at the busiest time of each session, and then add one half to it to obtain their estimate for that session. It is difficult to compare different cities because the methods of keeping attendance vary so widely. Often the attendance becomes affected by unforeseen factors like a long hot spell, or rainy weather, over which the director has no control.

Play Activities in Winter

Until recent years, there was a tendency to go indoors when the winter season came around; but of late a great boom in outdoor winter sports, of recreational as well as competitive nature, has taken place. There is an exhilaration that comes from outdoor exercise in winter time that cannot be equaled in any other season. Skating, skiing, and tobogganing are three forms of activity enjoyed by youngsters and older people alike. Sleigh riding, once so popular, is less frequently found since the automobile has become so common. Younger children can hardly wait for the first snow fall, in order that they may get out their sleds and coast down hills. Older people enjoy snowshoeing and will form snowshoe clubs that include other

social festivities. Competition for the older enthusiasts can be found in skating and ice-boat racing, in ski-jumping, and in games like hockey and curling. Winter carnivals can include skating races, fancy skating, novelty races of obstacle and dog-cart order, and exhibition games. Schoolboys and girls find further enjoyment in snow games (battles, bombardment, dodge ball, etc.) and in the making of snow figures.

In the northern localities, the playground offers a good location for the carrying on of the winter programme, and can be the center of many healthy activities. Its situation is apt to be convenient, and the surface is level enough so that it can be flooded for skating. This popular sport can then be enjoyed with safety, for there is always danger in skating on lakes or rivers.

Good coasting is largely dependent upon the presence of hills about the city, although in communities where there are few hills or none, we find young folks hitching bobsleds to automobiles. Any type of coasting is dangerous if traffic is around, but under safe conditions, good fun is afforded. Where the city streets are used for coasting, the playground authorities should see that particular places are closed to traffic at certain times of the day; and further, that coasting is restricted to these places. The sport can be furnished little tots by making a small artificial slide on the playground itself.

The reader who is interested in a more detailed description of some of the winter activities is referred to books in the bibliography which deal with this particular subject.

THE SCHOOL BUILDING AS A PLAY CENTER

The play field has been described fully because it is an institution of its own and is devoted solely to a play purpose. However, play must also be carried on indoors. The tendency in such a case, except where special field houses and recreation buildings have been erected, is to make use of an indoor plant that is already in existence, or to adapt a new building so that it can be used for play. The new type of school is planned to take care of this new use.

Ordinary Play Use of the School

The school building as a play center differs from the playground in several respects: first, play is only a part of a wide curriculum; second, play is compulsory as well as voluntary; third, the play is regu-

lated on a time basis, each group getting an allotted share; fourth, the required play lessons are definitely arranged in progression, and the physical fitness of each child is much more carefully looked after; and fifth, the individual may receive school credit for engaging in play in addition to the enjoyment he finds in it.

The activities of the school programme are somewhat modified from the ones that have been mentioned for outdoor use. Only games suited for small spaces can be used. This means that calisthenics and other forms of gymnastics assume more importance than they do outdoors. When the programme omits plays and games entirely then it is called "formalized." Much true play is inevitable, however: all the activities of the kindergarten, for instance, and the recess games of the grade pupils, the plays and games that are found in the required (physical education) lessons, the athletic practice that takes place in the gymnasium after school, and the recreational activities that the older people indulge in when they come to the school in the evening, are of play nature. In another sense, there is a broader scope furnished the play spirit in the school, even though there are fewer plays and games that can be used; for instance, many of the school lessons are enjoyed, especially where the school curriculum is of the newer social and vocational type.

Certain facilities are needed to conduct the indoor playground. Of course the kindergarten room is a playroom. Then, too, the class rooms and the corridors are often used for active games; and when there is a community project the auditorium and library may also be classed as play centers. But in the strict sense, the gymnasium and the swimming pool are the centers of the play activities. The average school gymnasium should be at least 60 by 80 feet, and preferably even larger. A folding partition enables this space to be divided in case it is necessary to conduct boys' and girls' classes at the same time. The height of the playing space should be at least 20 feet. The gymnasium should possess a certain amount of play material and equipment, as follows:

Light Apparatus—Dumb bells, Indian clubs, wands. (Number will depend on size of class. Dumb bells one pound each. Indian clubs one and one-half pounds.)

Heavy Apparatus—Parallel bars, horizontal bars, horse, buck, ladders, ropes, traveling rings. (All attached apparatus should be removable.)

Game Material—Basket ball, volley ball, indoor baseball, medicine ball, boxing gloves. Courts should be marked off for basket ball, volley ball, indoor baseball, and handball.

Athletics—Jumping standards, vaulting pole, starting rack, shot (leather covered).

Additional Material—Balance beams, spring board, take-off board, rubber mat for jumping, 4 mats 5 feet by 10 feet by 2 inches thick, 6 mats 5 feet by 5 feet by 2 inches thick. Platform for instructor, weighing scales with measuring rods, first-aid outfit.

Certain authorities have set a standard of one gymnasium of the above size for a school containing 600 pupils or less. There are many plans for the location of the gymnasium. The best place is toward the rear of the building and above the level of the ground. This gives good light and ventilation and easy access to the playground; also makes less noise as far as the classrooms are concerned, and allows the basement to be utilized for dressing rooms. The gymnasium should be supplemented by shower baths and dressing rooms with lockers. The construction of the gymnasium and its accessory facilities is an engineering problem. However, there is much material on this particular subject that is easily available. The reader who desires to make a technical study of gymnasium construction is referred to a number of excellent articles in the reference list at the close of the chapter, also to the manuals issued on request by such companies as the Narragansett Machine Company and Medart Manufacturing Company.

The indoor swimming pool is usually smaller than the one found on the playground. The average size is 24 by 60 feet, with the depth averaging 3 feet 6 inches to 8 feet. The water in the swimming pool must be kept hygienic by approved methods. The pool should never be left in use without an attendant in charge.

Wider Play Use of the School: The Community Center

In recent years there has been a marked tendency towards opening the school in the evening for general community use. This new movement reverts back in spirit to the old New England town gathering; and, coming closer to the present day, to the gathering at the old rural school house. The present idea is to revive the neighborhood spirit, which because of diverging interests and ease of communication has almost entirely disappeared, and also to bring about community betterment in every way possible. It has long been felt by educational and social workers that the school's sphere of influence should extend beyond that of teaching children—that adults

need to be reached as well. New York, as early as 1888 permitted the use of the school for public lectures, and afterwards extended this privilege to cover evening recreation. The real awakening, however, came in 1907, when the city of Rochester, New York, gave an appropriation of \$5,000 to its Board of Education to carry on social extension work. At the same time, it chose a supervisor, E. J. Ward, to promote this new work. It was his decision to depart from the field house idea which Chicago had made so popular at this time, and instead to convert the school building into a community building, not only for social and recreational purposes, but for civic as well, that started the movement for the school social center. Mr. Ward explains his conception of the social center idea as follows:

"The social center was not to take the place of any existing institution; it was not to be a charitable medium for the service particularly of the poor; it was not to be a new kind of evening school; it was not to take the place of any church or other institution of moral uplift; it was not to serve simply as an 'improvement association' by which the people of one community should seek only the welfare of their district; it was not to be a 'civic reform' organization, pledged to some change in city, or state, or national administration; it was just to be the restoration to its true place in social life of that most American of all institutions, the Public School Center, in order that through this extended use of the school building, might be developed, in the midst of our complex life, the community interest, the neighborly spirit, the democracy that we knew before we came to the city."

Other cities focused their attention on the experiment of Rochester, and the idea of the economy of using buildings already available, rather than providing expensive "field houses," found a strong appeal. Other cities, particularly Milwaukee and Pittsburgh, followed suit, and New York City elaborated on its original plan. The "social center" idea was even carried to England, through the influence of Mrs. Humphry Ward. The N. E. A. in 1911 approved this new use of the school. A number of cities, outstanding among them the city of Gary, Indiana, planned their new school houses so that they combined playground and field house facilities together with those of the school house in its old sense. The new changes meant a new type of school architecture, giving prominence to the auditorium, gymnasium, and swimming pool, and including sound-proof walls and floors, movable seats, and spacious corridors.

The rapid spread of the movement was still further increased during the World War when the school became the center for many campaigns and other needed activities. The Community Service organization helped to carry this spirit of service and comradeship over into peace time.

The increased use of the school building has tended to give Boards of Education a closer insight and sympathy as regards play; for, being responsible for its promotion, they began to study its relation to the educational and social needs of modern life. One result has been to include many activities in the school curriculum that formerly were considered as belonging to the province of the playground only; for instance, story-telling, manual arts, music, dramatics, gardening, and plays and games. This new attitude on the part of the school authorities has had its influence on the teachers, many of whom now take a training in play at the normal schools and universities. Finally, the result has been to bring about a new public sentiment towards the school and towards play. The boys and girls like to go to school as never before, and their parents catch the enthusiasm that they bring home with them. The average citizen today is proud of the new school buildings that he has helped to build through his vote, and his pride in them is largely due to the sense of sharing in the activities. The school plant, under these circumstances, becomes the dwelling place for a large community family.

Activities of the Community Center

The community center brings the people of the neighborhood together by means of successfully promoted activities. These activities must satisfy the interests of boys and girls, young men and women, and adults. Furthermore, in addition to being recreational in nature, they should have educational and cultural value. The range of activities is necessarily wide, for all individuals will not be attracted by the same thing. Some will come for the chance for fellowship; others will come to enjoy alone some favored occupation.

Many classifications have been made of the great round of activities which is carried on in the community center. For the general purpose of acquainting the reader with the material, a division into the four departments of *recreational*, *social*, *educational*, and *civic*, answers the purpose.

The *recreational* group consists of the active physical exercises and games that are found in the gymnasium, such as individual practice on apparatus, calisthenics, gymnastic competitions, games like

volley ball, indoor baseball, basket ball, and handball, and folk dancing; of swimming, which is always popular; of bowling, if alleys are available; of games of skill, like pool and billiards; and of mental contest games, like checkers, dominoes, chess, and cards—the so-called “Quiet room” activities. A prejudice often exists against games like bowling, billiards, and pool because of the surroundings that they are so often associated with; but these amusements in themselves are very scientific and fascinating and can be made a wholesome influence when properly conducted.

The *social* group includes so many things that it is easy to see why the school has become so widely termed a “social center.” Everything that partakes of the nature of comradeship and hospitality is assigned to this group. The social activities overlap the other divisions because they may have value of recreational, educational, and civic nature as well as purely social. The following list gives an idea of the more popular social features: dancing, motion pictures, “mixer” games, socials, banquets, boys’ and girls’ clubs, adults’ clubs, community singing, costume parties, spelling bees, and stunt nights.

Great care must be exercised in promoting social dancing. In some communities there is hostility to dancing of any sort, and this must be gradually overcome; when social dances are held, they should be under the auspices of some particular group or unit that is affiliated with the social center, rather than to allow general public admission. Careful chaperonage is also of prime importance, and it is a good thing to have the fathers and mothers of the young people present whenever possible. The success of game-evenings is largely dependent upon a capable leader who can through the force of his own personality make the people forget the self-consciousness that is apt to possess them at first. The group singing is a good thing to start off the programme, for it arouses a friendly spirit. In the case of the moving picture shows, also, an exceptionally high standard should be maintained, only the very best Educational, Scenic, Historical, Dramatic, and Comedy films being selected. The movies are the most popular form of entertainment in the United States at the present time, and when utilized as they should be, have a great educational, as well as recreational significance.

The *educational* group also overlaps in the sense that it is possible for its activities to be recreational and social at the same time. Advantages of this nature are given in the way of lectures, branch libraries, reading rooms, exhibits (art, museum, welfare),

dramatics, music (vocal and instrumental), debating, festivals, pageants, story-telling, handicraft, clinics, and information bureaus. These activities furnish the chance for many to develop their skill, and, in addition, the talent thus developed gives the opportunity to put on exhibitions that will attract a large audience. Dramatics and music particularly possess this double value. In the strictly educational sense, classes can be offered in mechanical drawing, English, history, manual training, domestic arts, millinery, art work, etc. In choosing lectures it is well to have a prominent speaker occasionally, but this is not necessary. Local business and professional men can be called upon to talk on their own particular type of work, and this proves instructive as well as interesting. Girls appreciate instruction in etiquette and how to act the hostess. Music and dramatics have come to serve an important place in the play programme. Interest can be helped along by giving frequent short entertainments, and finally combining the best talent into an annual affair. Another good plan that some cities use is to follow the exchange idea, having the trained groups of one center visit other centers.

The last group, the *civic* activities, includes Americanization classes for foreigners, the public forum, patriotic exercises, lectures on current events, parent-teacher associations, neighborhood service associations, civic improvement societies, campaigns of welfare nature, Red Cross, etc.

Division According to Group Interests

The groups that attend the community center can be roughly divided under the heads of parents, young men and women, and younger boys and girls. This answers well in a practical way. The following outline shows how the different activities appeal to the several groups:

All Groups: Public Affairs, Entertainments, Socials, Parties, Lectures, Exhibits, Musicales and Motion Pictures. *Parents and Older People*: Parent-Teacher organizations, Parents Council, Mothers Clubs, Civic Clubs, Reading Circles, "Mixer" Games (occasionally), Games of skill (Men), Clinics, and Welfare Leagues. *Young People (Mixed)*: Socials, Parties, Dances. Choral Societies, Dramatics, and Literary Circles. *Young Men* (And in some cases older men too): Civic Clubs, Debating, Current Events, Glee Clubs or other Musical Organizations, Games, Gymnastics, Swimming, Athletic Clubs, Social and Pleasure Clubs, Dramatics, Minstrels. *Young Women*: Recreation Classes (Gymnastics, Folk Dancing, Basket Ball, Swimming), Social Clubs, Sewing Circles, Choral Work, Reading Clubs, Dramatics. *Younger Girls Clubs*: Many of the activities mentioned for Young Women, only changed so as to be better adapted to the younger age; Camp Fire Girls of America, Girl Scouts, Audubon Societies, Quiet Games. *Boys Clubs*: Boy Scouts, Dramatics, Athletics, Choral Work, Handicraft, and Games of all

types. (Adults should have first privilege of all recreation facilities in the evening.)

Location of Activities

The whole building can be utilized for certain occasions like exhibits and carnivals. Of the separate rooms, the auditorium, gymnasium, and kindergarten have the most varied use: the first named because size and seating facilities make it fitted for lectures and all sorts of exhibitions and entertainments where the general public is invited; and the other two because of the fact that they are fairly large and also can have their space cleared or filled with chairs according to the nature of the occasion. This adaptability makes the gymnasium or kindergarten serve for active games or dances at one time, and for lectures, club meetings, and social mixers at another time. The class rooms are generally reserved for meetings of special groups of limited size, like parent-teacher associations, reading circles, boys' and girls' club organizations, educational classes, etc.

The corridors also are brought into use frequently, for dances, exhibits, information bureaus, and active games. The library serves as a reading room, as a place to obtain books, and often for exhibits and general information. The dispensary is used for clinics, health demonstrations, and first-aid classes. The lunch room, manual training room, domestic science room, and swimming pool are each limited to its special field of usefulness.

Efficiency Needed in Administration

In its actual working out the community center (often called "social center" or "neighborhood center") has fallen behind the playground in efficiency. The early experience of the playground, proving the need of effective leadership and organization, is being repeated in the community center. Because of the varied nature of the activities involved, and of the wide variance in ages, interests, and stations of the people attending, a big problem is presented.

The problem of the choice and extent of leadership for the community center has not been properly worked out. It cannot be expected, as was once thought, that numerous neighborhood units can be entrusted with the control of the school building and run the programme themselves. A central authority is needed, to organize and expand the group activities, to unify the various groups and their activities, and to bear the responsibility for the care of the school equipment. The tendency has been to put the principal of the building in charge of the evening work, but this official has not always given the needed enthusiasm to it. Besides, few principals have made themselves fully acquainted with the movement; and their attitude has inclined to be the passive one of simply permitting the building to be used for neighborhood gatherings, and seeing that the

school property is not damaged. The spirit of the aggressive recreation or social worker is needed; the type of spirit that actively promotes and keeps enthusiasm in the groups that already have leaders, that finds leaders for groups that have none, that organizes groups where there are none, and that finally welds these various groups and their activities into a larger community organization.

When the control of the school building is turned over to other than school authorities in the evening, misunderstandings are apt to arise over the question of discipline and care of school property. Much of the disfavor which certain school officials display toward the new use of their buildings is centered about this one point. The recreation authorities have frequently depended on volunteer help to run the programme, or have hired inferior helpers who have shirked the responsibilities and been late or absent entirely, thus leaving groups to take possession of the school without a directing influence over them. Complaints quickly arise when such a condition comes about, and the movement, most worthy in itself, suffers.

Another thing that brings the movement into disfavor is the use of the gymnasium by teams of professional nature, who charge admission for their games. The idea of general participation should be fostered rather than that of spectacular displays by a few. Still another danger arises when the use of the auditorium or club rooms is granted to radical societies or for partisan discussions of politics or religion. Rochester, the city that started the social center idea so auspiciously, found to its sorrow that free speech could not be permitted to any great extent.

The community center must face the problem of providing capable instructors and supervisors. The people who teach all through the day cannot give their best work when serving continuously at night also. There is not so much difficulty in the way of night school educational classes, for here the instruction is more or less individual, or at least no group spirit needs to be aroused. But in the recreational and social work the leader must kindle an enthusiasm which will pervade the group as a group.

The problem of teachers for the evening community center can best be solved by having a schedule that will allow a staff to go on duty in the afternoon and carry over into the evening. This plan is followed in many playground systems where the grounds are opened at night. A small number of the instructors will work in the morning and afternoon, while others will start their shift in the afternoon and come back in the evening. In the case of the school, some of the

play leaders could serve in the same manner, directing the after-school play leagues, and supervising the social programme in the evening. In such a case it would be well to have the day time school principal or assistant principal supervise night school classes of strictly educational nature, but the play leader could act as assistant *night* principal and handle the remainder of the programme. He could find additional help for special work like music, dramatics, debating, etc., by an arrangement with the respective day school teachers, who then, however, should be relieved of some of their other work. Besides teachers, there will be needed an efficient janitor service, and considerable volunteer help in the way of chaperones for dances, and group leaders for parties, discussions, etc. The play leader can head up the work of all these other helpers. The important thing to be emphasized is that the school cannot convert itself into a great play center also unless the original facilities are greatly expanded, and this necessarily means a greater outlay of money. If the community center project cannot be done right, it should not be tried at all. The whole idea is no better than its actual results in practice.

School House vs. Field House

The equipment of both these places as play centers has already been shown. Both have had practically the same purpose in mind; namely, to provide opportunity for indoor activity, both for young and old, to serve the whole community, both day and night, and to provide a continuous scheme of activities that will operate both winter and summer. There are some differences between these two institutions, however, when both are in full operation. The school house is busy from early morning to its close at night, while the field house provides for out-of-school play, and therefore is busiest in the late afternoon, in the evening, and on Saturdays. The field house has nothing compulsory, while most of the day programme of the school is of that nature. In the way of activities the field house places primary importance on recreational activities, while the school similarly features the educational. In their use as a play center both emphasize social and civic activities approximately to the same extent. The field house has had better administration and better workers for its evening programme than the school evening center.

No objection can be made to the field house as a play center other than that of cost. However, all cities have not been able to get the magnanimous response that Chicago, for instance, has had in the way of backing for its play programme. The general opinion over

the country has swayed to the idea of avoiding duplication in expense, and therefore favors planning the school structure so that it can take care of the double use, all the more so since the school building is already open in the evening for night school classes. The fact that the school building is apt to be centrally located is another point in its favor.

Conclusion: The Complete Play Center in Operation

The programmes of the playground and community play building, when combined together, make an attractive offering. There is no better way of explaining the working of a programme that is planned in this way, than to refer to one that is already in existence and which is as elaborate and well conducted as any that can be found. This is the schedule of activities of the splendid South Park playgrounds of Chicago. Here the playground and field house are the two types of play center that are present together, and which combine to function as one. This programme is taken from the Annual Playground Report of 1921.

Month	Events Required of All Park Centers		Events Suggested and Optional, Promoted Locally
	Promoted Through the Department Office	Promoted by Local Park Staff	
JANUARY	<i>Inter-Park Competition:</i> Basket ball: 85%, 95%, 105%, 115%, 125%, 135%, and Unlimited Divisions Women's Volley Ball: "A" and "B", Limited and Unlimited Divisions Grammar Schools Basket ball Inter-Park Skating Meet	Winter Carnival: Snow Sports Sled Races Snowball Target Shooting Out-of-Doors Day Skating Preliminaries Snowman Contests	New Year's Celebration. Fathers and Sons Day Mothers and Daughters Day Pleasant Sunday Afternoons Lecture Courses Movies Thrift Week Amateur Night Forum Community Nights Model Iceboat Races American Legion Competition Spelling Bee Coasting Contests
FEBRUARY	<i>Inter-Park Competition:</i> Basket ball, Con't. Volley Ball, Con't. Business Men's Volley Ball Indoor Baseball Volley Ball: Boys, Junior and Senior A. A. F. Tournaments Schools Basket ball, Con't. Model Iceboat Races	Valentine Making and Party Holiday Celebrations: Lincoln's Birthday Washington's Birthday	Gym Stunt Night Soap Bubble Party Social Games Evening Pleasant Sunday Afternoons Community Nights Movies Burlesque Track Meet Forum American Legion Competition Lecture Courses Building Block Contests Clay Modeling Contests
MARCH	<i>Inter-Park Competition:</i> Wrestling Tournament Girls' Volley Ball, Con't. Basket ball, Con't.	Gymnasium Exhibitions Wrestling Preliminaries	Table Tennis Tournament Indoor Quoits Tournament Sewing and Fancy Work Exhibit St. Patrick's Day Programme

THE THEORY OF ORGANIZED PLAY

Month	Events Required of All Park Centers		Events Suggested and Optional, Promoted Locally
	Promoted Through the Department Office	Promoted by Local Park Staff	
MARCH	Business Men's Volley Ball, Con't. Schools Basket ball, Con't. A. A. F. Tournaments A. A. U. Tournaments Indoor Pentathlon Paper Flower Show Gymnastic Meet, Boys Girls' Indoor Track Meet Indoor Track: Men, Junior and Senior Girls' Gymnastic Meet	Marbles Tournament Indoor Pentathlon (Preliminaries)	Pleasant Sunday Afternoons Social Games Evening Community Nights Table Games Tournaments Old Timers Day Community Concerts Community Dramatics Children's Concerts Basketry Exhibit Whistle Making Contest Burlesque Orchestra Contests Observation Contests
APRIL	<i>Inter-Park Competition:</i> Roller Skate Tournament Skipmobile Tournament Kiddie Car Races Boys Volley Ball Tournament, Con't. Seniors Volley Ball Tournament, Con't. Business Men's Volley Ball, Con't. Girls' Volley Ball, Con't. A. A. F. Tournaments: Basket ball, Con't. A. A. F. Girls Volley Ball	Gymnasium Exhibitions, Con't. Indoor Track Preliminaries Roller Skate Preliminaries Skipmobile Preliminaries Doll Day, Competitive Carriage Parade Dressmaking Exhibit Doll House Exhibit Paper Doll Exhibit Doll Baby Show Doll House Furnishings Doll Drama, etc. Clothespin Doll Dressmaking Contest	Folk Dance Contests Roller Skate Hockey Minstrel Show Clean-Up Week City Beautiful Week Home Gardens Week Children's Concerts Community Dramatics Community Concerts Art Clubs Exhibit Mock Trial Bird Day Programme Arbor Day Programme Child Hygiene Institute Home Recreation Institute Caroms Tournament Easter Egg Rolling Contests Community Photography Exhibit
MAY	Baseball Tournament Grammar Schools, Public and Parochial Kite Tournament Marbles Tournament Croquet Tournament Doll House Exhibition Folk Dance Contest	Preliminary Kite Tournament Annual Exhibitions, Con't. May-Basket Exhibit	Community Orchestra Concerts Mothers Day Programme Top Spinning Tournament May Day Celebrations Boys' Week Programs Children's Chorus Festival Safety First Day Community Hike Memorial Day Celebration Blow Gun Contests Model Windmill Contests Roque Tournament Community Hare and Hound Race
JUNE	Baseball Tournament, Continued City Play Festival South Park Play Festival Summer Instructors Institute Volunteer Leaders Institute	Community Play Festivals Jackstones Tournament Mumble-the-peg Tournament Flower and Leaf Collection Contests Doll Drama Contests	Music Festival Flag Day Celebration Band Concerts Community Sings Community Pageants Outdoor Community Nights Community Chorus Festival Twilight Athletic Leagues Summer Foods Institute Summer Camps Institute Community Baby Show Fly Casting Contests Penmanship Contests
JULY	Playground Baseball: 85#, 95#, 105#, 115#, 125#, 140# Divisions Jackstones Tournament O'Leary Tournament Mumble-the-peg Tournament Horseshoe Tournament, Juniors and Seniors Bicycle Road Race, Juniors and Seniors Badge Tests: Boys and Girls	Playground Ball Preliminaries Horseshoe Preliminaries Bicycle Preliminaries: Pet Show Aquatic Stunt Day Paper Work Contests: Tearing, Cut-Outs, Folding, Weaving, etc. Story-Acting Contest Sand Bungalow Contest Sand Camp Lay-Out Contest	Sane Fourth Celebration Naturalization Days Outdoor Community Dance Quoits Tournament Outdoor Community Nights Twilight Leagues American Legion Field Day Community Motor Trip Band Concerts Life Saving Institute Community Sings Archery Tournament Puzzle Solving Contest

THE PLAY CENTER

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Month	Events Required of All Park Centers		Events Suggested and Optional, Promoted Locally
	Promoted Through the Department Office	Promoted by Local Park Staff	
AUGUST	Badge Tests, Con't. Tennis Tournament, Junior and Senior, Men, Women, and Mixed Doubles Sailboat Regatta Aquatics Day Outdoor Track, 105% and Unlimited Playground Baseball, Continued Point Track and Field Meet Girls Playground Ball, Limited and Unlimited Swimming, Limited and Unlimited, and Girls	Sand Court Contests Modeling, Story Dramatizing, etc. Sailboat Preliminaries Aquatics Preliminaries Tennis Preliminaries Point Meet Preliminaries Sand Modeling Exhibit Paper Cut-Out Contests	Doll Dressmaking Exhibit Outdoor Community Dance Twilight Leagues Home Gardens Contests Outdoor Community Nights Outdoor Drama Band Concerts Community Songs Knot-tying Contests Signaling Contests First Aid Contests Fire Making Contests Wall Scaling Contests Potato Carving Contests Progressive Luncheon Picnic Learn-to-Swim Week
SEPTEMBER	Playground Dept. Picnic Girls Field Day Summer Sports Finals Bonfire and Basket Lunch Lantern Parade Checker Tournament Grammar School Soccer South Park Soccer Chess Tournament Balloon Race Walking Race Pyramid Building Meet Stilt Races Girls Soccer	Checker Preliminaries Athletic Stunt Night Junior Exhibition Handicrafts Exhibit: Kites, Wind Mills, Gliders, Beads, Laces, Embroidery, Doll Houses, Furniture, Dressmaking, Paper Flowers, Sand Table, Lanterns, Basketry, etc. Better Health Week Hygiene, Dietetics Exercise, etc. Model Motor Boat Races	Community Amateur Circus Home Grown Flower Show Labor Day Celebration Community Hike Community Picnic Community Pageants Collections Exhibit Handicraft Contests: Sand Engines Motor Toys Wind Mills Bird Houses, etc. Bowling Tournament Canning and Preserving Institute Indian Day Celebration Cross Country Run Vocational Guidance Institute Rope Skipping Contests Field Hockey Tournament
OCTOBER	<i>Inter-Park Competition:</i> Soccer, Continued Pushmobile Tournament Tricycle Races Grammar School Soccer—Boys Grammar School Volley Ball—Girls Tug-of-War Paper Doll Show	Pushmobile Preliminaries Halloween Parade: Novel, Amusing and Artistic Costumes	Community Bicycle Trip Roosevelt Anniversary Home Gardens Exhibit Home Arts Exhibit Community Nights Hoop Rolling Tournament Pleasant Sunday Afternoon Nutrition and Dietetics Courses Forum Movies Home Nursing Course Columbus Day Celebration Citizenship Week Dog and Cart Races Candy Making Contests Cake Making Contest
NOVEMBER	<i>Inter-Park Competition:</i> Soccer, Continued <i>Schools:</i> Girls Volley Ball, Con't. Boys Soccer, Con't. Cross Country Race Model Motor Boat Races Model Airplane Races	"Come and See" Day Armistice Day Celebrations Toy Making Contests	Home Decoration Institute Model Glider Tournament Model Airplane Tournament Story Telling Contests Amateur Nights Pleasant Sunday Afternoons Community Nights Home Nursing Course Nutrition and Dietetics Course Forum Movies Thanksgiving Day Celebration Lecture Courses Mock County Fair Paper Poster Exhibition

Month	Events Required of All Park Centers		Events Suggested and Optional, Promoted Locally
	Promoted Through the Department Office	Promoted by Local Park Staff	
DECEMBER	<i>Schools:</i> Girls Volley Ball, Con't. Boys Soccer, Con't. Spelling Match	Christmas Celebrations Community Tree Community Caroling, etc.	Winter Foods Institute Declamation Contests Debating Contests Loan Art Exhibit Pleasant Sunday Afternoons Community Nights Movies Forum Lecture Courses Community Good Fellows Curling Tournament Ice Hockey Tournament

Such a programme as has just been shown is useful not only in showing how the outdoor and indoor work can be correlated, but also in giving an idea of the immense choice there is in the way of furnishing activities; further, the adaptation to seasonal use offers practical help to the playground worker.

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CHAPTER V

BOYS' AND GIRLS' CLUBS

Almost within the last decade there has sprung up a number of organizations devoted exclusively to the welfare of our younger boys and girls, such as the Boy Scouts, Junior Y. M. C. A., Woodcraft Boys, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Junior Y. W. C. A., Junior Red Cross, Garden Associations, and Audubon Societies. The work of these organizations is brought to our attention constantly and in almost every conceivable way. It is well for the purpose of our study that the Boy Scout movement be chosen as representative of all the boys' movements that have been mentioned. In the first place, the Scout movement is the largest; it is also universal, making no limitation because of race or creed; and again the range of activities is as complete as any. Therefore, the Scout movement will be explained in detail. While the Boy Scouts lead far in advance of all the boys' movements as regards size and prestige, the same situation is not found when we look at the organizations dealing with girls. Here there are two competing organizations that rival each other in membership and attainment, The Camp Fire Girls and the Girl Scouts, so that each will need to be considered.

BOY SCOUTS

The Nature of the Boy Scout Movement

The Boy Scout movement is primarily an educational one. The title of this chapter, listing the Boy Scout movement as a play movement, may be the occasion for surprise, for the activities cover many things we are accustomed to speak of as work; and "Play" and "Health," listed as such, occupy only a small portion of the contents of the Scouting Handbook—the Scout's curriculum. The point, however, is this: Scoutcraft presents everything—whether it be camping, photography, or civics—in a manner that makes it play to the normal boy. Such things as the Boy Scout games, camping, handicraft, and other activities are in themselves the highest type

of spontaneous play; and other subjects like first aid, cooking, star study, tree study, and timber judging, which easily may suggest the abstract work of the school room, are transformed to the play group through the offering of rewards, simple in cost and design, yet dear to the heart of every boy and calling forth the spirit of emulation. The methods of teaching, too, tend to make the process of instruction a playful one. The Boy Scout movement may therefore be included in the study of Play.

The Boy Scout Movement is Democratic

One of the most praiseworthy things about the Scouting movement is that it recognizes no class, race, or creed. It has been called "the great melting pot of American youth." It aims to "make real boys into real men" and it cares not whether the boy be the son of an influential capitalist, of the corner grocer, or of the immigrant family in the slums. Neither does being a Protestant, Catholic, Jew, or Mohammedan discriminate against one's chances. However, in spite of the fact that the movement is non-sectarian, and does not attempt to preach any formal religious principle, still the ideals it inculcates are in keeping with the highest type of Christian living. In fact, while not actually professing to teach a religious spirit it really does so in the most effective way, for the Boy Scout not only learns what are the right things to do but he also practices them. The Scout method is a positive one; it does not say, "Don't" but it does say "This is the thing to do." The scout is trusted on his honor, and his word is sufficient to show that he has lived in a manner worthy of merit.

The Scouting education is still more representative in that it is adapted to any locality. The country boy can be a member; so can the boy of the city; the American boy can be a member; so can the boy of France or Italy. The international character of the Boy Scouts was shown by the Jamboree held at London in the summer of 1920, at which representatives of fifty-two nations were in attendance. This was a picturesque assembly with each group presenting distinctive displays, and with individual and troop contests of all kinds, in such varied things as tug-of-war, obstacle races, bugling and band competitions, construction models, stamp collections, arts and crafts exhibits, and games and contests of all kinds. Each boy left with a feeling of good will for the boys of other lands and nations.

The Scout movement lives up to its programme of democracy by

charging only a nominal fee for membership. Then, too, there is a distinctive garb to symbolize this great brotherhood of boys. This official uniform is made up of khaki material, which though inexpensive looks well, is comfortable, and is unusually strong in its wearing qualities. It is not necessary for a boy to be thus garbed in order to belong to the Scouts, but he is usually eager to wear a uniform the moment he is entitled to do so and the leaders encourage him to earn the money for it. If the uniform is democratic, the badges and insignias are just as much so. These are simple and inexpensive. They remain the property of the organization so that any tendency to transfer the emblems may be discouraged, and so that they may be subject to recall if the Scout forfeits his privileges. The drill, too, is democratic in that all types of boys are assembled to act in unison; this offsets the natural inclination there is at other times to separate into small groups or cliques.

History of the Boy Scout Movement

This movement, officially known as the Boy Scouts of America, has had a phenomenal growth. Though initiated as recently as 1910 it has grown to embrace a membership of nearly a million registered scouts and officials. Scouting was not unknown, however, previous to its founding in our country.

To Sir Robert Baden-Powell, the English General and hero of the Boer War, must be given the credit for the original idea. He first experimented with material and scouting and camping nature as early as 1893 with the aim in mind of making the work of the soldiers in time of peace more interesting and practical. Later, this training was extended to include character formation. His lectures and practices were published in a small book "Aids to Scouting." This training was carried on successfully with soldiers; with the boys of Mafeking in 1899-1900 during the South African war; and later with the South African Mounted Police. On his return to England, Baden-Powell found that the manual "Aids to Scouting" had been used by several private schools as a step to character training. This led him to consider the scouting idea as a training for boys apart from the military life, and so he experimented with groups of boys and in 1908 published the English handbook entitled "Scouting for Boys." Shortly afterwards he resigned from the army to head up the new movement. By 1910 there were 125,000 scouts in England alone and organized troops were also to be found in the colonies, and in Germany and France.

In shaping the character of the movement, Baden-Powell was influenced by his close personal knowledge of boys and by his notion of what was lacking in the training of the average school boy. He knew that boys in their teens were adventuresome, and held as their heroes the knights, pioneers, Indians, and explorers. The word "Scouts" seemed the best to convey the nature of Baden-Powell's new scheme. Character training, practical intelligence, manual skill, physical development, health habits, and a spirit of service for others and for the state were the things he thought necessary to incorporate into the training, in order to remedy the deficiencies of the schools and of the existing boys' clubs and Bible classes. The troop was kept small in number so that the Scoutmaster could give very close personal attention to each boy.

The following incident explains the immediate cause of the introduction of Scouting into America. In the fall of 1909, William D. Boyce, a Chicago publisher, was on a business trip in London. Confused by the typical English foggy weather, he asked a small boy to direct him to his place of business. The boy was so courteous, and so helpful, that Mr. Boyce wished to tip him liberally, but the boy refused the offered remuneration. This led to a questioning by Mr. Boyce and the securing of the information that the lad was a Boy Scout, who was but doing the daily good turn that was expected of him. The American was so enthused by the spirit of service inculcated in this boy that he made a visit to the Scout Headquarters and came back to the United States loaded with Scout literature and with the determination that such a movement was well worth having in this country. Through his energy, a number of public-spirited citizens were interested in helping to organize the Boy Scouts of America, which on February 8th, 1910, was incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia.

Thus was started the first American Boy Scout troop. The movement grew rapidly, absorbing other boys' organizations that were getting under way, and taking on distinctive American features, such as the plan of national registration of each Scout. Much credit must be given to Mr. Ernest Thompson-Seton and to Mr. Daniel Carter Beard—both of them well known to boys and girls for their writings on nature and on handicrafts—for the efforts they contributed toward making the Boy Scouts a success in every way.

On June 15th, 1916, the movement had become so well established as an American institution, its accomplishments so well known, and its future growth so certain, that the United States

Congress granted a federal charter to the Boy Scouts of America.

To-day, the Scouting programme has been adopted by fifty-seven countries representing an aggregate population of nine-tenths of the population of the world. More than three million Scouts are enrolled in patrols.

The Scout movement has been accused of being militaristic. It is the opposite of this. The founder, Sir Robert Baden-Powell, placed special emphasis on the phrase "peace scouting" and discouraged military drill. In America the movement is neither military nor anti-military. The uniform, the patrol, the troop, and the drill are not so much for military tactics, as to inculcate the habits of unity, discipline, and patriotism. The motto "Be Prepared" does not mean preparedness for war, but rather preparedness for peacetime pursuits—business, service, health, and happiness. On the other hand, with the military spirit entirely lacking, the Scouts do learn self-reliance and ability to take care of themselves in the open, things that are of immense practical value if one is called upon to be a soldier. As for instilling patriotism, practically every well-known man in American public life has given endorsement to the movement. "A monument of genuine red-blooded Americanism" it has been called.

Its Purpose

The Boy Scout movement aims to supplement the work of our schools, by giving a training in the practical needs of life, and teaching the moral virtues through example rather than precept. The whole training is planned for the adolescent age—an age when every boy is imbued with a strong spirit of adventure and coupled with it a strong sense of honor, a strong feeling of faith and trust, and an impulse to be of service. This is the Sir Galahad, Sir Launcelot, and Sir Philip Spencer period of his life. A survey of the Scout law and mottoes, given later, will show how the Scout is trained in matters of honor, courage, trustworthiness, and chivalry. In order to make the boy sturdy, self-reliant, handy, and practical, the Scout lessons delve into such matters as first-aid, swimming and life-saving, cooking, keeping one's direction in the forest, making shelters, carpentry, etc. The Scout is a handy man around the house and elsewhere. Another fine thing that the Scout learns is to be observant. This in turn makes for interest. Along this line Franklin K. Lane says: "All progress is based on curiosity. Only to the in-

quiring mind does enlightenment come, and there can be no such thing as an education which is regardless of those things that immediately surround us—the earth, the vegetables, the flowers, the trees, the rocks, the birds, the streams, the animals, the skies, and those machines through which the forces of nature work. I am conscious every day of the defects in my early education, for I should have been taught, first of all, not technical botany, but the nature of plants, the difference between plants, and the nature of the layers of the earth, and the difference between them, and all those other things that would make a walk or a drive a constant panorama of delight. As it is, I have walked through the world almost blindfolded. Your programme is to give new eyes to boys and girls, and men and women." The writer can remember from his own experience, that even though a good share of his boyhood days was spent in the woods, he missed a great many of the things a Boy Scout appreciates. The environment was present, but not the directing teacher. He was like the boy on the undirected playground. The boy has interests and they are expressed spontaneously; but teaching is needed to give a wide range to these interests, and make them educational as well as interesting. The writer missed these opportunities, and a great deal of the enjoyment that is offered in everyday life was lost. Part of this was regained, later, when he became acquainted with Nature once more through spending summers in camps with boys. This time he noticed the many things. A bird would soar over and he would watch its flight. He now knew the bird and its many ways. He would pass a tree and its leaves would tell him that it was a scarlet oak.

This is one inestimable value of Scouting: it gives the boy a lasting interest in the things that will always surround his daily life. It applies to the city as well as to the country life. The Scout rushes to the scene of an accident, not from morbid curiosity, but because he knows that he is prepared to help. He watches the telephone gang raise a pole, and he is interested because he knows the knots and the lashings that are being used. A boy will observe when he is interested, and it is the purpose of Scouting to secure the greatest possible interest that can be aroused out of each and every activity. Observation aroused, the youngster will reason things out for himself.

Methods in Scouting

Value in Educational Training

The miraculous growth of these movements, of which Scouting is a representative, stands out as a justified rebuke to our present-day educational systems and their methods. President Eliot says, "The Boy Scout movement is setting an example that our whole public school system ought to follow." As regards methods, the schools are handicapped, because they cannot employ the honors and awards which attend each advance in Scouting education, but they can strive to arouse the interest of the child rather than to cram his mental system with undigested facts. The laboratory method is the best. Let the child *do* that he may *reason*.

The Scout Instruction uses playful competition, dramatization, and experiment to make its subject attractive. The Scout learns tracking by means of a treasure hunt; first aid and transportation of the injured, by means of an accident that is staged; cooking, craftsmanship, and the like by trial. These methods give him an interest in the subject, out of which develop willingness to observe, to listen to lectures, and to do research reading, all of which so often fail if tried in the beginning. In the larger sense our schools have neglected practical training and moral training. That is why the play movement, including the many agencies that we are discussing in this chapter, has become the leading educational tendency of modern times. It connects the lessons of the classroom with the actual relationships of life as found in practice. The school people have lamented whenever a student has been sent forth deficient in Algebra, or Latin; yet have bid a hearty God-speed to each graduate who has gone forth with high scholastic marks, but without the faintest idea of some of the simplest rules of hygiene, or what to do in an emergency. The schools have long held to the idea that the old classical curriculum is the "tree of all knowledge" instead of being just one of the branches. The acceptance of the idea that the classical subjects furnish intellectual power that can be transferred to every walk of life has long been responsible for the exclusion of every other type of training until such a time as the boy's school days were over. We might just as well give him all the history, theory, styles, and rules of swimming and then tell him that he is now a graduate swimmer. The two processes should accompany each other: the concrete and the abstract. Then, our boy graduate will

be given the right "start off" in life; mental power, knowledge of health, understanding of men, a play spirit, and a feeling for what is right in conduct, will all be his: none of these will be lacking to set him behind with a handicap.

In view of these things, it is an important and a gratifying thing that our schools everywhere are creating new opportunities for the boy and girl. The child is being given a chance to grow physically, mentally, and morally; and through his physical activity, which is being encouraged instead of denied, he is allowed to explore a wide range of pre-vocational subjects wherein he may find the calling that nature adapted him for; and, in addition, he is being given a chance to find play interests in the everyday surroundings that will be of recreational value to him throughout life. For this reason, Scouting should be fostered by the schools as an extra-school activity, just as are the athletic teams, musical clubs, and debating societies, now recognized as valuable social agencies. One of the outstanding features of the National Education meeting held in Cleveland in 1920 was the recognition of the educational value of out-of-school organizations, such as the Boy Scouts. The Boards of Education in the cities of Toledo, Chicago, and Detroit, have indorsed Scouting as an educational institution. Hartford, Connecticut, and Portland, Oregon, have also done this. Some schools, particularly Austin, Texas, already grant a limited amount of credit for work done in Scouting. Certainly the schools should furnish the leaders for this movement. Teachers can be encouraged by extra remuneration to devote time as Scoutmasters, in the same way that many academic teachers also act as athletic coaches. It is the administrative official of far-seeing vision who is linking up the Boy Scout work, etc., with his educational system as a whole, and who is thus making the schools serve the community in one more capacity.

The Curriculum

Scouting education consists of both required subjects and electives. In general there are six honors that may be attained. These are explained later. The requirements for the first three of these correspond somewhat to those of the elementary part of our public school system, in that the work is fundamental, broad in nature, and is required of everyone. The last three degrees, although requiring a certain amount of advanced work, also allow a wide latitude of elective choice. This shows a similarity to the courses of our public high schools.

The boy first becomes a Tenderfoot, then a Second Class Scout, then a First Class Scout. The work is so varied and interesting that it holds the boy fascinated in the midst of an environment that will conduce to character development, especially of a self-reliant and generous type. The boy who earns the right to be decorated with the First Class Badge has further learned many more practical things—of help to himself and others—than the average boy can hope to know.

The curriculum begins with the threefold aim of ideals and character, citizenship, and practicality in mind. Below are listed the studies that must be mastered by the boy who wishes to become a First Class Scout. They are listed in the order in which they appear in the Boy Scout Manual which is the textbook of the course.

1. *Woodcraft*: Includes pathfinding, use of the compass, measuring heights and distances, a study of the stars, birds, reptiles, insects, fishes, rocks, plants, shrubs, trees, etc.

2. *Wild Life and Conservation*: Wild animals, economic value of trees, birds, minerals, fuels, etc., precautions against loss by forest fires and harmful insects; forest and game laws; etc.

3. *Campcraft*: Use of knife and hatchet, fire building, cooking, hiking (day and over-night), tent making, rafts, canoeing, rowing, and sailing.

4. *Signs, Symbols, and Signaling*: Trail marks; smoke, gun, whistle, and gesture signals; semaphore and general service codes; wireless telegraphy.

5. *Health and Endurance*: Physical examinations; physical activity; personal hygiene.

6. *Chivalry*: The application of the knightly virtues to the life of to-day; proper manners; cheerfulness; service; moral strength; sportsmanship; religion.

7. *Prevention of Accidents, First Aid, and Life Saving*: Precautions against accidents of all kinds; what to do in fires and panics; lifts and carries for transportation of the wounded; swimming; life-saving in the water; emergency treatments; bandaging; etc.

8. *Games*: General games for all occasions: i.e., indoor and outdoor, active and quiet; scout games; camp games; games useful for entertainment purposes; water games; etc.

9. *Patriotism and Citizenship*: History of our country; national and local government; significance of the flag; practical duties of citizenship.

10. *Drill*: Single rank drill; double rank drill for advanced troops; salute to the flag; proper dress uniform. (This is not included in the Boy Scouts' Manual but is an important part of the Boy Scouts' training.)

Merit Badge Work

The merit badge work is open to First Class Scouts. This new field covers a wide range of subjects, sixty-four in number. These are the electives of Scouting. They furnish the chance for specialized study in practically all the different accomplishments and vocations. Here are some named at random: swimming, personal health, carpentry, civics, electricity, bird-study, automobiling, gardening, music, forestry, art, photography, printing, astronomy, and taxidermy. Swimming, personal health, and public health are the three most popular of all the subjects offered; and it is easy to see why, as they are useful to everyone, whereas only a limited number of boys would be gifted and interested along the lines of poultry-farming, for instance.

The merit badge work offers plenty of chances for the boy to develop his hobbies and find the type of activity that appeals to him. The aim is one that our new type of industrial education is attempting to offer in the Junior high school (which is the Boy Scout age) except that the Scout programme has a much wider range of activities. In both cases the aim is prevocational; not, vocational. If a boy has already determined his future vocation, then this work gives him an additional preparation. One of the best things that results from the development of hobbies at this age, even though all cannot be pursued as a life vocation, is that they can be carried on as interesting sidelines to furnish recreation in the leisure-time hours.

Each merit badge requires the passing of a certain number of tests in the same manner that the preliminary orders do. For instance, to obtain a merit badge for camping, the Scout must sleep fifty nights in the open; second, demonstrate how to put up a tent and ditch it; third, must make a bed of wild material, and a fire by rubbing sticks together; fourth, must know how to choose a camp site and protect it against the elements, how to build a latrine, and how to dispose of the camp garbage and refuse; fifth, must know how to construct a raft.

Progressive Nature of the Scout Programme

It is doubtful if any scheme has ever been devised that in itself furnishes better incentives for advancement than does the Scout programme. The Scout has always something ahead—opportunity is ever present. He reaches one coveted goal, and receives the accompanying reward. But along with the glow of gratification and pride in this achievement, the boy sees ahead of him another thing he covets. He must go on. The emphasis is not on graduation as in our public schools but on the admission to a new plane of honor. The satisfaction of being admitted to a higher degree is not a boyish trait only. See the way in which men spend a lifetime in trying to work up to the highest degrees and offices of the different fraternal orders!

Scouting makes a ceremony of each step. There are three common degrees, but one may pass beyond these in the manner that is explained later. Each time the boy is advanced he receives a new badge which he may wear to supersede the old one; and this honor is made more vivid and appealing to him by being presented at a formal meeting in which the boy's parents and friends may be present along with the most influential people of the community. The reward is largely in the inner gratification that the recipient is bound to have. This deep satisfaction leads to a desire to have it repeated. And so the boy strives for the new goal.

The Tenderfoot Scout

The boy is initiated into the order when he becomes a Tenderfoot. This is a great moment for him. His eyes bulge during this investiture. He has now reached his longing to be a Boy Scout. He has passed these tests which once looked so hard to him:

1. Know the Scout Laws, Oath, Motto, Salute, Sign, and significance of the badge.
2. Know the composition and history of the national flag and the customary forms of respect due to it.
3. Tie the following knots: square or reef, sheetbend, bow-line, fisherman's, sheepshank, slip, clove hitch, timber hitch, and two half hitches.

It is very important that the *Scout Laws*, *Motto*, and *Oath* be explained. The *Scout Laws* demand that a Scout be Trustworthy, Loyal, Helpful (he must do at least one good turn to somebody every day), Friendly, Courteous (he must not receive tips for being

helpful or courteous), Kind, Obedient, Cheerful, Thrifty, Brave, Clean, Reverent. Each of these twelve is accompanied with a short explanation of its meaning, upon which the prospective candidate may be quizzed. This is for the reason that he must know exactly what he pledges himself to do when he takes the Scout Oath.

The Scout Motto: this consists of the two simple words "Be Prepared," but they are laden with meaning. They imply that the Scout is always prepared both in mind and body to do his duty no matter what the occasion calls for. It may be that the occasion calls for a helping hand to aid the weak, or of advice to the person in doubt, or of saving pain or even life when an accident happens.

The Scout Oath: On my honor I will do my best—

1. To do my duty to God and my country, and to obey the Scout Law.
2. To help other people at all times.
3. To keep myself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight.

After taking this oath the boy is enrolled as a Tenderfoot Scout. He starts out on a new life, pledged to do his duty to God, to his country, to others, and to himself.

The Second Class Scout

There are ten requirements to this order which must be passed satisfactorily before the local Scout authorities. Briefly, they are:

- (1) At least one month's service as a Tenderfoot; (2) elementary first aid and bandaging; (3) elementary signaling; (4) track half a mile in 25 minutes; (5) go a mile at a Scout's pace in 12 minutes (the Scout's pace consists of 50 steps running and the same number walking, alternately); (6) proper use of knife or hatchet; (7) fire building in the open; (8) simple cooking; (9) earn and deposit one dollar in a public bank; (10) know the sixteen principal points of the compass.

The First Class Scout

This order has the following stipulations:

- (1) have served two months as a Second Class Scout; (2) swim fifty yards; (3) earn and deposit two dollars in a public bank; (4) signaling, (sixteen letters per minute); (5) take a fourteen-mile observation hike, and write an account of it; (6) advanced first-aid; (7) advanced cooking; (8) read and make maps; (9) handicraft (make an article himself); (10) judge distance, size, number, height, and weight; (11) identify species of trees, plants, wild birds, animals, and know the stars; (12) give evidence that he has practiced the principles of the Scout Law and Oath; (13) enlist a boy trained by himself in the Tenderfoot requirements.

The Star Scout

The boy who has mastered the difficult requirements of the First Class Scout has by no means exhausted the possibilities of Scouting. It is possible for him to reach advanced orders by means of the merit badge work. Only the First Class Scout can receive these additional honors. The Scout who can pass any five merit badges is awarded the Star Scout Badge.

The Life Scout

This honor is won by qualifying for a total of ten merit badges which, however, must include the five subjects of First Aid, Physical Development or Athletics, Personal Health, Public Health, and Life Saving or Pioneering.

The Eagle Scout

This is the highest attainment in Scouting education. In addition to the ten badges he already holds, the candidate must pass eleven more tests. Five of these eleven tests are elective; but there are six additional badges that are required: namely, life saving or pioneering, according to which one was omitted in the choice as a Life Scout, cooking, camping, civics, bird study, and pathfinding. Only one who has been connected with the work of the Boy Scouts can understand the perseverance, application, intelligence, and versatility that are needed to reach this pinnacle of Scouting recognition.

Organization of Scouting

The Individual

Boys from 12 to 18 years of age are the eligible candidates for Boy Scouts. The average age is fifteen and one-half years. The boys are instructed through the Boy Scout Handbook, through the influence of their leaders, through the personalities of the many influential citizens of the community who speak and assist in other ways at the meetings, and through the medium of the official magazine, called "Boys' Life."

Usually boys enroll in a group organization but in case it is not possible for a boy to affiliate with a troop and attend at least one meeting a year, he may, upon application, secure direct enrollment with the National Headquarters as a Lone Scout.

A boy who is a registered scout and at least fifteen years old may attempt to win "Sea Scout" honors in the special program of seamanship activities.

The Group

The group organizations are the patrol and the troop.

The Patrol: Eight boys make a patrol. Two boys out of each patrol act in the capacity of patrol leader and assistant patrol leader, respectively.

The Troop: The troop is made up of patrols, preferably three in number, and not more than four in any case. Troops must be chartered by the National Council. They are usually found affiliated with the playground, social center, the Y. M. C. A., the Church, or the public school. The institution sponsoring the troop provides leadership, a place for meeting, and appoints the necessary Troop Committee.

The Scoutmaster: The leader of the Scout troop is called the Scoutmaster. As qualifications, he must be at least 21 years of age, a citizen of the United States, and subscribe to the Scout Oath and Law; and he should, in addition, be a man of good character and with sympathetic interest in work with boys. It is all the better if he knows outdoor life. The Scoutmaster takes charge of the meetings and outings of the troop and supervises the individual work of the boys. He is often assisted by older boys of 18 years or over, too old to be active Scouts, yet willing to serve as Associate Scouts and act as Assistant Scoutmasters.

Administration

Local Units

The Troop Committee: Each chartered troop of Boy Scouts must be under the supervision of a troop committee composed of three or more citizens selected by the institution with which the troop is affiliated. This committee is the executive committee of the particular institution. The members take active charge when the Scoutmaster's office is vacant and a successor is being determined or commissioned. In case there is no council they arrange for initiation ceremonies and appoint the Court of Honor which examines all candidates for merit badges. Often they are called upon to assist in the selection of a representative to the local council, in case there is one.

The Local Council: The local council is found in larger towns and cities where several different institutions have organized Scout troops. Each chartered institution is entitled to elect one of its members, other than the Scoutmaster, as a member of the local

council. It can be seen that the local council includes "representatives of the various religious, civic, educational, and business interests of the community." The local council assists in matters of policy, selection of local administrative officials, finance, promotion, maintenance of high grade work, and in the choice of a representative to the national organization. There are hundreds of local councils.

The Scout Executive and Scout Commissioner: The Scout Executive is necessary whenever a town is large enough to possess several troops belonging to different institutions. He is a paid official. He is the administrative officer carrying out the desires of the local council. He creates and maintains morale among the Scout leaders, keeps office records, handles the budget, and in general attempts to act as an agent in close contact with the community life. The Scout Commissioner is a volunteer worker of influential standing who is selected by the local council. In case there is no full-time paid Executive the Commissioner assumes such duties. Where there is a Scout Executive the Commissioner's duties are largely of honorary nature. His presence graces all ceremonies. Often he is delegated as a representative to the National Council.

Field Units

These are under the jurisdiction of National Headquarters. The field unit helps in the arousing of Scouting interest in new territories, and in the formation of local councils. Where there is no local council, the field unit directs the work of the troop committee.

National Unit

Each local council has a right to send a representative to the larger body known as the National Council of the Boy Scouts of America. The headquarters are in New York City. There is a National Scout Executive in the same way that there is a local one; also, an Executive Board, which grants charters, handles supplies, appoints officers, and directs the work of the several departments mentioned below; and a National Court of Honor, which passes on standards for merit badges and awards all honors. In addition there are six well-organized departments to take care of the promotion of special activities: the Supply Department, having charge of the Scout uniform, insignia, badges, etc.; the Department of

Education, which stimulates interest by means of conferences, recreational courses; and the like, and gives publicity to the movement among educational and religious workers; the Field Department, mainly responsible for the extension of Scouting work into new communities, the organization of local councils, and the appointment of Scout officials; the Library Department, which maintains a reading list for boys, plans the taking of moving pictures demonstrating phases of Scout work, and aids in the publication of "Boys' Life," and of the weekly magazine "Scouting" which is sent free to all registered Scout officials; the Department of Camping, which outlines plans and programmes for camp life and supervises all camps so that the work is kept up to the minimum standard of efficiency in leadership, programme, sanitation, and food; and, lastly, the new Department of Sea Scouting, which has developed an extensive programme of nautical work of a nature particularly interesting to the older Scouts.

Other Points of Interest

Training of Scout Leaders

The Scouting movement has a need for trained leaders. Many of the local councils have adopted the wise plan of instituting training courses, the prospective candidates for Scoutmasters meeting once a week for a period of ten or twelve weeks. Many councils give one course of this nature each year, usually in the winter. The course usually proceeds along the three lines of training (1) in Scout organization and leadership, (2) in the ideals and value of Scouting with particular attention to the traits of the adolescent age, and (3) in the curriculum of Scouting; i.e., games, woodcraft, hiking, and camping, also a working knowledge of juvenile neighborhood conditions. The successful candidates receive certificates from National Headquarters. But their education should not stop here if they intend to advance in Scouting. It is possible to broaden their ability to serve through keeping up with current events and by reading the best literature, also by studying some of the problems of boyhood and of community welfare work, and most important of all, by attending conferences of Scout leaders and, when possible, by attending a summer school. Many normal schools and universities now give courses for Scout leaders, the subject being listed under the department of physical education. Such a training is of extreme value to the person wishing to become a Scout Executive.

Good executives can command better salaries than are usually found in the regular field of educational work.

The Boy Scouts in Their Relation to the Community

The Boy Scouts as an organization assemble on the occasions of their weekly meetings, and on their hikes and camping expeditions. But there are many extra occasions when they are called upon as a body to assist in some community or national enterprise. They appear in the playground festival exhibitions, at the community center rally, and in the parade that features such holidays as Fourth of July and Armistice Day. However, there is another way in which the Boy Scouts have done invaluable service. The individual daily good turn may be enlarged to an object that combines the organization together in one common aim. This may be called unit work. The following extract taken from President Woodrow Wilson's proclamation for a Boy Scout week devoted to the furtherance of the movement well illustrates how helpful the organization proved to be during the war.

"The Boy Scouts of America have rendered notable service to the Nation during the World War. They have done effective work in the Liberty Loan and War Savings campaigns, in discovering and reporting upon the Black Walnut supply, in cooperating with the Red Cross, and other war work agencies, in acting as dispatch bearers for the Committee on Public Information, and in other important fields. The Boy Scouts have not only demonstrated their worth to the nation, but have also materially contributed to a deeper appreciation by the American people of the highest conception of patriotism and good citizenship."

Other duties not specifically mentioned were the operation of thousands upon thousands of war gardens. By volunteering in many cases to relieve the shortage of labor the boys saved many potato, corn, and fruit and berry crops. This war service, important as it was, only serves to show the aid that the Boy Scouts are doing every day in campaigns of a peaceful nature. They are found singly doing their daily good turns, which may take such a form as directing a stranger to his destination, as assisting an old lady with her bundles, as delivering parcels for the charity organization, as administering first aid to an injured person, and the like. The "good turn" should be performed consciously, the Scout actually having in mind the thought that he is being helpful. When we begin to study the peace service that the Boy Scouts do collectively we find a multitude of ac-

complishments of community and national import. They may be enlisted in a clean-up campaign; they may be exterminating barberry bushes, waging war on injurious insects, or distributing health and conservation literature; they may be found as traffic aides, as ushers at football games, and as the caretakers of stricken refugees in times of fire, cyclone, or flood: and, again, they may be making repairs or doing chores about the property of the aged or otherwise helpless; or, keeping the playground apparatus in repair, and the courts in shape. There is no pay asked in return for deeds of this kind. The Scout is only fulfilling his oath; is only living up to the commandments of his Law. Scouting teaches him that the reward comes in the thrill of doing an act that is worthy and that is appreciated. True Scouts cannot fail to be worthy and public-spirited men and citizens.

The Weakness of Scouting as an Institution

The preceding study has shown that the Scouting education is a very necessary part of boyhood life. It would seem then that it should be established on a more stable financial basis than at the present time; that the money forthcoming to support the movement should be partly assured from state and local funds rather than from philanthropic subscriptions as at present. The inevitable result is that in times of financial depression the subscription drives fall short, and as a consequence the Scouting funds become too limited to put on the work that should be done; i.e., the result is inferior help and smaller enrollments.

Another result of this dependence upon popular financial support is that the Scout Executive and other officials are often handicapped in acting according to their best convictions in matters of policies and discipline for fear of offending some wealthy donor. The boys all admire strong discipline just as long as it is administered fairly and without favor; but as soon as any particular boy is permitted to be an exception to the rule, one of the best things about Scouting fails in its purpose. Still another result of this type of financial support is that often the Scout leaders feel it necessary to make an impression, and they are apt to exploit the simpler fundamental features of their work in the attempt to put on something spectacular that will catch the public eye. Too, for the same reason, and especially when visitors are present (as often there are) the activities are over organized to the extent of being artificial for fear that the people who pull the money strings will think that the boys

are allowed to be idle. Still another tendency that results is one of pushing boys through the tests too fast, and too superficially, in order to make good comparisons with previous records or those of other cities. These shortcomings would largely disappear if the public schools could be made the center for the promotion of work of the Scouting type. There would be more uniformity then, a thing impossible now, when in one city it is the municipal recreation system that fosters the movement, while in other cities it may be the school social center, the Y. M. C. A., a church, the Mother's Club or Rotary Club, or a few interested private individuals.

While the dependence of Scouting upon volunteer help, as in the case of the Scoutmaster, is a very commendable thing, still many difficulties arise in its practical use. At one time a very energetic leader may give his time to the work, and may enlist friends of strong personality in the same cause; but when circumstances cause such a leader or such a group of interested men to withdraw their services, the movement may practically die out in the particular locality until such a time as other forceful persons take hold.

CAMP FIRE GIRLS

The Camp Fire Girls is an organization of the same relative bearing to girls that the Boy Scouts is to the boys. Because the larger aims of these two movements are fundamentally so alike, it will not be necessary to give space to the Camp Fire Girls equal to that allotted the Boy Scout movement. The main difference is in the treatment according to sex; the Camp Fire Girls movement treats of girlhood needs and is so modeled that it may give the best possible training to the young girls just entering womanhood—training that they will need in order to undertake the duties of housewives and mothers, or even that necessary to enter upon the business or professional vocation: the training is distinctly for the development of the all-around woman. The Camp Fire organization aims to inculcate a spirit of service along distinctly feminine lines, and also to develop an interest that the girl can use later in the duties that a woman assumes as a citizen: namely, helping to better neighborhood conditions, to alleviate distress, to vote away corrupt politics and all kinds of vice, to demand better health, and to see that the child receives proper training and environment in schools, on the playgrounds, and in the homes.*

This order was founded in America by Dr. and Mrs. Luther Halsey Gulick. The idea grew out of a camping programme that Mrs. Gulick had used for several years to meet the needs of her own daughters and their girl companions when in company at the summer camps. These ideas and experiences were later extended and modified and accepted as the ritual and plan for the new organization. The watchword "Wohelo" was taken from the name of the camp which had been formed by the first two letters from each of the three words *Work, Health, and Love*. The movement was officially founded on March 17, 1912. Since then it has grown very rapidly, its most customary affiliation being with the school, social center, or church. It has also taken on an international character.

The local unit of Camp Fire consists of a group of girls numbering from six to twenty. The group meets weekly, but the ceremonial meeting, at which time the members appear in the distinctive ceremonial gown, occurs once a month. There must be an adult leader to take charge of the group, and she is known as the "Guardian of the Camp Fire." Here is where one difficulty of the order arises that is of the same nature as confronts the Boy Scouts: there are very few women who can be found to volunteer their services for this purpose; and consequently the emphasis to the movement in a particular community fluctuates up and down according to the time that can be spared or the energy displayed by the people who are fostering it. The difficulty of finding permanent management could easily be offset if the movement were linked up with our high schools, and a capable woman teacher given extra salary for supervising a group of girls in the out-of-school hours. Once the organization is secured the leader can begin to work out the purpose of the movement; namely, to instill in the girl "romance, beauty, and adventure in every-day life," happiness even when doing uninteresting tasks. The movement breathes idealism; in every phase of it the girl is shown that she should attempt to find the happiness that should be associated with every routine task. This spirit of service, of sociability, of cooperation that the Camp Fire girls learn, is something that is very urgent to make for success in the new rôles that women are playing to-day. It is impressed upon the girl's plastic mind that the Holy Grail is not to be found by searching far and wide, but that it is found within one's own inner spirit.

The Camp Fire Girls also has various stages of attainment that can be reached in a manner similar to that indicated in the dis-

cussion of the Boy Scouts; there are three grades known as Wood Gatherer, Fire Maker, and Torch Bearer. There are no additional higher degrees as in Scouting, but these three, and especially the last, are more difficult to attain and require more time than the three first degrees in Scouting.

The work of the Camp Fire Girls is comprised partly of required subjects, but the largest part of it is elective in the seven crafts of Homecraft, Healthcraft, Campcraft, Handicraft, Nature-lore, Business, and Citizenship. Homecraft covers such things as cooking, housekeeping, marketing, care of the baby, and so on; Healthcraft, such things as personal hygiene, first aid, physical exercise, and knowledge of games; Handicraft, basketry, decoration, gifts, woodcarving, stenciling, and metal work; Campcraft, hikes, fire building, shelters, and cooking in the open; Nature-lore, bird study, a knowledge of flowers, trees, butterflies, the stars, the weather, and other things such as gardening and the care of animals; Business Craft, ways of earning spending money, thrift, bank accounts, and other forms of saving; Citizenship, stories of our country, knowledge of its great men and women, a study of its laws, and the many things expected of its citizens in the way of service. For each honor won in a craft the girl is given a distinctively colored bead, depending upon the craft in which it has been won. In Homecraft alone there are 116 electives from which the girl may choose.

The work of these crafts is similar to the merit badge work of the Boy Scouts, but there are these important differences: the elective choice starts much earlier in the girl's progress than in the boy's, and the girl receives a bead for each item of her work while the boy receives no award until all the requirements for a certain merit badge have been passed. After a certain number of elective honors have been earned in one certain craft a girl is entitled to a large bead for that craft, known as a Big Honor.

In order to become a Camp Fire Girl a girl must first of all satisfy seven requirements:

1. She must be at least 12 years of age.
2. Have paid annual dues of \$1.00.
3. Know the purpose and ideals of the organization.
4. Know the names of chief national, state, and local executive officers.
5. Know the design, meaning, and symbolism of the U. S. Flag.
6. Know the watchword and hand sign.
7. Know the name, purpose, and value of the official magazine.

After fulfilling these requirements she must repeat before a

meeting of the council fire her desire to be a Camp Fire Girl, and to obey the law of the Camp Fire:

“Seek Beauty
Give Service
Pursue Knowledge
Be Trustworthy
Hold on to health
Glorify work
Be happy.”

She is then received on probation and works to pass the six additional requirements necessary to become a Wood Gatherer and to be received into full membership.

I. The Woodgatherer

1. Membership for at least two months.
2. Attended at least six weekly meetings and two ceremonial meetings.
3. Be able to repeat the Wood Gatherer's desire. (A pledge of sisterhood and of allegiance to the ideals of the Camp Fire.)
4. Have selected a name and a symbol.
5. Have made a head band (with a symbolized design).
6. Earned 14 elective honors, three from Homecraft, three from Citizenship, and three from Nature Craft.

With the attainment of the rank of Wood Gatherer, the girl is permitted to wear the ceremonial gown of the order, and she also receives the silver ring which designates membership in the Camp Fire organization. The ring has a design of a bundle of seven fagots bound together, with three raised circles on either side. The fagots are symbolic of the seven points of the Law, and the circles of the watch word.

The second degree a girl may attain is that of the Fire Maker. This entitles her to wear the Fire Maker's bracelet.

II. Fire Maker

- A. Applicant must be able to express the Fire Maker's desire:

“As fuel is brought to the fire
So I purpose to bring
My strength
My ambition
My heart's desire
My joy
And my sorrow
To the fire

Of humankind
 For I will tend
 As my fathers have tended
 And my father's fathers
 Since time began
 The fire that is called
 The love of man for man
 The love of man for God."

B. In addition to memorization of the above, the girl must have passed certain other tests in cooking, sewing, and simple knot tying; must prove that she has lived in a hygienic manner, and taken a prescribed amount of out-door exercise the previous month; must show that she is familiar with causes of infant mortality, with certain emergency treatments, and with the principles of elementary bandaging; must possess a practical knowledge of personal hygiene, of sex, of the duties of a hostess, and of the rules of etiquette; must recite some well-known poem, know the career of some prominent women of the nation; and must know the words of the national anthem. In all, these comprise fourteen required honors; and, in addition, there are twenty elective honors that must be passed. The electives are chosen from the seven crafts.

III. The Torch Bearer (entitled to wear the "Torch Bearer's Pin").

1. The applicant must be fifteen years of age and be approved as a "team worker."
2. Must be able to repeat the Torch Bearer's desire.
 "That light which has
 Been given to me
 I desire to pass
 Undimmed to others."
3. She must also be able to present twenty more elective honors.

The rank of Torch Bearer may be attained either as that of a GUIDE or as a CRAFTSMAN.

A. Guide

This is a test of leadership and the applicant must have been a leader of three girls for not less than three months in some activity such as craft work, hiking, singing, outdoor or indoor sports, study of nature-lore, and the like.

B. Craftsman

This is more of an individual test not requiring so much the subjects for leadership. This rank involves certain attainments in walking, in knowledge of local geography, outing hygiene and outdoor sports, and in practical experience as a housekeeper.

Although the rank of Torch Bearer may be attained either as that of Guide or Craftsman, it is also possible for the girl to win

the order in both ranks. No higher degree than that of Torch Bearer is given but the girl has an opportunity to win additional beads by passing more elective honors.

Other Features of the Organization

The Camp Fire Girls are encouraged to make many useful things. A thing distinctive to the organization is that each member must earn the money that is needed to go to the summer camp. This one thing helps keep the organization busy in the winter for there are innumerable ways in which the girls can be taught how to earn money. There are classes in water coloring, and along this line there is instruction given in making Christmas cards and valentines. All the handicraft work is not necessarily planned for personal remuneration, however. Many things, such as basketry, stenciled smocks, table runners, painted weeds, leather goods, and toys are made and distributed among the poor people of the neighborhood, each contributor thereby living up to the law "Give Service." Toys, in particular, are made for the children in settlements and hospitals.

Much stress is placed on the girl's Health Chart. This Health Chart must be lived up to very carefully, day by day. Following the requirements for a month enables the girl to receive the Health Board Symbol, which she wears with the other honors on the ceremonial gown.

Lastly, a word about the ceremonial gown. This is of simple lines, fashioned after the buckskin of the Indian maiden. The khaki has feather fringes and is decorated with the honor beads that have been won. After a girl has chosen her symbol she may incorporate it into the dress by embroidery, stenciling, bead designs, or other means. This means that the girl can keep adding to the dress as fast as she has added more honors to her list. The honor beads can be worn as a necklace if preferred. The gown gives a good chance for originality and taste on the part of the girl planning and working out the design.

THE GIRL SCOUTS

It is more necessary to explain the Camp Fire Girls than it is the rival movement, the Girl Scouts. This is for the reason that the Camp Fire Girls have built up an original idea. The Girl Scouts

have not departed far from the plan of the boys' order of Scouts, copying its plan of organization and procedure in many of its details, while making minor adaptations necessary for its use by girls. The Girl Scouts also are international in scope, the members in England where the movement first originated, being known as "Guides." The American organization at first took the name of "Guides" when organized in 1912, but changed to Girl Scouts in 1915. The motto "Be Prepared," the slogan "Do a Good Turn Daily," the pledge, and the laws, all suggest the likeness to the brother organization. Then, too, there is the tenderfoot, the patrol, the troop, and the Local Council, the Court of Honor, and the National Council. All girls wear the uniform of khaki, a feature which stands out strikingly at parades and other public functions.

At present there are 110,000 Girl Scouts in the United States. Because of the simplicity of the uniform, and small expense of membership, the Scouting order draws many members from the poor sections of the city. On the whole, in comparing the Girl Scouts with the Camp Fire Girls the point seems to stand out that the former emphasizes the virtues of patriotism, democracy, hardihood, and forceful service and preparedness, while the latter extols the more feminine qualities of artistry, refinement, romance, and cheerful helpfulness. Practicality stands out preëminently in the one; aesthetic appreciation and high idealism in the other. For these reasons, each movement appeals to certain types of girls and it is not uncommon in the same household to find one member a Girl Scout, and the sister a Camp Fire Girl. Some girls belong to both.

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Special Activities

- Camping. See Reference List, Chapter VI.
 Games. See Reference List. Vol. II. (Practice of Organized Play.)
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 Nature Study. See Reference List. Vol. II. (Practice of Organized Play.)
 Story Telling. See Reference List. Vol. II. (Practice of Organized Play.)

CHAPTER VI

CAMP LIFE IN THE PLAY PROGRAMME

General

Camping, as an organized recreational activity, is as much a part of the present-day play movement as the playgrounds themselves. Indeed, a camp is merely a large playground which offers many of the advantages of city play as well as many additional ones which it is peculiarly able to handle.

Camping is not new. The men and women of to-day enjoyed camping in their childhood days though not in a way comparable to that which is offered their children to-day. In fact, the camping of twenty years ago was close to the nomadic life. A few boys would procure an old "nag," a tent, a discarded stove, and an assortment of canned goods including beans, corn syrup, and condensed milk. Parents could not be blamed for worrying as this motley crew made its departure. These inexperienced boys with nothing to guide them would have to sleep on beds of twigs, cook their own meals, and furnish their own amusement. Precautions for health and comfort were unthought of. Such a trip would usually continue for a week unless the supplies ran short, in which case the stay was abruptly terminated. It is a tribute to the camping life that boys would find fun in such expeditions in spite of the hardships which had to be endured.

There are some people to-day who decry the departure from these primitive methods just described. However, when contrasted with the organized camp life of to-day the advantages show up far more strongly with the present type. Boys alone cannot be expected to have the experience of mature leaders. Neither can they provide the advantages which accrue from an organization which specializes in camp promotion. With capable organization and leadership, boys can, with but little loss of independence, have comfortable quarters, the best of food, and safeguards against danger; and, in addition, have their outing attended with the maximum of recreation and of educational instruction. It is easy to see why parents

to-day have overcome their fears and are glad to see their children set out for a camping time under such good care.

The rapid expansion of the camping movement has not been confined simply to boys and girls. Adults everywhere have been demanding a vacation time period. The hurry-up methods of our modern era necessitate labor at top-notch speed and with such conditions a rest is an inevitable necessity. Every individual, from the high-salaried executive to the day-laboring man, finds it profitable to take a vacation, knowing that he will be able to come back to tackle his work with renewed zest.

The most popular outing is the one that takes the person away from the hot city pavements and the breathless nights to the cool of the lakes and woods, there to enjoy Nature at her best, in the full bloom of the summer season. Another thing that makes the outdoor vacation so practical is that it can be inexpensive. While some people have to go to the summer hotel or fashionable resort to enjoy themselves, the person of moderate means can have just as good a time by renting a cottage or even by setting up a tent by the roadside.

Although camping as a movement has been aided by propaganda carried on by physical welfare organizations during the past twenty years, still its revolutionizing is due to modern means of transportation. With the advent of the trolley, the pleasure boat, and the automobile in particular, there has come a nation-wide interest in outdoor life. The overcoming of the difficulties of transportation has resulted in several things. In the first place, parents can now send their children to camp and yet be able to visit them frequently. Again, camping stops that formerly would have been impractical unless a visit of a week's duration could be made, now can be frequented in a day's outing, or an overnight one; and places that were formerly considered inaccessible to all except the most ardent hikers, are now visited annually by thousands of people. The result has been that lake property has boomed tremendously in value and that commercial enterprises have made expensive water improvements and established profitable amusement concessions. Another sight, not uncommon nowadays, is to see our highways crowded with automobile tourists who carry all their camping equipment with them. This idea has come so quickly into popular favor that many municipalities have appropriated money for making attractive stopping-off places for tourists and for the offering of hospitality to them.

Of late, much excellent printed material has become available in the way of personal advice to hikers and campers and of the details of organization and administration of the larger groups. Many of the popular magazines print each year, with the coming on of the wander-lust, short articles filled with practical hints on how the inexperienced camper should take care of himself in the open; how he should buy equipment, choose stopping-off places, select clothing, protect himself against marauding animals and against insect pests, pitch tents, build and put out fires, air and dry bedding, etc. Moreover, many of the organizations which conduct their own camps, such as the Boy Scouts of America, the Y. M. C. A., and others, publish much literature on this subject.

Types of Camp Promotion

The recent growth of camping from an occasional and haphazard mode of life to a nation-wide recreation, has been accompanied by the rise of many agencies which have concerned themselves with its promotion. In this way, camping has been backed by many organizations: viz., private concerns; municipalities; philanthropies; industries; and institutions such as the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Y. M. C. A., etc. Each of these will be discussed briefly in turn.

Private. As usual with any public need, probably the first attempts to meet the demand for camping were made by individuals seeking profit. This accounts for the springing into existence of the many exclusive camps conducted for the sons and daughters of the wealthy. In many cases the private school prolonged its term over the summer period in the form of a summer camp. This innovation met with the immediate approval of the people financially privileged. In addition to allowing children a good time under the best of care, this opportunity freed elders from parental responsibilities at a time when they were planning vacations or trips for themselves. The private camps are extremely expensive. They afford much individual attention, providing tutoring privileges, and lessons in horsemanship, dancing, and social finish. The only objection to this type is that it reaches too few and even then is apt to be too much of a "kid-glove" affair where the back-to-nature idea is entirely lost.

Although no concern of this chapter, still mention should be made of the other extreme of commercialized camping in which there is no thought of exclusiveness whatsoever. This is to be found in the case of business enterprises which buy up desirable land such

as lake fronts, and parcel it out for cottages or rent picnicking and tenting space. In addition, they add to the natural attractions by fitting out inviting bathing beaches and even go so far as to add luxurious amusement palaces. The commercializing of the camping desire from this standpoint is not without many benefits specially to the poorer class of our people. These benefits, however, can be entirely offset by exorbitant fees or allowing vicious influences to creep in.

School and Municipal. Camps of this type usually cater to children, proceeding on the basis that the city playgrounds only occupy a portion of the boy's or girl's time during the summer vacation, and cannot possibly give the satisfaction to the city child that an outing in the country will do. There are other motives behind the planning of these camps: such as, to lighten the burden of the parents at the time of the year when the children are free from school and so many problems are presented; to lessen the number of juvenile delinquents, for the summer is the time when the children, partially left to themselves to provide amusement, easily gravitate into mischief and crime; also, to assist the Safety First programme, for statistics show that there is an appalling list of accidents among school children from July to September.

Necessarily, with the numbers to be accommodated, the time of stay of children in school and municipal camps must be very short; and the prime purpose has to be that of health and recreation.

The Philadelphia schools have conducted many experiments along the line of short camping trips; and Curtis, in his book "Education Through Play," tells of the work that is being conducted successfully at the Interlaken School Camp at La Porte, Indiana; at Gary, Indiana; and also at Dubuque, Iowa. Along this line, however, America has not progressed as far as have some of the European countries, particularly Germany and Denmark.

In the valuable little handbook "Summer Camps: Municipal and Industrial" issued by the Community Service Headquarters, interesting accounts are given of municipal camps carried on by the cities of Los Angeles, Detroit, Bridgeport, New York City, Dayton, Salt Lake City, Oakland, Rochester, St. Louis, and Omaha. Some of these are conducted for city waifs only, while others such as Camp Seeley of Los Angeles plan to give a good time to adult excursionists as well. New York City has a plot of land that is called "Tent City" that it rents out cheaply to families desiring the privilege.

Philanthropic. Two camps of this nature that may be mentioned

are the Princeton and the Michigan "University Fresh Air Camps" in which a fund is solicited from the students and alumni to maintain a camp for poorer children of large nearby cities. Usually, much help is obtained cheaply by using university students as councilors. Another plan of this kind that has been carried on successfully for a number of years is the *Detroit Free Press* newsboy camp. The objects and aims are the same in the philanthropic promotion as in the municipal camp; namely, to give the boys and girls a good outing.

Industrial. In this type of camp the aim is to give the employees of a certain industry or large store a vacation at a very reasonable expense. Again, we can refer to the Community Service handbook for complete information concerning the work of successful industrial camps. The camps of the General Electric Company and of Armour and Company may be cited as typical examples.

Semi-Public. By far the greatest success at the lowest cost has been achieved by those camps which are controlled by organizations such as the Y. M. C. A. and the Boy Scouts. There are many reasons for this. In the first place, the fees are very nominal, camps merely attempting to be self-sustaining. Again, because of the fact that definite units exist previous to going to camp, the boys know each other well, and there are fewer cases of homesickness to contend with. Such organizations have a very comprehensive programme which they conduct throughout the year and they can use the summer camp to complement the other activities—the camp need not necessarily be an end in itself. Such an advantage means that a much more complete programme can be used to fill up the camping period; and monotony need not be feared. Another advantage that accrues from this continuous organization is found in the lessened problem of discipline at the camp. It is for these reasons that a camp of the Boy Scout type will be chosen as representative and will be studied.

All that has been said of boys' camps applies equally well to those of girls. The only difference lies in the activities which are designed especially for girls.

Camping in the Boy's Life

The call of the wild carries an appeal to the heart of every boy. Especially does this become more pronounced after he has finished the confining school work of the year. A general idea of the fascination and value of camping to boys may best be obtained by repeating

the words of Richardson and Loomis in their book "The Boy Scout Movement."

"Among boys the zest for camping is perennial. Like the wanderlust that grips professional nomads, the lure of freedom in the out-of-doors seasonally, at least, looms larger than any other interest. Though it may drive imagination far afield to the extravagant and impossible, yet it affords expression to one of the most impelling and altogether valuable tendencies of youth: namely, the craving which a boy feels for the novelty of primitive independence and hardihood. Such a craving camping appeases. If well-supervised camp life of the virile stamp is possible when these feelings of independence, robust adventures, and self assertion are budding, the outcome is self-poise, ingenuity, and growth of character of enduring benefit.

"Several years ago it was necessary to preface every article dealing with the nature and value of camping for boys by an apology. Nowadays, among all thinking people, its usefulness is acknowledged. It is counted a helpful method of strengthening a boy physically, of continuing his education during leisure hours outside of the school rooms, and of cultivating social and moral sensitiveness. These advantages may be gained in a good camp where emphasis is laid upon the established conventionalities of etiquette, personal cleanliness, and right conduct. Everyone realizes that it is vastly better for a boy to enjoy the fascinating diversions of camp life than to flounder in the city or small town without definite responsibilities and engaging activities."

Certainly, no one can read this extract without feeling that the lure of camping is not without its values. Once attracted to camp, the boy gets a certain type of experience that he cannot get in any form of city education. Away from his parents—often for the first time—he is stirred by a feeling of independence and a sense of responsibility. He has to do things himself instead of having them done for him. He learns to cooperate unselfishly. He must "chip in" to do his portion of the work, and share the rights to the rooming and eating quarters. If he fails in any of these respects the discipline is often likely to be administered by his camp-mates, for boys have their own effective ways of taking care of the comrade who shirks his share of the tasks. Furthermore, obedience to the camp rules affords a lesson in discipline that reaches even the boy who is spoiled at home. The interest in the many things to be seen and experienced makes the boy attentive and alert. He meets other boys

and becomes more sociable and friendly. Nor must we forget the effect on his health and physique; he fills his lungs with fresh air, sleeps soundly from bodily fatigue, acquires a lusty appetite, and builds up a muscle that he is proud to display to his parents on his return. Literally, he becomes the "boy of tan" with which the poet Whittier has made us so familiar.

Location of Camp Site

The choice of a camp site depends so largely upon local conditions that only a few general rules can be laid down. These are as follows:

1. The source of water supply should be carefully inspected and a sample analyzed for typhoid fever germs.
2. A safe body of water for swimming should be located within easy access of the camp.
3. The grounds should be as high and well drained as possible, and cleared of heavy timber growth. The buildings and tents should be so located as to get plenty of direct sunlight.
4. The camp should be fairly well secluded so as to permit the campers a certain amount of freedom of dress.
5. There should be a large open field for such games as baseball and soccer, and for camp rallies, etc.
6. There should be easy access to a source of food supplies, especially of fresh vegetables, milk, and butter.
7. The camp should be located with regard to ease of access, both as to automobile and train or traction service.
8. There should be a large woods nearby for nature and bird study.

Arrangement of Buildings—The Camp Layout

No set plan can be laid down for the arrangement of the camp. Much will depend upon the slope of the land and the peculiarities of the location. Before proceeding with the construction of a new camp, however, the best possible advice should be secured either from the headquarters of organizations promoting this work, or from standard books on camp planning. It is especially true of the large and permanent camp that the plans must be adapted to the place available, but in the small and transitory camp one can decide previously on any number of arrangements and then select a site that will suit the plans.

The complete camp usually has a large permanent building for the mess hall and kitchen. In this case the mess hall can be cleared and used for indoor gatherings and entertainments. Smaller permanent buildings or cabins will be found for headquarters, store-

house, and hospital. The officers and boys may be quartered in small permanent cabins; or, as is more usually the case, in tents that will accommodate four or six persons each.

All buildings should have substantial floors, roofs and screened sides. The sides should be protected from rain and stormy weather by canvas rain curtains or other means. If tents are used they should all have wooden floors. Where the permanent mess building is not to be had, the next best solution is to use the so-called compartment tent with fly.

As regards the location of the buildings on the campus many plans are found. One practical plan for the small camp is to have the street running away from the lake with the mess hall at the farther end and the flag-pole on the open end nearest the lake. For the larger camp a different plan must be suggested. A much longer street is necessary and therefore it should run parallel to the lake front rather than away from it. In this case the mess hall is at one end of the street, the bathing beach is handy to campers at both ends of the street and behind—away from the lake—is the easily accessible athletic field wherein the flag-pole may be located.

Another plan that is sometimes found has as its basis a large building which is complete in itself. This is of the two-story type. The first floor can be used as a dining room, club-room, and auditorium; and the second floor as a dormitory and store-room. If preferred, the meals can be served on a wide screened veranda.

Latrines should be located well away from the camp. There are many types of these and the details of their construction can be obtained from any standard book on camping. Plans for the construction of an incinerator and instructions as to the correct method of disposing of garbage and other refuse must also be studied.

Equipment List

The equipment of a camp includes many articles which can be enumerated here for the purpose of acquainting the student with the things that must be considered in camp administration. Space, however, will not permit going into detail as regards the selection of the different articles from the standpoint of practicality and economy. If permanent buildings are not to be had, then the question of tents, both for meeting and sleeping purposes, comes up. In any event, there are the small hike tents that must be carried in stock. The other necessary articles follow: beds or cots, bed ticks, blankets, stoves and kitchen equipment, tables and benches, table ware, hard-

ware tools, conveyances, safety outfits for fire and health, life preservers, diving dock and platform, boats, flag-pole, athletic supplies, etc. Many camps also equip themselves with signaling and radio outfits.

The question of personal equipment must also be planned ahead. Practically every camp now issues instructions to the boys who are to attend, advising them in advance what articles to take. This equipment list is of two divisions. First, there is a required list pertaining to clothing, toilet articles, bedding, and in some cases dishes, so that all the boys will be dressed and otherwise provided for in uniformity according to a prescribed and simple standard. Included in the required list are also miscellaneous useful articles such as the bathing suit, pocket knife, electric flashlight, Scout Handbook, etc. If there is a camp store, many of the minor things like pencils, stationery, needle and thread, buttons, etc., may be omitted from the individual list. The second type of personal equipment is recommended but not required. It refers to such things as kodaks, fishing tackle, musical instruments, special costumes, and the like. One thing that the camp prohibits is the bringing of fancy foods and other luxuries, or the sending of them through the mails by the parents. Such a practice, if permitted, not only hinders the officers in watching over the health of the boys, but makes discontent and envy as all boys cannot share the same favors alike.

Health and Sanitation

The first thing to be considered under this phase is the selection of a proper site. Other preliminary measures in the way of precaution are the securing of a physician, if possible, to be in attendance at the camp,—this makes the task and responsibility of the camp director much simpler; the having on hand of a complete outfit of medical supplies; and, the assurance that all the boys who are to attend are in good health. These precautions taken, it is necessary to attend to the following problems which will arise at the camp itself. In the first place it is well to give a talk to the boys the day they arrive at camp on proper health precautions as well as safety measures. Then, proper inspection of the latrines must be made daily; the garbage must be disposed of in a sanitary manner; a campaign must be made against mosquitoes, flies, and other noxious insects; and, above all, the kitchen and mess hall must be kept clean.

Food and Commissary

Boys at camp will have prodigious appetites, and "plenty to eat" is one of the attributes by which they judge the good time they have had. Plain wholesome food will satisfy them. Luxuries such as ice cream, cake, or pie, need only be served occasionally, and this will tend to make them appreciated all the more. The commissary detail of camp management is an important one not only from the standpoint of satisfying the boys, but from the financial success of the camp as well, for this is one of the biggest items of expenditure, and one which cannot be mishandled either from the standpoint of buying supplies or from extravagant serving. It is all important to have experienced cooks who will know how to ration and prepare food on a large scale and in a variety of ways.

The Staff of Leaders

The success of the camp depends almost entirely upon the leadership—the directors can "make or break it." The leaders must be thoroughly experienced in all phases of camping, all which are important and necessary; and they must know boys well and be able to mix with them. The successful camp makes certain that it has one head whose authority is absolute. Otherwise, there would be confusion in an emergency, at which time divided authority is as good as none. There is another thing that is especially desirable, and that is to choose the leaders so that each is a specialist in a certain line which he can promote along with his general duties. Often, a leader may possess talent along athletic, musical, or dramatic lines which can be used to contribute to the camp entertainments; and through this means he will also add to his own popularity and influence with the boys. There should be a sufficient number of assistants so that the amount of detailed duties falling to the leaders may be lessened and more time be given to the bigger problems of camp welfare. If these assistants are chosen from the ranks of the boys, as they often are, the work affords pleasure because of the sense of leadership and responsibility involved. The duties that are to be performed in any well organized camp are explained by studying the following classification of officers and the work that is expected of each.

The Camp Director

He must be a real executive: one who is able, not only to outline a programme of activities and to work harmoniously with his staff

so as to secure the best results from them, but also to administer the business side of the camp in a wise and efficient manner. He should not burden himself with numerous minor duties; but, on the contrary, should so delegate work of this nature that he may devote himself to the larger task of unifying the many interests of the camp. He bears the final responsibilities.

The Camp Adjutant

This official is really an assistant director. He is the administrator of the day's programme: he posts all bulletins, sees to it that all bugle calls are sounded according to time schedule; in fact, he officiates much like an army "Officer of the Day." In addition, he has charge of the camp store, bank, post office, library, and camp statistics. In some of the larger camps a paid secretary is at his disposal; but more often some of the older boys are delegated as his clerks.

The Mess Officer

This officer is usually the head cook and has one or more assistants. He buys the daily supplies, arranges the menus, and directs the kitchen duties which include the handling of the waiters, dish-washers, scrubbers, etc.

The Medical Officer

He has charge of the building or tent set aside as a hospital. He is responsible for all medical equipment and supplies. He keeps a record of all cases that come under his care. Furthermore, he also teaches the classes in first-aid work. Another important phase of his duties is the supervision of all matters pertaining to sanitation.

Recreation Director

This official supervises all organized recreational activities, and is responsible for the care of all athletic equipment. He may also have charge of the swimming and boating periods in case this duty is not performed by a separate officer.

Stunt Officer

The Stunt Officer, or Morale Officer as he is often called, is in charge of all the special activities such as Campfire programmes, music, entertainments (Stunt Night, Directors' Minstrel Show, Camp

Circus, Mock Trial), and ceremonies such as the Burial of the Camp Grouch, Indian Pow-wow, etc. He also promotes the camp newspaper.

The Quartermaster

The Quartermaster has direct responsibility for all camping and hiking equipment. He maintains the storehouse, often with the help of boys as orderlies. He issues all the necessary materials for cleaning camp such as brooms, rakes, buckets, and shovels; and supervises the construction of all camp buildings, bridges, signaling towers, etc. He keeps inventory of all camp materials.

Swimming Master

This officer has charge of the boats and all other water-sport equipment. He supervises the periods when the campers are in the water. He selects and details the life-guards and distributes the life-saving equipment. He teaches swimming and life-saving, and stages water carnivals.

Educational Director

The Educational Director arranges classes in woodcraft, nature and bird study, first-aid, etc. He plans the curriculum, assigns the boys to the classes, and keeps a record of the tests that are passed. He appoints the various adult leaders to their respective classes. During the free periods of the day he should be available for consultation and individual help to the boys.

Hikemaster

The larger camps employ such an official. The Hikemaster has charge of all the preparations for hikes, both day and overnight. He knows the desirable hiking routes. He is responsible for the issue of rations, hike tents, individual messkits, canteens, haversacks, and blanket rolls; also, for their return to the Quartermaster. Because of his frequent absence from camp he must be relieved of many of the general duties such as fall to the other officers.

N. B. The arrangement given above is merely a suggestive one which is generally adaptable. For instance, a large camp might have an extra official such as a Seascout man, while a small camp might function with a lesser number of officials by combining the duties of two or more of those mentioned. The Camp Director and the

Camp Adjutant might very well be one and the same person; likewise, the Recreation Director and Swimming Master might have their duties combined.

Programme of Activities

The life of the camp depends largely on the programme of activities that is offered. The programme must consider varied interests so that every boy in the camp will be reached no matter what his own particular likes happen to be. A concise statement of a successful programme is offered in the following extract from the Programme of Camp Brady, compiled by Mr. W. R. Hunt, Field Scout Executive of the Detroit Public Schools:

The Programme must be planned to include (1) Games; (2) Detail Work; (3) Instructions and examinations; (4) Campfire programmes and Stunts; (5) Troop contests; (6) Hikes and boat trips—both day and overnight; (7) Devotional exercises; (8) Free time activities; (9) Special features, such as Fourth of July celebrations, moonlight and night hikes, and war games; (10) Swimming and boating; (11) Rewards; (12) Improvements; (13) Routine work, such as meals, inspections, setting-up exercises, etc.; (14) Break up and set up camp each week; (15) Drill and band; (15) Inspiration.

There are certain factors to be considered:

1. Boys who stay only one period need a special programme.
2. Boys who "stay over":
 - a. Find the percentage in each section.
 - b. Plan special programme for them.
 - c. Use them as leaders for new boys.
3. There should be troop organization (or company or tribe).
 - a. Adult leader in charge.
 - b. Each troop needs to plan a programme for itself as well as a co-operative programme.

There is a certain routine which must necessarily be gone through.

Outside of the daily routine tasks such as policing camp, meals, inspections, etc., the periods must be well filled in with definitely arranged activities. The keynote of sustained interest is keeping the boys busy all the time. While there should be proper rest periods, no opportunity for loafing should be allowed.

The regular activities of a camp can be roughly divided into two groups: namely, the organized and the unorganized. In the first group are such games and sports as baseball, soccer, volley ball, track, swimming, wrestling, boxing, quoits, and any others that may require a definite organization. Such activities are largely recreational in nature and stress the competitive idea, either as between

the individuals or teams. These sports form the main part of the programmes of many camps. The period which has been found in many cases to be best adapted to games and sports of this nature varies according to the plan of organization of the camp. In some camps the afternoon free period is the best to stage organized games, while in others the hour following the evening meal is more practical. The difficulty of putting on organized competition during the camp stay is that either the boys are scattered in various activities so that all the teammates cannot be present at the same time, or that the camp must demand that all the boys be present on the athletic field or in the water at specified periods. Too much of this compulsion will react unfavorably on the enjoyment that the boys find in playing because when at camp their first thought naturally gravitates toward swimming, fishing, and explorations—things that they cannot enjoy at home in the city. In addition to the competitive games and sports that have been mentioned, the boys will find great enjoyment and pleasure in novelty races and stunts, and in non-equipment games conducted on an elaborate scale to reach everyone in camp. These latter games are of the nature of War, Siege, Traitors in Camp, Treasure Hunt, Reds and Blues, and many others similar to the mass games which proved so popular at the war training camps. The best time to run these off is usually the evening period preceding the campfire. The good point about such a type of game is that it can be organized in an impromptu manner with a large elastic unit for competition; and in this way, it can be run off successfully regardless of the attendance of certain of the boys who prefer to spend their time otherwise. As can be seen later the sports and games, including water activities, take up only part of the organized periods of the camp. The classes in the morning are under the direction of the adult leaders, as are the setting up exercises, drill, meal time, and certain other occasions.

The unorganized activities, on the other hand, include those which the boys plan for themselves and which they are free to undertake without the leaders in charge. They may be performed singly or in groups. Although there are scattered moments throughout the day when the boy is on his own initiative, still the allotted free-play period in the afternoon is the only one that allows him much free will to carry out his wishes. During this time he may choose to go boating, to fish, to read, to gather collections for nature studies, to build a lean-to, to visit some point of interest near-by, to take kodak pictures, or to play horseshoes, croquet, "catch," games of

ball, etc. The camp should not interfere too much with these free time periods of the afternoon. Rainy days may be given over to periods of unorganized activities, but it is better if the leader of the camp has had foresight enough to prepare for such occasions with "Rainy Day Programmes"; for on such occasions it is extremely difficult for the boy to stay within the confines of the camp shelters and keep active.

Daily Schedule

All camps follow a definite time schedule. This programme is fairly well standardized although camps differ in small details. The one that is given below is very practical.

- 6:25. First Call
- 6:30. Reveille: Everybody out.
- 6:35. Assembly and Colors.
- 6:40. Setting up exercises: These should be varied from day to day and be kept interesting. Mimetic exercises that imitate ordinary athletic contests or games and the events of the daily camp life take well. A run around the field makes a good close. Much depends on the imagination and pep of the leader.
- 6:50. Morning Dip: Compulsory except when excused by sickness or inclement weather.
- 7:15. Breakfast: Boys seated by troops either with boy or adult leader in charge. The boys march in to the bugle; following grace, they seat themselves. There must be a regular established system of serving and caring for the tables: boys alternate in pairs to serve as waiters. Under one system each boy washes his own dishes and table utensils; a better way is to have the boys take turns in corps in cleaning and setting up tables. In this way troop rivalry can be aroused.
- 7:45. Tent clean-up; airing blankets: Sick Call.
- 8:00. Fatigue: Assembly of all campers for the assignment of various details, each detail to work under the direction of an officer. The different troops rotate in the performance of these duties. The assignments follow:
 1. Clean up grounds.
 2. Water detail: to provide the day's supply of water for kitchen tank, and for washing stations.
 3. Latrine: cleaning and disinfecting.
 4. Handy squad: for miscellaneous duties. May sweep out general buildings, dispose of garbage, make repairs, or go on errands, as the case may be.
- 8:55. School Call.
- 9:00. Assembly: Scoutcraft Instruction. Half-hour classes. Five minutes between classes. Programme arranged in advance by Educational Director. Other directors assist in teaching.
- 11:15. Recall.

- 11:30. Morning Swim: Emphasis on instruction work with beginners as well as advanced swimmers; life-saving instruction is given to the latter group.

Every precaution must be taken for the safety of the swimmers. No swimming should be allowed except during the designated periods. The approach to the beach must be carefully cleared of all underbrush. A safety area must be roped off for beginners; and diving permitted only at specified platforms where the water depth is sufficient. The whole swimming area must be very carefully patrolled. One good way is to select the expert swimmers and detail them as a life-guard. They wear special insignia and remain out of the water until the main group of swimmers has been recalled. Then they have a special swimming period of their own. Usually directors supervise also, and then join the life-guard in swimming during the special period. There are some other precautions: first, talks on the dangers accompanying swimming and boating, and the use of the life-saving devices; second, a roll call in which each troop leader reports to the director in charge immediately after the swim; third, the adoption of the popular "buddy" system. Under the last mentioned scheme each bather is paired off with a "buddy," and these two men are not allowed to be more than five yards apart at any time; each must look out for the other. Any laxity in this regard is punishable by removal of water privileges. In addition to these there is also the tag plan. A boy cannot enter the water without receiving a tag, nor leave the water without returning it. This last plan should be used in conjunction with one of the others.

- 12:00. Recall.

- 12:30. Dinner. Same procedure as breakfast. Followed by sing and announcements. The rest period is set aside to keep the boys from exercising during the heat of the day and so close after the heavy noon meal. It also provides a time when the boys may rest quietly, write letters, read stories, and play games such as dominoes or checkers. The camp store is also open for thirty minutes during the rest period. Boys are limited in their spending.

- 2:00. Optional and Free Period. The boy plans his own time. Some of the many things he may do have already been described under the programme of activities both organized and unorganized.

- 4:00. Afternoon Swim. Same plan as morning except that water games and competition are emphasized instead of instruction.

- 4:30. Recall. Prepare for drill and inspection.

- 5:00. Drill. The simplest individual and squad movements should be performed, each troop in charge of an adult leader.

- 5:15. Retreat: An official ceremony including salute to the flag, general reports, and passing in review. Some camps may make this elaborate while others have only a simple ceremony.

- 5:30. Directors' Conference, followed by tent or cabin inspection.

- 6:00. Supper. Procedure same as other meals, noon meal in particular.

- 7:00. Campus games: This is a free period that is usually occupied with games and boat races. The nature of the games has been explained under the programme of activities.

8:15. Camp Fire: The term Camp Fire is used in a general way and does not always imply a real fire itself. Sometimes the meeting is in the assembly hall as in the case of Stunt Night. The campfire itself, however, when offered adds something additional to the campers' programme. This is in the atmosphere of awe and sober reflection that comes over everyone who sits around a typical evening campfire out in the quiet of the woods. It is one of the most important and impressive features of camp life. Already, under the heading "Programme of Activities," advice has been given as to means of filling up this period. It should start out with enthusiasm aroused by songs, jokes, stunts, and things that furnish light entertainment. A good story along mystery, biographical, or heroic lines always has a place. A short inspirational talk such as "Playing the Game," "Hitting the Line Hard," or "Don't Die on Third" makes a good conclusion. As a general rule one night is set aside during each section of the camp for a minstrel show in which the directors contribute the talent, and for a stunt night in which each troop prepares an attraction. Some suggestions for stunts are recitations, music, shadow-graph, the clown act, circus, athletic pyramid, take-offs on the camp directors, magical tricks, and the like.

9:00. Tattoo—call to quarters

9:15. Adjutant's roll-call.

9:20. Taps. All lights out.

Special features such as occur occasionally but not daily should be planned far enough in advance to secure their effective running-off. As a general rule the day's programme aims to be both educational and recreational while the evening's programme plans to offer entertainment and song, and inspiration such as comes from the heart-to-heart talks given at the camp fire. Necessarily, the evening activities must not be routine, but must offer something new to be sprung at each occasion.

The Sunday programme will have to be modified in minor particulars from that given above. The morning classes are omitted, as are the afternoon games. A Sunday school service is given either at 11 o'clock or at 11:30 in case the morning swim is dispensed with. Many visitors usually attend the Sunday dinner. (A good idea is to have the boys decorate the tables with wild flowers on this occasion.) The rest of the programme remains practically unchanged.

Visitors must not be allowed to come at random, or the regular schedule of the camp will be interfered with too much. Except for Sunday, the visitors should not come until late in the afternoon. They can then stay for supper and visit with their boys in the free period of the evening.

Individual Camp Emblems

Among the various stimuli of interest the idea of awarding a camp honor or a camp monogram for particularly conspicuous activity in camp affairs is one of the most common and also one of the most successful. At the Toledo, Ohio, Boy Scout Camp, an honorary society has been founded which for eight years has been uniformly successful in arousing curiosity and interest. It is known as the Order of the Mystic Circle and the following are the requirements for admission as taken from the Campers' Manual issued to each boy who goes to camp.

In order to get the first degree a camper must pass three requirements in each of the following divisions. To secure the highest award, all of the following must be passed:

Mental Test

1. Pass from Tenderfoot to Second Class, or from Second Class to First Class, or at least four Merit Badges.
2. Demonstrate by actual making, ten signs used in scoutcraft.
3. Name and point out ten different trees and six constellations of stars.
4. Write an acceptable article of at least four hundred words for the camp newspaper—it must be snappy, newsy material.

Physical Tests

1. Take part in all athletic games, playing regularly on an official team recognized by the athletic director.
2. Take morning plunge at least six out of every seven in camp.
3. Swim 50 yards or learn to swim 25 feet while in camp.
4. Go on a 24-hour hike, cooking meals.

Moral Tests

1. Attend Sunday services.
2. Write home at least four times a week.
3. Show self-control, reverence, and faithfulness in carrying out camp duties.
4. Unknown.

Social Tests

1. Demonstrate constant loyalty to and obedience to camp leaders.
2. Demonstrate entertaining ability by taking part in at least one camp-fire a week while in camp.
3. Volunteer services at least five times a week while in camp.
4. Spend at least two hours a week in some unselfish service for the improvement of the camp.

Other camps have somewhat similar qualifications for awarding honors or emblems. One plan is to give different colored emblems

according to the points that are made. They may be insignia to be worn or may be ribbons. In general, the qualifications attempt to stimulate personal improvement and abilities, neatness, a volunteer spirit for irksome tasks, a cooperative spirit in getting into the troop competitions, and a respectful attitude towards the superiors.

Unit Competition

There are many advantages in having the campers divided into units. For instance, if certain equipment is limited, the programme can be arranged so that each troop will complement but never conflict with the plans of the others. Again, there is the reason that the spirit of rivalry can be stirred up, so that the game element can be inserted into many things which ordinarily would be looked upon as work.

There are several ways in which the camp can be divided for group competition. In events where large numbers are not essential, inter-tent rivalry can be used. In most cases, however, the larger unit is desirable, and troop (sometimes called company or tribe) competition results.

Naturally, the first thought of using competition is in connection with games and contests. But there are many awards that can be used in connection with more drab functions. For instance, the troop having the best table can have a banner hanging over them, this emblem to be moved elsewhere when another table wins. Likewise the troop passing the best tent inspection can have a pennant displayed on its totem pole as long as entitled to it. The troop showing the best form at drill and retreat can be given the honor of furnishing the detail to raise and lower the flag for the ensuing day. These rewards, trivial as they may seem, do add extra satisfaction to the knowledge of a job well done.

These rewards need not only be counted as an end in themselves, to be given out temporarily from day to day. Points can be given for each achievement, and then the total of the points can be considered over a period of a week or so in a final rating. Then the troop possessing the highest number of points can be announced, possibly at Sunday noon or evening when many of the parents are present. The winning troop can be further awarded with a special table treat.

The following plan, as used in the troop contest of the Detroit Boy Scouts of Camp Brady, will serve to illustrate the use of a point system for group scoring:

Conditions of Contest:

1. *Inspection of Tents.* Morning inspection will not count toward the troop contest. For the winning tent in evening inspection 10 points will be awarded. Five points will be awarded for every tent securing an honorable mention at evening inspection.

2. *Inspection of Tables.* Three points will be awarded to the troop whose members win first place at table inspection after any meal. One point for honorable mention after any meal. Where members of different troops eat at the same table, each troop represented will receive the number of points won by that table.

3. *Details.* Ten points will be regarded as a basis for scoring. One point will be deducted from each daily score for each defect in performance of daily duties.

4. *Advancement.* One point will be awarded for each credit slip in advancement toward first or second class rank. Five points will be awarded each troop for each member completing first class or a merit badge while in camp. Three points will be awarded each troop for each member who completed second class tests while in camp.

5. *Drill.* This event will be judged by a committee to be selected each week by the officer in charge of the Sunday afternoon review. Twenty-five points—first place; 15 points—second place; 5 points—third place:—will be the scores. A troop will be judged on its performance during its whole time on the field.

6. *Baseball.* Troop leaders will arrange for a baseball tournament each week. First, second, and third places in this tournament will receive 25, 15, and 5 points respectively.

7. *Stunt Night.* A committee of officers to be selected by the officer in charge of stunt night each week will select the first, second, and third places in this competition. The points will be 25, 15, and 5 points respectively.

8. *Field Day.* This event will be run like a regular track meet with points for the meet counting 5 for a first, 3 for a second, and 1 for a third. The troops which secure the first, second, and third highest number of points in aggregate will receive 25, 15, and 5 points respectively.

The Problem of Discipline

The teachings of the Scout Law and Oath, in themselves, help make the problem of discipline easier. If the director has a thorough knowledge of boy nature, and possesses the right type of personality, he will be able to solve the problems of this kind which are inevitable at every camp. A discussion of some of the methods that have been used by camps as disciplinary measures may be helpful.

Among the most successful of these is the depriving of the offender of the privilege of swimming for a number of days, or of dessert at meals. Another satisfactory scheme is the "meditation log," to which offenders are sentenced for varying periods. This

log is usually placed in some very conspicuous place and when confined to it, one is not permitted to talk or amuse himself in any way.

For many of the group offenses, like talking or "rough house" after taps, or bad behavior at the table, the most effective plan is to punish the troop as a whole, even though only one or two individuals may have been the main disturbing factors. The troop is punished by depriving the members of some one thing especially favored, such as swimming privileges for the day, or of some special treat in the way of ice-cream or watermelon at meal time. A strong lesson is conveyed to the offenders when they realize that innocent boys have had to suffer with them. Along this line, discipline can be helped by including it as a factor in the individual and troop scoring plans.

There has been widespread discussion as to the advisability of such work as digging a stump or chopping wood as a punishment. It certainly is effective as such, but the opponents of this practice claim that it harms the true view of the nobility of labor.

Many camps have courts composed of judges selected by the boys. A standard list of rules is drawn up and each has a definite punishment attached for its violation. In the majority of cases this method of trial and punishment by the boys themselves has been particularly effective.

In the real serious cases, and especially if the offense has been repeatedly committed, the boy should be sent home. There is little time in camp for the officers to devote to individual corrective measures arising from insubordination or from the disobeying of the regulations which have in mind the safety of the campers.

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CHAPTER VII

ATHLETICS IN HIGH SCHOOLS

The Present Situation

The youth who is being brought up in an environment of democratic ideals will always enjoy athletic sports and exercises better than any possible form of gymnastics. It is a good thing that this is true; for, in addition to abounding health, the type of character that a democracy prizes—energetic, self-reliant, resourceful, and social—is produced by vigorous play. Therefore, one would say offhand that athletics should comprise the large part of physical education in our schools. But it does not. Athletics, as it so often exists to-day, is limited to the performances of a few carefully trained members of the student body; and these alone receive the benefits of this type of instruction. On the other hand, for the great rank and file of our high school students, physical education means the less enjoyable exercises of the gymnasium, performed two or three times a week according to the requirements. Being less enjoyable, the gymnastic exercises are looked upon as a task, and executed perfunctorily, so that it is a question whether or not the great body of students receive any physical education at all. Exercises performed without mental relaxation and inspiration are really drudgery, not physical education, because the very definition of the latter describes it as seeking the “recreation, education and development of the individual.” This, then, is the big problem: to make athletics really mean a bigger part of physical education by the opening of its advantages to the enjoyment and benefit of all.

The disparity between the members actually participating in athletics and the student body as a whole, has been so great that until recently athletics and physical education were looked upon as separate departments of the school, even so far apart as to have separate teachers. Although the tendency is more and more to bring the work of the two departments together, many schools still have a coach and a physical director. The coach in this case is

usually a regular teacher in the school, with his programme lightened so that he can carry athletics in addition. The physical director has charge of the gymnasium, compulsory exercise, examinations, and corrective work. At present he is really the physical educator, but he is not accomplishing what should be done when his programme lacks sports and games almost entirely, for this is what the American youth wants and needs. This does not mean to imply that gymnastics should be ignored entirely. A judicious blending of gymnastic exercises with an athletic programme would help in adding the qualities of formal discipline to the extent desired, also bodily development in posture, poise, and strength; but athletics should come first and predominate. When athletics, including recreative sports, team games, and track and field, can occupy the main programme of the physical director—and he will need assistants—then athletics will come to mean physical education. This, at present, it does not mean at all.

Athletics, in its present meaning, is one of the social activities of the school. As such, it occupies a very important place and is easily justifying its existence. By representing the school as a whole, the athletic team, whether of football, baseball, or track, makes for a strong school spirit as no other agency can. It makes the school a tangible thing that all students can pledge their loyalty to. This chance for expression comes at a period when the age interests of youth demand a pledge of loyalty to something.

This, then, is the situation as it exists to-day. Athletics stands for what is the most prominent social activity of the school, and incidentally, physical education for the few who represent the teams; whereas physical education signifies the compulsory attendance a few times a week at the gymnasium, supplemented by such advice as the physical instructor is able to give in matters of hygienic habits, or in outlining corrective exercises for the individual.

THE TWO PROBLEMS

Why are educators dissatisfied with the above situation? First, because many evils have crept into athletics, which have tended to offset its limited value as physical education, and also its wider value as a social institution; secondly, because the so-called physical education for the masses does not give them the type of exercise they want and need the most.

Fortunately, helpful agencies are at work which are rapidly bettering the above situation, both as regards athletics and physical education.

The reform movement is first eliminating, by both direct and indirect means, the evils that have caused the many agitations against athletics in its present status. Of course, before athletics is good for the many, it must be made good for the few. That is why the purging of present-day athletics from its evils is necessary before athletics can be extended and incorporated into the wider and ideal plan of use by the many. These evils are being corrected so rapidly that the school administrator to-day is in sympathy with athletics as a social agency, whereas ten or fifteen years ago he was hostile in his attitude.

Historical Sketch

When one studies the history of secondary school athletics in this country, he finds that all the problems inherent to-day are traceable to a lack of proper supervision. Sports sprang up so rapidly that school authorities lacked the insight to grasp the educational advantages that were offered, rather looking upon them as amusements, and outside the province of the school. Roughly, the history of school sports is a recital of the different stages they have gone through as regards the attitude of school authorities toward them. Between 1880-1890 came their sudden and rapid growth, with opposition on the part of schoolmen, and refusal to permit boys to represent the school, until the dangerous misuse of leisure time led to toleration. Between 1890-1900 came toleration as a necessary evil—but matters did not improve. This is the period of student-manager control, with its train of ensuing evils. Teams competing under the school name brought such discredit to the school, and such annoyance to the teacher, that by 1900 athletics faced either reform or abolition. Educational journals between 1900-1905 are filled with articles on the question. The decision went in favor of reform; and, as a result, we have the organized athletics of to-day, with evils still existent but fast on their way to disappearance. The miracle of reform took the course of faculty supervision and control—over twenty years late, but luckily not too late. There are other agencies operating but this is the vital one. At first faculty control took the form of strict rules, with penalties attached for violation, but to-day social conditions are being created out of which violations seldom appear. To-day's type of discipline over athletics is not the one which believes in frequent punishments for violations of the rules;

but is the preventive type which makes punishment seldom needed. It is the better way, and makes for harmony and mutual understanding between the faculty and the student body. As a result, athletics is serving to further educational aims to-day and in ever increasing power.

The Fight Against Athletic Evils

The most serious of the charges that have been made against athletics are given below, along with the constructive remedies that have been used in each case.

"Only a Few Are Reached"

Athletics has been for the few, not the many; and, instead of seeking to train all to moderate accomplishment, has trained the strong to excellence. This is a valid criticism if applied rightly. However, as long as athletics is justified as a social agency it is serving its purpose by training the teams that publicly compete. Therefore this criticism must fall at the doors of the Department of Physical Education which has as its duties the welfare of all; and now that the public is demanding athletics for all, it is the Physical Education Department that should meet this demand.

"The Training is One-Sided"

Athletics does not aim to train the strong to symmetrical strength, but rather to surpassing achievement in one sport. The boy is taught and coached along one line: if a good jumper, he does nothing but jump, in order that he may win in his event. Athletics must confess to this fault. It is being overcome to a certain extent by giving badge tests of different grades, first, second, and third, which compel the individual to pass from four to ten different requirements in order to gain the reward. The tests require versatility in different varieties of skill, and tend to make the athlete practice on the thing in which he is weak, in order to pass the test—if he fails in one requirement, he fails in all. Again, in the track meets, all-around events such as the pentathlon and decathlon are being given more honor than the individual ones. The new idea of sport for sport's sake, with the winning element less essential, will cause the athlete to give up the extra time he has been putting into proficiency for one event, into added recreation which will come from a change to another field. And, most important of all, physical education in

its educational sense will mean competent supervision which will properly classify all individuals, whether on the athletic team or not, and will require a necessary time on exercises which are needed to round out.

“Injuries and Over-Strain”

Violent forms of athletic exercise cause injuries and tendencies to overstrain. This element will always be present in athletics, but the danger can be greatly minimized by supervision which will inspect and properly train the players. The chance of the disability has always been greatest with those not physically fitted. Medical inspection, which is now being universally required for competition on first, second, or class team, is an absolute need. Again, proper supervision is classifying participants so that they will be equally matched in strength and endurance. Under student management it was not an uncommon thing to find a high school team playing a normal or college team; but that day has passed. Another factor which helps is supervision in giving proper training along physiological lines. The old type of coach applied college methods to high school boys; the new type realizes that high school boys are needing much of their energy in growth, and therefore cannot stand as rigid and intensive training as the college athlete. Lastly, the rules of the games are being adjusted to the age needs of school boys. For instance, the “Basket Ball Guide Book” gives twenty-minute halves with ten-minute intermission between as the regulation period of the game; but in the case of school boys, four eight-minute quarters are recommended, with two-minute intermissions between the quarters as well as the ten-minute rest between the halves. While the immediate supervision has been much improved, there is still a chance to take issue with the way in which some associations conduct meets and tournaments. At many districts and state track meets a boy is allowed to enter into too many events. The popularity of basket ball tournaments, too, has resulted in an undue strain on the players, for a lot of games must be played in a short time. The basket ball tournaments should not prolong the season unduly, as they do now, when winning teams become over-zealous and emerge from local and state honors, to take part in interstate gatherings. The objection is that these tournaments usually follow close on one another, and the players are sacrificed in health for the sake of the momentary glory.

"No Scientific Basis"

Athletics is not systematically based on the laws of physiology and hygiene, and intellectual growth; and therefore fails to meet age interests as well as graded gymnastics. This is the argument of foreign propagandists who are seeking to institute their respective gymnastic systems into our schools. But this argument is misplaced. It should be directed at the elementary school in case team play is stressed there. No one, however, will deny that the pupils in attendance at the high school are in the adolescent years of life, and the laws of physiology and psychology both show that this is a period of rapid organic growth, accompanied by gang spirit—which means loyalty, coöperation, and sociability. If there is anything that competitive sports and games certainly accomplish, it is the taking care of the needs of the youth at this stage. So that this "evil" is really not an evil at all.

"Lowers Scholarship"

Athletics is injurious from the mental standpoint, because it requires such an amount of time and energy that the players on the teams cannot keep up with their studies. This practically obsolete evil dates back to the days of student control when brawn and strength competed for the school under the guise of taking penmanship, or art, in order to be eligible for the team. But to-day the above charge is far from being true. Many statistical experiments among the high schools show that athletes as a class outrank the general mass of students in scholarship. And the experiences of many athletic coaches would lead to the conclusion that too much energy is not used up, by showing that members of football teams—which sport takes the most time and energy of any—gain on an average of from four to six pounds during the season; and this indicates that energy is increased rather than decreased. In one way, only, in infrequent individual cases, does it seem possible that athletics may be detrimental to school work; and then, not for the reason that the games take up time and energy needed for studies, but because the person wastes his free time by allowing his mind to concentrate on athletics instead of his school work. The writer believes, however, that a pupil who has a high regard for his studies will be a good student regardless of his outside activities, and that this criticism is manifestly unfair in that poor students also are found in the dramatic clubs, debating societies, and orchestras, and yet these activities are not blamed for cases of poor showing in the

classroom. On the whole it does not seem a serious thing as long as the average of the team members is above par; and the fault seems to lie in the individual, rather than in athletics.

"The Aim Is Wrong"

The aim of athletics is perverted and wrong; the end in view is victory, rather than social or intellectual advancement. This evil unfortunately exists, and is a serious one, as many faults of athletics are incidentally traceable to this one influence. It is one of the most troublesome heritages that have come down from the days of student management. The student manager, lacking support from his institution, went outside to get it. He found out early that winning teams brought crowds, and with crowds came gate receipts. In this way the professional spirit came in and even the faculty assumption of control has not been able to make athletics cease to be regarded as a source of revenue. This problem is a puzzling one. Yet English school boys, with compulsory athletics, and with the proper point of view, have shown one solution. Compulsory athletics, student subscription as the main financial support, and an understanding and sympathetic faculty—these are the things necessary. As soon as all students take part, athletics will assume its educational meaning; and when athletics does not have to depend for its existence upon the drawing of crowds, the necessity of a winning team will dwindle. Maryland has taken a step in the right direction by appropriating money for the Public School Athletic League.

"Coaches Not Best Type"

The coaches are not of the right type to influence growing young manhood. This charge was more true in the past than it is to-day. It was the overemphasizing of winning that led to the hiring of men of narrow training, and low social ideals, who were professionals in one line of sport, and who left the school as soon as their respective season was over. Because they did not have any permanent connections with the school, there was no check over them; and even if their methods did lose them a position, the success of their team was the biggest recommendation they needed to get a new one. To-day, the situation is quite the reverse. Almost universally the coach is a regular member of the teaching faculty. He is made to understand that he is in a position to exert a beneficial moral influence over the athletes and the student body, and that his success will be judged

along other lines than the mere winning of games. This does not mean that it is not essential to have a good understanding of athletic games, because without that the coach could not be exerting the total influence that is possible; but success is not judged on winning alone. It is not an uncommon thing to-day to see regularly winning coaches discharged because of questionable tactics employed. At first it was a difficult thing to get regular teachers with athletic knowledge for the schools, because the university athletes were the only source to draw upon, and but a small proportion of them could be attracted by teaching salaries. But to-day it is different. Many prominent normal schools and universities have recently instituted courses for athletic coaches, and give credit for the same. The classes in these courses are very largely composed of men who are not athletes. They receive theoretical instructions in the coaching of the various sports, in training, and in minor first aid. Many men who are not athletes make very successful coaches, and as soon as this became an established fact, regular teachers on faculties were led to study athletic work during the summer terms. Some did it with the idea of coaching; others with the idea of being able to assist the coach. The result was beneficial to a wonderful extent in giving a closer relationship between the faculty and the athletic activities. But few men preparing at normal schools to-day neglect to take these courses, and the small school has found much higher ideals as a result. Hitherto, the small schools have suffered most, because they have been unable to afford a coach, and consequently had to fall back for help from alumni or other temporary sources. But now the regular principal or teacher takes charge.

“Teaches Wrong Ideals”

Athletics has developed dishonesty, trickery, and unsportsman-like conduct, both on the part of the players and of the spectators, and by so doing has created a harmful moral atmosphere. Many things are contributing to make these assertions almost negative ones. The first thing is supervision, which means in the immediate sense strong leadership in building up wholesome play standards; and, more than that, means a school administration that will back the coach, whenever discipline is needed, as against the popular outcry. The second thing is organization. By this is meant the grouping of schools together in associations, so that all can compete under the same set of rules, and have an acceptable authority to judge on

questions of infringements of the rules. In the state of Michigan, the Michigan Interscholastic Athletic Association serves this purpose. It divides the schools into classes A, B, and C, according to size, and lays down definite rules regarding the basis on which schools can compete with each other. Smaller state organizations which follow in general the state rules are the district associations (such as the Saginaw Valley Conference), and the county associations (such as the Kent County Association), even down to city associations (as found in Detroit). In the case of the state associations the common penalty for violations of the established rules is suspension from games with other state schools for a period of one year. Common organization helps a great deal to remove mutual distrust, and the temptation to play "ringers," etc., as each school knows that the other is playing under the same rules, and that there is no advantage in lax eligibility. The associations of some states even go a step farther by making out a certified list of officials who are known to be competent and fair, and compelling schools belonging to the association to choose from this list. In this way, one school cannot say that the other school tricked them and obtained a partisan official; and any complaints would have to be made against the association and its certified list—a thing not apt to be done. Proper supervision and organization deal with the above problems directly; but there is a still more powerful agency dealing indirectly with the solution: organized play in the elementary schools and on the playground, and movements of Boy Scout type. One needs only to look at the manner of scoring of games in these fields to know what high ideals are fostered. Thirty-five per cent sportsmanship; 25 per cent reliability; 40 per cent winning—this is the grading plan of the South Park playgrounds in Chicago. Detroit and Grand Rapids in Michigan use similar methods. Fouls committed by players against the rules count against sportsmanship; and so does jeering the opponent or umpire, on the part of spectators. Such matters as conforming with official regulations as regards compiling of weights and statistics, and appearance on time, count toward reliability. It seems inevitable that children coming from such a training as this will bring a new spirit—and a better one—into the high school. It seems inevitable that the ideals that have been created for them will endure, and that the remedies for evils in secondary athletics will be worked out by inner forces within the youth, with but little need of external disciplinary force.

Result: Clean Athletics

The preceding paragraphs have shown the need of competent supervision as being the fundamental basis upon which reformed athletics has been made a reality. Looking at the results, educators must certainly feel satisfaction in not having supinely abolished athletics because it contained forces working for evil results, but in having wrestled with the problems in a good old American way, and won. Athletics is not entirely free from criticism to-day, but the reform movement is working all the while. Athletics may safely be said to mean physical education for those who are fortunate to receive its influences.

Athletics for All: Features of the Movement

But should educators stop here and be content? Athletics would not yet be physical education for all as well as for the few. It is not the intention of this discussion to try to prove the beneficial results of athletics. It assumes that games and sports, properly controlled and directed, are a great factor in the development of youth, physically, mentally, and morally. Therefore, athletics has the broader purpose of reaching the mass of the student body, and then only will it take its true place as a factor in physical education. Having tackled the one problem successfully, educators are tirelessly working on the new one. It is a big problem, and demands far-seeing vision. Several schemes for universal athletics have successfully passed the experimental stage and are being applied more and more as interest awakens. Some of them may be familiar.

The Efficiency Test

This provides opportunity for every boy regardless of ability. It is non-competitive in the sense that the student does not compete against other individuals; but competitive in the sense that he competes against his own record. This scheme is borrowed from the playgrounds, but the high school has not worked it out as fully as has the elementary school. Different grade systems of various cities have events numbering anywhere from three to fourteen in the test. Detroit has fourteen. The standards of accomplishment are graded, and badges or buttons given as the student passes from one grade to another. The badge test of the New York elementary schools is the best known throughout the country and attempts have been made to have it as a universal standard. As said before, high

schools are experimenting with this idea, but the standards of accomplishment have not been tested sufficiently as yet. The Y. M. C. A. test is fairly well suited to high school boys. The standard test has value because it furnishes an incentive to the individual to improve his physical accomplishments.

Mass Athletics

This plan, also, is borrowed from the playgrounds and elementary schools; but the secondary schools have already used it successfully, and the universities have even been led to experiment with it. The Western Conference has attempted competition in mass athletics, and although only a few of the schools took part, it shows the extent to which the idea has spread. The class competes as a unit and the average record is the class record. This is compared with the class record of an opposing class, or with a previous record of its own. The events are usually similar to those of the efficiency test, and require all-around ability, and consequently well-rounded practice instead of specialized practice. One good feature of this plan is that the stronger and more athletic boys of the class will coach and train the weaker ones in order that the latter can improve their records, and thus raise the class average. Trophies in the way of banners or cups are usually given to the winning class. The New York state syllabus of physical training has a fine list of events suitable for this purpose. The Michigan syllabus, under high school events, gives tables also. In considering the future of mass athletics, the following conclusions may be stated: mass athletics arouse spontaneous interest only when the members of the group competing are well known to each other, as in the case of the grade room, or fraternity. The attempts at using whole high schools, or whole universities, as a unit for competition have failed because the interest is too impersonal. One of the greatest possibilities of mass athletics lies in the opportunities it affords for statistical tests to show comparisons of different cities, or of different sections of the same city.

Credit

The above two tests are fine as suited to the individualistic type of athletic event, but do not cover the element of team play as found in games. So other means must be used in addition to the above. No other one helps as much as giving credit for work in athletics. Detroit high schools give two hours of credit to members of the first and second teams, and one hour to the members of "house" or

class teams. Grand Rapids gives one hour credit. Cities in other states give credit to the approximate amount of one-tenth of the graduation requirements.

Increased Facilities

Until recently lack of space and equipment was such a hindrance that even the first team found difficulties in being able to play. Now, however, almost every large high school owns its gymnasium and athletic field; and careful faculty management has conserved the athletic funds so that equipment is possible for numbers.

Minor Games

To a certain extent, the minor sports are helping to make athletics open to larger numbers. Many schools have recently added such games as soccer, tennis, volley ball, hockey, cross-country, and swimming to their list of sports and have organized representative teams for each of them. This gives plenty of opportunity to the student who desires to take part in athletics, even though he is not good enough to make the football or the baseball team.

New Games

Along this line, mention may be made of new games which have been invented and which require a minimum of space and equipment, and which are very popular. Volley ball and playground ball are two examples.

Classifying Players

Chicago's plan of having heavyweight and lightweight divisions in its inter-school competition is helping in increasing the scope of participants. This is following the playground plan of classifying players into groups according to size and age. In certain sports like boxing and wrestling, several divisions can be made—as many as seven.

Rural Play Festivals

Field days, tournaments, and "Olympiads," as they are called, are becoming increasingly popular with smaller schools. With small schools in rural communities, the problem of numbers is not a difficult one, as nearly all the boys are needed in order to fill the places on the team. The problem is to get them to organize teams by providing something to look forward to. An opportunity for contesting, with

the minimum of expense, is provided in a practical and attractive way by the "Olympiad." One has only to read the "Souvenir Programme" of the Kent County Athletic League in Michigan to see how this is so. Frequently, normal schools are found cooperating in building up a healthy interest in rural communities.

The Intramural Idea

The intramural idea has been growing rapidly and is an innovation of the university which the public school is finding well worth while to study and incorporate. Many high schools have already undertaken extensive programmes along this line. The purpose and aims of Intramural athletics are explained later, as are the many methods used in successful organization. The awarding of points for participation with additional ones according to the final standing of each helps to keep up the interest in the classes; especially if the combined totals of all sports are compared at the end of the year, and an award made to the class showing the highest all-around efficiency record.

Miscellaneous

Additional incentives are found in the plan of organizing honor societies, with membership including members of the first and second teams, and also of class teams; in the awarding of trophies, both class and individual, to the winning class teams; in the picking of "All Star" teams from the class organizations, and giving publicity to the same in the school publication; and, lastly, by means of the graded diploma, which lists the student's social activities along with his scholarship record.

Compulsory Athletics

In conclusion, it may be stated, almost as a certainty, that athletics and games improved and organized as they are to-day offer physical education and its many advantages to all students desiring the same. The only ones now being neglected by its opportunities are those who have no desire to play. There is no way of reaching these students except through compulsion, and compulsion in such cases is the only thing. One may wonder at that, and express doubt that compulsory play could be recreational or hygienic, but the proof is present to show that for this type of student it is indeed of value. Studies at the normal schools of Michigan, taken since compulsory

physical education to the extent of four hours went into effect, show that many persons of non-athletic ability or interests have found the play periods enjoyable ones. The reason for this change is a peculiarly human one. With athletics optional, the boy who is over-studious, and wrapt up in a desire for scholastic honors, regards time spent in play as wasted. He would enjoy playing if some end were apparent. His case in its relation to athletics is the same as that of the average student in his relation to the classroom. If the teacher said to the class, "Here is some outside reading that it would be well for you to do, if you wish to—it isn't necessary and you will not get credit for doing it, but you ought to read it for your own benefit," how many members would do the work? The studious ones! The others would regard it as wasted from their recreation period. And so it is with athletics: merely saying that participation is beneficial, will not induce the non-athletic students to give it the necessary time. But as soon as they understand that athletic periods are part of the regular work, and that they must be present, there is no option, and consequently all reluctance to go to the playground vanishes. It is then a regular part of their work, and their minds are free from the thought that they are wasting some of their time. It is a natural trait that everyone should desire reward for what is done.

Conclusion

Three aims have now been discussed. By reform, athletics for the few is being placed beyond the reach of criticism; by new opportunities and incentives, play is being extended to all those desirous of participating; and by compulsion, the small part of the student body wholly lacking this desire can ultimately be reached. With the gradual accomplishment of the aims involved, athletics will more and more come to mean the bigger part of physical education.

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CHAPTER VIII

ATHLETICS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

The Two General Phases

College athletics finds itself in much the same situation as athletics in secondary schools. Overshadowing all other phases of physical exercise is the attention, publicity, and financial expenditure given to the teams that are chosen to represent the school in matches with rival institutions. For this competition a few picked men are chosen and these compose what is known as the varsity team—the word “Varsity” being a contraction of the word “University.” Many evils have arisen and continue to arise in this system. They are, however, being combated all the while.

Until very recently the play needs and likings of all other students were neglected and the compulsory physical education meant that they were shunted into the gymnasium for a small requirement of formal work. This brings us to the second problem discussed under the secondary school system, that of extending athletic competition to a wide use by the student body as a whole. Late years have seen a great extension of opportunities to take part in activities of play nature, through the placing of games in the gymnasium hour, and through the development of competition between the different classes and organizations among the students. Athletics of the latter nature have been given the name “Intramural,” the literal meaning of which is “within the walls,” taking us back to the olden days when all towns and cities were surrounded by walls, and now applied in symbolic meaning to the university. Discussion of intramural athletics is postponed until later in this chapter.

The System of Intercollegiate Athletics

There is no need to give a full discussion of college athletics as practically all the features of secondary athletics, already discussed, apply just as much to the athletics of the university. There is the same inter-school competition only there are greater distances to travel; there is the spectacle of the game, except that crowds are

increased a score or more times; there is the great use of athletics as a stimulus for school loyalty, binding together alumni, not of one city or district, but of the whole country. Publicity is magnified; the records of the athletes and scores of the games become a sectional and national affair instead of a local or state one. Wonderfully kept athletic fields and clubhouses, highly paid and specialized athletic coaches and trainers, further testify to the extent of intercollegiate athletics as an institution. The football spectacle brings crowds, with bands, banners, pennants, flowers, yells, and songs. The annual Army and Navy game is a great social affair for the high dignitaries of the Nation. The football game is given a prominence rivaling the old Olympic festival or knightly tournament in their days of ascendancy. Some prejudiced critics compare the spectacle to that of the old Roman arena at its worst. This is biased and unfair; and the comparison cannot be made without admitting that the whole structure of our own society is crumbling into degeneracy; for disgraceful games, whether of Greece or Rome, or any other society, have only flourished when the people as a whole have been plunged into vice. Surely we cannot admit for a moment a comparison that likens this energetic virile country of ours to a senile empire.

The Commercializing of Intercollegiate Athletics

The very hold that intercollegiate athletics maintains upon the American public is the main reason that it has been diverted into a vast money-making enterprise.

This commercializing of athletics has, in turn, manifested itself in an inordinate desire to win, in order that large crowds can be drawn for all occasions: and accordingly as mammoth crowds of 50,000 people or more are drawn, there is a scramble for choice seats, out of which ticket speculation arises; there is a charge for admission rivaling that found at professional exhibitions; and financial drives take place among the alumni and other supporters to build huge stadiums that will not only guarantee ample seating capacity for years to come, but will outrival anything previously in existence. This emphasis on the financial end of the game brings in a professional spirit and a toleration of ethical standards that make difficult the efforts of those idealists who strive to preserve school athletics as an amateur institution in spirit as well as in name.

There is this to be said in defense of the placing of college athletics on such a business basis with the main emphasis on gate re-

ceipts; a large amount of money is obtained that could not be secured through public taxation. The administrators of colleges find this a practical consideration that silences much of their condemnation of the professional practices that creep in. This defense does carry the powerful argument that through it collegiate athletics are practically made self supporting, and many minor sports and intramural activities that could not otherwise be carried on are enabled to be maintained.

Present-Day Problems of Intercollegiate Athletics

In a manner similar to that described under secondary schools, many evils arose in the early days of intercollegiate athletics, have been fought just as earnestly by educators, and have been gradually eliminated. Most of these have already been discussed, but there are a few evils that are distinctly related to the college. In general, all these go back to one thing—the extensive commercializing of athletic competition.

Proselyting

First among these is the evil known as proselyting. Proselyting refers to the inducements offered by colleges and universities to get promising high school athletes to attend their respective schools. These inducements are often made by athletic authorities of the school, who offer monetary consideration in the way of free tuition, board and room, or concessions in the way of snap jobs. Even when the athletic authorities refrain from searching out athletes, the way is not barred for over-enthusiastic alumni to do the same thing, even to the extent of personally footing the bills. The excessive competition to secure "ready made" athletes results in mutual suspicion that the other school has obtained certain star athletes through some secret offer or bribe, and this suspicion becomes magnified in its circulation as a rumor. While such a situation exists, it is impossible to judge a school fairly as to its athletic merits. Quite often a school with a small student body will rise to fame in the athletic world through teams that have been recruited in the above manner. This does not show the school's true representative standing. It makes athletics a means for advertising, rather than for education. It places a premium on winning rather than preserving a friendly relationship with one's natural rivals. It is a great waste of effort, for if all schools alike ceased their activities

along this line, each would get its fair share of good athletes in the long run.

Professionalism

Another serious problem is that of professionalism. An athlete who receives money for his services loses his amateur standing and becomes a professional. This evil is most felt in college circles, for the high school athlete is seldom proficient enough to be a financial attraction. The college code bars all professionals, but in the enforcing of the law there has been a laxness owing to the fact that the sympathies of the great body of players, of spectators, and even of athletic and faculty administrators, are divided, more often being with the offender than against him. This is for the reason that the rule on professionalism is obsolete; it places the emphasis on small technicalities rather than on the spirit of truly amateur play. In its workings, if applied strictly, many innocent offenders are barred from all school competition, while others who knowingly violate all the amateur ideals still escape punishment by adopting the subterfuges of playing under an assumed name, or accepting pay for an imaginary job. The difficulty of getting proof against athletes who are accused of having received money, has led one large athletic conference to legislate that any player who has participated in any non-scholastic game where admission is charged shall be rated a professional as regards school competition. This is a more workable law, but it brings professionalism perilously close to the varsity exhibitions, where admission is charged.

Another objection to the present rule is that it favors the wealthy class, who do not need to earn money during the vacation periods in order to return to college, and have other sources of play open in the way of country clubs equipped with tennis, golf, and swimming facilities. These, the poorer boy does not have. Our colleges should be too democratic to make such discriminations.

Of all the different sports, baseball causes the most trouble along this line. This is for the reason that baseball is a summer sport, coming at the time when the athletes are out of school on a long vacation. The last few years, however, have seen professional football and basket ball making inducements to the star school players, and this is a much more serious thing. No varsity players should be allowed to compete on outside organizations while the school year is in progress, for he is then doing an injustice to his school and to himself. The coach and trainer are giving him all the exercise he

should possibly take, and if he attempts more, he is reducing his value to his teammates, and also taking chances of overstraining, besides neglecting his school work. Too, he is capitalizing the name of the university to his own ends, for professional football depends on college players with strong advertising power, to make a go of it.

The college should attack all professionalism, not on the grounds of an athlete having received a monetary consideration sometime during his life, but because of the influence that inevitably follows contact with the professional games. The atmosphere of professional amusements is one of low standards of morals and sportsmanship that result from money easily made and habits of loafing, and the college athlete who lingers in it cannot help but carry with him the same degenerating spirit when he comes back to his school teammates. The school player apes the professional.

There are too many angles to the problems of professionalism to attempt to treat them all in a short discussion. The rule no doubt will be improved from time to time. When a fair rule is finally settled upon, it should be strictly enforced. This should be done through a campaign of education, among the student body particularly; and by a close cooperation with other organizations that are striving to promote sport for sport's sake. It should not be difficult to work in unison with the industrial concerns, where many school athletes work during the summers, because industrial recreation departments, too, are interested in stamping out professionalism, a menace which has largely disrupted all their broad plans for recreation among the employees.

Scouting

Scouting refers to the custom of sending a representative of the athletic association to attend all the games in which the opponents play, with the object of bringing back complete information about the strength and weakness of the opponents, both as regards individual players and the methods of strategy. Scouting is considered honorable and above-board; the rival institution expects such visitors and provides good seats for them as guests. The objection is that the cost of sending men to different sections of the country over each week-end has no justification except the desire to win.

Gambling

The effects of gambling are discussed elsewhere in this book. Suffice it to say, that gambling as it relates to college athletics can be

the least condoned of any type. First of all, is the reason that the student is risking his parent's money and not his own. Then, too, college athletics have a claim on the loyalty of their followers that is not true of the patrons of a professional sport. Gambling disintegrates loyalty to the team, one of the things that should be preserved whether winning or losing as long as the players do their best. The student who loses money blames the team and the coach, but never himself.

Unwise Schedules

Long trips, barnstorming tours, and post-season games are relics of the professional spirit still clinging to our college games. The end sought in such cases is one of advertising. This certainly is true, for if an educational aim could be advanced, then weak teams would be sent on such sight-seeing trips, too, but such is not the case. The effect on the player's studies can easily be seen. Schools which permit athletics to be used in this advertising are bound to allow low scholastic standards of the athletes at the same time. College athletics must be considered not as an end in themselves, but only as a contributor to the larger aims of the school, first of which is to give each student a sound course of study, and prepare him to be a successful individual and a public-spirited citizen.

Tutoring

Tutoring athletes who are behind in their work is a vexatious problem. Quite often the alumni contribute to a fund for this purpose in the event that the policy of the athletic authorities is against it. Where there has been criticism against money being spent for tutoring, the idea has been tried out of having a number of good students organize themselves into a volunteer tutoring corp. This scheme appeals to the loyalty of the students who help, but the initial enthusiasm almost invariably "peters out." The athletes being tutored do not take the work seriously when faculty men are not giving it; and the helpers lose interest when they find that the lessons they have outlined have not been prepared. The first answer to tutoring is that the athlete should not need to be tutored. The practice periods and schedules should not encroach on his time so much that it is necessary to resort to such unusual methods. In justice to the athletic authorities it must be said that in many cases the faculty, too, are forgetting that there should not be too much demand on the student's time. Not infrequently the

coach has to keep his afternoon schedule lengthened out unduly in order to accommodate students whose class work runs late into the afternoon.

The Training Table

This evil, once formidable, has practically become non-existent. A number of years ago it was customary for the different schools to have the athletes eat together, and to pay the expenses of their board. Because of the objection made to this financial outlay, which verged on the professional idea, most of the leading conferences of the country abolished the training table. There is, however, much to say in favor of the training table; especially so, where the coach is forced to continue his practice so late that the players either miss their suppers at their regular boarding houses, or are forced to eat a cold meal hurriedly. Either this situation must be changed, or else some arrangement must be made which will allow the men to eat together at a convenient time, with special attention to the diet needed before games and after hard practices.

The Good Side of Intercollegiate Athletics

There are many bad things that can be said of our intercollegiate athletics; there are more that are good, otherwise athletics would not have flourished and grown in spite of organized opposition. The ideal situation, yet one which in many cases is being approached to-day, is brought out below in the things that must be listed to the credit of varsity athletics.

Varsity athletics has the opportunity of giving a valuable training to the students fortunate enough to win a place on the team. Many lessons needed for life are learned. The mingling with other young men on the athletic field makes for a broad-minded man, as does the meeting with fellow opponents from other sections of the country. Added to the liberal spirit, is the spirit of sacrifice of self to the attainment of common ends, shared by all teammates alike, which brings in the lessons of cooperation, loyalty, and service. Examples of honesty, good will, friendliness, and courtesy come up daily, each to preach its little sermon of sportsmanship. Then, too, the dominating qualities—those of determination, of courage, of poise, of leadership—these, and many more of like nature are brought out in the participant.

Indirectly, the varsity games serve in a larger way. They serve

as examples of skill for the onlooker to emulate, a feeling that is stirred in all spectators who are watching a performance of merit—ending in a desire to test out their own skill in a like manner. They show the highest degree of technique and teamwork; the beginner will be attracted by some special feat of skill, which he will keep in mind and practice to master for his own accomplishment. The varsity game is a stimulus for the participation of the great number of students who play on intramural teams, shown by the fact that the intramural interest is greatest in those sports the varsities have popularized. Varsity exhibitions keep the ideas of physical prowess alive in this age when the goal of success is one of sedentary occupation. In every line of endeavor, whether it be art, music, science, business, or athletics, the outstanding figures who have achieved high attainment serve as the inspiration for those lesser lights who are starting out on their careers and seek examples to emulate and pattern after.

Too, as Groos so strikingly brings out in his discussion of witnessing "fighting plays," the spectators undergo the same sensations as those of the actual performers themselves. There are the tense moments just as the game is to commence, the breathless suspense and quiet. Then there is the struggle, in which the normal onlooker takes part. He wants one side to win; to that side he gives his loyalty. Groos says, "Inner imitation allows us to take part in fights through subjective participation in attack, defense, strategy, risk, victory, and defeat." The elemental emotions are aroused in even the most sedate human being. The effect is even more far-reaching; for if the spectator undergoes the tension that follows the course of the struggle, and reverts himself back to his primitive self, he just as much must keep his civilized self uppermost. He must give credit to the opponent who has made a wonderful play, he must decry the unsportsmanlike act, he must be generous in victory and brave in defeat. The crowd, then, as well as players share in the emotional training that results from the athletic spectacle, and there is brought home to each of the members that make it up, the meaning of courage, loyalty, perseverance, poise, and self control. The ideals they hold in their hearts are demonstrated.

It is the effect of the football game, or of baseball, or basketball, upon the sympathies of the crowd that gives it what is perhaps its most important function of all in college life. The game breathes a personality into the institution of the school. It is the one thing in common that all students may share, no matter how diversified

their interests otherwise. For this reason it affords the biggest expression of college spirit—a thing that is not confined to the students alone. The old grads cling to and treasure this spirit, which for them furnishes many occasions for reunions, homecomings, and memories to linger over. Even during the war, the university men in the trenches, when writing home, never neglected to ask for news of the team, whose success meant to them the success of their school—their Alma Mater.

The competition between two rival institutions, each bringing thousands of followers to the support of its respective team in the game, helps to break down sectional differences and bring about a friendly contact that results in more cosmopolitan and liberal mindedness on the part of those involved.

Many schools have attempted the experiment of doing away with interschool athletics, but in almost every instance have found it necessary to restore them. It was found that the school spirit dwindled away until it became a nonentity. It was found that the students, lacking the chance for interest in week-end games of outdoor and wholesome nature, found attractions of a vicious nature. Interschool athletics do serve as an outlet—a safety valve—for the enthusiasm and vigor of college boys. It replaces the old gang lawlessness which formerly manifested itself in town brawls, and in week-end trips to large cities.

The things that have been mentioned are all expressions of indirect and ideal results. There is the one practical thing that has been mentioned before; the use of the large sums of money which the public so willingly spends to see the varsities perform, to the building of athletic plants and gymnasiums and maintaining them, at practically no cost whatsoever to the university. This does mean that money otherwise needed to keep facilities for physical exercise in running order, can be diverted to use in the upkeep of some other phase of the university's work.

The Factors in Athletics

If one makes a close study of college athletics, he will find that it is made up of six factors, as follows:

1. The players—anxious to win, but quite willing to adopt the examples of sportsmanship taught them. Unless professional influence has made itself felt, they are fine young men with high ideals of play, but of an age, however,

to be easily influenced by suggestion. The coach's influence may be just as much for the bad as for the good. Too easily can the players be made to think that "to get" an opposing star player, is a part of the game.

2. The coach—rabidly anxious to win, because his job depends on it. More often than not he is a peaceful, sociable being, who is forced by the existing situation to hunt up athletes, to tolerate professional ethics, and to give instructions against the spirit of the rules. With him it is a case of "get the other fellow first, or he will get you." He is the unfortunate victim of circumstances, tossed about on the fickle current of success and defeat; one moment lauded to the skies, the next made to feel an outcast.

3. The school president—aware of the evils in athletics, yet willing to tolerate them if success can be obtained. He is anxious to build up the school, keep up a strong school spirit, and keep the alumni contented. Athletics to him is an advertising medium, therefore the school must win.

4. The faculty—to blame for many of the evils that have come to be associated with intercollegiate athletics;—have been neglectful and have watched things develop wrongly with indifference or without interference;—are the fairest minded of all people in their relation to the actual game for itself. They want to see a good game, regardless of which team wins. They want clean sport. They are interested in the athlete, except when the latter acts as a professional rather than as a "school boy." They are resentful of the coaching staff being given a higher salary basis.

5. The student body—want to beat their rival and are apt to be dissatisfied otherwise;—easily susceptible to influence, and if the policy of the school authorities and athletic people is to consider "sport for sport's sake," they will quickly fall in line. When a professional influence prevails, they back the team only if a winning one; if the true representation of the school is made, they will back their players for doing their level best. They can be taught the meaning of sportsmanship. The influence of the students is small, as they have no authority, and are a transient group—some graduating, others coming in.

6. The alumni and sporting public—the worst influence in college athletics to-day;—the forces that are demanding a winning team regardless of the methods used in obtaining it. They see the notoriety and the professional aspect only. They are the most potent forces in directing our collegiate athletics; they are the political forces that carry influence, that will organize to recruit athletes when the athletic fortunes are low. They have permanency and influence, but act too much on impulse to make this influence felt in the right way.

The Dominant Factor in Control

The evils of intercollegiate athletics are difficult to cure. This is for the reason that a new emphasis is laid in the basis of control. The public school represents faculty, students, and parents; with the parent influence joined with that of the faculty to curb excessive interschool athletic rivalry. In the case of the college, however, the parent influence is very small, and a new factor, the alumni, appears

and places emphasis on an undesirable phase of athletics. Parents are in close touch with the public schools; they want welfare instead of advertisement and notoriety; college alumni, distant, and in impersonal relation, cannot help but be more interested in the things that bring their school's name before the public. Success of the team, nationally known, advertises the institution, and advertises the alumni in turn. The alumnus is most loyal when the team is overwhelming all rivals.

Alumni influence upon an institution is very important. The public schools are largely supported by public taxes, but the colleges are endowed wholly or in part, even the state ones depending largely upon subscriptions and donations to go ahead with buildings and other enterprises. The good will of the alumni is an imperative necessity. While the fair name of the school in question remains prominent in the public eye, the alumni remain contented, and are easy subjects for financial bequests. When things go wrong athletically, for that is the line of closest connection between the school and its graduates, the alumni hold indignation meetings; blame the coach as being out of date, the trainer as being a fizzle, the faculty as flunking the best athletes out of grudge, and the president as failing to keep an aggressive spirit alive.

The crisis may end only with the lopping off of a few official heads to appease the alumni wrath; or may linger until a football victory or two causes it to turn the way of convalescence. But during the interim one thing has happened on an extraordinary scale: the alumni have pledged themselves to do something positive towards securing the most noted high school stars to attend their university and restore its fallen prestige. In this extreme mood they will entertain these prep school stars, take them on sight-seeing tours to their particular university, banquet them, and even bribe them to attend. The intense desire to win has in its course led to this one greatest evil of intercollegiate athletics—proselyting.

The Solution

The majority of readers will no doubt feel that athletic competition in itself is all right; that it is the commercializing of it that is wrong. Even then, the commercializing may not be wrong, if the athletic affairs are so conducted as to make them a medium for good, to spectators and players alike, as they may be.

Commercialized athletics, to relieve itself of the harmful tendencies that cling to it, must first of all give up its claim to being justified on educational grounds entirely. Educational athletics must include the student body as well, or the claim is unfounded.

Varsity athletics must accept a commercial status until such a time as it is brought into such close cooperation with the universal participation on the part of the student body, that each cannot exist and carry out its fullest aims without the help of the other. This cannot be brought about as long as winning is made the primary purpose. As long as winning is made an end in itself, the claim that athletics desires to make, that it is educational, can never hold. To be educational, athletics must place the lessons of all the ideals we hold for strong manhood and womanhood first of all. Defeat after a fair fight is educational; but victory by unfairness is not. True, it is ridiculous to think that winning is not an important part of every game. A game would not be worth playing if it were not worth winning, but it is the qualities brought out in the winning or losing that mean the most in the long run. Reform must come through the players themselves, through the coaches, through the general public, and through district conferences, faculty controlled, to make rules that can be enforced.

The players can be directed rightfully by barring all professional influence. Then, too, just as the playground and elementary school influence is reacting for the good on secondary school athletics, so improvements in the secondary school player will react on the college. These things will all mean a better source of material as far as ideals are concerned. The importance of the players is shown by President Ogilby, of Trinity College, when he states, "Undoubtedly good fellowship between worthy antagonists is the strongest factor in the purification of athletics."

The coaches should be college graduates; they will be better imbued with the spirit and ideals of college athletics than any professional player possibly can be. We insist on college training for those who are to instruct the students in their academic work—the intellectual coaches. Why not an even broader training for those who are to instruct on the athletic field, where moral lessons are learned or lost? The coach should be given a respected standing on the faculty, with his worth judged by his success in influencing large numbers of students rather than on the single basis of a winning team.

So soon as it finds out that its criticisms of the coach, team, and

administration will have no effect if based on the grounds of a winning team alone, the general public will better understand the purposes of the game. As knowledge of the technique of the different sports becomes more broadcast, the people will have greater interest in that aspect of the game.

Rules must be made, but by conferences in which all the schools are joined. Reform cannot be brought about by one individual alone. A coach or athletic director may be the most high-minded of men, and strive for clean athletics; but just the moment the team loses, the public attacks him as a theorist and idealist, and demands a practical man who can give results—results meaning, “a win at any price policy.” On the other hand, a conference of ten schools may pass laws for all of the different members, and even though the law is unpopular, there is no way of taking out spite on any particular individual. If one school alone adopted the rule that a man cannot play on the varsity while he is a freshman, and it began to lose games, the policy of that school would be attacked. But when all schools bind themselves to abide by it, a step forward is made. This is one rule in particular that has done a great deal towards abolishing the tramp athlete, the professional in college ranks, and proselyting. It not only makes a year's wait, but it acts as a probation period in scholastic work.

The present athletic system has largely gotten out of the hands of the faculty and into the hands of the sporting public. To-day, faculties are endeavoring to get it back, and their first means is the formation of a district conference. Everywhere to-day, a movement is developing for the grouping of colleges into conferences, with rules the same for all the members. The one-year rule is one good move. So is the rule making the season the same length for all members. The Western Conference has made another step forward by passing the rule that no member of any association may write an athlete with the idea of inducing him to come to the one particular school.

The judicial branch of our athletics is weak. Faculty boards of protest such as are now in existence are not sufficient. No school wants to make a protest against another school's players, knowing it will be taken as a personal affront, and bring about hard feeling and maybe retaliation. An Eligibility Committee for the conference is a necessary thing but it should be an investigating committee and not a hearing committee as at present. The impersonal element must be brought in. Each college athletic conference needs an impartial judge.

To such a disinterested party each school should submit the names and addresses of its varsity players. This central office should investigate into the matter of the athlete's standing as an amateur, and the influence which brought him to the certain school. Then we shall be having referees in the same capacity we use them in games. Can one imagine the outcome of a football game, if the officials did not look for infractions of the rules, but sat apart waiting for protests to be made? Yet that is the way our present faculty system works.

Collegiate athletics is in a state of transition. The suggestions in the way of improvement that have just been mentioned seem practical ones and are being experimented with to-day. Upon their success largely depends an institution of competitive athletics which will have the united support of all groups.

INTRAMURAL ATHLETICS

The word Intramural is the name that has been coined to apply to all athletics of a non-varsity nature. The scope of its work takes it everywhere within the university, the goal in view being to reach every student who is interested in any form of sport. The rapid growth of intramural activities has largely offset the "athletics by proxy" criticism that has identified itself with the varsity exhibitions.

Scope of Intramural Athletics

This type of athletics received a big boost during the war, when programmes of mass athletics were a part of the training at all the army camps. Since then, the colleges throughout the country have been promoting the idea more vigorously than ever before and even many high schools have already adopted many of the main features of intramural athletics.

In order to reach all the students a great variety of activities must be offered. The student who has a liking for hockey must have his chance the same as the one who likes baseball. As a result the programme includes as many sports from the following list as the particular institution finds it possible to offer: football, baseball, basket ball, track, tennis, soccer, hockey, swimming, wrestling, golf, skating, skiing, tobogganing, horseshoes, and there may be others not so universally known. For every one of the popular competitive sports on the programme the Intramural Department organizes teams, schedules, and leagues. In addition, there is a field for promoting

exercise along another line; i.e., that of furnishing the facilities, so that the students will avail themselves of their own accord. For instance, a skating rink or swimming pool gives an opportunity for a good deal of impromptu unorganized exercise. Tennis courts and bowling alleys do the same.

The Methods of Organization

In the organized competition, the students are reached by means of leagues which use the class, department, fraternity, society, sectional club, church, and military company as the units for rivalry; and in case of some of the sports like cross country, golf, or tennis, open campus tournaments or meets are held whereby the individual can compete for himself. Incentives other than the fun of playing are offered in the way of prizes which include "numeral" jerseys to the class winners, cups to the fraternities, and individual medals to the members of teams not having a permanent affiliation in the manner the fraternities possess. Of all the leagues, the class league should be favored because there is no barrier of caste and it expresses the highest democratic meaning of the school.

What Types of Activities are Favored

While practically every form of athletic activity is offered, still some sports are favored more than others by the student participants. In general it may be said that the average player prefers the team game to the activity which emphasizes individual ability; and in the case of team game, prefers the type which he can enjoy playing without holding long preliminary drills, or buying extensive equipment. Basket ball and playground ball are ideal intramural games because they answer these requirements. The teamwork can be impromptu and the players can form teams on the spur of the moment. Because there is no great amount of technique involved, the type corresponds largely to the English idea of afternoon sport.

The Aims of Intramural Athletics

In choosing the games to favor in the intramural programme, student interest must be considered partly, also the aims which are to be accomplished. There is a wide difference of opinion among people as to the aim of intramural work. The common notion is that the class team exists as a recruiting place from which material for the varsity is sprouted. Incidentally this is true—the class team does.

help the varsity; not only by uncovering men who have lacked the time or the confidence to try out for the big teams, but by getting more men out as candidates through increasing the following in each sport; also by keeping varsity men in shape during their off seasons; and in the case of a new sport, it is of material aid in nursing the team through the informal or building-up process. The class programme also helps the varsity in another way; in such events as cross country runs or tennis tournaments, the men likely to win varsity consideration are brought to the notice of the coach, and this saves him much time in sorting out his material. The aid to the varsity is not a primary aim of the intramural work, however. Intramural athletics has an end in itself. What is this end? It can be one or all of these things: the promotion of sociability, of wholesome recreation, or of an all-around physical development which will prepare men to become capable and successful in their chosen field of work in life.

A social purpose is evident, although it is not the big one. The men of each class are brought together, and later the men of different classes. Friendships are formed and a spirit for one's class is stimulated. Fraternities are brought into closer relations with each other. This spirit makes of each class a small college, each with its "Varsity" and followers. That congenial fellowship is brought about cannot be doubted.

It is the second end, namely, that of recreation, that the Intramural Department fosters the most at present. Games which give spontaneous fun, refresh the mind, and which leave the player moderately invigorated, rather than over-tired, are the ones that seem to fit the needs. The following of this idea accounts for the addition of sports such as bowling, quoits, and volley ball to the range of activities. This trend has been opposed by the followers of the old school who advocate "rugged youth by adherence to rugged sports." These people overlook the fact that rugged sports should require careful training and that this is not possible under any system of voluntary participation. Regardless of the chance for debate, it is undeniable that the mildly recreative sports are popular, and economize time, space, and money.

A third possible end has been mentioned before, that of physical development. The idealist in athletics confuses intramural athletics with physical education. But there is a big distinction. It is true that class activities are physical education, but only in part. Physical education is a broad term. It stands for a definitely outlined

programme of exercise that is continuous and aims at definite results. In addition, it is compulsory; the school grants a specified time for its furtherance. This is not true of intramural activities. The class athlete comes out for the team—maybe attends a few practices—and plays on the day of the game. The whole idea is voluntary. Therefore, although he gets some healthy exercise, it is not regulated enough for the greatest physical benefit; nor for the accompanying mental and moral effects.

Relation of Intramurals to the Required Programme

But the hope of intramural athletics is that it will gradually assume the proportions of physical education. In spite of the great amount of good that can be accomplished by voluntary means the programme can only reach its ultimate goal when it has compulsory attendance behind it. But it will not be sufficient merely to get all the students out upon the athletic field. A programme must be drawn up to take care of them. The programme that seems most likely is one that will be made up of both required and elective courses or exercises. The required exercise should comprise a certain amount of mass drill, also individualistic exercises testing speed, strength, endurance, and coordination. These would serve the double purpose of giving an exact chart of each student's ability and of arousing the incentive within the student himself to compete against his own record, and to better it. The elective exercises should comprise the well-known sports—they furnish the youth with the thrill of being part of a cause and of contesting for it, and in so doing teach him the lessons of courage, resourcefulness, loyalty, and sociability. Each season there are six or more sports that the college or university could offer, the student to select one. As there are three seasons in the regular school year, each student would become acquainted with three different sports, and would receive all-around exercise instead of the one-sidedness that is apt to result from the following of one sport as a specialty. The programme could be offered all through the school day. Such a scheme would give a nicely balanced physical fitness, as the tests would give muscular development, while the games, bringing in the running element, would give increased organic efficiency. If so desired, the intramural leagues, tournaments, and meets could be kept on a voluntary basis as at present, and they would be benefited by having the participants much better trained in all ways.

Conclusion

Intramural athletics has already become a fixture as regards demand and popularity. While not so spectacular as the varsity type, still it finds itself in favor with all people alike for it carries with it the hope of placing athletics in its true place in the educational curriculum. With intercollegiate athletics rightfully conducted, and with intramural athletics extended to a compulsory basis, the athletics of the school will have approached the ideal. The two systems should work in harmony for common ends; for each has an important place in the life of the school; and each should be indispensable to the other.

A general idea has been given of the nature, aims, and problems confronting the newly developed movement for "athletics for all." It is not necessary to go more into detail at this time, as the success of intramural work is largely based upon effective methods of organization, a topic which is given separate treatment.

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CHAPTER IX

THE PHILOSOPHY OF PLAY

In former chapters we have surveyed the rise and progress of the play movement, observed the remarkable rapidity of its growth, analyzed the phases of its promotion, and studied in detail a few of the most important types of organization, such as the playground, the social center, and the summer camp. It seems best at this time to inquire into the origin and fundamental nature of play. How does play arise? What is it? Why do all children like to play? Why do we take so many pains to organize and promote it? Has it any value, and if so, what is it good for?

It is well to consider such questions seriously and not to take too much for granted about the play movement just because it is popular and successful at the present time. Popularity and temporary success are no sure evidence of permanence or real value. Fads come and go overnight and fashions appear and vanish with the seasons.

According to the old notion, the word play was associated with fun only. People did not think of the boy's play as being a preparation for his work as a man. They had a vague notion that play is helpful; accordingly, the saying "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy." But to-day this phrase has been extended so that people interpret it as "All work and no play makes Jack a dull man." The school, except in the case of the kindergarten, has been slow to take up the play movement; such agencies as the Boy Scout movement, the Junior Y. M. C. A., and the supervised playground, earlier anticipated the importance of play, and used it to direct the natural enthusiasms of youth into the proper channels, so that a foundation for good citizenship could be laid. To-day the school is no longer hostile; instead, it recognizes the natural tendency to play and uses it as a means of individual development and to promote the social spirit of the school and classroom. Many opinions have been advanced from time to time as to the origin and nature of play, and it is of interest here to consider some of these theories.

THE THEORY OF SUPERFLUOUS ENERGY

This is one of the oldest, simplest, and most wide-spread theories of play. According to this theory, play is "blowing off steam"; children play because they are so full of animal spirits, so overcharged with muscular energy, that they cannot keep still. Schiller, German poet and philosopher (1759-1805), expressed the idea clearly when he defined play as "The aimless expenditure of exuberant energy." Schiller illustrates his meaning by reference to the lion, who roars when he is well fed and at his ease, by the singing of birds, and by the insects that swarm in the sunshine.

The original author of this theory is not definitely known. One writer says that it dates from the Stoic philosophers of ancient Greece, but this has not been verified. Many modern writers call it the "Schiller-Spencer" theory, but this is not a good name for it. It was mentioned in educational literature long before the day of Schiller and Spencer; moreover, Spencer makes surplus energy only a part of his theory. He emphasizes the fact that play tends to simulate the activities of real life.

Whatever may have been its origin, the idea that play is simply an outburst of surplus energy is so generally held and has been held so long that one may call it a tradition, handed down to us from our forefathers. The average citizen, who wants more things than he can ever buy with his earnings, and whose working hours crowd his time for eating and sleeping, is apt to look forward anxiously to the time when his children will be able to work, and has but little patience with any expenditure of energy that does not bring results in wages or work done. This simple and plausible excess-energy theory of play is quite within the mental grasp of the uneducated workingman and fits well into his frame of mind and his philosophy of life. If a boy has strength to waste in playing tag, why not get his running while going on errands? If he wants to bat a ball, why not just as well beat a carpet? Why should not the girl take care of a baby instead of playing with a doll? These things, it is reasoned, involve the same identical activities as play and at the same time accomplish something worth while. Those who think of play as "the aimless expenditure of exuberant energy" very naturally look upon child labor as something to be much preferred. Most of the active opposition to the plans of the play movement is based on the superfluous-energy idea. Very likely, instead of being the contribution of some philosopher, it is merely the common opinion of adults among

the industrial class, who think of work as the main thing in life and have little use for play.

The prevalence of this view of the play problem was shown when college students first asked for time and equipment for athletic sports. Parents, managing boards, and faculty members agreed at first that the students might better spend all their energy on their college work. After a time the argument was made that it would be wise to allow the students to engage in the sports, for if they got rid of their superfluous energy in such a harmless way it was less likely to burst out in more objectionable forms, such as drinking and gambling, hazing, and destroying property. Even to-day, speakers who are not well informed are often heard to advocate athletic sports for this one reason.

The superfluous-energy theory has little in its favor, when it is given careful thought. Children who have a fair opportunity to play usually play all day long every day of the week, and are not willing to stop when night or Sunday come. The starved children of the slums stand in line every day at the playground gate, waiting for it to open. They become so engrossed in their play that they forget fatigue and hunger and are entirely oblivious to the passage of time. As they grow tired of one game they enter into another with just as much vim. This does not look like a mere escape of surplus energy.

It is absurd to characterize all play as aimless. The roaring of lions and the singing of birds may be aimless, and so probably are the laughing and kicking of the baby in his bed, the shouting and the tossing of hats when school lets out, and the screaming of the spectators when their hero makes a home run; but these are the rare exceptions rather than typical examples of play. There is just as much definite aim in tag games, ball games, races, dances, and field sports, as there is in plowing a field or cooking a meal. Aimless play is the lowest type of play; it is not the kind that the play movement is promoting.

The superfluous-energy theory has been criticized because it offers no explanation of the fact that the young of a species play like one another but in a way different from those of all other species. If surplus energy is the only reason for play, all play ought to be aimless and all very much alike. The point seems to be well taken, showing again that the theory has been advanced without much regard for facts. Any theory that claims to explain the origin and nature of play must account for its main features, and play has no

characteristics more pronounced than these resemblances and differences—all kittens playing alike, all lambs playing alike, all children playing alike, but the play of each species absolutely unlike that of the others.

THE RECREATION THEORY

Play has been defined as "An occupation engaged in for recreation, rather than for business or from necessity." This idea of play is an old one. It was expressed 200 years ago by Lord Kames, English nobleman and philosopher, when he said, "Play is necessary for man in order to refresh himself after labor." A century ago Guts Muths, a German teacher who is sometimes called "the father of physical training," published a book entitled "Games for the Exercise and Recreation of Body and Mind." Guts Muths, whose work was with children, emphasized the recreative value of play and also its value for development and training. Partly because of his influence, the recreation theory of play has always been popular in Germany. One of its strongest supporters in recent years was Professor Lazarus of the University of Berlin, who urged people to "Flee from empty idleness to active recreation in play."

The recreation theory is based on a sound principle of physiology. A certain amount of rest and sleep are necessary, but beyond that a change to an active and interesting occupation is more restful than complete idleness. Professor G. T. W. Patrick, of the University of Iowa, in his "Psychology of Relaxation," sustains the recreation theory and goes farther to explain it than any previous writer. The common occupations of civilized life, he says, especially among the intellectual classes, call for abstract reasoning, concentration of attention, and the use of the smallest muscles, such as those of the eyes and the fingers, in highly skilled activity—in writing, needle-work, and the manipulation of complex tools and machinery. Such activities, he goes on to say, have been acquired by the human race in comparatively recent times, and are for that reason more fatiguing and more likely to provoke nervous disorders than activities that are racially older. This is why professional men require shorter hours than laborers; it also explains why people get the most complete rest by going to the lakes, the forests, and the mountains, where they engage in hunting, fishing, canoeing, hiking, camping, and swimming—activities that our remote ancestors pursued for an unknown number of generations. These activities are restful largely because they are racially old, giving us a natural

ability for them. This is why active outdoor recreations are much more wholesome than quiet amusements, and tend better than anything else to renew the strength and restore lost powers.

In one way the recreation theory is the opposite of the superfluous-energy theory; the latter looks upon play as a kind of activity by which those who have an excess of energy can get rid of it, while the former considers it a way in which those who have exhausted their energy can recuperate. Each seems to be the view of a special class, the experiences and manner of life giving each a one-sided view. The recreation theory gives the view of adults who play for recuperation after a day of work and, hence, consider it as a diverting relief. The wealthier classes, who have much leisure, speak of their own play as sport or pastime. It is a theory of the play of adults, however, and is of little value in solving the problems of the play of children. Adults as a class are inclined to think of their own amusements and diversions as something vastly superior to those of children. They, therefore, prefer the word "recreation" because it seems more dignified. We shall see later many reasons for believing that play has the same basis at all ages and that there is little foundation for any such division into play for children and recreation for adults.

THE INSTINCT THEORY

Every child breathes, winks, swallows, laughs, cries, etc. without trying to do so and at first without being aware of it; in a similar manner he later tries to stand, strike, run, throw, talk, etc. Such activities are said to be instinctive, each one being called an instinct. All living things have an instinctive tendency to be active—that is, to exercise all their powers and faculties. As the child's powers develop, one by one, there arises along with each budding ability an instinctive desire to use that ability and a satisfaction in exercising it. For example, the ability to grasp with the hand develops very early in the child, and as soon as the ability appears he begins instinctively to practice opening and closing his fingers, over and over again for hundreds of times. The same is true of walking, talking, climbing, and scores of other abilities. The practice helps in developing the ability—in fact, it is necessary to it. As soon as he has acquired certain simple abilities he begins to combine them into more complex performances, all the time being urged on by an instinctive desire to do things and a satisfaction in

doing them. According to the instinct theory, this is the origin and beginning of play.

The universal tendency of the young to be active has been observed from the earliest times and probably from prehistoric times, with various interpretations, according to the preconceived ideas of the observers.

The View of the Early Churchmen

The churchmen of the Middle Ages looked upon play as an example and evidence of the "original sin" of mankind, children being considered as "totally depraved" and incited to natural activity by Satan. All nature was believed to be under the domination of evil spirits, from whose control each one must be redeemed. Education, arising as it did in this mental atmosphere, was planned with a view to suppress all natural instincts and tendencies. A famous teacher of the mediæval period is quoted as saying, in answer to an inquiring letter written by a mother who was looking for a school for her daughter: "A young girl should never play; she should weep much and meditate on her sins."

The View of Rousseau

With the revival of learning in the 16th and 17th centuries, there was a growing revolt against the old and mistaken view and the accompanying policy of repression, and many leading writers on education protested against it. Locke and Rousseau were especially insistent upon making use of the natural instincts of children. Writing in 1762, Rousseau said: "To strengthen the body and make it grow, nature has her ways and means which ought not to be opposed. You should not compel a child to abide in a place when he wants to be gone, nor to be gone when he is desirous to stay. They ought to be suffered to leap, run and hollo when they have a mind. All their motions are so many wants in their constitutions, which are endeavoring to gain strength." Here we have the instinct theory of play expressed long before anyone tried to formulate a theory of play.

The View of Froebel

Froebel (1782-1852), famous German educator and originator of the Kindergarten, gave a stimulus and a trend to the instinct theory of play that is worthy of notice here. He fought strenuously against the mediæval doctrine that the child's nature should be suppressed, and preached that the mind grows by self-expression. Froebel explains the existence of play by the universal craving for

activity, and gave as the key-note of his plan that the spiritual nature of the child should be drawn out and developed through play. He tried to organize play so as to lead it gradually and naturally into work, to secure for the work the same freedom and enthusiasm that characterizes play. Froebel aroused so much enthusiasm for his theories and plans of education that he succeeded in gaining for the kindergarten a permanent place in all standard educational systems. He was the first to use such activities as building with blocks, modeling in sand and clay, and cutting and folding paper in regular school hours; he also devised a series of stories, songs, and pantomimes that he called "Mother Play." He made much of imitation, and naturally so, since his work was wholly with young children, with whom imitation is a dominant tendency. The followers of Froebel have developed the imitative and rhythmic activities of children of the lower primary grades very fully. Unfortunately, they have stopped there, paying little or no attention to the play of later childhood, adolescence, and maturity. In fact, the literature of the kindergarten, which is very extensive, scarcely recognizes the existence of play beyond the simple imitative and rhythmic plays of early childhood.

The View of Spencer

In an article on physical education, published in an English magazine in 1860, Herbert Spencer stated his view of the origin of play as follows: "For girls as well as for boys, the sportive activities to which the instincts impel are essential to bodily welfare. Whoever forbids them, forbids the divinely appointed means to physical development." A few years before, in his "Principles of Psychology," he said along the same line: "Play is equally an artificial exercise of powers, which, in default of their natural exercise, become so ready to discharge that they relieve themselves by simulated actions in place of real actions. For dogs and other predatory creatures show us unmistakably that their play consists of mimic chase and mimic fighting—they pursue one another, they try to overthrow one another, they bite one another as much as they dare. And so with the kitten running after a cotton-ball, making it roll and again catching it, crouching as though in ambush and then leaping on it, we see that the whole sport is a dramatizing of the pursuit of prey—an ideal satisfaction for the destructive instincts in the absence of real satisfaction for them. It is the same with human beings. The plays of children—nursing dolls, giving tea-parties, and so on, are dramatizings of adult activities. The sports of boys, chasing

one another, wrestling, making prisoners, obviously gratify in a partial way the predatory instincts. And if we consider even their games of skill, as well as the games of skill practiced by adults, we find that, significantly enough, the essential element running through them has the same origin. For no matter what the game, the satisfaction is in achieving victory—in getting the better of an antagonist. This love of conquest, so dominant in all creatures because it is the correlative of success in the struggle for existence, gets gratification from a victory at chess in the absence of ruder victories.” It seems plain here that Spencer is in accord with the instinct theory of play, although he is more often represented as one of the authors of the superfluous-energy theory, with special emphasis on imitation.

In the course of a chapter on the development of the nervous system Spencer goes on to explain that as fast as living nerve cells are torn down by their activity they continually rebuild themselves and thus become again ready for action. With the renewed readiness to act comes also increased sensitiveness to stimulation, which is partially lost during fatigue. These nerve-cells are constantly receiving stimuli from the sense organs, so that stimuli to action are never lacking. The result is an almost uncontrollable desire to act whenever the nerve-centers are rested. “But now mark,” says he, “that this which holds true of the bodily powers, the destructive instincts, and those emotions related to them that dominate in life because they are so directly concerned in the struggle by which life is maintained, holds true of all other faculties. The higher but less essential powers, as well as the lower and more essential powers, come to have activities that are carried on for the immediate gratification derived, without regard to ulterior benefits.” Thus play arises.

Spencer repeats this explanation several times with the use of slightly different words. He repeatedly refers to instinct and to rivalry and the love of victory. His emphasis on the “struggle for existence” seems at times to give him the point of view of the industrial worker, who likes to see activity bring economic gain. Clearly, however, Spencer does not make an excess of energy the sole motive leading to play; there is also an instinctive urge for playful activity.

The common impression that Spencer stressed imitation as the main form of play does not give proper credit to his stress on instinct. What Spencer says is that “forms of play tend to take the forms of the adult activities of the same species.” He speaks of

kittens "simulating" the catching of mice, and the play of girls with dolls "resembling" the work of women, but he neither states nor infers that it is wholly an imitation of what they have seen their elders do; he intimates rather an instinctive as well as an imitative copying of these activities by the young.

To understand Spencer's view of play one must bear in mind that he did not write a book on play, as some of his critics have done, but briefly discussed its origin, in a few paragraphs, in a long argument for organic evolution. He discusses play incidentally in a chapter intended to explain the origin and development of the aesthetic feelings. His biological point of view makes him argue strongly for the superiority of play over more formal types of physical education.

The Contribution of Groos

Karl Groos, German psychologist, published in 1895 a book entitled "The Play of Animals," followed in a few years by another entitled "The Play of Man." These two volumes form the largest contribution to the theory of play yet made by any individual. Groos did an enormous amount of work on the subject, both by study of all previous works on play and by study of literature on the plays of savage tribes and of the children of civilized man. This has given educators confidence in his views, so that he has been able to exert an important influence in modifying the attitude of the schools toward play.

Groos gives a very complete and elaborate classification of all the varieties of play of animals and men. His classification is the most scientific one attempted, and is exceedingly valuable and suggestive. His systematic account of all these types of play has produced a profound effect on the minds of educators by showing to what an enormously wide range play extends; that, in fact, it can train any power or faculty.

On the theoretical side, Groos argues at great length in favor of the instinct idea of play, and in connection with it he advances two quite revolutionary doctrines:

(1) Play is so important an element in the training of the higher animals and man that nature provides a long period of immaturity to give an opportunity for it. To quote his own words, "Animals cannot be said to play because they are young and frolicsome, but rather they have a period of youth in order to play." No one else, with the possible exception of a few of the most enthusiastic disciples of Froebel, has ever attributed to play such an important

part in education. It is a view which, although not openly approved by the leaders of our educational systems, is exerting a remarkable influence, both in stimulating interest in the play movement and in making methods of instruction in all school subjects less and less formal.

(2) Play arises in each young individual from the appearance of certain very important instincts before he has serious need of them. This is the main difference in development between man and the higher animals on the one hand and the insects on the other, and is the reason why man makes progress in his manner of living from one generation to another while the ants and wasps do not. Each insect is endowed with instincts that appear fully developed and ready for use just when they are needed, and as a consequence the insect never plays and is not capable of education. The kitten, on the other hand, plays at catching mice with a bit of wood or paper for a long time before it has to do the real act, and by so doing not only develops this particular element of skill, but a higher degree of intelligence as well. Play is necessary for the development of higher intelligence; for if we were provided with perfected instincts, as insects are, life would be automatic and there would be no such thing as education and no increase of ability or intelligence, either in the individual or the species. If there were no such thing as play, the higher animals, such as the cat and the tiger, reaching maturity without the perfected instincts of the lower forms of life and without the practice and training that play gives, would be unable to obtain food or protect themselves and would perish. The higher possibilities of the child and even the kitten over those of the ant, fly, and minnow are therefore due to the existence of youth and play.

In all his discussions of these matters Groos shows a very wide acquaintance with the facts of natural science and the doctrines of evolution, and his reasoning is usually very clear. His theory of play, while it gives play a much more ambitious place in the order of things than most scientists and educators are willing to accord it, seems to be well supported as far as it applies to the development of general intelligence. His idea that play is a preparation for adult activities has some foundation in the case of young tigers and other wild animals, but it applies only partially to the case of domesticated animals and falls down completely in the case of the child. The play instincts lead the child to practice running, jumping, throwing, and striking, and the youth to practice hunting, fishing, swimming, etc. ;

but these are activities of primitive life that were abandoned, except for play purposes, centuries ago. It would be a crude mistake on the part of nature to provide mankind with a period of immaturity in order to provide each child with practice in adult activities that were discarded by the race at the dawn of civilization. Injurious play, such as gambling and use of drugs, could not exist if nature was providing play as a preparation for certain future activities. The fault of Groos' theory in these respects is made clear and his main idea supported in a way by the next theory to be explained.

THE INHERITANCE THEORY

This latest theory explains play as an inheritance of abilities and instinctive desires and pleasures. In an address before the American Physical Education Association in 1901, Luther Gulick said: "The great interest that centers about plays and games is at least partially because they are racially familiar; they have old coordinations. Muscular coordinations that have been of great racial utility are acquired by the individual with great ease and joy." Dr. G. Stanley Hall, for a long time president of Clark University and leader of the child-study movement, has been one of the strongest supporters of the inheritance idea. Dr. Hall says:

"The view of Groos that play is practice for future adult activities is very partial, superficial and perverse. It ignores the past, where lie the keys to all play activities. True play never practices anything racially new. I regard play as the motor habits and spirit of the past persisting in the present, as rudimentary functions akin to rudimentary organs. In play every mood and movement is instinct with heredity. We rehearse the activities of our ancestors, back we know not how far, and repeat their life work, stage by stage. This is why the heart of youth goes out into play as into nothing else, as if in it man remembered a lost paradise."

The inheritance theory is more in accord with the instinct theory than Dr. Hall's statement, just quoted, would indicate. The later theory, like the earlier, accounts for play by instinct; it differs from the view of Groos in accounting for the way in which we have come to inherit these instincts. Groos accepted the view of Weissman in biology that there is no inheritance of acquired skills, and, having to turn to natural selection to find the origin of the instincts, he attributes survival value to them. Hall, on the contrary, objects to this point that because certain activities were once useful to the race

they are still a necessary preparation for life. He asserts that many of them like hunting, fighting, teasing, hazing, etc., have outlived their usefulness and are merely reminiscent of past racial experience. To him, nevertheless, the child must go through a series of stages in which he retraverses in his plays and games the once serious occupations of prior generations. The recapitulatory aspects of Hall's theory are the ones that have aroused most controversy.

Some extreme forms of the inheritance theory that have been advanced by Dr. Hall and others can scarcely be justified. One of these is the claim that "True play never practices anything racially new." We have reason to believe that enthusiasm for a new idea led Dr. Hall to a mistake here. Playing the piano, dribbling a basket ball, playing billiards, playing card games, and many other play activities have not been discovered until recent times. The impulses to imitate, to experiment, to create, and to excel often lead us to play at things that are racially new. Sometimes, by persistent practice, one may make a difficult performance, like playing a violin, for example, so easy and pleasant that it becomes play.

Another extreme view advanced in the same connection is that play in the child recapitulates all the activities of the race in the order in which the race learned them. A prominent group of educators, following the teachings of Herbart (1776-1841), have advocated planning all education to agree with the "Culture Epochs" through which the race has passed in its progress to civilization. Here we have a principle with much of truth in it; yet, while recapitulation of primitive occupations occurs in the play of the child in a very general way, there are many occupations of primitive life that are skipped and many reversions occur in the order in which they come. It is natural for children to engage in primitive occupations first, yet one sees them playing with toy railroads and cars before they have shown any marked interest or ability in using a bow and arrow, and exhibiting other violations of the recapitulation idea equally in conflict with the theory.

The inheritance theory is attractive, and used in its broader sense, serves as a guide for age and sex needs in play. It explains why the occupations most commonly seen in the play of children are occupations of primitive life (running, throwing, striking, and climbing) rather than some of the quieter and more cultured ones of civilized life (writing, painting, needlework, and studying). One likes to do the things he can do best, and it seems reasonable to believe that we like to do certain things because of a natural ability to do

them. The muscles of the human body and the nerves that control them are naturally fitted to perform running, jumping, throwing, climbing, etc., better than any other forms of movement, and therefore these are the most common activities seen in play. Along with this muscular equipment, it seems reasonable that there is an inheritance of instinctive and emotional tendencies that are relics of the old stone age and yet need expression and satisfaction to-day. How else can we account satisfactorily for the tireless interest of children in chasing and hiding, dramatizing, and reading; of older persons in hunting and fishing; and the pleasure all find in looking into the glow of the camp-fire and in sleeping out under the stars? Where else arises the never-ending lure of rivalry and competition?

Other Viewpoints

Interesting sidelights have been thrown on the nature of play in the writings of Carr, McDougall, Appleton, Reaney, and Shand, and the advanced student should consult them. Very recently, too, there has been an approach to the subject from the standpoint of Psychoanalysis. Here the hidden causes of play are found in the subconscious, and the make-believe of play is supposed to give a feeling of freedom and power that may be denied the child in his contacts with a world of adults and physically stronger playmates. Robinson finds in play a compensatory mechanism of this nature. Another recent tendency, found particularly among the social psychologists, has been to place less stress on instinct and more on the environmental aspects of play. These writers would limit the use of the word *instinct* to those responses which are called forth without any element of learning attached to them. They would emphasize the use of the word *habits* instead of *instincts* whenever elements of acquired behavior are found. Such a treatment is found in Dewey, Allport, Bernard, Dunlap, and others.

SUMMARY

A survey of the theories by which people have tried to explain the origin of play throws into clear view the gradual progress that has taken place toward a more complete understanding of the subject. The older traditional views are seen to have less value, in comparison with the later and more complete theories based on extensive studies of play in animals and man. Inherited instincts have a large part in play; an instinctive tendency to be active is the beginning of play and accounts for its persistence through life. A plentiful supply of energy influences play just as it influences all kinds of

activity, for one uses more force when he has more to use, but surplus energy does not explain the origin of play nor any other activity. The theories of play based on instinct and inheritance give it an importance in education vastly greater than was formerly attached to it; and the experience of recent years in school and playground experiments, proves its educational significance.

WHAT IS PLAY?

The study we have just made of the origin and nature of play puts us in a position to discuss this question with some thoroughness. The reader may be inclined to think at first that such a discussion can be nothing more than an uninteresting debate on the use of words and a complete waste of time, but it is a problem that must be solved, for we can arrive at no settled conclusion as to the value of play in education until we agree as to what play really is and what activities it includes. There has been a marked advance in the attitude of educators along this line, and yet we have no generally accepted definition of play. Kilpatrick remarks that "In all educational discussion there is scarcely a word upon whose meaning there is so little general agreement"; Thorndike says: "Most of the disputes about the service of play in education hark back to a vagueness in defining what play is to be taken to mean." The following definitions will illustrate the extent of this disagreement:

Definition of Play

SCHILLER: The aimless expenditure of exuberant energy.

GUTS MUTHS: The natural exercise and recreation of body and mind.

FROEBEL: The natural unfolding of the germinal leaves of childhood.

RUSKIN: Exertion of body or mind, made to please ourselves, without a determined end.

SPENCER: Superfluous actions taking place instinctively in the absence of real actions.

— Activity performed for the immediate gratification derived, without regard to ulterior benefits.

GROOS: Instinctive practice, without serious intent, of activities that will later be essential to life.

STRAYER AND NORSWORTHY: The manifestation of instincts and tendencies not immediately useful.

SEASHORE: Free self-expression for the pleasure of expression.

HALL: The motor habits and spirit of the past persisting in the present.

LEE: Instinctive activity, looking toward an ideal.

DEWEY: Activities not consciously performed for the sake of any result beyond themselves.

GULICK: What we do because we want to do it.

COLVIN AND BAGLEY: An act performed spontaneously and for no conscious purpose beyond the activity itself.

WEBSTER'S DICTIONARY: Any exercise or series of actions intended for amusement or diversion.

STANDARD DICTIONARY: Action without special aim, or for amusement.

STERN: Play is voluntary, self-sufficient activity.

One who studies the definitions observes the same radical differences of opinion as are apparent in the theories of play, and the same gradual progress with the growing knowledge of the subject. The differences are in the main clearly due to differences in viewpoint. The oldest definitions merely state the traditional ideas, and those given in the dictionaries are similar, and naturally so, for they aim to give the meanings that are in general use. Guts Muths and Froebel express a belief in the great value of play in education, but they do not give a real definition. Spencer and Groos see everything from the viewpoint of evolution, with the main emphasis on the struggle for existence. Hall and other advocates of the "Culture Epoch" principle in education look upon play as a rehearsal of many successive stages of racial history.

Points of Agreement

While leading educators are not yet in full accord as to the meaning of play and what should be included in the term, and are therefore not agreed as to its value in education, they are coming more and more to agree on a few fundamental points:

(1) Play is activity; it is not idleness, but is in contrast with it. Loafing and dawdling are not play, but a slumping of activity because of lack of interest in it, indicating a loss of the play spirit.

(2) Play is not limited to any particular form of activity; it may be neuro-muscular, sensory, mental, or a combination of all three.

(3) The value of play in education is due to its power to interest the player, absorb his attention, and arouse him to enthusiastic and persistent activity. Education must be active rather than passive; "it is what the child does for himself and not what someone does for him that educates him."

(4) Whether an activity is play or not depends on the attitude of mind of the doer toward the thing he is doing—or, to state the same thing in other words, upon the motive that impels him to action. It follows that there is no particular activity, be it baseball, fishing, or playing with dolls that is always necessarily play; neither can an activity be mentioned that may not under some conditions be play. If one runs a foot race, drives a car, rows a boat, or reads a book, it may be play or not, depending on the way he thinks and feels about

it. Some activities, such as games and sports, are usually play, but we can never be sure that a certain activity is play for a certain person unless we know his mental attitude towards it while he is actually engaged in it. What is play one day may be drudgery another day, for mental attitudes change with conditions.

(5) There is general accord as regards point (4), viz., that the play spirit is an attitude of mind, but there is not so full an agreement as to the nature of this attitude. It is, however, coming to be agreed more and more that the essential characteristic of play is a satisfaction in the activity itself. To quote again from Kilpatrick, "When the satisfaction inherent in a specific activity suffices to keep it going, it is commonly called play. If, however, some external compulsion or consideration is necessary to the continuance of the activity, some one of the other terms is considered more appropriate." This agrees with the definitions given by Spencer, Gulick, and Dewey.

Points at Issue

(1) Do adults play, or should the term be limited to the activities of children?

(2) Can play have an aim, or is it limited, as Schiller, Groos, and Ruskin say, to activities with no serious purpose?

(3) Can play accomplish something worth while in a material sense, or is it limited, as Spencer and Dewey say, to aims within the activity itself?

(4) Can play function as work, in a serious occupation, such as learning to add columns of figures, acquiring an erect posture, or running a farm; or must the term be limited to the activities of one's leisure time?

These questions have been discussed again and again, but the body of public opinion is still so fully saturated with the old traditions that even intelligent educators hesitate to accept what the logic and the facts plainly indicate; play leaders need, therefore, to discuss the mooted points at considerable length and gain an assured footing. The average parent has an idea of play that has been emphasized by some such experience as this: he wants John to mow the lawn and Jane to wash the windows, and these are useful occupations he is accustomed to call work; they want to go canoeing, and this is an unproductive activity as far as father is concerned, so he has called it play. Repeated experiences of this kind impress

upon his mind that work is the name of activity that is worth while and play is an aimless and useless waste of valuable working power. If he ever saw work performed with the spirit and enthusiasm of play, he did not notice it, because he was concerned solely with getting the work done, and assumed that everybody should have the same interest in it that he had. He often makes the mistake of supposing that certain parts of his work, which are in reality play for him, are done from his excellent sense of duty, and that his children should possess this just as he does. He has a wrong idea of the psychology of such situations.

Do Adults Play?

No matter how much he may hate to admit it, there can be no basis for the belief that the adult does not play, whichever of the definitions of play we may select as the right one. He at times expends surplus energy aimlessly (Schiller); he exerts body and mind to please himself (Ruskin); he performs superfluous movements in the absence of necessary movements (Spencer); he engages with joy in racially old activities (Gulick); he carries on actions for amusement or diversion (Webster); he engages in activity with enthusiasm for no other reason than that it is pleasurable. The play of the adult differs from that of the child because he has greater abilities than the child in some directions and smaller abilities in others; he has lost some of the instincts of childhood and gained others in their places; his aims are more complex and more remote; he has an aversion to vigorous physical exertion for its own sake that the child does not know.

The play of the adult sometimes takes the form of a hobby, such as fine cabinet making or raising fancy stock or poultry, or engaging in dramatics or literary work. When a person takes a hobby so seriously that he is not content with practicing it as a mere recreation, but consciously strives to attain a high grade of proficiency and takes pride in exhibiting his talent, then he is reaching play of as high a level as that of the child. When he plays merely for recreation or amusement his play lacks purpose and drops to a lower level; it is for the moment only.

Has Play An Aim?

There is a stage in the early life of every child when most or all his activity is aimless, but he soon passes this stage. The dawn of consciousness is soon followed by a desire to accomplish something.

He imitates and experiments. Preyer tells of watching a young child who took the cover off a box and put it on again 79 times in succession without stopping. This was first experiment and then imitation, and all or nearly all was done with a purpose. Children spend most of their waking hours in such experimental and imitative actions and in collecting and constructing things and playing games—all with an aim in view. Play requires the choice of an aim and then the persistent following of that aim, often in spite of difficult odds, in order to be successful and satisfactory.

The chief aim in play is satisfaction or pleasure, but in much the same way this is true of life as well. In play as in life there are a lot of minor or partial aims that are important and serious because their accomplishment is necessary to success and therefore essential to the satisfaction that is being sought. For example, the child builds up a pile of blocks for the pleasure of doing it, but in order to experience this pleasure to the highest degree he must succeed in arranging them in a form to represent something he has seen and make them stay in place until the building is complete. Thus he gratifies his instincts for imitation and construction. In much the same way an adult builds a house. The aims of the adult are more complex and more remote, but not necessarily more serious to him than those of the child. As the child grows and his mind develops, the aims of his play become more and more complex and remote, year by year, up to maturity.

It is in the activities used by adults to pass away their leisure time that the most aimless and languid types of play are seen. Lacking some of the enthusiasm and vigor of youth and having to work several hours every day, the grown-up looks upon his spare time as an opportunity to rest and recuperate. With this in view he is apt to prefer diversions that involve little aim or vigor, such as motor-ing, or attending the theater, movie, or ball game; although if he were to indulge in activities having more purpose and action they would usually serve as a more effective recreation.

Children often loaf and dawdle at their tasks but seldom at their play. They take the purposes of their play seriously, and that is why they put the best of their ability into it. The enthusiasm of play, aroused as these aims are sought and accomplished, gives to it the superior educational value it possesses.

We must conclude, then, that the best play has an aim in it; in fact, it is being questioned to-day whether the aimless activities often mentioned as illustrations of play, such as the spontaneous move-

ments of the young baby, the buzzing of insects in the sunshine and the roaring of the lion, are really play at all. They are said by some to be rather simple responses to stimuli, mechanical in nature, without any conscious direction.

What Can Play Do?

Groos claims that while play may have an aim, it is a fictitious one, like that of a kitten that plays with a leaf as if it were a mouse, or a girl who flirts with her male acquaintances; as soon as it becomes real, as when the kitten chases a mouse, or the girl falls in love, the activity ceases to be play and becomes real life. Spencer, Dewey, and others make a similar but slightly different distinction, saying that play may have an aim within itself, as when a boy aims to hit the ball or tag another boy, but if the aim extends beyond the game and looks toward a material result, as when a boy sticks to football practice to earn a sweater or two boys race to see who can pick more cherries, it is no longer play. Several students of the play problem, especially George E. Johnson, strongly object to this view, claiming that the play of children is real life, and that play can achieve results beyond the play itself.

Spencer and Groos draw a sharp line between two kinds of activities of animals; (1) activities performed to gain food and shelter and to protect themselves, which constitute the real life of the animal, and (2) instinctive exercise of young animals to prepare them for the activities of real life. The distinction seems to be a reasonable one to make in case of wild animals, but in the case of the children of to-day in civilized countries, with an organized system of education planned for them by their elders, it is doubtful if such a distinction should be made. The later life of civilized man differs greatly from the struggle for existence among wild animals of the jungle, and contains much that is educative and at the same time useful in securing the means of living.

If we turn from the evolutionary to the educational point of view, how much difference takes place in the nature of the activity when the boy on the squad decides to try for a sweater? Just a little added stimulus to intensify the interest he had before! Take the case of a child playing with a make-believe fishing pole and line; what essential change takes place, educationally, when he baits a real hook and catches a minnow? Or when, instead of a minnow he pulls in a fish big enough to be worth cooking? Is the educational effect lost or completely changed, just because of the size of the fish?

Does it change the mental attitude of the boy toward the activity, so it is no longer play? Are the activities of school gardening not play, just because the children raise real flowers and vegetables and cultivate them with real hoes?

People generally come to agree, when they think it through, that when an activity is of itself attractive enough to make one want to do it, it is play. Defined in this way, play includes plainly all such activities as cooking, canning, and gardening by school children; but in applying the name to the various cases, people often fall back to the illogical ideas they gained from tradition and say that these things cannot be play because they are work. "Work while you work, and play while you play" is a maximum accepted as gospel truth from time immemorial, but the newer maxim, "The value of work depends on how much play there is in it, and the value of play depends on how much work there is in it," is much nearer the truth. Work is exertion performed to get something done; it is defined in mechanics as "overcoming resistance through space." The only foundation for the popular idea that play and work cannot overlap is the adult misconception that play is useless, and work, useful activity. All real activity involves work; whether it is play or drudgery depends on the mental attitude of the one doing it. Play stands at the top of the scale and drudgery at the bottom; no one engages in drudgery except from compulsion or necessity, while play rewards the one engaged in it while he is doing it.

A second objection to our suggestion, that work may at the same time be play, is that this cannot be because there is freedom in play, while work is rigidly restricted to certain lines determined by the result to be accomplished; the reason why John does not like to mow the lawn and why Jane does not like to wash windows is that there is not enough freedom in the activity. The answer is that it is only in the play of the youngest children that we see the enjoyment of perfect freedom of action. As soon as the child progresses to a stage slightly higher, he begins to enjoy the pursuit of an object, and willingly sacrifices freedom of action to attain it. This is shown in all games and contests. The rules of the game curtail freedom of action, but the boy and girl prefer games to aimless activity nevertheless. Is the game therefore not play? As they become older they come to prefer games and amusements in which freedom of action is still more restricted. How much freedom of action is there in sitting and watching a movie show, or in social dancing? In similar ways people gladly restrict their own freedom of action to gain

an end that is of material value, as in knitting a glove or raising poultry. Are these activities for that reason not to be called play, even when the activity is so satisfactory in itself that one does it for the fun of doing it?

Mowing the lawn and washing windows are drudgery for John and Jane, because they have not yet, as father has, developed a liking for fine lawns and clean windows that is sufficient to permeate the activity itself and thus make it so desirable that it is willingly and even gladly done. Everyone comes sooner or later to associate some desired results so closely with the activity that brings them, that the one means the other, and work is thus transformed by the play spirit. Here lies the secret of the youth's enjoyment of games, in which he surrenders personal freedom of action to attain an end that is much desired; here is the explanation of the fascination some women find in embroidery, and of the passion of some men for stock raising or salesmanship. Is there any educational difference in the activity, because in one case the result desired is material and permanent and in the other case a passing pleasure? Is there anything beyond mere tradition to show both may not be play?

Can Play Function As Work?

Drudgery is not generally favored for its educational value, but it is usually considered necessary, in order to get things done. Most people look upon play as lacking in persistent effort and fall back upon drudgery as more likely to get results. People fear that play will yield to the immediate end of pleasure and never attain the further end toward which it may be directed. Believing a life of drudgery to be unavoidable for all but the few lucky ones, they hate to see children become fascinated with play for fear it will make the drudgery all the more intolerable by contrast, and thus tend either to unhappiness, or failure, or both. The work must be done, and the simplest and most direct way to get it done is to compel the child to do it. The more docile and ready he is to yield to authority, the better chance for success in life he is supposed to have.

This is one of the most deadly delusions of the human mind. To get free from its soul-destroying influence people must come to see that play and drudgery are the two ways of performing work, and the difference between them is nothing more than the attitude of the person toward the occupation in which he is engaged. The work of the world, so commonly believed to be degrading drudgery, to be escaped if possible by fair means or foul, consists in reality of

a variety of fascinating occupations, involving the same identical activities as those which people engage in for fun, with infinite opportunity for push, enterprise, artistic expression, and friendly competition. The best preparation for a successful life is not a childhood and youth spent in drudgery, but instead a healthy body, reserve force, willingness for and even enjoyment of a severe tussle against odds, a friendly and sportsmanlike spirit towards other people, and the mastery of certain lines of knowledge.

Some teachers make the learning of the addition tables and the acquiring of an erect posture drudgery; others make them play. Which gets the work done the quicker and better? Work that has to be done by compulsion is a sure sign of wrong management somewhere, more often by teacher than by pupil. The key to the situation is an absorbing interest. When this interest becomes so absorbing that it pervades the activity and makes the worker forget the exertion in the joy of successful accomplishment, it is play. All the work must be done, but it should be enlivened by the play spirit instead of being deadened by the slave spirit.

Artists, poets, and musicians play at their life occupations, and in so doing rise to the highest level of accomplishment; why not students, teachers, farmers, engineers, house-keepers? If these occupations are drudgery, it is because the people engaged in them have not enough interest in their work to lift them from the level of drudgery and infuse them with the play spirit. Ill health, overwork, or laziness may stand in the way of such attainment; but normal and intelligent persons can achieve it.

It is again objected that play is lacking in the spirit of responsibility; but here we have again the old idea that all play is aimless and child-like. Of course children lack responsibility; of course play engaged in simply to pass away time will not show much responsibility: on the other hand, who accepts and fulfills more complete responsibility than the catcher or the baseman of the ball team? You can drive a child to a sense of responsibility based on fear, but to furnish him with a serious and attractive play motive is the real key to the problem. This is what John Locke meant when he said more than 200 years ago: "The chief art is to make everything that children have to do, sport and play."

A few educators still insist that play must be kept out of the realm of work and employed only to occupy leisure time. They object to the "sugar-coating" of work, so as to make it pleasant, as urged by Locke, Froebel, and by many educators of our day. The

mistake is in failing to see that the true spirit of play may fully permeate an activity instead of merely sugar-coating it; the latter is apt to be all that is possible when educational tasks are assigned years before the pupils are ready for them. Children can be forced to learn some things by a process of drudgery long before the natural time for appreciating them; and in such a case, of course, the play spirit fails to help. The spirit of work never reaches its highest point until it becomes identical with the spirit of play.

Conclusion

Play was once looked upon as a curious and unimportant feature of child life. Now it is considered a factor in education, and a very important one. With this change of viewpoint has come a change in the definition of play, including in the term a wider range of activities. At first only aimless activities were classed as play; then activities with a fictitious or make-believe purpose were added; later a real and serious aim was conceded as a possibility in play, but always with the provision that the object to be accomplished lies within the activity and is a part of it, rather than a remote object of value. It became evident at this stage that adults play, as well as children. To-day, stressing still more the educational significance of play, we are inclined to widen the definition further and include in it occupations that seek and accomplish useful and permanent results.

From the educational standpoint, play has as its essential characteristic for the player an absorbing interest in the occupation in which he is engaged. The spirit of play is the joyous and self-forgetting enthusiasm in the pursuit of an occupation, in the accomplishment of a purpose, or in the attainment of an ideal. It is this spirit that gives play its unequalled driving power and its superior value in education. Play is not to be contrasted with work but with drudgery. Play and drudgery are the two ways of getting work done; the former by inspiration and the latter by compulsion.

The best definition of play is probably that given by Gulick when he said, "*Play is what we do because we want to do it.*" We have here in a few words all that is essential in defining play, without the fault of most definitions, which say too much. The ultimate goal of play is always pleasure or satisfaction, but it is not the single aim constantly in the mind of the player; he is impelled to action by a multitude of minor aims, one after another, not all equally pleasing but willingly done because each is in turn a necessary step toward the

final aim. If we think of any typical example of play, such as building with blocks, a game of baseball, or the pursuit of a hobby (bee-keeping), we cannot fail to recall that the mind of the player is absorbed most of the time by the details of the occupation, only occasionally reverting to the goal to be finally reached. Interest in the final result, however, gives a borrowed interest to details that are not of themselves especially attractive.

We are chiefly concerned in this volume with the choice and use of play activities in school periods and in the employment of leisure time. It is well to keep in mind, while choosing and conducting such activities, two points brought out in our study of the philosophy of play: first, that the play spirit may inspire one for his regular occupation and thus contribute to his success as well as keep him out of the low level of drudgery; second, that activities of the playground are not necessarily play because the director has that end in view. It is not play unless the player wants to do it; the play leader must control conditions and morale so as to maintain a high level of interest, otherwise the games lose their value.

Play, however, can be subjected to direction without loss of the play spirit; and play has been institutionalized. The play spirit is creeping into our pursuit of health, and is being directed toward that end; it is finding place in our educational systems; it has always been a religious function; and it is ever the impulse of the highest type of art. The one danger*always present in institutionalized play is that the remote end will sometimes obliterate the immediate aim of the play impulse; and then the play spirit is gone.

Society's Duty to Foster the Play Spirit

Society can work toward the ideal of infusing the play spirit into work, and of combating the condition of drudgery, in three ways.

First, there is the offering of opportunities to the worker, especially to the worker in the lowest menial tasks where the scope of responsibility is limited, and where there is no chance for experiment with individual initiative. This can be done by regulation of hours of labor, by aid which will hasten the foreigner's progress in Americanization, and by provisions for play or recreation in leisure time. The city should provide parks, playgrounds, community centers, music, libraries, public art galleries, museums, and all other things possessing an influence that is elevating. Then, even

though there is an element of drudgery still left in work, the drudgery will be endured willingly for the sake of future compensation in the way of personal growth. For there is drudgery in everything. There is drudgery along with play, such as the tedious practice which the player undertakes in order to make himself more proficient. But the idea is to have an end or goal in view, so that the drudgery will be willingly undergone. This first method is positive and direct, inasmuch as it aims at improving present conditions.

The other two ways are in the nature of educational and preventive foresight. Education should aid the child—the future workman—in his quest to discover his natural bent and capabilities. If this is discovered, the individual has his best chance of finding enjoyment as well as material gain. The rewards will be immediate as well as remote. Johnson says, "It is doubtful if a great man ever accomplished his life work without having reached a play interest in it." People like Roosevelt, Edison, Burbank, Ford, Carnegie, and Jane Addams played at their work. Each of us can think of people among our acquaintances of whom the same is true. This second method would help each one to find the work in which, for him, there is the largest proportion of play.

Society can also increase the individual's appreciation of play so that he can make the most of his leisure time, so that he may recreate himself through play and recreation. This is society's third duty. But this play spirit must be developed in youth or it will be forever dwarfed. The psychologist James says, "Instincts are transient. They are implanted for the sake of giving rise to habits, and this purpose once accomplished, the instincts consequently fade away. Pedagogy should strike while the iron is hot. If a boy grows up alone at the age of games and sports and learns neither to play ball, nor shoot, nor row, nor sail, nor ride, nor fish, probably he will be sedentary to the end of his days, and though the best opportunities be afforded him for learning these things later, it is one hundred to one that he will pass them by and shrink from the effort of taking those necessary first steps the prospect of which, at an earlier age, would have filled him with eager delight." Therefore, in order that the future worker may enjoy play and recreation to the utmost in his adult life, it is necessary that society should encourage the teaching of play in the schools and on the playgrounds, should make play a bigger part of the child's education.

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CHAPTER X

CLASSIFICATION: MOVEMENTS

The whole field of play includes innumerable games, dances, and other activities. We now take up the classification of these activities, discussing resemblances and differences, and in this way trying to discover the fundamental nature of each group. The names that have been given to these forms of play by the children are of little help; the groupings made by teachers, who have classified them arbitrarily according to the way they wish to use them, into games for the playground, the camp, the gymnasium, etc., are not much better. It is no easy task to learn how to use Black Tom, Black and White, Black Man, Chinese Wall, and 22 other games similarly named, if they are to be remembered as individual unrelated plays, but when it is recognized that the whole 26 are tag games and slight variations of the familiar "Pom Pom Pullaway," the task is an easy one.

Play activities need to be classified in two ways: according to the outward form, or the movements involved, which is done in this chapter; and according to the interests of the players, a method taken up in the next chapter.

Many a play leader has been chosen because he was a star athlete in one or two sports in high school or college. Such an experience is a good one and such an athlete is apt to have the play spirit and a lot of enthusiasm, and both these things are needed for success. To be a successful play leader the athlete must go further: he must not only know well the few games he has liked but also those that other people like; he must know the games that are popular in other towns as well as those played in his own town; he must not, like the average citizen, make a hobby of a few games, but must take an interest in all of them. Besides the familiarity gained by playing all kinds of games, the prospective play leader should make a study of them, as a scientist studies plants and animals, comparing them, noting where they are alike and how they differ; in fact, he must become a practical expert on the subject of play.

The reason for the completeness of this preparation is the size of the job he is undertaking—enormously bigger than the average student has any conception of. The most glaring defect of school and community play programmes in operation to-day is the vast amount of idleness that exists, just because the directors in charge know so little that they cannot see anything else to do, when there are a hundred things that ought to be done. Some cities of 20,000 in Michigan are satisfied with their play programmes and proud of them when one high school team is all there is of it. A live play director in such a town should have several hundred school children and half as many older people in organized play, under his supervision.

No play director can organize a big programme and make it go without accurate knowledge of a great number of play activities. He will have to choose, off-hand, suitable activities for individual players and for groups of all kinds and sizes: here a small group of kindergarten age; there a whole Junior high school, including a hundred or two, to be suited with appropriate girls' games and boys' games; yonder a mixed group of adults. Some want play that has great variety of activity, and others want to confine themselves to a few special things that they like to do; some want vigorous activity, and others will play only quiet games or occupy themselves with handicraft. The director will have to provide for all changes of seasons and weather, and for this must be ready with indoor games and outdoor games, ice and snow sports, water sports, play for the camp, the church, the shore, the woods, the gymnasium, or the school room. He must have games ready to fit into circular spaces, play for a long and narrow room, games that can be played in rooms where there are posts and projecting corners, and play that will amuse a lot of people and keep them busy in a small space. From the descriptions and rules of play given in detail in Vol. II. the student can learn many games he has not had a chance to play, and the classification will help him to hold in mind all the old familiar games and to evaluate rightly and make use of the new ones, which are being devised and published continually.

The Three Types of Activity

Play activities are naturally divided into three main groups: motor, sensory, and intellectual. Motor play may be illustrated by running, jumping, climbing, or throwing; sensory play by watching a gymnastic exhibition, a game, or a movie show; intellectual play by

listening to an interesting lecture, taking part in a debate, or playing cards.

This three-fold division of play activities seems simple enough at first, but it is not so simple as it seems. Play does not exercise our powers and faculties singly and separately; it is not easy to name an example of purely motor, sensory, or intellectual play. Running, jumping, and climbing—typical motor plays—involve along with the motor activity much exercise of the senses: sight, hearing, touch, and pressure; much exercise of the intellect: attention, memory, imagination, reason, and judgment. To get full enjoyment of a ball game or a picture show—typical sensory plays—one must sit up, turn head and eyes here and there and focus the eyes, and all this is muscular rather than sensory. Even intellectual play involves a small amount of motor activity and a large amount of sensory activity.

The Range of Activity

Few people who have not made a study of play realize what a wide range of activity it covers. Any power or faculty we possess, any nerve center, sense organ, or muscle group, unless it has been injured in some way or stunted by persistent disuse, can be exercised and developed by play. The best of our grade teachers are using play to-day in teaching the common branches, such as reading, arithmetic, and even penmanship. An intelligent teacher can train any line of ability, using only play activities. A glance at the chart at the end of this chapter will show that this is true.

Intellectual and sensory activities have been classified into several subdivisions, according to the particular sense or mental faculty involved, but for reasons that will soon be evident we are not much interested in such a classification. Motor play, on the other hand, includes several types of activity that should be pointed out.

FORMS OF MOTOR PLAY

All bodily movements are first divided into two groups: fundamental and accessory. Fundamental movements are those that employ the big muscles of the trunk and limbs; accessory movements are those involved in the use of the voice and in the specialized movements of the fingers and thumb. Running, swimming, and dancing are fundamental movements; singing, playing a violin, and

operating a typewriter use accessory movements. The former are called fundamental because they are older in racial history, being found in animals as well as in man, and because they involve muscles whose mass is so great that their activity controls the amount of food and of oxygen needed and of waste to be eliminated, and therefore controls indirectly the activity and development of the heart, lungs, breathing muscles, digestive system, and other organs necessary to life, health, and vigor. The accessory movements are of more recent origin, as shown by their absence in animals, even the highest forms, and by their appearing later in the life of each individual child—the big fundamental movements coming into use first and the accessory movements later. The accessory movements are too small to have any influence on the heart action or other vital processes of the body as a whole.

Kinds of Fundamental Movements

From the standpoint of the player, the fundamental movements involved in play, as first pointed out by Gulick, form two divisions: moving the player's own body, and moving other bodies; the first is called locomotion and the second, handling objects. Locomotion is accomplished mainly by the lower limbs, with the arms and trunk used incidentally; handling objects is performed mainly by the hands and arms, with the trunk and lower limbs used incidentally. The muscles of the lower limbs are much the largest, next those of the trunk, and the muscles of the arms are weakest and smallest.

FORMS OF LOCOMOTION

Motor play includes seven distinct forms of locomotion: creeping walking, running, dancing, jumping, climbing, and swimming; we should include also several variations of walking and running, such as skating, skiing, snowshoeing, and walking on stilts, that can be grouped together under the head of locomotion with an apparatus attached to the shoe; locomotion with the use of a vehicle also belongs here if it involves considerable motor activity, which it does in the case of sleds, bicycles, row-boats, canoes, swings, and teeters, but not in the case of trains, steamboats, airplanes, trolley cars, and automobiles, for in these the activity is chiefly sensory. That makes nine forms in all, unless one wishes to list each of the minor forms in the last two groups separately, in which case there would be almost an indefinite number.

Creeping

Creeping is a crude form of quadruped locomotion, usually done on hands and knees. It is an important stage in the neuro-muscular development of the young child but after that is of less importance than the other types, seldom used in later play activity.

Walking

Walking is the next form of locomotion, usually learned after creeping, and in civilized times is by far the most important, since civilized man scarcely uses the other forms except in his sports. Recently, locomotion with vehicles that do not require motor activity is taking the place of walking, so that this form is going out of general use as well as running, climbing, and swimming. Moreover, walking is not used to any large extent in our common plays and games, so that it is necessary to stimulate an interest in it in special ways.

Strolling is the leisurely, languid type of walk, taken as if to pass the time rather than to go to any place; it is too mild to call the heart and lungs into vigorous action, but it is better than standing or sitting still and is useful for invalids and convalescents. Standing still for a long time, as barbers, bank-tellers, and motor-men have to do, is very bad for the feet, the strain without movement blocking the circulation and frequently causing flat-foot. Even the slow, languid walk usually seen on the streets causes a circulation of blood in the feet, and helps to prevent foot trouble, especially if the toes are pointed directly forward.

Hiking is walking of the more vigorous, hustling type; the term is applied especially to long steady walks, several miles in extent. Hiking is moderate exercise, affording outdoor recreation for many who are not equal to the demands of the usual athletic sports; it is rather mild for men and boys of athletic habit but even for them it is good if they speed up and especially if they go up and down hill, for it develops an endurance that games of short duration fail to give.

City sidewalks are not favorable for hiking; while the hard smooth surface saves shoes and makes walking less difficult, it is at the same time bad for the feet and it fails to provide the variety of exercise involved in walking over the uneven surfaces of fields and woods. The country has the further advantage of providing matters of interest in the observation of birds, trees, flowers, and other material for the study of nature. The Boy Scouts and the Camp Fire

Girls lay great stress on hiking and on lines of work and study that involve cross-country hiking. Lanes, fields, woods, and country roads are the best places to hike; the main highways are no place for it, for the hikers slow up and interfere with the regular traffic, while the automobiles are a menace to the lives of the hikers.

Walking was once included in athletic competition, but it was dropped out for several reasons; it is an awkward, ungraceful event, it is too slow to appeal to spectators, it is very difficult to detect the change from a true walk to a run, and it is not an attractive sport to take part in.

Running

Running differs from walking in that it leaves the body unsupported for a part of the time, each step being a spring into the air, while in walking the body is supported all the time by one limb or the other. Running is the most rapid form of locomotion in man, and as such was of daily use to primitive man. As long as man had to get close enough to the deer to strike it with a club before he could secure it for food, running was a prime necessity. Now, like climbing, it has practically passed out of use as an activity of civilized life except as it is preserved in play. Thirty years ago Drummond wrote, "Whereas once all men were athletes, now we have to pay to see one," and if it were not for the hearty acceptance of the play programmes by our schools and colleges it would be true to-day. But running is the most universal of motor play activities, and, in spite of its critics, is probably the most valuable of them all, developing as it does not only the lower limbs but the trunk, arms, and vital organs. Since it is only in play activity that running survives, we have here another argument for making play universal.

A slow run is called a *jog*; but when a runner goes at top speed, without trying to reserve his strength or wind, it is called a *dash* or a *sprint*. *Hurdling* is running and jumping over obstacles called hurdles. The hurdles are of standard height and placed at standard distances, so that an athlete can learn to space his steps. Foot-racing is now done on smooth cinder tracks outdoors and cork tracks indoors, so made as to favor the fastest pace; the ancient Greek athletes, on the other hand, ran their races in soft sand, to develop their muscles. The change has followed the invention of the stop watch, by which races can be timed accurately. So long as races were without any instrument for timing, the only incentive was to beat the opponent, and this can be done in sand as well as any-

where, but with the establishment of records of so many seconds for a race of such a length came an interest in faster time, and hence, better tracks.

Dancing.

Dancing consists of rhythmic bodily movements combined with a succession of steps and taken to accompany certain types or pieces of music. The separate steps are usually simple and easy to learn, such as touchsteps, glides, turns, and simple walking steps; they are combined into groups of which there are an indefinite number, such as the *skip*, *polka*, *two-step*, *waltz*, *galop*, *schottische*, *mazurka*, *pirouette*, and *pas de basque*. Certain lively and vivacious dances are known as *clogs*, *jigs*, or *lilts*, and include almost continuous hopping or jumping combined with other movements; the *minuets* are dignified and slow.

The most popular and satisfactory dances for small children are the *song plays*, in which the steps are easy, usually skipping, and the children sing to accompany the movements. "Did You Ever See a Lassie," "The Muffin Man," and "The Farmer in the Dell" are familiar examples. Much valuable dancing material has been found in the tribal and folk dances of various tribes, races, and nationalities. Other kinds of dancing now in common use include *natural dancing* and *aesthetic dancing*.

Jumping

Jumping is springing into the air from one or both feet. Primitive man developed the coordination of the jump in his running through the forest, where he had to leap over logs, rocks, and streams. To jump is the same as to leap; it is a general term, including several varieties. If the jumper springs from one foot and alights on the other, it is a *step*; if he alights on the foot from which he sprang, it is a *hop*: these are the most common of the special forms. A *hurdle-jump* is a form of step, so taken as to pass over the hurdle most easily without striking it. A *high jump* is taken to find how great a height can be passed; a *broad jump* to find how great a horizontal distance; a *rope jump* is a jump taken to allow a swinging rope to pass beneath the feet.

A common modification of jumping is *vaulting*, in which the hands and arms are used to aid the lower limbs. The hands may (1) be placed on a stationary object, such as a bar, fence, or special

apparatus, (2) grasp a suspended rope or pole, (3) hold a pole which is used in vaulting at the end of a run.

A number of stunts usually classed together under the name of *tumbling* or *acrobatics* may also be considered as modifications of jumping. The simplest is rolling, where, starting with a spring from the feet, the body is flexed to approach the form of a wheel and one or more revolutions are made across the floor; the backward roll is the reverse of the forward roll. When the roll is preceded by a spring into the air, head and arms first, going from that start into a roll, it is called a dive, which may be made for height or horizontal distance. When the same movement as a dive is quickly followed by a complete revolution of the body, as in a roll, but before the body reaches the floor, it is called a somersault or flip; this is taken forward or backward. Headsprings, handsprings, and snap-ups or kips are other acrobatic stunts of this class. This whole group calls for exceptional strength and coordination of muscles.

Climbing

Primitive man must have done much climbing to develop the climbing reflex in the nervous system as we find it to-day in every child. A babe two days old will grasp a rod with his hands and support his weight in that way; the coordination develops rapidly as soon as the child tries to climb; the structure of the human foot has the appearance of a climbing quite as much as a walking apparatus. Because of these facts and others of similar nature, many scientists believe that mankind at one stage of racial history lived in trees. However that may be, civilized man has gradually done away with climbing by first inventing ladders, then stairs, and now finally the elevator, so that this form of locomotion, like running, promises soon to persist only in play.

Climbing means mounting or descending slowly and laboriously, using hands and feet, although we use the term in case of stairs, where the hands are not used. It has been found that climbing vertically requires thirteen times as much energy as moving the same distance horizontally, which shows how strenuous an activity it is. The term is also used to refer to locomotion horizontally as well as vertically when the footing is scanty and the hands need to be used to prevent falling, as in crossing the frame of an unfinished building.

Climbing is a very popular play activity, except where the arms and hands have lost their natural strength by long disuse. Ladders

are climbed with both hands and feet and with each of these alone; ropes and poles with hands and feet and hands alone: such apparatus is needed on every playground. Climbing trees and climbing hills and mountains are the most natural forms and are the most popular where the opportunity exists. Where they do not, the outdoor gymnasium is the best substitute.

An important group of play activities that may be considered as a modified form of climbing consists of exercises on bars, rings, horses, bucks, and other so-called "*heavy apparatus*." The body is supported by the arms in many of these exercises, swinging from one position to another and combining the swings with vaults and movements closely resembling those of tumbling. Wonderful feats of strength and skill are performed on the heavy apparatus, and many favor its more general use, on the ground that locomotion by the lower limbs only, leaves the upper part of the body with too little development for health and vigor. The bars, rings, and horse should be found in every fully equipped gymnasium and the exercises taught to all who like them.

The forms of climbing most often used in athletic contests are *rope climbing* and *chinning the bar*; the latter consists of lifting the body repeatedly by the arms until the chin is above the bar, to see how many times it can be done in succession without touching the floor with the feet.

Swimming

This includes several forms of locomotion on or through the water. The *breast stroke* and the similar movement on the back are close imitations of the swimming of the frog; the *scissors-kick* is a modification of the frog kick used when the swimmer is on his side. Other forms of swimming use the four limbs in alternation, after the manner of quadrupeds as they walk, run, or swim. The *dog paddle* is the simplest, imitating closely the manner in which horses and dogs swim. The *side stroke* is made in the same manner while lying on the side, or the alternate leg movements may be replaced by the scissors-kick, which is more effective. The *over-arm* is like the side stroke except that the upper arm is lifted out of the water and carried forward beyond the head while it is in the air, then dipped and used to propel the body. The alternate over-arm is like the single over-arm but taken alternately right and left with a roll of the body from side to side; the *trudgeon* is very similar, the scissors-kick being narrowed or replaced by a single leg-thrash. The *crawl*

has the alternate arm stroke with much less rolling from side to side; the face is immersed most of the time, the breath being expelled under water and inhaled at regular intervals as the head turns to one side.

Diving

Diving is entering the water head first by a spring from shore or from a supporting object. The simplest form is the *plunge*, which is made to gain distance without very much regard to form; in other dives the diver is expected to enter the water with little splashing. The main types are the *front*, *back*, *side*, and *twist*, with or without a run, and there are also several variations such as the *jack-knife*, *somersault*, and *swan*.

Swimming and diving are always exceedingly popular forms of play activity. Modern methods of sanitation of swimming pools, including filtering, sterilizing, and testing the water, are making the swimming pool a safe place to play in and are extending the time for swimming through the entire year. Swimming needs careful supervision to make it safe.

Interest in life-saving events has been stimulated by the American Red Cross, which awards arm bands and other trophies for skill in a group of movements such as floating, treading water, towing a person, breaking holds, removing the outer clothing while in deep water, and the Shaefer method of resuscitation.

Using Apparatus or Vehicles

Skating, *skiing*, *snowshoeing*, and walking on *stilts* are modifications of walking that make very attractive substitutes for hiking under certain seasonal and weather changes. *Roller skates* are useful in the same way when the sidewalks are smooth enough. Play leaders can stimulate these activities just as they can stimulate hiking, by announcing times and places for groups to go, and possibly contests of one kind and another. The same is true of *coasting* and *bicycling*. The use of *rowboats* and *canoes* is one of the big attractions of the summer camps and furnishes the very best kind of activity. *Swings*, *teeters*, and *giant-strides* should be found on every playground.

HANDLING OBJECTS

The bodily movements involved here are throwing, catching, striking, swinging, pushing, pulling, lifting, carrying, and a few others.

Throwing

Throwing is moving an object so swiftly while it is held in the hand that it will travel through the air for some distance on releasing it. Here is another example of a complex movement developed to a high degree in primitive times and now persisting only in our play. It is an important exercise for bodily development, involving the grasping movement of the hand, a swing of the arm and shoulder, a twist of the trunk and hips, and a push from the rear foot. There is perhaps no single exercise more enjoyed by players. Strength is developed by throwing for distance, as in contests with a baseball or basket ball; skill by throwing at a mark, as in target throws and throwing for goal in basket ball.

Tossing is a variety of throwing used by the pitcher in indoor baseball, also in bowling, and some other sports; the arm is swung far back in preparation and then swiftly downward and forward, releasing the object after the arm has gone well forward. *Pitching* quoits involves the same style of motion. In *servicing* tennis one hand tosses the ball directly overhead, in preparation for striking it with the racket.

Putting is a variation of throwing used in handling heavy objects, and especially in putting the shot in athletic competition. Here the shot is held close in front of the shoulder and then pushed directly forward and upward by an extension of the joints of the arm instead of using a swinging movement. *Slinging* is throwing by means of a sling, which is an implement made of an oblong piece of leather or fabric to hold the missile and two cords by which it is swung around the head to give it momentum. *Casting* is a form of throwing used in fishing for trout and bass, the bait with the line attached being thrown a considerable distance by a swing of the fishing rod, which unwinds the line from a reel attached to the rod.

Catching

Catching is stopping a ball or other missile and grasping it with the *hand*. It may be done with one or both hands; in baseball one hand is protected by a *glove* or *mitt*, which also aids the player to hold the ball. In lacrosse the ball is thrown and caught with the *crosse*, which is a loosely strung racket with a long handle. Bean bags are used with young children to help in perfecting the coordination. The most difficult part seems to be to train the eye to make accurate judgments as to the path an object is following and where it will go. College girls who have not had such training of the eye will

frequently reach for a ball that is not coming within ten feet of them; and again, will let a ball hit them in the face when a boy would unconsciously raise his hand for protection.

Striking

Striking is used in boxing and in military combat, where a sword or bayonet is used; more often still in games of ball. In handball the ball is hit with the *hand*, often protected by a glove; in football it is struck with the *foot*, with the tip of the shoe in a drop-kick and a dribble, and with the instep in punting; in other games with some kind of a swinging implement: *bat*, *racket*, *crosse*, *club*, or *mallet*. The general form for the movement in all is a *swing* of the arms and shoulders and a twist of the trunk, quite like that made in throwing. Striking is another of the primitive but now nearly discarded movements of the body very popular with players of games.

Pushing and Pulling; Lifting and Carrying

Pushing and Pulling are seen in the tussling play of children, in wrestling and related combats, and in *rowing* and *paddling*. Pushing is found also in football; pulling in handling a sled. These activities are often brought in incidentally in connection with all kinds of motor play rather than in particular games, and the same is true of lifting and carrying. All these forms of activity have a considerable place in all organized motor play but not in any regular way.

Sensory Training in Motor Play

It was pointed out in an early part of this chapter that motor play involves much sensory activity. Now that we have taken account of the details of the motor activity, it is well to recur to this point. When we notice the extent to which the eye is used in walking and running, especially in the cross-country variety, and the cultivation of muscular sense involved, we begin to get an idea of how motor activity trains the senses. Consider the jumper, springing to full height or distance and watching the place to alight; how much training of eye in coordination with limb is necessary to complete the jump successfully!

Yet it is in throwing, catching, and striking that eye training and muscular sense training reach their maximum. Say what we may of the training of the eye in reading, music, and penmanship—none of these even remotely approach baseball, basket ball, and tennis as a means of training the eye, to say nothing of coordinating it with hand and other parts of the body. It is in reading and writing, too,

and not ball games, that the eye is weakened, so that glasses are necessary. Hearing has its training in play also, and touch.

Intellectual Activity in Motor Play

It is, of course, nonsense to claim that motor play, such as we have been considering, does not train the mind. What could be better training in quick and accurate thinking than a baseball game? The good player gets the situation accurately in mind while there is a moment of pause and then when a ball is batted he knows the facts on which a decision must be made instantly. If he fails to grasp the situation he bungles the play; if he is slow in thinking, opponents get the start of him. On the other hand, what can be better training in slow and careful thinking than the planning of the strategy of a football game or the careful watching for the weak points of an opponent in tennis and planning how to take advantage of them?

Right here is a popular misconception that is so crude that there is no excuse for it. Boxing, football, and all such games are commonly referred to in intellectual circles as competitions in mere brute strength, when everyone knows, as soon as he stops to think of it, that they require quite as intense activity of senses and intellect as of muscle—success depending even more on a quick eye and a clear head than on strength or endurance. All our active games and sports, always classified as motor types of play, are in fact well-balanced combinations of motor, sensory, and intellectual activity, with just enough emotional excitement to make them enjoyable and beneficial.

COMPARATIVE VALUES

All school children, college students, and others who, like them, are engaged in sedentary occupations, have plenty of sensory and intellectual activity, but suffer in comfort, health, and general development from lack of fundamental motor training. The play leader and physical educator would seem to be justified therefore, in trying to get for these individuals from two to four hours a day of fundamental motor play, in place of their spending so much time in movie shows and other popular kinds of sensory and intellectual diversion. This is all the more appropriate when we consider that the theater, card party, and pool room provide no better sensory or intellectual training than the motor plays and games, and are entirely lacking in the exercise of big muscles upon which depend in large measure, not only health and vigor, but growth and development as well.

THE THEORY OF ORGANIZED PLAY

Forms of Play Activity	Motor	Fundamental	Locomotion	Creeping	Stroll Hike Jog Dash Hurdle Polka Waltz Mazurka Hop Step Vault Acrobatics Rope Ladder Tree Hill Heavy Apparatus Side Stroke Breast Stroke Trudgeon Plunge Front, etc. Variations Skates Skiis Stilts Swings Sleds Teeters Canoes Toss Pitch Put Sling Hands Glove Hand Foot Bat Racket Row-boat Sled Paddle Rope
				Walking	
				Running	
				Dancing	
				Jumping	
				Climbing	
				Swimming	
				Diving	
				Using Apparatus	
				Using a Vehicle	
Accessory	Handling Objects	Throwing			
		Catching			
		Striking and Swinging			
Sensory	Use of Voice	Pushing and Pulling			
		Lifting, Carrying			
Intellectual	Handicraft	Use of Voice			
		Playing on Instruments			
		Handicraft			
		Visual.....			
		Auditory..... Concerts			
		Movies, Plays			
		Pageants, Parades			
		Athletic Games			
		Card Games			
		Club Work			
		Debating			

Reference List—See end Chapter XI.

CHAPTER XI

CLASSIFICATION: INTERESTS

The last chapter gave an account of the forms of play, classified according to the parts of the body and mind that are involved. Emphasis was laid on the wide range of play activities and the well balanced training given by the so-called motor plays. No notice was taken of the motives and interests of the players, but rather the attention of the reader was directed to the outward forms of play activity. The play leader, however, depends on *interest* to stimulate activity, and so he is concerned with play motives, quite as much as with its outward form. In fact, the motives of the players are so strong that they dominate the character of the play and form the basis for its division of play into very important types.

MOTIVES IN PLAY

The motives that impel people to play, as we have seen in our study of play's origin and nature, arise from instincts that we inherit from our ancestors. Groos has pointed out the principal play motives and the instincts from which they arise. The first four arise in the individual as an independent self, while the others are the result of relations he sustains to others.

Play Motives	{	Individualistic	{	The instinct for activity
				The instinct for self-improvement
				The acquisitive instinct
				The constructive instinct
		Associative	{	The social instinct
				The imitative instinct
				The competitive instinct
				The mating instinct

INDIVIDUALISTIC PLAY MOTIVES

The Instinct to be Active

Earliest of all the play motives comes the instinct for activity. Long before the baby is able to stand or even to sit alone, and prob-

ably before he is at all conscious of what he is doing, he keeps up a continual round of fundamental movements of all the simpler forms whenever he is awake. This does a great deal to stimulate his rapid growth and development, which is proceeding faster than it ever will afterward. With further awakening of consciousness comes curiosity, leading him to experiment, to reach for things, and to try new movements. This instinct to be active gradually fades out but never wholly disappears. Even the aged have an impulse to move about after a time of inactivity.

Self Improvement

Very early in his life the child becomes aware of his own improvement in motor ability. He notices that he can do things that were impossible before and that he improves in very many lines. This interests him in all kinds of stunts, new and old, and leads up to an interest later in athletic contests and tests of efficiency.

Acquisitiveness

The enjoyment of play with certain toys soon gives rise to a desire to have them ready at hand, and a sense of possession is in that way developed. This acquisitiveness soon spreads to other things in which the child has an interest, usually a play interest. Here we have the foundation for the desire to possess play implements, such as skates, gloves, sleds, and balls. The same instinct is the basis also for the desire to make interesting collections of things, such as stones, leaves, flowers, insects, birds' eggs and nests, stamps, and pictures. The collection of many of these things gives a liking for cross-country hiking in some people who are lacking in the usual play interests.

Constructive Instinct

Closely related to the acquisitive instinct is the constructive instinct. It is this instinct that leads children universally to enjoy playing in sand, for the sand is easily moulded into a variety of forms. Children often find things that have been discarded by older people and which they can play with by making a little repair; this gives them an interest in mending them, and is often the beginning of interest in actual construction. The making of dolls' clothes and playground apparatus are among the earliest examples of constructive play, leading up to more formal kinds of handicraft.

ASSOCIATIVE PLAY MOTIVES**The Social Instinct**

First among the instincts depending on our relation to other people is the social or gregarious instinct. This is the instinct that leads people to live and work in densely populated cities and to take their vacations in crowded resorts, even when the opportunities for work and play and for healthful living can be had as well in quieter places. Most people crave companionship in work and play; many find satisfaction in the presence of big crowds and in finding new acquaintances, as well as in the company of friends; many suffer from vague fears when alone. This instinct for companionship is responsible largely for the interest most people have in pets; it accounts for the better success of hiking, skating, coasting, and other outdoor sports when there is a rather large group taking part.

The Imitative Instinct

This instinct leads people to copy the activities of others and to dress and behave as they do. We learn almost every activity by imitation, and it is therefore the source of most of our habits, good and bad. We copy from everybody but especially from our intimate companions and from famous people. A few years ago a professional baseball pitcher invented a new movement of the arms and used it as a preliminary to every throw; he became a famous pitcher, and now this "wind-up" is used by every pitcher in the land. About the same time a tennis player formed the bad habit of making foot-faults; he became the national champion, and a whole generation of tennis players copied the defect in spite of the rules and penalties. Popular actresses color their cheeks so as to give an attractive appearance under the glare of the stage lights, and in imitation, girls of all classes of society, although they do not appear on the stage and the artificial color may even detract from their appearance instead of improving it, also color their faces. An interesting illustration of imitation is the tendency spectators have when they watch an athlete perform a certain movement in a contest; they make a similar movement without being aware of it.

The power of imitative impulse is seen at every ball game in the groups of small boys who stop watching the game they came to see in order to play an imitation of it. Because of this instinct, as Spencer pointed out, the child plays much in imitation of the activities of his elders. Sometimes it is a simple imitation, as when

children imitate manners and customs, but more often it enters the realm of make-believe, as in playing house or playing Indian or soldier. Small children are apt to spend much time in self-imitation, repeating over and over again acts they have learned.

The Competitive Instinct

The competitive instinct finds expression in the romping and tussling in which children engage, in their racing, chasing, and hiding games, in the track sports and ball games of high school and college students, and in the business, political, and social rivalries of older people. In its lowest form it is a fighting instinct, with the desire to destroy or injure the opponents. Groos, who was interested particularly in the play of animals and in lower forms of play, calls the whole group "fighting plays." His choice of terms is justified because the competitive play of animals is mostly of the fighting type, but there are good reasons for our using the other term in this discussion. Civilization grows by eliminating the fighting instinct and developing in its place the higher forms of rivalry, with the desire to defeat the opponents by surpassing or excelling them rather than by injuring them. The desire to achieve and show superiority is one of the strongest and best motives to encourage in youth, for it stimulates everyone to do his best. It is so strong in youth that a very large part of the play in which school children and college students engage is of the competitive type.

The Mating Instinct

The mating instinct develops in every normal individual when the appropriate stage of development is reached. This is after puberty, as one comes to take on the size, form, and figure that characterize maturity. The mating impulse culminates in courtship, marriage, the bearing and rearing of children, and related activities of family life. It is as natural to adult life as imitation is to childhood. It gives rise to a group of play activities related to courtship, and which have as their distinguishing feature a pairing of the players into couples, along the line of sex. The so-called "social dancing" is a familiar example; here the rhythm, the bright costumes, and the social contact all help to make the dance attractive, and especially so to women.

KINDS OF SOCIAL PLAY

The simplest type of social play has for its motive the desire for companionship and the pleasure involved in watching the actions of the others, hearing them talk, talking oneself, and exhibiting one's own face, figure, clothes, and abilities. This kind of social play is seen in the casual meeting of children while going to and from school, at recess, at lunch, at games and picnics, and in visiting and going to parties. Older people get the same kind of play in making calls, attending parties, receptions, and banquets, and in meetings of church and social clubs. There is also a good deal of social play of this kind in outdoor sports, such as hiking, skating, coasting, canoeing, camping, and the like, and the social activity does much to make these sports pleasurable and popular.

A higher form of social play is found where individuals join together in an organized attempt to do something—a form of “team-work” in which each one has a part, as in carrying on a social, a picnic, a series of literary programmes, or taking part in team games.

Education for citizenship requires much practice in both of these forms of social play, the first to enable one to meet people and to appear to advantage and at ease with others, and the second to prepare one to take his part, and preferably a leading part, in the highly organized and difficult work of the complex society in which we live. The school and the college usually provide abundant opportunity for the simpler kind of social play, but there should be more extensive provision for the higher form of social play in team games for boys and girls, especially after they have reached high school age. Football, baseball, hockey, tennis, and organized athletic meets furnish one of the very best opportunities for this kind of social activity along with the individual training in physique and intelligence they afford.

While the activities just mentioned meet the social needs of the pupils, there are usually in every community many parents and other citizens who lack opportunity for social activity, and who never make many acquaintances nor get into the social life of the town. Formerly, it was not considered a duty of the school and playground to furnish recreation for people outside of school; but it is now found to be very desirable to do so and it often falls to the play director to plan and conduct such activities. By the organization of parties, picnics, special days for parents, and Parent-Teacher clubs, many

people get acquainted with each other and with the teaching staff, come to learn more of the spirit and purpose of the school, and a big service to the community is thus accomplished. Unless something of the kind is done, many people in the community fail to appreciate what the school is doing, especially its newer features, and its financial needs are therefore not met as they should be.

KINDS OF IMITATIVE PLAY

The organized play programme includes five kinds of imitative plays: free play, simple imitation, story plays, rhythmic plays, and mimetic exercises.

Free Play

Free play is provided for individual children and small groups who use the swings, teeters, sand piles, giant-stride, or small play implements such as jumping-ropes, bean bags, or balls. A certain amount of organization and supervision is always needed in free play, to provide for rotation in the use of the equipment.

Simple Imitation

In simple imitation the whole group acts in unison in imitation of the teacher or some leader. "Follow the leader" is the most familiar example. The interest that small children have in direct imitation of someone else is reinforced by the variety and novelty of the movements and by the chance to be leader some of the time. There are only a few variations of this type of play, for it does not make much appeal to older children, and dramatic imitation suits the younger ones better. There is a partial organization into groups that rotate in the use of different play forms and implements during the play period.

Story Plays

The story plays are examples of dramatic imitation in which the players make believe they are doing something they have seen, experienced, or learned about, everything being omitted from the story but certain physical activities chosen by the leader. The leader sets the example by performing the movements to a certain extent, but his most important duty is to stimulate the imagination of the pupils by mentioning the things to be done in their turn, and by making com-

ments about them that will arouse enthusiasm and at the same time dictate the form of movement without seeming to do so. To make corrections, as in a gymnastic lesson, at once spoils the play and brings it down to the level of a drill, for it destroys the make-believe, which is the soul of the play. Story plays are very popular with many teachers of young children since the method enables the teacher to give a gymnastic lesson including the best types of movement in the guise of play.

To plan a story play the teacher should choose a story that the children know well or an occupation or play in which they are much interested, work out carefully the programme of exercises to be given, and study how to lead and tell the story to best advantage. Story plays are most apt to fail because too little study is given to their preparation, and because teachers take them from a book or outline without regard to whether the pupils are familiar with the activity to be dramatized.

Children of the grammar grades also enjoy free play because it gives them a chance to try the stunts they have seen others perform on the apparatus and to practice the elements of the games, such as throwing and catching a ball, batting it or throwing for goal. They enjoy team games to a small extent but not yet enough to want highly organized play all the time, like some older players do.

Rhythmic Plays or Dances

Rhythmic plays or dances were mentioned in the preceding chapter and the outward form and character of the movements described. A large part of these, especially the *song plays* and *folk dances*, are imitative to a considerable extent, and still the motive that makes them so popular with girls is a complex one. Most girls still claim that their enjoyment of music and rhythm is the main reason they like to dance; the dancing satisfies them more than marching to music because it involves more bodily movement. Yet this does not explain why they never dance alone; the social instinct is also satisfied in the dance, for there is freedom to talk and to carry on various social activities, just as there is in games and outdoor sports. Most of these dances used in school are just vigorous enough to stimulate the heart mildly and give the pleasant feeling of exhilaration everyone enjoys in outdoor walks and similar exercises. Besides, the dramatic or make-believe element is a strong attraction. Practically all children and many older people forget themselves in the make-believe of dramatic play and enjoy what psychologists call

the "illusion of self-deception"—of pretending they are somebody or something else. Song plays and folk dances give special opportunity for just this type of play, sometimes dramatizing the habits and peculiarities of people, as in "Did you ever see a Lassie"; the movements belonging in older forms of industry, as in "The Shoemaker" and "The Weaving Dance"; or the features of courtship, as in "The Villagers," "The Unique," and in "Coming Through the Rye." *Aesthetic dances* give girls an opportunity to imitate the movements of professional dancers they have seen and admired, and there is an additional attraction because all these imitative dances lend themselves so readily to costuming, where the enjoyment of bright and novel color effects is an important feature.

Mimetic Exercises

Mimetic exercises were first used to teach large classes of boys the correct form to use in practicing the standard track and field events, such as putting the shot and the crouching start in sprinting. The correct movement is shown and a trained leader stands before the class and leads in the movements, but the special feature of the exercise lies in having the pupils make believe they are in actual competition, with all the necessary equipment. Here the mistakes are criticized, as it can be done in such a way as not to destroy the make-believe. Success depends much on the personality and enthusiasm of the teacher and his perfect familiarity with the exercise he is trying to teach in this way.

COMPETITIVE PLAY: INTRODUCTORY

IMPORTANCE

Competition should have a very large place in the activities of youth for two important reasons. First, because the competitive instinct is so strong in youth that no other type of play will stimulate interest and effort to anything like the same degree. Just as the primitive impulse to be active is subsiding and imitative plays are losing their power to stimulate activity and enthusiasm, the competitive impulse develops and arouses in everyone a new and greater interest in vigorous activity. The desire to achieve superiority and then to exhibit that superiority is universal and powerful. The kindergarten child, tired of his imitative play, responds with vigor and joy when challenged to a foot race. Laboring men forget their

fatigue in the enthusiasm of a baseball game. School life suppresses habits of activity to such an extent that competition is absolutely necessary to counteract it.

The second reason why competitive play should have so large a place in the activities of youth is because competition has so large a place in life. Competition used to be called the "life of trade," but nowadays it is the "trade of life." No matter who you are or where you live, no matter whether you engage in social life, in industry, in business, in a profession or in politics, you are sure to find yourself in strenuous competition—first against others of your own calling and then, in cooperation with them, in just as strenuous competition against other groups of people. This situation is the same everywhere and all young people will sooner or later become involved in it. All children should therefore practice competitive plays, and in that way learn the rules of the game and become trained for competition.

MANAGEMENT

Like everything else, competitive play must be well managed to give the best results. Some of the habits and qualities discussed in later chapters as needed for success in life are developed by competitive play, no matter how it is conducted. Physical benefits, such as strength, endurance, and alertness are also developed, even under poor management. If we want games to be popular with the players and to develop the qualities desired for citizenship, such as loyalty, self-control, and sportsmanship, care must be taken to provide suitable place and equipment and to secure fair play. The latter requires good rules and good officials. Games are never successful or popular unless all these needs are provided. The ancient Olympic festivals owed their unparalleled success for twelve centuries to good management and fair and rigid officiating. The standardizing and publishing of rules have done great things to improve competitive play; enforcement of these rules by strict and impartial officials is just as essential.

COACHING

Sportsmanship is the spirit that competitive play should develop, and it cannot be done by rules and officials alone. Coaches and play leaders must stimulate the spirit of sportsmanship in their players. Even if a coach has a craze to win, if he is experienced he will know

that it is more to his advantage to teach good plays that are within the rules than to try to get away with crookedness. One of the best ways to teach sportsmanship is to teach clearly the meaning of competitive play and what winning really means. To win is to show superiority. It is of no benefit to a player or team to steal the name of winning if not really the better player or team. To make an unfair play deliberately is an admission of inferiority—it is simply “throwing a monkey-wrench into the machinery”—for then no one can tell who is the best. Roosevelt’s motto. “Play clean and play fair, but hit the line hard” cannot be improved upon. The elements of sportsmanship—honesty, courtesy, generosity, and friendliness—appeal to everyone who has not been wrongly taught, but they must be taught, for they are not primitive but civilized virtues.

KINDS OF COMPETITIVE PLAY

The varieties of competitive play are almost endless, but they all fall easily into two well-defined groups: contests and games. Contests may be exemplified by foot racing and competition in jumping; games by Pom Pom Pull Away and basket ball. The main distinction is this: contests are calculated to test a player’s separate abilities, one by one; while games test many abilities along with generalship in choosing the right thing to do to meet any emergency.

Contests

For the purpose of determining the separate abilities of the players, there are events to test all the main lines of physical ability: short runs to test speed, long runs to test endurance, high and broad jumps and vaulting to test different types of agility, shot and discus to test strength and skill. Any trial of ability may be called a test, but in order to have a contest there must be opponents. Contests can be held in any form of locomotion or handling of objects, but those found by long experience to be most satisfactory have become an accepted list for general use and are well standardized: that is, they are performed in the same way and by the same rules everywhere.

It is not considered fair in contests to allow any interference with a contestant, either by players or spectators. If a player’s friends help him or his opponents hinder him, his performance is not a real test of his ability in the event for which the contest was designed.

Strategy and deception are out of place in a contest for a similar reason: they substitute mental ability and mental alertness for the physical ability which the event should test. If, in a mile run, for example, the members of one group of runners pocket the best man of the opposing team so that their best man does not have to outrun him, it is not only poor sportsmanship but it completely destroys the event as a means of testing ability in running, and changes it to a contest in strategy, which belongs in games but not in contests. The Greek myth of Atalanta is a classical illustration of a contest dishonestly won. Atalanta promised to marry the first man who could outrun her. She defeated several suitors: Milanion, however, received from the goddess Aphrodite three beautiful golden apples; starting with a burst of speed greater than he could maintain, he dropped the golden apples, one by one, in the path; Atalanta paused to pick them up and was defeated in the race.

Games

Games are competitions that are full of unexpected situations, strategy, and deception. It is a part of the game to outwit the opponents and to give them a wrong idea of what one intends to do; also to interfere with their plans and plays as much as possible, unless the rules forbid. In order to make the game the best and most satisfactory to all concerned there must of course be some rules placing a limit on kinds of interference and kinds of offensive play, and players should be made to understand that the rules are made by experienced people for the benefit of the game. Rules of baseball, for example, forbid some kinds of deception a pitcher might use, because it makes a poorer game to permit it; there are similar rules in basket ball, football, and all games. The reader will see from the above discussion that contests are intended to cultivate specific physical abilities, such as running, jumping, and throwing; while games cultivate general physical ability along with strategy, quick thinking, and ability to adapt one's play to all kinds of situations.

Summary

Competitive play is play in which the main incentive is rivalry, or comparison of abilities: contests are simple competitive plays in which the players, without interference or strategy, do the same thing to see which excels in it; games are competitive plays in which players use many kinds of ability along with strategy, deception, and interference.

Applying the above principles to the classification of competitive play, we see that contests include all the track, field, and aquatic sports, the badge tests, archery, target shooting, relay races, and a few activities such as golf and bowling that are usually called games. On the other hand, the list of games will include not only tag and ball games but wrestling, fencing, boxing, and similar exercises of the type of combats, which are more often spoken of as contests. There are a few forms of play that are like the contests excepting that they permit a slight amount of interference; such are croquet, curling, quoits, bowling on the green, and one or two others. These really form an intermediate group, between contests and games.

The clear distinction that has just been drawn between contests and games is not usually made in our dictionaries and in books on the subject of play. They use the two terms interchangeably, as is illustrated by the name "Olympic Games," which refers to a group of contests that in present days would be called a "Track and Field Meet." The word "game" has gone out of common use to refer simply to competition of that kind; players speak of a "game of tag" or a "game of football" but not a "game of jumping" or a "game of diving." Golf, bowling, and relay races are a little more complex than the simplest contests and for this reason are often mistaken for games. The distinction between these two types is so perfectly in accord with the rules that govern them that a clear recognition of it by play leaders and coaches will help to clear up some points in sportsmanship that are often hazy in the minds of players, especially as to where strategy and deception are legitimate and where they are taboo. The word "game" has several meanings that are old and established and that never give rise to any confusion, but when the word is used in referring to a form of play it can best be used only to indicate those forms of competitive play in which strategy, deception, and interference are permitted along with the competition in physical ability—such as tag, baseball, tennis, and hockey.

The only example in our current literature of any extensive use of the word "game" to designate any other than competitive plays is found in the books of plays for small children, written in the main by people connected with the kindergarten movement. These teachers have done a great work in developing the rhythmic and dramatic plays suited to the period of early childhood, calling them "Singing Games" and "Dramatic Games." Apparently the writers of these books have not been much interested in competitive sport

and have not observed the marked tendency in recent years to drop the use of the term "Game" for such activities as song plays and folk dances, and to use it only where there is a struggle for supremacy. It will avoid confusion if the more general term "Plays" is used for simple activities of children that are non-competitive.

We have taken pains to define plays, contests, and games, but have not stated what is meant by the term "sport," which is so commonly used in a similar way. Like play, sport is a rather general term, including hunting, fishing, skating, and swimming, which are not necessarily competitive. It is also used to refer to horse-racing and bull-fighting as well as to track and field, baseball, football, and other activities, which have been classed under contests and games. The term "athletic sports" or "athletics" means nearly the same, but suggests the vigorous competitive nature of the sport.

Kinds of Contests

Between Individuals

The fundamental idea of a contest is a comparison of ability between individuals. This is the simplest form of contest and the one that has been most used. This was the earliest form of competitive play, described in the oldest myths and legends of prehistoric times, long before there were any games. The Greeks were the first to become interested in contests as a means of stimulating physical practice and improving national physique, and they depended entirely on individual contests to stimulate interest. There has been an important growth of plans to encourage competitive play of this kind, beginning with the ancient Greeks.

Championships: The athletic competition of the early Greeks was on a purely championship basis. Each city had local contests to find who was champion of the city in the various events, and as early as 776 B. C. national contests were held at Olympia. The winner received a prize, but no others were recognized. Starting with running only, the list of events was gradually lengthened to at least thirteen. National contests were held at three other places also, but none of them equaled the Olympic festivals in athletic features. In modern times the championship plan of conducting contests in physical sports was revived by the British, brought to America about 1850, when the city clubs forming the Amateur Athletic Union began active promotion of track and field sports, and finally has culminated

in the revival of the international Olympic Festivals. The first of these was held in Athens in 1896, and one has been held every four years since then, excepting 1916. Another series of festivals is held in the Far East, known as the "Far East Olympic," and includes Japan, China, and the Philippines. In these modern festivals a much wider range of events is run off than in the ancient ones, and several games are included. Local championships also are held everywhere in schools, colleges, athletic clubs, and on playgrounds.

The principal faults of the championship plan of conducting contests are its tendency to encourage extreme specialization and its failure to stimulate any but the few best athletes to practice or compete. The Greeks recognized the first of these defects and devised the pentathlon, a combination of five events, to counteract it. They chose five events which together gave an all-around training and awarded to the winner of this event the highest honor of all.

In modern championships the same idea is carried out in several ways. The reorganized Olympic Festival holds a pentathlon and a decathlon, the latter consisting of ten events; the Y. M. C. A. holds a hexathlon (six events). The hexathlon is applied to three types of activity: indoor, outdoor, and aquatic.

To encourage more persons to practice and to compete, more than one prize or honor is awarded in each event, in place of recognizing only the final winner, which was the earlier custom. It is usual to-day to give prizes to the three best contestants, and some associations, like the I. C. A. A. A. give awards to the first four. Another application of this same idea is dividing players into groups by weight, and holding a championship for each weight. This has been used most extensively in boxing and wrestling but is now being applied to other sports as well, especially on playgrounds and in Y. M. C. A. classes.

A third plan to encourage participation is to handicap those who are known to be the best by requiring them to do a better grade of performance than the others in order to win. Champion runners are set back and must start behind the line; jumpers and weight men must make a record better by a certain amount than others; often a special set of events is given for novices.

The extent of competition is increased in some cases by having what is called a "qualifying round" to select the contestants for the meet from a larger number, and sometimes there is a "consolation series" of contests for those who lose out in the first round.

Among the students of a school or college who do not succeed in

“making the team,” individuals representing classes, fraternities, and other groups compete for an “intramural championship.”

To further greater interest among the better athletes, an “athletic fraternity” has been formed. Membership in this fraternity is an honor that can be awarded only to those who can pass certain athletic tests requiring a high grade of ability.

Badge Tests: Several plans have been devised called badge tests, the one handled by the Playground and Recreation Association of America being the best known. The aim was to devise a set of contests to stimulate physical exercise and play among city children, where numbers are great, space and equipment scarce, and very little instruction to be had. In order to avoid the faults of the championship plan the following features were included: each player must pass a certain standard in four events in order to secure a badge, and if he does so he receives the award, no matter how many others are as good as or better than he. Three grades of badges are awarded. Boys and girls have different events and standards to pass. The success of the plan has been remarkable, raising the standards of physique in many American cities.

Point System: A plan that aims to interest every boy and girl in suitable physical events is called the “point system.” For each event there is made a scoring table, giving points from 0 to 1000 for the various degrees of excellence, 0 standing for a low grade, that any normal pupil may attain, and 1000 for an ideal, something near the world’s record for that event. By reference to the table any boy or girl can see the rating for present accomplishment and is encouraged to make better and better records. State, national, and international meets are conducted by telegraph by the use of the scoring tables, the various schools, colleges, or Y. M. C. A. groups having their scores taken in their own gymnasiums and wiring to headquarters the highest scores. In this way interest is stimulated and the expense of travel is avoided.

The point system, as a method of scoring, is to be used in preference to the plan of the badge tests, because the latter can test only a few grades of ability, while an ideal test will test all.

Such problems as this arise: In scoring points for an event should they be graded evenly from 0 to 1,000? That is, is it best that ten additional points, for example, shall be given for the same improvement in the lower and upper halves of the scale, or should a player get more as the difficulty becomes greater? Some teachers give most points for a certain amount of improvement in the middle

of the scale and less toward the top, as well as toward the bottom. They argue that even if it is harder as you pass up the scale it is less worth while, and it is better to encourage practice of one's poorer events.

Efficiency Tests: The simpler badge tests were the first to be used, but their limitations were soon noted. Then, various point systems were devised. With a multiplicity of point systems in use the question next arose: What is the best set of events to test all-around physical efficiency? Is a large number of tests necessary, or can the same results be obtained by a few? Many of the runs and jumps used in the usual track and field sports are so nearly duplicates that they test practically the same ability and need not all be used. The problem is, how many are essential and which are the best? At present there is a nation-wide attempt to answer these questions. The work is being conducted along two lines.

(1) The authors of various tests are using them repeatedly with large numbers of individuals, so that the point systems can be based on actual facts, rather than on opinions.

(2) A comparison is being made among similar or related tests, to find out if possible which signify the most.

At the time this book is being published, the studies in this line have given little ground for a definite conclusion. The statement of Gulick, many years ago, that the main lines of physical ability are running, jumping, throwing, climbing, swimming, and possibly dancing, is still very generally accepted and most efficiency tests are based on these events. Whether one or more of these may be omitted from a complete efficiency test under modern conditions, is at least doubtful. The evidence seems rather to be in favor of more than six tests, for tests of condition, such as the pulse and blood pressure tests, are considered important, as well as the tests of strength and skill that have been used almost exclusively up to this time. A simple way to test physical efficiency is yet to be found.

Between Groups

Another modern device to encourage wider participation in competitive play is the group contest, in which we test groups, teams, schools, colleges, cities, and nations instead of individuals. The comparison has been made in three different ways.

Mass Competition: The first and theoretically the simplest way is to have the two groups come together and compete directly, as

in the familiar "Tug-of-War." Unfortunately, there are very few of the abilities we wish to compare that can be tested between groups in the simple way in which the ability to pull is tested in Tug-of-War and so this method is practically of little value.

Adding Individual Scores: The next way to compare the abilities of groups is to have individual contests and combine the results to give group scores. The oldest and simplest way to do this is to give points to those who win first, second, and third places, usually 5 for first, 3 for second, 1 for third, then to add the points made by the group. When events are used in which there is a scoring table—contests in which there are weight classes—a fairer way is to add the points made by every contestant in the group. By agreeing beforehand how many contestants each group may use, the score of each to count, the full number is stimulated to practice and compete.

Relay Races: This is the third form of group competition. Here we have a form of contest especially adapted to running and swimming. The runners of a group take part in turn, each starting just as the preceding runner finishes, with the object of seeing which group can finish first. Of course, there must be the same number of runners in all the competing groups and each must run the same distance. The best form of track for relay races is the round or oval track, but in less formal races with large groups it can be done more conveniently sometimes in a shuttle form, the first, third, fifth, and other odd runners taking a straight course in one direction and the second, fourth, and other even runners going in the reverse direction. A third way of conducting a relay, invented by Gulick, is called the "wave" method; all the runners go in the same direction on the same track, like a series of waves across the water, a judge standing at the finish signaling each one when to start by waving a handkerchief at the instant the preceding runner finishes.

The first form of relay is least liable to unfair gains by runners starting too soon; the last one requires a separate starter for each group.

Relay races used for more formal competition are being more and more standardized, just like other contests, but there is at the same time a great tendency to vary them greatly in informal activity, for the reason that they develop great enthusiasm among the runners and are therefore very popular for practice and class exercise. To make them still more interesting, novelties are introduced at intervals of the run, consisting of all kinds of simple exercises that the runner

must stop and perform before he finishes, also various types of locomotion.

Broad jumping and distance throws can be conducted in relays, but they are too slow to arouse interest like the relays in running.

Contests Resembling Games

There is a small group of competitive sports that have some of the qualities of games along with those of contests, and thus they form a separate group. Croquet may be taken as a familiar example. In croquet each player follows the course and overcomes the same difficulties as the others; to this extent it is like a contest. One player may, however, if he chooses, hit another player's ball instead of making an arch or a stake, and then he can drive the ball of the other player in some way to improve his own chances of winning. This interference with the play of an opponent is contrary to the fundamental idea of a contest; it makes the play more like a game. Pitching horseshoes and quoits, curling, and lawn bowling are also in the main like contests, but in each there is an opportunity permitted to interfere with the play of the opponents, and so they belong in this special group.

From this standpoint, golf and bowling, although popularly called games, should be classed along with archery and track athletics as contests, because on examination it is seen that they lack the elements of surprise, interference, and strategy that are characteristic of games.

Kinds of Games

Games are best divided, according to the general age period to which they are naturally adapted, into elementary games, combats, and team games.

Elementary Games

In elementary games the competition is largely individualistic, and the organization comparatively simple. Some of them are modified forms of the more complex team games, changed to suit children, such as Newcomb, One Old Cat, and End Ball; but most of them are running, dodging, and chasing games, played without balls or other equipment. There are two main groups: one where the play centers in getting possession of a home, base, or goal; and the other having chasing and tagging as the chief point of interest. Dozens of these games, named and described independently in books

of play, are found on careful examination to be no more than slight variations from a few well-marked types.

Goal Games: There are two kinds of goal games, quite different in idea and manner of play. In the first kind each goal is held by one player and there are almost goals enough for all, but there is always at least one player without a goal; all effort and interest centers in avoiding being the one left out. The games differ only in the dramatic setting and in the way provided that one may get possession of a goal. In the simplest form only two players are active at once. The one who is "It" chooses someone else who has to do something that takes him away from his goal, and then it is a game of wits and speed to see which of the two will reach the vacant place first. "Come with Me" and "Good Morning" are games of this kind; another popular one, slightly different, is the old "Beater Goes Round," since the war better known as "Swat the Kaiser." In "Pussy Wants a Corner" the players slyly trade goals while the one who is "It" is a safe distance away, and he gets a goal as they become more careless; in "Squirrels in Trees," "The First of May," "Changing Seats," "Stage and Coach," and several others there is a signal of some kind when all must exchange goals, giving the player who has no goal a fine chance to seize one. In one type, like "Huntsman," "Going to Jerusalem," and "Merry Go Round" all the players have to leave their goals to take part in some required activity, and then at a signal all rush for goals. With some variations in the dramatic setting in which the game is slightly hidden, these are practically the only different types in over forty games of this class. Although very simple they are clearly games, having in all cases competition and freedom of action, strategy, and surprise to distinguish them from contests.

The second type of goal games is made up of a few games of "Hide and Seek." There is a single goal used in common by all the players. The interest of the game centers in the hiding and hunting to find the hidden players, and in the race to touch the goal when one is seen or tries to get in free. The choosing of the one to be "It" by the use of "Counting Out" rhymes adds to the interest.

Tag Games: Most tag games are dramatizations of hunting or warfare. Tag signifies capture. It is usually done by touching a player, in a few instances by hitting him with a thrown ball or bean bag, and in a few instances by seizing and holding him until he is tagged or slapped three times. In some tag games there are goals, which here are places of safety. There are four varieties of tag

games that are entirely individualistic, and two types of cooperative games, making about one hundred separate games in all.

Tag games vary greatly in the amount of activity involved, some of them being popular as quiet parlor amusements while others keep everyone in vigorous activity every moment. In general, the simpler ones are least active and the vigor increases with the complexity of the play. A few have features that permit players to be just as active or as inactive as they choose, and this fits them for mixed groups where there is wide variety in the strength, skill, and endurance of the players, as at picnics and in the rural and ungraded schools. The best way to classify tag games is to begin with the simplest and take up in order the added features that make them more complex and more vigorous.

1. The very simplest tag games such as "Hunt the Fox" and "Squirrel and Nut" have only two players active at once, the others merely standing or sitting and looking on. One of the two is the Chaser, and the other is the Runner who tries to escape being tagged. When the Chaser tags the Runner, or if he does not succeed in doing so and the leader thinks the play has gone far enough, another Chaser and Runner are chosen and the game begins again. In some games of this kind, features are introduced that let the other players have some part in the activity, as in "Cat and Mouse," "Bull in the Ring," and "Fox and Chickens"; or there may be more than one runner, as in "Cat and Mice."

2. The next group of games is made slightly more complex, the play being continuous without the interference of the leader, by having the winner or loser in the chase choose a player to take the place of the one who retires. Most of these are played in ring formation; the list is rather long, with "Drop the Handkerchief," "Exchange Tag," and "Have You Seen My Sheep" as the most familiar ones. They are not much if any more active than the first group, especially "Have You Seen My Sheep," which has a feature that delays the active elements of the play.

3. The third group, including "Fox and Squirrel" and "Three Deep," usually has only one Chaser and one Runner, but the instant the Runner is tagged he becomes Chaser, and the player he is to chase can become free and make another player take his place at any time, the way of doing this being varied in the different games. This feature keeps everyone on the alert, as any player is likely to be tagged at once if he fails to pay attention.

4. Games of the fourth class differ from those of the third in

that any player may be tagged, instead of one particular player. There is usually some way to avoid capture, differing in each game: sometimes it consists in staying in a safety zone, as in "King's Land" and "Duck on the Rock"; sometimes in assuming some posture or position, as in "Statue Tag," or "Hang Tag"; or touching some kind of substance or object, as in "Wood Tag" and "Tree Tag." As in preceding groups, there is a wide difference in the amount of dramatic imitation.

5. Thus far the games have been strictly individual games, but now we come to the beginning of team play, with the players who have been tagged joining the Chaser and helping to tag all the others. This group includes about twenty games the most familiar being "Pom Pom Pull Away," "Hill Dill," and "Black Tom." Many differ from these only in the dramatic features; a few like "Fisher-man," "London Loo," and "Trades" have a little more of team play.

6. The final group has "Prison Base" as its type, and is made up of tag games of the strictly team kind, the players no longer being satisfied to join the opponents as soon as they are tagged but instead being prisoners of their captors until their teammates are able to release them. These games are very complex and very vigorous. They are not so popular as they once were, younger players liking the simpler games better and the older ones preferring the modern ball games.

Personal Combats

Combats are games rather than contests, as before explained, although they take place between individual players rather than between groups. They include *Boxing, Wrestling, Fencing*, and *minor varieties* of each such as "Hand Wrestle," "Indian Wrestle," "Badger Pull," "Wand Pull," "Chicken Fight," and several others. They are very popular with boys of adolescent age and make very good vigorous exercise.

Team Games

The team games that have won most popularity among players in recent years are all ball games. The use of the ball, in addition to all such interesting activities as running, jumping, dodging, etc., involves throwing, catching, and striking, and the most intense sensory and intellectual activity, and this no doubt accounts for the popularity of ball games of all kinds. There are three fundamental types of ball games, quite distinct in their nature and origin: *base-*

ball, tennis, and football. Basket ball and hockey are plainly of the football type; for they are played on a rectangular field with a goal at each end, and the play is centered upon the securing of a goal. Because they are so important, and since they differ considerably in detail from football, they are often considered as distinct types of games.

Baseball games combine running, throwing, catching, and striking, with the goal and tag elements of the elementary games. They are of English and American origin and the English and American forms differ considerably. Baseball is distinctly modern, its most rapid development having occurred since the Civil War.

After a great many attempts to devise or find a baseball game of a form simpler than the regular professional game and suitable for girls and children, Indoor Baseball, played mostly out-of-doors with the 12 to 17 inch soft ball, has come into popular use and supplies the need very well. The ball that is used has acquired the name of "Playground Ball." Long Ball, German Bat Ball, and One Old Cat, long used as introductory games, are going out of favor and the Indoor or Playground game is taking their place.

Tennis games can be traced back to the tenth century, when they were played by members of the nobility in the castles of Central Europe. They were indoor games, played in a court with walls on all sides. Lawn Tennis was invented by an English army officer in 1875. It was standardized within a few years and has since become popular the world over. The fact that the most prominent players in the international matches represent England, America, France, Italy, Japan, and Australia shows how widely the game is played. Badminton is a form of tennis played extensively in England; Racquets and Squash are popular among wealthy social clubs in many countries. Handball and its English variety "Fives" are good games played in many places; the Spanish play a form called Pelota and the Italians another variety named Pallone.

The most popular game of the tennis type that has been devised in recent years is Volley Ball. It is the only one of the group adapted to use with large numbers and is very popular with players of both sexes. It probably will be still more widely played for it permits more players to the acre in congested places than any other popular game.

Football games are characterized by a rectangular field with a goal at each end, usually consisting of two upright posts and a cross-bar. They were once played in Western Europe by teams represent-

ing walled towns, the goals being the gates of the towns or fortresses, and the field the country between, often miles in extent. The game had no rules and there was no limit to the number of players nor the manner of their selection. This crude game, played in quite different ways in different places, was taken up by the English schools of the last century, standardized, and sets of rules agreed upon. In this way the two types of football—Rugby and Association—were developed, and in a similar way Field Hockey, Ice Hockey, Lacrosse, and Polo grew up in certain schools and athletic clubs. American College Football and Basket Ball are of more recent origin, the former being developed around 1880 and the latter in the "90's." Hockey and basket ball have assumed such importance of late as to require separate chapters in the practical part of the course.

KINDS OF MATING PLAY

The most common mating plays among the western nations are social dancing and similar plays in which the main feature of interest is a sex division of the group into couples, so as to give the intimate companionship with one of the other sex that the mating instinct demands. Kissing games, once prominent features at parties, are no longer approved by the best society, but social dances are more popular than ever, although the style of dancing now in vogue is less refined and dignified than that used in former years. Young women are especially fond of the simple social dances, so much so that many of them, if free to choose, would never engage in another kind of amusement when it is possible to dance. They have more pleasure in rhythm than men and boys, and yet the fact that they always dance in couples shows the prominence of the mating instinct.

There would seem to be no good reason for introducing mating plays before the mating instinct naturally develops; the surest way to have it develop normally is to develop a strong and healthy physique through exercises appropriate to the age of the child. In spite of this fact some parents make the mistake of sending young children to dancing school when Nature intended them to be climbing trees and playing tag. These parents believe that their young children will grow up to be more graceful dancers and have better success in courtship and marriage if they are made to imitate the manners of ladies and gentlemen in polite society. All such training of children in adult activities is of doubtful value; it is substituting work for play.

CHAPTER XII

HOW AGE AND SEX INFLUENCE PLAY

The scientific study of children in recent years has awakened people, as nothing ever did before, to a realization of the importance of child life and the necessity of giving every child an opportunity for the best of training. As a consequence, more money is being spent for schools, more children are being sent to school, and an almost complete revolution has taken place in the theory and practice of education.

Child study has accomplished this by bringing to light a great number of interesting and significant facts. To give a few examples: children are not only smaller than adults, but the body has altogether different proportions in the child; children have less ability than adults in some lines and more in others; they have different instincts, different likes and dislikes, and many unlike mental traits; their interests are not at all the same as the interests of adults, and they have a wholly different outlook upon life. Of special interest to us at this time is the fact that every normal life consists of several rather well-marked stages, of which adulthood is only one, and that the things that appeal most to a person in one stage of life may mean nothing at all to the same person when he arrives at another stage.

Each age and sex has its special play interests. The boy of three plays horse; at six he plays tag and Indian; at twelve he takes up ball games of the individual or scrub variety; at sixteen he plays team games; at various times, individual feats of strength and skill absorb his interest. In like manner the girl takes up dolls, Hide and Seek, ball games, dancing, swimming, and basket ball, putting her whole soul into each in its turn. The play leader must make a study of these play interests of boys and girls at various ages; with as complete knowledge as can be had in this line he will be able to choose the best activities for each group and thus stimulate their best effort; at the same time he will avoid the main problems of discipline by keeping all so fully absorbed in their occupations that mischief has no chance to creep in. Without such knowledge the teacher will

nave to learn the same things slowly by experiment, with much loss of time and of confidence of pupils and employers.

Difficulties in Dividing Age Periods

The transition of each individual from one period of life to another is gradual and partial, various instincts and traits and parts of the body undergoing the change one after another. There are also exceptions and variations in the order of development when we compare various individuals; for example, most children walk before they talk, but in some cases this order is reversed. Because of these many exceptions and irregularities, scholars have not been in full agreement as to the number of distinct periods of growth and the time of their appearance.

Another reason why there is not full agreement upon the stages of life is that they have been studied from different points of view. Some have studied the growth in height and weight; some have studied intellectual growth and others the development of the emotions. Gulick, Johnson, and Lee have made studies of the periods in the development of play interests, and have been influenced to a large extent by the culture-epoch theory, which assumes that there is a period in the child to correspond to each period of racial history: animal, savage, pastoral, agricultural, etc. Most scholars divide human life into five or six periods, but some go so far as to describe ten; on the other hand, a few writers recognize but two.

The time of transition about which there is most complete agreement is puberty, which occurs in girls of the civilized races at about the age of twelve (11-13) and in boys about two years later. Puberty is the dividing line between childhood and adolescence. It has been recognized from early times and has been known to savage races, who make it a time of rites and ceremonies admitting the youth to certain formal privileges, such as hunting and accompanying warriors to battle. Marked changes in mental and physical traits and play interests occur at this time.

Playground Basis. For practical reasons, directors of summer playgrounds make three divisions by dividing the twelve years of childhood into two periods of six years each. The first of these periods is called babyhood or early childhood; the second is called later childhood. The dividing line comes at the age when most children begin school, so that the plan is in agreement with the school programme. The main reason for this division is a marked change of play interests that takes place at about the age of six. Many

writers divide the period of babyhood again into two or more stages, and there are good reasons for doing so; yet, since it lies outside of the age when the child comes to the playground, we need not consider it here. Medical studies have shown that the period from seven to nine is often a time of slackening in growth, with a tendency to fatigue and weakness of the heart. Later studies indicate that such a condition is unusual rather than general; yet it is well to bear in mind that it sometimes occurs, so that some children need to be guarded against over exertion at this time.

School Basis. Playgrounds connected with schools are necessarily influenced, in their methods of arranging play groups, by the divisions found in the school. It has been the general custom for a long time to divide the twelve grades of school life into three periods of four years each: the primary school, the grammar school, and the high school. This is a rather artificial division because it is based on the nature of the subjects to be taught, rather than upon the nature of the child. Puberty occurs in the middle of the grammar grades, instead of at a division point. A later plan groups the first six grades together to form an elementary school and divides the next six grades into two equal periods, known as the Junior and Senior high schools. Here the time of puberty corresponds to the change from elementary to high school, and the period of adolescence is divided at its middle, forming the two high school divisions.

Some people complete the stages of growth and development that belong in the period of adolescence by the time they finish high school; some others, especially boys, are still immature during the greater part of college age. There is a wide range of difference in the time of attaining maturity in different races; some boys among savage tribes reach maturity at the age of ten, and some factory workers almost as early. A general tendency is seen in the educated classes in Europe and America to lengthen out the stages of growth and postpone mature life, adolescence persisting until the age of twenty and sometimes until twenty-four.

THE PLAY PERIODS

Making a combination, therefore, of the plans of grouping used in the summer playgrounds and in our educational system, we find five play periods of life which play leaders need to study:

- (1) from birth to six years, babyhood or early childhood;
- (2) from six to twelve, later childhood;

- (3) from twelve to fifteen, early adolescence;
- (4) from fifteen to eighteen, later adolescence;
- (5) from eighteen to thirty or longer, maturity.

Babyhood (0-6)

This period is also called "early childhood" and the "pre-school age." Babies enjoy rolling, kicking, running, jumping, and the like, and keep up an almost ceaseless round of physical activity during their waking hours. The natural tendency to be active is the main incentive and the chief source of pleasure is in the variety of movements rather than in results. Fatigue comes on quickly, but by constantly varying his activity the baby is able to keep going continually. Building with blocks, digging in the sand, wading in shallow water, and playing with swings, tecters, slides, and other simple playground apparatus later begin to have an appeal.

By the time children of this age come to the playground they have an irresistible impulse to imitate, from which the period is often called the imitative, dramatic, or monkey stage. They prance like horses, fly like birds, howl like the wind, and sway like the trees, just for the joy of activity and make-believe. They like to dramatize all the familiar activities of the life in which they live, and act out in play all the details of house-keeping, farming, keeping a store, carrying the mail, directing the traffic at a street crossing, etc., with special interest in certain cases of unusual activity, such as trains, buildings on fire, soldiers on the march, the circus, and celebrations and parades. The activities of the kindergarten are planned to accord with the two leading characteristics of children of this age: the tendency to constant and varied activity, and the dramatic impulse.

Later Childhood (6-12)—*Elementary School*

During this stage, which extends from the time of entering school until puberty, children still imitate activities that they see, but it is no longer their main interest. It is an age of individualism and self-assertion, named by Lee the "Big Injun" period. Children now turn from imitation of what they see others do to doing real things on their own initiative, with great pride in what they can do. Ability and interest lie not so much in the direction of doing small and exact things, like writing or sewing, as in the feats of strength and skill involving the whole body, like running, dodging, throwing, climbing, and swimming. These are activities for which

there is inherited ability, and children enjoy developing skill in them by practice, rather than by imitation of others; for this reason coaching is of little value at this time. Self-assertion is so prominent a trait that a group of children, if left to themselves, will often spend their whole play period disputing over what they shall play.

Closely related to the fondness the child of the "Big Injun" period has in self-assertion is a passion for displaying his superior talents, and this gives rise to an interest in individual competition. Games of tag, based on the activities of hunting and warfare, are very popular; also individual contests in running, jumping, swimming, and other feats of strength and skill. The badge tests were devised by play leaders to give city children a simple programme of individual contests that can be practiced with little or no equipment.

The period of later childhood is important as a time for acquiring muscular control. As we have stated elsewhere, great perfection of coordination is not yet possible, but this is the time when practice must begin if special and unusual skill is ever to be attained. The inherited ability for bodily control develops slowly, but if the beginning of this ability, coming to the front at this time, is not stimulated by practice, valuable instincts and inherited possibilities are forever lost.

The characteristic play of the period is vigorous and varied, with very little tendency to cooperation and team play. Ball games are more or less popular, but they are of the individual or scrub variety, like One Old Cat, Fungo, and Newcomb.

Early Adolescence (12-15)—*Junior High School*

Adolescence is the period of life when sex characteristics are developing and when the body in its growth gradually takes on the size and form that belong to men and women. Puberty is the name given to the time when adolescence begins. It is frequently, but not always, accompanied by rather sudden and radical changes in moods, interests, and habits of thought and conduct.

During the three years from 12 to 15, the age of Junior high school, youth is still strongly individualistic, but the gang spirit is also developing, giving an interest in team games. The dominant interest in self that still prevails makes track and field sports and other activities in which the individual stands out prominently retain much of their former popularity. The beginnings of sex development and sex interests tend to separate the sexes, and as a consequence the play interests of boys and girls are wider apart at this

time than at any other age. Ideals of self-sacrifice and heroism appeal strongly, and there is unusual interest in Scouting, Camp Fire, and similar club activities.

Later Adolescence (15-18)—Senior High School

This is the period of the development of loyalty. Cooperation and team play become the dominant play motives; although interest in track and field sports, with interest in individual superiority is still a prominent factor, it is still further stimulated now by group competition, in which players win scores for their team as well as for themselves. The combined stimuli of team and self interest are so strong that there is danger of players overdoing under stress of championships contested before a crowd of partisan "rooters," especially if directed by a coach who uses driving tactics. The danger here is in the direction of too long continued effort rather than too severe exertion; for example, football, with its supreme efforts of strength alternated with periods of rest, is not found to be nearly so productive of harm as long distance running and such games as basket ball, where the practice is apt to be both strenuous and long continued. High school boys are more liable to such accidental injuries as broken bones than more mature men, because the bones are not yet completely hardened, and yet accidents of this kind are not common unless young boys play football against those who are older and heavier. To avoid injury to the heart and nervous system from overdoing, games of the basket ball type should be played in quarters instead of halves and long distance running omitted from high school meets; football accidents should be prevented by providing players with suitable protective clothing and scheduling games only against teams of similar weight and maturity.

High school girls have about the same tendency to strive for individual superiority and to develop a spirit of loyalty and cooperation as high school boys. The charge that girls are slow to enjoy team play and to show sportsmanship has been greatly exaggerated. Girls are subject to the same dangers of injury as the boys, and they are even more liable to overdo and suffer injury under stress of competition before crowds.

Maturity (18-40)

These years, which include the time of college life, are the years of greatest physical efficiency and hardihood. Practically all the championships and athletic records are won here. The possibilities

of bodily development in strength, speed, skill, and endurance are so far beyond the attainments of the average man and woman that the exhibitions given by ball teams, acrobats, etc., attract the largest numbers of spectators that can be drawn together. The interest of communities in their own teams and champions adds to the popularity of athletic spectacles; while this cannot take the place of active play, it has its advantages because it stimulates the interest of the public in such forms of play, helps to finance play programmes, and aids in the long run to secure popular support for the right kind of play and the actual participation of the whole community in it.

There is a marked tendency at this time of life, although the possibilities of development are so great, to forego all active recreation and engage only in amusements of passive character. During college life and in business and professional life later, interest in study and in the various problems of the individual and the community tend to keep people from engaging in any active recreation; weakness and loss of health and efficiency follow. The promotion of wholesome play, which should be required of college as well as of high school students, is the most promising preventive; those who become heartily absorbed in active sports in high school and college form a habit that will help to dispel the laziness that comes on with later life and to cause the individual to continue wholesome recreations rather than to slump into those of the passive type.

SEX DIFFERENCES

There are sex differences in the play interests and habits of children, as everyone knows. Even at the time of birth there are differences in the respective bodily developments; boys on the average being taller, heavier, and larger about the chest. Boys continue to be larger until the age period from twelve to fourteen when girls are the taller and heavier. Instincts too show certain divergencies. Girls give expression to the mother instincts and enjoy playing with dolls, and are also more apt to imitate the household activities. The instincts of boys on the other hand, lead them early to a more active type of expression, usually found in running, jumping, dodging, throwing, striking, wrestling, and fighting. Custom has also stepped in to accentuate the differences. Girls are curbed in vigorous participation by being required to help in the home, to wear clothes which handicap freedom of action, and to conduct themselves with a

certain restraint and decorum. The same custom encourages the boy to find his play out-of-doors and to develop aggressive qualities.

From the teaching standpoint these differences do not need to be taken into account up to the time of entering school. Until then, boys and girls are so nearly alike in ability and interest that they can easily be led to play and enjoy the same activities.

Elementary School

The exact time when the separation of boys and girls in their play should take place varies in different cases; some groups grow apart in their abilities and interests as much as two years earlier than others. The influence of the teacher has something to do with this. Some women teachers, who are experts in teaching rhythmic plays, are able to maintain the interests of the boys in folk dances and clog dances through the elementary grades and into Junior high school, while some men teachers are more successful than others in enlisting the interest of girls in track and field sports and ball play. It is wiser, however, to pay attention to the instinctive tendencies of the players than to expend too much effort in leading children away from their natural bent in these matters.

Just before the end of the elementary school, at the age of eleven or twelve, some girls reach the age of puberty, at which time they begin to grow more rapidly than before. Since they reach this stage sooner than the boys, they for a time grow faster and excel the boys in height and weight and sometimes in strength and skill. In general, however, the girls are not so strong nor so skillful as the boys, but how much of this lack is natural and necessary and how much of it is due to the effect of social life and custom in making girls slacken in their practice of physical feats, is not yet known. As a matter of fact, in the fifth and sixth grades the boys usually excel the girls in strength and skill just enough to make competition between them on the same plane unsatisfactory. At about the same time the boys usually lose their interest in rhythmic play, while the girls have a growing liking for it. At some point, therefore, between the end of the third grade and the end of the sixth, separation of the sexes in their play seems advisable.

Junior High School

At this time it seems best to separate the boys and girls in practically all of their play. Their play interests are wider apart here than at any other age. The girls enjoy dancing especially, but also

retain an interest in the chasing games of the former period and like athletic contests and ball games; the boys play faster and rougher games and enjoy learning the athletic sports of the older boys and men. Scouting and Camp Fire troops are popular, but appeal in a somewhat different way to the two sexes. Boys like to play baseball with the regular hard ball; girls prefer the larger soft ball. Basket ball for girls must be modified, since they are not capable of so much continuous running as boys; volley ball also needs to be modified, for the ball was made to suit the needs of men and is too heavy for the slender hands of girls. Serious attention should be given to these matters, for between the ages of twelve and fifteen is the time when society is attracting the girl away from active play into passive and idle amusements. Girls who stop active play at this time show decided inferiority in strength, skill, and endurance in college, and if they ever resume active recreations they meet with a great deal of difficulty and must undergo persistent practice of light exercises before vigorous work or play can be undertaken.

Senior High School

From the time of puberty onward, girls excel in dancing, while boys keep gaining in general athletic ability. It follows that with the exception of a few milder forms of activity, such as tennis, golf, and social dancing, the plays of the two sexes must be separate. Girls play basket ball, field hockey, tennis, and playground ball and engage in swimming, hiking, canoeing, and especially dancing; boys have a growing interest in athletic team games, such as soccer, football, baseball, basket ball, and volley ball. Even in golf and tennis there is rarely any direct competition between the boys and the girls, although they may play together for companionship.

The tendency in some places to-day to have high school girls play basket ball by boys' rules should be discouraged. This has usually come about by the employment of men coaches who, being familiar with the boys' rules, naturally like them better; and not knowing the physical limitations of girls, attempt to train them as they do boys. This makes a faster game and pleases the spectators and players, but the latter often suffer bad after-effects. The greatest danger arises in the fact that girls trained in this way are often the ones who have never had a physical examination to discover whether they have defects that should keep them out of all vigorous play.

All schools should conduct physical examinations for health purposes; if this is neglected it is particularly necessary that all boys and

girls who are going into the strenuous athletic competition now common in high school and college should have such an examination as a safeguard to keep them from playing when they are physically unfit.

College and Maturity

The play interests of the later high school period are usually carried over into college and sometimes maturity. After high school, however, men are more prone to keep up their active play than women, and the result is that men develop their strength correspondingly greater than women. Tests made at the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics and later at the Battle Creek Sanitarium show that women on the average have about half the strength of men. Colleges usually afford the opportunity for vigorous physical training for girls, but this is rarely made attractive enough to secure their attendance and active participation. The average college girl is able to practice outdoor recreative sports with profit, but she usually neglects this chance for exercise and takes too little to give her the physical ability she needs for later life. Only the occasional college woman is physically fit for vigorous competitive games, such as class games between girls, to say nothing of intercollegiate competition before crowds. The time may come when women may safely engage in exercises of this nature, but it can only come about as the result of regular systematic practice of such vigorous games from the age of puberty on.

The play activities of the two sexes are more similar in interest during maturity than at any time except early childhood. While it is true that both neglect their exercise too much, still the kind that they prefer is the outdoor recreation rather than the strenuous competitive sport. For this reason, more emphasis should be placed on this type of sport during the school days, so that likings may be developed for it. Busy men and women, who must snatch their exercise when they may, and who are not in the physical condition necessary to take part in rugged competition with safety and comfort, must look to the milder recreations as their proper field of play. This does not mean that they must lose their interest and enjoyment in the more strenuous sports of their younger days, but they should be willing to enjoy them vicariously by watching the performances of younger players.

Conclusion

The interest of women in athletics is so recent that a great deal of their athletic programme is in the transitional and experimental stage. There is no doubt that they are developing an interest and delight in active plays akin to that of men. Careful study is needed to choose those games that appeal to women's interests and best assist their structural development, instead of simply allowing them to ape men's activities. The lessons learned from the history of boys' competitive athletics should be applied; above all, the spectacular side should never be allowed to reach the point of exploitation it has with boys and men.

The entrance of women into civic life calls for more training in cooperative team work than women have ever experienced. Team games are as good elementary training in this line as we are able to find to-day. The college should keep this goal in view in choosing the physical activities of girls. Neither formal gymnastics nor dancing can be compared with team games for developing ability to work with others. The games give continuous opportunity to use initiative, to meet an emergency in the best way, and to persist in effort after repeated failures.

The girls start with a handicap in acquiring the team spirit. Throughout history, the loyalty of womankind has been bound up with the home, rather than of the group organization, such as the tribe or state. Girls are lacking in the sense of cooperation and loyalty which are prerequisites to strong team play. Girls as yet like the individualistic games of low organization, the efficiency tests, relay events, dancing, and outdoor recreational sports. None of these require either intense individual or team competition. The relays illustrate this point, the team element being present, but in only a slight degree. It will be noticed too, that their sports do not require physical contact as do the boxing, wrestling, and football plays of boys. The present-day tendency is for young women to enter with enthusiasm into the recreational type of outdoor sports, such as tennis, golf, swimming, canoeing, hiking, archery, skating, etc. This new athletic interest of women has produced a change, not only in a physical, but in a mental way; and the languid, dependent, Mid-Victorian type has been superseded by the healthy, vigorous-spirited, and self-reliant woman of to-day.

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CHAPTER XIII

ORGANIZATION OF PLAY ACTIVITIES

To conduct play activities with large numbers and especially when time and space are limited, as they usually are, some form of organization is necessary to achieve the best results. The first step in such an organization is to decide upon what classes of activities are to be used; then a division of time must be given to each group of players and the activities assigned to each; following this, special methods of organizing competitive play must be outlined, taking into consideration the age of participants, the activities to be engaged in, and the numbers involved; and, in addition, special programmes must also be prepared for special occasions.

Kinds of Activity

The play activities of primary children are mainly imitative; as we pass up the grades they become more and more interested in the competitive element; at the age of Senior high school and college the play is largely competitive, especially with boys. An organized play programme should include the following activities:

1. Simple imitation. This is a group of imitative plays performed in direct imitation of a leader, such as Follow the Leader, Ducks Fly, etc.
2. Dramatic imitation, including story plays and mimetic exercises.
3. Stories, Nature study, and Handicraft.
4. Rhythmic plays, including song plays and the various kinds of dances.
5. Gymnastic exercises, either in imitation of a leader or by command. A limited amount of this kind of exercise is a legitimate part of a play programme, but interest must be maintained at a high level.
6. Free Play. Use of sand pile, swings, and other playground apparatus; individual play with balls and bats; climbing on ropes and ladders; tumbling on mats; various stunts. This does not mean un-

directed play, for free play needs supervision to secure economic use of space and equipment and to prevent injury. Activities that have been learned in 1 and 5 are practiced here.

Summarized Organization of Activities

ILLUSTRATIVE CHART

	Pre-School 0-3	Primary 4-6	Elementary 7-11	Junior H.S. 12-14	Senior H.S. 15-18	College 19-22	Maturity 23-35	Later Life 36-50
Simple Imitation 1	↓	↓	↓					
Dramatic Imitation 2	↓	↓	↓	Mimicry				
Stories and Handicraft 3	↓	↓	↓					
Rhythmic Play 4	↓	↓	↓		Girls		↑	
Gymnastics 5	↓	↓	↓	Boys	Girls		↑	↑
Free Play 6	↓	↓	↓	Girls	Boys			
Outdoor Sports 7	↓							↑
Physical Tests 8				Boys	Girls		↑	
Athletic Contests 9				Boys	Girls		↑	
Elementary Games 10		↓	↓	Boys	Girls		↑	
Personal Combat 11			↓	Boys			↑	
Team Games 12			↓		Boys		↑	↑
					Girls		↑	

7. Outdoor sports, including swimming, hiking, skating, snow play, etc.
8. Tests of physical ability. (Badge tests, Point system, etc.)
9. Athletic contests. (Track and field, etc.)
10. Elementary games. (Tag and goal games.)
11. Personal combats. (Boxing, wrestling, etc.)
12. Team games. (Football, baseball, tennis, etc.)

The lines on the chart, terminating in arrow heads, indicate the age periods when the different activities are most popular. When boys and girls play together, there is one line in the middle of the floor; when they are separated in their play there are two lines. The chart shows incidentally that boys and girls are best separated above the elementary grades in gymnastics, free play, and elementary games; above the primary grades for tests, contests, and team games. Boys above elementary grade do not as a rule care for rhythmic play nor girls for personal combat. Outdoor sports are more popular later in life than any other form of physical recreation, and for this reason the school and playground should promote this kind of play and make children familiar with the forms that are best suited to the climate and surroundings.

The Play Programme for a School

A director of play, in cooperation with the superintendent, principals, and teachers, should make a programme outlining the play activities of the school or system for the year. To provide for space without conflict and for regularity of exercise, the programme should specify the time for each grade; below the Senior high school the activities should be of different kinds on different days, making a weekly programme desirable: it should also provide for changes made necessary because of change of season and weather. The following sample programmes illustrate the general plan to be followed:

I.—A WEEKLY PROGRAMME

Programme used by Grades 3, 4, 7 and 8 in Training School

Gymnasium, Ypsilanti, January 7-11. 1918.

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Third Grade, 9:30-10	Story Play: 3 little Kittens	Posture talk in room	Gymnastics	Free Play	Free Play
Fourth Grade, 10-10:30	Schottische step	Posture talk in room	Gymnastics	Game, Snatch Club:	Free Play
Seventh and Eighth Grade, Boys, 10:30-11	Badge test: Jump and Ball throw	Captain Ball	Gymnastics	Badge test: Basketball Goal throw	Badge test: Same as Monday
Seventh and Eighth Grade, Girls, 11-11:30	Badge test: Balance beam, target, Volley serve	Gymnastics	Captain Ball	Merry-go-round	Badge test: Same as Monday

The activities used with students in high school and college are more varied in themselves, the team games giving endless variety of problems and movements. This makes it less necessary to provide so definite a programme for each day, and a general programme for the year is usually made. The following will illustrate:

II.—A YEARLY PROGRAMME

Kalamazoo Public Schools
Physical Education Department
Junior High School (Grades 7-8-9)

Fall Term, Sept.-Oct.-Nov.

I. Physical Examinations and Organization of Classes.

II. Games.

Girls

1. Volley Ball
2. Side Kick
3. Schlag Ball
4. Selected Group Games

Boys

1. Volley Ball
2. Soccer

Season is finished with inter-school tournaments in Volley Ball for both girls and boys and with Soccer for boys.

III. Athletics.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. 75-yard Dash | 1. Soccer Kick for distance |
| 2. Distance Throw, Indoor Ball | 2. Running Broad Jump |
| 3. Standing Broad Jump | 3. Overhead Throw with Soccer ball |

Records taken by grades in each event and average of entire grade computed. School with highest average wins.

IV. Rhythmic Plays.

Grade 7

1. Dainty Step
2. Thanksgiving Dance
3. Others selected

Grade 8

1. The Crested Hen
2. The Black Nag
3. Others selected

Grade 9

1. Four Little Blackberries
2. Others selected

V. Hygiene.

Health talks, using "How to Live" by Fisher and Fisk as a basis; Teaching of health habits by records of individual class members; discussion of bathing, posture, and feet; special addresses by outside speakers.

Winter Term, Dec.-Jan.-Feb.-Mar.

I. Marching and Gymnastics.

II. Games.

Girls

1. End Ball
2. Corner Ball
3. Volley Ball
4. Progressive Dodge Ball
5. Newcomb

Boys

1. Basket Ball
2. Minor group games

III. Athletics.

Stunts
(Special Outline)

1. Chinning
2. Goal Shooting
3. Standing High Jump

IV. Rhythmic Plays.

Grade 7

1. Flemish Folk Dances
2. Sweet Kate
3. Virginia Reel
4. Butterfly

Grade 8

1. The Signet Ring
2. Boscastle
3. Minuet
4. Highland Schottische

V. Hygiene.

Spring Term, Apr.-May-June

I. Games.

Girls

1. Indoor Baseball
2. Selected games and relays
(Interscholar tournament
in indoor baseball)

Boys

1. Baseball
(City baseball league)

II. Athletics.

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Standing Broad Jump | 1. 100-yard Dash |
| 2. Target Throw | 2. Running High Jump |
| 3. Low Hurdles | 3. Shot Put |

Records taken as in fall and winter—best school gets trophy.

III. Rhythmic Plays.
Selected

IV. Hygiene.

1. Transmission of disease
2. Prevention of disease
3. Camp sanitation

III.—A DEMONSTRATION PROGRAMME

Programme of a School Play Festival, Ann Arbor Public Schools
L. W. Olds, Supervisor

1. Mass Drill in Calisthenics, by High School Boys
 - a. Maze Running
2. Grade 1.
 - a. Shoemaker's Dance, Danish Folk Dance
 - b. I See You, Swedish Folk Dance
 - c. Good Morning, Active Game
3. Grade 2.
 - a. Pixie Dance, Rhythmic Play
 - b. Pop goes the Weasel, Folk Dance
 - c. Squirrels in Trees, Active Game
4. Grade 3.
 - a. Indian Dance, Folk Dance
 - b. Hansel and Gretel, Folk Dance
 - c. Spat'em, Active Game
5. Grade 4.
 - a. Swiss May Revel, Folk Dance
 - b. Bleking, Folk Dance
 - c. Broncho Tag, Active Game
6. Grade 5.
 - a. Highland Schottische, Scotch Folk Dance
 - b. Brownies Dance, Folk Dance
 - c. Dodge Ball, Active Game
7. Athletics—Grade School Boys
8. Butterfly Dance—by High School Girls
9. Sixth and Seventh Grade Girls
 - a. Swedish Quadrille, Folk Dance
 - b. Nixie Polka, Swedish Folk Dance
10. Pyramids—Junior Gymnastic Leaders Corps
11. L'Zoronta, Spanish Folk Dance
12. Wand Drill—by High School Girls
13. Athletic Posing—Senior Gymnastic Leaders Corps
 - a. Discobulus
 - b. Handicap
 - c. Relay Runners
 - d. Last Lap
 - e. Wrestlers
 - f. The Fall

- g. Injured Pal
 - h. Knock Out
 - i. Hate
 - j. The Attack
14. May Pole Dance—Eighth Grade

Programmes for Summer Playgrounds

Programmes are necessary to make the playground work interesting and efficient. The problem for schools is different than that of the summer playground system for the reason that attendance is compulsory in the first case and a certain group can be expected to be at the playground at a certain hour. The activities for the one hour can then be planned and can be duplicated with other classes from the same grade. The schools must plan schedules and special exhibitions also. This makes programmes of three types: general or seasonal, daily, and special. There is not so much difference between the school organization and that of the summer playgrounds as far as the planning of the seasonal and special programmes is concerned; but the daily programme is entirely different, as the same children may spend their whole day on the playground during the summer months. A brief description will be given of the different kinds of programmes in so far as they relate to the summer playgrounds.

General Programme. This outlines the work for the season as a whole; i.e., the activities that are to be included, the schedules for the home playgrounds, the later schedules between the different playgrounds, the beginning and end of the season, etc. In a sense it includes the daily and special programmes. The general programme is equivalent to the school curriculum, except that it outlines a play curriculum instead. Like the school course of study it also is definite and on a set time schedule. It also takes into account the visits of the specializing teachers. For instance, story-telling at Playground A on Monday and Wednesday at 1:30 o'clock, and handicraft on Tuesday and Thursday at 4 o'clock would be a part of the general programme.

In planning the seasonal programme certain things should be considered. For example, it would be unwise to start out the first week with a schedule of inter-playground games, before the teams are organized and have had time to practice. The first two weeks should be spent in organizing teams, and in building up attendance. A good idea is to run off some of the individualistic tournaments of minor importance; first on the home playgrounds, the winners com-

peting later for the all-city championship. Suitable events for this purpose would be horseshoe pitching, croquet, beanbag target throw, handball, first trial for efficiency tests, etc. As soon as the teams have organized, the director should start the interplayground schedules, playing on a league basis, or, where the number of playgrounds is too large, on the combined league and elimination plan. He should carry the tournaments in the real popular sports, such as baseball and volley ball for boys, and newcomb ball for girls, along until the latter end of the season, providing a "home and home" series between the teams that are matched against each other. The schedules should all be finished in time so that the last week or so can be devoted to arranging for a final festival day to close the activities.

It adds considerably to the interest to have something new planned for each week in addition to the continuous schedules. For instance, the third week a tennis tournament could be held; the fourth week, a track meet; the fifth week, a swimming meet; the sixth week, an elimination tournament in captain ball, dodge ball, long ball, and other minor games; the seventh week, an elimination basket ball tournament and hikes; the eighth week, an elimination soccer tournament; etc. The combination of the tournaments lasting throughout the season and the special meets and shorter tournaments makes for a very successful plan of keeping up the interest. There is something new all the time, which has the double effect of keeping the continued tournaments from getting monotonous, and also of giving added incentives to the teams that do not have a chance to win out in the longer tournaments. If a trial in the efficiency tests precedes the track and field meet, the boys and girls will all be in good training to take part, and if the entries from each playground are limited, these can be determined by the records of the tests. A second trial at the efficiency tests should be allowed near the end of the season so that children who have failed may have a chance to practice and improve their ability in the things in which they are weak. The final festival day should not be held off until the last day of the season (a mistake often made) as there is no chance then for holding it in case rain should halt the doings; besides, the last day is needed by the different directors to take inventory of the equipment, have it stored away, and make out records to be turned in to the general office.

The Daily Programme. This is the most elastic programme of all. It is usually made out by the director of the particular play-

ground, since the particular needs may vary in different sections of the city. The daily programme is useful in letting the child who likes certain events know approximately at what time to come to participate in them; it places the various activities at the most convenient hours for the players; and it provides story-telling, handicraft, and other play that is not vigorous for the heated hours of the day.

Example: 1:30-2:00	Free for all play
3:00-4:30	Team games.

It can be seen that the events as scheduled in the daily programme do not need the leadership of the director or specialist as in the more rigid general events that have been explained. After making out the daily programme the director must be careful not to rob the play of its spontaneity. For instance, if an interesting recreative game is continuing past the hour assigned for this type of activity, it should not be abruptly broken off.

The planning of the daily programme should consider that early in the morning or afternoon, or likewise late, is a good time for individualistic play or scrub games, as the maximum attendance is not present. The more cooperative team games should be put at the time when all the players are most apt to be present, usually the middle of the morning or afternoon. The quiet activities should come at the hot part of the day. In the morning many younger children will be present; the older boys and girls may be attending summer school or assisting about the home. In the afternoon the older children will predominate and the director should give them the most personal attention; likewise in the evening, he should remember that working boys and girls and adults should receive the first consideration. The director can get the activities of the one group under way and then leave to go to other groups to see that they are finding ways to keep busy.

AN EXAMPLE OF A DAILY PROGRAMME

Morning Director gets equipment and material ready, puts notices on bulletin board.

9:30-10:00. (Some cities open with patriotic songs)
 Free play on apparatus; in sand box.
 Free play with material; inflated balls, etc.
 Recreative games of low organization.

- 10:00-11:00. Team games
Track and field
Drills
Folk dances for younger children
Directed work on apparatus.
- 11:00-12:00. Efficiency tests
Story telling—handicraft
Swimming
Free play
Tennis, horseshoe pitching, handball, croquet, and beanbag target throw.
- Afternoon
- 1:30-2:15. Free play on apparatus (under supervision of teachers)
Free play with materials
Story telling—handicraft
Horseshoe pitching, beanbag target throw, croquet.
- 2:15-3:00. Kindergarten and gymnastic games
Recreative games of low organization (dodge ball, captain ball, etc.)
Folk dancing
Track and field
Practice for team games.
- 3:00-4:30. Team games
Swimming
Smaller children busy themselves with sand pile, swings and other apparatus, balls and other play materials.
- 4:30-5:30. Swimming
Efficiency tests
Handicraft
Girls' team games
Gymnastic drills
Tennis, horseshoe pitching, and other activities of like nature.
- Evening
- 6:30-8:00. Free play on apparatus; for little children (many come with parents)
Tennis, horseshoe pitching, croquet, etc.
- 6:30-7:00. Games of low organization
Practice for team games.
- 7:00-8:00. Team games; baseball earlier, change to volley ball when it begins to get dark.
Tennis, horseshoe pitching, etc. (For adults.)
Efficiency tests.

Special Programme. Besides the daily programme the play leader must make special programmes for picnics, celebrations, holiday gatherings, etc. The picnic programme should contain some events in which all the people attending the picnic can participate, and these must not be too many nor too difficult nor vigorous; there should also be games or contests arranged that visitors may witness. Play leaders should promote picnics and help the people in charge by furnishing amusements, lending equipment, etc.

Play leaders should also provide suitable programmes for holiday occasions, such as Fourth of July, Decoration Day, etc. Play festivals, pageants, and athletic meets may be devised that fit well into these occasions. By drawing on the talent in the neighborhood the play leader is able not only to make a success of such programmes but at the same time to make the acquaintance of influential citizens and get them interested in public recreation. Historical pageants may be given that call for the participation of hundreds and even thousands of people; and if properly organized, such spectacles attract large crowds of interested spectators and promote civic spirit. For such a pageant or a large play festival such as usually concludes the season's play, a ground should be chosen that permits large numbers to see the activities. Care must be taken to provide places for the groups of participants, so that they may look on without obstructing the view of visitors.

The events coming under this description must be made out well ahead, and featured on the bulletin board, and in the newspapers. This allows the director to plan with definiteness, and also lets parents and children look forward with expectancy to a variety of interests. When the children know in advance about these occasions they can practice and be aroused to a climax of enthusiasm.

A sample programme of exhibition nature follows, continued by practical instructions for planning and conducting such an occasion where large numbers of people of all ages will be present both as participants and spectators.

ORDER OF EVENTS FOR PLAYGROUND DAY

(Introductory opening ceremonies, such as flag salute or patriotic songs, if desired.)

Section A. *Elementary Games and Field Events.*

1-2 o'clock

1. Kindergarten games. (Songs and rhythm plays.)
2. Exhibition of elementary games. (Dodge Ball, Three Deep.)

3. Junior Boys—Chinning.
4. Junior Boys—Standing Broad Jump.
5. Intermediate Boys—Chinning.
6. Intermediate Boys—Standing Broad Jump.
7. Intermediate Boys—Running High Jump.
8. Intermediate Boys—Basket Ball Distance Throw.
9. Girls—Baseball Throw.
10. Girls—Standing Broad Jump.
11. Girls—Basket Ball Distance Throw.
12. Senior Boys—Shot Put.
13. Senior Boys—Running Broad Jump.
14. Senior Boys—Running High Jump.
15. Senior Boys—Chinning.
16. Horseshoe Pitching—Adults.

NOTE: All the above mentioned events will be held as much at the same time as possible.

Section B. *Folk Dances, Drills, and Exhibition Team Games.*

2-3 o'clock

1. Folk Dance—Younger Girls.
2. Pageant.
3. Elementary Games.
4. Basket Ball Game—Older Girls. (Exhibition game of two best teams.)
5. Newcomb Game—Younger Girls.
6. Playground Baseball—Senior Boys. (Exhibition.)
7. Volley Ball—Intermediate Boys. (Exhibition.)
8. Exhibition Gymnastic Drill or Pyramid Building—Boys.
9. Exhibition Gymnastic Drill—Girls.
10. Folk Dance—Older Girls.

NOTE: All the events mentioned in Section B will be held as much at the same time as possible.

Section C. *Races and Relays.*

3-4 o'clock

1. Junior Girls—40 yards.
2. Senior Girls—50 yards.
3. Midget Boys—50 yards.
4. Junior Boys—60 yards.
5. Intermediate Boys—80 yards.
6. Senior Boys—100 yards.
7. Junior Girls—Flag Relay, 8 girls—35 yards each.
8. Senior Girls—Flag Relay, 8 girls—40 yards each.
9. Junior Boys—Flag Relay, 8 boys—50 yards each.
10. Intermediate Boys—Flag Relay, 8 boys—60 yards each.
11. Senior Boys—Flag Relay, 4 boys—100 yards each.

NOTE: Events in Section C follow one after the other.

Section D. *Novelty Events and Relays.*

4-5 o'clock

Suggestions:

- Junior Boys—Straddle Ball. (10 Boys)
- Girls—Arch Ball Relay. (10)
- Girls—Potato Relay. (8)
- Junior Boys—Skin the Snake Relay. (12)
- Intermediate Boys—Crab-crawl Relay. (8)
- Senior Boys—Three Legged Race.
- Adults—Thread and Needle Race.
- Adults—Blindfold Race.
- Boys—Shoe Race.
- Intermediate Boys—Human Wheelbarrow Race.
- Girls—Chariot Race, 4 girls abreast holding horizontal stick before them.
- Penny Scramble.
- Adults—Tug-of-War.
- Bicycle Race.

NOTE: Events in Section D follow one after the other.

While Section D is going on, complete the scores for the field day, determining individual and playground winners.

Section E. *Announcement of Victors.*

5-5:30 o'clock

- Public awarding of Ribbons and Medals; to Field Day winners, to Badge Test winners, to championship teams, and of yearly trophy to playground having high honors for season's work.

Suggestions for Running off a Mammoth Festival Day Programme

1. Put the slow events of individualistic nature first, while the crowd is assembling.
2. Put exhibition games and drills on next and run off together at same time to give an idea of extent and scope of play activities. Have all ages represented.
3. Put races at time of afternoon when crowd is fully assembled. The spectators always like races, which are exciting and can be run off one after the other without delay.
4. Put the novelty events, which leave the crowd in good humor, at the end. These are not affected by the leaving of a part of the crowd and contestants.
5. End up with award of prizes won during the season. Such a ceremony adds to the importance with which the prize is considered.
6. Advertise the occasion well. Use newspapers, bulletin boards, posters, and handbills.
7. Let each playground be responsible for certain of the exhibitions, choosing the best teams and performers in all lines.

8. Have the fields marked off and roped to keep the spectators at a proper distance. Have a monitor to watch each of these.

9. Have the distances for the races all marked out; the one course can be used with the shorter distances indicated. Use the same starting line and vary the finishing points. Also have the throwing circles marked, the jump pits spaded, and the take-off boards properly set.

10. Portion off the administration of events. Have a capable person responsible for the running off of each event.

11. Divide the field into different assembly places, so each playground will have a common meeting place to receive directions.

12. Have two or more information bureaus.

13. Have competent officials; especially the clerk of the course, starter, judges of finish, scorer, announcer, custodian of prizes, and sideline officials.

14. Have all the equipment in readiness; whistles, starting guns, measuring tape, stop watches, megaphone, shot, basket balls, volley balls, playground balls and bats, yarn for finish line, rake, crossbars for jumps, officials' badges, etc.

15. Before starting an event, announce the one to follow. Repeat instructions in different directions.

16. Have the entries all known before hand. Limit the number of entries from each playground. Have the score sheets thumbtacked to stiff backboards.

17. Have a time schedule. Run each event off as scheduled whether certain children are missing or not. Count promptness on points for award of championship playground trophy.

18. Have a policeman on hand.

19. Have photographers and press representatives on hand.

20. Have some of the events elastic so that they can be skipped if falling behind time.

21. Do not have long waits and hesitations as a crowd loses interest quickly.

22. Have a physician on hand; also a first-aid outfit.

23. Adapt your programme to the occasion; if a holiday, introduce appropriate ceremonies; if a picnic, introduce many novelties; if for educational demonstration for parents, limit the novelty events, and give a wide scope of games and folk plays.

24. If swimming pools are handy a few water events can be inserted into the programme.

25. Have a meeting place of all the directors and officials.

26. Rehearse each one's part in putting through the programme.

27. Do not leave anything to chance.

Classification

In order to divide boys and girls so that the competition is on a fair basis, also to give a chance for more participants to take part, some form of classification is necessary.

Boys. There are many forms of grouping players. The method chosen will often depend on the particular situation; it may be by the grade in school, or by age, height; weight, or by a combination such as age and height, age and weight, or weight and height.

For most purposes the weight classification is the most practical, as doubtful cases of eligibility need only to be taken to the scales. It is the most fair single standard, too, as boys who are tall for their age are usually slender, and so their weight will not be more than the shorter boy who has filled out and become more developed. Height alone is the least satisfactory of all methods. The biggest objection to the age method is the difficulty of proving doubtful cases quickly, unless there are records such as at the school. Where the age can be determined correctly, a very satisfactory arrangement is the age and weight combination, probably the most practical of the schemes yet devised.

The age classification usually makes the dividing point between Juniors and Seniors at 16 years. Some cities use 14 years. Others make a larger number of divisions, such as 12, 14, and 16 years.

The height method most often uses 5 feet to divide the Juniors and Seniors. Another method adds another dividing mark at 4 feet 6 inches. If many older boys are competing a higher division should be added, such as 5 feet 4 inches.

An example of an age and height method is as follows:

<i>Age</i>	<i>Height</i>
Midgets . . . under 12	Less than 4 feet 6 inches
Juniors " 14	Less than 5 feet
Intermediates " 16	Less than 5 feet 4 inches
Seniors over 16	Any height

A very good weight classification follows. As explained previously this is the most practical and fair method where large numbers of children are concerned. Some of the following divisions can be omitted in case the group is a small one; for instance, two groups, Juniors and Seniors, could be used with the dividing point at 115 lbs.

Midgets	Under	80 lbs.
Juniors	"	95 "
Intermediates	"	115 "
Lightweight Seniors.....	"	135 "
Heavyweight Seniors.....	Unlimited.	

The previous weight groups can be combined with age very easily. Use 16 years as the dividing point as regards age. One to be classed as a Junior would have to be under 115 lbs. and under 16 years of age as well.

In 1920 the American Physical Education Association appointed several committees to make a study of efficiency tests. The committee for Elementary Schools approved the Age, Grade, Height, and Weight Classification, as devised by Frederick J. Reilly. Their reason for this choice and the explanation of the classifications follow:

Age presumes a certain degree of physical development.

Grade should be considered because a higher grade presupposes longer training and should be handicapped accordingly. On the other hand, a young boy in a high grade should not be unduly handicapped because he has brains. His youth should discount the handicap of grade.

Height and Weight should be taken together as the best available index of physical development.

CLASSIFICATION FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.

Junior Division—Pupils in the 5th and 6th school grades.

Exponents	4	5	6	7	8	9
Grade	5A	5B	6A	6B		
Age—up to—	10 yrs.	10'1-11	11'1-6	11'7-12	12'1-13	13'1 or over
Height—up to—	4'2	4'3-5	4'6-8	4'9-11	5'5-2	5'3 or over
Weight—up to—	64 lbs.	65-74	75-84	85-94	95-104	105 or over

Senior Division—Pupils in the 7th and 8th school grades.

Exponents	4	5	6	7	8	9
Grade	7A	7B	8A	8B		
Age—up to—	12 yrs.	12'1-13	13'1-6	13'7-14	14'1-15	15'1 or over
Height—up to—	4'4	4'5-8	4'9-5	5'1-3	5'4-6	5'7 or over
Weight—up to—	74 lbs.	75-89	90-104	105-119	120-129	130 or over

CLASS—

Same for Senior or Junior Division.

	A	B	C	D	E
Sum of exponents, up to 21		22-25	26-29	30-33	34 or over
EXAMPLE—Boy in 5B		Exponent for	Grade	6 (see grade)	
Age 10'6		" "	Age	5 " age	
Height 4'10		" "	Height	7 " height	
Weight 84 lbs.		" "	Weight	6 " weight	
			Sum of Exponents	24	"Class B" (see Class)

N. B. Since the sum of the four exponents equals 24, the boy is placed in Class B, which includes all individuals whose exponents total 22 to 25. There are five divisions into which a boy may be placed.

Girls. As a rule fewer groupings are needed in the case of girls, because their interest in competitive games is less marked and there are not as many to handle. One method is to group by age, Junior and Senior, with the dividing mark at 12 years. Again, the weight plan is used with the dividing point at 95 pounds

The most scientific plan for girls is the Age, Grade, Height, and Weight classification explained in the preceding section. It will be noticed that this classification system applies to girls, as well as

boys. The committee explains this by stating that girls, at the period of development occurring between the fifth and eighth years of school, mature earlier than boys, and therefore average practically the same as the boys in height and weight.

Prizes

Prizes are very necessary to keep up the interest. It should be noted, however, that inexpensive awards should be given. Many prizes are made so costly that the true spirit of amateur play is lost in the competition for them. The playgrounds cannot justify their use of public money when it is spent in expensive trophies. Generally, ribbons are very useful for the tournaments and meets held on the home playground. It is well to have the name of the park and of the event printed on the ribbon. Gold colored lettering can be used and first, second, and third places can be distinguished by using red, white, and blue ribbons. In the championship games between the different playgrounds and in intraplayground meets, the winners may be given celluloid lapel buttons with the design of the sport upon them. Special medals may be given at the end of the season to the boys and girls who have shown the best all-around athletic efficiency, sportsmanship, and reliability. Prizes have a very worthy place on the playground, and it is in keeping with every other activity of life that ability and service should receive recognition, but it is absolutely necessary that the prize stand as a symbol of some accomplishment, rather than as a thing desired for its monetary worth or anything else apart from its intended significance. The Boy Scout insignia and merit badge emblems represent the type of prize which is honored and yet which has its intrinsic value in an inner appreciation rather than in any other value apart from this.

Whenever it is possible to find a permanent place to put a prize where it can be appreciated by the team members in common, it is well to award a cup or pennant, or other form of team trophy; and this is less objectionable than when the individuals are given separate awards. The team award is possible where the cup can be displayed in a schoolroom, field house, or the assembly hall of a boys' or girls' club. The separate awards may also be given if they are of inexpensive nature.

Younger boys and girls like the ribbons very much and strive to make a collection of them representing as many sports as possible. This liking is gradually supplanted by a preference for a lapel button,

then in turn a medal or charm. Girls first like the ribbons; and, as they get older, prefer a pin that can be worn.

Group Athletics

This is a new method of testing the group as a whole, on its average ability, rather than on a championship system determined by the best individuals. The records of the boys of one class are added together and divided by the number of boys. In jumping and throwing events, the highest average would win; but in the case of running events, the lowest average wins. The general provision is made that 80 per cent (can be made less) of the whole class must participate in order that its record may count. An example of this scheme is shown by the following illustration when three 7th grades have their total records or averages matched against each other.

<i>Name of Event</i>	School 1	School 2	School 3	Winner
No. of Boys.....	30	25	20	
Chinning	150 times 5 av.	100 times 4 av.	60 times 3 av.	School 1
60 yard Dash.....	282 sec. 9.4 av.	225 sec. 9 av.	184 sec. 9.2 av.	School 2
Standing Broad Jump	174 feet 5.8 av.	150 feet 6 av.	110 feet 5.5 av.	School 2

Likewise, the average of all the 7th grades of the city can be matched against the 7th grades of other cities.

This work can be carried on during recess or after school. The tests are taken by each teacher or playground director and reports made to the supervisor. The school or playground showing the best record is later tested officially. A banner or permanent trophy is given for supremacy in each event and a large banner for the best average in all events combined.

Any of the events found in the efficiency tests can be used. In large cities, the grades can be subdivided into 7-1 and 7-2 if so desired. On the playgrounds good groupings can be made by the weight plan; for instance, have the juniors compete against the juniors of other playgrounds, etc. Count the standings on the final efficiency award made at the end of the season.

Organizing Competition

With older players there is less need of leading and teaching and more need of organizing the play, so as to utilize all the time and space, avoid conflicts, and in many ways promote interest and satisfaction in the competition. There are four main kinds of organization used here: (1) the Olympic festival plan, devised by the ancient Greeks for awarding championships in the simple track, field, and aquatic events; (2) the tournament or elimination method, which was worked out first for lawn tennis and now used extensively also for basket ball and volley ball; (3) the percentage plan or "round robin," first used in baseball; and finally (4) the point systems.

The Olympic Festival Plan

This plan is commonly spoken of as a "meet," and occupies from one to five hours. The first thing to arrange is the programme of events, which must be announced to the contestants in time to allow them practice.

Track and Field: In this kind of meet the events should be run off in two parallel lists, and the most usual order is as follows:

Sample Programme of Track and Field Meet

<i>Track Events</i>	P.M.		P.M.
1. 120-yd. high hurdles, trials	2:00	11. 2-mile run.....	4:20
2. 100-yd. dash, trial heats...	2:20	12. 220-yd. low hurdles, finals..	4:40
3. 1-mile run.....	2:30	13. Relay	5:00
4. 440-yd. run.....	2:45		
5. 100-yd. dash, final.....	2:55	<i>Field Events</i>	
6. 120-yd. high hurdles, final..	3:10	1. Pole Vault.....	1:45
7. 220-yd. dash, trial heats...	3:25	2. Shot Put.....	1:45
8. 220-yd. low hurdles, trial heats	3:40	3. High Jump.....	
9. Half-mile run.....	4:00	4. Discus Throw	
10. 220-yd. dash, final.....	4:10	5. Broad Jump	
		6. Javelin Throw.....	

As soon as it is known how many entries there are, the time required for each event should be considered and extra places for some of the slow events, like the jump and the pole vault, provided if found necessary. All the places needed for the events should be carefully prepared and all the distances on the track marked in a

fairly permanent way, including places for the hurdles for both races.

The regular staff of officials for a track and field meet is as follows:

1 referee	3 judges for field events
1 starter	1 official scorer
1 clerk of the course	1 announcer
3 judges of track events	1 marshal.
3 timers	

The national collegiate rules recommend for large meets, in addition to the above, 4 inspectors to assist the referee, 5 assistant clerks, assistants for the announcer and marshal, a surveyor and a physician; in any case where a duplication of places is found necessary in any events, a similar duplication of judges is also necessary. Details of this kind are very important in a very large meet, such as the Detroit school meet, where there are several thousand contestants.

To run off a meet promptly much depends on having capable and aggressive men for clerk of the course and announcer. The clerk of the course must have a complete list of all the contestants and must be responsible for notifying all of them in time for them to appear when their events come off. The announcer must inform the players and spectators promptly what event is to be next, and also the results of the one just finished. The referee decides all disputed points as to the conduct of the meet and may disqualify a contestant for violation of rules or for ungentlemanly conduct. The marshal must be strict in seeing that players or groups of spectators do not crowd the contestants nor hide the contests from the people in the stands. The duties of other officials are indicated in a general way by their titles.

Arrangement should be made beforehand for a group of men who will put the hurdles in place and remove them again promptly; otherwise the whole meet is needlessly delayed.

When there are more runners to compete than can be handled at once on the track, they are divided into groups; the groups run and the best from these run in the final event. These preliminary trials are called heats or qualifying rounds; except in the shortest dashes, the finals should not come immediately after the qualifying contests.

Swimming and Diving. Aquatic events are more easily handled, because the list of events is shorter; moreover the meet, which is

limited to one pool, necessitates conducting but one event at a time with fewer contestants in each.

The swimming Guide of the National Collegiate Athletic Association recommends the following programme for swimming meets:

- | | |
|---|------------------------|
| 1. Relay, 4 men, each to go 2 lengths of pool | 5. 220-yard Swim |
| 2. Fancy Diving | 6. Plunge for Distance |
| 3. Short Dash, free style | 7. Back Stroke |
| 4. Breast Stroke | 8. 100 Yards. |

In awarding honors in fancy diving the rules provide that there shall be three judges who shall mark each diver independently, and the ratings of the three shall be combined to give the final decision. The manner of marking and combining the results has been worked out very carefully and is given below in full, partly because it is a method that may well be employed in awarding honors in all events where the quality and difficulty of the work must be judged, as in club swinging, heavy apparatus work, dancing, and all kinds of stunts.

Dives are classified as required and voluntary. The required dives are

- (1) running front, plain or swallow
- (2) back dive
- (3) running forward jack-knife
- (4) back jack-knife

The rule book lists 23 optional dives, all of which are very difficult, and the list gives the value of each in points; for example, the backward $1\frac{1}{2}$ somersault is valued at 2.2 and the handstand dive at 1.2. A similar rating of exercises on heavy apparatus has also been worked out. (See *Mind and Body* for Dec., 1921.)

The committee in charge of the meet should provide each judge of diving with score sheets, with the names of the contestants at the top and the required dives indicated, similar to the following:

ORGANIZATION OF PLAY ACTIVITIES

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SCORE SHEET FOR DIVING

DETROIT

CLEVELAND

TOLEDO

Smith				Brown				Jones			
Required dives			Score	Required dives			Score	Required dives			Score
Front			8	Front			9	Front			7
Back			6	Back			8	Back			9
Optional dives				Optional dives				Optional dives			
*Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence		Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence		Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence	
2	1.9	10	19	8	2	9	18	19	1.9	9	17.1
6	1.5	8	12	13	1.6	8	12.8	10	1.8	7	12.6
Total			45	Total			47.8	Total			45.7
Rank			6	Rank			3	Rank			4

Dunn				James				Alger			
Required dives			Score	Required dives			Score	Required dives			Score
Front			10	Front			8.5	Front			9
Back			9	Back			9.5	Back			7.5
Optional dives				Optional dives				Optional dives			
Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence		Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence		Num-ber	Diffi-culty	Excel-lence	
12	2.1	6	12.6	22	1.2	10	12	4	2.2	8	17.6
14	1.8	10	18	17	1.9	8	15.2	9	2	9	18
Total			49.6	Total			45.2	Total			52.1
Rank			2	Rank			5	Rank			1

* The number given is the number of the dive as listed in the table of dives in the swimming guide.

The head judge should be furnished with a blank of the following form, for summarizing the ratings of the separate judges:

SUMMARY OF JUDGES' REPORTS

	Separate Rankings			Combined Rankings	
	Judge 1	Judge 2	Judge 3	Sum of Ranks	Final Ranking
Smith.....	6				
Brown.....	3				
Jones.....	4				
Dunn.....	2				
James.....	5				
Alger.....	1				

The rules further provide that in case there is a tie in the final rankings, the contestant having the highest total in points shall be rated the higher of the two; to obtain total points, the points given the man by each of the three judges are added. The man is ranked best who has the lowest sum of rankings.

The Tournament or Elimination Method

In tennis, basket ball, volley ball, and similar games, where a quick elimination is desired, a tournament is conducted. The teams or men draw places by selecting one from a group of cards having the letters of the alphabet on the reverse side. The letter drawn determines the order of play, as shown by the following:

SCHEDULE OF TOURNAMENT					
	First round				
Name A	Game 1, Court 1	Won by B	Game 5, Court 1	Won by B	Game 7, Court 1 June 12, 10 A.M. Won by B
" B	June 10, 10 A.M.		June 11, 10 A.M.		
" C	Game 2, Court 2	Won by C			
" D	June 10, 10 A.M.				
" E	Game 3, Court 3	Won by F	Game 6, Court 2	Won by F	
" F	June 10, 10 A.M.		June 11, 10 A.M.		
" G	Game 4, Court 4	Won by H			
" H	June 10, 10 A.M.				

As soon as the teams have drawn, their names are written in the schedule before the letters, and as fast as the games are finished the names of winners and the scores are inserted. The total number of games is always one less than the total number of contesting teams. Such a tournament is simple to arrange when there are four, eight, or sixteen contestants or any perfect power of two; and the number of rounds is always the number of times two appears as a factor in that number: as, 3 rounds for 8 players, 4 rounds for 16, 5 rounds for 32, etc.

When the number of entries is not a perfect power of two, a plan is used that reduces the number to a perfect power of two for the second round. It is called the "system of byes," and is given in

detail in the tennis guides. To find the number of byes, subtract the number of teams that enter from the next perfect power of two above; for example, if there are 39 teams to play, the next perfect power of 2 is 64, and 64-39 leaves 25. This is the number of byes, which means the number of players not playing in the first round. The byes are as equally apportioned as possible at the top and bottom of the list, so that in this case the teams drawing the first 12 and the last letters or numbers will be said to draw byes, and will not play in the first round. These 25 players, together with the 7 winners of the first round, make 32, a perfect power of 2 for the second round. There will be 6 rounds and 38 games in all. This plan will determine the number of byes for any number of players and makes the tournament method easy to apply in any case.

TOURNAMENT PLAN WITH 39 TEAMS

	Round 1.	Round 2.	Round 3.	Round 4.	Round 5.	Round 6.	
Byes	A.....	Game 8	Game 24	Game 32	Game 36	Game 38	
	B.....						
	C.....	Game 9					Game 25
	D.....						
	E.....	Game 10	Game 26	Game 33			
	F.....						
	G.....	Game 11	Game 27				
	H.....						
	I.....	Game 12	Game 28	Game 34			
	J.....						
	K.....	Game 13	Game 29				
	L.....						
M.....	Game 1	Game 20	Game 30				
N.....							
O.....	Game 2	Game 21	Game 31				
P.....							
Q.....	Game 3	Game 22	Game 35				
R.....							
S.....	Game 4	Game 23	Game 37				
T.....							
U.....	Game 5	Game 24					
V.....							
W.....	Game 6	Game 25					
X.....							
Y.....	Game 7	Game 26					
Z.....							
Byes	a.....	Game 14	Game 29	Game 34	Game 37		
	b.....						
	c.....	Game 15				Game 30	
	d.....						
	e.....	Game 16	Game 31				
	f.....						
	g.....	Game 17	Game 32				
	h.....						
	i.....	Game 18	Game 33				
	j.....						
	k.....	Game 19	Game 34				
	l.....						
m.....	Game 19	Game 35					

The main objection to the tournament plan is that it eliminates half the players or teams in the first game or match. This results in a certain degree of unfairness, for the second best team may be defeated in the first round by the best team and as a consequence has but the one chance to play when justly entitled to second place. The answer to this objection is that if we are to determine a championship by so short a series of games we must expect to sacrifice fairness to a certain extent; the main object is after all to promote interest and competition rather than to pick champions. As a partial remedy the losers in the first round are frequently scheduled for a so-called "consolation series." All who lose in their first games are bracketed together just as the winners are. In the first schedule given above Teams A, D, E, and G would be listed for the consolation series in the order already fixed by the drawing, A playing D, and E playing G. A consolation series for the tournament with 39 teams would include the losers in the first 19 games and also the loser of game 23 if A is the one to lose.

A more complete plan for a consolation series for 8 teams would be as follows: the two winners in the consolation round just mentioned are bracketed with C and H, losers of the second round of the regular series, and the winner of this consolation plays the loser of the regular final round for second place. Such a plan might be worked out for 16 teams, but where the number of teams is not a perfect power of two the problem is more complicated and the solution less satisfactory.

To stimulate competition between the members of a tennis club or between basket ball teams in the same city, a plan known as a "perpetual tournament" can be used. First, a list of the players or teams is made in order of ability, the best one first, and this is posted in a central place; it is provided that any player may challenge either of the three listed next above him, and must accept a challenge from either of the three next below him. The plan is an especially good one for picking a representative team for outside competition.

The Percentage Plan

The Olympic festival plan is best where a championship is to be settled in an afternoon or within two days; where it will take from three days to a week, as in tennis and basket ball championships, the tournament plan is best; to keep up the interest in competition for a longer period, such as a whole season, the percentage plan or "round robin" is better. Here each team plays every other team to complete

one round; it is most satisfactory to play at least two rounds, which makes it possible to play each opponent once on the home grounds and once on the opponent's. The round robin is fairer than the other plans, giving all an equal chance to win. The percentage of each team is found by dividing the number of games won by the total number played, expressing the result decimally to three places of figures.

The total number of games in one round robin is $n(n-1) \div 2$, n representing the total number of teams. This is easily seen, for any one team must play each of the others, of whom there are $n-1$; we multiply this by the total number, for each team must do the same; we divide by 2 because in figuring as we have done we would count each team twice.

The most difficult problem in arranging a round robin is to schedule the games so as to have each team play regularly and not require any team to play two games or more in one day, especially against different opponents, some of which play only once. A "cut-and-try" method can be used with a small number of teams, but with seven or more in the league this is not easy. One of the best ways to do it is to arrange the letters or numbers representing the teams on the two sides of a square, as in the following diagram.

Each small square of the diagram, excepting the diagonal row (crossed out), represents a game between two teams. One-half of the large square holds just enough small squares to form one round of play, and the numbers in the squares are the days of play in their order. The actual dates may be put in place of these numbers.

<i>Plan for seven teams</i>							<i>Plan for eight teams</i>									
A	B	C	D	E	F	G	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H		
A	*	1	2	3	4	5	6	A	*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B		*	3	4	5	6	7	B		*	3	4	5	6	7	8
C			*	5	6	7	1	C			*	5	6	7	8	1
D				*	7	1	2	D				*	7	8	1	2
E					*	2	3	E					*	1	2	3
F						*	4	F						*	3	4
G							*	G							*	5
								H								*

The two plans above use just as many days as there are teams, seven days for seven teams and eight days for eight teams. To make out such a plan for any number of teams, first make the two lines of letters to represent the teams and draw the lines forming the small squares. Then starting in the top row, indicate the days in

regular order for A to play all the other teams: 1, 2, 3, etc. There will, of course, be $n-1$ of these games, one game each day. Since A plays C on the second day, B cannot play C until the third day, so the line of days for B begins with 3 and goes on up to the end of the line. To continue, begin each row with the number next larger than the one just above it in the chart, run up the series of numbers until reaching the number of teams, and then begin at 1 and go on to the end of the row.

This rule will work to make a schedule for any number of teams. There is one objection to it: with an even number of teams it takes one too many days, for one can see in the plan for eight teams that while there may be four games each day, and must be four to keep all the teams busy, there are only three games on the fourth, sixth, and eighth days. With an odd number of teams one team must be idle each day, but with an even number all may as well play, and only $n-1$ days are needed.

To shorten the schedule for an even number of teams by one day and thus keep every team playing every day, a slight modification of the rule must be made. Start as before; the row for A will be the same as above, but at the end of the row for B, in place of the last number, which is the unnecessary day, write 2. Now notice that 2 is the number just above the first number in row B, and use this rule for all the rows below the first: follow the same plan exactly that we have used for odd numbers of teams, but in the last column always place the number just above the first number in the row. The two schedules following will show how to do this:

<i>Eight teams in seven days</i>								<i>Ten teams in nine days</i>											
A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J		
A	*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	A	*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
B		*	3	4	5	6	7	2	B		*	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	2
C			*	5	6	7	1	4	C			*	5	6	7	8	9	1	4
D				*	7	1	2	6	D				*	7	8	9	1	2	6
E					*	2	3	1	E					*	9	1	2	3	8
F						*	4	3	F						*	2	3	4	1
G							*	5	G							*	4	5	3
H								*	H								*	6	5
									I									*	7
									J										*

To test any such schedule, see that there are the right number of games each day and that no team has more than one game on any day.

Combined Plans

When there are too many teams to make a round robin feasible, it is often possible to devise a combination of the tournament and round robin plans that will be much better. For example, the Detroit schools on one occasion had 83 soccer teams, for which a plan of competition had to be worked out. A tournament would eliminate half of them in the first round, and that is not desirable. A round robin would require each team to play 82 games in the first round, which of course is out of the question. Dividing the 83 teams into 14 leagues of about 6 teams each or 12 leagues of 7 teams each, each league has time to play one round robin and the leaders can then play a tournament. The leagues can be formed of teams within convenient distances. Such an organization into leagues, with games scheduled regularly and the schedules posted in each school, helps maintain the interest, even if some teams drop out; the director will of course try to keep them all in to the end.

Scoring Plan for All Year Round Group Athletic Efficiency

The all year round group scoring plan has become very popular with Intramural systems of colleges and universities. The idea, however, is very adaptable and can be used just as easily in the Public School Athletic Leagues. The purpose is to stimulate competition where attendance is voluntary. Organizations are given a certain number of points for organizing a team in each sport. Additional points are then given to a team according to its respective showing in each sport. These points are totaled, and the organization standing highest at the end of the year is given a large trophy for "All-Around Efficiency in Athletic Sports." No change whatsoever is needed from the regular programme, as each sport can be carried on as usual with a smaller cup awarded to the winner.

The first advantage of such a scheme is that the different organizations will make entries for each sport, regardless of ability in it, in order to get the points that are given for organizing a team. If they are to contend for the final cup they must take advantage of every point it is possible to acquire. Even if there is no chance to win the big cup, there is interest in having a high standing on the athletic chart. Another advantage is the added interest in minor sports, which helps keep all the athletic facilities in use instead of just the more popular ones. Then, again, such a rating scheme offers a chance to include other factors than the winning of games. These are for organizing teams (already mentioned), scholarship, sports-

manship (both players and spectators living up to spirit of rules and showing courtesy to opponents), and reliability (being on time, playing the schedule without forfeiting games, following instructions for classifying and certifying players, etc.). The last two factors have been emphasized in the Playground leagues of Chicago and the Public School Athletic Leagues of Detroit, but in a different way; they are used to count in the final result of each game that is played. On the whole, the scoring of these things is more or less in the experimental stage, owing to the fact that there is conflicting opinion concerning the proposition. Some authorities think that the rules of the game provide sufficient penalties for infractions. There is much less opposition, however, to including an item like sportsmanship in an all year round plan than to let it decide the winning of an individual game.

In the working out of the all year plan, the sports must be classified according to the relative amount of interest in them, and also on the basis of the amount of effort required to organize, train, and perfect a team in strategy. A division of major and minor can be made; and if desired, an intermediate division can be included. Such sports as soccer, basket ball, baseball, and track would be included in the major divisions; swimming, tennis, hockey, bowling, wrestling, and volley ball, in the intermediate; and handball, horse-shoe pitching, and others, in the minor. Then the points can be adjusted for each division; for instance, 150 (50 for entrance plus 100 for winning) for major, 100 (35 + 65) for intermediate, and 75 (25 + 50) for minor.

The simplest way to determine the respective order of the different teams is to separate all by the same number of points. Thus in baseball, a major sport, with five teams competing, the order would be 50, 75, 100, 125, and 150; with six teams, it would be 50, 70, 90, 110, 130, and 150. Another method is frequently used. This is to give a certain number of points for each game that is won. Then the relative value of each game would be the number of points given for winning (in baseball 100) divided by the number of games that the champion team won. If the champion team won 5 games, then the value of each game would be 20 points, and the other teams could be rated accordingly. In the case of a track or swimming meet, the number of points accumulated by the champion team can serve as the standard instead of the number of games won by the baseball champion and the value of each point won in the meet can then be judged in the same manner.

Scoring Plan for All Year Round Individual Athletic Efficiency

The plan suggested for group scoring can be followed. As a member of a team the individual would receive points for participation; also, additional points corresponding to the final standing of his team. Men competing in meets, where individual scoring can be determined, would be credited by comparison with the individual making the highest individual score. Sportsmanship and reliability are factors that can easily be included.

Another plan considerably different than the one just described, and which has very interesting features, is the one charted below. It is used on the Ann Arbor, Michigan, playgrounds. Boys and girls are given ribbons if they win in any particular sport, but they are also given points for all-around efficiency. At the end of the season a special honor is given to each of the highest point gatherers.

The points are awarded as follows: A member of the championship baseball team gets 10 points; of second team, 6 points; of third team, 4 points; and thereafter 2 points for participation. In the case of interplayground meets like swimming or track, a boy winning a first place would be awarded 10 points; and similarly on down to the 2 points given for taking part. The minor sports, except for giving only one half as many points, are graded in the same manner.

Boys		GIRLS	
<i>Sports</i>	<i>Points</i>	<i>Sports</i>	<i>Points</i>
	1-2-3-P*		1-2-3-P*
Baseball	10-6-4-2	Swimming	10-6-4-2
Volley Ball	10 etc.	Efficiency Test	10 etc.
Swimming	10 "	Tennis	10 "
Efficiency Test.....	10 "	Track	10 "
Tennis	10 "	Baseball	10 "
Track	10 "	Basket Ball	10 "
Basket Ball	10 "	or Group Game	
Croquet	5-3-2-1	Newcomb	10 "
Quoits	5 etc.	Novelty Relay.....	10 "
Target Throw.....	5 "	Attendance and Sports-	
Novelty Event.....	5 "	manship	10 "
Attendance and Sports-		Croquet	5-3-2-1
manship	10-6-4-2	Target Throw.....	5 etc.

Possible Total.....100 points

Possible Total.....100 points

*1—1st place; 2—2d place; 3—3d place; P—participation.

There are other plans that are much more elaborate. One used by Deyo Leland, Supervisor of Physical Education in the Public

Schools of Ypsilanti, Michigan, stresses such factors as athletic and gymnastic ability, physical examination, regular habits of exercise, sportsmanship, attendance, leadership in athletics, first aid, life saving, Scouting, Camp Fire, and other school activities. After attaining the required number of points the boy or girl receives membership in the school athletic Honor Society.

Factors in Efficient "School Athletics"

1. A high type of coach.
2. An energetic faculty manager.
3. An enclosed athletic ground, conveniently located.
4. A modern gymnasium with good seating capacity.
5. A team which includes good material, well coached and winning its proper share of games.
6. A proper schedule.
 - a. Do not meet important rivals at first. Try to grade the earlier games in increasing difficulty.
 - b. Do not have too many hard games in succession.
 - c. Do not schedule inferior teams that are situated in towns at too great a distance.
 - d. Have a climax. If possible save the game with your most important rival as a close to the season.
 - e. Avoid an anti-climax. If the big game comes late in the season, do not follow it with a game of inferior importance.
7. Organize a strong Athletic Association in the School.
 - a. Draw up a constitution.
 - b. Elect student officers: a President, Vice President, Secretary, Treasurer, and two representatives for the Board of Control. Have pictures of the officers in the School Annual.
 - c. Collect dues.
 - d. Make membership of annual tenure.
 - e. Give the members privileges; i.e., a membership button, free admission to the first game of the year, first choice on reserved seat games, mention in an athletic honor list in the school annual, a chance to vote on the election of officers, a chance to attend the athletic banquet and dance following the close of the season.
8. Have a Board of Control composed of three faculty members and two students. The faculty should always have final control over school athletics. The faculty manager should be a member, and whenever possible the principal. The student members should be seniors representing the Athletic Association.
9. Sell season tickets at special rates to the students, residents, and business men.
10. Do not try to enforce an athletic blanket tax in public schools.
11. Give every student a special rate for each game separately if bought within a restricted time limit.

12. Stimulate interest in selling, and allow poorer students a chance to obtain season tickets, by granting a free ticket to anyone selling a certain number. Likewise free admission to separate games might be given for selling tickets for the respective games.
13. Buy and handle equipment economically and businesslike.
 - a. Buy good grade material.
 - b. Have cards bearing printed list of equipment, check the articles given out, and have each individual sign his card.
 - c. Have a competent custodian of property.
14. Build for the future. Have a second team equipped, coached, and given a schedule of games. Give the second team men free admission to all games in their respective sport. Organize intramural teams among the classes and any other possible units for rivalry.
15. Belong to a league of schools if there is one in your district. Such an association makes for stronger rivalry, and in the long run, for cleaner sport.
16. Arrange numeral awards by size, according to the importance of the sport. Eight inches is a good maximum size; five inches, a minimum. Give the second team an R (Reserves). Some schools give class numerals instead. Award all numerals at a public occasion such as a mass meeting or Letter Day.
17. Get the confidence of the parents. Have them realize that the welfare of the boys taking part is being considered first of all. Have all candidates take a physical examination.
 - a. Do not make the practice periods too long—a common fault which results in overtraining for high school boys.
 - b. Insist on the boys returning with the coach when away on trips. Only permit individual stay-overs when parents have given written permission.
 - c. If possible get a physician to volunteer his services for the season. Often a young graduate will help in order to extend his acquaintance-ship and get a start towards building up a practice.
18. Keep the sympathy of the teachers. Do not ask special favors for the athletes. Do not let athletics get magnified out of its proper place in school life. Build the teams up from the bona fide students instead of wasting efforts on transients who come to school for athletics only.
19. Have a student manager for each sport. Make the managers serve an apprenticeship before awarding them the job. Do not let the manager be elected by popular vote as politics will determine the appointment in that case. Let the appointment be made by a body consisting of the present manager, captain, the captain-elect, the coach, and the faculty manager. Give the manager the school letter, reversing the color scheme whenever possible, as red on white in case the players receive white on red. Some schools simply give a different style letter. Let the manager get as much prominence as possible along policies planned by the Board of Control. Let him meet visiting teams and arrange for their stay.
20. Arrange pleasant quarters for the team when on trips. Have pre-arranged meals whenever possible, but in other cases set a maximum price that will be allowed. Pay the expenses for the team as a whole;

do not start the bad practice of giving each boy money to pay his own expenses. Some of the boys will try to avoid paying carfare or to economize on their meals to gain some spending money.

21. Have a cheer-leader elected by the Athletic Association and given a distinctive uniform in the school colors. He should appoint assistants from which the next leader will be chosen.
22. Have a mass meeting at the beginning of the season and before the most important games. The principal must arrange the time. Get alumni and enthusiastic business men to attend.
23. Raise money through association dues, season tickets, receipts for games, and entertainments and bazaars.
24. A reel ticket at the grounds saves much time, and is an aid in checking.
25. Have the faculty managers and coach control the newspaper publicity. Students always give biased and exaggerated views.
26. Try to get as much faculty support as possible. Get faculty members to take tickets at the games and assist in other ways.

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CHAPTER XIV

THE PHYSICAL BENEFITS OF PLAY

The kind of physical condition that men have always desired and prayed for may best be described as joyous abounding health. There is included in this idea completeness and soundness of body, which means the absence of disease and infection, and the normal functioning of every organ, power, and faculty.

As long as such a condition exists, life is apt to be successful and enjoyable, and well worth living. The individual with an abundance of vigorous health has a decided advantage in everyday life. With organic power that is a barrier against disease, he can also meet the emergencies of life. No person may hope to escape being called upon to go beyond the limits of endurance. The army physicians and nurses who in the midst of war time found themselves confronted with an awful epidemic of influenza serve as an example, for the extra burden was one that only those with reserve power could carry.

Health is one of the problems that has forced itself upon the attention of the nation and each separate community and family in recent years. The health of the community depends on the health of the individuals, and for this reason great educational campaigns have been undertaken to instruct every one in personal and public hygiene. Stress has been laid on the preventive side, that is, to build up the body to increase its vital resistance, and to establish wholesome conditions of environment. We have seen the schools increasing the time for physical training, introducing new types of activities, examining the pupils to discover defects that might lead to serious results later, and prescribing remedial measures in cases where improvement is possible. The schools and communities are on the watch for epidemics, and any case of contagious disease is promptly isolated as soon as discovered, and the source of the trouble is located and stamped out. This source may be in the water, milk, or food supply; it may be from impure air; or it may be from crowded housing conditions. To-day, each of these angles is being studied so

successfully by experts that in many ways the city is a healthier place to live in than the country. The health of the community is looked upon as an economic problem, as industry is interested financially in the working power of each individual citizen.

PLAY ESSENTIAL TO HEALTH

Play is one of the most important agencies for the development of each individual to perfect health. Heredity must do its part as a foundation; food, air, and sunlight are necessary; preventive hygiene must be practiced to keep off disease and remove defects; yet, after all this is said and done, it is always activity that stimulates and guides growth and development. The one who can do things is always the one who has done things. One of the most serious results of a broken leg or a prolonged illness is the weakness and lack of ability that results from the enforced idleness, which compels the patient to build up his lost strength, skill, and endurance very slowly and painfully and to learn over again most of the physical acts that were so well known before, even to balancing himself on his feet, walking, running, and throwing. Nothing but practice can perfect one's proficiency in any art; and when this skill has been acquired, nothing but continuous and endless practice can maintain it and keep a person in the physical condition that underlies it and makes it possible. Measles and mumps and the other diseases of childhood must be avoided if possible, not only because they endanger life and may cause permanent injury to some vital organ, but because they bring about days and perhaps weeks of complete inactivity, and thus postpone and seriously interfere with normal growth and development. To a smaller extent, school, with its hours of enforced quiet, has the same disadvantage; and this explains why children usually grow in height and weight more rapidly in summer, when they are free to play out of doors during most of their waking hours. Child labor is prohibited in many states because the work is of the confining type and does not allow normal activity.

Play is Natural Activity

One of the chief reasons why the spontaneous plays of childhood and the games and sports of youth are the best possible activities for developing an ideal physical condition is that they involve chiefly those fundamental movements of the body that are natural to the race and are therefore performed easily and joyfully, while demanding little of the player in the way of sustained attention.

They are progressive, using the instinctive movements in their inherited order, and building them up into complex acts, such as walking, running, jumping, throwing, and climbing, just as fast as the growth of the nervous system prepares the way. It is one of the main faults of child labor and the so-called scientific gymnastics that they violate this natural order of progress, compelling the learning of elements of skill before nature has properly prepared the way and enforcing a monotonous repetition when nature demands a variety of activities.

Pleasure is Healthful

The fact that play is enjoyed is one of the main reasons why it is conducive to health. This applies to all kinds of activity and to all ages; a man's regular occupation, a hobby that he takes seriously and employs all his leisure time upon, or an hour of frivolous amusement, will, if sufficiently enjoyed, aid in promoting health just as well as the spontaneous play of childhood or the sports and games of youth. We see the effect of enjoyment at a banquet or a Christmas dinner, when, surrounded by fun and jollity, one is able to eat and digest without harm an amount and kind of food that would upset him for days if eaten while his mind were concerned with the usual cares of life.

Pleasurable activity has a buoyant and stimulating effect upon the nervous system, and this reacts in a beneficial way on the whole body. The influence is especially noticeable in case of the digestive glands. Certain feelings, in particular those related to the enjoyment of food, make the "mouth water" and stimulate the secretion of the juices of the stomach, and thus aid in digestion. Since the nervous system controls the chemical activity of the tissues, the reason for the profound effect of pleasurable emotion on the whole body is readily seen, and the close interrelation between health and happiness is accounted for.

PERSONAL PREPAREDNESS

We hear a lot nowadays about national preparedness in the way of large fleets and armies, large reserves of gold to safeguard our currency, and of conservation measures whenever there appears to be a possibility of future shortage in the food or fuel supply of the nation. On a smaller scale, but in just the same way, it is equally important that every individual be personally prepared for the best service in his chosen vocation and in his avocation; and also for

duties that he may be called upon unexpectedly to perform. This calls for physical ability along the lines of *strength*, *speed*, *skill*, and *endurance*. These were the traits necessary for the survival of primitive man; they determined his ability to secure food and shelter and to cope with his enemies. Even two or three generations ago these qualities of physical fortitude were necessary to enable our forefathers to cope with the wilderness and subdue it, and in the meantime to make a living. The physical qualities needed in primitive and pioneer life are not in such constant use among us to-day, yet the need frequently arises and there is no telling when it will come. A person may want the *strength* to take a fellow workman from beneath a heavy machine and carry him to safety; he frequently needs the *speed* to make a train or a street car; he needs every day the *skill* to dodge a vehicle or to jump over an obstacle; he may want the *endurance* to work overtime if his factory is rushed with work and short of men. He is sure to need these things if his recreation takes the form of sport, travel, or outdoor life. In the business world, too, the man or woman wins out who can do the regular routine of work and have energy to spare.

Strength

Strength means muscular force. This force is dependent on three factors: the size of the muscles, their readiness to act in response to the will, and the amount of nerve force that can be employed to stimulate them. The importance of the last factor is shown in the immense muscular power often exhibited by weak persons in a hysterical or hypnotic state or by sick people when in a state of delirium. For the same reason anyone who is in an excited condition can exert more than usual strength; this is illustrated by athletes playing before a crowd and by workmen under stress of competition. The nervous system can acquire reserve force for such use only by continued practice at efforts of strength, such as play constantly affords. Nerve cells worn down during exertion are built up during rest to a better condition than before, but their force slowly wanes when there is no activity at all.

One of the most interesting facts brought to light by recent study in this line is that in ordinary muscular action the main bulk of the muscle lies idle while a comparatively few fibers do all the work. These idle muscle fibers have the power of contraction but are less responsive to stimuli than the others. When we compare two persons who have muscles of the same size, one may have twice the

working power of the other because he is, as we say, "in training": he has been giving his muscles frequent stimuli to action and as a consequence more fibers are awake and ready to act; his nerve cells also send stronger stimuli to incite them to action. This is why those accustomed to muscular exertion have more strength than those who are not used to exercise; it is the principal reason for the greater strength of men as compared with women. Muscular efficiency therefore involves not only muscles of fair size, but, what is more important, muscles and nerves that can put forth powerful efforts because they are in constant practice.

Plays and games are conducive to firm, balanced, and supple muscles, rather than the massive, bulging type seen in professional gymnasts and strong men. It is important in this connection that play leaders encourage varied activity, such as that seen in ball games, where the movements of handling the ball develop the arms and trunk while the running involved also trains the lower limbs and the heart and lungs. Unless there is extreme specialization in play, the size of the muscles, the power of response in the muscles, and the reserve force of the nervous system will be built up simultaneously.

Speed

Speed means rapidity of motion. It was almost as essential as strength to primitive man. To him speed was imperative in fighting his enemies—whether fleeing or pursuing—and in the frequent hunting of wild animals for food. Speed is just as essential in the industrial and social life of to-day. In the play of children it is most often speed that brings success, and the same is true in athletic competition. His teammates may be fully as strong in swinging the bat, but it is Ty Cobb's speed that gives him a three-base hit when others get but one or two. The speedy typist draws the big pay; likewise, the speedy mechanic doing piece-work. Speed saves time, and thus some industrial concerns are able to win over others because of better time-saving devices.

Speed requires quick thinking, quick nerve action, and quick response of muscle to stimuli. Heredity goes far in making speed possible, but there is also much in practice. There is nothing like competitive play to develop speed in a boy or girl; the constant trying to do things more quickly makes for a more rapid action. The player, anxious to make better speed, learns the quickest way to his goal, how to avoid wasting time, and he quickens the reaction time of his muscles by persistent practice. Play in childhood makes in this

way a valuable contribution to the working efficiency of the man and woman. Those who have lacked this training in youth can never hasten without extreme fatigue.

Besides saving time, speed may serve as a substitute for strength. In the olden days it was a popular form of combat to pit an opponent whose best asset was swiftness against one who was much larger and more powerful; and the former often won. To-day we see the same type of contest when a light football team whose play is lightning fast is matched against a heavier and slower team. It is noteworthy also that races of slight stature, like the Japanese, prize quickness and dexterity of action as an athletic trait more highly than strength.

Agility or Skill

Skill is defined as the harmonious adjustment of muscles to their action; it is team-work among muscle groups. It is as fundamental to human activity as strength or speed. Skill is the most complete fitting of means to an end, and requires years to reach its highest perfection. For example, the first time the young child throws a ball, he does little more than to extend one joint, his elbow, forcibly; by the time he becomes a regular ball player he has learned how to bring into action—to aid this simple movement—his pectoral muscle, the rotators of the arm and those that move the shoulder forward, the rotators of the trunk, the rotators of the hip joints, the extensors of the hips, knees, and ankles, and even the muscles of the opposite arm. In all such movements, and also in walking and running—which we are apt to consider the simplest of acts—each of many muscles must come into action and sink into relaxation again in perfect order and regularity or the performer will exhibit a ridiculous failure. It is in his play that the child builds up these wonderful coordinations, little by little, to the most complex stages, with very little of voluntary effort or even of attention to his movements.

Later, in games and contests of a more highly specialized and more intensely competitive sort, there is need of a more studied, conscious, and careful practice; when the boy pitcher first practices a curve, for example, he has to think of the directions given by the coach and carefully place the ball in his hand. Systematic training finally develops skill and cleverness, and in time the feat that took so much effort and pains is performed automatically, with little conscious attention given to the details.

Scientists and famous coaches agree that the best time to teach boys to become star athletes is between the ages of twelve and eight-

een. If the process of learning a new movement is delayed beyond these years, the highest degree of skill is almost impossible to attain. Much improvement can be made later; in fact, it is never too late to learn; but once the golden age of youth is past, there are heights that the novice must not expect to reach.

Endurance

Endurance means the ability to maintain a muscular contraction for a long time, or to repeat an action many times in succession, without stopping to rest. It requires muscles of fair strength, easily stimulated to action, and a large amount of reserve power in the nervous system; and, in case the activity uses many large muscles vigorously, it also requires an efficient condition of the heart, lungs, breathing muscles, blood vessels, and sweat glands. This efficiency of all the vital organs helps bring about the necessary oxidation of the waste products of the muscle tissue. There is still another factor concerned in endurance, and that is *interest*. Interest in the activity means that the mental effort is small and in this way there is a saving of nervous force. A child absorbed in his play can exercise all afternoon and be but normally tired; whereas if he were to spend the same time in running errands, the irksomeness of the tasks would bring about a tired mental state that would make him ready to quit in a short time. The hunter forgets that he is tired; but the ordinary pedestrian does not.

A man may have great strength without having great endurance; he may be able to lift a great weight, but he may not be able to do it again without stopping to rest. The explanation is that although his muscles have great power, it takes a great amount of nerve force to stimulate them to full action, and unless he has practiced lifting weights repeatedly, his nervous system will not have reserve power enough to bring his muscles to complete action many times. A skilled pianist, on the contrary, cannot lift so great a weight, but he can repeat a stroke upon the keys hundreds of times in rapid succession. The strength of the weight-lifter is in sharp contrast with the endurance of the pianist.

The runner, however, illustrates endurance in a more typical manner than the pianist. He tosses the entire weight of his body into the air at every step—a weight that may be compared very favorably with that used by the weight-lifter; but he has such large muscles with which to do it, and his nervous system is so well accustomed to setting these muscles in action, that but little nerve force

is used in each step. As far as the nerve and muscle power is concerned, a runner can easily train himself to run many miles. The greater task is to train the heart, lungs, and blood vessels to do their part without undue fatigue. The play of children paves the way for a high degree of endurance, because it involves so much continuous running.

As an exercise of endurance, running (and games such as soccer and basket ball which involve much running) differs from exercises such as piano playing, factory work of various kinds, driving nails, or swinging dumbbells. In addition to requiring endurance of certain muscle groups and the nervous system that controls them, the first type uses such an enormous amount of energy that the endurance of the vital organs is taxed to the same extent as the muscles; they draw heavily on the food reserves, and therefore stimulate the action of the liver and all the organs of digestion, and increase the appetite. For this reason games and play involving much running should be considered exercise for the whole body: swimming, climbing, hiking, and skating are of about the same nature; while playing musical instruments, drawing and painting, clerking, and most forms of manual labor use a few muscle groups over and over again but have little influence on the development of other parts of the body.

Running or playing running games to excess may, for the reason just given, injure the player by overworking the heart or some other vital organ, and such injury is far more serious than the slight bruises and sprains the players often receive and of which mothers and grandmothers stand in such fear. Study and experience show that heart injuries are apt to occur in only two situations: (1) when the heart is being weakened by the presence of the toxin of some infection, such as diphtheria or rheumatism; and (2) when the player engages in very severe exertion when he is not prepared for it by previous practice. The chance of injury in the second case is considered small unless there is an infection present. The way to safety lies not in avoiding exertion but in keeping constantly fit by regular practice.

To call attention to the value of play in developing endurance, it is only necessary to point to the readiness with which the play-trained volunteers of Great Britain and America withstood the rigors of warfare. In but a few weeks they were able to endure hardship and exertion as well as the war-trained veterans of France and Germany. The reader will recall the old saying that the battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton and Rugby. The

running and swift succession of plays, the long hours of persistent practice, the stone-wall defense when pressed back to the goal line—these made an unequalled preparation.

TABLE OF PHYSICAL QUALITIES DEVELOPED BY PLAYS AND GAMES

	<i>Strength</i>	<i>Speed</i>	<i>Skill</i>	<i>Endurance</i>
Imitative Plays	*	*	*	*
Rhythmic Plays.....	*	*	**	***
Track Sports, Dashes	*	***	*	*
Hurdles	*	***	**	*
Distance Runs	*	*	*	***
Field Sports, Jumps.....	**	*	**	
Weights	**		**	
Stunts, Tumbling	**		**	
Heavy Apparatus.....	**		**	
Tests, Chinning.....	**			*
Throwing	**		**	
Potato Race.....	*	**	**	**
Relay Races	*	**		*
Bowling	*		**	
Croquet			**	
Golf	*		**	*
Goal Games.....	*	*	*	*
Tag Games	*	**	*	*
Combats	**	*	**	**
Baseball	*	**	***	*
Lawn Tennis.....	*	**	***	**
Handball	*	**	**	***
Volley Ball.....	*	*	**	
Soccer	*	**	**	**
Football	**	**	**	**
Field Hockey.....	*	*	**	*
Basket Ball	*	**	**	***

PLAY AND BEAUTY OF FORM

Play is natural, free, and balanced exercise. The consequence is that it develops the body as nature intended: symmetrical in form, with poise and spirit. This end can be lost; and the American coach may often be criticized for misdirecting play, so that its freedom and balance are lost in an excessive desire to win and the consequent specialization in too narrow a line. The ancient Greeks, who stressed the æsthetic side of bodily development, gave all-around training and paid special honor to the winner of the pentathlon—a group of events of different kinds. This idea is coming into vogue to-day as play is being supervised from a broader point of view, and

the modern "efficiency test" compares favorably with the Greek pentathlon.

The artificial life of the school, with its long hours of forced physical inactivity while sitting in badly fitted seats and desks, leads to a slouching posture and a listless air that, when left until the child attains his growth, can be corrected only with great difficulty. The child finds in play an invigorating tonic that expands his chest, develops his heart and lungs, straightens him up, and gives animation and zest to his whole being. Well-directed play should give erect carriage, both by harmonious development of the muscles and by infusing poise and a spirit of self confidence.

PLAY AND GRACE OF MOVEMENT

Grace is skill and ease of movement, considered from the aesthetic standpoint. It does not necessarily depend on perfection of bodily form and proportions, for a person lacking in these respects may nevertheless win our admiration and applause by executing certain movements with perfect grace and ease of action. The master musician makes himself a part of a great melody, just as the great actor holds us spell-bound with his impersonation of a character. In the same way the slouching cowboy may make us wonder at his horsemanship or the shambling negro delight us with the dancing of a jig.

Grace is art, wherever found. The ball player, awkward in the reception room, still exemplifies high art when he catches and throws a ball, every movement expressing grace and conservation of effort. The possession of grace is essentially dependent on mastery of an art to the point where details do not demand attention and on absolute confidence in one's ability; qualities equally seen when the acrobat balances on a wire, when the lady receives her guests, and when the author exhibits a graceful literary style.

Since grace can be acquired, we have another reason why every child should play. The timid child, looking on while others dance and sing, may be awkward when persuaded to join in the play, but with mastery over the elements of the dance the self-consciousness fades away and he is soon absorbed in the spontaneous fun of the group. Every successful coach can tell of an awkward boy he has trained to become a brilliant athlete. It is in accord with our theory that unless children play, instances of awkwardness increase as years go by, for all play is instinctive with racially old movements that must be practiced early or a graceful command of them is lost.

Play Compared with Other Types of Exercise

Play Versus Labor

In pioneer days children were taught to do useful things about the home and to help in caring for the domestic animals that were always kept. Labor of this kind occupied much of their time and gave them a certain amount of physical exercise—some people believe that children would be better off if they could get their physical development in the same way now. As has been pointed out in a former chapter, there is no opportunity in modern life, and especially in town and city life, for any such occupations for children; besides, it is doubtful if any kind of labor that a child might have, supposing it to be possible, can do nearly as much for him as his spontaneous play. Labor is simple and monotonous, instead of being varied and progressive; it demands that the worker sacrifice himself for the work, not the work for his good. The work required of the child in school puts a strain on his powers of attention and other activities of his nervous system; a strain so great that it must be offset by play after school hours, rather than to give him still more work to do. If labor under a task master is the best exercise for physical development, slaves and convicts ought to be the best physical specimens in the world, but we go instead to competitive sports to see the finest physiques.

Play Versus Military Drill

During every war, and immediately following, there is a wave of enthusiasm over military training as the best means of improving the physique of boys and young men. This form of exercise has several points in its favor. The work is done out of doors; it tends to induce erect posture; it is not so severe as some competitive sports; groups can be taught evolutions that make a fine appearance on certain public occasions: and the result is that men who spend a few weeks in training in the army camps show a wonderful improvement in physical condition. The improvement is due largely to a complete change in the manner of living. The men have plenty of good food, several hours of vigorous exercise in the open air every day, outdoor sleep and plenty of it, little time or opportunity for dissipation, the best of medical service, and good opportunity for competitive sports.

The trouble is that when military training is given in school or

college, most of these advantages are lacking. The former questionable habits of living are not changed; the physical exercise is reduced to a few hours a week, and limited mainly to the technical details of infantry drill and dress parade; the chances for dissipation are not removed; there is no medical service. Away from the stimulating atmosphere of camp life, the drill lacks spontaneity and pleasure; while discipline, precision, and prolonged attention to minute particulars cause nervous strain. Moreover, the musket is too heavy for boys of high school age and causes spinal curvature in many cases.

Play Versus Gymnastics

By gymnastics we mean exercise in which every move is performed by direction of the instructor. This kind of training is the most persistent rival of play as a means of promoting health and physique. It is claimed for gymnastics that the pupils get exactly the training they need, for the reason that the work is planned and conducted with an eye single to the best interests of the class; also, that the training is scientific and exact, while play is apt to be one-sided, subject to individual whim, and wasteful of time. Having planned the lesson with great care, commanded the exercises with vigor, and corrected the careless and laggard pupils, the instructor feels that he has given the best training that is possible.

Unfortunately, there is some doubt as to the instructor's supreme wisdom in choosing the right kind and amount of exercise. No two will agree exactly as to what a pupil needs, and all pupils have their individual differences and special needs. One system favors wide variety of exercises, while its chief rival advocates choosing only the few best. All will agree that a large part of gymnastic lessons are carelessly prepared and indifferently taught.

Even on the supposition that all the pupils in a class need identical training and that we know exactly what that need is, and how to satisfy it, our problem is not solved; for it is not a problem of the moment only. The greatest need of all is an interest in physical exercise and a desire for it; any plan that loses sight of this goal is fatally weak. Here is another place where the gymnastic drill falls down. Few people like gymnastics as a steady diet; no one practices such exercise for the fun of doing it. The man who has been ill and is desperately anxious to get back into condition goes willingly through a few lessons, and the man who has no opportunity for vigorous play will sometimes persist through a winter term, but this is no argument for giving gymnastics to pupils as a steady diet. Like

the old fashioned gruel, it may contain nourishment the body needs, but it spoils the appetite for food of any kind.

If the instructor is wise enough to direct the exercise of every child as precisely as a gymnastic lesson aims to do, he should be wise enough to put it in a play form, so that the training will be enjoyed, instead of being done from compulsion or a sense of duty. Swedish lessons in gymnastics have been transformed into play in the so-called "story plays," while posture training is exceedingly popular when it is made competitive. Two of our most popular games, basket ball and volley ball, have been devised in recent years with a distinct view to give well-balanced exercise and erect posture.

The practice of dictating movements by word of command is the simplest and most direct way to get the work done; it is not the best way, because the human body was not developed to its present form in that way. It is not mere chance, as the advocate of gymnastics say, that decides what movements a child at play will make; it is his inherited instincts, handed down from generation to generation, that guides him; and who shall say that such guidance is not wiser than any instructor?

While gymnastic lessons have a useful place in physical development, play and games better secure the social aims of our type of civilization, and should therefore be given preference. Gymnastics, being artificial, are best used in artificial circumstances, as when corrective measures are needed for the individual, or when a large number of persons has to use a small space or limited equipment, or must be handled by one teacher. The exercises should always be given in a variety of forms, with music when possible, and taught in an enthusiastic and stimulating manner.

Conclusion

After all, the matter of what form the exercise takes is not so essential as the fact that the individual is actually exercising. In this day and age, anyone is apt to get too little exercise rather than too much—almost any form done in moderation will be beneficial. There should be no argument over the point that nothing can quite take the place of play during the growing period; nor over the point that a healthy type of labor and gymnastic activity, if used to supplement the play programme rather than supplant it, will also furnish values of their own. Play has this advantage: if, during the growing period, play opportunity is furnished along natural lines, the child will instinctively take part, and health will take care of itself. The

child has little or no thought for health. It is given to him out of his fun. At a later time, however, when nearing the end of his school days, his freedom is curbed as he prepares for and gradually assumes the responsibilities of mature life. Then the health question is a different one. Health has got to be brought to this individual's attention. He has not the free hours of the child; the chances are that in the few minutes he has to spare he will seek quiet recreation. Unless a particularly fortunate individual, he cannot get his health through games and sports that demand long periods of time. He must seriously plan for his health; and he must take his exercise in whatever form is best obtainable. One takes his "Daily Dozen," another exercises in a garden or has a walking schedule, still another joins a class at the "Y." The physical benefits of play and exercise are unquestionable; the problem is simply to provide natural means for children to satisfy their play instincts, and to inspire grown folk to seek health and to supply for themselves the exercise that is denied through lack of time, space, or unwholesome employment.

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CHAPTER XV

PLAY AND MENTAL GROWTH

People have ever held to the idea that the body is the servant of the mind. This thought was expressed by Plato, centuries ago: "gymnastics for the body and music for the soul . . . but the teachers of both have in view chiefly the improvement of the soul." Bridging the gap to early modern times, we find Rousseau expressing a similar opinion: "If you wish to cultivate intelligence, cultivate the powers it should rule. . . . Exercise the body continually. . . . Let the pupil be a man in vigor and soon he will become one in reason." The English gentry of to-day wish their sons to gain the physical benefits of the many sports that their schools are famous for; but, first and foremost, they consider the accompanying growth in breadth of mind, and in will, pluck, sportsmanship, and like qualities of manliness. In America this idea of the relation of mind and body also prevails. The national honorary athletic fraternity, Sigma Delta Psi, has for its motto "The Body the Servant of the Mind."

This notion of the body as an inferior is true but very incomplete. Man has risen to his high plane of superiority over the animal world, and over many of the forces of nature, through his intellect. Today's struggle between men is mental rather than physical. Because of these things, man has come to place most importance on his mental development, but forgets at the same time that mind and body are interrelated and indispensable to each other in a normal existence.

Relation of Infancy and Play to Higher Intelligence

It has been discovered that there is a relation between the intelligence of an animal and the length of its period of infancy. With the lower forms of animals all the bodily powers spring at once into full maturity, without practice or training. Their activities change but little from one generation to another, and their hereditary tendencies are practically fixed and rigid. Man, being the highest expression of animal intelligence, needs the longest period of infancy. He

has the most to learn. At birth, his hereditary impulses are vague, for the life activities of man have changed from simple to complex. While the chicken is born with a definite instinct to get food by picking up small round things in its mouth, and the cat by pouncing on small moving objects, the infant of the human species cannot depend on his instincts alone for survival, but has to be trained in a multitude of functions which are a part of adult life. He is born, not with a complete set of powers, but with a plastic nature that has an immense capacity for teachability. Nature has provided for the child's first education by endowing him with an instinct to be active, an instinct second only to hunger in its demands. Upon activity depends the growth of the body, and upon the normal growth of the body depends the normal growth of the mind. This self-activity of the infant is his play, an outlet in which he expresses himself as earnestly and fully as the master workman does in any of the higher arts. Educators have come to agree that the first steps in the child's education should be in the direction of his natural impulses and interests. Then play reinforces the inherited abilities that are the basis of a mental life. Play changes concurrently as the child grows older and his mental outlook takes on a different aspect; in the words of Froebel "The plays of children are the germinal leaves of all the later life." Froebel called attention to the mental significance of play, describing it as the "outward expression of an inner life." The "instinct" theory of Groos is based on the supposition that the child plays in order to get preparatory practice for the functions of adult life. The scheme of education to-day aims to direct the play so that it gradually blends itself into work as the child's mental powers grow stronger.

The Mind Develops Through Motor Activity

There is no other way for mind to develop than through activity; and therefore the child's first mental growth must come through a physical means. At birth the fundamental motor areas of the brain are the only ones that are ready to respond to sensory stimuli. As with animals, the first instincts are active ones. Without this motor power, the infant would have no way to express himself.

The child is engaged in self-education when he clutches objects, and when he creeps and walks. Consciousness arises when the infant finds that his first reflex movements give a definite reaction for pleasure or otherwise. At this moment—with this perception—the child ceases to be a physical animal alone; for, through his movements he

has found his mind. From then on he can *will* action. But the mind is just in its beginning. Later, the child finds that the sensation he experiences in the action that he wills is similar to one he has experienced before; thus memory is reached. The child is still, however, no farther than many animals; for the dog and horse have memory. But man is creative: the child links his present thought or experience with a past one to conjure up a new one. He links the toy with the street car he has seen; and, when he pushes the toy around the floor, he is expressing the creative instinct as found in imagination. He has then passed beyond the animal stage.

No longer is the child dependent upon the physical experiences of the moment, but can call upon his mind to help him make new experiences out of an imaginary grouping of his old ones. Out of a gradually increasing complexity of experiences he draws conclusions and makes associations. In these ways he progresses from lower animal reflexes and instincts through the mental awakening of his higher thought processes of perception, memory, imagination, and reason. These processes do not develop in abrupt stages; nor are they isolated from one another. They have an overlapping development, but some are more pronounced than others at certain periods of the child's development. With the attainment of reason, man is complete in all his functions and becomes the normal human being. Reason has infinite powers: man, through reason, can make new discoveries, find new processes, make searches into the abstract realms of philosophy, science, art, and religion. As Cooley so aptly puts it, "Reason is teamwork among the hereditary instincts."

Parallel Development of Body and Mind

The mind grows hand in hand with the body. Not until the latter stops developing does it cease to play a direct part in education: therefore, just so long as the body is growing, physical exercise in the form of play should be afforded, for the mental in man is built upon a physical foundation, and the more solid this foundation, the more durable the mind. After maturity, play is still needed, not so much to educate as to recreate.

Educators have made a study of the relationship between mental and physical growth, and have found out that children retarded in their physical development are backward mentally; or, vice versa, that large and healthy children are precocious in their school work. A report published by the U. S. Bureau of Education in 1914 entitled "Physical Growth and School Progress" finds this to be true.

A statistical study of the New York school system showed that even slight physical defects brought about slower progress (approximately 10 per cent) than that of children enjoying normal activity. Courtis, after an extensive study of the Detroit schools remarks: "On the average children progress in school in proportion to their physical development. The greater the increase above average weight in grade and age, the greater the degree of acceleration: the physically developed children are those promoted most rapidly." Studies of Dr. Ferdinand Schmidt of Germany, and Dr. Paul Godin, of Switzerland, are very emphatic in the same conclusions. Such findings as these, based on the average of large groups, should be practical proof that bodily development is an important factor in contributing to increased mental efficiency.

With adults the relation between mind and body is also very definite. Disorders of the body produce mental ill health; and mental hygiene, one of the newest of medical fields, is using physical activities in its treatment. The normal individual, when mentally fatigued from long concentrated study, depends upon his body to furnish pleasurable exercise that will freshen his whole system again and restore his mental vigor. Man, when his mental tower has crumbled, must repair with physical masonry.

Play's Part in the Development of the Nervous System

The nervous system, consisting in general of the two great clusters of nerve centers, the brain and the spinal cord, is the seat of consciousness. Through it the mind controls the body and receives its knowledge of the outside world; and through it the individual is made aware of the various states existing within his own being, physical exhaustion for instance. The nervous system is the most complex structure of man, and of all organs, the least is known about it. Part of its control over the body is an unconscious one, such as over the various vital organs; but the acquisition of intelligence and will in man has given him a power over the voluntary actions of the body.

At birth, the nervous system of the infant is undeveloped and consequently consciousness is vague. His first muscular activity is reflex action, which later changes to conscious action as the child becomes aware of sensations of pleasantness attending certain of his movements. He repeats these movements, and this repetition has important significance to the growth of the nervous system by giving

control over the body and by producing experiences which go to form the content of his mental world.

Play Gives Control Over the Body

The mind must gain control over the body before it can spare time for thoughts apart from movement. The more actions that can be made automatic and involuntary, the more time the mind has free to meet the complex problems of adult life. The human mind is such a busy machine that time and effort must be saved if a person is to have opportunity to carry out his higher aspirations. There must be economy, and play is the means of securing it. It is the function of play to practice and rehearse adult activities. The child has to practice the different movements of walking over and over again, with his mind concentrated on the accomplishment. Only after considerable effort are they learned. Later, however, his mind is rewarded; for attention, which is a time-taking and fatiguing process, no longer has to be given to the bringing of all these movements into action. Mental energy is thus conserved for other use. Think how a person's time would be occupied if he had to stop for reflection every time he wanted to take a step or raise an arm! How many people lack time for keeping up to date mentally because they never learned as children to move quickly and perform the common acts of everyday life skillfully!

Play Builds Up Mental Endurance

There is a certain order in which the nervous system is developed, this, in general, proceeding from the lower levels upward. The lower fundamental levels, as well as the muscles they direct, are stronger and of greater endurance; while the higher nervous centers, controlling the accessory muscles, are more delicate and more quickly exhausted. Tyler describes their relation as follows: "The old fundamental centers are the fortress-foundations of the brain, the seats of endurance and resistance. If they are neglected or incompletely developed, the whole brain structure totters or collapses. They, far more than the higher centers, claim and require our attention throughout childhood. . . . If we would fortify the nervous system of the child so that it will not collapse in nervous prostration under the strain of modern life, we must encourage him to use the heavy muscles of trunk, legs, and shoulders. . . . Mental exercise of a logical sort has added only the finishing touches to the development of the brain."

While the fundamental enduring part of the nervous system is developed through the instinctive craving for exercise, which should not be curbed too much by schoolroom requirements, the higher levels have but little instinctive prompting, and to reach their highest possibilities, must be assisted by formal methods of education. But education must not make the mistake of trying to hurry this development along. The immature mind cannot assume the mental tasks of the adult any more than the immature body can cope with the adult in strength. Straining the child's delicate nervous system will produce harmful results just as do the forced attempts to teach the child to walk. Nature's order cannot be inverted. Statistics have already been quoted to show that, on the whole, school children of best physique stand highest in their classes. The best thing for the child's intellectual growth is to make his body a help to him, rather than a hindrance. A healthfully developed body means that the mind has a good machine to carry it along on its mental journey, a machine that will need the least possible attention, and one that is able to meet the emergencies without breaking down and needing repair. On the other hand, if the body is illy developed or is fatigued, the fundamental nerve centers are called upon to do work that otherwise would be "reflex." This proves a distracting annoyance to the higher thought processes. The person who is so fatigued that he has to make his limbs move only by compulsion of the will cannot think clearly on any other matter that happens to be at hand.

Muscular exercise builds up the brain areas that are later used for thought, particularly those parts that deal with the everyday life of action. To-day, it is the man of action who is successful. The idea itself is worthless without a proper response.

The Order of Development

The Reflex Level.—During the first few years the *infant* practices the mechanics of the ordinary movements of life (those needed everyday), such as kicking, reaching, holding, sitting, crawling, standing, and walking. Included also are the vocal coordinations needed to produce speech. No one of these accomplishments is an easy one. The same movement has to be repeated over and over again with the attention fixed closely on the process of doing it. These actions after many repetitions become automatic—performed without the mind giving conscious attention to the process. In *early childhood* the more difficult bodily movements of running, jumping,

throwing, climbing, and handwork, in turn are practiced, and the process of making them reflex is begun. The plays of the child are instinctive lessons in learning to control these fundamental bodily coordinations. The child in his play freely copies actions he sees, and in this way his motor development proceeds economically along the lines that tradition and custom mark out as being the most useful and valuable.

These efforts of the child in mastering everyday movements demand practically all the nervous energy that he has to spare. They compose his serious business in life. Although not yet entered in school, and with little or none of formal education, he has developed the spinal cord and lower brain areas into almost complete activity. This means that the conscious effort of the will is being freed from directing the body and is able to turn itself to other things.

The Sensori-Motor Level.—The period of *later childhood* is one of great motor activity. Rejoicing in his newly found control over the body, the child responds in action to the many sensations that come from this mysterious world about him. The preceding reflex activities are not only perfected, but tried out in combination with each other. The newer complex acts involve concerted actions of many muscles throughout the various parts of the body, and therefore bring different parts of the nervous system into concerted action also. Considerable coordination of mind and muscle is necessary to perform these acts with ease. All the while, too, experiments are being made with the finer, more specialized muscles of the body; and the corresponding nerve centers are going through their process of development. The stunts of the playground (somersaults, chinning, balancing, etc.), the throwing, catching, and batting of a ball (involving reactions of time and distance), along with wrestling and boxing, swimming, dancing, shooting with bow and with the sling, marbles, kite-flying, whittling, miniature house-keeping, collecting, and handicrafts, all testify to the child's perfecting of his motor possibilities.

In this new type of physical skill the advantage of having developed reflex movements in the preceding years is present, for the child now has time and energy to spare in planning results apart from the activity itself; his mind is free to exercise itself apart from the actual directions of movements. This is seen in the entrance of competition and strategy into his plays, which now have rules to be observed and tend to be classed as games; also in the new enjoyment in intellectual types of play like checkers and dominoes. The child's

mental freedom from his body is also evidenced in his ability to spend half his day in school studies.

The more complicated muscular movements of later childhood have their corresponding development in the second level (the sensori-motor level) of the brain as distinguished from the lower reflex level. These movements while largely made automatic, are not reflex to the extent that the more fundamental everyday movements are. However, people to-day are agile and graceful accordingly to the extent they have practiced these movements in youth, and similarly depends their ability to move with lightning quickness in emergencies. It is the rare case where the athlete gets hurt in the midst of crowded traffic. This period of later childhood is the time to develop the finer motor and sensory adjustments.

The "Association" Level.—It must be remembered that while the second level of the brain is being developed, the lower level is being exercised and kept in normal vigor at the same time. Now if normal play activity is continued into the period of *adolescence*, both these levels are kept in full vigor while most of the conscious effort is being directed to ends that are bringing about the development of a still higher level—the "association areas of the brain." It is generally believed that these areas control the higher intellectual and moral processes of man, and possibly some of the most difficult and unusual physical feats. It is evident that play has little more to build up in the way of physical direction of the body. The everyday movements of adult life have been made reflex and the occasional ones needed for emergency or to enjoy certain types of recreation have been made readily adjustable. The play activities of this period clearly show the liberation of the mind from the body, for the movements have no end in themselves, being made in behalf of larger ends in the way of individual and team success in situations that approximate adult life, for athletics do contain the elements of competition and specialization that are such prominent factors in our business and professional life of to-day.

How fully the individual has mastered his body at this time, and permitted his mind freedom, is demonstrated in the fact that two hours or so are now sufficient for his daily play life, and that the remainder of his time can be devoted to his books and to the development of delicate physical skills needed in control of speech and hand. Except for perfecting the previous physical coordinations and relating them to more complex mental situations, there is little need for the ordinary individual to develop athletic skill. This is

the province of the athlete. Even *he* reaches the peak of his efficiency in *early maturity*. The high school and college athletes who place their sport as their main interest in life—more important than their intellectual advancement—are harming themselves in every way except bodily health.

When the stage of *maturity* is finally reached, the individual finds his play has gradually changed from being his most serious business of life, to his least serious from the standpoint of his mental growth. One half an hour to one hour a day now suffices in the way of active exercise. This does not mean that this exercise—now a recreation—is unimportant to the nervous system. Modern civilization, with its many demands in the way of finer and specialized muscular and nerve coordinations, has thrown the burden of work on the higher association areas of the brain, the ones that can only be exercised with considerable direction and expenditure of nervous energy. Such work involves tiring effort in the way of sustained attention, analysis, reason, will, and inhibition.



Play Affords Mental Relaxation

The nervous system becomes fatigued following long continued effort or worry. Fatigue comes when the tissues cannot throw off the waste products of combustion as fast as they are accumulated. An important thing in relieving fatigue is *change*. The best place to turn for relaxation is to the activities that can be performed without a great deal of conscious direction—the exercises that belong to the reflex and middle levels. Patrick's Recreation Theory of play is based on this idea which states that the play activities of both child and adult "tend to take the forms of old racial activities, involving brain tracts that are old, well worn, and pervious." The school boy, tired from his study, goes out to the playground during the recess and comes back invigorated; the tired factory hand, instead of sitting down for complete rest during his noon hour, joins in games like indoor baseball and quoits, and starts in fresh when the afternoon whistle blows. The change of attention gives rest to the tired parts of the mind. The child, if unrestrained, will change to a different activity when the one at hand has become monotonous. He finds his attention diverted by the variety of games in which he indulges. The adult must take his attention away from his ordinary routine duties and center it on the interesting occupation of hunting, fishing, or beating some one in a game. The change is all the more valuable when it brings big muscles into use. Big muscles coordinate

without much effort of the will, and leave the higher brain tracts almost entirely at rest. Then, too, big muscle exercise quickens the heart action, and the increased blood supply brings nourishing food to the run-down nervous tissues and helps to carry away the waste products.

The people who have enjoyed play in their childhood and youth are the more fortunate ones as regards the capacity for self-entertainment. Their play spirit remains with them, and proves the best doctor for worry and despondency. But this play spirit grows up with us. We cannot ignore it until adulthood and then suddenly find it. We are told of the English 'bus driver, who had driven without a holiday for fourteen years, and who could think of nothing better to do on his long-expected holiday, when it came, than to go for a ride on a 'bus."

Play Gives Wide Range of Experiences

While the child is exercising his instincts in active pursuits of spontaneous nature, it is not only his muscles and their motor centers of control that are being developed: he is acquiring intellectual interests, he is forming moral habits, and he is becoming more and more a social being. This intellectual life will now be studied, first from the aspect of his direct experiences and sensations, and later from the relation that these bear to his more abstract processes of thinking.

The child's activity is Nature's way of having him receive innumerable sensations. These impressions or mental pictures reach the mind through the senses. Sensations form the incentive for new activity, and in this way new sensations are continually being received. The nervous system has been likened to a "great and very complex switchboard" for the reason that it "switches off" the sensory stimuli onto motor nerves. It is found that the normal child has alert and active senses, to which he responds in play activity, while the dull child always has feeble sensory development and is also physically sluggish.

Sense training and the motor reaction to it constitutes the first training in human education. This has been recognized by child educators such as Froebel, Pestalozzi, and Montessori. Their curriculums for the earliest years are based on the proposition "All knowledge is received through the senses."

Knowledge of Environment

The universal urges of self-activity, of curiosity, and later of imitation, lead the infant on in his quest of investigation. He soon learns to manipulate the objects within reach, to test their possibilities of taste, and to drop them to the floor to hear their rattle. Brightly-colored objects and moving objects prove fascinating. Later, when he masters the arts of creeping and walking in turn, he widens his range of experiences. His world keeps growing up with him. He sees animals, birds, trees, and other wonders of nature, and man-made creations such as street cars and automobiles. He hears strange noises and learns to associate them with their respective sources. This is his proper education. His first perceptions must deal with concrete things, because he can think of something abstract only by forced attention and with difficulty. Later, the playground and school furnish him with new materials for investigation. If he is fortunate, he will be able to hike and to travel and still further widen the boundaries of his environment.

During the period of infancy the child's pleasure is found directly in sensations that he is receiving. He has no remote interests in mind when he plays. But these impressions are necessary to the development of memory, imagination, and reason, and these elements gradually become factors in his play, and introduce enjoyment of ends remote from the enjoyment of sensations in themselves.

The child should be encouraged in this quest of experimentation, for out of it can grow a well-trained sense of observation as regards the practical interests of life, and a clearness of perception that will serve to stimulate the workings of his higher mental powers.

Play is to the child what travel is to the adult. Of play in this connection, and its importance to the child, Froebel wrote, "It is through play that he comes to know the physical qualities of the objects that surround him, their motion, action and reaction upon each other, and the relation of these phenomena to himself." Preyer is quoted as having said that the child learns as much in its first three or four years as later in life he does in a university career. More recently, another lover of children, Luther Burbank, in his "Training of the Human Plant" thus pleads that they be allowed their natural heritage: "Every child should have mud pies, grass-hoppers, water-bugs, tadpoles, frogs, mud-turtles, elderberries, wild strawberries, acorns, chestnuts, trees to climb, brooks to wade in, water-lilies, woodchucks, bats, bees, butterflies, various animals to pet, hay-fields, pine-cones, rocks to roll, sand, snakes, huckleberries, and hornets,

and any child who has been deprived of these has been deprived of the best part of his education." These things, which prove of delight to growing boys and girls, are largely disappearing from their life, except in so far as organized play provides them.

Ideas Gained From Association With Others

Knowledge of one's physical environment, including one's relation to it, is not the only type of information to be amassed during the years of infancy, childhood, and youth. Impressions can be gained from the experiences and thoughts of other people with whom one comes in contact. In a sense, every playmate is a teacher.

The big step in this direction is made at the close of infancy when the child learns to vocalize—speech brings in more rapid and certain communication than the cries and signs by which he formerly attempted to convey meanings. Now, he can get ideals from his parents and other children, and add to his own store of information by finding out about their experiences. This is a quicker way of learning things than trying everything out himself, and the child's education now grows by leaps and bounds.

Contact with people in all walks of life makes for a versatile mind; and the lack of it for the narrow mind. The games of youth prevent the individual from growing one-sided and narrow-minded. He learns from the other fellow and the other fellow's point of view. His own thoughts, will, and emotional habits are modified to make him a normal social person. His mind is sharpened and stimulated in the matches with other intellects and kept constantly on the alert. In rural communities it is most important that children should meet together in play in order to get this training that comes from mixing with people of all temperaments. Not only in the life of childhood is this exchange of ideas considered of value; even men in specialized fields of knowledge find it profitable to hold conventions where they can converse with other men of the same interests. An example of the importance of exchanging ideas is shown by the experience of Japan. Japan was one of the most backward nations of the world until its ports were opened for the first time to the American fleet under Commodore Perry. Since then it has tried to borrow from all nations.

Insights into Human Nature

When children meet in spontaneous play, they throw off self-consciousness, artificiality, and restraint, and are shown in their true

personalities. Their associates can then judge them for their real worth. Such insights into human nature are of great importance to every one, especially to him who aspires to lead. In no way can a person better learn about human nature than actually to come in contact with it. Play is social and furnishes this opportunity; and as the games grow in complexity and demand more rules, the better is the chance to observe whether a person is honest, whether he is loyal, whether he acts coolly in the emergencies, and whether he remains brave under reverses.

The failure to mix sociably with one's fellow beings is the reason so many brilliant students in our schools fail in the actual working out of their profession. Many Phi Beta Kappa students cannot teach successfully, and many other honor students cannot fill executive positions, because they do not understand how to handle other minds than their own. They have acquired coveted intellectual honors, but at the same time they have neglected to cultivate their fellows. It is certain that a person, if he is to be successful in the everyday business life, must have more than an encyclopedic accumulation of facts. He must know how to meet and deal with men. He must be able to apply in a practical way the knowledge he has gained.

Adjustments to Practical Situations of Life

The everyday life is much different than that of the schoolroom. Different types of judgment and reaction are required in each case. The scholar in his research can think calmly and deliberately and defer his action; but when he attempts to become a man of practical affairs he finds himself in a world which is complex, changing, and confusing, and which demands close attention and quick adjustment on his part. That our modern education has come to recognize this double need in training, is demonstrated by the increased emphasis being given to extra-curricular activities, such as play, athletics, club work, dramatics, music, debating, and many others, in which the participant must be a *doer* as well as a *thinker*. The mere scholar is apt to be a bungler in practice, and the man of business to lack in intellect and culture.

Play gives a progressive education in adjustments that approximate the practical life of adults. The child gradually becomes able to master increasingly difficult situations: first, to control his bodily movement of itself; then with this bodily control to imitate persons and things, and later to imitate imaginary creations of his mind; then to use his new physical skill to some desired end that involves

rivalry with other playmates (such as pursuit and dare), or that involves the manipulation of objects or of bodies other than his own (such as in catching and batting a ball, constructing with tools, and wrestling); finally, to make the most difficult adjustment of all, that found in the team game, in which he must not only have sure control of his body and of the objects to be manipulated, but must make instantaneous choice between several courses of action made even more complex because of restrictions of rules and unexpected moves on the part of opponents. The player must keep his mind concentrated on the progress of the game, be alert for opportunities, and follow the rules—just the opposite of scholarly contemplation and abstraction. The emergencies come and the decision must be quickly made and acted upon. To hesitate, to make a mistake in judgment, so that one acts ahead of or behind time, are errors that lose the game. Too many errors denote inefficiency and will lose him his position. No other situation of youth can more closely resemble adult life unless it is premature entrance into adult life.

Competitive life is a succession of games. One who is trained in games is therefore a quicker thinker and interpreter in the midst of a kaleidoscopic life of moving persons and things. The more automatic the mind can react to the shifting situations, the better the chance for success. The person trained mentally in such judgments and reactions will not have identical situations facing him throughout life; but his mind will be the more adaptable for this type of experience; just as the person who has continually played at games can learn a new one easier than one who has not, and the person who has played on musical instruments can learn a new one more readily than one who has never tried such an accomplishment. This training for life need not necessarily be in athletics; the student finds much the same type of experience in serving on the school newspaper, in holding student office, and in acting as manager for athletic teams or other organizations. Students who are prominent in school activities are usually prominent afterwards in their community life. The earlier training is invaluable, teaching the dangers of overconfidence and the necessity of team play, and giving an intimate knowledge of human nature.

Simple play prepares the way for athletic play, which in turn prepares the way for the competitive type of life. Such a mental preparation, however, is not without its accompanying dangers, for in the active life, the *moral* element is closely linked with the mental. The training in athletic sports, if it be of a type that disregards the

rules of the game and the ethics of fair play, may make the future man of action, it is true, and yet at the same time it may make him unscrupulous in his attitude towards the laws of society. Another danger arises when too much emphasis is placed on athletic work, and it becomes the major aim of school attendance rather than a secondary one. Such an attitude tends to loose scholarly habits. Too much practice on something that is already easy for the players destroys their ability for hard application along other lines. If, on the one hand, over-indulgence in abstract study produces the impractical dreamer, on the other hand, over-indulgence in a life of action produces a mind that is incapable of fully enjoying the things apart from the practical life, the things that involve aesthetic appreciation and which bring culture, refinement, and repose to the owner.

Play Experience as the Basis of the Higher Mental Processes

The previous paragraphs have shown us the most concrete type of education that can be imagined. This consists of the first-hand information that a person gathers through his own experiences and those in connection with other people of his acquaintance. Play proves to be the child's first teacher in this respect. It absorbs the child's whole interest and allies doing and feeling along with learning; and therefore it cannot be differentiated from real life. However, a person's education would be very incomplete if he depended only on this direct "trial and error" method of gaining knowledge. This is a slow process and therefore society uses formal means to hurry it along as fast as possible. The formal education is one of books, formulas, and symbols, as opposed to real persons, things, and happenings. The child's mind has much difficulty in grasping the more abstract meanings of life—but as this is overcome it can be readily seen that he has added a wonderful asset to his mental gifts. Through the help of teachers and books he can transport himself beyond the realms of his immediate environment and live in a world of fancy with people and customs that belong to other lands and to other ages—he can know of things that neither he nor his playmates could otherwise experience and discuss with one another.

Valuable as the abstract knowledge is, and increasingly valuable as it becomes in the child's life as he matures, it would be largely meaningless unless accompanied by concrete knowledge as well. Just as the progress of civilization to-day is built up out of the cumulative experiences of the many peoples who have lived in ages before us, so the higher mental advancement of the individual grows out of his

previous store of experience. The many experiences are the raw products from which the finer thoughts and emotions are later fashioned.

A child who has stocked up his mind with many clear and vivid impressions is prepared to visualize his more abstract lessons of the schoolroom—when he reads a book there will be pictures presented to him as he goes along. After he has seen a thing, he can the better understand references to it, just as the person who has traveled has always an intimate interest in the places he has seen. Abstract teaching material can always be enlivened by reference to actual happenings within the bounds of ordinary understanding.

The actual experience is the basis of all abstract thought. Observations such as the falling of the apple and the movement of steam in the tea kettle led to the discovery of the law of gravitation and of the steam engine. Many new inventions have been built up on these discoveries, but the fundamental basis was one borrowed from another man's experience; it was about this experience that the abstract theory was added.

Every new experience that the child can gain has an influence on his later life. The psychologists tell us that every experience records an indelible mark upon our sensitive minds, and that our present thoughts and actions are largely the outcome of antecedent acts or impressions. Many of these occurrences, apparently repressed from memory, are apt to resurrect themselves at any time. The importance of environment upon our early lives is bound up in this truth. The play life, which is the natural life in the tender years of childhood, is the way to acquire plentiful experiences; and play should be *organized* in order to give a proper and wholesome training to children from all walks of life. The wider the range of concrete experiences in the developing manhood or womanhood, the greater the power for clear image making, for judgment making, and for building up an individual philosophy; and, in consequence, the richer the intellect in maturity.

The leading educators all tell us that this is the proper order of education: from the concrete to the abstract; from the spontaneous, motor, and emotional life, to the reflective and symbolized life in which instinct plays but little part and in which action and feeling are almost entirely absent. Action and feeling should precede thought in the earlier emphasis of education. Motor play and sensory play should therefore precede intellectual play, and intellectual play should precede intellectual work.

A study of this order will go to show that next to actual experience in working out a thing for himself, a person can become most interested in—and find most meaning in—information that comes through the medium of story-telling, moving pictures, and picture books, where the mind is helped to form a picture almost as clear as though the things were actually present before him. Reading, too, can be made so entertaining as to be play; and many people, whose lives are barren in many ways, enrich their outlook by this artificial means. Reading is a prominent source of information in the child's life, for books are so readily accessible to-day. To prove most valuable and interesting, it should be gradually introduced, the type of story depending on the child's stage of development. During the age of imagination there are the stories of animals with fictitious personalities, Mother Goose rhymes, and fairy tales; during the individualistic stage, there are the stories of action—those of legendary heroes, of Indians, and of travel and adventure; during the loyalty age, stories of athletics and of college life, followed by the historical novel, the biographies of great men, and general fiction; and with maturity, there comes interest and pleasure, not only in fiction, but in topics of the day, in topics of a philosophical nature, and in technical contributions to the field of one's chosen life work.

In general, the information gathered from formal education has play interest accordingly or not as it is made to resemble things close to actual life. Arithmetic can be taught by counting out actual apples instead of using a textbook. It is not a mistake, as some educators insist, to try to make things easy for the children. To be sure, the children must learn to apply themselves to hard tasks as well as to easy ones, but they should not be made to do this prematurely. Children's minds are far from being adults' minds, and interest in abstract things will come in time when the child has accumulated sufficient facts with which to generalize. Education cannot approach the child from the same standpoint it does the adult. The child looks at the world from an entirely different outlook, and has to pass judgments in the light of an impoverished experience. The facts he possesses have meaning largely in their isolated selves. He does not have the power of restraining action that the adult possesses.

It is important and should be realized that all the study and application given to real life, or to subjects having much in common with real life, therefore will be of gain in the everyday life through a larger understanding of it; whereas abstract and unenlivened school

work will only be of use to those who happen to specialize along the particular line. From concrete general experience there can be gained some benefit to all lines of mental endeavor; but the abstract specialized study only exercises and develops a narrow and restricted ability. This is the reason why our schools and universities demand general cultural courses before allowing the chance to specialize. All individuals alike need the first type; only the few whose special aptitudes and talents are appealed to, will derive particular benefit from the second.

The Higher Mental Processes

The simplest way for the mind to receive impressions is through the senses. Exactly how the higher mental processes operate is not known, but the following description by Waddle shows the modern viewpoint: "Mind is a unit made of many differentiated sets of processes, mediating different functions. Sensing, perceiving, remembering, associating, attending, imagining, reasoning are not separate 'faculties,' but designate various more or less complex functions of the mind at work." As regards its growth in higher consciousness he continues "We cannot say that there is first a consciousness of simple sensations, then of a unification of sensations into perceptions, later the rise of images of memory, concepts, ideas, etc., and finally an organization of all into reasoning processes. Rather we shall have to say that all these processes and contents exist in germ in every modification of reaction from the beginning . . . all the mental functions are integral parts of a complex; they do not exist alone."

Some of these functions of the mind are exercised sooner than others because sensations must be received before there can be memory, and memory is needed in the imagining or reasoning processes, both of which associate new experiences with old ones.

Memory develops best when exercised in connection with the things that the child is most interested in. These are the things he will notice and get the clearest impressions of, as memory best functions when the mind *attends* to the situation at hand, and observes it closely. Children are not apt to pay any attention whatsoever, to uninteresting things, and even those that are interesting may be overlooked unless called to their notice. This is the province of the teacher, and is the one particular thing that has made the Scouting type of education by far the most successful in nature teaching.

Imagination produces mental images that are not entirely those

of the past. In this sense it is creative. Much of the child's fun in play is due to his imagination. Imaginative play means play with a purpose and is a sure sign of mental growth in the way of originality and inventiveness. Early in the child's life, imagination is largely the driving power behind his actions. He is free to play and his imagination determines what he shall do. Play is his art, which he engages in for art's sake only. His first stretches of imagination are connected with something he has actually seen or heard—he may make an engine out of his toy; build a house out of his blocks; chat with make-believe companions; take journeys; feed make-believe pets; and do other things in like manner. This play world is intensely real to him. He lacks wide experience to formulate opinions or make decisions so does not attempt to do so; instead he tends to imitate the adult world about him as much as possible. As his abstract thoughts come to multiply in number he transfers his originality to situations that are more dramatic in nature—to things that are unreal in the life about him, but which he tries to make real. For full growth, imagination needs the help of judgment and reason. Then it can function within the limits of practicality, and stamp its owner as the man of plentiful ideas, but of sound ones rather than visionary ones.

Reason develops as the child's stock of experience grows. At first it is very imperfect; the child when asked "Why?" will usually answer "Because!" But all the while this limited thinking power is becoming mature, accordingly as he acquires facts from his play life. His increasing power is demonstrated in the ability to distinguish between the real and unreal and to attach the proper value to imaginary conceptions—Santa Claus is no longer a red-clothed, white-whiskered gentleman climbing down impossible chimneys, but is understood to be a symbol of Christmas cheer. Later his reasoning is demonstrated in a better understanding of human nature; also by the ability to grasp the meaning of concrete situations, to profit by previous mistakes, and to formulate standards of conduct. In his games it is directly demonstrated by the increasing scope of strategy, the taking advantage of mental errors of his opponents, and the understanding of the need of observing the rules.

The adult man or woman, with a fully developed intellect, needing play only as a relaxation, has undergone a peculiar transformation from the infant who started life with merely physical instincts and wants and even then lacked any voluntary power of control over them. The developed product of civilization shows a

being whose almost every move is dictated by higher thought, which shapes and refines his course of action with but slight consideration of his animal instincts or desires. Civilized man submerges his primitive and elemental self. His very feelings are intellectualized. His aesthetic appreciations have risen far beyond the crude savage likings for bright colored trinkets and loud noises of drums. Instead, his emotions have been refined to be pleasures of thought as well as of action. If his education has been right, play will have been included as a factor. It will have started him out right, giving him source material from nature, and this is essential if one is later to feel and value the many finer sentiments of nature appreciation that are found in art and literature as interpreted by master minds. It will have given him association with other children in play; and, rightly directed, this will have contributed to the proper appreciation of the beautiful in ideals of human conduct. The mental images of justice, truth, religion, etc., will be personified for him and invested with living beauty.

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CHAPTER XVI

PLAY AND CHARACTER FORMATION

The previous chapters have discussed the physical and mental benefits arising from properly conducted play, and we now come to the third phase of man's three-fold nature—the moral. Some people have a very narrow viewpoint of man's moral development or character. They consider it in its relation to vice only. However, a much broader interpretation is involved. It includes also such positive qualities as courage and perseverance; and it includes still further such unselfish qualities as kindness, courtesy, obedience, co-operation, and loyalty.

Character is hard to define; but in general it is found expressed in all the reactions which a person makes to the situations of his environment; it implies personal self-mastery, and a rigid respect for the rights of others. Character is the power of formulating and adhering to right rules of conduct. Without character, all our finer thoughts and feelings would remain within us, without any translation to a worthy deed.

Importance of Character

Character is the keystone of the three-fold man. A mental and physical composite that prophesies brilliant success in life may be entirely ruined if accompanied by moral laxity or weakness. A wonderful physique and brilliant intellect are a positive detriment to society if associated with an unstable or dissolute character. The master criminal is an example of brilliant genius gone astray through lack of character, and used to menace society instead of to better it.

Because health and knowledge without moral stamina are of little use, and may even be detrimental, to society, many people place character as the highest objective to strive for in education. They point out that a strong character will overcome the obstacles presented by a weak or fatigued body or mind and will be even stronger after the victory, and cite the example of Theodore Roose-

vult who overcame physical weakness through sheer strength of will. The reader, however, must not think that the placing of so high an estimate upon the value of character means that the importance of mental and physical development should be belittled. Character is at its best when allied with a healthy body and mind. Physical fitness and mental vigor unconsciously tend to produce the moral qualities of optimism and good fellowship and of aggressiveness and self-confidence.

The value of play in the promotion of character development has long been recognized by the foremost educators. In ancient times Plato and Quintilian expressed their convictions on this aspect of play; and in early modern times, Locke, Basedow, Guts Muths, and others, also credited plays and games with possessing moral potentiality. In 1840 Arnold, an English headmaster at Rugby, deliberately introduced play and athletics, with special emphasis upon team games, into his school curriculum as subjects more important for their moral values than for health and recreation. His example has been followed by the other private schools of England.

In America we find the advertisements of our best private schools for both sexes featuring the development of strong character through the ample opportunities offered for sports of all kinds. Their facilities are, on the whole, much more extensive than those available in our public schools, but the latter are gradually overcoming this handicap. In each type of school, the emphasis upon building character through play activities is increasing. This new appreciation of play is shown by a questionnaire sent to the superintendents and principals of all the cities in Michigan. One of the questions was: "What subject in the curriculum has the most influence from the moral standpoint?"—and the overwhelming answer was "Play and Athletics." Certainly outside of the study of language, there is no subject so universal in value. This value, universal in extent and content both, accounts for the fact that play is becoming a required rather than an elective subject to-day.

The Process of Character Development

Character is primarily based upon the instincts and emotions. Man's conduct is more dependent upon feeling than upon thought, and so it is his desires and emotions that most powerfully influence his acts. Since the most fundamental instincts and emotions require muscular activity for their expression, it follows that play, which pro-

vides for this natural expression, must be one of the strongest factors in the development of character. The worth of any activity in the promotion of the moral qualities is determined chiefly by the nature of the instincts and emotions exercised.

When a given course of behavior is practiced repeatedly there gradually develops a tendency to follow this line of behavior more readily, and we have habit developed. Just as this is true in the individual, so we have racial habits in the sense that we respond instinctively and easily to the types of behavior that have been repeatedly practiced by our ancestors. Consequently, the easiest habits to build up in the individual are those which have a foundation rich in emotional and instinctive content.

The primary instincts and emotional tendencies of each individual are hereditary, but the effects upon them of environment and, later in life, of intellect, are very important. The characters of the persons with whom the child's environment places him are certain to be reflected in him, for the child's instinct of imitation is very strong. The acts, precepts, suggestions, and chance conversations of his elders are all of major importance to him and practically none of these escape his notice.

The fact that the inherited instincts and emotions can be moulded, forms the basis of procedure in character formation. The intelligent teacher or parent can so encourage and control the native tendencies of play, curiosity, sense-gratification, self-assertion, suggestibility, desire for approval, etc., that each will assume its proper importance. This regulation of the desires, thoughts, and acts of the child gradually forms the habits of conduct which determine his moral worth.

The amount and character of the restraints imposed deserve careful consideration in each individual case. A lack of external restraint tends to produce the unsocial and selfish individual while too much restriction is likely so to break the will that all initiative is lost. Natural spontaneity and imagination should not be suppressed but rather directed along constructive channels. It is far easier and better to overcome a bad habit indirectly, by replacing it with a good one, than to try to suppress the habit directly and thereby focus the attention upon it. In the same way, on a large scale, the habits of a whole people are better established by furnishing wholesome activities than by trying to prohibit the bad ones.

The way in which moral training is best applied will vary according to the child's age and corresponding play tendencies. William

McDougall in his "Social Psychology" distinguishes certain steps in character building. He states "We may roughly distinguish four levels of conduct, successive stages, each of which must be traversed by every individual before he can attain the next higher stage. These are (1) the stage of instinctive behavior modified only by the influence of the pains and pleasures that are incidentally experienced in the course of instinctive activities; (2) the stage in which the operation of the instinctive impulses is modified by the influence of rewards and punishments administered more or less systematically by the social environment; (3) the stage in which conduct is controlled in the main by the anticipation of social praise and blame; (4) the highest stage, in which conduct is regulated by an ideal of conduct that enables a man to act in the way that seems to him right regardless of the praise or blame of his immediate social environment."

The gradual passage from the one level to the other is attended by the growth of self-consciousness, sentiment, and character.

First Level

In the lowest level there is no sense of right or wrong. Instinctive impulses are the sources of action. The child learns that certain acts have pleasant results while others produce pain or discomfort; and in this way his conduct becomes somewhat regulated. He bumps his head and learns to become more careful. As he gradually adjusts himself to these fundamental laws of Nature, self-control and judgment begin to be exercised.

Second Level

The second stage shows the individual profiting by the experience gained while following his natural impulses. He has experimented with his environment and understands the consequences of bumps, burns, and falls, and has developed definite interests and impulses. However, as his scope of action extends itself, it brings in a new discipline—that of his parents and teachers. He finds that he must satisfy an adult world. He is too young to understand the adult standards and so he does not question them; rather he imitates them. His actions are still elemental but they please or displease others as well as himself. To his own immediate satisfaction or pain in the act, there is added now another satisfaction or pain in the praise or reproof of his elders, as the case may be. It is from this fact that praise and censure derive their importance in moral training. Undesirable acts should be followed by an impressive evidence of dis-

approval, and what is fully as important, though more frequently neglected, worthy acts should be suitably commended. The agreeable result tends to make a process more firmly fixed and a habit formed; but on the other hand the effect of the unpleasant result is to create a tendency to inhibit the repetition of that act when a similar situation again arises, and the development of the habit is therefore prevented or weakened.

It is this adult approval and disapproval that first shapes the child's idea of himself. As this development of the self expands, the child tends to become consciously individualistic. Each child is his own leader, and strives unrelatedly to win. He goes through a process of trying himself out and the resultant failures and successes determine the amount of self-assertiveness that he develops. In this process of finding for himself self-confidence and initiative, proper encouragement and assistance by an older person is necessary.

As the years of adolescence approach, and the reasoning powers of the child grow stronger, the discipline of mere restraint and coerced obedience must be gradually modified. Many of the previous "don't's" must be explained and the child's cooperation must be enlisted in the adherence to a progressively developing moral code. If unexplained discipline is too long enforced, the strength of character will not be developed; either the child will rebel or his independent spirit will be broken.

Third Level

Thus far, the results of instructive experiments and the deference to authority have largely regulated the developing habits of conduct, but now a new motive appears, and with it the third level is reached. To his own instinctive gratification, and to the satisfaction in adult approval, there is added now a satisfaction in social approval—that of his own circle of associates. The individual now wants a share in setting the standards of conduct by which he shall abide; and when they are set, he desires that he shall be praised for conforming to them. His life becomes intimately blended with that of the members of the "gang," and later the "team." This new social conduct becomes regulated by the approval and disapproval of the group and the teacher can best regulate the conduct of the individual through wise supervision of the group. During this period, that of adolescence, the emotions are at the height of their influence and it is at this time that character, which is most closely associated with the

emotions, is chiefly developed. The adult who has secured the approval and confidence of a group of adolescent boys or girls has an opportunity for the development of morals that cannot be over-emphasized. The coach of a team will, by the standards of sportsmanship which he emphasizes and exemplifies, play a large part in determining the conduct of the members of that team in their adult life.

This third step has shown us conduct regulated by public opinion in the shape of the social group of which the individual is a member and an equal. It represents a higher stage of moral conduct than that which simply abides by laws through fear of punishment. But not yet has the highest type of character been shown. It is possible for the individual to go contrary to the will of his group without being found out. Therefore it is necessary that there be a will even higher than one's fellows' praise and blame.

Fourth Level

To the three satisfactions that have already been mentioned, there may now be added a fourth one: that of one's own conscience, or own spiritual approval. The individual establishes a moral code for himself that is even higher than that found in his dealings with the group. His maturing reason in the light of actual experience reveals to him the fallibility of human conduct. The gang law is not sufficient; it may be broken and no one the wiser. Each member must have a law unto himself; one that can never escape judgment. This recognition of standards even higher than that of the group means that the individual may have to act contrary to the will of the group if he is to be true to himself. The teacher's regulation of conduct has largely passed; and the individual has taken his character into his own hands. The inspiration now comes from the lives of great men and women—great in the sense that they have lived true to their ideals. Abraham Lincoln, one of the greatest moral characters of history, gives perfect expression to this ideal of conduct in his words "I am not bound to win, but I am bound to be true. I am not bound to succeed, but I am bound to live up to what light I have. I must stand with anybody that stands right; stand with him while he is right and part with him when he goes wrong."

PLAY'S INFLUENCE ON THE DIFFERENT TRAITS OF CHARACTER

The different qualities of character appear in a fairly well defined sequence as the child develops. In general, they may be divided into three main types according to the order of their appearance and growth, as follows:

(1) The individualistic qualities, or those pertaining to personal conduct independent of others.

(2) The social qualities, or those which are concerned with the individual as a member of a group.

(3) The civic qualities, or those involving the attitude of the individual toward organized society.

Of course, the development of these three types of qualities will somewhat overlap, but their sequence should be remembered in attempting to adapt the instruction to the age and capacity of the child. The opportunity to promote each type will gradually present itself in any normal child and the teacher must realize what qualities can be emphasized.

Under these types may be classified the many traits such as self-reliance, self-control, cooperation, and the like, that are referred to separately as being derived from play and athletics. The tendency has been to assume that the meaning of these qualities is understood by everyone and therefore to treat them in a superficial way. On the contrary, however, an abstract term of this type gives merely a vague impression unless associated with a concrete example. Therefore, for the benefit of the student, it seems advisable to discuss each trait as a specific objective.

Play Develops the Individualistic Qualities

The individualistic group involves those qualities necessary for the success of the individual in competition and life—courage, determination, enthusiasm, etc. They are most primitive in the race and likewise appear first in the child. No encouragement by parent or teacher is necessary to bring them out, but proper control and direction is needed if the desirable qualities of this type are to be fostered and the undesirable ones discouraged. Without direction the development of the individualistic qualities is apt to produce a narrow-minded selfish person who is cruelly unmindful of the welfare of others. Wise direction in home, school, and playground is needed to temper this extreme individualism.

Courage

This is the one moral quality that a person prides himself on more than all others. The tradition of valor is one that has survived as a result of the many centuries during which man had to fight for his life and that of his family. Early tribes, knowing that upon the bravery of its members depended self-preservation, reared their young in an atmosphere where visible bravery was a part of everyday bearing and demeanor. The brave have always been honored. During the days of chivalry the troubadours sang of deeds of valor. To-day it is the same: witness the homage paid to the wearer of the Croix De Guerre, the Distinguished Service Cross, or Congressional Medal; or to the person who has won the Carnegie medal for a brave act in time of peace.

Environment and tradition play a large part in the ease with which a person's courage is made apparent. The races that have had to struggle hard against enemies or that have found nature unfavorable to an easy existence—the Spartan and Highland Scot, for example—praise bravery and fortitude as the first virtues, while other peoples, living in the midst of plenty and ease, conceive of industry and thrift as qualities needed every day, while bravery is a hidden quality that is shown on special occasions. It should be clear that the games and contests of to-day furnish the substitute for war and other primitive hardships and offer the opportunity for the preservation of the fighting virtues.

Bravery is most often associated in our minds with a fight against odds. One of the greatest heroes of history was the Trojan Hector who did not refuse the challenge of Achilles, even though he realized that he was meeting an invincible foe. The three hundred Spartans at Thermopylae, the fight of Horatius at the Bridge, the charge of the Light Brigade, "the immortal 600," David Crockett at the Alamo—all these are examples of deeds of unflinching service to one's ideals that have stirred mankind over and over. All courage is not physical, as the life of Christ goes to show. We admire Abraham Lincoln because of his fixed purpose in choosing the harder thing through knowing that he was in the right.

The competitive types of play give plenty of opportunity to acquire the physical courage that is found when inferior size and physique is battered and punished, and yet does not flinch or whimper; the courage of spirit, which dares to stand by the right, and which redoubles its efforts, instead of abating them, when reverses come. The important thing is that just as the great deeds

of history have given inspiration to other men, so do the remembrances of boyhood deeds, even though rendered in a losing cause, remain in the consciousness to inspire the battle for ideals or principles in later life.

Ingenuity

Ingenuity is the ability to invent, contrive, or originate. This is another asset needed for winning, whether the activity be play, business competition, professional life, or war.

Ingenuity in games is most often required for strategy, which is the ability to outwit the opponents and gain advantage to make up for the lack of size or numbers. The school boy is eager for such stories as that of the crafty Ulysses and his trick of the wooden horse; how he opened the gates of Troy to the besiegers after they had tried for ten years to capture the city. Masters of warfare like Hannibal, Napoleon, and Washington had to depend upon ingenious strategy to get them out of tight places and achieve success against great odds. The trick plays of football players, the intricate schemes of offense and defense invented by paid coaches, and the shrewd moves of financial magnates are examples of strategy—a quality admired by the American public.

The ability to outwit the opponents is very praiseworthy as long as it is within the rules and the spirit of fair play. Too often players attempt to gain unfair advantage through trickery that is contrary to rules of the game, and the opponent then has no chance to anticipate the play.

Ingenuity in outwitting an opponent is not the only kind of ingenuity that life demands nor the only kind developed in play. Ingenuity in devising new ways of doing things is just as interesting and even more useful. The players who invented the crouching start for running, the way to curve a ball, the spiral pass and spiral punt with the Rugby football, and the better forms or styles of performing the different jumps, vaults, and throws, made a contribution which will be a help to players as long as play exists. Play leaders who know the games well can often improve them and make them fit into unusual places; three deep, for example, which is usually played in a circle, is sometimes played in a long line, so that it can be used in a narrow room or alley; baseball, which requires about two acres of ground, is modified to make "playground ball," played on a quarter of an acre. Entirely new games can be invented to secure certain types of training and to fit into certain spaces. Basket ball and volley ball, now

used the world over, were invented only a few years ago as winter games to be played in a gymnasium. New exercises and games have been devised as a result of the invention of new types of apparatus and equipment. In the world of industry, inventions have altogether changed the manner in which civilized people live, and new inventions are continually making more changes.

Self-Initiative

One function of school athletics is to develop initiative and a capacity for leadership, and the possessor of these qualities will find them of permanent value in meeting the tests of manhood.

Initiative is a positive virtue. It is the power of taking action on one's own responsibility and therefore succeeding when thrown upon one's own resources. It does not belong to the person who always awaits helplessly the trend of events and who drifts with the current. Responsibility is entrusted only to those who have initiative, for the business executive on a vacation wants to know that his subordinate can go ahead alone and carry things on in his absence.

Lack of freedom results in lack of initiative. This is noticeable in the lessons of the great war. The German soldiers, used to being controlled by an iron discipline, proved efficient and well-nigh invincible when being capably led and when winning; but when being beaten, or without a strong leader, their zest in the contest quickly gave out and they were not nearly so capable as the Canadian and American soldiers whose whole life training had been to act in the emergency, to assume self-leadership, and to keep on doing their own part in the game, with or without direction from superiors. Athletic teams in America that are composed largely of foreign elements from autocratic countries show this lack of initiative, also a dependence upon a rigid leadership. They play wonderfully as a unit when winning, but become disorganized easily if losing; they play better before home crowds than when away; and the players quarrel among themselves to a ridiculous degree when the coach's authority is not present with them.

Decision

Decision is a preparatory step to self-initiative—the one is the power of deciding and the other the power of putting decision into action. Both traits are forceful. Decision has a broader meaning than merely making up one's mind or opinion. It means that the individual is confronted with a choice of courses to follow,

and often this choice must be determined with quickness, vigor, and courage.

The team game confronts the boy or girl with choice. Up to the age of competitive play the child's actions have been largely motivated by suggestion, usually in the form of imitation. But the baseball game requires that the youth make a quick and firm choice in the midst of a rapidly shifting state of affairs. He cannot hesitate. He has the ball. Shall he throw it to first base to put out the batter, or shall he try to get the runner at home plate? This choice is made still more difficult because one never knows just what the opponent is going to do. The player who cannot decide quickly in such a situation fails in the eyes of his teammates, and probably loses his place on the team. If a boy makes the team, it is an indication that he is developing the decisiveness that is needed in the emergencies of later life.

Perseverance

Perseverance as a moral quality carries the same impression that endurance does as a physical quality—that of long continued effort with success depending upon its maintenance.

History furnishes us with an abundance of material with respect to men of perseverance. Demosthenes stuttered and stammered, but he persisted in becoming an orator and his continued persistence made him one. Augustus Caesar was physically a weakling but a lifetime of continued effort made him a man of iron constitution by the time that he assumed the title of Emperor. It is not too much to say that the United States is an English speaking country only because the Pilgrims stayed in New England—in the face of certain death for many—when they could have taken the boat back to England after the first harsh and miserable winter.

There are too many people who plan things with an excess of enthusiasm and make a great impression for the moment; but their interest soon wanes and their plans disappear in thin air. The athletic team that makes ambitious plans and then disbands after the first setback is another too frequent occurrence.

Many types of play not only furnish the boy with opportunity for developing perseverance but they teach him convincingly that continued effort always brings a degree of success. One boy excels in the handspring; his playmates looking on and envying him, sense that they have not practiced as diligently. The runner who perseveres when tired wins over the opponent of less stamina. The ac-

quiring of good athletic form also needs perseverance; the champion shot putter must be able to put all the muscles of the back, shoulders, and legs into the throw; the champion hurdler must be able to take a certain number of steps between the hurdles so that he will not lose his stride for the jump; the champion batter must hit many balls so as to train his eye and time his swing. In gymnastics the Germans master wonderful feats on the bars through patient persistence, and the quality that makes them successful in this instance, makes for precision and exactness in all other fields. The English develop form in their various games, but with this form they also acquire the tenacious spirit for which they are known the world over.

Determination

Determination is more than decision; it involves also the idea that one will persevere in carrying out a decision regardless of obstacles. The attitude of determination and will power is often seen when a team runs onto the playing field; and the "do or die" spirit of the players, their straining as though nothing can hold them back announces to all spectators, friend and foe alike, that here is a team that intends to win.

No quality is more important in the battle of life than determination. It is the essence of leadership, for one man's will power will impart a psychological effect to the crowd. We expect things to be done by the individual who says, "I will" instead of "I wish."

The boy who wills to make the team, who wills to perfect his playing in every possible respect, who determines to out-race or out-play his opponent, and who denies himself certain pleasures in order that he may have a stronger body, more active brain, and clearer eye, will later have the same determination to outstrip others and be at the top in his business or professional life.

Self-Reliance

Self-reliance comes with one's consciousness of, and confidence in, his own individual ability and worth. In games the individual learns by experience his own powers as against the powers of others. The inexperienced player has to go through this lesson, but after he has been pitted against others again and again, his nervousness wears away. He begins to respect his own prowess and finds that other players whom he thought invincible are nevertheless fallible. In baseball the small boy who shivered with anxiety and fear when playing on sandlots, will grow into the college player who will be

oblivious both to large crowds and to the fear that he may miss the ball and lose the game.

Confidence in one's self is a big asset in life. Many good ideas have been stifled because the possessor of them was afraid that he would meet with ridicule. In the same way, the golden opportunity of a big job has been lost because one was not sure of his ability to tackle it and make good in it. If one lacks confidence in himself, it is easy to see why other people cannot be expected to place confidence in him.

Self-Control

The player must learn to control his temper under trying situations. His temperament must be trained in the self-discipline necessary to sustain the contact and violence that come in rugged sports. The player who fails to rule his own spirit will play into the hands of the opponents; his mind acts blindly in the emergency and he is thinking of revenge when his thoughts should be centered entirely on the strategy of the game as it progresses. A hasty act may lead to penalty, or possibly his own removal from the game; in either event not only he, but the team as well, suffers. The boy who loses his temper and commits an unsportsmanlike act will later feel regret when he finds himself condemned by other players whose respect and approval he desires, and such a lesson will have a lasting effect in curbing any hasty act.

Self-control also consists in the ability to keep cool in an emergency. The Boy Scout is trained to give help when an accident occurs—to give calmly and coolly of his strength and energy in assisting those who are in need. Time is precious and self-possession conserves it. Self-control is largely a matter of will-power, confidence, and habit. The habit is made by constant training in a process. This training is forcefully given in the games of youth where emergencies of every description are endlessly arising. The youth, meeting these over and over again, is developing a habit that will serve him in time of need throughout life.

Self-Restraint

Self-restraint differs from self-control and determination, two other terms with which it is often confused. The possession of self-restraint means that the person has the ability to fight back an impulse to do a certain thing, whereas the possession of self-control implies more: it means also that one has the ability to keep possession

of his normal faculties in time of great emotional stress—to keep level-headed and act in a rational manner. When compared with determination, it is seen that self-restraint requires inhibition and a defensive manner; whereas determination, though it may be of this type, also denotes a positive courage, such as the “will to make the team.”

There is a certain amount of discipline in self-restraint. The army authorities at West Point favor soccer in the training of their cadets because of the rule that players may not use their hands in playing the ball. The American youth has the instinct to play a ball with his hands instead of his feet, and it takes a lot of holding back to “head the ball,” or let it hit the body, instead of catching it. The act of self-restraint is practiced over and over in play. It is also practiced in other ways; as, when the child fights back the temptation to play unfair when an advantage could be gained by doing so; and again, when the player practices a life of self-restraint in the way of denying himself personal pleasures such as late dancing, smoking, and the eating of rich foods and pastries, which are detrimental to his athletic ability.

Thoroughness

This is complete action without omission. Thoroughness means persistent effort applied to all details of the game, and all habits of life, and its meaning invokes the thought of drudgery as well. Being thorough means that the housewife sweeps the corners as well as the center of the room; that the little child picks up *all* of his toys and puts them away when he is through playing; that the girl at the piano practices the scales as well as the pretty melody. Thoroughness enters into the spirit of the playground. The aspiring player must practice at many of the routine things if he is to perfect himself in all ways; and the chances are that the things he must practice most are the things he likes to do the least.

Aggressiveness

Aggressiveness means vigorous action following upon decision. Like many of the other individualistic qualities this is valuable only as the right kinds of aims are sought. It is the opposite of passiveness. The aggressor always forces the battle whether it be a sporting challenge, financial drive, or business deal. Because games demand action, they tend to cultivate this spirit; the timid child gradually becomes bolder as he learns his part in the game. Aggres-

siveness demands self-confidence. The aggressive spirit is most valuable to social progress because it is needed to awaken the public when a spirit of apathy prevails. It is all the more valuable when quick action is demanded. The aggressive individual, because he does produce action quickly, is apt to be inconsiderate of people who are in his way, and therefore tact is a quality that this type of person needs to cultivate in himself in so far as it is possible.

Ambition

Ambition means the desire to advance oneself: to achieve superiority, power, and honor. For this reason it also means dissatisfaction, for the ambitious person is not content with his present status. Personal ambition is to be encouraged in so far as it seeks worthy attainment. One person may be ambitious merely to satisfy a selfish love of domination; another may seek power altruistically and forgetful of self, sincerely hoping to make his talents useful to others. The influence of the playground must crush the type of ambition that seeks to be the bully; and instead, foster a merging of individual and team ambition, so that the desire for self-improvement as a player is also considerate of added chance for team success.

Enthusiasm

Enthusiasm is a quality of emotion which denotes eagerness for the success of a definite cause. It differs from optimism by focusing itself upon a certain undertaking and intensifying the ordinary interest one would have in it. Such an attitude is valuable in teacher and child alike for it means the opposite of sluggishness, and that interest and full attention are being given to the object at hand. Enthusiasm is also of a contagious nature, so that one individual may spread it among an entire group. One who aspires to leadership must possess it.

Reliability

Reliability is a broad term covering truthfulness, honesty, persistence, and thoroughness. It means that the person can be depended upon; that he is trustworthy—he will be present when he has promised; he will do what he has said he will do; he will perform his service well. In another sense the word implies an agreement, and a living up to the standard that one is capable of and which others expect of him. For this reason it is an all important quality in the business world; the trade mark of reliability is the very best that a

firm can offer. Likewise in play the boy or girl may be known as reliable. Play gives a training that tends to form habits of reliability. The team can only be successful when its members can be counted on to attend the practices, observe training, learn the rules, follow instructions, register for eligibility, and be present when the game is played. Some playgrounds consider reliability so important a factor that they include it in the actual scoring of games.

Play Develops the Social Qualities

The social qualities are those which provide for proper relationships between the child and his associates, and which include the simple moral virtues of the home and other primary groups. They begin to develop as soon as the first playmate enters the child's life. Usually the normal gregarious instinct of the child will lead it to form the proper associations to develop the qualities—kindness, honesty, generosity, etc.—which belong to this division; but occasionally it is necessary to encourage the timid to join the activities of others. Even the engaging in elementary games means that the child is subjecting himself to a social discipline. True, he may be playing for himself, but his conduct is modified. He must comply with the rules of the game (a social institution) and he must make himself agreeable if he is to be a popular playmate.

We are all familiar with the concepts of kindness, honesty, justice, friendliness, generosity, thoughtfulness, courtesy, service, and many others which the world of play has grown to consider as synonymous with the terms fair play and sportsmanship. In ordinary usage these terms are often used interchangeably, but this is a mistaken notion. Sportsmanship is the larger term—it includes fair play, which is limited to a keeping within the letter and spirit of the rules. Fair play involves the two assets of honesty and justice, but sportsmanship goes further in bringing in all the refined expressions of social spirit: such as chivalrous consideration of a worthy opponent during actual play, and also in winning or in losing; hospitality apart from the playing field; and many other things that may be made a part of the game even though not written into the rules. Sportsmanship may be carried into the rules of business competition and even of war.

These primary ideals that have been discussed are the same as those which underlie the teachings of Christianity: the religion of the "Golden Rule"—"Do unto others as you would have them do unto

you"; the religion under which the world has progressed steadily even though there have been temporary setbacks into barbarism. Democracy is Christianity in government; it extends these human virtues of the family life to the life of the larger community in the attempt to humanize the structure of society. These two institutions of Christianity and Democracy have tended to break down the rule of force and of intolerance. They can be credited with the rise of women to an equal place with man, the abolition of slavery, and with the recognition that all men are born equal. To-day there is the struggle going on to overthrow autocratic methods in industry. The result is that industry is being placed more and more on a cooperative basis. As a tribute to the importance of play and recreation in instilling the social ideas into employees, it is interesting to note the many industrially-owned athletic fields, gymnasiums, rest rooms, etc. The field of industry is the one that needs most liberalizing now; for although many people are satisfied with their freedom of person and thought and kindred privileges, they are nevertheless dissatisfied with the inequalities of economic returns.

The brotherly ideals grow as an evolution. We may see many reasons to be pessimistic about the conditions of life as they exist to-day, but one should stop to think how far we have progressed from barbarism. The unsocial idea of the survival of the fittest has vanished, and instead of following the ancient custom of abandoning the weak infant to die, or of neglecting the sick, we have all the skill of modern science applied to make these beings well. Many of our hospitals are free. Many are the other philanthropies—the institutions for the feeble-minded, the delinquent, the poor; and the many drives carried on to allay suffering.

In play there is continual chance for expression of all the ideals of sportsmanship. The play teacher can bring the lesson home by making use of the actual happenings in the game to illustrate the principle being advocated. Because these ideals are so well known there is no need of taking each of them singly and discussing it from the standpoint of its transfer from experience in play to use in the mature life. Instead, an example of the occurrence in play will be shown, leaving the reader to picture the application to other things. There may be some educators who disagree with the idea of transfer of power of a lesson learned from one activity over to a different one, in the way that they differ with the notion that algebra is a good subject because the mental discipline gained is transferred to use in other fields of knowledge. But all psychologists do agree that

transfer of power is possible from a like subject to a like subject; even though there may not be transfer from algebra to history. Certainly then, transfer from play is possible, for the play of the child is the work of the man, and this is identity rather than transfer.

Kindness

Kindness is sympathy in action. A skilled player helps a weaker child to become more efficient—this is kindness. Another example is that of the boy or girl who is willing to help do a comrade's share when the latter is sick or has a good excuse for not being present. Such instances come up frequently on hiking or camping trips. Kindness to birds and animals should also be encouraged.

Unselfishness

Unselfishness is the giving up of one's own individual desires or comfort in order that others may be benefited. The playground gives plenty of opportunity to develop this quality. Here the child cannot have his own way because there are others to be considered. An unselfish habit is being developed when the boy in scrub batting practice takes his place in the field and helps chase the ball for other batters.

Friendliness

If a friendly spirit pervades a group there can be play; and, vice versa, there can be no play if the spirit is a hostile one. Cooperation follows in the wake of a mutual, friendly impulse. The play leader should check the forward, obstinate, selfish children, help them to become good comrades, and at the same time try to encourage the backward and diffident children and draw them into the game. The strongest friendships of life are apt to be those that boys and girls have formed when playing together on the team.

Truthfulness

Truthfulness is outspoken regard for justice. It is a fundamental quality. Truthful speech is the child's first test of honesty. It is a preliminary step to loyalty. For this reason the gang and the game demand truthful dealings among the members, and their verdict is impressive when this requirement is broken. The Boy Scout is trusted upon his honor, and this is far more binding upon him than the fear of parental or school discipline would be. The

pledge of honor pledges his self-respect at the same time. The duty of the playground is to extend this sense of honor so that it will reach out beyond the gang and hold elsewhere.

Justice

Good examples of justice come up every day on the playground. It is through the influence of this ideal as taught by efficient directors that larger children will await their turns at the swing or other popular piece of apparatus, instead of roughly pushing the weaker ones aside, as is apt to be the case on the unsupervised playground. Justice means that everyone receives the reward or punishment that is his due.

Honesty

Honesty is the compliance with the rules and standards of fair play. A game that is won through cheating or falsifying will never give the satisfaction that a game won on its merits will do. That is one punishment. Playing a "ringer" is dishonest. Some teams are taught to try to injure a star player of the other side. As our ethics of fair play now exist we are too apt to think as the ancient Spartans did when they sent out their boys to steal, that the evil does not exist in the act itself but rather in being caught in the act. If this is to be the spirit of play, why the inconsistency of having rules, wherein the side which lives up to them is the loser?

Thoughtfulness

This is illustrated at a game between two schools, when one group rises and stands in respect while the other is singing its school song. Among little children thoughtfulness is fostered by seeing that certain children are not favored too much, as is apt to happen in "choosing games," where the favorite will get too many chances unless consideration is exercised in the dropping of the handkerchief or other signal of choice.

Generosity

This quality implies the giving beyond that which is required or expected. An example is as follows: there is on record the actual case of a Canadian soccer team that was much too strong for the American college team sent to play them. Instead of humiliating the weaker players by running up as large a score as possible, the home

team pointed out the mistakes of the American boys, and, as the game went on, gave them many helpful suggestions.

Courtesy

There is plenty of opportunity to display the many courtesies of life when a visiting team comes on the playground. Often the visitors will want to ask questions, or have preliminary practice, or visit certain spots of interest in the neighborhood. The home children can help to send all strangers away with the feeling that they want to reciprocate the favors when the chance is offered.

Service

Service is the willing contribution of one's best abilities at all times. Every child should have the innate pride to want to do his part without needing to be prompted. Service may be rendered not only in the cause of the game, but by keeping the playground orderly, and one's own personal appearance neat as well.

Tolerance

Tolerance goes beyond the spirit of friendliness in bringing together unlike elements. The spirit of tolerance is shown at its best at a social center when peoples of all races and creeds mingle together, with the friendly purpose that all have in common strong enough to offset all other antipathies there may be. Foreign recreation leaders say that play is breaking down the caste barriers in India. During the early part of the war, the authorities had to put a stop to the playing of games between the English and German soldiers between the trenches, for it was found that the play broke down the spirit of enmity.

Sociability

Much of one's success and pleasure in life is due to the ability to meet easily and enjoyably with other people, to be at home when thrown into association with people outside of one's ordinary circle of acquaintances. With this type of disposition as an asset, many persons make a success with only an indifferent knowledge of their profession; without this easy manner a person must have a knowledge of the subject that is far above the average in order to offset the advantage that his rival's personal magnetism has endowed him with. Play develops the friendly spirit. The social intercourse that is

brought about tends to blot out any self-consciousness that there may be, and to check the tendency which the solitary child has to become spoiled through introspection and liberty to satisfy any chance whim. The association with many other kinds of temperament is bound to make one more liberal and broadminded, just as the city man is less narrow in his views than the man from an isolated community, who is apt to be designated as "provincial." The chance that the English schools offer for comradeship and play does help in the producing of fine young men, who have a good understanding of other men, and who are endowed with a capacity for leadership and a sense of justice that makes them excellent administrators in the colonies and for Britain herself in times of crisis. In our own schools it is certain that book knowledge alone does not make for success. Many students fail after leaving college for the reason that they have neglected the important education of meeting and dealing with other people. Play and participation in other social activities of the school gives a training in human nature and a good preparation for success in the practical affairs of life.

Conclusion

The social ideals are taught the average individual from childhood. The teaching should be carried on unceasingly at home, in school, and at play. The supervised playground has assumed a good share of the responsibility.

It is all important that the men and women in charge of the playground be altruistic in spirit, and of the type of leadership that commands respect and emulation on the part of the child. There is one big advantage to start with in the teaching of such ideals as we have been discussing. We know from a study of heredity that human nature is practically the same as at the dawn of history; also we know from a study of society that human nature has at some time or other adjusted itself to almost every conceivable form of social custom. With such a capacity for adjustment found in the child, the important thing is that the environment, which includes the teacher, be the proper one. The effect of properly encouraging the social qualities is well shown by the good sportsmanship of the school athletic teams from the Far East: from China, Japan, and the Philippines. These Oriental countries have had supervised play from the very beginning—the games have been learned under such close supervision that the behavior of both the teams and crowds is good; losing is not taken so hard, because the

element of winning has not been so greatly emphasized. American teachers face a more difficult problem, because the play movement, when once started, got under such momentum as to pass beyond control and many wrong ideals became the guiding ones. To-day these must be changed. The teacher is the main instrument. Sportsmanship should be considered more vital than winning. It should be considered in the grading of points for athletic ability. Certain it is that the sympathetic and social sides of the child should be developed, as it can be foreseen that without them, the development of such qualities as initiative, courage, determination, etc., might be disastrous.

In the inculcating of habits of sportsmanship a few practical things should be noted. In the first place, there is the importance of making the players acquainted with the rules of the game, for ignorance of the rules leads to unfair play by one side and the other side tries to retaliate. Secondly, the officials should be competent, for their mistakes arouse ill feeling and the defeated team will not be satisfied that it has been beaten by better play.

Play Develops the Civic Qualities

The civic qualities are those which deal with organized society and its institutions. They overlap the social qualities very closely, but do not develop until later when the age of reason is well advanced. It is not until after the child has been taught his social obligations to a group in which the members are immediately present with him, that he can be taught a correct attitude towards the more complex groups of society. An ability to think in the abstract is required, for the youth (as he is now) must become loyal to ideals. The society of which he now realizes himself to be a part, is larger than his own immediate environment. Therefore, he must visualize it and account for his relations to it. The team games expand the qualities which were learned as applying to one's conduct and attitude toward the "gang." Team action is larger than individual action. Previously the individual mapped out his own actions in accordance with the rules of the game; but now he must abide by a larger will—that of the group.

Loyalty

Loyalty is a trait as old as human history. It demands the spirit of self-sacrifice, of unity in ideals, and of public spirit and pride. In

primitive times it was considered the most important of all tribal virtues. Even an enemy despises the traitor. Loyalty makes the individual member of a team feel that the organization is bigger and greater than his own personal self. It includes good faith—deception among team mates would disintegrate the whole; service—everyone must do his bit, and sacrifice any purely personal desires; and kindness—for there must be encouragement to the weaker members of the team, and there are mistakes to be condoned.

The more fully organized the team, the more powerful is the feeling of loyalty. This spirit is carried beyond the players themselves. The competitive sports of school bring about a loyal feeling that is commonly called "school spirit," and it is analogous to the patriotism of a nation at war. For this reason the courage and devotion of the player for his school clothe him in the glamour and sentiment of the patriot at war; the student body follows the fortunes of the team, whether playing at home or abroad, akin to the way a national spirit backs up the army engaged in strife. Too often loyalty ceases when the team is a losing one. When loyalty is of the sterner type that persists in spite of reverses the word "*morale*" is often used.

Loyalty has played an important part in the progress of the human race. The earliest expression was that of the family to its own immediate relatives. Then the group was enlarged to that of the clan, which comprised all persons claiming blood relationship. Later, different clans found it better to combine for purposes of mutual protection and subsistence. In this way the nation developed, as strong tribes reached out through conquest or other means. Today nations are combining into larger units, the purpose of these larger leagues being the prevention of war and the cause of humanity in general.

Just as history shows loyalty developing from that of the family to that of the nation, so to-day we find the same progression in the development of loyalty to the team or gang, then to the school, and later to one's ideals, one's religion, one's associates, and one's country. Play paves the way.

Cooperation

Cooperation is a term often confused with loyalty, but the meaning is not so broad. Loyalty includes cooperation always; but cooperation may be separate from loyalty. For instance, disloyal indi-

viduals may be coerced into cooperation, as is found in the autocratic type of discipline. Here there is clearly no need for loyalty and the definition of cooperation becomes more explicit. Loyalty is of the type that demands something of the ideal; cooperation, however, may or may not aspire toward the ideal. Cooperation of the highest type is found in games. The team and each of its members are mutually dependent upon each other. The team is a cooperative living whole; it is possible to know each member separately without knowing the team; and conversely, it is possible to know the team without knowing a single individual within the body. The breaking down of one of the parts of a team injures the whole. It is this mutual interdependence that is called cooperation. Cooperation leads up to loyalty and morale.

The more completely organized the team, the more powerful is the need of cooperation, and the greater the demand on the individual player that he perform his part, even though it means personal sacrifice and the giving up of some coveted hope. The grandstand player is always discouraged on the play field. The popular teammate harnesses his own individualism and self-assertion for the team's own good. There is cooperation in the scrub game, but the need for self-inhibition is less intense. The good results that are forthcoming from a permanent organization, however, are shown when teams made up of mediocre players can meet and defeat a team of star players gathered together for the occasion. The scrub team shows more individual skill, but less cohesion. The play that leads to a sensational run in football calls for help in the way of a good pass of the ball by the center, good blocking by the line so that the play may get a good start, and good interference by the runners accompanying the player with the ball so that he may be shielded.

It is important that every boy and girl should play, and in their games gradually work from simple to extensive cooperation, for it is a quality needed in every walk of life to-day. There is cooperation in buying and maintaining the common necessities of life; there are the many processes of making raw material into the finished article; marketing the article—wholesaler to retailer; the final purchase by the consumer; and the delivery by the teamster or the driver. Another type of example is the case of people cooperating in a municipality by paying taxes for a large library accessible to all instead of having many small personal libraries. Cooperation is indeed being applied more and more to business and professional life as activities become more and more specialized.

Freedom

Freedom is the ideal that emphasizes individual worth and importance. With freedom secured, everyone gets a fair chance. The development of our own freedom and opportunity can be traced back to the primitive tribes settling in England. These had local assemblies for free discussion and a council of wise men and a chief of their own choice. The Magna Charta, Bill of Rights, and other guarantees of personal privileges were forced upon rulers who tried to suppress the ideal of liberty. Freedom of person and thought are two of the things that have made America a land of the free, the haven of the oppressed, and the refuge of all creeds.

The ideal of freedom has not always had the same gradual expansion that it found with the Anglo-Saxon peoples. The French Revolution and the Russian Revolution show the extremes to which people who have been oppressed will go for this end. The trouble with such violent rebellions, however, is that the gainers of the newly-found freedom do not realize that they must have law at the same time to preserve this freedom. There must be preparation for freedom. Many college youths are spoiled because they have never had a chance before leaving home to be free and act on their own resources. Another parallel is found on the playground. It is the Hungarian, the Pole, or the Russian Jew who is the disturbing factor in the maintenance of discipline. These nationalities have never had any practice in self-discipline, not even any experience in team play, and when allowed free rein they become most unruly and disorderly. To make orderly citizens of this material is a hope that the playground is striving to realize—to teach them that there is a necessity for law along with freedom.

The child has more freedom to-day than ever before. In olden days he was disciplined as a slave, and corporal punishment was the expected thing at home and at school. To-day this type of discipline is seldom found; instead, there is the discipline of persuasion, of example, of loyalty, of praise and blame, and of self-government. All these find application in the playground game. That self-government often wins when coercion from above will not, is proven by many cases of incorrigible youngsters who become law-abiding when they reach the team age and are given practice in team games.

The freedom of democracy and of team play requires a free chance for all, lawfulness, and leadership. The best man wins the place on the team; for the group, naturally wishing to win, acts through its most capable members. Partiality would be ruinous, just

as bribes or illegal votes destroy the freedom of citizenship. The team elects its own leader, obeys orders, and expects its members to be assigned to various positions by him. In the real test they allow him temporary autocratic privileges, so that quick decision may be brought about.

Obedience

The necessity of obedience is forcefully brought out in play. In early childhood the obedience is apt to be influenced by external compulsion such as that coming from the teacher, but as the games develop into complicated team play, the spirit of self-government grows among all those competing. Then it is that the player learns the advantage of law as he will use it when a citizen. In early history the ordinary man had little to do with the making of the laws; he was forced to obey the laws of despots. Every time that rules were written down (like the laws of Moses, Draco, the Twelve Tables, and our own Declaration of Independence) a concession was gained, as even tyrants hesitated at breaking rules that were definitely known. In democracy the rules have been made by the people and for the people. Freedom is allowed to the extent that it will not injure or transgress the same rights to others. A certain amount of law is necessary for the common good, otherwise there would be anarchy and no man's life or property would be safe. But the restraint is a willing one, for the person remains under it of his own accord. The comparison can be extended in every sense to games: there is the same necessity for rules, otherwise the game would cease to be a game; and there is the same spirit of obedience, for when a boy plays in a game he tacitly agrees that the rules are satisfactory. If he wishes to belong to the gang, he must conform to the rules of the gang.

The need of obedience to the game is seen in many ways. There must be obedience to the teacher or coach. Refusing to follow the coach's instruction loses games—one can easily imagine what the result would be if every player disregarded the coach and followed his own personal inclinations. There would be no unified course of action at all. Again, there must be obedience to the rules. The rules have penalties for being broken. Any player who draws a penalty is injuring the cause of the team as a whole. Still again, there is the obedience to the training, which, if broken, breaks up the cooperative success once more.

Obedience and discipline, therefore, are just as necessary as free-

dom and initiative. When a group is working in common it is necessary to have rules; not only rules but the means of enforcement, as the failure of the scrub game without an umpire goes to show. Boys or girls when camping out realize the need for rules so that each person will do a fair share of the work. Our games are wisely planned in that they make the penalties more severe for intentional infractions than in the case of the accidental misplays.

Morality

This is brought about in the immediate sense by giving healthful expression to motor restlessness. Varied and wholesome play interests will do this. It is not when children are at play that they plan mischief and vice; rather, it is during the moments when they are idle—their loafing times. Knowing the similarity of the play of the child to the work of the man, it is easy to account for the increase of crime in abnormal times when many people are out of employment. With nothing to occupy the mind, men, filled with discontent, will gang together in destructive moods. It takes energy and daring to be the youthful gunman or the predatory gang; the play teacher, if respected, can direct these forces, admirable in themselves, to worthy ends.

Joseph Lee was thinking of the above truth when he said that "the boy without a playground is father to the man without a job." One prominent judge quotes from his experiences the fact that 95 per cent of the offenders that came before him had never had the chance to play. One has only to study the reports of surveys put out by large cities to note the stress being put on this aspect of play; these reveal a proportionate decrease in the output of taxes for the punishment of crime as recreational facilities are increased.

Experiences with backward races have shown that when uncivilized peoples become interested in play, their activities in gambling, head hunting, and other savage practices are gradually abandoned. Uncle Sam found this out when he took over the Philippines. He found out that organizing baseball and track competition between the different provinces increased the natives' pride in their schools.

While the giving of healthful, natural, and enjoyable play interests will be an immediate factor in the assisting of juvenile and adult morality, there is another essential of more remote nature, that must be taken into consideration. This is the character building to which play contributes. The psychologists tell us that instincts, if exercised, lead to habits. How important it should be that the instincts

concerned in moral living, i.e., self-restraint, decision, courage, self-control, determination, and will power should be exercised until they function involuntarily as habits. And again, a physical asset of play will help, for the muscles are the organs of the will. Strengthening the muscles means strengthening the will. Locke and Rousseau, 17th century thinkers, aptly state this point. Locke says, "Keep the body in strength and vigor, so that it may be able to obey and execute the orders of the mind." Rousseau says, "The weaker the body is, the more it commands; the stronger it is, the better it obeys."

Optimism

Happiness comes from a state of physical and mental well being. One needs good health to keep pace with his fellows. If he is unable to work with them or play with them, there is keen disappointment, because man is a social being. If he is troubled with a weak heart or lungs, he cannot share any physical quest with them—he must follow their play from the bleachers, and in time of war he must stay at home. If he is a dyspeptic, he is unable to share their festivities, and banqueting is one of the ways in which man has always been able to satisfy his gregarious instincts. If he has nervous trouble or insomnia, he is unrefreshed and worried; and these are two states of being that are enemies to a full joy in life. It follows that the pleasure of social fellowship is stunted to the same degree that there is ill health. Play's contribution to health has already been discussed.

Optimism consists of pleasurable emotional reactions bringing contentment in the present and hope for the future. If sound health is one necessity, the possession of the play spirit is the other. The play spirit can likewise be trained. The statement of James that play is a human instinct, which if trained, becomes a habit, and which if neglected, becomes disused and dies away, is backed up by many studies in the biological field. An example of this is found in the young duckling which, if kept from the water, later shows no desire to swim; and the young squirrel which is caged and, finding no place to bury nuts, loses the instinct to do so; and the young chick, which, if it does not have the chance to follow its mother the first week or so, will not do so later.

The play spirit of youth carries over into the work of the adult. Play prepares for the work of later life by training the boy or girl to do willingly the many disagreeable things that come up in play, for the sake of the greater end to be attained. On the other hand, the

boy or girl who is denied the chance to play, who is sent to work in the factories or the mines at an early age, has a hopeless outlook for later life—the chances are that through being denied his childhood, he has been deprived of the chance to find the work which for him has the most percentage of play contained in it. A “blind alley” job makes the mal-content; for the only offset to this hopelessness, the spirit of play to carry over into his leisure hours, will not have been learned. Tired out from a type of labor which is drudgery, the individual often goes to the extreme of recklessness in his pastimes and indulges in the lower types. Amusements of the passive type such as the card game, the pool room, the vamp moving picture show, and formerly the saloon, give an after-effect which is depressing rather than exhilarating. The playground and social center are trying to create the play spirit and take it into the work and into the recreation of later life. Contrast the after-effect of children’s play, of outdoor play and recreation, with the passive types mentioned above. There is mental relaxation instead of nervous tension, a contact with the best traits of human nature instead of the worst, and a reaction that soothes and quiets, and tones up the whole nervous system. Play certainly does help towards contentment, pleasure in human society, faith in human nature, and optimism in the daily life.

Conclusion: The Ideal Play Situation

It would be foolish to expect that all these qualities will be possessed in a noticeable degree by any one person. However, if no ideal is held up then there is no incentive for improvement. The point is, that unless the different qualities are recognized and understood, they cannot be striven for as objectives in our scheme of education, which includes the moral guidance of the child. The teacher of play has a great responsibility in shaping the characters of the children entrusted to his care; and he must know society’s estimate and standard of good character if he attempts to be a directing force.

Play is by no means the only method by which character can be developed. It cannot be said that those whose childhood has been robbed of play will fail to become good citizens; they may receive their moral training in some other way. The French and Japanese, for instance, teach morality to their school children by text books, instead of through physical activity. It must be remembered, however, that the lives of the little children in these countries are more

restricted than in our own. The almost unlimited freedom that the average American youngster possesses means that a self-discipline must be developed along with it. Play teaches him to curb this freedom for the common good. The ideal situation to develop a proper understanding of right standards of conduct is the one where the play field supplements the schoolroom, acting as a laboratory or testing place where the child can experience the lessons of his books. The abstract then is demonstrated in the concrete; the moral truth is seen as an actuality. Play furnishes innumerable such object lessons.

The love of play is so strongly instinctive in the child that he responds naturally and easily to the lessons that are continually arising in his play. The fact that his whole interest is centered in this attractive activity, further helps to drive the lesson home. In spontaneous action there is opportunity to develop traits that are suppressed while the child is under the discipline of the classroom. Wholesome play furnishes a rich field for the development of character in the same manner that a certain soil will grow the healthiest plants; and similarly as the plant that is cultivated by an experienced gardener will thrive better than the uncultivated one, so the boy and girl will develop better if they can feel the proper influences of leadership and direction.

However, play of itself cannot be expected to develop the right type of moral qualities—it merely furnishes the opportunity for their development. If undirected or under improper leadership, the tendency may be in exactly the opposite direction. Play can just as easily teach dishonesty as it can teach honesty. Always the standard of leadership must be kept at its highest.

INJURIOUS PLAY (VICE)

Vice is the name given to amusements that injure the health and destroy the ambition of those who engage in them. The three forms that have done the most harm are drug habits, sex vice, and gambling. They do not exist, as was once supposed, because people are naturally vicious, nor because the vices are in themselves so very attractive; people engage in vice because they do not know any better forms of play to engage in and because these vices are made to appear pleasant and attractive by the promoters, who surround them with all kinds of luxurious allurements in order to make large profits from them. To get rid of vice and the havoc it plays in life, it is necessary to do three things: (1) teach everybody the simple facts

as to the nature of vice and the harm it does; (2) stop the active promotion of vice by those who make money from it; (3) promote wholesome play activities extensively enough to take the place of it as a recreation.

Drug Habits

The use of tobacco, opium, cocaine, and alcohol are the most common drug habits, and of these drugs alcohol has easily been the worst in its total effects. For a very long time mankind looked upon alcohol as a wonderful and unmixed blessing, giving the drinker health, strength, a clear mind, and a protection against every ill. Now we know from more extended and careful observation that alcohol does nothing of the kind. A moderate dose makes the drinker weaker, slower, less accurate in moving and in thinking, and tends to break down his sense of honor and responsibility. The belief in its virtue arises from the temporary effect it has of making one feel stronger and more capable than he really is. Sailors exposed to cold have always believed that a swig of rum helps to keep them warm, when the fact is that it gives a feeling of warmth only by sending the blood to the skin, which makes them all the more liable to serious chilling of the body. Men have always believed that they could make a better after-dinner speech with the aid of a few glasses of wine, but they are led to think so because their critical judgment is dulled and they say things they would ordinarily consider foolish; the hearers applaud because they are under the same influence. Instead of curing disease, alcohol is now known to be a predisposing factor leading to disease, especially to tuberculosis and pneumonia, the two greatest causes of death. Physicians have little hope for the recovery of a case of either of these or diabetes if the subject has been addicted to alcohol.

Sex Vice

By breaking down the sense of responsibility and making one care only for the pleasure of the moment, alcohol leads to sex vice and gambling. Through sex vice the gruesome venereal diseases—syphilis and gonorrhoea—are perpetuated and transmitted, and it is therefore responsible for the existence of these diseases and the untold suffering they produce. Every individual who is addicted to sexual vice assumes a big chance of acquiring venereal disease and blighting with it the lives of wife or husband and children, at the same time handing the contagion down to later generations. There

are so many in our population who are either feeble-minded or hopelessly selfish, and these may so easily contaminate the innocent, that society stands little chance of getting rid of this plague without some measures like those that were taken in the United States Army. All men found on examination to have venereal disease were not only severely disciplined but were quarantined and treated in a hospital until no longer able to infect others. The plan soon made the army more free from the disease than is the civil population, and the need of similar plans in every community was thus shown.

Gambling

Gambling is staking money on some game or event, the result of which is uncertain. Lotteries, race-track gambling, bucket shops, and several other forms have been prohibited, because they are so palpably dishonest. Betting on a fight or a football game appears like a fair bargain until you realize that each is trying and expecting to get the property of the other without giving anything in return. A debt of this kind cannot be collected by law, because the courts do not recognize a bet as a legitimate business transaction. The gambler, like the thief, is a parasite on society, producing nothing, creating nothing, yet managing to get the property that belongs to others by strategy, without incurring the danger that there is in stealing it. H. E. Reed in his textbook on Salesmanship, says: "Gambling and speculation are wrong, not because they involve chance, but because they violate the first common principles of common honesty and good salesmanship, namely, that a fair bargain must benefit both parties."

The player who bets on his own game is the worst type of professional athlete, for it gives him a mercenary interest in winning far beyond anything the salaried player has. The growing habit of betting on games proves how little the college students understand it. The *Michigan Daily* (University of Michigan student publication) for November 18, 1921, points out that betting opens the doors to professional gamblers, who are quick to swarm to a college town where betting is widespread in the desire for easy money, and that it is apt to be the professional gambler who taunts the student that he is not showing proper support for his team unless he is willing to put up his money on the game. It says further that worst of all is the effect of betting on the team, for nothing else so quickly disintegrates the sportsmanship of winners, losers, and spectators.

Betting cannot be justified. Betting on a sure thing is plain steal-

ing, and in any other case it is trying to take advantage of the opponent's ignorance to get his property away from him. The evils of betting are far-reaching in their consequence, as the histories of so many case of defaulting and suicide go to prove. Society gains by discouraging all forms of gambling.

PROHIBITION

The first steps toward a reform of popular habits of amusement were taken many years ago in the enactment of prohibitory laws against the promotion of sex vice, gambling, and, later, against the saloon. Attacks are constantly being made on these prohibitory laws, on the ground that they are not fully enforced and therefore do more harm than good, encouraging lawlessness. If we are to see this situation clearly we must keep two things in mind: first, laws against murder and robbery are never fully enforced, yet no one clamors to have them repealed; second, the prohibitory laws against vices are fairly well directed and enforced. It must be remembered that they do not aim to suppress vice directly and at once; what they prohibit is the public promotion of vice. Vice is too well fixed in the habits of many people to disappear at once; what we can do is to stop the public exploitation of vice before the eyes of growing youth. Only a few years ago the saloons on every main street held the temptation to drink before every city boy, but now those who are determined to have alcoholic liquor must get it secretly in places not open to the average youth. The complete suppression of vice cannot be seriously attempted, but the public promotion of vice can be prohibited, and except for occasional violations, be stamped out of the community life.

PROMOTION OF PLAY

It is right here, as an aid to the laws designed to check commercialized vice, that the play movement steps in and provides the part that was always lacking. Such laws alone cannot reform the play habits of a nation, being wholly negative and supplying nothing in the place of amusement that is forbidden. The active promotion of wholesome plays and games fills the place in an attractive way, and helps to do away, not only with the vice, but also with the other commercialized amusements that are worthless. The plays and games provided under public supervision furnish better fun, when once learned, than any vice can do. They are simply the kinds of recreation and play that have been found by experience to have a

wholesome and beneficial effect on the players, while vices are simply those found to be harmful and only existing that someone may make money from their promotion.

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CHAPTER XVII

PLAY AND CITIZENSHIP

Play has become an integral part of our school system, the nation over. Certain plays and games are prescribed for the different grades with the same definiteness that courses in reading or mathematics are mapped out. Progressive states have outlined courses which they recommend for use in their schools. Some of the larger cities have done likewise.

It is of practical import that the teacher who takes charge of the play programmes has a clear understanding of the intent and aims behind the planning of these courses; for it is a basic principle of pedagogy that whenever a transfer of power to mental or moral development is expected through any prescribed exercise, the teacher must keep before the pupil the desired accomplishment. For instance, if our schools hope to teach the child such qualities as honesty or loyalty, and use play as an agency in doing this, the play teacher must call attention to these points whenever object lessons are presented in the games. A child will not gain a respect for sportsmanship from his play if the teacher does not stress this, and especially so, if no move is made in the way of condemning acts that are unsportsmanlike.

Play Must Harmonize with School Aims

If physical education resulted in development of the body only, then it could be separated from the rest of our school curriculum as a distinct department and allowed to work out its programme apart. But it so happens that the effects of physical exercise produce results mentally, morally, and socially as well, and care must be taken that the type of physical curriculum followed be in harmony with the ideals that the school curriculum is striving for. It is ridiculous to think that the development of the body is a separate thing from that of the mind. It is possible that a type of exercise could be so selected as to thwart entirely the educational aims of our schools. As said in the previous paragraph, our sports as found in the schools

of to-day, unless taught and administered rightly, will develop undesirable citizens rather than good ones. Happily, our type of physical leadership is improving, so that the gap between our ideals and their actual realization is steadily closing; but even yet the physical programme of our schools is too often considered without regard to the rest of the school programme. To get the most efficiency out of our educational system, the physical programme should be carried out in full harmony with the broader purposes of the school.

Play Has Always Adapted Itself to the National Ideal

There is plenty of proof to show that physical education will adapt itself to the purpose of our national ideal. Indeed, the type of civilization of any particular country can be found by investigating its mode of play. History affords convincing proof of this.

Ancient Greece wanted the well-balanced man, tending to neither extreme in the development of mind and body and in proportion between the two. The Greeks believed the body and mind to be co-workers, inseparable, and dependent on each other. Because their educational aim was aesthetic, the body was developed from the standpoint of beauty, grace, and symmetry. The result, intellectually, was to produce a beauty of mind never attained so universally by any other people. The perfection of their sculpture and architecture could not have been possible had they not worshiped beauty in the lines of the human body.

The Romans did not have such a lofty conception of physical training, and we find it used for utilitarian purposes, subservient to their aims of conquest. To make war, rugged soldiers were needed, so that the nature of the exercises taught their youth was necessarily martial.

Following these we find a period in which the training of the human body had no place at all—the period of the Dark Ages. The ambition of man's life was entirely a spiritual one—to be a recluse. The body was considered as absolutely independent of the mind, and in comparison was looked upon as so inferior as to be despised. That the body is not separate from the mind is shown conclusively by the barrenness of this age in the way of intellectual contribution to human progress. The world emerged from this medieval darkness only by going back to borrow from the ancients—to find there the foundation for building anew—and so bodily training was resurrected to fashion itself to the new work.

In our own life of to-day, two great conflicting ideals regarding government developed to the point of conflict. The first, autocracy, exalted the state; the second, democracy, exalted the individual. Both utilized physical exercise to their needs; the former, consciously, because it saw in this the chance to build up its nation in physique, and at the same time make its subjects submissive, disciplined, and machine-like; the latter, unconsciously, because in following the ideals of freedom, it allowed free choice in its subjects, which meant that the exercise followed was in keeping with the natural outlet of the youth. No nation has ever been more successful than autocratic Germany in making its educational system—of which physical training was a very important part—serve its national aims. At the same time that we wonder at the marvelous system of gymnastics, the universal play interest worked up in it, and its efficiency in getting the desired results, we must necessarily feel disappointed that the splendour of this accomplishment was used to ends that were perverted.

DEMOCRACY OF GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION: ITS MEANING

Victorious democracy has remained as the path by which world civilization shall follow its destiny. Whereas autocracy demands unquestioned leaders and submissive followers, democracy calls for equals who bow only to the leadership of men of their own group who have merited their selection through superior capabilities. There is no impassable gap between leader and follower in democracy. Therefore, there need be no separate schools for the training of leader and follower. Instead, there must be one system of schools in which all start out with equal advantage, on the same mark, if one wishes to call it so, in preparation for life's work. This does away with caste advantage of birth. By making the schools free, the caste of wealth is likewise discarded. America has the slogan "Equality of Opportunity" which would seem to indicate that all our youth in common go through a standardized curriculum, to be graduated as a standardized product. This is true only to that age where the children begin to show pronounced diversity in capabilities and interests. At this point in our educational programme there is need for a wide range of studies, with free election to a certain extent, so that the pupil can be given a chance to develop his aptitudes for growth along natural lines. This is true democracy of education: first, to give free and equal opportunity; and second, to consider the individual differences in pupils, so as to allow equal

opportunity when the time for specialization comes. It would not be democratic to have one uniform curriculum all through our school system when we know that all children are not alike in their tastes and talents, and know that at a certain age these talents are accentuated and call out for expression. That is why recent years have seen many new courses, mostly vocational in nature, added to the school subjects, whereas formerly the old classical programme stood supreme. At the same time it must be remembered that this freedom of election must be somewhat restricted, as there are many things which democratic citizens must possess in common, such as language, ideals, and social relationships.

The Relation of Play To Democracy

The first procedure in the way of adapting play to our existing educational system is to give all children the same advantages. This means that all start out with a uniform programme, and then at the age when the child is allowed some freedom of election in his studies, allow him the same choice in his physical exercise. The latter choice can only be possible by offering a rich and diversified programme; and yet, at the same time, there are certain exercises that should be taken by all. It cannot be said that the programme of play at present has been made as universal or as diversified as it should be.

The Part Played by the Two Types of Athletic Sport

Nothing has been said as yet about the type of play exercise that should predominate. Democracy and athletic games and sports have always gone hand in hand, but the type of democracy has determined the type of games. The earlier republics of Athens and Rome were so limited in size that all citizens could meet together in person at their assemblies. This explains the origin of such individualistic types of athletics as running, jumping, weight throwing, Marathon runs, javelin throws, riding, swimming, dancing, gymnastic stunts, and the like. In all these there is found the specialization that goes with democracy; but it is a development of the individual entirely alone—if he failed in his development, it would not directly affect the success of his fellows. But the modern democracies have become too large and cumbersome for all the citizens to meet together in common assembly, and the principle of representation has been evolved. This brings in the necessity for selection and cooperation.

It is interesting to note that as the type of democracy changed in England, there was a parallel change in the type of athletics—from the individualistic to the team sports. Team games, which are the delight of democratic peoples to-day, demand not only that the individual play his own part well, but that he must relate his part to a larger whole, because the team is more than the individuals that compose it—it has a personality of its own; it is an organic unity or whole where the breaking down of one part breaks down the work of all the parts. Once more we have the striking evidence of the adaptability of physical education to the progress of society.

American Sports Reflect Distinctive National Traits

Modern democracy favors the team games; yet there is still a distinction in the spirit as well as the form of competition, because the great liberty-loving nations of to-day differ in their organization, in their traditions, and in their ideals. Our nation is least of all affected by traditions and the spirit of the past. That is the reason why its opportunities are the greatest. Because of the richness of the opportunities afforded, the encouraging chances for future greatness in any line of work, the average American youth is early taught the vision of success. So imbued is he with the spirit of ambition that it finds expression in his games. The end in his sports is to win—to be successful. This excessive zeal to win brings in many ruthless tactics found in the competition of big business. The games have an intensity not found in those of any other nation; and more than in the case of any other national sports, our games depend upon methods, training, and coaching—all of them elements of success. We can never take away from American athletic games the desire to win, but we can so control them through standards of sportsmanship and fair play that they will teach a better spirit of mutual friendliness than has been the case in the past, and inculcate a more sympathetic spirit for later life. People who are apt to criticize our athletics too severely should realize that at present, American football, baseball, and basket ball give the kind of training that our present ideal of democratic citizenship calls for—they are an index of our national life. As athletics improve, improvement in our citizenship will naturally follow.

What are the Qualities our Schools must Develop?

It would seem, then, that if natural play and rugged games grew up along with modern democracy and education, that such a type of exercise should constitute the bulwark of our physical education programme. Democracy prizes a type of character in its citizens that is energetic, self-reliant, resourceful, and social. Play, especially the competitive type, promotes these democratic ideals; it teaches the individual self-initiative, alertness, ingenuity, self-reliance, self-control, will power, courage, persistence, and consciousness of individual worth—all of which are the qualities needed for individual success under democratic opportunity; and, to serve the individual's relation to society, it promotes loyalty, cooperation, respect for the rights of others, respectful submission to a chosen leadership, and the many qualities of sportsmanship—and all these are the civic and social virtues desired in a patriotic citizenship.

And, in addition, play gives the kind of bodily vigor that is in keeping with the same aims. Our type of government, being peaceful, and lacking in the idea of aggrandisement through military means, desires health, vital power, and physical adaptability, rather than a strength which is promised future use only in a military way. The adaptability that play gives was shown by the quickness and effectiveness with which non-military nations like Great Britain and the United States fashioned their ordinary citizens into a soldiery possessing unconquerable bravery and morale.

The School Divisions and Play

Play and the Elementary School

In order to turn out as a finished product the kind of citizen our democracy desires, our school system has found it best to sub-divide itself into three branches, the elementary, the secondary or high school, and the college. Recently there has been added a fourth—the Junior high school. It is evident that if play can adapt itself to our school system as a whole, it can likewise be adapted to each of these subdivisions. Let us take up each of these in turn, showing how play should be organized for best results.

In turning to the elementary school, we find its purpose defined by leading educators as follows: The elementary school should deal with the tools by which knowledge is to be gained—in other words, the three R's. A sound foundation in the fundamentals is the main

concern. The child learns the simple words of the home and the streets, and is taught to use them through his reading, writing, and spelling. His addition and subtraction are the first steps to problems of everyday commercial nature. Mastery of these rudiments allows him to progress in the field of knowledge. The mental, moral, and physical powers should all be considered. The moral training should be along the lines of the simple social virtues, such as truthfulness, kindness, honesty, and unselfishness. There should be no thought of specialization at this age, as everything is equally interesting and equally yields incentives to activity.

Such a programme can have physical education adapted to it very easily, because all normal children need the same activities, which are the fundamental ones. When one examines the physical programme covering the elementary grades, he will be impressed by the likeness of the principles governing play to those above mentioned when considering the larger aims. The child's lack of power of consecutive attention causes a desire for a great variety of play activities. The play is entirely individualistic; not until the seventh and eighth grades do we find the cooperative element creeping in, and then only to a small degree. There is no thought of specialization; instead, the child wants to flit from game to game, never being interested more than twenty minutes or so in one activity. Just as he has a lot of different classes in his schoolroom work, so he has desires for a lot of play activities, with short periods of interest devoted to each. We might say that the child is going through the process of acquiring the tools by which he may attain physical development. He is covering the whole field of physical activity in its rudiments. All kinds of exercise are almost equally interesting, as the special aptitudes have not yet begun to develop. So we find free play, marching, light calisthenics, dancing, and singing all made use of in showing the child the world of physical activity in its bigness. From the fifth to the eighth grades, interest in track and field events and in efficiency tests is very strong; and in the seventh and eighth grades the relay sports, remotely requiring the team sense, and the games of soccer, volley ball, indoor baseball, all of which call for only a slight degree of specialization, appear.

Play and the Junior High School

Because the criticism has been voiced for some time that the eight year elementary school is longer than is necessary for the work to be accomplished, there has arisen the demand for the Junior

high school. It is generally considered that six years are enough to devote to the tools of education; therefore, in most schools, the Junior high school begins with the seventh grade and continues through the ninth. The aim of the Junior high school is to occupy an intermediate stage, to make an easier transition between the elementary and high schools. It aims to take care of the special needs of the adolescent age—also a transitory period. During this period the pupil departs from the memory and drill work of the preceding years, and he desires to use the things he has learned, in an expression of his own personality. To meet this need, the school programme is therefore chosen with the purpose of drawing out and gradually developing the child's latent power of organizing his ideas. The Junior high school best serves its purposes by offering general courses, such as general history or general science, with the idea of presenting introductory work to later specialized courses. Other subjects that are introduced have the purpose of arousing a sense of social consciousness; such as, civics, hygiene, and elementary economics.

Even before the schoolmen had made special provisions for this adolescent period, play had adjusted itself to it. The newly-born social consciousness is found in play in the desire for Boy Scout activities, in Y. M. C. A. Junior work, in relay races, and in simple team games where the cooperation needed is not complicated. The activities are all social, yet they are modified by the experiences of the extreme individualism in physical activities that preceded this stage. To keep in contact with the school aims, this period should be a transition period between the individualistic and the team activity, and so it is. Just as the school periods are lengthened, so is the play interest in any one activity lengthened; just as the mental fatigue point is reached quickly, the physical fatigue point is reached quickly; and just as mental recuperation comes quickly, so does physical. These points must be considered in the arrangement of the play programmes; in soccer, for instance, there should be quarter periods instead of half, and the same applies to basket ball. The exercises should all have alternate periods of strenuous action, then rest. Another way in which the physical tastes are in keeping with the mental is that the children, instead of being treated in mass as possessing common interests, are divided up into smaller groups, whose work is differentiated: in the school, this results in departmental classes; and on the playground and in the gymnasium, the large class under one teacher is broken up into groups which will

permit individual preferences, such as those resulting from sex, for example, which are now for the first time markedly appearing. It is certain that the Junior high school needs a gymnasium and an athletic field of its own, because it is this branch of our public schools that is introductory as far as the contests of our high schools and colleges are concerned. Here is where the child should receive a broad and general course covering all our team games (a smattering of each this may amount to), for certainly there should be no attempt yet at specialization in any one sport.

Play and the Senior High School and College

One branch of our public school system yet remains to be discussed. That is the high school. Here we find the preferences of the pupils given more sway. The high school assumes that the child has been taught the common elements of life, and now he is allowed a chance to discover and develop his special aptitudes and powers. This is made possible through allowing a varied programme of studies, with some required work to be sure, but with a chance for the pupil to explore many fields and find where his talents lie. The wider the range of courses, the more chance there is for the individual to find what he is cut out for. The value of subjects begins to correspond more to the relative degrees of interest aroused. Compulsory work in the high school does not give the same joy of achievement that experimentation does. It is found, however, that some studies in themselves uninteresting, will be concentrated upon if they offer stepping stones to the mastering of remoter aims. The high school devotes longer periods to each subject because it is found that the pupil, favoring certain subjects as he does, wishes to study these intensively. In short, the aim of the high school is to create in youth the power of making critical judgments, and relating these to the broader purposes of life. The aim is to prepare for social service without losing individual efficiency. With the social consciousness now fully matured, the school uses athletic games, dramatic clubs, musical organizations, and the like, as an integral part of its programme.

Competitive athletics is so closely related to the aims of the high school education as to be obvious. The individualistic games of the grade school allowed but limited possibilities, and so the child's interest could only be maintained by using a lot of them. But now come the team games, in which there is no end to the combination of

play, or to the possibilities of experiment; and so the student will want to pick favorite pursuits, and play these intensively. The high school age—15 to 19—should bring specialization, leaving it to the college, however, to carry the process of specialization to its fullest extent. There are four reasons why vigorous sports should compose the biggest part of the physical education programme at this time of the individual's life; first, because they coordinate the body at a time when the school work is striving to coordinate the mind; second, because the desire to win makes the player willing to obey the training rules—a group of hygienic laws—an important matter in this habit-forming period of his life; third, because, as dwelt upon before, the effects of physical exercise are more far-reaching than the benefits pertaining to the body alone—there are mental and moral results as well—and it is the team game that best promotes the qualities needed; and fourth, because of the pedagogical principle that the value of subjects in the high school depends largely on the interest they create. Therefore the boy will gain the most from the type of exercise he likes, which, in the vast majority of cases, will be some branch of team sport. An interesting point to note is that just at this period, when the youth is being awakened to life purposes, and brought closer to the actual conditions of work-a-day life, there is a bigger consciousness of work in his play. In the days of childhood and early youth, the exercise as long as it was interesting, was play; and when it became otherwise, the child ceased to go on: but in late youth, we find that there is a willingness to persevere and keep on, even when the drudgery element in a game *becomes* stronger than the play. Such a case is found in the practices for football and baseball, for the candidates will go through the monotonous routine of the fundamentals and conditioning exercises for the sake of the remoter aim of reward in team victory. The teacher can profit from the above example, if, when selecting exercises that are almost sure to be distasteful, he will point out the future benefits to be derived.

Although the public school system ends with the high school, the chance for more advanced leadership is offered by college. The increased specialization educationally is paralleled by the increased specialization in athletics. Here we find team play carried to its highest degree of technique. That athletics assists education in producing leaders was shown during the war by the fact that college athletes were favored as officers. College athletics, when actuated by high ideals, do help to turn out spirited men, socially inclined, and animated with positive vigor.

Compulsory Attendance and Grading

There are two trends in connection with the use of play in the school curriculum which should be noted. The first is compulsory attendance. This must come. If play is necessary in the all-around education of our children, then those who neglect it are cheating themselves, and the State as well, because they are not developing themselves to the fullest possibilities. Only by making play compulsory, can we bring home its seriousness, and point out that it is more than recreative. Besides, regularity of attendance is necessary to create sustained interest. Children are most interested in the things they can do well. Even when we have had compulsory physical training in the past, there has been too often a laxity in excusing absences from classes, which was bound to detract from the seriousness with which the student regarded the work.

Second, there is the question of grading. Setting up standards and then marking a student in his work will assist in making the physical training hour more important to the student. Grading can be accomplished. At present a start has been made in the marking of boys in the elementary school, especially in track events, where a definite mark can be given. The efficiency tests have developed out of this attempt to grade. Games can also be graded, but not so closely. We might take example from the school standings, which, in the definite tests of the elementary grades, are marked on the basis of 100, but which, later in the more indefinite tests of high school, where there develops individuality of expression, are marked on the less rigid basis of A, B, and C, and so forth. When grading is accomplished, we may look forward to a much greater interest in physical training on the part of those students who have been prone to neglect it, as it is a common truth, that although a boy will pass over a scholastic deficiency jokingly, he is more sensitive about his physical prowess, and if this were graded, he would strive to bring his standard at least up to normal.

Conclusion

In concluding, it may be said that play's importance in an individual's life does not cease with his graduation from the public schools to enter into life both as a trained worker and as a social being. If the schools have done their part, they will have allowed him opportunity to find his true vocation—the one with the most enjoyable service in it. If this has been accomplished, the individual

is promised a work in which he can find a spiritual gain as well as material compensation. But not only that; the schools, through utilizing play, and making its advantages universal, will have developed in each individual the play spirit so that he can make the most of his leisure time. The play spirit must be developed in youth or it will be forever lost. With a play spirit in his work—a thing which all successful men have—and a capacity for recreating himself when away from his work, the individual should be a contented citizen. He will be a citizen to whom there may be some drudgery in life, to be sure, but at the same time, this drudgery will be willingly undergone for the sake of the larger compensations that his work and his leisure time are holding forth to him.

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CHAPTER XVIII

THE PLAY TEACHER

The play teacher is really a creation of the present generation. Previously it was considered quite absurd to engage a teacher solely for the purpose of directing play. It was enough, from this point of view, to supply the room for play and a limited amount of apparatus and play materials—the children could then take care of themselves. Even the things in the way of equipment were considered more of a luxury than a necessity. But the playgrounds came, and the play teachers have followed. People came to change their minds on this question.

At first many teachers and parents who were quite in sympathy with the idea of providing play spaces for the congested districts in the cities still maintained that "play cannot be taught." Having seen and experienced only the forms of play used by the isolated country child, they could comprehend no other kind that would be of value and they stood out for the old fashioned "free play." Their thought was that the children should play together of their own accord and that older people should not interfere with them.

Quite naturally, then, many critics were up in arms at the mere thought of paying teachers to go out and play with the children. "We're spending money for this girl to go out and exercise in the hot sun until she is liable to sunstroke," said one objecting alderman. "And she is spoiling the youngsters' good time," he added, "for they don't want to be *made* to play." Along the same line, one gentleman holding a responsible legislative position said in all sincerity, "You might just as well teach fishes to swim as children to play."

Consequences of Unsupervised Play

Because of this prevailing opinion that has just been expressed, many cities were led to put all available funds into land and equipment, and to open playgrounds without supervision. This kind of free play was a serious mistake, and the results were such as to defeat entirely the purpose of the whole play project.

First and foremost, the wrong element of childhood and youth gained control, just as it does in the free play of the streets. Some one is sure to exert a dominating influence over the play of the group; if it is not a teacher, it is sure to be a self-appointed leader from the more aggressive of the players. Unfortunately, an aggressive disposition is not always associated with broad judgment and good judgment. The result is that free play often includes unfair play mingled with quarreling, teasing, and hazing of certain pupils or nearby residents or passersby, breaking of windows, and other mischievous pranks of all kinds and degrees.

From this standpoint, the playground simply affords a larger street and alley space. It becomes the congregating place of the rougher members of society where the rule of the "bully" holds sway; and out of this there is bound to result persecution, selfishness, lawlessness, destruction of property, and many other forms of degeneracy and vice. In other words, except play be directed, the space and apparatus offered for its use become elements contributory to the complete delinquency of the mentally deficient, of those with perverted instincts, of those without adequate home training and often those of good breeding; and to the partial delinquency of the normal child who is brought under such a harmful influence.

It is only too evident that the playgrounds, if undirected, will defeat their own purpose. They will not be used by the great body of well-bred children for whose use they are intended. No thinking parents will send their children to a place where they will learn obscene and profane language, petty thieving, habits of vice, uncleanness, and discourtesy; or to a place where they will be bullied by the rough element, who will monopolize the swings, ladders, teeters, and slides most of the time, and whose pranks will make it positively dangerous for other children to use such apparatus when a chance is offered.

It is only in keeping with these many undesirable things, that the apparatus is bound to suffer from the moment of its installation. Whatever can be removed is stolen in short order and that which is too large to carry off is usually put out of commission either from malicious intent or from improper use long before it has served its natural time. This in itself is enough to occasion concern, for the apparatus was supplied for a definite purpose and if that is not being fulfilled there is a decided economic waste.

Conditions such as have been described became so bad that the whole play movement was temporarily placed in disrepute, and

residence owners objected strenuously to having playgrounds established in their midst. The Playground Association of America, recognizing the setback that was in store if things were allowed to continue, was obliged to issue through its field secretaries and institute workers the following warning: "Equip no more playgrounds until you have provided adequate supervision for all you now have."

Neither was the expedient, attempted by many municipalities, of hiring cheap help in the way of a caretaker or monitor who was to watch the apparatus and keep order on the grounds, much more successful. True, many of the vicious practices were discontinued; but the situation fell back almost to the same position it was in before the playgrounds were established. The unruly gangsters, finding their activities curbed, and nothing else offered in place of them, went back to their old haunts in the streets and alleys. The playgrounds simply became vacant lots, holding no invitation or attraction, and unpatronized except for the smaller children who came to use the swings and teeters, and for an occasional group of larger children who came to play a scrub game of ball.

The Successful Playground

When we turn to the capably supervised playground we see a more pleasing picture. It is a busy spot. Teachers of strong cheerful personalities, lovable yet dominating, are organizing the play of the different groups of children; not only that, but they are teaching play, as we shall later see. Obscenity, profanity, and dishonesty are infrequent occurrences; apparatus is respected and preserved; justice prevails; children of all classes flock to take part in the doings. A new type of discipline is seen, the preventive discipline that comes from children happy and busy in their play.

It can be seen that the duty of the person who is to fill the position of play teacher is not only to combat the negative influence of the playground. That is just the beginning. The playground teacher is more than a guardian. He must be an acting force, an aggressive leader whose object is to give an uplifting personality to the playground. He must do all that is within his opportunity and power to cultivate habits and ideals that are in keeping with the highest needs of our society as a whole.

Let us study the process by which the experienced play teacher gains his ends. He already knows that the best way to preserve discipline and order is to keep the child busily engaged, that it is the

loafing group of children that is planning mischief. He knows that coercive measures, such as prohibiting the use of the playground to certain individuals or an appeal to the police, are only the occasional means that are to be used as a last resort, after all constructive attempts to reach such people have failed. When interest in play is aroused and maintained, the children's minds are wholly occupied with the wholesome activities at hand. There is then no chance for thoughts and expressions brought up by curiosity with respect to sex matters, or for gang plans for the re-enacting of robbery or murder scenes that have been witnessed in the movies or read about in cheap novels. The mind is kept healthy at the same time that the body is being preserved and built up, and the result is a clean child in every way.

It takes a wise, sympathetic, and trained teacher to maintain this interest. Children cannot create interest for themselves except in spasmodic efforts. Here is where the play organizer comes in. The teaching of play, so long condemned on theoretical grounds, has been found to succeed for the following reasons:

Discipline: The teacher's presence makes for discipline and order. These things are the first factors necessary to gain the approval of the parents, which in turn, means a great increase in the attendance of the children. It is found, too, that children appreciate all the more the teacher who administers a firm but just control over them. The result is that they gain a new conception of leadership, with a corresponding respect for law and authority.

System: Time and place for various kinds of play can be arranged in a systematic way. This has several important advantages. Proper use is made of the apparatus. Many more children can play at the same time in a given space without interfering with each other's play, and thereby make the most possible use of the precious play spaces in our congested cities. (The inability of the children to plan systematically for themselves is one of the main reasons for the failure of free play.) Boys and girls of various ages can be sure of finding their favorite form of play going on at a regular hour. Children can join groups of their own age and ability. Plays of different kinds can be placed at the times of day best suited to them.

Variety: A vastly greater variety of activities can be taught than the children could ever know if left to themselves. The play teacher,

who has made a specialty of studying the best plays of all places and races, can teach them a great variety of plays and games, so that they can change and find a new interest whenever the one at hand begins to tire.

Technique: The desire to improve oneself can be incited in the different players by teaching them better ways to play old and familiar games. This kind of teaching, which has come to be called "coaching," often succeeds in giving a life-long interest to a game which otherwise would be attractive only as long as it remained a novelty. Many of the best games, including tennis, hockey, and baseball, require a considerable degree of knowledge and skill before one is apt to enjoy them. A good teacher, knowing the results of the experience of all the best players since the game began, can help any player to a much more rapid advancement than he could ever acquire alone. This has great moral as well as educational value, for the lack of ability to succeed by good playing is one of the chief reasons why players sometimes try to evade the rules.

Organized Competition: The trained teacher will know how to classify boys and girls so that a large number of teams can be organized instead of just one representing the largest and strongest children. This conduces to more satisfactory results for all concerned because the competition is made fair, each boy being pitted against other boys of his own age and experience. Following the building up of permanent teams, the director can arrange tournaments and meets, not only for his own particular ground but with other grounds also. Unless play is organized, schedules of games are impossible, and there is no one other thing that so makes for interest in the playground and loyalty to it. The permanent team attracts an audience and the players take additional pride in the new prestige that comes their way.

Competent Officials: Fair play in the competitive team games can only be secured by having an umpire. Most of the umpiring can be done by the teachers; when not available they can appoint the more influential pupils, who, with a little direction and experience can do very well in all but the most important games. Better ideals of conduct can be developed. Fair play at all times is necessary to the success of all games and such plays as involve rivalry. This accounts for the reason why the game that is not competently

officialated and handled, will break up in a row. Too, unjust decisions are bound to result in suspicion, wrangling, loss of time, general dissatisfaction with the play, and the development of bad habits, because each side suspects the other of unfairness and justifies retaliation on that basis. If there is any one thing that should be emphasized more than another as preparation for citizenship in a civilized community, it is the habit of dealing fairly with rivals.

Community Spirit: The players are not the only ones affected by their organization into permanent teams with an attractive schedule of games. The fact that these teams are thrown into competition with teams representing other districts arouses a neighborhood spirit in the same way that the school team incites school spirit. The players find themselves backed and championed by many people of the particular locality that the team happens to stand for. This bringing together in an informal way so many children and older people from all nationalities and conditions of life makes a democratic spirit among our many class and racial groups.

Welfare: The trained play leader makes play serve its fullest educational value. In the way of health, his presence means a safeguard against over-exertion and injury; more than that, it means athletic training for the children, who will ask for information in correct habits of living and exercising because of their new attachment to the team. Unless play is adapted to the age needs of the children, much of the mental training it affords is lost. Then, too, there are many qualities of good breeding and culture which, to be instilled, need wise direction. Such a direction is needed to point out the lessons of sportsmanship, such as how to be good losers and good winners, and how to treat visitors with courtesy. The teacher is needed not only to recognize the possibilities of leadership in the particular child but to see that this talent is steered into proper channels.

N.B. There is only the one caution to be pointed out in the way of supervised play. There is such a thing as *over-supervision*. Such a fault is commonly seen, and it is one that robs the play of its freedom and opportunity. The director should plan an elastic schedule for the day, with just a few events that are run off to the minute. When the children of their own accord have found a wholesome pursuit he should let them develop it along their own lines. His place

then is to offer suggestions when the chance affords, and to provide something else when the initiative and ingenuity of the children themselves begin to fail.

The Importance of Trained Teachers

It has been shown that organized play is an agency for physical exercise, recreation, and education. It has also been shown that the value of play is in direct proportion to the amount and kind of direction supplied. Play not only can be taught, but *must* be taught. Even animal parents play with their young. Along this line George E. Johnson writes, "A kingfisher teaches its young to fish, a fox gives its live prey to her young to worry, a cat plays with her kittens, and a dog teaches her puppies to wrestle. . . . Mothers have always supervised the play of their little ones, fashioned their toys, taught them their games. A boy no more inherits the game of baseball than he inherits the Lord's Prayer." As far as moral precepts are concerned it would be just about as sensible to hold a Sunday School without a teacher as to conduct a playground without one.

It is not too much to say that the play leader is more important than the playground itself. Indeed the very possibilities that stretch forth before the play teacher in the way of accomplishment are the reasons why this person should be a person especially fitted and trained for his particular job. He (or she) is the chosen leader and inspiration, and the standards he sets will be followed. The children will also find in him the kindly advisor of their leisure hours, just as the parents and school teacher are respectively the advisors of the time spent at home and in the schoolroom.

In this capacity the play teacher has even a greater opportunity than the schoolroom teacher, for the former catches the child off-guard in the great out-of-doors. Here there is no restraint save that of the rules of fair play and one's own conscience of what is right and wrong. There is nothing then to keep the child's inner self from being bared. Allowed such freedom and chance for expression he reveals himself in his true nature. The play teacher who partakes of the spirit of youth receives many confidences in trust. Here is the chance to reach the child. Think of such a responsibility! Surely we cannot stint in securing men and women for such places.

If we stint by giving inadequate pay, someone is sure to be cheated. If a competent director overlooks a meager financial return and gives his services to this field, then he is cheated; if a director merely acts as a janitor or caretaker, then the children are

cheated; and if the person in charge is too immature or incompetent even to assert a caretaker's authority, so that the children run riot and costly apparatus is destroyed, and the grounds become the habitat of the undesirable class only, then the citizens are cheated in their investment.

A Higher Professional Standing

The teachers of play must be given dignity in their calling, otherwise the profession will suffer from lack of desirable men and women to enter it. The conception that this is a field for brawn alone is fast being outgrown. The salary must be made equivalent in every respect to that of the regular teachers in the schools, and educational standards must be set. Too many of the people in charge of our playground and school athletic teams lack a broad cultural training. Untrained workers are bound to hold back the whole profession through the narrow viewpoint that they hold. It is to be deplored that there are some people of limited ideals who have become established in this field of work and who oppose its broadening because they see that such a turn would expose their own incapacity. But this is unfair to the great majority of workers who are whole-hearted in their devotion to a life of service in this career that they have chosen.

In the past, two excuses have been given for using people without adequate preparation: first, that already given, that the children do not need to be taught play; and second, that there are not enough trained teachers to fill the need. There has been some truth to the second reason, but it is one that is fast disappearing; accordingly as the profession sets high educational standards for itself and insists on these standards being met, the type of teacher will improve. Then will disappear the transient play teacher: the high school or college athlete looking for a summer's work or outing—for playground work can be an outing if a lazy director wishes to make it so; the regular teacher, who, because failing in health, wishes to be outdoors, or who, because of financial stringencies cannot afford to take a vacation; the person with a pleasing personality who thinks that this alone suffices. None of these circumstances should be the impelling motive to enter the playground profession, even though for the summer season only. Better trained supervisors and teachers during the school year, and interested teachers for the summer play sessions, should be the aim. The supervisor should train his extra helpers for the summer by means of reading, lecture, and game

courses during the year. Then this problem of inexperienced helpers who are not capable of their best service until the season is practically over will be disposed of.

The handling of play in our schools is largely entrusted to the physical directors; and consequently its success in maintaining its present popularity will depend upon the personality and training of these teachers. As to their relation to the general field of education perhaps this quotation from the catalogue of a Physical Education training course is as concise and clearly reasoned an explanation as could possibly be expressed: "The physical educator must have an academic and professional training that is equal in every respect to that of the general educator. He must be respected by the latter as being the intellectual equal of those engaged in teaching the other subjects in the schools or colleges curricula. There is no reason whatsoever why the ideal physical educator should not be regarded as among the most influential and intellectual members of the faculty. Furthermore, the ideally trained physical educator should be regarded as available material for the principalship or the superintendency of schools. In other words the physical educator must be by virtue of his training, his ideals, and the importance of his work, an integral part of the faculty. He must be a real schoolman."

Not everyone is able to be a successful teacher of play any more than everyone can hope to be a successful lawyer, physician, writer, or engineer. It is a vocation calling for a varied and peculiar range of abilities. We must now go on to discuss the special qualities and training necessary to produce the type of play leader that has been idealized.

What Is Leadership?

What is Leadership? There is always the impulse to ask the question: "What gives one individual ascendancy over others so that they take him as a model?" The answer is that the leader is a symbol—he stands for something that the follower needs and wants. In the play world the boys will look up to their athletic coach in hero-worship because at their age he expresses the kind of prowess which appeals to them the most. At a later age, when they have chosen their vocation and become entranced in it, they will be followers of the men who are outstanding successes in the same line of work. It may be then that the leader of finance will be admired, in case

they have engaged in business; the explorer and scientist, in case they have entered the field of engineering; or the successful newspaper man in case they have entered the field of journalism. An example is furnished among women: many girls have the impulse toward social work and would follow Jane Addams because she symbolizes for most girls the ideal type of social worker. In time of war, when the need for self-preservation or sacrifice for principle is uppermost, the military geniuses become the men of the hour. In primitive times the men of physical prowess were leaders because physical wants were the only ones to be satisfied.

Proceeding from this sociological basis it is evident that the leader stands out as having striking individuality when compared with the group. He is seen to be strong in self-reliance. No one can ever hope to be anything of a leader if he lacks this quality. The reason is that the "significant individuality" mentioned can only be developed through self-reliance, through conflict with environment or any other opposing element. When the leader expresses doubt, then he no longer is a leader, and the followers lose faith in him. The true leader is symbolical of the ideals of his followers, but he is in advance of them,—he supplies the torch—the light to make them see where their path directs. He is the apostle, and he supplies the courage that is necessary to action. He should be so strong that even when he occasionally makes an unfavorable suggestion, the confidence that others put in him will be strong enough to make them follow.

The leader needs the power of human understanding. Professor Cooley makes this a paramount essential. Only as a leader understands, can he hope to serve as a symbol, for then the followers feel that he is in sympathy with them, and they are ready to tender him their trust. An example of this is well given in the personage of Lincoln. He seemed to understand people so well that the nation as a whole felt that it was understood, and felt certain that Lincoln would never go contrary to the national sympathies.

Leadership is often involuntary. In this case the one essential thing is that the individual must be a worthy symbol of the ideals in his field. Such a person is elevated to the standing of a leader unconsciously, because of his accomplishments, which speak loudly for themselves. St. Francis, for instance, did not desire to be a leader in his new movement; nor, indeed, did Darwin in his. Both these men were natural leaders, without consciously striving for such a position.

There are, however, persons who are very desirous of becoming

leaders, and who try too hard and too directly to acquire and maintain such a position. It would be better for them if they were willing to assume simply the rôle of one of the group and try to produce something that would of itself give them leadership. The result of direct striving is that the person often condemns himself to second rate leadership—because in the excessive zeal to please, he hesitates to disturb any existing situation that is not urgently demanding a change, and for this reason falls into conservatism. This type of leadership, although not the highest, is the one most found in our political field to-day.

That which has been said of leadership in general is more true when applied to the playground. To be a leader of children one must in himself symbolize for them all that they desire and more than they can immediately grasp. The profession then demands certain special abilities, training, and experience peculiar to itself.

Desirable Qualifications for Play Leadership

Personal: First of all, the person who aspires to teach play must be a leader who can anticipate and meet the child's desires for self-expression. This requires an innate love for children, and a sympathetic understanding of child nature. Someone has called the play teacher a "cheery dictator." Certain it is, the teacher must command respect, but the spirit of discipline must be a hidden reality, rather than one that is being put into effect all the while. A child is more in awe of the unknown than he is of a threat that "this or that will be done." The teacher who is calm and masterful, giving the impression that such a thing as insubordinacy is not even being thought of, will react in that way upon the children; whereas, the irritable, threatening type of disciplinarian is constantly throwing out a challenge to the more high-spirited youngsters. Most youngsters find a thrill in playing a prank when they know it is directed against an unreasonably strict discipline and will bring about an explosion of wrath; but would find no fun in doing the same thing to the teacher who has always treated them fairly. With the teacher they like they will play many harmless jokes, knowing that these will be received with good humor. Of course there are exceptional happenings which will stir the temperament of any director, and righteous resentment will follow. But no physical force is justified in any case unless it is in self-protection or in the protection of law-abiding visitors to the grounds.

To enjoy the games the children play, and to join in them occa-

sionally, does not lessen the teacher's influence. Rather, it helps it, always so with the smaller children, who will beg their popular teacher to sing with them and to be chased or to be "it." Such a participation should be more carefully exercised, however, when it comes to the older boys and girls, whose activities are more difficult and require special skill. Accordingly as skill becomes admired by the children, the director should not enter any activity in which he will be called upon to demonstrate feats in which he is inferior to the others who are taking part. If he does possess special aptitude for athletic sports it is well for him occasionally to display it. At all times he should remain aloof from personal combat activities, such as boxing and wrestling, unless he is so markedly superior that he can toy good naturedly with his opponent, and make it appear that a lesson is being demonstrated.

The person naturally adapted to be a play teacher will meet with but few problems of discipline. If he cannot maintain discipline, then he should understand that he is not fitted for this particular calling, for it is possible for many teachers to go into the most crowded tenement districts and into the midst of the toughest gangs, and meet with but little trouble. It is a knack—this ability to get hold of a lawless group; a knack which is shown by the experience of Judge Lindsay and "his gang" in Denver.

Another personal element to success is good health. Without it, the teacher cannot maintain his or her vigor, especially so when it is often necessary to join in the games. Good health also is conducive to buoyancy of spirit, a thing which must be displayed in one's relation to children, for they react quickly to the teacher's mood. Children, for their own good, should react to enthusiasm and energy. The ideal play leader has an abundance of spontaneous enthusiasm, and that this will be contagious, is inevitable. Summing up, then, the favorite teacher's character, we must use the adjectives *cheerful*, *even-tempered*, *sociable*, *considerate*, *tactful*, *fair* (justice is a very important consideration), *strict*, *sincere* (hypocrisy is especially disliked), *enthusiastic*, and *inspiring*. It does not take a youthful person to supply these attributes. Being young is not so much a matter of age as of mental attitude. A person is young enough for the playground just so long as he or she is energetic and full of life and can radiate the same contagious spirit.

Expert Play Knowledge: Next to these personal qualities that have been discussed, there is need for an expert knowledge of play.

The director must be thoroughly acquainted with all the best forms of play, from those of the sandpile and kindergarten to the competitive and highly-organized games of college men and women, and he must know them all well enough to tell when they are correctly taught and coached and when they are correctly umpired. He must know which are best suited for boys and which for girls; which are best for this age and which for that. He must know the rules of conducting track meets. He must know the standards of the efficiency tests of different cities. More than that, he must be able to organize and manage these plays and games so easily that he can do it on a big scale and still have places, teams, equipment, and officials ready when it is time to play. There is still more: he must understand the social interests of older people, and be able to take charge of evening social center work, where groups of mixed ages and nationalities are present; he must be able to plan and conduct festivals, pageants, and appropriate holiday celebrations. Along these various lines, he must have a business sense for the raising of funds, the purchase and care of equipment, etc. A community play programme, to compete successfully against movie shows and pool rooms, must be as well planned and managed as the latter are; and right here is where the community play programme most often fails to function.

Health Knowledge: The play teacher is often called upon to give advice in matters of personal, school, and civic hygiene. He is often called upon to prescribe corrective exercises for children who have deformities that can be corrected. He should be equipped to give advice on matters concerning the location, equipment, hygiene, and upkeep of the playgrounds, gymnasiums, and swimming pools. These responsibilities are more and more being assumed by the play director, and are ones that should be welcomed as giving the opportunity for a broader service. To meet these duties capably, the director should have a good grasp of the principles of anatomy, physiology, hygiene, sanitation, and first aid. He should then be able to recognize such physical defects as may be remedied, and to detect faulty sanitation or the threat of contagious disease, so that through his warning the community may take action before it is too late.

Culture: This is a great asset if the play teacher is to make the most of his unique opportunities to serve the public. The course of training for the prospective director should be so constructed that a

broad cultural education will be combined with the specialized training that must necessarily be taken. For this reason, the subjects of Rhetoric, Literature, Public Speaking, History, Sociology, Psychology, Science, Government, Education, and Vocational Guidance should form an integral part of the play director's education. They will enable him to do his part properly in influencing the character of the growing children—being a foster-parent to them—and in raising the moral tone of the school; in meeting the responsibility of vocational counseling with confiding youth; and in being an influential leader in all ways in his respective community. The latter requisite means that he must consider play in its broader aspects, not only as a separate subject, but also in its relation to the other educational subjects and to other community needs.

A Mixer in Public Affairs: The successful play director must be a good mixer with children and adults in their play and recreation, but he must go outside of the immediate scope of his work, too, to meet with all classes of people. He must get people interested in his work; in this sense he must be a diplomatic promoter and advertiser. He must be able to gain the full cooperation of the whole school system—teachers, superintendent, and board. He must be able to discuss problems of play and recreation with individuals, groups, or assemblies. Often he will be called upon to lead a meeting or discussion, in which case he will need to have a working knowledge of Parliamentary rules of procedure. He will not last long unless he can impress everybody, from the small children in his play festivals to the conservative old-timers who oppose his plans in the school meeting, with his absolute fairness and honesty of purpose.

All this is in the way of promotion of the movement. No director, no matter how competent, can make a success of this work without the whole-hearted support of a large number of leading citizens. To get this, he must first know well the conditions of the neighborhood and city in which he is working. He must try to create a public sentiment that will give both moral and financial support to the movement, and his best way to insure permanent success is not through politics, but through the unqualified and continuous backing of such organizations as the School Board, the Church, the Park Commission, the Board of Commerce, the Rotary, Exchange, and Kiwanis Clubs, the Parent-Teacher Clubs, and the various Women's Clubs. Their support will largely depend upon the impression his personality makes upon them.

Then, to extend the scope of this work, and better it, he must impress people as being a good fellow, a moral leader, and a good Samaritan. If he is fostering Boy Scout and Camp Fire activities, it is essential that parents feel confidence in him; for their faith in new organizations, and their willingness to let their children go on picnics, hikes, and camping trips, is largely determined by their trust in the person responsible for promoting them. If he desires to get the churches interested in recreation and to organize Sunday school leagues in athletics, he must carry the same inspiration. He must be a mixer if he desires to get factories, stores, fraternal orders, neighborhood groups, and men's clubs to put a representative team in a baseball, basket ball, or volley ball league, or to organize a gymnasium class for which he will provide a leader.

It can be seen that the play director has many and varied demands upon his time. He should recognize that his position as a community employee and public figure makes it necessary to respond to as many as possible of the calls that come to him. He must not isolate himself from legitimate publicity. His work is to awaken the community to a larger play consciousness. Therefore he must be a promoter and press agent. He must advertise the work through the newspapers as well as through the enthusiasm that the children take with them to their homes. He must be able to impress interested visitors who come to the grounds, and take the time to give them all the information they request; he should be glad to cooperate with people of benevolent nature and interest them in his work. His position of itself involves the responsibility of being present at many public functions, and of putting across the message of the Play Movement whenever called upon to speak.

Specialization Within the Field

It is only in rare instances that any one person will possess the versatility of character and of training that would be necessary to fulfill the qualifications that have just been given. But the field that the play movement includes is now so large that it calls for specialization within itself. The student who is being trained for this work will soon find out that some of these qualifications are present in his makeup more so than others. He can then plan accordingly. For instance, the student specializing in supervisory work can take subjects more remotely connected with play, such as municipal government, sociology, business law, and school administration. On the other hand, the teacher who plans to carry on inspirational work in

close personal touch with children and older people will find such subjects as oratory, story-telling, pageantry, handicraft, music, and dancing, almost invaluable. The student desiring to coach will want a very specialized knowledge of the technique of the various competitive sports, including the fundamentals of the play and the team strategy of defense and offense, and he will also want to know the practical methods of training, such as bandaging and treatment of minor injuries and ailments. The gymnasium teacher will want to spend most of his practical training in acquiring the mastery of giving commands and of feats on the apparatus. There is plenty of opportunity to-day to receive special training along one's own particular needs, for normal colleges and universities are rapidly introducing physical education courses, and many cities and rural districts conduct special institutes. Once located on a job, however, the teacher should not cease to grow. He should keep up to date through wise reading in his subject—through the best books and current literature—through extension courses with higher institutions of learning, by attending the many district conferences that are now being held, and by attending a summer school occasionally.

The Administration of the Play Staff

The recreation system of a city is now coming to be a year-round affair. Sometimes the School Board has jurisdiction, sometimes a special City Recreation Commission, and sometimes the School Board and Park Commission cooperate to handle it, the Park Board in such a case handling the out-of-school and vacation time play. The system works best when one man is placed in charge of the whole programme. This Superintendent of Recreation has charge of the general administration. His duties are then analogous to those of the Superintendent of Schools. The play superintendent has charge of the construction and equipment of playgrounds, gymnasiums, and field houses; the planning of the various programmes, the choice of activities, and the promotion of them; also, the direction of the rest of the teaching force. The success of such an administrator will rest upon his ability to pick good subordinates, and to handle them without provoking friction. In picking his corp of directors to work under him, he should remember to get a well-balanced staff, so that the many qualifications of the ideal play leader will all be represented in his system. Then he can utilize the special abilities of each subordinate to the best advantage. The superintendent need not necessarily be able to do everything himself, but by calling upon

the different teachers he can get work of any particular nature done well. The successful executive needs to possess a strong character, sound judgment, courage, an understanding of men, organizing ability, ability to cooperate, a wide technical grasp of play, and creative imagination. He must have a time sense of his own value so that he will not busy himself with details that can be done by his assistants. He must attend to the large questions requiring vision and the formulation of policies. The salary of such a position usually runs from \$2500 to \$6000 depending on the size of the city.

Next, the system should have a woman assistant superintendent, whose duties are primarily to look after the teachers of the younger children, both boys and girls in the primary and elementary grades, and to look after the teaching of the older girls in the Junior and Senior high schools; also to supervise much of the evening recreational work, especially the story-telling, handicraft, and the recreational games and dances. The salary of this position is likely to be from \$1500 to \$4000.

Next in order comes the district superintendent, who has a special section of the city to look after, with duties the same as the city superintendent only limited to this particular area. Some of the smaller cities instead of having district superintendents, have supervisors for one special activity, folk dancing, for instance, and their duty is to see that this activity is carried out over the whole city. In the larger cities both the district superintendents and the special supervisors are apt to be found. These two types of officials usually rank the same and get a salary of \$1500 to \$4000.

The next official is the director, who is found in charge of one playground or one recreation building. He is an executive on a smaller scale. In the smaller systems he may have to act as teacher also, handling the activities of the older boys, such as their competitive games and their gymnasium work, if any, and leading the business men's classes in the evening. His duties can be compared to those of the principal of an individual school. His salary is usually from \$1200 to \$3500.

Lastly, but far from least in importance, there is the play leader who acts in immediate relation with the children and actually directs their play. A lovable personality counts most here. Special training is needed in conducting and organizing the play. There are many details to be looked after, but little call for executive ability. In the case of younger children in the grades (whether boys or

girls) it is much better for them to have a woman teacher. After the boys and girls segregate, then a man teacher should coach the boys in their sports and handle their club work of Boy Scout nature, and a woman take care of the other girls' games, dancing, and Camp Fire work. The salaries of these teachers run from \$1000 to \$2500.

One mistake that is often made in the administration is to expect a person to act in a broad executive capacity and also to coach the teams in such sports as football, basket ball, and baseball. The demand on him to win in the latter case is such that he will inevitably concentrate on the coaching, with the result that the welfare of the great majority of boys will be neglected. There is not time to do both things. Besides, the two jobs call for different types of men. The coach is interested in giving a team an intensive training in a narrow line, where the price of victory often means that the players must go beyond the limits of endurance and good health, while the play director spreads his interest over a wide field and seeks to improve the physique of a city rather than to win games.

Conclusion: The Outlook for Service

The teacher who takes up the field of Physical Education as a life work has the satisfaction of knowing that there is no other subject in the academic field that is of so universal value, unless it is the subject of the language we speak. To-day this profession has come to occupy a position that stands half-way between the professions of General Education and of Medicine. It aims to build up the body to resist the onset of disease, and also to build up mental habits and ideals. It asks just as complete a specialized training as any of the professions; and more than many a profession, it demands a winning personality before success can be attained. The many-sidedness of the duties that the young man or woman taking up physical education as a life work may be called upon to perform have already been shown in the varied nature of the things that are included in the teacher's qualifications.

The profession is a new one; it is one that is not given full credit and recognition yet, with as assured a place in the school curriculum as studies of the classical order. But this should fire one's zeal and not lessen it, for the teacher who understands the nature of the objectives of physical education, and who is worthy of being called a physical educator, cannot fail to have unlimited confidence in the work he can accomplish. The time will come when his worth is everywhere recognized. It is a profession that does not promise the

most in the way of material compensations, but there is the far greater reward that comes from being high in the esteem of one's fellow men, and in the inspiration that comes from fulfillment of service. The ordinary academic teacher is too apt to get into a rut—he is largely living in the past; whereas the coming play teacher has a new and inviting field of promise stretching before him. The Physical Educator is a pioneer, and he must be animated by the spirit which makes all pioneers strong-hearted and venturesome, keen and alert to the fire of opposition, and ready to endure self-sacrifice.

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