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THE
THEORY OF PLAY

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PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Dedicated
to the memory of
WILBUR P. BOWEN
PIONEER IN THE FIELD OF
PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION

PREFACE

At this time, when a profound social upheaval has taken place and the recognition of the need for a new social fabric is apparent, it is particularly fitting that a new book on Play and Recreation should make its appearance. The leisure-time problem has so forced itself upon the attention of every stratum of our society that all educators and civic leaders are faced with the responsibility, not only for meeting the demands of the immediate situation, but also for exercising foresight in social planning for the refinement of future recreational standards and for the improvement of individuals' recreational appreciations. The present book, *The Theory of Play*, has been written with this larger vision in mind.

In 1923 *The Theory of Organized Play* by Wilbur P. Bowen and Elmer D. Mitchell was published and has been used extensively as a text in colleges and universities since that time. Time changes all things, however, and it has become increasingly apparent in recent years that a new book was needed. The research in the fields of psychology, sociology, and social psychology has led to new emphasis here and there regarding that phase of human conduct called play. The growing and changing philosophy of education has led to new interpretations and resultant tendency toward change in practice. The practical workers in the field of recreation, group work, and physical education have altered and perfected their techniques with the passing of time and the emergence of new philosophies and objectives.

Since the publication of *The Theory of Organized Play* the death of Professor Bowen has occurred. The present authors first took up their task with the idea of revising the older book, but, as they got more deeply into the work, it became apparent that the book should be rewritten if it were adequately to cover the vast changes that have taken place in the recreational field in the past fifteen years.

The new book is greatly enlarged and brings with it a complete change of emphasis in regard to the psychology of human motivation. The older "instinct" psychology has been modified by explanations which are more in keeping with the newer thought in the fields of scientific research.

In the new treatment, play is considered as an integral and vital part of the general social movement. It is recognized that all our

modern welfare movements are closely linked together and that 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 interrelationship, this book has been written in the hope that it will give students and teachers of play an understanding of modern theoretical interpretations of the constructive value of play; and at the same time that it will carry an interest and appeal to many individuals who are not directly concerned with play activities.

In general four lines of thought have been followed: first, a historical background of the present play movement; second, the theoretical explanation of play; third, the need for play in modern life, and its place in education; and lastly, the administration and organization of play.

The authors wish to express their appreciation to the publishers and authors of books quoted for permission to make quotations.

In particular, the authors are grateful to Professor Wilbur P. Bowen who gave the inspiration for the writing of the earlier books, "Theory of Organized Play" and "Practice of Organized Play"; and to Mrs. Bowen whose sympathetic interest and cooperation have made it possible for the authors to rewrite the book in its present form.

The authors are also grateful to Professor Harold D. Meyer, of the Department of Sociology, University of North Carolina, for helpful suggestions as to content and arrangement of material; to Professor W. C. Trow, of the School of Education, University of Michigan, for stimulating suggestions regarding certain chapters; to Professor C. H. McCloy of the University of Iowa for his criticisms on the Chapter on Character; and to Mr. Howard Braucher and his assistants of the National Recreation Association for listing a number of topics that should be treated in the new book and for the privilege of quoting generously from their publications. In addition, the authors wish to acknowledge the assistance of Mr. Harold W. Copp in connection with the work of preparing the references and index.

The various plays, games, and sports are described in *Social Games for Recreation* and *Active Games and Contests*. The present book deals with them in a general way only.

ELMER D. MITCHELL,
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Part I

CHAPTER I

PLAY THROUGHOUT THE AGES

PLAY is universal. Play is life, and wherever life is found there is sure to be play in some form or other. Birds sing, kittens chase each other, and the young foxes wrestle and pounce upon one another. 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 scattered over widely separated areas of the globe; 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 present-day life, is just as much a part of primitive life; for explorers, whether searching among the jungles of hottest Africa or the frozen plains of Iceland, will find the peoples, both old and young, indulging in peculiar games 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 and adults to engage in artistic effort. 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 which depict boating, 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. 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 occa-

sions have been associated with merriment. Even as late as the beginning of the present century this was its status.

PLAY AMONG PRIMITIVE PEOPLES

HUMAN life and human institutions can be better understood by—and indeed cannot be thoroughly understood at all without—a study of the life of primitive peoples. Primitive cultures differ from the so-called civilized cultures and in general are less far advanced, but in many respects are more complex and frequently possess surprisingly desirable qualities. Play patterns are an integral part of all human cultures wherever mankind is found and in whatever state of advancement the culture may be. A study of the play of primitive peoples will throw much needed light on the nature of the play tendencies of mankind as a whole. Books on anthropology contain the descriptions of primitive play; we can do no more than a brief sketch here.

We are probably safe in assuming that the play of the earliest prehistoric man was more like the play of animals in nature; and since all animals play at impromptu and impulsive running, leaping, wrestling, and fighting, these activities were characteristic, especially in the life of children—certainly these forms are found among the least advanced of the existing primitives of to-day. Among adults play was of the animal type such as the satisfaction of the needs of hunger, thirst, sex, finding shelter, waging successful strife against animals and human enemies. Sense-gratification in addition to the satisfaction resulting from bodily maintenance, was characteristic; feasts were great festival occasions; baths, such as plunges in cold water and the steam bath of the sweat-lodge, were for sense-gratification as well as cleanliness. When free from the immediate compulsion of self-maintenance, primitive man's time was frequently spent in a play imitation of the hunt and fight which prepared him for greater efficiency in these pursuits. With the increasing ability to appease his wants and otherwise control his environment as his culture advanced, came a greater leisure and freedom, and with it the development of more varied forms of expressions of personality. Hence, organized play, art, dancing, and pageantry arose, all of which evidence the evolution of man to a plane decidedly above the animal level.

In studying the field of primitive play, several characteristic types are found: (1) dancing and rhythmic movement, (2) mimicking and acting, (3) singing, (4) conversing and story telling, (5) arts and crafts, (6) games and contests. In discussing these forms of play we

shall draw most of our illustrations from the tribes of the American Indian, which are the primitives closest to us in this country. References to the American Indian will not only serve to illustrate primitive cultures but should present information of particular interest to leaders of children's play inasmuch as the Indians hold such a peculiar appeal to American youth.

One of the most salient characteristics of primitive man and certainly the most striking aspect of his play was his *response to rhythm* in general, and particularly his *dancing*. Primitives were impressed by action more than by speech and consequently were much inclined to express their thoughts by bodily movement. Being creatures of strong emotions, they were peculiarly susceptible to music, either of voices or the rhythmic tomtoming of their drums. Their bodies reacted much like sounding boards—different vibrations produce different emotions; in this respect they are no different from human kind in general for *rhythm quite universally is contagious and a stimulus to participation*. "Man is drawn into identification with any perceived rhythm, and whether he enters into a rhythm with the vicarious experience of *Einfühlung*, feeling himself into the rhythm, or with overt action such as the diminished movement of tapping the hand or foot or nodding the head, or with augmented movement of the whole body in a dance, the experience is likely to be pleasant."¹ Primitive man as a whole, however, responded in a more unrestrained and whole-hearted manner than do his more advanced successors. There is no contemporary primitive culture on record that does not embody dancing.

People joining in the rhythmic movement of the dance not only experience an intensification of emotion, a feeling of increased power and an ecstasy that otherwise would not be possible, but they are united together with a feeling of unity and oneness and harmony. The dance welded primitive individuals together into a harmonious whole, and thus had a very important social as well as a recreational function. It is for this reason that they danced before going on the warpath and when neighboring villages of the tribe came together for a social occasion.

Brown describes the effect of the dance upon the Andaman Islanders as follows:

The surrender of the individual to this constraint or obligation is not felt as painful, but on the contrary as highly pleasurable. As the dancer loses himself in the dance, as he becomes absorbed in the unified community, he reaches a state

¹ Martha Hill, "Application of Criteria to the Dance," in *Interpretations of Physical Education*, Vol. III (J. B. Nash, editor), p. 142, New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1932.

of elation in which he feels himself filled with energy or force immensely beyond his ordinary state, and so finds himself able to perform prodigies of exertion. This state of intoxication, as it might almost be called, is accompanied by a pleasant stimulation of the self-regarding sentiment, so that the dancer comes to feel a great increase in his personal force and value. And at the same time, finding himself in complete and ecstatic harmony with all the fellow-members of his community, experiences a great increase in his feelings of amity and attachment towards them.

In this way the dance produces a condition in which the unity, harmony and concord of the community are at a maximum, and in which they are intensely felt by every member. It is to produce this condition, I would maintain, that is the primary social function of the dance.²

The more advanced primitives developed dancing to a remarkable degree of perfection and beauty. The white visitor, uninitiated into things Indian, yet familiar with good dancing technique, is amazed, on his first exposure, at the perfection of Indian dancing, and is often startled to find that it is something different from the mere "hopping around" he had supposed it to be. Indian culture reached its pinnacle in Mexico and diminishes in advancement with a few exceptions the farther away from this area one goes. The dancing of the Southwest Indians especially, and to a slightly less degree, of the Plains Indians, is still a spectacle to behold when seen in its original and authentic form. These Indians match the perfection of their intricate and graceful rhythmic motions with amazing showmanship. Their dance embodies vivid colors, beautiful design, waving plumes in the breeze, the stark stagecraft of painted bodies—dance is a poor name for it—it is drama.³ The hunting and fighting motion-language of the dance is wonderfully vivid and dramatic. It is color, motion, music, all combined and for no idle purpose, but as worship of the One Great Spirit.

To the Indians, the dance is religion. It is more than that, it is an expression of themselves, of their customs, of their communal life, of their art, of their philosophy. To the modern student, the startling thing regarding these Indians is the integration of their lives. The Indian's religion is related to his play, his art, his customs, his view of his natural surroundings—in fact, his religion *is* these things and they cannot be regarded as separate from it. Religion to him is play; indeed many primitive tribes seem to think of the words as synonymous. The highest form of his play, dancing, is his method of worship. He did not preach or discuss his religion; he danced it.

The Indian danced his prayers and his praise on every sacred occa-

² A. R. Brown, *The Andaman Islanders*, p. 252. Cambridge: The University Press, 1922.

³ See H. Alexander, *Manito Masks*, Introduction. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1925.

sion, including funerals. He beseeched the Great One for plentiful crops with the corn dance, implored Him for rain in times of drouth with rain dances, and likewise symbolized his thanksgiving. The last frantic efforts of the Plains Indians to stem the advancing white avalanche saw the abandonment of the old religions and the rise of the new, which, as is always the case, was expressed in rhythmic motion—the Ghost Dance. His dancing was related to and reflected in all other phases of his life. So with many other primitive peoples. The Bantus asked, upon meeting a member of another tribe, "What do you dance?" So fully was their dance a reflection of their life as a whole that nothing further in the way of knowledge regarding a stranger was needed.⁴

In portraying traditions, art, religion—life—in his dancing, the Indian in common with many other preliterates displayed a marked ability to *imitate* and *mimic*. When he put on the mask or the symbol of the god, the man, or the animal whose role he portrayed in the dance-drama, he did not assume that he was merely acting *like* the being but that he *was* the being, that the spirit and power of the being was in him. This led him to a careful and sincere study of the movements he was to portray; an attitude of mind that led to good acting. Ernest Thompson Seton, whose long life has been devoted to the study of wild animals and birds, recently witnessed a Pueblo Indian in an unannounced dance: no sooner did it start than he said, "Why, it's the prairie chicken," and upon inquiry he found that it was. So accurately had the dance portrayed the movements of the bird that the resemblance was immediately apparent.

Song was also a significant aspect of primitive life; all primitive people were much given to it. Among the most backward peoples, it is a chanting in monotonous repetition of a few set phrases, but among the more advanced primitives music has been much more highly developed. The American Indians as a whole were a singing people. They greeted every significant event in life with a song—the sunrise in the morning, the sunset at night, the birth of a child, the wooing of the bride, the time of thanksgiving, the days of sorrow and remorse, and when the time came for that greatest experience of life, death, the Indian hoped to greet it standing, with his own death song.

Primitive peoples in general derived much satisfaction from vocalization, and conversing and jesting were conspicuous sources of pleasure. This gave rise to *myth* and *legends*. The Indian's story telling was equally if not more significant than his singing. In the opinion

⁴H. Ellis, *The Dance of Life*, p. 38. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923.

of many, no mass of legendry in all of history so matches the Greek in quality and quantity as that of the American Indian.⁵

Peoples of the lower civilizations quite universally developed the *arts* that were pleasing to the eye as well as the ear. *Line* and *color* were much played with. The craft art of the Indian comprised an accomplishment on almost equally as high a level as his dancing and indicated again the development in his culture of the so-called higher play. He is the maker of the world's finest baskets, and his hand-woven rugs and pottery are among the finest that human hands have produced. Pedro Lemos is authority for the statement that there is more art in Mexico than in any European country.⁶ Mexican art certainly is very largely Indian, although affected in design and skills by Spanish influence. The Indian is content to spend endless days in making some article of negligible commercial value, merely for the sake of putting into it some picture of beauty which is in his mind. Their art was related to all the rest of life through the symbolic meanings of their designs.

The play life of primitive children was designed to train for life. It was education, and the application of the modern principle of the play way in education. There was none of the "shadow boxing" which characterizes the traditional educators' approach to life problems today; it struck straight from the shoulder at the problems themselves. So there is seen even among primitives the utilization of play for a purpose. The Plains Indian youth was confronted with the necessity of developing himself into a hardened, toughened warrior, a rider of the plains and a rover of the woods, and the older folk saw to it that his play contributed to this end. The duty of the old men of the tribe was to train and educate the children in the ways of life. It is said of the Blackfoot children that they would erect a whipping bar in the council ring—a cross bar so arranged that the height could be regulated so that a boy could just reach it with hands held overhead. Each boy would gather and bind together a dozen or so switches; a whipper was chosen by the boys from among the men, and the youth would endeavor to cling to the bar until the switches beaten on his back had been worn down to sticks. Likewise, they would place bundles of fir needles on the back of their hands, touch fire to them and see who could hold them there the longest. Young children were thrown in the cold water of the lake or river each morning on arising and later

⁵ See H. Alexander, *Manito Masks*, Introduction. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1925.

⁶ P. Lemos, "Mexico, Land of Arts and Crafts," *The School Arts Magazine*, p. 359, February, 1933. Worcester, Massachusetts: The Davis Press, Inc.

took morning snow plunges of their own volition. Little wonder that the Indian's ability to withstand exposure, pain, and privation without complaint has aroused much comment on the part of white explorers.

Much attention was of necessity given to practice with the bow and arrow as soon as the boy was old enough to handle a tiny weapon. The Iroquois, for instance, are said to have had five grades of shooting that all boys passed through: the first grade consisting of shooting at a bear's paw suspended with a thong from a tree. When it could be hit regularly, the boy entered the second grade which called for shooting a living chickadee; the third grade, a running rabbit; the fourth, a flying partridge; and fifth, a running deer. He was then considered a full-fledged hunter.⁷ So with tomahawk throwing, archery, riding, swimming! A number of Crow warriors would depart from the village, set up camp in an unannounced spot, and the boys were told to track them and steal their horses; if caught they were ridiculed by their elders.

Problems comprised much of the play-education of many Indian tribes. The Iroquois boys, for instance, were told to go to a certain spot, set up camp, secure their food, strip, kill animals and fashion clothing and moccasins for themselves, kill a deer and return with it to camp. If it took them too many days they were sent back again. Whatever the serious pursuits of life, ways of training for them through play were devised.

Girls were likewise educated by the older folk so that they could do all things well which adulthood would demand of them; the girl learned the meaning of symbolism, the art of her tribe, the crafts which women had practiced, the songs and legends of her people, as well as the household arts.

In all of this play-education the element of force was seldom used. The love of children and respect for their personalities which Indians quite universally manifested has been a striking lesson to white parents and leaders. People living long lives among the Indians of the woods, plains, and Southwest areas have said that they never saw an Indian strike a child, and the whipping of children by white parents is something the Indian cannot understand. Incentives were doubtless used, but fear of physical punishment was not one of them.

Games and contests very similar to those found in civilized countries to-day are frequently found among primitive people. Wrestling, running and throwing contests, riding races, and even games using balls were used by the Indians. Much emphasis was placed on long-

⁷ A. C. Parker, *The Indian How Book*, p. 110. New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1928.

distance running, and outstanding feats of distance running by adult Indians are on record. *Gambling* was very common not only among the Indians but all primitive peoples. There seems to be a quite universal fascination to human kind in playing with chance. Tops, stilts, pop guns and wad shooters, quoits, and coasting were amusements of Indian children. Snow-snakes or ten-foot staves were hurled across the snow for distance. Contrary to common opinion, team games requiring some little organization were prevalent, our games of *lacrosse* and *shinny* being taken from the Indian. Football kicking games resembling soccer were widespread. Practically all of these games had a religious as well as a recreational significance.

By way of summary, the play life of the primitive Indians was characterized by a philosophy of life which combined the art ideal, the religious ideal, and the ideal of physical perfection in activities of the following types: rhythm and dancing, song and incantation, mimicry and pantomime, story telling and dramatization, arts and crafts, fighting play, and imitation of adult pursuits. If the ideals in the use of play in advanced cultures which we shall discuss later can be referred to as the military ideal, the art ideal, and the scientific ideal, the ideal of the Indian in the use of play can be called the *life* ideal; it was an integral part of the full scope of life activities, inseparately related to all of them, and a preparation for them. When life is so integrated, no play movement is needed. Play movements become necessary only when life and education become artificial in type and in surroundings—artificial in the sense of being unrelated to the existence which the human race has been predisposed to live through countless centuries of evolution—and when life becomes fragmented, divided and subdivided, specialized and ultra-specialized.

THE EVOLUTION OF PLAY

THE play customs of any people are part of its folkways. They have their origin and are transmitted from generation to generation in much the same way as other folkways.

Man is naturally active, both physically and mentally. When primitive man had met the needs of self-preservation, he temporarily enjoyed leisure and freedom for self-gratification. Being alive and possessed of the physiological need for activity, this gratification could not be obtained by rest and sleep alone and consequently he played. His play, as we saw in the above section, consisted largely of play-fighting and play-hunting, dancing and pantomime, singing and story

telling, artistic and constructive effect, games and contests. No small amount of this play was a competitive or rhythmic and pantomimic representation of hunting and fighting which served the purpose of training the hunters and warriors for their serious pursuits, in much the same way that athletes to-day train and practice for their sports.

Children, who are always forward-looking and seeking growth, *imitated* these adult activities, both serious and play. Mankind in general is imitative, and the play customs of a few of the group tend very rapidly to become the play ways of many. Each new generation of children took on through imitation the accepted play patterns. In this way a background of play traditions arose which were passed on from generation to generation and spread out in ever-widening circles. This passing on from generation to generation of the group ways is made more effective and unavoidable by the tendency of adults to *inculcate* deliberately in children the group habits. Society is organized and devoted to the end of implanting in children its folkways and mores. Thus through imitation and inculcation, the games and play patterns persist over long periods of time. Most games can be traced away back in the history of the folk who play them; in fact, the beginning can seldom be located. However outworn the traditional ways may be they seem precious to the group. The past is always big in the present.

Through the process of social evolution which is going on everywhere and unceasingly, however, the games and play activities are constantly *changing*. No succeeding generation can imitate *exactly* the customs of the past generation, and minor changes gradually creep in. While the game in the large remains essentially the same as in the immediately preceding generation, with the passage of a long period of time it may be changed decidedly. Furthermore, as the game spreads out over larger and larger areas, people in different localities add variations of their own until the game is played in widely different ways and known by different names. An American country square dance, for instance, while recognizably the same everywhere is danced in varying ways as one goes from locality to locality, and we speak of the Vermont way of dancing a certain routine, the Michigan way, the Indiana way, and the California way. In the isolated hills of Kentucky, square dancing evolved into "set running" which is far removed from other American square dances although similar enough to retain the label.

In addition to the fact that no generation can imitate exactly the play of preceding generations, there are other factors leading to the evolution of the forms of play. There is *accidental variation*: through

accident or chance, a new way of playing a game is stumbled upon and, proving more satisfying and appealing than the old way, it is accepted, imitated, taught to children and thus passed on as a folkway.

With the occasional appearance of *creative minds*, new play methods are invented or improvements made in the old methods. In the history of the present-day play movement, creative minds have altered old games decidedly, as in football, and have produced seemingly new ones, such as volleyball and basketball. These new games are not really new, however, but are combinations of or are based upon older ones. Creative minds may hasten the development of the new, may alter and combine old games in a new form, but they can seldom, if ever, create a new game outright. As de Laguna puts it:

We seem not to be capable of inventing even a really new game. Basketball, as compared with hockey and association football, or the original bridge, as compared with whist, are fair illustrations of the utmost degree of novelty that is to be found. An old story has it that chess was invented by the sage Palamedes as a pastime for the Greek chieftains who took part in the long siege of Troy. If chess had, indeed, ever been invented, it must have sprung from the brain of Athena herself rather than from that of the most ingenious of mortals. But it was never invented; it grew. In early modern times the power of the chess bishop was not what it is now. And even after all the rules of the game were fixed as at present, the game could still develop; and in the course of the nineteenth century the development was extraordinary, as remarkable in its way as that which was undergone by the sciences of chemistry and geology.⁸

The *cross-fertilization of cultures* through warfare, travel, and ease of communication is a further factor leading to the appearance of new play customs in a society. A warring tribe, conquering its enemies and bringing back slaves and hostages, takes on from these strangers their play and art customs, which are adopted as the tribe's own. One of the popular dances of the Jemez Pueblo Indians, for instance, is the *Comanche*, a dance learned by them while held captive by their traditional enemies, the Comanches. With much travel into foreign lands, ideas for recreational changes are brought back.

Freedom from deeply entrenched traditions is also a situation conducive to rapid change in the forms of play. Old cultures, highly crystallized and stagnant with tradition, change very slowly, while new countries, relatively free from reactionary elements, possess an exuberance and an accelerated tempo which lends to the rapid appearance of the new. Thus play forms emerge in these countries which vary

⁸ T. de Laguna, *The Factors of Social Evolution*, p. 64. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1926.

enough from the old to be called new. In America, with its youthful attitude and pioneer spirit, for instance, there has occurred the development of football, volleyball, and basketball.

Another important factor in the evolution of play in any society is *a large amount of leisure*. Leisure always gives an added importance to play and festivity. 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.

With the passing of the centuries and the inevitable change that takes place with time, ceremonies and rituals once affiliated with the supernatural and possessed of sacred meaning lost their significance and, while continued, became looked upon in 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. Sacred 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," 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 Alice Gomme who 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.⁹

Most of our modern contests of strength and skill, such as running, jumping, throwing, and wrestling, date back in recorded history to ancient Greece, but probably have a history of many centuries of evolution before the rise of Greek culture. 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. At Olympia, 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 citizen-

⁹ See A. B. Gomme, *The Traditional Games of England, Scotland, and Ireland*. London: D. Nutt, 1894.

ship 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. Football, baseball, soccer, cricket, hockey, polo, golf, and others have taken centuries to assume their present point of organization. Tennis is said to date back to the Roman Empire. A few games, basketball and volleyball, for example, are more completely 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 natures are attracted. A reference 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. Society as a whole no longer countenances the more brutal of the above acts; nor can they be practiced in the open because of the fact that public sentiment is opposed to them.

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: play as an activity is not identical with play as a movement and as an institution. The older 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 always been one which adults have considered in a serious light—here is expressed again the viewpoint that primitive peoples had toward their first play. All cre-

ative 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 is often 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 often 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.

In studying the treatment of play in the philosophies and educational systems of various countries throughout civilized history we find five distinct attitudes which have held sway at different times and places: (1) the *military* attitude, (2) the *art* attitude, (3) the *religious* attitude, (4) the *scientific* attitude, and (5) the *social* attitude. Each of these will be discussed in turn.

THE MILITARY ATTITUDE

In the earliest stages of the development of the human race men seem to have discovered that play could be directed toward a certain desired end. We have already seen the use of play in primitive cultures as a means of training for the accomplishment of desired objectives. In the history of recorded civilizations this end has most often 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 country 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 horse riding 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 in the period of chivalry 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 the play of civilized nations 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-round citizen who could so enjoy the higher things of life. At an early age the boy and girl were

given a nursery training that was 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 coordination 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 cele-

bration. 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 overran 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 not only be 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 problems of life were not to be faced and fought and solved—life was to be retreated from and the ideal life was to be found in the monastery.

To the scholastic mind there were two sources of authority, the Bible and religious tradition connected with the Church, and Aristotle. Aristotle occupied a position second only to Christ. Considering the position of esteem in which he was held it is difficult to see how the high estimate which he placed upon the constructive value of play could have been so completely ignored.

Aesthetic play, however, was not only sanctioned but encouraged, so long as it had a distinct religious flavor. Beautiful cathedrals were constructed, masterpieces of painting produced, and enduring music created. It was in the spirit of creative play that these things came into being. Sanction was given these creative achievements, however, only when they were of a religious nature and thus most of the music and art was of a religious or semi-religious character.

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 program.

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, social, 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.¹⁰ 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 or ambitious dictatorship gains control. 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. Play is thus superseding the formal gymnastics of the past.

¹⁰ For quotations from the writings of these men, see F. R. Rogers, "Selections from Great Educators Throughout the Ages," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*, March, 1933.

THE SOCIAL ATTITUDE

The present play movement surpasses all others in magnitude and in breadth of aims. While to date it has placed less emphasis on the æsthetic side than did the Athenians, 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 held 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, and economics. There is a growing realization that the hallways and play areas of the school are equally as important as the classrooms, and, in respect to the formation of character habits and attitudes and the socialization of the individual, probably more important, for it is in these close, intimate, informal relationships in real life situations that human nature is affected most profoundly.

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.

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CHAPTER II

THE MODERN PLAY MOVEMENT

THE modern play movement is not the characteristic of a single country. It had its peculiar beginnings in practically every country and has shaped itself according to the especial social and physical environments of each nation. The countries of Europe and the United States have been most prominent in the rise of the play movement and a general survey of their respective backgrounds, developments, and influences is needed for an adequate understanding of the significance and trends of the present-day movement.

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 unsympathetic governments. Jahn con-

tributed in the way of equipment by the invention of the parallel and horizontal bars and such heavy apparatus as the horse.

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 *Volkschulen* (the elementary schools) equipped with an outdoor play space (*Turnplatz*) as well as the indoor gymnasium (*Turnhalle*). The children enjoy five hours of physical activity a week, partly play and partly gymnastics. All children are required to learn to swim before leaving school. Since the War the emphasis has shifted more and more to sports instead of formal gymnastics. The play periods are supervised by the regular teachers. Occasional invitation games are played between schools, but for the most part any organized athletic competition takes the form of track meets in which city associations and local clubs often participate. For the students who are physically deficient, well conducted orthopedic classes (*Körperschule*) are available.

The secondary and higher schools do not have any highly organized system of selected teams and prearranged schedules. The tendency is for the students to connect themselves with the voluntary associations and sports clubs so numerous in the cities. Many of the clubs foster but one sport activity but more recently the tendency has been to broaden out and include a more comprehensive program. The popular sports are tennis, swimming, skiing, soccer, track and field, rowing, bicycling, fencing, and gymnastics. A game called handball, played on a soccer field but in which the ball is thrown rather than kicked, is also extensively played.

Some degree of national organization has entered into German sport with the development of a keen interest in the Olympic Games and with the selection of Germany as the host in 1936.

To-day no country surpasses Germany in the realization of the importance of space for play fields and the number is increasing rapidly. The playgrounds are of two types: (1) those owned and operated by the municipality for the use of the schools and the general public, and (2) those operated by private organizations on land granted by the municipality. Many of the latter are conducted by the turnverein and athletic associations.

In recent years many stadiums have been erected by the larger cities, some of which, like the one at Frankfort, have attracted world-wide attention by the completeness of their facilities. In the support of these projects, the growing interest in sports was accompanied by the need to relieve unemployment. The stadiums have been the scene of great gatherings (Turnfests) attended by thousands of visitors.

Music and dramatic activities are also sponsored by the government to a certain extent. In 1928, the state owned and supported two opera houses and two theatres in Berlin and the municipality one opera house.

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. May and Petgen estimate that 5,000,000 adults over fifteen years of age, one fourth of them women, are members of sport organizations.¹ 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

¹H. L. May and D. Petgen, *Leisure and Its Use*, p. 80. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1928.

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 program to a limited degree, offer a play and recreational incentive.

The above discussion has had to do largely with athletic and gymnastic activity in Germany. Perhaps the most interesting and significant aspect of the recreational trend in that country in recent years has been the outdoor movement. German youth organized themselves spontaneously all over the country into groups for recreational and discussion purposes, bringing into being a new movement known as the Youth Movement with its adherents called the Wandervoegel (Wandering Birds). Under this name enthusiastic groups took to the open country. They could be seen in pairs or groups of a dozen all along the highways, packs on their backs and singing their folk songs as they strode along, carefree and happy. In flat sections bicycles were often used instead of walking. Lodging houses, called youth shelters, appeared in most communities for the convenience of these wandering hikers and were limited to their use only, operated under strict rules and at a nightly fee of a few cents. In the evenings these houses resounded with folk songs and were made colorful with folk dances. Small groups could be seen here and there engaged in serious discussions about political problems or the abstract meanings of life.

Canoes have appeared on all the German rivers in recent years. Canoeing has also become as popular in the summer as skiing is in the winter.

The Germans have always been good conversationalists and delight in spending long periods talking with one another. They sit regularly and for long periods over their beer steins, wine glasses, and coffee cups, just talking and seeking the enjoyment of one another's company.²

ENGLAND

The English play system is a natural growth rather than a manufactured product of particular educators. For this reason there is not

² For a discussion of the present tendency in leisure-time activities in Germany, see H. L. May and D. Petgen, *Leisure and Its Use*, pp. 68-147. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1929.

such a trustworthy account of its development. From earliest times, the liberty-loving Anglo-Saxons have enjoyed sports, games, and amusements. 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, basketball, track and field, and to a limited extent, soccer and cricket.

In the educational process as it operates in the British schools, games and sports occupy a most important place. They are valued as much for the social training they afford as for the physical. The emphasis is

the result of tradition and practice, however, and not of educational theory.³

The universities do not make play compulsory; yet, the habit persists and many athletic clubs are organized. Sport in the universities is casual and entirely up to the choice of the individual. 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 athletic leagues flourish as in America, but since games are regarded essentially as play rather than work, the line between the professional and the amateur is very strictly drawn. The average Englishman is not content merely to watch but wishes to be a participant. To play the game for the game's sake is his attitude.

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. Humphry Ward. In 1905 she was instrumental in organizing the Children's Play Centers Committee in London and as a result largely of its efforts, there were 41 centers in the school buildings of London in 1930.

In 1927 the National Playing Fields Association was organized in England to promote the organization of playgrounds. Much work is being done in promoting recreation in rural sections by the National

³ See H. J. Savage, *Games and Sports in the British Schools and Universities*, p. 199. New York: The Carnegie Foundation, 1927.

Federation of Women's Institutes. It fosters a rich and varied program of handicrafts, music, dramatics, and folk dancing. The English Folk Dancing Society is also actively engaged in sponsoring folk dancing.

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 basketball. 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 emphasis in the Swedish recreation movement is swinging more and more to games to supplement the formal gymnastics. Ten-

nis, football, handball are very popular, and golf, which has been recently introduced is gradually growing in favor. Baseball and rugby are not played. Skiing and skating in the winter and swimming in the many lakes and rivers are favorite pastimes. 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.

Gymnasiums and playgrounds are to be found in connection with the schools and most villages have playgrounds owned by Associations but which are often built by the municipalities. Winter sport grounds are to be found throughout the country.

FRANCE

Only since the World War have the French taken to sports, and the introduction of physical education 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 recent years, however, the schools have been making more adequate provisions in the way of gymnasiums and apparatus. The efforts of the American Red Cross to institute playgrounds in France at the close of the War met with very faltering success, but recently the movement has been gaining momentum. The playgrounds of Paris are very small and cater mostly to young children, being supervised by nurses. In 1931 there was only one large playground in the city. The future, however, seems to hold promise for the cause of public recreation.

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.

May and Petgen point out that there is a notable indifference in France to recreation as a problem and a conspicuous lack of widespread provision for recreational leisure needs. Individualism is a most marked characteristic of the French, and the Frenchman's feeling of social responsibility aside from his nationalistic loyalty does not in general extend beyond his immediate family. His play is characterized by a greater emphasis upon the pleasures of the senses than is found among Anglo-Saxon peoples. The café habit is an essential factor in French masculine life.⁴ The government has recently taken a greater interest in the promotion of recreation.

OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES⁵

As late as 1922 in *Russia* there were only hints of mass physical education. To-day it has spread like a huge wave and the attitude is most encouraging. There seems to be a distinct realization that the strength of a nation depends upon the strength of individuals and that health is essential to happiness. Interest in sports has doubled and tripled in the last five years and continues to grow. The Russians are a rugged people living in a harsh climate and their sports are consequently of the vigorous type. There are no professional sports and the emphasis is on participation.

Siberia, too, has been touched by the modern play movement. In Irkutsk, a city of 1,500,000, there are to be found playgrounds equipped and supervised like the modern playgrounds of the United States.

Since the rise of the Fascista political party to power in *Italy* in 1922 much progress has been made in the promotion of play. The schools have well-developed physical education programs with able leaders in charge. In the elementary and upper schools four 30-minute periods are spent weekly in the use of the school's facilities for play and physical education and one two-hour period per week on a play-field, which frequently is removed somewhat from the school. The government has general control of all clubs and organizations for youth and carefully supervises them. It promotes a club program including the *Opera Nazionale Balilla* for boys between eight and fourteen years of age, and the *Avanguardisti* for boys between fourteen and eighteen years of age. The organizations present a most varied and

⁴ For a description of recreation in France, see H. L. May and Dorothy Petgen, *Leisure and Its Use*, pp. 27-68. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1929.

⁵ For articles on recreation and physical education in European countries, see *Recreation*, November, 1931, and the *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, April and June, 1930; February, 1931; February, April, October, and November, 1932.

comprehensive program of recreational, athletic, outdoor, camping, and craft activities. They have a tremendously large membership.

In 1925 the government created the *Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro* (National Institution for the Utilization of Workers' Leisure Hours). It presents to laboring men a leisure-time program of physical, cultural, and intellectual activities. In 1932, according to Serrati, there "is not one commune in Italy, there is not one locality, there is not one industrial center where the *Dopolavoro* has not organized a good part of the masses into happy and enthusiastic groups devoted to organized recreation."⁶

Greece, although rich in ancient play traditions, did not take up the modern public recreation movement until after the World War. The accomplishments are still meager but the start has been made. The first demonstration playground was established by the Near East Foundation as an American philanthropic enterprise, and a second was established by the National Council of Greek Women and endowed by the federal government. In 1932 there were 173 private athletic clubs in Greece with a membership of 15,000. The following games are played, listed in order of popularity: football, track and field, basketball, volleyball, handball, and tennis.

Greece in 1932 had 280 teachers of gymnastics in secondary schools and universities. Thirty stadiums existed and 120 more were being built. Every village in Greece hopes soon to have an athletic field. A new academy for gymnastic teachers was started in 1932. There is a desire to reach the pinnacle of play-perfection that characterized the Greece of old and the foundation is being well laid for the attainment of the ideal.

Czechoslovakia has its playgrounds and playfields in the larger cities. Physical education and sports are very well organized. The movement has a wide popularity, is democratic in spirit, is propagated spontaneously, and is self-supporting. The government, however, advocates and fosters all that is best in the field of sport. Recreation was introduced and sponsored in this country by the gymnastic institution of the Sokols and the Labor Gymnasts; it was estimated in 1931 that there were 700,000 members of these two organizations. Hiking is extremely popular and the Wandervoegel are found in many centers.

Although a marked interest in sports existed in *Poland* before the World War, this major aspect of the physical education program is one of very recent development. A Federal Union of various branches of

⁶ M. Serrati, "Recreation in Italy," National Recreation Association. *First International Recreation Congress Proceedings*, p. 34. New York: National Recreation Association, 1932.

sports exists at the present composed of the following branch federations: Gymnastic, Athletic, Handball, Soccer, Canoeing, Fencing, Boxing, Ice Hockey, Archery, Lawn Tennis, Cycling, and Motor Cycling. It is interesting to note that camping, hiking, "touring," and winter sports are highly developed and are regarded as even more important and valuable agents of education than the competitive athletics; in fact, these are the only types of recreation financed by the government treasury, athletics being self-supporting. A governmental board of physical education is responsible for the help of the above sports and shapes the program at will.

Since the World War, *Hungary* has gone forward in leaps and bounds in the development of its physical education program. The work has moved forward under a governmental Department of Physical Education which is instrumental in training teachers, the administration of physical education in the schools, and the direction of sports in the schools. Under one of its branches, the National Federation of School Sports, an extensive system of intra-school and inter-school sports for boys and girls has been developed. Among the activities are inter-school championship competition, and intramural programs in soccer, track, swimming, tennis, basketball, and the like.

In *Belgium* since 1875 there has been an enthusiastic following of the gymnastic systems of both Germany and Sweden. Games were introduced into the schools of Belgium as early as 1874, and summer training courses for teachers of games were started in 1883. The greatest development has come since 1920 when the American Junior Red Cross helped to start playgrounds for children and training courses for leaders. In 1923 the Belgium Red Cross took over the leadership of this work.

Finland has long been a country of athletics. She has led the world in long distance running. Her records in the Olympics have been remarkable. The Finn's hardy outdoor life has given him wonderful strength and vitality and he has profited by his contact with athletic Sweden. In addition to the track and field events, skiing, skating, and brisk walking are popular and much practiced. Finnish baseball and athletic badge tests for both men and women are used. Occasional towns are beginning to use basketball and soccer football. Inter-school competition is entering and a brilliant future for it is anticipated.

Denmark has the oldest school of physical education in the world. In 1804 the Gymnastic Institute was founded for the training of army officers in physical education and Franz Nachtgall (1777-1847) was made director. This school still flourishes and has had a far-reaching

effect in the promotion of physical education. Nachtgall was the founder of the Danish system of gymnastics. Games and track and field events have come into popularity during the last quarter of the last century. The Copenhagen Playground Association was organized during the 1890's and was instrumental in causing the national government to appropriate funds for the promotion of group games in the schools. Niels Bukh, another great leader of Danish physical education, evolved in 1921 a new interpretation of the traditional Danish system of gymnastics and of the Ling system of Sweden. This interpretation, known as "primitive gymnastics," has had a great influence throughout Europe and America.

In general the Danish people have always been most enthusiastic in respect to recreation and there has been an almost universal participation.

The American Friends of Turkey established a model playground at Smyrna, *Turkey*, in 1927, and two years later the city government took it over. In 1922 another model playground complete with equipment for all sports was established in Angora by the American Friends of Turkey. Such demonstrations are needed to get the movement under way and it is expected that soon the cities will meet the needs on their own initiative.

Holland is a country of outdoor sports and promotes recreation through games and play in general.

In fact in all parts of Europe there is the consciousness of the need for play, not only as a means to health, but as a means to social and moral education. The new movement is gripping every country on the continent, and although some have advanced the movement more than others, it seems only a matter of time before public recreation on a wide scale will be a fact in all of the many states of Europe. In the more backward countries recreationally, the American Red Cross, assisted by the native Red Cross, has been an important factor in introducing and demonstrating the new movement.

THE ORIENT

China has shown the world her arts, literature, philosophy, and cultural background, but her traditional point of view regarding physical activity has been that no gentleman would engage in play. Physical education was neglected for 4,000 years, and consequently no system of physical training has developed. Two movements in China are bearing results to-day: the Chinese Boxing Movement and the Western or Modern Physical Education Movement. Largely as a result of the

latter, much progress has been made, and there is a new and growing interest in games. In 1920 there were playgrounds and play teachers in connection with practically all schools, and public playgrounds are being rapidly established in the larger cities. The national government has built stadiums in a number of cities. The new movement includes women as well as men.

Japan up until 1925 had an occasional baseball and football team but there was very little interest in the sports. Since 1925, however, two huge stadiums, one seating 65,000 and the other, 30,000, have been built in Tokyo, and another accommodating 80,000 has been under construction in Naruo. Upwards of a dozen universities have accommodations for 10,000, and over, spectators. First class baseball is being played and the game is now as popular and universal throughout even the rural districts of Japan as cricket is in England. It is at the present time the most popular national sport. Cricket has never been taken up extensively in Japan, but hockey, association football, basketball, boxing, track and field events, and tennis are extremely popular and widespread. Golf is being taken up enthusiastically by business men and officials, and excellent courses are to be found. Since 1925 the Japanese swimmers have met with outstanding success in competition. Wrestling has long been popular in Japan and boxing now has an ever-increasing number of followers. With the coming of the cafés, dancing of the western type has sprung into popularity and a craze for it has swept the country. Much of the credit for the introduction of sport into Japan and China belongs to the Y. M. C. A. Not the least encouraging aspect of Japanese sport is the almost complete absence of professionalism.⁷

The *Philippine* and *Hawaiian Islands* now claim baseball, basketball, soccer, volleyball, and track teams. In 1929 a new movement was started to provide social centers and playgrounds for the masses of city children, whose lives in the past have been none too rich in recreational opportunities. There is a distinct movement toward the promotion of playgrounds. The American government's education program has been an important factor in the promotion of recreation in these Islands.

SOUTH AMERICA AND MEXICO

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

⁷M. D. Kennedy, *The Changing Fabric of Japan*, pp. 1-15. London: Constable & Co., Ltd., 1930.

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 basketball and volleyball 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, in Buenos Aires, Argentina, and in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

In the progressive sections of *Mexico*, track, tennis, and swimming have recently become popular, the Olympic Games in 1932 arousing much enthusiasm and inspiration for organized athletics. Basketball is also making headway. Most of the athletic work is promoted through clubs. Group games in general are very popular, altered of course to meet the requirements imposed by the climate and the disposition of the native people. Ninety per cent of the population of Mexico, however, is still to be found in the hills and living according to its age-old Indian folkways where fiesta days and dances are endless in number, and a leisurely craft culture still reigns supreme.

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 National Recreation Association 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 in 1906 of the Playground and Recreation Association of America (now called the National Recreation Association). 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 to 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. The movement continued to grow rapidly, as indicated in the following statistics covering the period from 1916 to 1932:

<i>Year</i>	<i>Cities Main- taining Centers</i>	<i>Number of Centers Under Leadership</i>
1916.....	414	3,270
1925.....	748	8,608
1932.....	914	12,684

The growth of the movement is further indicated by the annual expenditures by municipalities for public recreation in the United States. These figures do not represent the property owned by municipal departments of recreation, but rather the annual expenditures for maintenance, leadership, and the purchasing of new property.

<i>Year</i>	<i>Annual Expenditure</i>
1910.....	\$ 3,025,779.23
1915.....	4,066,377.15
1920.....	7,199,429.66
1925.....	18,816,165.55
1930.....	38,518,194.88
1932.....	28,092,263.09

The economic depression accounts for the decrease in expenditures in 1932. The most of this decrease was in expenditures for land, buildings, and permanent equipment. There was a decrease in the amount spent for leadership in 1932 as compared with 1930, but it was relatively smaller than the decrease in funds spent for equipment.

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 furnished 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.

During this same period the beginnings of the group work movement were witnessed. The Young Men's Christian Association which was started in London in 1844 and in Boston in 1851, organized its boys' department in 1860. The first gymnasiums in connection with Y. M. C. A. buildings were installed in 1869. In the early years of the boys' department the emphasis was on religious and moral discussion, and it was not until much later that a significant trend in the direction of play was noticed.

The Young Women's Christian Association was organized in London in 1861 and in Boston in 1866. Physical activity entered its program in an experimental way in 1877.

In 1880 the first organized camp for boys was established by Ernest Balch at Chocorua Island and called Camp Chocorua.

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 seashore 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 sandgardens.

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. Public attention also 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 1888 the City of New York allowed its public school buildings to be used in the evenings for lectures and later extended the privilege to other types of recreation.

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 Park 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 volleyball and basketball, 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 assumed public responsibility when in 1903 it opened up the South 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.

The organized camp movement had grown slowly since its conception in 1880 and by 1900 there were approximately twenty-four camps in the United States. There were other events which helped to determine the course of the playground movement. In 1902 Ernest Thompson Seton organized the Woodcraft Indians, a club movement for boys emphasizing a varied program of outdoor activities along physical, woodcraft, nature lore, and dramatic lines. The organization had a far-reaching effect in influencing the nature of future group work programs for children. 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 Recreation Association of America (now called the National Recreation Association), 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.

As the broadening of the program continued, nature lore and woodcraft found their way into the playground. A new appreciation of the use of music and singing as recreational mediums arose and social dramatics in the form of playground and community center plays also entered the picture. Arts and crafts were inserted in the playground programs and an emphasis was placed upon a year around program giving the social-recreational activities more of an opportunity. These beginnings in the use of the non-physical type of play were, of course, feeble and limited.

The use of school buildings as social centers received its first prac-

tical demonstration in 1907 in the City of Rochester, New York. An appropriation was made by the city government and a director was appointed. Gary, Indiana, in 1908 emphasized the wider use of the school plant by constructing buildings so designed as to serve admirably as social centers; playgrounds and indoor facilities including swimming pools were made available. In 1911 the National Education Association proposed a resolution approving the use of school buildings as social centers. Interesting experiments followed in many cities, particularly Cleveland, but probably the greatest development has been in Milwaukee which has long been known as "the city of the lighted school buildings."

The boys and girls club movement which had been gradually growing since 1902, received its greatest impetus about 1910. In that year the Boy Scouts of America were organized. The Camp Fire Girls followed in 1912 under the organizing leadership of Luther Gulick, and the Girl Scouts were started in this country in 1912. All of these organizations have prospered tremendously.

The period from 1910 to 1915 witnessed the marked expansion in the camping movement. Organized camps sprang into being in great numbers, both under the leadership of private concerns and organizations for boys and girls. The coming of the automobile had a significant effect upon the growth of the camping and outdoor movement during this period, in that it made the open country available to city dwelling folks.

It was in this same period that the athletic movement in high schools and colleges gained increased momentum and recognition. Athletics fell under faculty control, became better organized, and better facilities became available. Around 1915 the intramural movement with its ideal of athletics for all gained a significant foothold in colleges, and grew rapidly thereafter. It did not find its way into the high schools, however, until about 1925.

The War was not without its influence in focusing popular attention on the need for the play movement. 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 post-war boom for compulsory physical education and health training. Since the war, thirty-six states have passed compulsory physical education laws. The new importance given to physical education in the schools necessarily meant a temporary shortage of teachers, and normal schools

and universities rapidly instituted courses after 1921 for training teachers in this field. By 1930, graduate training was possible in most large universities.

In general the period since the World War has seen a tremendous awakening of the consciousness of the nation to the need for recreation and a great impetus given the movement. In 1918 the National Education Association adopted its seven cardinal principles which showed a distinct appreciation of the contribution which recreation makes to child training: (1) health, (2) command of the fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, (7) ethical character. The *Journal of the National Education Association* in 1930 conducted a vigorous editorial campaign in the support of education for leisure.

In calling the National Conference of Outdoor Recreation in 1924, President Coolidge focused national attention on the leisure-time problem and the need for added facilities. Its purpose was to encourage Americans to make more of their recreational opportunities and to stimulate every possible interest in outdoor health-giving recreation. The American Child Health Association was organized in 1923 and the National Amateur Athletic Federation in the same year. The President's Research Committee on Social Trends, appointed in 1929, gave particular attention to the recreation problem.⁸ The American Physical Education Association, always interested in the promotion of play, adopted its ten cardinal principles in 1931, one of which pledged the Association to the "promotion of the idea of play and recreation as aspects of the finest living." The American libraries have taken leadership in the promotion of outdoor recreation and in 1933 sponsored a three-point program of recreations, avocations, and occupations. The Parent-Teachers Associations have been instrumental in establishing, equipping, and supplying leadership for many playgrounds throughout the country, and in general are backing the movement.

In 1930 the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection was called by President Hoover and its many committees studied all phases of the recreational life and needs of childhood. It was one of the most significant gatherings in the history of recreation⁹ and child study, and its Children's Charter was one of the most impressive statements of the rights of childhood in all of history. Recognizing the

⁸ Their research appears in J. F. Steiner, *Americans at Play*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933.

⁹ The reports of this conference applying to recreation appear in J. E. Rogers, *The Child and Play*. New York: The Century Co., 1932.

rights of the child as the first rights of citizenship, the conference pledged itself to these aims for the children of America:

- I. For every child spiritual and moral training to help him to stand firm under the pressure of life
- II. For every child understanding and the guarding of his personality as his most precious right
- III. For every child a home and that love and security which a home provides; and for that child who must receive foster care, the nearest substitute for his own home
- IV. For every child full preparation for his birth, his mother receiving prenatal, natal, and postnatal care; and the establishment of such protective measures as will make child-bearing safer
- V. For every child health protection from birth through adolescence, including: periodical health examinations and, where needed, care of specialists and hospital treatment; regular dental examinations and care of the teeth; protective and preventive measures against communicable diseases; the insuring of pure food, pure milk, and pure water
- VI. For every child from birth through adolescence, promotion of health, including health instruction and a health program, wholesome physical and mental recreation, with teachers and leaders adequately trained
- VII. For every child a dwelling place safe, sanitary, and wholesome, with reasonable provisions for privacy, free from conditions which tend to thwart his development; and a home environment harmonious and enriching
- VIII. For every child a school which is safe from hazards, sanitary, properly equipped, lighted, and ventilated. For younger children nursery schools and kindergartens to supplement home care
- IX. For every child a community which recognizes and plans for his needs, protects him against physical dangers, moral hazards, and disease; provides him with safe and wholesome places for play and recreation; and makes provision for his cultural and social needs
- X. For every child an education which, through the discovery and development of his individual abilities, prepares him for life; and through training and vocational guidance prepares him for a living which will yield him the maximum of satisfaction
- XI. For every child such teaching and training as will prepare him for successful parenthood, homemaking, and the rights of citizenship; and, for parents, supplementary training to fit them to deal wisely with the problems of parenthood
- XII. For every child education for safety and protection against accidents to which modern conditions subject him—those to which he is directly exposed and those which, through loss or maiming of his parents, affect him indirectly
- XIII. For every child who is blind, deaf, crippled, or otherwise physically handicapped, and for the child who is mentally handicapped, such measures as will early discover and diagnose his handicap, provide care and treatment, and so train him that he may become an asset to society rather than a liability. Expenses of these services should be borne publicly where they cannot be privately met
- XIV. For every child who is in conflict with society the right to be dealt with intelligently as society's charge, not society's outcast; with the home, the school,

the church, the court and the institution when needed, shaped to return him whenever possible to the normal stream of life

XV. For every child the right to grow up in a family with an adequate standard of living and the security of a stable income as the surest safeguard against social handicaps

XVI. For every child protection against labor that stunts growth, either physical or mental, that limits education, that deprives children of the right of comradeship, of play, and of joy

XVII. For every rural child as satisfactory schooling and health services as for the city child, and an extension to rural families of social, recreational, and cultural facilities

XVIII. To supplement the home and the school in the training of youth, and to return to them those interests of which modern life tends to cheat children, every stimulation and encouragement should be given to the extension and development of the voluntary youth organizations

XIX. To make everywhere available these minimum protections of the health and welfare of children, there should be a district, county, or community organization for health, education, and welfare, with full-time officials, coordinating with a state-wide program which will be responsive to a nation-wide service of general information, statistics, and scientific research. This should include:

- (a) Trained, full-time public health officials, with public health nurses, sanitary inspection, and laboratory workers
- (b) Available hospital beds
- (c) Full-time public welfare service for the relief, aid, and guidance of children in special need due to poverty, misfortune, or behavior difficulties, and for the protection of children from abuse, neglect, exploitation, or moral hazard

FOR EVERY child these rights regardless of race, or color, or situation, wherever he may live under the protection of the American flag.

Summary of the Development of the Playground Movement.—A half-century or so ago, a pile of sand was placed in the yard of a settlement house in Boston. To-day, instead of occupying a back yard, the playgrounds have grown to the point where they are considered a vital point in city planning. To-day, instead of being financially helpless, dependent upon the gifts of a few kindly supporters, the playground movement has progressed to the point where millions of public taxes are being voted for its upkeep and expansion. In other ways, too, the transformation has been just as marked. Originally meant to entertain little tots barely able to toddle, the program now caters not only to grown boys and girls but to men and women as well. A program originally intended for a few months of the summer now covers the entire year. A program which in the beginning included a few simple plays and games, now has broadened to embrace a multitude of activities, including music, nature study, gardening,

manual crafts, pageantry, clubs, and many other things we used to think of as belonging to the province of the school and home. In these and other ways has the play and recreation movement developed until it is one of our most important social institutions at the present time—in fact, a rival of the home, school, and church in the building of young manhood and womanhood, and in the preservation of wholesome standards of living.

It must not be forgotten that there are certain men and women who have given a life of service to the cause of play and have been pioneers in the advancement of the new movement. Luther Gulick, George E. Johnson, Joseph E. Lee, Henry S. Curtis, and Clark Hetherington are outstanding figures who, through their writings and personal influence, have helped to keep the movement before the people and have shaped its course.

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Part II

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL EXPLANATIONS OF PLAY

WE have surveyed briefly the rise and progress of the play movement and observed the remarkable rapidity of its growth. Let us now 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 expend so much energy and money to organize and promote it? Has it any constructive value beyond the joy that it brings, and if so, what are these values?

Many of the theories attempting to answer these questions which we shall discuss in the following pages have been much criticized, but the point many of the critics have failed to realize is that play is so broad a phenomenon, the result of so many factors, is seen around us in such a variety of forms, and involves so many elements of personality, that any theory or explanation must of necessity appear partial and inadequate. Play cannot be thoroughly understood and explained until life itself can be explained. Play is not an isolated phenomenon; it is an integral part of life itself and cannot be interpreted apart from other life phenomena. Many of the theories of play which follow are not open to attack so much from the standpoint of their lack of truth or validity, as they are from the standpoint of their inadequacy in explaining *all* aspects of the subject. Each new theory as it was developed grew out of the inadequacies of the preceding theories. Let us then approach these theories sympathetically, in the spirit of the searcher after truth, and we shall find more of truth than falsehood.

TRADITIONAL THEORIES OF PLAY

THERE are four traditional theories of play which we shall review in turn: (1) *the surplus energy theory*, (2) *the recreation theory*, (3) *the instinct-practice theory*, (4) *recapitulation theory*.

THE SURPLUS ENERGY THEORY

This is one of the oldest, simplest, and most widespread 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." Says Schiller, "When the lion is not tormented by hunger, and when no wild beast challenges him to fight, his unemployed energy creates an object for himself; full of ardor, he fills the re-echoing desert with his terrible roars and his exuberant force rejoices in itself, showing itself without an object. The insect flits about in the sunlight, and it is certainly not the cry of want that makes itself heard in the melodious song of the bird; there is undeniably freedom in these movements, though it is not emancipation from want in general, but from a determinate external necessity. The animal *works* when a privation is the motor of its activity, and it *plays* when the plenitude of force is this motor, when an exuberant life is excited to action."¹

The original author of this theory is not definitely known. Many 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. James more recently expounded it in his essay on the *Energies of Men*.

That section of the theory which designates play as aimless is certainly open to criticism. It is absurd to characterize all play as aimless. Hobhouse says, "The singing of the birds or the play of the butterfly is no mere frivolity, but is serious courtship."² Lehman and Witty hold this point of view: "Undoubtedly much of what seems to be random or aimless movement in the animal world is in reality search for food and mate. One is not justified in designating an activity as an end in itself merely because no ulterior end is clearly evident. Schiller's assertions that the roar of the lion is 'without an object,' that the melodious song of the bird is 'certainly not the cry of want,' and that 'the insect flits about rejoicing in life in the sunlight,' are therefore questionable."³ Some of the informal "fooling around" of children,

¹ Friedrich Schiller, *Essays, Aesthetic and Philosophical*, p. 112. London: Bell & Sons, 1875.

² From Hobhouse, *Mind in Evolution*. By permission of The MacMillan Co., publishers, 1901.

³ H. C. Lehman and P. A. Witty, *The Psychology of Play Activities*, p. 8. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1927.

such as tossing of hats when school lets out, seems on the surface to be aimless, but there is just as much definite aim in tag games, ball games, races, dances, arts and craft activities, and card games as in plowing a field or cooking a meal. Aimless play, if indeed it exists at all, is the lowest type of play. What we probably can say is that in most play the player is not *aware* of an important aim beyond the enjoyment of, or the attaining of, perfection in the activity itself.

In the surplus energy angle of the theory, the contention is that the playing animal has more energy than he needs for subsistence, reproduction, and defense. This he expresses in play. Play activities are those which do not subserve serious life needs. Often there is no opportunity for complete expression in pursuit of the serious purposes of life; hence an accumulation of reserve energy and strength results. Play is due to an inner need to use bodily organs which are over-rested and under-worked. This surplus energy is expended through the usual channels, not as work for serious life ends, but as play.

The theory handles the play of children by contending that young animals, because they are protected and fed by parents, use none of their energies for self-preservation and are thus free to play all the time, and children, being similarly free from economic pressure, do likewise.

The argument raised against this point of view is that 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 comes. 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, are entirely oblivious to dinner call and the passage of time, and even fall asleep at play. As they grow tired of one game, they enter into another with just as much vim. This, the criticism has it, does not look like a mere escape of surplus energy. The theory would answer this argument by saying that some energy must be possessed by the individual, however long he may have played or however malnourished he may be, or he would not continue to play. Certain sections of the neuromuscular organism become weary from playing one game, and the individual turns to another, utilizing other sections, and then to another.

Activities are always entered into with more zest and spontaneity when energy is abundant. The presence of such energy is a factor which tends to make activities seem like play which otherwise might be drudgery. The horse confined to the stall all winter is frolicsome and unruly when first let loose in the spring; the chained hound dog

is all the more eager to hunt when it is freed; children shout and leap into the air when school is dismissed.

Although faulty in statement, the theory is not without truth and makes a contribution to the thinking of those who seek to understand play. All organic beings possessed of energy tend to be active. The organism which is physiologically fit and free from the pressure of economic and protective needs or from the domination of authority, tends to be active at that which it likes to do. Thus we say it plays. When the supply of energy becomes too low from long-continued exercise or the presence of infection, it seeks rest in sleep. It may be said that this fact needs no explanation, since to be active is characteristic of all animal life. This is true, but the single fact goes a long way toward accounting for the tendency to play. The theory falls short in that it fails to account for the form which play takes, for the fact that children possessed of energy play the things they do, for the curious fact that play the world around is much alike, yet also different as one goes from place to place, and for the fact that play rests and restores and relaxes.

The point of view set forth in the surplus energy theory was the first argument advanced for inserting athletics into colleges. It was contended that athletics were needed to use up the energies of students and prevent them from engaging in hazing, hair cutting, "pumping," "town-gown fights," and similar activities characteristic of college life at one time. This same point of view was also the first argument used to indicate the need for playgrounds; with ample chance to play it was felt that the energies would be used which otherwise lead to juvenile delinquency.

The Views of Spencer.—Herbert Spencer's name has been associated with the surplus energy theory of play so often, and the statement that this theory embodies accurately his only view of play has been made so frequently that, in fairness to Spencer, a statement of the broad and comprehensive conception of the nature of play which this great philosopher really held needs to be made at this point.

In the course of a chapter on the development of the nervous system Spencer explains 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.

Spencer repeats this explanation several times with the use of slightly different words. But he repeatedly refers to instinct and to rivalry and the love of victory. Clearly, Spencer does not make an excess of energy the sole motive leading to play; there is also an instinctive urge for playful activity. In addition there is a tendency to imitate; he points out that the "forms of play tend to take the forms of the adult activities of the same species," and refers to kittens "simulating" the catching of mice, and the play of girls with dolls "resembling" the work of women.

Spencer held that there is a close relationship between art and play, and that art indeed is one form of play. Art and play, he felt, are similar in that neither subserves in any direct way the processes conducive to life; that is, they do not "have maintenance of the organic equilibrium of the individual, or else maintenance of the species, as their immediate or remote ends."⁴

Spencer maintained that with practice in play and art activity the individual improves in ability to function, and in this way play becomes a training for later life, a view which was later made much of by Karl Groos.

He also pointed out that play serves as a compensation device through which satisfaction is obtained when the normal expression of natural impulses is impossible and in this he anticipated the work of many recent psychologists. Says he, "the love of conquest, so dominant in all creatures because it is so correlative of success in the struggle for existence, gets gratification from a victory in chess in the absence of ruder victories."⁵ Through a combat of wits in ordinary conversation, there runs the effort for mental supremacy, resulting in satisfaction of egoistic feelings which find at the moment no other sphere.⁶

THE RECREATION THEORY

Play has been defined as "an occupation engaged in for recreation, rather than for business or from necessity." Lord Kames, English nobleman and philosopher, expressed this idea over two hundred years

⁴ Herbert Spencer, *The Principles of Psychology*, p. 627. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1873.

⁵ Herbert Spencer, *The Principles of Psychology*, p. 631. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1873.

⁶ For an excellent and brief summary of Spencer's complete views on play see H. C. Lehman and P. A. Witty, *The Psychology of Play Activities*, pp. 15-16, New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1927.

ago 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," emphasized the recreative value of play as well as its value for development and training in his book, *Games for the Exercise and Recreation of Body and Mind*. 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 (1824-1903) of the University of Berlin, who urged people to "Flee from empty idleness to active recreation in play."

The recreation theory is based on the sound principle that 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.

Play recuperates and restores the mentally and physically tired. As Lazarus puts it, "After work we require rest which accomplishes recuperation. But hardly ever does mere empty, inactive rest suffice for recuperation."⁷ The change of activity need not be to a widely different type—the mental worker may find rest and recreation in reading a story and the farm hand in baseball.

The recreation theory in general is sound and presents an interesting point of view regarding play but is, of course, inadequate as a complete explanation of the nature of play. 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. These two points of view become easily reconciled when we recall that the individual may become fatigued locally, that is, in certain parts of the neuromuscular system, by the type of activity he does during his work-a-day life, particularly by mental effort, but at the same time he may possess abundant energy throughout the general organism. He turns to play activity utilizing larger areas of the neuromuscular system and as a result feels rested and relaxed in respect to the locally fatigued areas. School children, for instance, become weary from studying, but possess ample energy throughout the general organism, and when released from school they leap, run, and shout. After the recess they return to their studies rested and relaxed, because of the change in activities.

⁷ Moritz Lazarus, *Über die Reize des Spiels*. Berlin: F. Dummler, 1883.

The Relaxation Theory.—G. T. W. Patrick, a contemporary psychologist, sustains the recreation theory and goes farther to explain it than any previous writer.⁸ 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. Mental powers in particular, he says, are subject to very rapid fatigue; one cannot exercise them long before demanding escape. This escape is found in racially old activities involving the big muscles, which are easier and restful and relaxing. Through evolution we have a natural ability for them. This is why, according to Patrick, 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 strength and restore lost powers.

In children, according to Patrick, the higher brain tracts are undeveloped and work in the sense of concentration, monotonous repetition, and the sustained use of small muscles is impossible. If they do anything, they must play, that is, their activity takes the form prescribed by brain patterns already developed, and these are racially old ones. The real world of to-day, says Patrick, is the laboratory, the factory, the bank, the store, and the street; imitation notwithstanding, the child's world is the forest, the streams, the camp, the hunting ground, and the battlefield. The popularity of these activities is attributed to "deep-rooted race habits," to "a latent memory of those ancient days," to "deep-seated human instincts."

Patrick illustrates by referring to popular sports: football, involving as it does more of the racial old coordinations than most games, such as kicking, running, striking, plunging, and shock, is satisfying, and consequently huge crowds turn out to witness it, vicariously

⁸ G. T. W. Patrick, *The Psychology of Relaxation*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916.

fighting against the enemy as they sit in the stands. The same is true of prize fighting and wrestling. Attendance at these games is held to be satisfying and relaxing, furnishing in an adequate way escape from an artificial life. They are like an echo from the remote past. Less combative and less strenuous games, he points out, are less satisfying.

Patrick's observations regarding the nature of play activities are in the main correct, and the theory is in general stimulating and thought-provoking. Its general point of view is popular and timely to-day as a result of the nerve-racking hurry and rush, and the monotonous grind which industry and the general mode of life has forced upon us.

In explaining the motivating in play in terms of "deep-rooted human instincts," "race habits," and a "racial memory," the theory is not so satisfying, in that there is no adequate proof of the existence of any such thing as a racial memory or race habit.

When the theory says that such activities as concentration, analysis, and monotonous repetition are much more fatiguing than the so-called racially older, big-muscle responses it is probably stating fact. But when it says that this is true because the higher brain tracts were developed recently in the development of the race, the explanation is inadequate because there is no neurological evidence to show that the higher brain tracts were undeveloped in primitive man.

The theory is also correct in saying that the so-called older types of response furnish relief and rest and relaxation after one has engaged in sedentary and small muscle activity; the fact is that when one engages for a long time in any activity he becomes fatigued, and can regain a desirable condition of the total organism by engaging in other activities using different parts of the organism. Sports in fact are for the most part of the so-called "racially old" type, as is no small amount of play in general. These so-called old coordinations are doubtless less fatiguing because they were learned in childhood and have been practiced throughout life. The theory is inadequate, however, as an explanation of all of play responses; it does not account for the pleasure derived from mental activity and intellectual play; it applies primarily to adults, not children; it neglects the very important role which habit plays in motivation, and in general bases its motivation in play upon an unproven premise.

THE INSTINCT-PRACTICE THEORY

The role of instinct as the motivating factor in life has played a large part in much of the older writings on play, and culminated in the monumental work of Karl Groos.

This Swiss scientist published in 1898 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 the theory of play and by study of literature on the plays of savage tribes and of the children of civilized man. He gives a very complete and elaborate classification of all the varieties of play of animals and men. His writings produced a profound effect on the minds of educators by showing to what an enormously wide range play extends, and its value to children, not only at the time of participation, but as training for later life.

On the theoretical side, Groos argued at great length in favor of instinct as the motivating factor in play, and in connection with it he advanced two doctrines which were quite revolutionary:

(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." Spencer,⁹ Malebranche,¹⁰ and von Hartmann¹¹ anticipated Groos in this point of view but did not develop it nearly to the extent that he did. 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 as did Groos in the above statement.

(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

⁹ H. Spencer, *Principles of Psychology*. New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1873.

¹⁰ N. Malebranche, *De la Recherche de la Vérité*. Paris: Hatier, 1921.

¹¹ E. von Hartmann, *Philosophy of the Unconscious*. (Translated by Coupland.) New York: The Macmillan Co., 1884.

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.

Groos' idea that play is a preparation for adult activities is doubtless true in the case of animals and has considerable foundation in the case of primitive man, but its application to the civilized life of to-day has met with criticism. The child's impulses lead him to running, jumping, throwing, and striking, and the youth to practice hunting, fishing, swimming, football, and the like. In what way, his critics ask, are these a precise and exact training for pursuits which civilized adulthood demands? Says Patrick, "If the serious life of to-day consisted in escaping from enemies by foot, horse, or paddle, in living in close proximity to domestic animals, in pursuit of game with bow or gun, in subsisting on fish caught singly by hand, in personal combat with fist or sword, in throwing missiles, striking with a club or pursuing an enemy, in seeking safety in trees or caves, in living in tents or tree houses, in sleeping and cooking by a campfire, then we might venture to explain the play life of the child as 'an instinctive activity existing for purposes of practice or exercise with serious intent.'"¹²

If we are to assume that Groos meant that the play of present-day children trains precisely and exactly for adult pursuits, then certainly his theory is at fault, for the child does not wrap packages, work typewriters, pitch hay, or put nuts on bolts when he plays; at least not to any extent that could classify these activities as characteristic of his play life as a whole. If, however, we take the point of view that play leads to a mastery of the physical self and develops the coordinations which lead to general physical efficiency in adulthood, then this phase of the theory is correct. Play develops the basic coordinations which make possible the learning of the specialized movements necessary in adult economic pursuits. The random swaying of the infant's arms in the cradle and the manipulation of his rattle and nursing bottle begin the process of mastering the capacity to strike. This is perfected through later play and produces an individual capable of learning readily the skills of handling tools and driving automobiles. Play is of

¹² G. T. W. Patrick, *The Psychology of Relaxation*, p. 38. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916.

outstanding value in developing the child's capacities, both physical and mental.

"Why does the child in his ignorance of adult needs react in just the right way to train him for these needs?" ask the critics. Children seldom play with the intention of fitting themselves for life, as Seashore (1916) has pointed out. "Children play, as do the rest of us, because it satisfies certain cravings and seems to be the eternally fit and natural thing to do. It is only in the larger retrospective view that we realize how nature has wrought marvels of development through the operation of the play instincts."¹³

Groos made much of the tendency to imitate, through which present-day adult activities were taken on by the child. He also emphasized the tendency toward association, a gregarious instinct, which led to interaction with the resultant learning of the ways of others and the achieving of social adjustment. Voluntary submission to law and order, subordination to leadership, sympathy, tender emotions, and other social lessons he conceived to be the result of play activity. All these are certainly training for successful adult life.

If one is to assume, as some have, that the theory conceives of life as being lived during adulthood and thinks of childhood as merely a preparation for it, that adult activities are serious and those of childhood are merely a sham or make-believe of real life activities, then the modern student must differ with the point of view. Child life and its play are quite as real and quite as serious as the life of adulthood. Childhood *is* life, in just as real a sense as the work-a-day routine of later years. It is difficult to show that the life of adult man is any more final or purposeful than the life of childhood.

Motivation in play is better explained by other approaches than that of the instincts which Groos assumed, a point which will be discussed presently in other connections. Even though his hypothesis of motivation may not be generally accepted to-day, his colossal collection of observations of the play activities of animals and man still stands supreme in its field and has built for him an enduring monument. His work did much to hasten a realization of the social value of play and to focus attention on the important place of play in education in general. His contention that the child's play activities prepare him in a general way for the duties of life is not invalid, but it is partial and incomplete as an explanation of the play phenomena of man.

¹³ Carl Seashore, *Psychology of Daily Life*, p. 2. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1916.

Joseph Lee's point of view as presented in his *Play in Education* is similar to that of Groos.¹⁴

Modified Instinct Theory.—McDougall, a contemporary psychologist, has advanced a variation of the instinct theory of play. He points out that in play instincts are modified and are expressed in ways different than if the individual acted with serious interest.¹⁵ A puppy playing at fighting, while he goes through many of the motions of fighting, displays a noticeably different type of behavior than if he were actually fighting. The fighting dog attempts to do damage to his opponent, while the playing dog does not—he merely bites and chews without apparent intent to hurt his playmate. This, it is pointed out, is not due to conscious self-restraint. The play fighting is due to a modified form of the fighting urge, a play-fight instinct, if you please.

The fighting dog takes on a characteristic mien—his head draws down and flattens, the hair on his neck stands erect, his lip curls up revealing his long eye teeth, and the emotion of anger is clearly present. These physical characteristics are not present in the playing dog, and there is no evidence of the emotion of anger as there would be if a true fighting instinct were functioning.

THE RECAPITULATION THEORY

G. Stanley Hall was the most brilliant sponsor of the theory which explains play as the result of biological inheritance. He says "True play never practises what is phyletically new. . . . I regard play as the motor habits and spirit of the past of the race, persisting in the present, as rudimentary functions . . . akin to rudimentary organs. . . . In play every mood and movement is instinct with heredity. . . . Thus we rehearse the activities of our ancestors, back we know not how far, and repeat their life work. . . . This is why the heart of youth goes out into play as into nothing else, as if in it man remembered a lost paradise."¹⁶

Hall, in his enthusiasm for this point of view, went so far as to contend that the growing child passes through a series of stages which recapitulate the "culture epochs" in the development of the race. Thus the child goes through, at certain ages, the animal, savage, nomad, agricultural, and tribal life stages. During these periods he participates in activities characteristic of the serious pursuits which men practiced

¹⁴ Joseph Lee, *Play in Education*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1915.

¹⁵ W. McDougall, *An Introduction to Social Psychology*, p. 110 ff. Boston: John W. Luce and Company, 1921.

¹⁶ G. Stanley Hall, *Youth*, p. 74. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1906.

in the culture epoch he is recapitulating. Many educators following the influence of Herbart (1776-1841) have attempted to build educational systems on this theory.

How does it happen that the child lives over these cultural periods? Hall would say because of instinct. But the question follows, why did not instinct lead individuals to pass through these periods before the race attained the cultural epochs in question? To this Hall would have to answer: because the instinct arose in the course of the culture epoch. That is, Hall seems to have assumed the inheritance of acquired characteristics. As skills were developed and cultural forms achieved, the capacity for them was passed on to the offspring. To Groos, instinct was the result of natural selection; in the struggle for existence, those with certain drives or tendencies favorable for existence survived, and had offspring possessing these drives and abilities. Groos was thus a follower of Darwin.

Hall contended that if the child, in any particular stage of his rehearsal of the culture of the race, expressed his instinctive tendencies freely, the instincts become weakened and would not function so strongly in later life. That is, if in the savagery stage of his life, he exercised the fighting instinct freely, he would not be troubled with an excessive urge to fight later on. Groos, on the other hand, held that the expression of the instinct through activity strengthened the capacity of the individual to function in this respect later in life.

Regarding the validity of the theory of recapitulation, we can, of course, take for granted that the individual cannot separate himself entirely from the past because of the nature of his organic structure which is the result of biological adaptation. Suffice it to say, however, that recapitulation of culture epochs is an invalid hypothesis which has no scientific support at the present moment. Weismann and a host of recent scientists have proven quite conclusively that acquired characteristics are not inherited. Furthermore, the various primitive tribes in the history of the human race have not progressed uniformly through the distinct culture epochs which this theory assumes; some tribes have skipped some of the epochs completely. Neither can it be shown experimentally that individuals live over in this precise way the history of the race. It is true that children are inclined toward the activity of primitive man and that primitive customs often seem to have a glamour for them, but not because they are recapitulating a culture epoch of savagery at the time. The great bulk of recent research shows that the types of play a child engages in depends primarily upon what the environment has offered him and upon the degree of neuromus-

cular development he has attained. Hall's contention that man never plays anything racially new is likewise faulty according to common observation. All that can be safely said is that the movements involved in the activities usually regarded as physical play are similar to those the race has employed for ages, and that man's predisposition toward these activities is due to the fact that the struggle for existence has made him structurally that kind of an animal.

Hall's theory had the very beneficial effect of stimulating research in the interests of children of various ages.

OTHER EXPLANATIONS OF PLAY

The Appleton Explanation.—Appleton (1910) brought forth an explanation with the emphasis on physiological growth. She contended that the foundation of play is found in instinctive tendencies to action and a developing nervous system. Play activity, she held, is of such a nature that it will satisfy the needs of the growing body.¹⁷ All children possess a physiological urge for growth, and this hunger is the basic drive in play activity. In this way, play precedes the ability of the organism to function in any given way and gives rise to the ability. When any given function has been fully developed, the need and desire for play in respect to that function subsides. Thus play leads to growth and is a training for life.

Groos maintained that instincts ripen one after another as the organism grows and that they appear before they are needed, giving rise to activity which forms habits; in this way these instincts lead to activity which is practice for life. Appleton, on the other hand, feels that it is the hunger for growth which leads to the ability and thus to growth and practice for life.

This theory no doubt has validity but is inadequate in its failure to explain all aspects of play. One wonders how the play of adults is to be explained.

The Catharsis Theory.—This theory seems to have been first suggested by Aristotle and was sustained and developed respectively by Groos, Carr (1902),¹⁸ and Claparède (1911).¹⁹ The surplus energy theory contends that play is due to the accumulation of energy and

¹⁷ L. E. Appleton, *A Comparative Study of the Play of Adult Savages and Civilized Children*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1910.

¹⁸ H. H. Carr, "The Survival Value of Play." *Investigation of Department of Psychology and Education*. The University of Colorado, 1902.

¹⁹ E. Claparède, *Psychologie de l'Enfant et Pédagogie Expérimentale* (translated by M. Louch and H. Holman). New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1911.

engaging in play uses up this energy. The theory of catharsis maintains that play is a safety valve for pent-up emotions. In the fighting play of children, for instance, emotions of anger are aroused but the fighting play gives adequate opportunity for expression and through indulgence in it the emotions subside. Strenuous fighting play such as football and boxing purge the youth of that energy which has anti-social possibilities, and without such an outlet for unapplied energy through organized accepted forms of play the task of the adult in handling children would be extremely difficult.

Fighting is a natural, spontaneous response to certain life situations but social taboos frequently prevent adequate expression. As long as an adequate fighting response follows the stimulus, no unpleasant emotions result. When inhibited because of social taboos and laws, emotions of anger and hate are present and linger. When a fighting response is resumed, the emotion subsides. Since fighting in any satisfying form is often impossible in ordered society, the anger emotions with a resultant irritability are frequently long continued. By turning to fighting types of play, a satisfying response is made possible, and the emotion subsides. Play thus has a cathartic effect, ridding the individual of distressing emotions.

Aristotle confined his doctrine of "Catharsis of the Passions" to tragedy, maintaining that through tragedy the soul is freed from something that is injurious. Claparède, Carr, and Groos have developed and extended the point of view to show that play in general may serve as a cathartic much along the lines described above. Groos and Claparède, respectively, pointed out that the instinct is not weakened or extinguished by the cathartic effect of play, but rather the *emotion* arising from the instinct is relieved. Claparède states that it relieves and soothes us, when we are angry, "to break a plate, to slam a door, or to flog an arm-chair. By fighting with his companions, the child will not definitely eliminate his wrestling instinct, which it is necessary he should possess for legitimate defence, but he will temporarily give vent to the aggressive tendencies that his instinct gives birth to, and which will be socially inconvenient until a necessary struggle gives him the chance to express them in real earnest."²⁰ Groos sums up his opinion as follows:

It seems indisputable that we have here a separate independent life value of play which, to be sure, can claim only a relatively limited importance, in com-

²⁰ E. Claparède, *Psychologie de l'Enfant et Pédagogie Expérimentale* (translated by M. Louch and H. Holman), p. 128. New York: Longmans Green and Co., 1911.

parison with the purpose of self-development, inasmuch as this consists primarily only in avoiding the injurious. . . . But not only the excessive urge of the instincts, aiming at assertion, ceases; also in the activity, the emotions themselves become purified of a great deal of the distasteful and dangerous properties which adhere to them in serious activity. As, for instance, in tragic pity, the tormenting feeling of wanting to help and not being able to help recedes, so also the boy in the game can give himself over to the joy of conflict, without being forced to the unpleasantness of hatred and the pain of serious injury in the bargain.²¹

Crying is the most satisfying response to certain situations. To exercise control frequently intensifies the feeling of sorrow. It subsides with expression. In this way, crying can be regarded as a form of play, an activity indulged in because the individual wants to or feels like it. In the same way, laughter can be regarded as a play response.

Another respect in which play can be thought of as having a cathartic effect, although very different from the other, has to do with internal bodily changes which take place in the presence of a fighting situation. Glandular secretions such as adrenalin are inserted into the blood stream which make of the individual a better fighting animal, preparing him for great muscular effort, and conditioning his blood to clot more readily if wounded.²² If self-control is exercised and the accompanying emotions are inhibited, irritability results because of the changes in the organism which these secretions have produced. Engaging in strenuous fighting games serves as a substitute for actual fighting, and the organism is relieved.

This theory offers interesting sidelights on play activity but is of course no adequate or complete explanation of the nature of play; nor does it pretend to be.

NEWER INTERPRETATIONS OF PLAY MOTIVATION

In reviewing the traditional theories of play, it becomes obvious that there are certain inadequacies in each; particularly in accounting for all phases of play. There are certain very important aspects of play behavior which have not been clearly explained by any one of them or have been accounted for by assumptions which no longer seem adequate. The following theory is therefore suggested, which we shall call the *self-expression* theory.

²¹ Karl Groos, "Das Spiel als Katharsis." *Zeitschrift Pädagogie*, 1914.

²² For a discussion of bodily changes through glandular secretions, see W. B. Cannon, *Bodily Changes in Pain, Hunger, Fear, and Rage*. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1915.

THE SELF-EXPRESSION THEORY OF PLAY

In considering the human organism and its behavior we are confronted immediately by an elemental and very important fact which is fundamental to an understanding of play: *Man is an active dynamic creature. Activity is the primary need in life.* Nothing about man is more obvious or more elemental. One does not need an explanation for this characteristic of man other than the fact that he is alive. Relieved from the pressure of self-maintenance and other compulsion, human beings do not become so many posts in the field—they move and seek activity. This primary fact goes a long way in accounting for play: a desire for pleasure and hope of finding it is not necessary to stir people into activity; they are active in the first place. When we cease thinking of the human organism as inert and needing some special incentive to coax it into action, we do not need to account for play; all that is necessary is to determine why man engages in this or that *form* of play.

If we could let the matter rest at the tendency of man to be active, the surplus energy theory would be sufficient. However, something more is needed to account for the ways in which man plays as a species and as an individual. There are three factors which must be considered in accounting for the form which play takes:

First, the physiological and anatomical structure of the organism predisposes it to certain lines of activity. The organism possesses certain mechanical possibilities of behavior. Man does not fly like the bird nor swim like the fish. Being put together structurally as he is and being alive, of course he runs, jumps, throws, kicks, strikes, and turns somersaults. This structure is the result of countless centuries of evolution. The play of animals varies as the structure varies. Structure varies with growth and activities change accordingly; as soon as new capacities appear with changing structure in growth, the organism uses them, and use perfects their function. Play then is activity of that type for which the organism is physiologically and anatomically adapted.

Second, the physical fitness of the organism has an effect upon the type of activity it engages in. Sickness and the presence of infection in the system influence to a greater or less extent the type of activity the individual desires at the moment. Abundant energy is a favorable condition for strenuous activity. As long as there is energy the individual is going to seek activity of some type, and the type of activity is dependent, as one of the conditioning factors, upon the physical fitness for it. True, children often participate in play when energy is too

depleted for them to be benefited by it, but they feel themselves possessed of sufficient energy to satisfy their desires or they would not engage, and with the coming of weariness they change the activity or seek rest through sleep. One's physical fitness for the activity influences tremendously his liking for it at the moment—it influences tremendously what he wants to do. Play, then, is activity of that type for which the organism is physically fitted.

Third, the psychological inclinations of the individual predispose him toward certain types of activity. These inclinations consist partly of desires for sense gratification and the satisfaction of physiological needs, the way the gratification is achieved in each case being determined by conditioning. Further than this the inclinations of an individual are largely the result of experience; and nothing is more certain than that one's *habits* and *attitudes* determine his play activities to a very large extent. The nervous system is such that behavior-responses of certain acquired patterns are constantly being called forth. Habits and attitudes are acquired through interaction with the social environment, and the play forms of the group tend to become the individual's play habits. An individual's play patterns are quite generally in harmony with his social environment, and he tends to take on the customs and styles of play in vogue at any particular time. Furthermore, his play habits are determined by his physical environment, which offers certain opportunities for play.

With the background of the above facts, play is explained by the fact that the individual *seeks self-expression*. Being what he is, with the physiological and anatomical structure he has, with the degree of physical fitness he has, and with the psychological inclinations he has, *all that is necessary to explain play is the fact that he seeks to live, to use his abilities, to express his personality.* The chief need of man is *life, self-expression*. He seeks the realization of his motives, the satisfaction of his desires. Being alive, he must have motives and desires, and the process of living consists of satisfying these motives. Play is activity which brings such satisfaction.

Man plays to feel the thrill of accomplishment. Thus he engages in activity that is on the level of his ability, activity in which he can succeed. If the attempted play of the child is too difficult for him, it loses its appeal as play and he tends to drop it. Play must bring success, not necessarily in winning, unless the situation is such that winning is much emphasized, but in felt accomplishment. In work-a-day life such success is not always forthcoming; in play one finds activity in which he has a feeling of mastery and success is assured, activity which ade-

quately expresses the self. One may practice at play to perfect the skills of the game, but joy comes mainly with the feeling of the achievement of progress; the activity does not adequately function as play unless success ensues and a feeling of mastery over it results.

When motives cannot be realized and desires satisfied by direct overt activity the individual seeks compensatory satisfaction through imagination, either in imaginative play activity or in day dreaming and fantasy. Such compensatory play is also engaged in because of the desire for self-expression.

Play takes a great variety of forms. Individual differences are marked, depending upon differences in conditioning and differences in the situations in which individuals find themselves. In play one engages in activity which seems the natural and fitting thing to do considering the total set of circumstances at the moment.

The play of animals does not call for a frame of reference different from that used in connection with the play of man. Animals play because they are alive and are naturally active. When free from the pressure of self-maintenance they continue to be active. The form which the play of animals takes is determined by the physiological structure of the animal in question, by his physical fitness, and by his impulses and habits. Motivation in animals is largely native inborn impulse modified by conditioning. Being the kind of a being he is, and with the environment presenting the stimuli it does at the moment, all that is needed is the fact that he is alive and seeks satisfaction.

With this brief statement of the theory in mind it becomes necessary to analyze in more detail the factors influencing man's inclination for the play activities in which he engages. We shall therefore consider the problem from the following angles: (1) *the role of habit in play*, (2) *the role of social contact in the formation of play habits*, (3) *universal wishes*, and (4) *the compensatory aspect of play behavior*.

The Role of Habit in Play.—In reviewing the traditional theories of play we have seen several attempts to explain why people play—why boys play baseball, hockey, and marbles, why they fly kites and dig caves, why girls play with dolls and make mud pies, why men play golf and gamble on horse races, why all kinds of people day dream and engage in fantasy. To these questions most of the older theories answer with the word "instinct." That is, it was contended that man comes into the world with specific inborn impulses which predispose him to the particular types of activity he engages in during the play life. Although granting the important role which unlearned responses

play in animal life, the facts growing out of recent psychological research have led to a minimizing of the role of instinct, or inborn and unlearned drives, in human life, and have forced us to shift our thinking more and more to other types of motivation.

Nothing seems more certain than that play is activity resulting from motives, or desires. What is the source of these motives? If not instinct, what is it?

The child comes into the world with certain physiological needs: hunger, thirst, sex, elimination, and the need for action and rest. These physiological needs constitute stimulating situations or motives: in the hungry child a motive or drive is aroused, namely, to satisfy the hunger. A motive, in the words of Carr, is "a relatively persistent stimulus that dominates the behavior of an individual until he reacts in such a manner that he is no longer affected by it."²³

Shortly after birth, however, these motives growing out of physiological needs are complicated by acquired factors, that is, *habits* are formed, first in relation to the physiological needs, and then in relation to objects further and further removed from a direct connection to them. With the passing of time a tremendously complicated and wide range of habits is formed. An extended discussion of the psychology of habit formation and the conditioned reflex would lead us far afield. For our purpose the important consideration is that *throughout life the individual is inclined toward those activities which are habitual to him. Attitudes* likewise arise as a result of social conditioning. An attitude is "a tendency to react positively or negatively to the total situation."²⁴ It differs from habit in that habit refers to learned motor responses whereas attitudes are related to ideas and thinking, are conscious, emotional, and purposive. A certain way of striking the ball in tennis or swinging a golf club are examples of habits; a tendency to act in a friendly and courteous way toward one's opponents exemplifies an attitude.

Now these habits and attitudes constitute motives—they function as powerful drives to certain types of activity. A boy whose experience has conditioned him with habits and attitudes with respect to playing marbles is easily "touched off" by the sight of marbles, or by the suggestion of a friend that they play, or by the memory of the satisfaction derived in past play. The stimulus arouses this motive or desire, and play is engaged in for the purpose of satisfying it. So with the girl

²³ H. A. Carr, *Psychology*, p. 73. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1925.

²⁴ R. E. Park and E. W. Burgess, *Introduction to the Science of Sociology*, p. 438. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1921.

and her dolls, the housewife and her knitting, the man and his golf clubs. Without habits and attitudes in respect to marbles, dolls, knitting, and golf, they would possess no drive toward these activities, but rather toward others in respect to which they have been conditioned, going to the movie, for instance. Since play is based on habits and attitudes, the play activities of an individual are more or less constant in type.

The "freedom theory" of play suggested by Curti emphasizes the role of play in the satisfaction of motives.²⁵

In habit we find the explanation of individual differences in play. While the fundamental pattern may be much the same owing to the fact that all men are much alike, the range of individual differences in play is tremendous and obvious on every hand in any play group. Although heredity may account for one individual having certain capacities which another lacks, and although native physical ability may vary, people play at different activities largely because they have been differently conditioned—they possess different habits and attitudes, and thus they have different motives or desires.

The role of habit in play is conspicuous at every turn. Man likes to do what he can do well. The research of the authors regarding the recreational activities of men of varying professions indicate that adults turn to activities in their leisure hours which are very similar to those they engage in during their work-a-day life: one would think that the lawyer might engage in aviation, horseback riding, and northwoods canoeing, but as a matter of fact, the majority lecture, serve on committees, and argue in the smoking room of their clubs. The newspaper reporter reads, attempts to write stories, and dabbles in drama. The physical director engages in vigorous physical activity and watches athletic sports. The engineer tinkers with radios, electrical apparatus, automobiles, and building projects involving the use of tools.

These types of professional men use the abilities they have and do the things in which they know they are proficient. In these activities they have a feeling of mastery and of sureness. In working hours they are somewhat hampered by routine duties but in play they have freedom to follow their own abilities in desired ways. Any activity for which one is particularly fitted is usually engaged in with zest and spontaneity. Owing to his conditioning in a world of other people, man wants to get on in the group in which he moves; he courts social approval. In a work-a-day world filled with uncertainties, with post-

²⁵ M. W. Curti, *Child Psychology*, Chapters 10 and 11. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1931.

poned realization of ambitions, and often with defeat, he turns to recreational activities in which he has mastery, in which he knows he can perform creditably, and in which victory is possible or probable. The memory of victory, or social approval, or of joy in an activity is in itself a motive which drives him toward repeating the activity.

Learning a new activity often is irksome and unpleasant. Many men refer to their first few weeks at golf as distasteful. But once the skills are perfected, the habits formed, and a feeling of mastery of the technique achieved, the game brings endless joy. So with the child learning to play the piano—the practice hour has all the aspects of drudgery. He practices for one of two reasons: he is compelled by adult authority, or he has set a goal for himself of proficiency in the art. If the latter is the case, he undergoes the task of practice more willingly in that he knows it means the attainment of his purpose, but not until the achievement has been attained and the skills mastered does the process function in the pure sense of play. Then it is engaged in with zest and spontaneity and freedom. Similarly, one's early attempts at shooting the rapids with a canoe, or at mountain climbing, or flying an airplane, are filled with uncertainties and misgivings, perhaps with fear. But once the skills are perfected, the activity is exhilarating and thrilling; it is accompanied with a feeling of mastery of self and mastery over nature. This feeling of mastery of the situation and the accompanying feeling of freedom is an essential characteristic of play.

A child experiments with many activities as they are suggested to him in the social milieu in which he moves. Any "new" activities he undertakes are not entirely new but related to habits he already has. He discards some plays and repeats others, depending on the degree of satisfaction they bring and the success he achieves. As habits and attitudes are formed, drives or desires to repeat them are constantly recurring.

Play progressively offers difficulties and obstacles that are within the powers of growing children to master. If they tried adult tasks and continually failed, as they must, they would lose all confidence. Play gives children miniature life with problems they can understand and with competition with their equals. As they master certain things they go on to more difficult ones; until gradually their play merges into their life work. The spirit and energy a child puts into his play is essentially the same that later he will put into any work or enterprise that he likes.

Often a motive or desire is thwarted in life and satisfaction by

direct expression is impossible. Curti advances the idea that in such cases the motive is often dropped and replaced by a new motive. An entirely unrelated activity is resorted to, which, temporarily at least, satisfies the individual and keeps him free from conflict. Parents quite generally satisfy their children who want some activity they should not have by suggesting other activity. The child drops the original motive temporarily and substitutes another. Since substitute play of this type ends the dominance of a motive by avoiding it, the original motive still remains unexpressed. Substitute play, she points out, can never be anything more, therefore, than a temporary or partial means of adjustment.²⁶

Summarizing our discussion to date, play is dependent on the skills and abilities the individual has achieved, upon the habits formed. Habits are developed in relation to the physiological needs, and in relation to the social environment in which he moves. Out of habits and attitudes arise motives and desires. These are the drives which lead to play. The individual, being what he is and possessed of the motives and desires he has, seeks self-expression, seeks life.

The Role of Social Contact in Habit Formation.—We have seen that play forms are largely learned responses and that play behavior of the organism may be regarded as habit or stimulus-response patterns. Since the play forms are the result mainly of conditioning, of social environment, let us look more carefully into the social process whereby the individual becomes conditioned to them.

In considering a playing individual, we have first of all a reacting organism. "This organism reacts in characteristic ways by reason of what goes on inside it."²⁷ In this organism there is a need to act, a need to do, together with certain other physiological needs discussed above. Some contemporary writers feel that in the organism there are also certain highly flexible inborn impulses which lead in a general way to certain types of behavior. We have in addition to the organism itself, the environment in which it lives, both social and physical. In this social environment we find certain patterns of activity, customs, ways of doing things. What direction will the activity of the organism, with its ever-present and impelling need to do, take? Will its activity be determined by the impulses within it, or by the social environment in which it lives, or both?

No *young* and *aspiring* human being can live in any society without taking on to a greater or less extent the ways of that society. The

²⁶ M. W. Curti, *Child Psychology*, p. 359. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1930.

²⁷ F. E. Lumley, *Principles of Sociology*, p. 365. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1928.

group ways whatever they are tend to become the individual's ways. Folkways and mores become individual habits and attitudes. Through the tendency of the individual to imitate and his desire to get on, through many and various social controls which all groups employ, the uniformizing process goes on and all individuals are forced into patterns which make them act much alike. Says Lumley, the organism's "life energies will flow into the channels already dug by the group. Whatever the games of the group, these will become, to a large extent, the games of the organism. At least, the games selected will be not something utterly original and strange but something from the group repertoire."²⁸ In this way the play activity of an individual is determined in the large before he is born by the play customs of the group into which he is born. These group play customs become his individual play habits.

An illustration may be found in the play activities of European immigrants in this country. They bring with them the sports, dances, and crafts of the country in which they were born and raised, and are slow in taking on American play ways. English colonists take their games with them even 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 districts in this country strive to keep up their gymnastic exercises and the social spirit of the Turnverein. But the children of the immigrants take on American play ways and are very seldom adherents of the play customs of the old country. Children of German-born parents who are adverse and not in the least attracted to team games in this country, become interested and proficient in them. So with the children of Irish immigrants, who are a big factor in our American games; 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.

A certain city is spoken of as a "football town." Adults in the city are said to be "football crazy," and boys throughout the entire city play and seek skill in football to a degree not known in other cities. Likewise there are "basketball towns," and basket rings can be seen on garages in every alley. The sport grips the imagination of the youth of the city to a point where football is of very minor interest. So with baseball and other sports.

The point in the above discussion is that through contact with the social group in which he lives, habits and attitudes are formed in an

²⁸ F. E. Lumley, *Principles of Sociology*, p. 366. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1928.

individual which cause his play activities to be of the same general type as those of others in the group. Some present-day writers, however, hold that in addition to these motives, inborn impulse must also be considered as a factor in determining human behavior. John Dewey (1922) for instance, says that "it goes without saying that original, unlearned activity has its distinctive place and that an important one in conduct."²⁹ But these inborn impulses are not assumed by Dewey to be mystical drives fixed and definite, leading to and predetermining precise action. They are general and highly flexible tendencies or predispositions each of which expresses itself in countless hundreds of varying ways in the mass of humanity about us. The infant is born, according to Dewey, with impulses, but these impulses are never primary in life—he is born into a society of adults as a dependent being, and from these adults he takes on human nature, forms *habits* through which the impulses express themselves in activity. "Even if by some miracle original activity could continue without assistance from the organized skill and art of adults, it would not amount to anything. It would be mere sound and fury."³⁰

To Dewey, then, the only factor we can observe in conduct is learned responses. But these habits themselves are not thought of by him as fixed and rigid but are constantly being reconstructed throughout life by the inborn impulses seeking more adequate expression. According to Dewey, the indefinite and scattered impulses of the child could not coordinate into powers and play activities except as play habits are formed through interaction with others. The impulses are mainly starting points for the taking on of skills and knowledge, but they continue to drive throughout life, and lead to the constant reconstruction of habits when old habits fail to satisfy. When modern psychology "tries to explain complicated events in personal and social life by direct reference to these native powers, the explanation becomes hazy and forced . . . we need to know about the social conditions which have educated original activities into definite and significant dispositions before we can discuss the psychological element in society."³¹

This point of view does not seem essentially different from that set forth by Bernard. This author regards play activities as "adjustment complexes" based upon reflexes and random innate tendencies,

²⁹ John Dewey, *Human Nature and Conduct*, pp. 92-93. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1922.

³⁰ John Dewey, *Human Nature and Conduct*, p. 90. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1922.

³¹ John Dewey, *Human Nature and Conduct*, pp. 90-91. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1922.

but really organized and moulded under the pressure of the social environment. In play, the adjustment correlations must be learned. Bernard points out that with advancing age the number of correlations which are learned become fewer with the result that play activities become more and more a repetition of correlations already learned. Games become fewer and less spontaneous, but more highly organized and more complex, a view which seems to be in accord with the recent findings of Lehman and Witty. This, Bernard says, is due to the limitations both of the social environment and of the physiological organism.³²

In regard to the existence of inborn impulses as motivating factors in conduct, we know that there are physiological urges which constitute drives to activity. If, further than these physiological urges, inborn impulses can be proven to exist, well and good, and an experimentally proven list of them would be most helpful. But since they, if they do exist, can manifest themselves only through habits and attitudes, their existence does not materially affect our present contention. This much we are sure of: habits and attitudes, which are taken on mainly through social interaction, lead to conduct in life, and therefore to that phase of life called play.

The point is made, therefore, that play activity of the organism is the result of and can be understood only in the light of both the pressure from within in the form of the physiological urges and other inborn impulses, if they can be proven to exist, and the pressure from the social environment, from which the individual acquires habits and attitudes. These habits and attitudes predispose him to certain types of activity, and being alive and seeking self-expression, he engages in them and, if successful, obtains satisfaction.

One further factor must be considered: the physical environment places certain limitations on the play activity of man and must be taken into the picture in understanding the play of any given folk. The child of the desert will not be likely to play at boating, nor could the child on the rocky seashore play at "sandstorm."

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 and a tendency to assume the simple role of spec-

³² See L. L. Bernard, *Instinct, a Study in Social Psychology*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1924.

tators. For sustained effort, the temperate zone is quite the most favorable. Wherever the sea is found, as along the shores of England and 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. Where stretches of sparsely settled land are found, such as in Canada, in Finland, and in South Africa, there is a predilection for long distance running, for weight throwing, for wrestling, and for feats of strength.

It is not to be assumed that the physical environment is the only factor responsible for the above characteristics of the play of these areas, but it has its effect.

It appears from our discussion to date that both the social and the physical environment are important factors in determining the play habits and attitudes of an individual.

Since the motivation in play is thought of in terms of habits and attitudes, and habits and attitudes exist in the individual man, does it follow that there are no universal motives or desires common to all mankind? A knowledge of what desires may be considered as universal is extremely important to students and leaders of play. The field of social psychology is tending to classify human motives which appear to be universal, and applies the name *wishes* to these.

Universal Wishes.—The term *wishes* is used, not with a Freudian meaning, but in the sense that it is used in the field of social psychology as meaning the universal desires of men. Wishes are simply what men everywhere want. A classification of wishes is nothing more than a tabulation of those motives which appear to be present in some degree of intensity in all men wherever they are found.

Let us look at the nature of wishes. There are many lists by recent sociologists, but that of W. I. Thomas is the most brief, concise, and illuminating, not to say the most widely accepted. Although human wishes have a great variety of concrete forms, Thomas reduced them to four types which are universal and common to all mankind: *the wish for new experience, the wish for security, the wish for response, and the wish for recognition.* Thomas' own statement of the nature of these four wishes (desires, as he calls them at times) is so vivid and illuminating to play leaders that we quote him at length:

1. *The Desire for New Experience.*—Men crave excitement, and all experiences are exciting which have in them some resemblance to the pursuit, flight, capture, escape, and death which characterized the earlier life of mankind.

"Adventure" is what the young boy wants, and stories of adventure. All sports are of the hunting pattern; there is a contest of skill, daring, and cunning. In gambling or dice throwing you have the thrill of success or the chagrin of defeat. The organism craves stimulation and seeks expansion and shock even through alcohol and drugs. "Sensations" occupy a large part of the space in newspapers. Courtship has in it an element of "pursuit." Novels, theaters, motion pictures, etc., are partly an adaptation to this desire, and their popularity is a sign of its elemental force. Vagabondage secures a maximum of new experience by the avoidance of the routine of organized society and the irksomeness at labor.

There is also in the hunting pattern of interest an intellectual element. The invention of the bow and arrow, the construction of a trap, the preparation of poison, indicated a scientific curiosity in early man. Activities of this kind were interesting because they implied life or death. The modern scientific man uses the same mental mechanism but with a different application. He spends long months in his laboratory on an invention in anticipation of his final "achievement."

2. *The Desire for Security.*—The desire for security is opposed to the desire for new experience. The desire for new experience is, as we have seen, emotionally related to anger, which tends to invite death, and expresses itself in courage, advance, attack, pursuit. The desire for new experience implies, therefore, motion, change, danger, instability, social irresponsibility. The individual dominated by it shows a tendency to disregard prevailing standards and group interests. The desire for security, on the other hand, is based on fear, which tends to avoid death and expresses itself in timidity, avoidance, and flight. The individual dominated by it is cautious, conservative, and apprehensive, tending also to regular habits, systematic work, and the accumulation of property.

3. *The Desire for Response.*—Up to this point I have described the types of mental impressionability connected with the pursuit of food and the avoidance of death, which are closely connected with the emotions of anger and fear. The desire for response, on the other hand, is primarily related to the instinct of love, and shows itself in the tendency to seek and to give signs of appreciation in connection with other individuals.

There is first of all the devotion of the mother to the child and the response of the child. This attitude is present in the father of the child also but is weaker, less demonstrative, and called out more gradually. In addition, the desire for response between the two sexes in connection with mating is very powerful. An ardent courtship is full of assurances and appeals for reassurance. Marriage and a home involve response but with more settled habits, more routine work, less of new experience. Jealousy is an expression of fear that the response is directed elsewhere. The flirt is one who seeks new experience through the provocation of response from many quarters.

In general the desire for response is the most social of the wishes. It contains both a sexual and a gregarious element. It makes selfish claims, but on the other hand it is the main source of altruism. The devotion to child and family and devotion to causes, principles, and ideals may be the same attitude in different fields of application. It is true that devotion and self-sacrifice may originate from any of the other wishes also—desire for new experience, recognition, or security—or may be connected with all of them at once. Pasteur's devotion to

science seems to be mainly the desire for new experience—scientific curiosity; the campaigns of a Napoleon represent recognition (ambition), and the self-sacrifice of such characters as Maria Spiridonova, Florence Nightingale, Jane Addams is a sublimation of response.

4. *The Desire for Recognition.*—This wish is expressed in the general struggle of men for position in their social group, in devices for securing a recognized, enviable, and advantageous social status. Among girls dress is now perhaps the favorite means of securing distinction and showing class. Distinction is sought also in connection with skillful and hazardous activities, as in sports, war, and exploration. Playwriters and sculptors consciously strive for public favor and “fame.” The showy motives connected with the appeal for recognition we define as “vanity”; the creative activities we call “ambition.” The importance of recognition and status for the individual and for society is very great. The individual not only wants them but he needs them for the development of his personality. On the other hand, society alone is able to confer status on the individual and in seeking to obtain it he makes himself responsible to society and is forced to regulate the expression of his wishes. His dependence on public opinion is perhaps the strongest factor impelling him to conform to the highest demands which society makes upon him.³³

To the four wishes of Thomas, two additional wishes should be added; *the wish for participation* taken from Faris' classification,³⁴ and *the wish for the aesthetic or beautiful*.

The wish for participation is a desire for affiliation with some group or groups, the identification of one's personality with some cause. It is not merely a gregarious wish, a desire merely to be with other people, but to be associated with some organization or movement larger than one's self. We see it in joining clubs, lodges, and teams; in the pride students take in calling attention to their connection with their university, or with a fraternity. It appears again in affiliations with and fervent support of causes such as political issues, prohibition, women's suffrage, socialism, and religious movements.

A desire for the beautiful seems to be a characteristic of men the world around. No tribe or folk on record anywhere in the world fails to show some conception of the beautiful and a desire to express it, as seen in their art achievements. Art forms of some type are found universally, although of widely varying type and degree of development. We see evidence of this wish in the decorations on the primi-

³³ W. I. Thomas, *The Unadjusted Girl*, pp. 4–32, as quoted by E. T. Krueger and W. C. Reckless, *Social Psychology*, pp. 171–173. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1931. Reprinted by permission of Little, Brown & Company and of Longmans, Green & Co.

³⁴ Ellsworth Faris suggests a rearrangement of Thomas' wishes and an addition of a wish for participation. His wishes are as follows: (1) segmental wishes, such as appetites and cravings (hunger, thirst), (2) the social wishes, including (a) the desire for response, (b) the desire for recognition, (c) the desire for participation (the wish to be identified with a cause or movement), (3) the derived wishes for new experience and security. Taken from unprinted lectures by Faris as quoted by E. T. Krueger and W. C. Reckless, *Social Psychology*, p. 175.

tive's dagger and shield and the painting on his body, in his pottery and basketry, in his dancing and rituals; we see it in pictures and tapestries on the walls of homes, in the ceiling of the great cathedral, and the spectacle of the drama. Music—singing, orchestra concerts, grand opera—is a phase of it. The aesthetic may be regarded as merely a qualitative appreciation of objects and experiences which were motivated by the other wishes—certainly it is related to the love wish and may be regarded as an aspect of the creative. For these reasons it may appear unnecessary or unwise to list it as a separate wish, but any classification of wishes or desires is for the purpose of presenting a convenient frame of reference, and the aesthetic sphere occupies such a large place in leisure-time pursuits that the desire for it, even though implicit in the other wishes, should be differentiated from them and listed separately.

Now if we analyze the above discussion of wishes, we find that they embody many of the phenomena which have in the past been attributed to pure instinct: the wish for new experience includes fighting, pursuit and capture, hunting, competition, creativeness; security includes flight, acquisition, imitation; response includes courtship, love, and sociability; recognition accounts for the drive for victory, honors, and fame.

How do these wishes differ from instincts? In this very important respect: they are regarded as the result primarily of experience rather than as fixed and rigid inborn drives. They are considered to be universal throughout humankind and in this respect savor of a definition of instinct, but human life is much the same in fundamental pattern the world around, and experience through interaction with others gives rise to these types of desire. Is there no inborn basis for them? There must, of course, be some inborn basis—all behavior has some basis in original nature—but opinions vary as to the extent. Thomas himself felt that the wishes have a basis in certain inborn tendencies, the desire for new experience being built upon an inborn hunting pattern of interest, the desire for security upon a so-called "instinct" of fear and the avoidance of death; and so with other wishes. Thomas, however, points out the tremendous role which group life or society plays in controlling these original impulses, as well as the effect which the social customs and socially acquired attitudes have on their particular expression.

The recent point of view in social psychology does not tend to accept the instinctive foundation for the wishes to the extent that Thomas does, but thinks of them as more completely the result of socially

acquired experience. "For present purposes we must be content to say that all that is necessary for the development of those desires which cannot be traced back to physiological impulses (sex, hunger, thirst), is a central nervous system which enables the individual to focus his activity on objects and experiences that contain some sort of value to him."³⁵ Values are things which have worth to an individual and are arrived at only through social experience.

We have in all men, then, six types of wishes which send them on to fight, compete, hunt, pursue and capture, love, create, flee from danger, strive for honors, seek that which is beautiful and so forth. It must not be assumed that specific types of response are held by this theory to be universal, for that is far from the truth. Each individual fights, loves, seeks fame in ways which he has learned and individual differences in these ways are marked. All that is contended is that all men possess motives or desires which can be classified under these general heads.

By way of review, we have in man an organism with a characteristic structure, possessing certain physiological needs (sex, hunger, thirst, etc.) which constitute motives or desires. This organism is in contact (1) with a physical environment and (2) with a social environment. From these contacts, habits and attitudes are formed which also motivate conduct. These human motives can be classified into six categories of wishes which are common to all mankind: the desire for new experience, security, response, recognition, participation, and the aesthetic.

The Compensatory Aspect of Play.—The foregoing discussion has shown that man is possessed of energy and a need to do, possessed of habitual ways of doing, possessed of desires and hopes and aspirations, likes and dislikes. He seeks life, seeks through activity an opportunity for self-expression, seeks the satisfaction of his desires. But in seeking self-expression he is frequently confronted with a situation in which the satisfaction cannot be obtained in the way he desires. His motive is blocked and thwarted. But desires will not be denied and if expression is not found in one way it must be in another. He is consequently forced either to drop the motive temporarily in favor of another, or to seek compensatory satisfaction in other activities which in imagination he relates to the desired activity. Or failing here, he may resort to fantasy and day dreaming for satisfaction.

The compensatory angle of play has been referred to by a number

³⁵ E. T. Krueger and W. C. Reckless, *Social Psychology*, p. 179. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1931.

of writers and some have set it forth as a theory of play in itself, but clearly all play behavior is not compensatory, and compensatory activity is clearly engaged in for the purpose of self-expression. The compensatory phase of play is therefore one aspect of the theory of self-expression. Spencer seems to have been the first to mention the compensatory aspect of the problem, and it has been recently expounded by Reaney (1916),³⁶ Robinson (1920),³⁷ and Curti (1930).³⁸

It is contended that the child has a feeling of lack of freedom and power in a world of stronger playmates and adults, and that he finds escape from this feeling in make-believe play. Make-believe play thus brings compensatory satisfaction, it is a device which compensates for lack of opportunity to express adequately the personality in a cramped environment. In the realm of imagination and make-believe the child is no longer subordinate.

It is Robinson's view that conflicts arise in the life of the child in an adult world that imposes ways of behavior upon him which seem opposed to his desires and impulses. His impulsive nature leads him to do one thing and his desire to obey parents to do another. Hence the conflict! In games, he finds a way of expressing his impulses which is acceptable to adults and reasonably acceptable to himself.

Curti develops the point that childish imitation of adult activities is directly compensatory. Children are constantly urged to help mother, yet the desire to engage in adult occupations is almost completely blocked. In doll play and the fondling of pets we have compensation for the desire to handle the baby; in mud pies, paper table sets, toy brooms, and the like, compensation for the desire to keep house. Lehman and Witty's findings show the marked desire of children to help parents. These authors also suggest that playing school serves as compensation for a feeling of intellectual inferiority resulting from failure to succeed in school. Negro children were shown to be more retarded in school than whites and much more given to playing school than whites.

As we saw in the discussion of the wishes, the desire for new adventures is a dominant and dynamic drive in human life. Mankind is motivated by a wish for excitement, adventure, dangerous and thrilling experience. Strenuous and daring adventure is denied most of us in the day-by-day existence of life in the modern form. But the urge

³⁶ M. J. Reaney, "The Psychology of the Organized Group Game," *Psychological Review*, Monog., Sup. 4, p. 76. 1916.

³⁷ E. S. Robinson, "The Compensatory Function of Make-Believe Play," *Psychological Review*, 1920, p. 429 ff.

³⁸ M. W. Curti, *Child Psychology*, 387 ff., p. 348 ff. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

will not be denied. How, then, can the desire be satisfied? In two ways: (1) by aggressive overt action—by competitive sports and games, by roving and hiking, by creative play, by hunting and imitations of hunting, and so forth; (2) by dreaming, fantasy, reading, moving pictures, and the like. In the world of fantasy the dreamer is no longer subordinate or imprisoned by taboos. In the “house of dreams,” the motion picture takes us to a romantic and colorful world where in fancy we find compensation for an hour or so from the monotony of our every-day existence. The love wish particularly finds compensatory expression in many ways.

In a society where fighting is seldom possible, fighting play offers compensation to pugnacious man; failing to find opportunity to participate in fighting play, gratification may be found in a victory in bridge, or in debate, or in the profane condemnation of one’s enemy, or in imagination.

Robert Louis Stevenson while confined to his home as an invalid, allowed his imagination to roam afield and produced *Treasure Island*, perhaps the greatest of the imaginative adventure tales for children. In imagination he achieved the life of adventure which in fact was denied him. Such flights of the imagination are characteristic of people who because of handicaps are not able to find adequate self-expression in overt activity. The compensatory phase of the theory is the best answer to play of the imagination.

The knowledge that man seeks self-expression by means of compensatory behavior is essential to an adequate understanding of play. It is obvious, however, that much of the play of children is not related to conflicts. The carefree running, rollicking, and romping of children which constitutes so much of play is not related to compensation for thwarted desires but is natural and spontaneous expression. Conflicts of desire do arise in such play, and decisions must be made; but that is true of all life activity, and it cannot be said that such activity is engaged in to escape from an annoying situation or attain compensation. Much of the recreation of adults is compensatory for thwarted desires and aspirations in the pursuit of the serious ends of life, but certainly not all of adult play is engaged in for compensation. Baseball and tennis to a person habituated to them are just as much a direct expression of the self, may directly satisfy desires just as much, as selling life insurance. Compensatory satisfaction of some motives may result from them, but at the same time they may be in themselves directly satisfying and the direct expression may be the primary reason for engaging in them.

What really happens both in the case of the child playing house or with dolls, and in the case of adults in their characteristic recreation is that self-expression is achieved on a level of activities in which success is assured.

CONCLUSIONS REGARDING PLAY AS SELF-EXPRESSION

By way of summary let us reiterate the elements of the self-expression theory. We find several important facts which must be considered in seeking to understand play:

1. *Man is naturally active, both physically and mentally.*
2. *The human organism has a characteristic physiological and anatomical structure which limits its activity and predisposes it to certain lines of activity.*
3. *The physical fitness of the organism affects the kind of activity it engages in at any particular time.*
4. *The psychological inclinations of the organism predisposes it to certain types of play activity.* These inclinations are the result of physiological needs, and of learned responses or habits and attitudes. The social and physical environments are very important factors in determining the organism's play habits and attitudes. Natural capacity or aptitude is also a determinant. Habits and attitudes constitute motives and desires which lead to play behavior. Human desires can be classified under six general types of wishes: the wish for new experience, for security, for response, for recognition, for participation, for the aesthetic.

Man, with the physiological structure he has, with the habits and attitudes, desires, and motives he possesses, seeks life, seeks self-expression. He seeks the satisfaction of his desires, the realization of his aims and purposes. As Cooley puts it, "The main need of man is life, self-expression."³⁹ If he is alive he must have motives and desires; in fact, life is a seething mass of desires. The process of living consists of satisfying these motives and we think of play as activity which brings such satisfaction.

Man plays to achieve, to create, to conquer, to acquire, to impress, and to win approval. Consequently he plays at activities in which he can accomplish these things with the abilities he has. He plays to express his personality. Children run and romp, adults play games and sports, for self-expression, for the satisfaction of motives or desires—what other reason could one suggest for their being voluntarily en-

³⁹ C. H. Cooley, *Social Organization*, p. 304. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1909.

gaged in? So, too, in artistic play. When energy unused in the pursuit of required tasks is possessed by the organism, the very energy constitutes a need leading to activity, and is used in activity which satisfies other desires. Some individuals play tennis; others sing, make pottery, paint pictures, solve puzzles, read, watch horse racing, listen to the radio, or do fancy work, depending on their abilities, habits, and attitudes.

The learning of these skills is frequently uninteresting and seems like drudgery, but once the accomplishment is perfected and the habits formed, the exercise of the ability is usually pleasurable, resulting in a feeling of felt accomplishment. Individual differences in play are as numerous as the individuals participating, owing to differences in experience. What satisfies one fails to satisfy another.

Of course, any individual has many predispositions toward a very wide variety of activities; and what he engages in at any particular time depends on the strength of the various desires at the moment, these desires being dependent upon how he feels physically, and what the environment offers in the way of positive and inhibiting stimuli at the moment. The response is to the total set of circumstances rather than to specific stimuli. Once the motive is aroused, play is indulged in voluntarily in an effort to satisfy it. When self-expression in desired ways is denied us, because of lack of ability or external restrictions, we seek expression in other activity which is on the level of our ability and which we through imagination relate to the desired activity, such as doll play or shooting tin soldiers, or in fantasy and day dreaming, or in vicarious adventure through reading or the theatre.

This self-expression theory of play presents a number of distinct advantages over all of the traditional theories; it adequately accounts for essential aspects of play behavior which were either ignored or misinterpreted by the traditional theories.

First, it emphasizes the conspicuous role of *learned* responses, of *habits* and *attitudes*, as the principal source of motivation in play, a point which none of the older theories maintained. In the surplus energy theory, the only motivation was an abundance of energy, while in the recreation theory the motivation was a physiological need for rest—both of these observations are sound but they are most partial and do not strike at the heart of the problem. In the instinct-practice and the recapitulation theories the motivation was inborn instinct, a number of mysterious little brown men within the human breast which directed man's behavior. Even if the future proves the existence of inborn impulse, it is certain that such impulses can affect conduct

only through the medium of learned responses, that is, habits and attitudes. In no two individuals could the instinct produce exactly the same behavior, in that habits and attitudes differ. Either with or without inborn impulses, the essential factor in motivation is habit and attitude.

Second, in emphasizing learned responses—habits and attitudes—as the source of motivation, the self-expression theory accounts for individual differences in play. If the recapitulation and instinct-practice theories were true, we would expect people of the same age stratification to play much alike, being motivated by the same instincts or living over the same epoch. As a matter of fact, differences from individual to individual are marked, owing to different habits and attitudes.

Third, the present theory accounts for the fact that activities distasteful in the beginning become play later on. On the instinct-practice premise, one would expect the activity to which the instinct impels to be fascinating in the beginning. As a matter of fact, it is only when the individual has achieved some degree of mastery over the skills, and habits are formed, that behavior functions as play.

Fourth, the present theory accounts for the tendency of man to set goals of proficiency for himself in play activities by the fact that through social interaction he has come to consider these goals of value. He possesses a central nervous organism capable of focusing attention on objects of value, but objects come to have value, not because of an inborn or instinctive desire for them, but because of social experience.

Fifth, the theory of self-expression accounts for the fact that man courts thrilling and dangerous experiences and even risks his life in the pursuit of adventure, by the simple fact that he seeks self-expression—it substitutes for the pugnacious instinct which the older theories would say led him to take risks, the concept of a desire to achieve mastery over the forces of his environment. These desires are more the result of life in society than of inborn impulse.

Sixth, the self-expression theory accounts for the creative type of play by substituting for the concept of a “creative instinct,” the fact that an intelligent dynamic organism seeks adequate means of self-expression. There is no dodging the creative problem-solving capacity of mind, nor the imaginative capacity. Through heredity some men possess more capacity for creative effort than others, hence more of a tendency toward such activity. Through social contact situations calling for creative effort are presented; objects are conceived which are regarded as having value. Man, possessing the motive and the ability,

seeks to achieve—he acts and creates. Having built, he experiences the joy of accomplishment.

Seventh, the present theory accounts for compensatory play by saying that it is the result of an effort to achieve self-expression when more adequate means seem impossible. All play is not compensatory, however, and the compensatory aspect of play, therefore, cannot be set forth in itself as an adequate theory of play. It is but a phase of self-expression.

The objection may be raised to this general theory that self-expression is obtained in all of life activity, work as well as play. Yes, certainly, and there are no specific play impulses or drives apart from the rest of life. The so-called serious pursuits of adult life consist of activities for self-maintenance, engaged under economic and social pressure—earning a living, building estates, caring for and protecting family, and so forth. One's motives or desires may be satisfied in this serious life, and if they all could conceivably be so satisfied there would be no need for play or desire for it. But where is there a man or woman who attains full expression of his personality, full satisfaction of all of his desires in work-a-day life? Or where is there a child who attains such full expression in school?

Man seeks self-expression in all his life pursuits, both work and play. Since the adult finds opportunity only for a partial expression of his personality in the activity forced upon him by social and economic pressure, he seeks further expression in play. When work-a-day life seems defeating, he turns to play in which the satisfaction of felt accomplishment is quickly attained. If in play, he cannot obtain satisfaction through overt activity as in games, sports, and crafts, he resorts to fantasy and day dreaming. No matter how successful one's life may be, the need for play of some type will always be present. Children who are relieved of the struggle for self-maintenance find in play the medium for the satisfaction of the great majority of their motives. Indeed, to children play *is* the serious business of life.

This leads us to the necessity of defining play and differentiating it from work, a question which we are now in a position to discuss understandingly and which we shall take up in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER IV

DEFINITION OF PLAY

THE simple word play becomes a complex one the moment one tries to analyze its meaning. It is doubtful if there is any word in the English language that is given so many meanings. Play, to one person, may mean the romping and shouting of children on the school ground; to another, it may mean an afternoon of golf; to a third person, it may mean the boy's experiments with the homemade radio set; and to still another person, play may include the very highest form of intellectual achievement as found in literature, science, and art. 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 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:

DEFINITIONS 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 for ulterior benefits.

Lazarus: Play is activity which is in itself free, aimless, amusing or diverting.

Webster's Dictionary: Any exercise or series of actions intended for amusement or diversion.

Standard Dictionary: Action without special aim, or for amusement.

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

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.

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.

Stern: Play is voluntary, self-sufficient activity.

Patrick: Those human activities which are free and spontaneous and which are pursued for their own sake alone. Interest in them is self-sustaining, and they are not continued under any internal or external compulsion.

Allin: Play refers to those activities which are accompanied by a state of comparative pleasure, exhilaration, power, and the feeling of self-initiative.

Curti: Highly motivated activity which, as free from conflicts, is usually, though not always, pleasurable.

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 attempted to define play in terms of certain specific activities which were aimless, frivolous, and seemingly barren of any useful results. There was so much work to do and so little help to do it, and play did not contribute to getting it done.

At that time it was thought that play was a necessary evil of childhood—something that had to be undergone in similar fashion to measles and mumps. In a vague way it was recognized that play might possess some usefulness as indicated in the old proverb, "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy." On the whole, however, play was considered a great waste of time; and work, which produced something of consequence, was touted as the great goal of education. Play was held to be the antithesis of work; an impassible barrier separated the two.

Our attitude to-day has changed to an entirely different conception. We consider work and play not as being diametrically opposed to each other, but instead, as being so much alike that often they overlap and it is hard to tell the difference between the two. We no longer try to define the term "Play" by certain specific activities, but, on the contrary, we define it as an attitude of mind which may pervade any given human activity. We now recognize that what is play to one person may at the same time be work to another; and vice-versa. Any conceivable activity under favorable conditions may become play to the person engaged in it. This point of view we shall now develop.

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 neuromuscular, 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.

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 in their definitions 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 store; or must the term be limited to the activities of one's leisure time?

DO ADULTS PLAY?

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 engages with joy in racially old activities (Hall); he carries on actions for amusement or diversion (Webster); he engages in activity for no other reason than that it is pleasurable; he seeks self-expression and turns to play to obtain it. 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 impulsiveness of childhood; his aims are more complex and remote; he has less capacity for vigorous physical exercise and therefore is forced to accept recreation of a more quiet type.

The play of the adult sometimes takes the form of a hobby, such as fine cabinet making or raising 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 drops to a lower level and is for the moment only. The child's play is a skill-perfecting process; the adult's recreation is more a using of perfected skills. The adult is more inclined to be satisfied with skills already developed and is reconciled to his inabilities and shortcomings.

HAS PLAY AN AIM?

We saw in the last chapter that every act of life must be thought of as having an aim. In some of the play of children, it is probably true that the player does not have a conscious aim in that he is motivated by the physiological need for activity and just romps and frolics around; but whether he is conscious of it or not, his action does have an aim. In practically all play, however, the player is aware of some

end he is after. Children spend most of their waking hours in experimental and imitative actions and in collecting and constructing things and playing games—all with an aim in view. If play is activity performed for the satisfaction of a motive or desire the player must have an aim.

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. In much the same way an adult builds a house. The difference between the two is mainly one of years. The aims of the adult are more complex and more remote, but not necessarily more serious to him than are those of the child to himself.

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. It is to the adult who engages in languid types of activity to pass away his leisure time that play lacks the serious aim which it has in the child's life. His play is not so closely related to the larger life plan and so he does not take it as seriously. Nothing that the adult does in his recreation, however, can be said to be without aim.

CAN PLAY HAVE AN ULTERIOR AIM?

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. 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.

John Dewey and others hold a point of view similar to that of Groos but with a slightly different distinction, saying that play has an aim within itself as when a boy aims to hit a 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, it is no longer pure play. There is an important distinction here. After all what we are saying when we say that a certain activity is play is that it is in itself interesting, or that the participant has an interest in it for its own sake. When he has an interest in the activity for its own sake and is not participating for the sake of a remote goal, we say he has a *direct interest* in the activity. Such activity is pure play, and some would limit the word play to activity of this direct interest type. When he has an interest beyond the activity, such as the desire for a football sweater, and engages in the activity only to win the sweater, then his interest in the activity is *indirect*, his direct interest being in the remote goal.

Certainly activity of the direct interest type is play, that is, activity is play when the player participates because he likes it and wants to do it for its own sake.

Does it necessarily follow that play does not enter into those activities of the indirect interest type, that is, activities engaged in to obtain remote goals? Individuals are constantly setting remote goals in all activities of life, in play as in others. Youth particularly is onward-reaching and forward-looking. Boys and girls are constantly setting goals of perfection in play activity upon which their eyes are fixed and their minds are set even though some of these cannot be attained for months or years. For instance, the boy in baseball aspires to become a star; the girl, a beautiful ballet dancer. They will undergo unpleasant and disliked activity if necessary to attain these ends, but the disliked activity is less repulsive than it would be without the coveted end, and often what would be drudgery becomes interesting because it means progress toward the goal. They sense accomplishment which always brings satisfaction. Although the activity just now is unpleasant, it is *leading to the ultimate satisfaction of motives*. Although the activity cannot function as play in the purest sense of the term until the skills are achieved and the individual has a sense of mastery over the activity, his progress brings satisfaction and happiness. Happiness is not obtained by the pleasure route; it comes from sensing progress toward the ultimate satisfaction of goals or ends which we have set for ourselves.¹

Can there, then, be an end beyond the satisfaction obtained from the immediate participation in play? Yes, and there usually is, espe-

¹ See W. H. Kilpatrick, *Foundations of Method*, p. 144, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1925.

cially in the play of youth. A boy plays football not only because of the joy it brings to-day, but because he has his mind fixed on a level of perfection in the sport he hopes to attain in the to-morrow—perhaps on the end of playing on a favorite college team several years hence. This is of course an end within the activity itself, but it is an end beyond the immediate activity. The swimmer's efforts in the water to-day may not be for pleasure only but to attain a high level of swimming skill which he visualizes for himself. Activity takes on far-reaching educational significance only when these goals are set.

In leading children in play the aim must constantly be to assist and to inspire them to set goals for themselves toward which they will strive, as well as to bring joy to them in the immediate activity. The swimming teacher for instance can do much to inspire his swimmers to set goals of perfection in swimming for themselves, but each boy must set his own goal, and he strives toward it pretty much in proportion to how strongly he himself wishes it. When he desires strongly to reach the goal, his daily swimming takes on a new and increased zest and pleasure. He may undergo many unpleasant struggling moments in his perfecting of strokes; while the full enjoyment of the sport comes only with the attainment of the skill, the sensing of progress brings deep satisfaction, and his striving is zestful and enthusiastic. This is education. At the same time it is play. The line between the two is difficult to draw; if play is worthy, it is education and growth; if education is worthy, that is, based upon interest, it is play.

When a remote goal is set and the individual's mind becomes focused upon it, he figures out the steps he must take to attain it. The remote goal is often forbidding as it is contemplated and it is only as intermediate goals are visualized which step by step will lead to the final end, that the goal seems attainable. Teachers can do much to assist children in laying out the intermediate steps which must be taken, showing them at each stage of progress what the next step is and how it may be attained.

Does the matter change any when the remote goal is a material one, such as a loving cup or a pay check? Not necessarily. The material end may serve to intensify the interest in the activity. If the interest is *only* in the material reward, however, the activity to attain it is not play, and at the same time it is apt not to result in learning. We learn in proportion to the interest we have in the activity itself. And herein lies the chief danger in honors and awards. The end very often is merely getting the badge, and, if this is the case, the process, so far as mastering the activity is concerned, is of insignificant educa-

tional importance to the individual. But, on the other hand, the award may serve to start him in the activity which in itself may soon become interesting, as in the case of the boy who takes up knot tying only as a means of earning a badge and soon develops a fondness for knot tying itself. His direct interest shifts from the award to the activity. Honors and awards as ends or incentives, then, are educationally acceptable to the extent that this shift takes place.

One can play baseball as a means of earning a living, and it may still be play; that is, the mere presence of the pay check in the situation does not necessarily destroy the play value. The situation is materially altered, however, by the fact that baseball in this case is the means of self-preservation, the source of the means of subsistence. The constant realization of this fact may take away much of the spirit of freedom, because the player knows that he must play well or serious consequences to his life plan will probably result. It is easily conceivable, however, that in the course of his daily games, the player experiences as much joy and thrill as in his carefree sand-lot days, and probably does.

Summarizing, people do have aims beyond the immediate activity in practically all play—the boy has an aim in becoming a better tennis player, the girl of becoming a good horseback rider, the woman of crocheting more efficiently. There may be a material reward for the activity, as a football sweater, and it may serve to intensify the interest in the play rather than to destroy the play value. There may be a money reward and still the activity may have all the aspects of play, which leads us to the question, “Can play function as work?”

CAN PLAY FUNCTION AS WORK?

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. Much that one does to earn a living may be at times attractive enough so that the individual wants it for its own sake. Effort is exertion performed to get something done. Play, work, and drudgery are all subjective aspects of the same process; they are attitudes of mind toward the effort. The only foundation for the popular idea that play and work cannot overlap is the time-worn misconception that play is useless, and work, useful activity.

Lumley maintains that the distinction between work and play “is based on the relations between the activities as to (1) the nature of the rewards and (2) the time of their realization. Play is activity for

its own sake; work is activity undertaken for some future consideration. The satisfactions which come from work are outside, and in addition to, the activities; the satisfactions which come from play are in, and a part of, the activities. In both cases, the activities are mediatory or instrumental; but in play the reward *is* the satisfaction enjoyed while the action is going on; whereas in work, the chief results come at some subsequent time. Then, if work is actually enjoyed and there is little or no thought of later results, this work is play. Conversely, if play is engaged in for some later result, then it is work."² There is no essential difference in the form or outward appearance of work and play; the difference is in the spirit with which each is undertaken. When the satisfaction one gets out of an activity is sufficient reward for keeping it up, then we have play. If, however, it is necessary for us to have some external reward before we will engage in an activity, then we have work. Even though we are motivated by an extrinsic reward in taking up an activity, we may find after engaging in it that it in itself is so interesting that we want to do it, and it thus becomes play.

That the same activity may be either play or work is illustrated by the classic experience of Tom Sawyer. When his aunt ordered him to paint the fence, Tom dreaded it as work; however, he fooled the boys into thinking it was great fun, and they brought him their jackknives and tops to get the privilege of painting a few boards. Most of us would not care to dig a ditch; yet, this is fun to the boy playing at war or the professor excavating for ancient relics. Boys who would groan at carrying water from the well, will think it great sport to carry water for the elephants at the circus. On the other hand, playing tennis may be thrilling and compelling throughout the afternoon, but late in the fifth set, with weary legs and the score hopelessly against us, we long for the showers and home; only courtesy for our opponents keeps us playing, and the finishing of the set is tedious work.

The difference between play and work lies in the degree of pleasure found in an activity. All other factors are identical. Proportionately as the feeling of pleasure is strong or feeble, the given activity will be play or work. Some activities usually give pleasure to everyone and therefore we are safe in calling them play activities. This is true of most of the activities of childhood. But we must not forget that while certain adult activities are not universally liked, they may afford great play to certain individuals. A mark of the genius child is the

²F. E. Lumley, *Principles of Sociology*, p. 267. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1928.

early age at which he leaves the normal play of children and focuses all of his play interest upon a certain line of work. This is true play for him because he does it of his own accord, because he gets more enjoyment from it than from playing games with other children.

There are several factors which may affect our attitude toward any given effort and which may cause us to regard some activities as work or drudgery and others as play.

First, an awareness of what kind of consequences are apt to result from the activity, affects our attitude toward it. In our efforts to earn a living, defeat or failure is often tragic. The consequences are serious, and we are aware of the fact. The fear of these possible results causes us to keep our attention on the reward for our work and safeguard it. In play, however, there are *no serious consequences*. The tennis player, for instance, knows that he can throw himself into the game with every atom of will, and rage, and resolve, can play his heart out in an effort to win, so long as he stays within the rules of the game, and all the time he knows that the result, whether victory or defeat, will have no important or enduring effect upon his life. If it were a real battle, serious consequences would be decidedly in the realm of possibility, and in fact, in the purpose. Or, if it were a business duel of importance, defeat would mean a setback in the attainment of life-long ambitions for self and family. But not so in play. The awareness of serious consequences, then, may make some activities appeal as work whereas they might otherwise be play.³

Second, a large element of suspense in a situation is a factor conducive to a play attitude. In play, as Friedrich Luther has pointed out, there is always a large element of suspense which keeps the activity going and makes it interesting. When the suspense is relieved, the activity starts over again, and the cycle goes on and on. In games, for instance, when the goal is made or point scored, the routine starts again, and a new situation involving suspense begins. The repetition is thus rhythmic in nature.⁴ There is suspense in all walks of life, and its presence tends to give the situation a play aspect to us, but we must remember that if the suspense is related to hazards which might have serious consequences in ruining our life plan, the play aspect may be destroyed.

Third, effort involving routine conformance to a definitely organized pattern with little opportunity for imagination is usually uncon-

³ Compare D. H. Parker, *Human Values*, p. 309. New York: Harper & Bros., 1931.

⁴ Friedrich Luther, "Grundsätzliche Beiträge zu einer Theorie des Spiels," *Archiv für die Gesamte Psychologie*, October, 1925.

ducive to the play attitude. The more opportunity for imagination and spontaneity the more chance there is for self-expression.

Fourth, long-continued repetition of the same activity is not conducive to a play attitude. Dorsey puts it vividly: "Weeding the garden or picking potato bugs is action. But there are drawbacks. Repetition—same stimulus, same response; and no end in sight—there seem to be so many weeds, so many bugs; if they are to be cleared out, the pace must be kept up. That means that the impulse to respond to other stimuli that may rise and do keep rising up to beckon the child aside must be repressed."⁵ Spontaneous impulsive action is usually accompanied by the play attitude; long-continued repetition of the same response, by the work attitude.

Fifth, effort in which motives and desires are satisfied directly and immediately are apt to appeal to us as play. In earning a living, our motives are so often thwarted and satisfaction postponed. The slowness of attainment is annoying and disappointments many. Such effort is conducive to the work attitude. In play we have a feeling of mastery, we strike directly at our opponents, and satisfaction of desires comes quickly. There is a freedom from conflicts. There is a wholeness to the game that does not exist in one's continued efforts to earn a living; each game is a sufficient whole, and when it is over, it is over. The immediacy with which desires are satisfied in effort is a factor favorable to a play attitude.

None of these factors in themselves classify an activity as work or play or drudgery. They are merely factors which are apt to affect our attitude toward the effort. It is absolutely impossible to determine whether an activity is work or play by any kind of objective criteria—future rewards, pay check, honors and awards, reputation, or what not; no one knows but the participant himself. It depends upon what is going on in his own mind.

The recent awakening to the knowledge that the play spirit may be carried over into work is one reason why play has become organized and directed by teachers. We are trying to *put play to work*—to harness it to productive ends instead of allowing it to take an aimless or perverted course.

We must not merely be content with putting work into our play, however, we must also put play into our work. If it is true that the value of play depends upon how much work there is in it, it is just as true that the value of work depends upon how much play there is in

⁵ G. A. Dorsey, *Why We Behave Like Human Beings*, p. 353. New York: Harper & Bros., 1925.

it. Although still held by some educators, the idea that children must be forced to perform uninteresting tasks day after day in order to condition them for a life of sustained effort and drudgery which will doubtless be in store for them in adulthood, is one of the most deadly delusions of the human mind. 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 enjoyment of a severe struggle against odds, a friendly and sportsmanlike spirit towards other people, an imaginative mind, 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 is so absorbing that it pervades the activity and makes the worker forget the exertion in the joy of successful accomplishment, it is play. At the same time it is the ideal learning situation. One 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. The mistake is in failing to see that the true spirit of play may fully permeate an activity instead of merely sugar-coating it; in a worthy educational approach it is not a question of "making things interesting" but of causing the pupil to accept the activity or subject matter as his own, to participate in it because of the compulsion of interest in *it*, to set goals or ends for himself for attainment in it. Then it is not necessary for the teacher to *make* it interesting—it already *is* interesting. "Sugar-coating" or "making it interesting" is apt to be all that is possible, however, when educational tasks are assigned years before the pupils are ready for them. Children are forced to learn some things long before they are able to appreciate them; this process is not only apt to be drudgery, but it is wasteful and time-consuming, for the lesson is learned slowly, partially, and painfully, if indeed it is learned in any adequate sense at all. The spirit of work never reaches its highest point until it becomes identical with the spirit of play.

In all walks of life, then, whether in school, in day labor, in business or in the professions, there are three attitudes we can take toward effort. At one extreme is drudgery, in between is work, and at the other extreme we have play. The nearer the play end of the effort scale we can stay in our daily tasks the happier life will be. Play and work overlap, and if we can succeed in fusing the play spirit with our daily work, we are doubly rewarded, in that we not only enjoy the activity but we also receive the future remuneration.

SUMMARY OF DISCUSSION

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 concept of play further and include in it the fact that in occupations that seek and accomplish useful and permanent results the play spirit may be present.

There are three attitudes of mind toward effort which are defined as follows:

Drudgery is activity in which there is seemingly no adequate reward other than mere drab existence, no adequate satisfaction of any motive. There is neither fun in doing the activity nor reward afterwards which seems adequate to compensate for the monotonous effort. A drudge is someone who seems to toil unceasingly without hope of satisfying recompense.

Work is effort performed for rewards or satisfactions which are outside of or in addition to the activity. In work, the reward comes in the future in the form of a pay check, an attractive, well-mowed lawn, or a needed article for the household. It is apart from the activity and is postponed until the activity is completed.

Play is effort in which the satisfactions are in and a part of the activity itself. Play is its own reward and no other inducement is needed. It is activity *per se*. Shifting the approach from the economic

one of rewards to the psychological, the definition which most adequately covers the phenomenon of play is the simple statement: "*Play is self-expression for its own sake.*" The individual, being what he is, with the habits and attitudes he has, with the motives and desires he has, *seeks life, seeks expression.*

The term *recreation* is often used as synonymous with play and certainly it is a type of play according to the above definition. On the whole, however, it refers to the less serious and more passive types of playful activity, such as sitting by the seashore and listening to the waves, or watching the campfire, or watching a movie, or watching a game. The play activities of children are typically active and serious. The recreational activities of adults, by contrast, are taken more leisurely because they are a sideline and occupy a less serious place in adult life. They are activities used to fill leisure hours. *Leisure* is freedom from compulsion, freedom to do the things one wants to do.

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, 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 more 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.

Second, education should aid the child—the future workman—in his quest to discover his natural bent and capabilities. Excellent work is being done to-day in vocational guidance in many high schools and colleges. If the proper occupation 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. George E. 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.

Third, society should 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. But this play spirit must be developed in youth or it will be forever dwarfed. James says, "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."⁶ The same is true of art, crafts, music, reading, woodcraft, and nature lore. 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 larger part of the child's education.

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⁶ W. James, *The Principles of Psychology*, p. 401. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1890.

CHAPTER V

CLASSIFICATION: MOVEMENTS

THE 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; nor are 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, and so forth, much better.

It is no easy task to learn how to use "Black Tom," "Black and White," "Black Man," "Chinese Wall," and twenty-two other games similarly named, if they are to be remembered as individual unrelated plays, but when it is recognized that the whole twenty-six are tag games and slight variations of the familiar "Pom Pom Pullaway," the task is an easy one.

The many hundreds of games fall under a few types. To attempt to remember the names of all of them would be exceedingly confusing, but when they are classified into types, the fundamental nature of each is already indicated. Without classification of some sort, no one could hope to select games readily for use on any occasion. Furthermore, classification helps us to understand what objectives we can hope to accomplish by the use of any particular game. Classifications are thus not for the purpose of mental gymnastics—rather they are a definitely needed tool.

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. It is not easy to name an example of purely motor, sensory, or intellectual play. The typical motor plays of running, jumping, and climbing, involve along with

the motor activity much exercise of the senses—sight, hearing, touch, and pressure; also 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.

SELECTED CLASSIFICATIONS

Many classifications of games have been made, some based on age levels, some on materials used, some on organization, some on movements required, some on interests, some on psychological aspects.

The following selected classifications from leading writers in the field show the variety of classifications which have been used:

Guts Muths

- A. Movement plays.
 - B. Rest plays
- Types of plays under the above two classes:
1. Plays of observation and sensory judgment, e.g. ball games (A) and puzzle games (B).
 2. Plays of attention.
 3. Memory plays (B only).
 4. Plays of wit and imagination.
 5. Rational plays (B only)
 6. Plays of taste (B only).

Froebel

- A. Games of imitation.
- B. Games of bodily exercise.
- C. Games of the senses.

Lange

- A. Intellectual play.
- B. Games of chance.
- C. Plays of skill.
- D. Sense play.
- E. Movement play.
- F. Illusion play.

Spencer

- A. Sensory and movement plays.
- B. Games, or play by rule.
- C. Artistic-aesthetic play.

Lazarus

- A. Chance play.
- B. Intellectual play.
- C. Exercise play.
- D. Ideal play.

Groos

- A. Experimental play, leading to self-control.
 1. Sensory practice.
 2. Motor practice.
 3. Practice of higher psychic facilities.
- B. Plays involving relationships of living beings with each other.
 1. Combat play.
 2. Love play.
 3. Imitative play.
 4. Social play.

G. E. Johnson

- A. Games which conserve biological and physiological growth.
- B. Games which perfect the body.
- C. Games which develop individualistic virtues.
- D. Games which develop the individual in social relationships.

C. W. Hetherington

- A. Mimetics.
- B. Story plays.
- C. Rhythmical activities.
- D. Hunting games.
- E. Relay races.
- F. Stunts.
- G. Athletic games.
- H. Individual athletic events.

Play activities are best understood if classified in two ways: first,

according to the outward form, or the movements involved, a procedure which is done in this chapter; and second, according to the interests of the players, a method taken up in the next chapter.

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. Including the variations, there are in all nine forms of locomotion, 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 quadrupedal locomotion, usually done on hands and knees. It is an important stage in the neuromuscular development of the young child but after that is of less importance than the other types, being 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 utilitarian 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, such as in golf and recreational hiking.

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 is useful for invalids and convalescents. Standing still for a long time, which of necessity is required of barbers, bank-tellers, and clerks, is a practice that 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; for even though the hard smooth surface saves shoes and makes walking less difficult, it is at the same time bad for the feet and 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 too unsafe, for 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 in which to take part.

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.

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 programs by our schools this statement would be true to-day. But running is the most universal of motor play activities, and 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, 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 to the cinder paths followed the invention of the stop watch, by means of 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 could be done in sand as well as anywhere, but with the establishment of records of so many seconds for a race of a designated length there came an interest in faster time, and hence, in 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; these 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 *creative 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 over by the body; a *broad jump* to find how great a horizontal distance can be reached; 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 for 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 grasping 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 and 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 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; this 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 opportunities exist. Where they do not, the outdoor gymnasium is the best substitute. Climbing is included in many of the achievement tests.

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 this performance can be done in succession without touching the floor with the feet.

Swimming and Diving.—Swimming 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. The *back stroke* is an inverted crawl. The leg and arm action is the same but it is unnecessary to turn the head and tilt the chin when breathing.

Diving is entering the water head first by a spring from the shore or from a supporting object. The simplest form is the *plunge*, which is made to gain distance without much regard to form; in other dives the diver is expected to enter the water with little splashing. The main types are the *front* and *back* dives, with or without a run. These may be done in *straight*, *pike*, or *tuck* formation. There are also several variations, including *somersaults* and *twists*.

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 in which to play 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 insignia 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 Schaefer 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 by announcing times and places for them and possibly by planning 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 basketball; skill by throwing at a mark, as in target throws and throwing for goal in basketball.

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 *servng* 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.

Striking and Swinging.—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 such as a *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 *padding*. 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, basketball, and tennis as a means of training the eye, to say nothing of coordinating it with the 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, absurd to claim that motor play, such as we have been considering, does not provide intellectual activity. 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?

Boxing, football, and all such games are commonly referred to in intellectual circles as competitions in strength only, when in reality 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 obtain for these individuals from two to four hours a day of fundamental motor play, and thus replace to advantage the time customarily spent 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.

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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 Chinning 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 Tussling Row-boat Sled Paddle Cheering Singing Elocution Piano Violin Wood Work Weaving Painting Movies, Plays Pageants, Parades Athletic Games Card Games Club Work Debating Reading
				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 and Carrying			
Intellectual	Playing on Instruments	Use of Voice			
		Handicraft			

Reference List—See end of Chapter VI.

CHAPTER VI

CLASSIFICATION: INTERESTS

THE last chapter gave an account of the forms of play, classified according to the parts of the organism 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 attention was given to the motives and interests of the players, but rather to the outward forms of play activity. The play leader, however, depends on *interest* to stimulate activity, and so he is more concerned with play motives than with its outward form. The motives of the players determine the character of the play and form the basis for its division into very important types.

MOTIVES IN PLAY

ACCORDING to the traditional play theories, the motives which impel people to play arise from instincts which have come from the struggle for existence in the remote past. Thus Groos has listed eight major instincts to account for the main motives that mankind has in playing.

Play Motives (Groos)	Individualistic	The instinct for activity
		The instinct for self-improvement
Associative		The acquisitive instinct
		The constructive instinct
		The social instinct
		The imitative instinct
		The competitive instinct
		The mating instinct

Groos was of course not alone in positing a system of instincts to account for human behavior. Many others have prepared similar classifications, among them James,¹ Angell,² McDougall,³ Thorndike,⁴ Drever,⁵ and Hunter.⁶

¹ William James, *The Principles of Psychology*, Vol. II, pp. 404-441. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1890.

² J. R. Angell, *Psychology*, p. 297. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1904.

³ Wm. McDougall, *An Introduction to Social Psychology*, p. 47 ff. Boston: John W. Luce and Co., 1921.

⁴ E. L. Thorndike, *The Original Nature of Man*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1913.

⁵ John Drever, *Instinct in Man*, p. 169 ff. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1917.

⁶ W. S. Hunter, *General Psychology*, p. 174 ff. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1919.

We saw in Chapter III that there are six general types of wishes, each having a great variety of concrete forms. If we analyze the interests included under these wishes⁷ we find a partial list containing those of particular importance in understanding play as follows:

New experience	{ Fighting; Pursuit and Capture Competition Hunting Curiosity Roving Speed Creativeness
Security	{ Flight and Avoidance of Danger Acquisition Imitation (from fear of social disapproval) Religion
Response	{ Sociability Courtship and Mating Parental love Boon Friendship Altruism
Recognition	{ Desire for victory Desire for proficiency Desire to lead Showiness Desire for undying fame
Participation	{ Desire for membership in groups Desire for affiliation with causes
Aesthetic	{ Desire for beauty in color Desire for beauty in form Desire for beauty in sound Desire for beauty in motion Desire for rhythm in general

The shift from pure inborn impulse to socially acquired behavior patterns as the basis of motivation, which we discussed in Chapter III, substitutes for the concept of instinct that of wishes. Wishes, we will recall, refer to the universal desires of men, to the things which men everywhere want. Interests are individual matters. However, the specific interests of individuals although varying in detail fall under certain types which can be classified. The wishes are classifications of desires which all men have. A knowledge of what there is in the way

⁷ See p. 74.

of universal interests is extremely important to play leaders, in that it forms a basis on which programs of activities may be built.

SPECIFIC INTERESTS IN THE WISHES

THE WISH FOR NEW EXPERIENCE

Life is activity. The primary need is the need to be doing. Man is a dynamic, driving individual. He does not sit patiently and wait for a stimulus to come and set him into motion; he goes forth searching and seeking excitement. Complete quiescence is intolerable. Guts Muths (1796) pointed out that ennui is one of the most oppressive of human evils, a sort of sickness. Monotony appears to man as the very opposite of life and he is dedicated to the task of escaping it. The constant need is for *new* experience. Youth seeks adventure, new adventure, high adventure. He seeks motion, change, thrill, danger. Risks mean excitement. Life is driving, advancing, pursuing, attacking.

Fighting.—From the struggling infant in the cradle to the conflagration of the civilized world in a world war, man is seen as a fighting, combating organism. Life is struggle. Fighting patterns appear on every hand in life, as we see in the swinging of fists and the kicking of feet and the hurling of the body at one's foe. We see it in the gang fights of adolescents, in duels and feuds, in the verbal battle of adulthood, in economic struggles against one's business enemies, and in the intellectual battles of scientists and philosophers. Man fights not only with fists and feet; he hurls missiles in the form of tomahawks, arrows, bullets, and bombs; he swings clubs in the form of sticks, spears, and bayonets. In the absence of actual fighting situations for self-preservation, his missiles take the form of snowballs, baseballs, footballs, tennis balls, discus, shot, javelin, playing cards, and profane words, and his clubs the form of baseball bats, cricket paddles, tennis rackets, hockey sticks, and golf clubs. Fighting is one of the most outstanding characteristics of human kind; the desire for it in varying degrees of intensity is universal. Fighting arts are among the most precious possessions of any folk.

One of the most conspicuous of the concrete forms in which the fighting drive expresses itself is *pursuit and capture*. The essential essence of the fighting wish is this drive toward one's foe and the pursuit of him if he fails to fight and seeks safety in flight. It appears in countless play and competitive sport patterns.

Competitive Sports.—In organized society the more elemental, ran-

dom, and informal methods of fighting tend to give way to definite fighting patterns, and in civilized society the desire for physical fighting finds expression largely through the medium of competitive sports and play forms. Practically all competitive sports are of the fighting type, with the objective of defeating one's opponents. Destructive combat is regulated through social custom to take on the form of rivalry with the intent to defeat opponents by excelling or surpassing them rather than injuring them. The fighting drive furnishes the motivation which largely accounts for the popularity of the long array of competitive sports. A play leader anywhere can obtain a ready response from any group by the use of competition forms in which a *we-group* is pitted against a *they-group*. So deep-seated is the fighting drive that in intense situations in competitive sports the taboos which society has inculcated in the form of rules and standards of sportsmanship are often discarded, anger flames up, and the players resort to the more elemental forms of fighting.

Industrial managers increase their volume of production by appealing to the competitive interest of workers through rewards for speed in output, thus giving a sportive aspect to effort which might otherwise be monotonous. Workers compete with one another for volume of output and compete with themselves to defeat their previous daily record. This opportunity for competition in speed of production partially compensates for the lack of opportunity for expression of the creative interest, which largely passed out of industry with the downfall of craftsmanship.

Competition and conflict take the form of fist fights, duels, war, litigation, and appear in the conflict of impersonal ideals as in religious, scientific, and political argument. All of these types appear in play forms.

Hunting.—Man is not only a fighting animal, but he is a hunting animal. In fact the two lines of activity are very similar in nature; some feel that hunting is more fundamental even than fighting, the latter being a form of hunting. Common observation reveals the conspicuous role which hunting plays in human activity; one has but to look at the moving stream of life around him to detect it on every hand. Consider the appeal of fishing: children quite generally long for it and seem never happier than when perched on a bank of a muddy stream with a bamboo pole; a countless army of sportsmen spend more money each year than their checkbooks can well afford to take them to the fishing waters; more rods and reels are manufactured in the

United States each year than tennis racquets.⁸ According to the estimates of the Special Senate Committee on Wild Life Conservation, approximately 13,000,000 people in the United States either fished or hunted during the year 1929.⁹ More money is spent on firearms each year in this country than for golf equipment.

The deer-hunting season sees an army of armed men advancing bushward, and it is no uncommon thing for a score or more of men to lose their lives in Maine alone during a single hunting season, so eager are they to shoot at any moving object in the bushes which might by chance be a deer.

The weapons of hunting and their use hold a widespread appeal. The fascination of the jackknife to boys is commonplace. Guns, bows and arrows, darts, and blowguns hold an appeal to children and to not a few adults which is all out of proportion to their use in modern life.

If fighting patterns are conspicuous in competitive games, hunting patterns are equally easy to note. Hide and seek games, pursuit and capture games, parlor games such as "Hunt the Thimble," illustrate the wish.

Curiosity.—Closely akin to the hunting wish is curiosity. It too leads to hunting and searching. Anyone who has been around children cannot fail to be familiar with the seemingly boundless curiosity of the child mind. They are relentless in their questioning. We see it in the exploration of woods, fields, caves, and deserted buildings; in hunting for nature objects, rocks of peculiar formation, wildflowers, birds with field glasses, curios, antiques. Scientists and philosophers hunt for new facts and new ideas.

Children and adolescent boys and girls transported to camp in the woods often display a desire that will not be denied to explore the new world, and they seek the acquaintance of those who know the secrets of the woods to answer their queries. This thirst for knowledge is seemingly so vast at times as to be unquenchable. Ernest Thompson Seton in his novel of woodcraft secrets, *Two Little Savages*, wrote this brief but very significant preface: "Having known the torment of thirst, I would dig a well that others might drink."¹⁰

⁸ See J. F. Steiner, *Americans at Play*, p. 49. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1933.

⁹ *Wild Life Conservation*, Senate Document No. 1329, p. 4. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1931.

¹⁰ From *Two Little Savages*, by Ernest Thompson Seton, copyright 1903, and reprinted with permission from Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc.

Curiosity also manifests itself in reading, in solving puzzles, and in scientific research. It is one of the major factors which send scientists forth in their search for facts.

The wish for new experience and particularly that form of it we call curiosity is seen in the drive that sends adult explorers into the remote corners of the world, by foot, canoe, pack mule, or airplane—often at great risk to their lives. Many explorers have commented on the fact that curiosity as to what lies beyond the next mountain range is the urge that leads them on and on, when common sense tells them that lack of food and time should turn them back. Dillon Wallace vividly pictures this in his *Lure of the Labrador Wild*, an account of exploration in which the lure of the next mountain range led to the death of one of the party through starvation. Danger is constantly courted by the wish for new experience.

Roving.—The wanderlust seems to grip us all at times, and seasonally at least we are impelled with the urge to move away from our familiar surroundings and hit the open trail. Where? It makes little difference so long as we are going. The hiking parties of boys and girls are seen along the roads, canoeing parties strike into the unknown bush, and the army of auto tourists start their annual trek across the country with the coming of spring.

Kipling gives us in his *The Feet of the Young Men* a vivid and penetrating picture of the wanderlust that springs eternally in the heart of youth with the coming of spring, and in fact to all those who are not staid and stagnant through years of traditional living.

Spring, and the "Red Gods make their medicine again." The wild geese, trumpeting their clarion call of life and conquest and adventure, wend their way northward, and the youthful heart grows restless with a vision of boundless forests, trackless wilds and lonely hidden lakes, of wind and water and sky and sun. With Kipling, we "must go-go-go away from here—on the other side the world we're overdue!"

To be up and away! The camping army of youth treks northward, the array of motorists dash hither and yon to distant goals, the vagabonding adults seek thrills in strange and unfamiliar lands, the hobo puts his pack upon his back, and the less fortunate dream of freedom to go and fancy themselves on the open trail. The periodic appeal of roving and the grip of the wanderlust seems quite universal and the lack of opportunity to satisfy it in a modern world of insistent duties leads to restlessness. If it cannot be experienced in fact, it is indulged in in fancy.

The wish for new experience is a constant drive which sends folk on to travel, and the desire to escape the *here* and *now* and search for a *there* and *then* that is more satisfying is, seasonally at least, such a compelling urge in all of us that it leads to restlessness and irritation if unsatisfied, and often refuses to be denied. Vagabondage has a peculiar appeal.

Speed.—Speed is needed in fighting activity, but so is strength, good coordination, and many other factors which might be mentioned; it may seem therefore that there is no justification in singling it out as a factor any more than many other physical traits, but entirely aside from the need for speed of bodily movement in fighting play, there seems to be a wish for speed for its own sake. We see it in the joy which comes in coasting, skating and skiing, in horse racing, in speed boating and fast sailing, in motoring and flying. It is a thrilling form which the wish for new experience and adventure takes.

Creativeness.—The wish for new experience appears again in the desire to construct, to build, to create, to be the cause of. We see it in the block building of children, in the hut and shack building of youth, in the cabin building of older boys; in the doll dressmaking and the cake making of girls. We see it in the arts and crafts, the pewter, silver, copper, and leather crafts; in story writing and composing of poetry. This creative urge, this longing to express the personality through fashioning that which is new is an urge which modern industry gives little opportunity for realization, with resultant unrest and irritability on the part of workers. The desire to build and construct on the part of youth is so compelling and irresistible that it offers to play leaders an excellent motive around which programs of outstanding educational and recreational merit can be built.

Vicarious New Experience.—To all who are young and aspiring, the *here* and the *now* seems inadequate. Whatever the near and familiar may be the mere fact that it is such makes it soon unsatisfying. All of us regardless of age are impelled by a wish at times for another world, a world replete with new experience, with romance, color, and picturesqueness, which in our own little corner of the world is denied us. The routine of life, the social taboos and inhibitions irk and irritate us. However appealing our own day-by-day existence may appear to others, to us it becomes prosaic and commonplace, and the wish for new adventure grips us. But, sadly enough, we must continue on day-by-day in the same monotonous way and in the same monotonous

surroundings. New experience and all that it implies in the way of *life* seems at times not to be our lot.

In the realm of imagination, however, we find the other world. We go to the movie, we read a story, or attend an athletic contest and *vicariously* experience the life that in reality is not ours.

The movie brings to us the world of our dreams, a romantic world of love and color and fighting. Vicariously for an hour or two we live this life of romance. We picture ourselves in the hero's role and fight his cause with him, battle with him as he struggles against impossible odds and woo with him as he seeks his love. The shop girl sitting in her seat in the movie finds herself in the palatial homes of the rich, dressed in the latest fashions and with Prince Charming to woo her. The house of dreams takes us to the northwoods with its Indians, the plains with its cowboys, the south sea islands with their romance and allurements, the homes of the rich with their luxury, the underworld with its battling gangsters, the wild free life where taboos and our gossiping neighbors do not bother us. So when new experience of the type we desire is denied us in actual life, we may experience it vicariously in the theatre.

The same is true in reading and story telling. The question is frequently asked why reading, which is a recently acquired art in the history of the human race and involves the higher nerve centers that become quickly fatigued, rather than the more elemental, big muscle types of response, is so fascinating. It seems too obvious to mention that it is not the physical act of reading, involving the use of eyes and the connecting nerve traits, that makes reading satisfying; it is the *content* of what is read. What is the content of the novels and stories of the world's literature? *Fighting and love making*. Through the medium of stories we vicariously achieve new experience and response.

In dramatics and make-believe there is something of vicarious expression of wishes through the imagining of one's self in the situation of the character whose role we are playing. Certainly there is vicarious participation in day dreaming. Because of our personal limitations and lack of prowess and the limitation which the day-by-day life imposes upon us, we cannot achieve the honor and glory that is so dear to our hearts; so in our day dreams and reveries we fancy ourselves doing heroic deeds and winning the wild acclaim of crowds on the field of battle, on the mimic battle field of the football gridiron, in popular sports in general, in shooting the moose at bay in the far off woods, in intellectual battles on the public platform, in creating an immortal work of art.

The crowd in the stands at athletic contests enjoys vicarious experience in watching their heroes perform. The spectator at the football game fights the cause with his team; he leans and pushes in the same direction as they hit the line; he shouts and glories in their victory, he experiences the sorrow and chagrin of defeat. The more combative the type of game, the more elements it has in it to satisfy the driving fighting aspect of the wish for new experience, the more popular it is. Patrick has pointed out the drawing power of football as compared to baseball, baseball as compared to tennis, tennis as compared to debating. Whatever may be said regarding the value of participation as opposed to spectatorism, the fact still remains that there is such a decided satisfaction in watching combative contests that they are the occasion of holidays and festive occasions of outstanding importance.

Man, then, is eager for new experience and all that it implies, and, when he fails to find it in actual experience, he seeks it vicariously. The thing to do is to strike at life problems directly and seek satisfaction through actual achievement, but man often finds this impossible, so he does the next best thing.

THE WISH FOR SECURITY

The wish for new experience, as we have seen, is emotionally related to anger and tends to invite danger and even death. It implies motion, risks, social irresponsibility, and a disregard for social customs and mores. The desire for security is the opposite of this and is based upon fear and the avoidance of danger. Timidity and flight are aspects of it. It causes the individual to be cautious, conservative, regular in habits, and to act in accordance with socially acceptable standards.

The most outstanding characteristic of youth and adolescence is the wish for new experience, although recognition and response are also conspicuous characteristics. Where does youth stand in respect to security? Let us answer by quoting from *Camping and Education*:

To what extent do campers manifest the elemental wish for security? Apparently but very slightly. The desire to be safe is as firmly implanted there as in age—children are timid—but they feel themselves protected by adults. That is, the camper takes his security for granted—the presence of adult counselors in whom he and his parents have confidence insures it, puts his mind at ease regarding it; he “passes the buck” in this respect to adults. He thinks but little about it—forgets it. But it is the primary concern, the ever-present worry of middle age. The business of youth is to take on experience, the business of adults is to see that no harm comes as a result of it. The youth accepts this division of labor. If he had not had the experience of parental responsibility, he would be

careful. He knows that the counselors are expected to see that no harm comes, so he is free to go the limit. As the years pass by, we feel less and less drive for new experience, and more and more responsibility for security. "Rash youth" is youth buoyed up by the urge for new experience; "slow old age" is age made cautious by the wish for security. It is the health urge, the life urge. All adults are interested in their own health, but they are more interested in their children's health. The wish for security is the all-important factor in the fond parents' mind in contemplating the camp experience. Said a director of a leading camp to me last spring: "I have come to the conclusion, after talking to my following, that the most important thing they want is protection, personal attention and supervision"—most important to the parents, yes, but not to campers. Age stratification in society throws new experience into the spotlight in the youthful levels and fades it out in favor of security in mature levels.¹¹

Among the ways in which the wish for security manifests itself are *flight, acquisitiveness, imitation, and religion.*

Flight.—Let it be thoroughly understood that in any activity several wishes are involved, probably all of them. One wish merely appears to be more in the picture than the others.

People do not stand inert in the presence of what they conceive to be of immediate and destructive danger, unless they are paralyzed with fear. If the opposing force cannot be fought with some hope of success, the individual flees. People are afraid of different things depending on what they have learned to fear, but all men retreat from and avoid what they conceive to be immediately destructive. Flight is the basis of many, many games. We see it in tag games, hide and seek games, pursuit and capture games in general. And when the child flees from danger in these games, he runs until his "heart is in his mouth." The drive to safety is a tremendous force upon which play leaders can build.

Acquisitiveness.—The wish for safety leads to the accumulation of property, to the taking out of insurance, the establishment of estates. It is at the basis of the desire for ownership. We see it in the child's collection of toys, in stamp collections, butterfly collections, and the like. Other factors enter into the motivation behind these collections but acquisitiveness is largely a manifestation of the wish for security. In societies where much of property is held in common, such as among the Southwest Indian tribes, security does not depend upon the accumulation of private property and hence there is little tendency toward the accumulation of material things.

Imitation.—We are all of us engaged in the business of taking on

¹¹ Bernard S. Mason, *Camping and Education*, pp. 5-6. New York: The McCall Co., 1930.

an endless chain of behavior patterns which make us act alike, eat alike, dress alike, talk alike, play alike, and so on. Nothing is more "obvious about us all than that we do the usual thing at the usual time in the usual place and in the usual way."¹² We acquire habits by trial and error, but we also acquire them by "borrowing," that is, imitating other people. We find imitation characterizing all age stratifications of society but if it is strong in adulthood it is far stronger in youth. We take on without knowing it the ways of others, and again we deliberately and consciously copy their movements and ways. This is the chief factor in the uniformizing process which society always employs. Tarde, the great French sociologist, maintained that imitation is the chief factor in the social process, that in fact it *is* the social process. While we may not care to go that far to-day, certainly suggestion-imitation is a tremendously important factor in the creation of human nature.

An actress paints her face in a certain way and soon the custom has spread across the country. A popular movie actor wears a certain type of sweater in two successive pictures, and it becomes the sweater style of America. Whatever the Prince of Wales may choose to wear determines the mode in men's attire for the British Isles. A leading football team introduces the huddle and soon almost all football teams are using it, even though it is questionable whether or not it adds to the efficiency of offense.

Whom do children imitate? They imitate those with whom they are constantly associated—the ways of the gang, good or bad, become the ways of the individual—and those who are older whom they admire. No one ever imitates one whom he considers inferior; he may think him inferior in other respects, but in respect to the trait he imitates he feels him superior. In fact, we do not imitate folks in general but certain admired traits in them.

Hero worship is involved here. Children develop an ardent sympathy for the leader they admire and take on his ways rapidly. This places a distinct moral responsibility on the shoulders of the play leader, as we shall see in a later chapter, for his ways become the boy's and girl's ways.

Imitation explains why certain games are played universally in one country and not in another, why certain methods of playing the same game are used in one area and other methods in another. It tells us why the group play customs become the channels through which the

¹² F. E. Lummey, *Principles of Sociology*, p. 89. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1928.

individual's wishes find expression. In ball games, small boys stop watching the game they came to see in order to play an imitation of it. In their play life they are constantly taking on the established play customs of the society in which they live.

Imitation would lead to stagnation in society and in the evolution of games, were it not for the fact, discussed in Chapter I, that man cannot imitate *exactly*. No matter how hard he may try his actions are but an approximation of those of his model. In this way a gradual evolution goes on from generation to generation. Now and then a great mind appears and produces an invention which breaks the "cake of custom," to use Bagehot's phrase,¹³ and leads to sudden change. The new way is itself imitated by the masses as soon as it appears useful.

Imitation accounts for the make-believe games and the dramatic games in which the children mimic the ways of the types they are portraying. We see it in folk dancing and rhythmic games in which a direct effort is made to imitate the movements of the leader who is setting the pattern.

Why is imitation discussed under security? To be secure and "get on" in the group we must take on the group ways and live in accordance with socially accepted standards, otherwise the wrath and the ridicule of the group will fall upon our heads. Imitation is not a wish, but a process by which the wishes, principally security, find satisfaction. The desire to be in accord, for purposes of security, makes of us copying creatures. The wish for new experience and for recognition also lead to imitation.

Religion.—Among primitive peoples magic and religion were devices for securing the help of the supernatural for the protection of the tribe. They were devices for safety. The belief in the supernatural owes its beginning to fear and the shock of death, although illusions and dreams help to cause the primitive mind to assume a life after death in that through these mediums the dead come back to them. In magic the supernatural being was coerced through various acts of ritual. In religion which appears later in cultural evolution, the attitude toward the divine being changed from propitiation to reverence and awe. Whatever the method the chief object was security, and even to-day security is one of the major motives in religious observance—security in this world and hereafter.

¹³ W. Bagehot, *Physics and Politics*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1906.

THE WISH FOR RESPONSE

The wish for response is the love wish, the wish not for the acclaim of the crowd or the public at large but for the affection of the few who are close and dear to us. It manifests itself in sociability, courtship and mating, parental love, boon friendship and altruism. Homesickness and loneliness are manifestations of it. It leads to sociability and the making of friends. It is not merely a gregarious sort of thing, for one gets little satisfaction just in being with the herd and in fact often finds people just as people repulsive. It is a wish for close intimate response. Devotion, self-sacrifice, and altruism are aspects of it.

In play life, the wish for response appears in calling and visiting, conversation, parties and picnics, the doll play of children, boys' gangs, mating play, social dancing, and mother love play. Most sociable gatherings involving both sexes are for the purpose of bringing together possible mates, whatever the avowed or announced purpose of the gathering may be.

The deep-seated aspect of the wish for response involving the love of mother for child and child for mother affects tremendously the type of play of young children. Much of the young child's play is with mother. Between the years of six and sixteen the child must gradually break away from the emotional ties of childhood toward parents and take on the emotional response of adults toward parents; if this is not done completely, the individual's personality may become warped and ineffectual in adulthood. These mother-child play activities must not continue too long, therefore, and mothers should assist children in breaking away for the sake of the child's personality. In younger years, however, it is a characteristic type of play.

Aspects of mother love play are seen in children in the imitative plays in which they play the roles of mother and children, and also in all of the doll play activities. Imitation is involved here of course but the wish for response also is a motive.

THE WISH FOR RECOGNITION

The wish for recognition manifests itself in the desire for: *victory, proficiency, leadership, showiness, and undying fame.*

The plaudits of the crowd are sweet music to human ears. Actors frequently prize applause almost as much as salary checks, and experienced troopers whose ears are accustomed to tumultuous acclaim often fail to find the remote audience of the movies satisfying. Athletes can never sever from consciousness the spectators in the stands, and

while in the heat of contest they may be unaware of the roar of approval from the bleachers, they court it nevertheless, and the will to fame is a constant incentive to their efforts.

Public approval, fame, and social immortality—memory in the minds of the public—are among the most coveted of human goods. We see the wish for recognition in showiness of dress, in automobiles and palatial homes, in mannerisms, in grandstand playing. Social climbing is an aspect to it. We see it in the ambition of artists and authors, of financial men in the efforts for huge fortunes, of politicians for high office. We see it in the activity of children to win honors and awards in the organizations to which they belong, to win athletic letters and loving cups, to win the personal praise of leaders and coaches. It is behind the desire of many for high grades in school. We see it in the hazardous undertakings of boys, and of men in war and exploration. However irksome the social standards may be, folk conform for the sake of public opinion. The wish for recognition is the will to power.

Praise and recognition are not only strongly desired, but they are needed for the development of personality.

The wish for recognition alone is not a drive which expresses itself in the development of any particular type of play; rather it manifests itself in any and all types of play. The wish for recognition also appears in play groups in the desire to lead, to be elected to the captaincy of the team or presidency of the club.

THE WISH FOR PARTICIPATION

This is not a wish for sociability, a mere desire to participate in activity with other people. It has to do with the desire to belong to some organization or movement larger than themselves. It manifests in (1) *joining organizations*, and (2) *affiliation with causes*.

Some people have a desire to join many organizations—lodges, fraternities, civic clubs and the like; these men are frequently referred to as “joiners.” There are “joiners” among boys and girls as well as adults. Not all people wish to belong to a large number of organizations, but practically all normal individuals want to belong to some organization and to feel that their personality counts in some group. There is no agony greater than that which comes from the realization that we do not count for much in any group. So when boys begin to move away from the home with increasing confidence at the age of ten or twelve, they seek group connections, or, as we say, form *gangs*.

The wish for participation also has to do with the desire of people to affiliate themselves with a cause or a movement. Many people affiliate themselves with a religious cause, to the extent that it becomes a dominant drive in life; they identify themselves with moral causes such as prohibition and devote a lifetime of energy for its promotion. Social and economic issues such as socialism and communism, the rights of laboring men, and child labor become ardent causes to some to the extent frequently that they are willing to sacrifice their lives for them. Every cause for which a person will sacrifice his life has a religious aspect, for people lay down their lives only for an end that to them has become religion. Nationalism, often called patriotism, is a cause to many, and in time of war it flames up to religious intensity and leads to the willing sacrifice of life.

Causes have all the aspects of play or recreation. They grip and impel to such an extent that their devotees would rather promote them than do anything else. They absorb all of leisure time and give opportunity for emotional release and intense satisfaction. They give opportunity for the expression of personality which to many is denied in work-a-day life. Religion of the ardent type that becomes a cause is thus recreational, and as we shall see in other connections all religion regardless of type functions as play. Such causes, whatever their nature, tend toward decent and moral living, so absorbing are they that they leave little time for, or interest in, frivolities and vices. It has been said that the frivolities of present-day American youth, to the extent that they can be said to exist, are accounted for in part by the lack of a nation-wide cause which grips the imagination and to which youth is ardently devoted. Youth particularly is given to causes owing to its idealistic tendencies; propagandists leading causes look to youth for their warriors. Causes are often undesirable in the sense that they lead to bias and intolerance.

For our purpose, suffice it to say that people have a wish to affiliate themselves with organizations, movements, or causes which are larger than themselves. Religion, nationalism, and socialism are examples. Adolescents find many causes which appear to adults as trivial but to them as exceedingly real.

It cannot be said that the wish for participation leads to the development of any precise kinds of play. It is of interest to play leaders engaged in organizing clubs and teams. Group leaders utilize this tendency in youth to organize them for the solving of social problems and remedying social evils. Debating, arguing, and abstract discussion are typical activities growing out of interest in causes.

THE WISH FOR THE AESTHETIC

This wish consists of a desire for beauty in *color, form, sound, and motion*. Most of us are sensitive to our surroundings. Beauty cheers and ugliness offends. The most ignorant of men and the lowest stratifications in the slums have some conception of the beautiful and react to what appeals to them as beauty. Says Frank Crane in one of his columns "I will not pass my days with unspeakable wall paper, not with a table and chair and a cupboard that shout to me every time I look at them, the gospel of commonplaceness, cheapness, and drabness. . . . My bookcase, my pen, my rugs and my lamp talk to me every day, and I want them to say something worthwhile." We see the wish for the aesthetic in dress, in home surroundings, in lawns and flowers, in singing, music, painting, arts and craft work, in poetry, in movies and dramatics, in ceremonials and rituals. Much of the interest in nature is tied up with the appreciation of its beauties. We drink in the wine of the sunset, the poetry of tinted clouds, of waving leaves and rippling waters. If one loves the things of the woods and open country and sees satisfying beauty in them it makes little difference whether he knows their names or not. In ancient Greece the beauty of body was sought and developed and the ideal symbolized in poetry and sculpture.

Religion is a widespread source of aesthetic satisfaction. Take out of religion the beautiful and to many there is nothing left that seems to be needed in their lives. Religion, however it is viewed, is recreation in that it takes us away for a while to another world that is restful and beautiful and inspiring. Worship itself is recreational. Theology is intellectual play, but ritual is the poetry of religion. In some religious services ritual is used with a distinct gain in the capacity of the service to furnish satisfaction for the aesthetic wish. The average liberal religious leader to-day is thinking of religion less in terms of "a belief in the supernatural and what we do about it" and more in terms of a system of ideals for the regulation of conduct held forth in a setting of beauty and inspiration.

While the wish for the aesthetic is universal, some cultures have developed the aesthetic phase far more than others. In America, the material phases of our culture have been developed to the point where they are far out in advance of the non-material. This has resulted in serious maladjustments and is at the root of many of our social problems. Among other phases of non-material culture, our cultural lag in respect to the artistic is conspicuous, and places us far behind some

European nations and even primitive cultures in our capacity as a people to comprehend and appreciate and achieve the beautiful. Our conception of what constitutes beauty is often far short of acceptable artistic standards.

The failure of day-by-day life in commonplace surroundings to satisfy the wish for the beautiful is distressing to large sections of our population, and all of us would doubtless be happier with more opportunity for satisfaction in this direction. This places a challenge squarely at the feet of play leaders and group workers. The aesthetic and all that it implies is an important phase of a well-balanced play and recreational program and should take its place along with the physical. Physical play activity in America has been well perfected and has been promoted to a point where it is far out in advance of the non-physical phases. There should be no let down in the continued development and promotion of physical play but in addition to it there is a distinct need for a more aggressive leadership in the non-physical sphere. Play is "spiritual" as well as physical. Those activities which administer to the "spirit" should be available.

Rhythm.—Mere sound by itself has little interest to man; the factor that turns music and poetry into something pleasing to the senses of man is rhythm.¹⁴ Whether procured through the ear, the eye, or through touch, rhythm is appealing. In a sense, it is rhythm of line which makes drawing, sculpture, and pottery satisfying to us. It is rhythm of motion which makes dancing so compelling. The factor of rhythm is intimately associated with that which we conceive to be beautiful; the wish for the aesthetic is in no small respect a wish for rhythm.

Mankind has a tendency to perform physical movements in general in rhythmic routine. No tribe on record in the world fails to show the use of rhythmic motion, conspicuously in dancing. Herbert Spencer maintained that there is a law beyond the sphere of man, which accounts for rhythm—a universal law of rhythm of motion. He pointed out that we see it in the swinging of the pendulum, the pennant in the breeze, the swaying of leaves and waving of grain in the field, the ripples of the streamlet, the vibration of the bow string, the ethereal undulations, the motion of heat, light, sound, electricity, in waves and tides, in day and night, the return of seasons, in the pulse beat, the regular periodic need for food and rest, the waves of emotional reac-

¹⁴ See W. G. Sumner and A. G. Keller, *Science of Society*, Vol. III, p. 2101 ff. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1927.

tion, the annual migration of birds, birth, marriage and death, waves of crime, waves of public opinion, waves of styles, social cycles as seen in the rise and fall of cultures and nations. Social movements seem to go in a series of flights and perchings. Man being a part of the universe is regulated by the law, as seen in his movements.¹⁵ Havelock Ellis suggests the same point of view in saying that the significance of dancing lies in the fact that "it is simply an intimate concrete appeal of a general rhythm, that general rhythm which marks, not life only, but the universe."¹⁶ However this point of view may be regarded, there are many who feel that there is an inborn tendency to express movement in rhythmic repetition. It cannot be said at the present what the source of rhythm is, but the universal tendency in man is obvious.

We see rhythm in walking, in music, in marching, in dancing. Whenever music is heard we tend to accompany it with rhythmic motion, if not in the movement of the entire body as in dancing, in the tapping of feet, the drumming of hands, the nodding of the head. As Dorsey puts it, "Life hates monotony, but loves rhythm; in heartbeat, in intestinal contraction, in canoeing, in poetry, in music."¹⁷

Rhythm leads to economy of effort; the worker's movements soon take on a rhythmic swing and repetition, and unnecessary movements are eliminated. Rhythm, too, is restful and relaxing. Primitives paddled their war canoes to rhythmic beat and children in camps to-day sing rhythmic songs to accompany the stroke in the war canoes; marching songs accompany the hikers' rhythmic steps, and the Volga boatman's song carries a rhythmic swing so symbolic of the pulling motion that even an unimaginative listener pictures in his mind the straining boatman. Through the use of rhythm in this way, man's labor becomes less arduous.

Rhythmic movement on the part of a group leads to a feeling of oneness and unity, and an exhilaration of spirit; thus the primitives danced before taking the warpath for the psychological effect produced. The rhythm of the goose step and of marching unites the army unit with a feeling of unity. As Sumner and Keller say, "To sentiments expressed in meter are added an elevation, impressiveness, lightness, abandon, tenderness, or ferocity which common means of expression do not convey."¹⁸

¹⁵ H. Spencer, *First Principles*, p. 228 ff. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1864.

¹⁶ Havelock Ellis, *The Dance of Life*, p. 37. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923.

¹⁷ G. A. Dorsey, *Why We Behave Like Human Beings*, p. 355. New York: Harper and Bros., 1925.

¹⁸ W. G. Sumner and A. G. Keller, *Science of Society*, Vol. III, p. 2101. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1927.

The fact that rhythmic movement is less fatiguing than other types of movement makes dancing and similar rhythmic response a particularly efficient means of physical exercise. Dancing is doubtless the oldest of human arts and is the most restful and relaxing type of exercise that man can engage in to-day. Many athletic coaches have learned that the teaching of athletic coordinations by means of rhythm has facilitated the learning process.

Dancing has been said to be the most popular single type of play to girls, and has occupied a much larger place in their play program than in that of boys. This is not owing to any lack of interest on the part of boys in rhythm but rather to the fact that boys in the United States have been conditioned to look upon dancing as effeminate. Many of the most warlike tribes and nations have considered dancing as the prerogative of the male rather than the female sex. The Spartans, who made war their vocation and even slept by their arms, gave much attention to dancing in the training of their youth. The Pyrrhic dance was considered in ancient times as a very necessary part in the training of the warrior. To-day, one can turn to the European nations and find that men are the star performers in many of the traditional folk festivals and dances.

If vigorous dances, such as clogging, the Morris and Sword dances, Sailor's Hornpipe, and athletic rhythms, are offered to boys and taught in a simple, straightforward manner, with an absence of affectation, self-consciousness, and sentimentality, there is no doubt that the interest in them would be very pronounced.

Rhythm is difficult to tie up to one specific wish. The desire for safety certainly leads to rhythmic repetition: regularity of habits are of rhythmic nature, work takes on rhythmic form, regularity of meals and of sleep are rhythmic—all of these contribute to security. Since it is one of the chief means by which the wish for the aesthetic finds satisfaction and is so indelibly related to that which we conceive to be beautiful in sound and motion, as described above, it is classified here largely for convenience. It could be classified under any of the wishes since movement in general tends to take rhythmic form.

A PRACTICAL CLASSIFICATION OF PLAY FORMS

It should be clearly understood that any given play activity may involve several of the types of interests we have discussed above. It is impossible to classify a type of play exclusively under one of the wishes, since the activity may furnish expression to many interests.

Most of the organized play forms are related to the interests connected with the wishes for new experience, security, response, and aesthetic enjoyment. The wishes for recognition and participation are connected with *all* the play forms as a motivating force rather than being limited to certain patterns for their expression. In the following classification, the types of play have been listed to correspond as closely as possible to the outline of interests already discussed in this chapter.

EXPLANATION OF PLAY TERMS

The hunting and fighting phases of the wish for new experience find expression largely through the medium of competitive sports. As compared to other types of play, competitive games and contests involve a much greater degree of organization. They require rules and demand strict obedience to them. This factor necessitates competent officiating. Games are never successful or popular unless these needs are provided.

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 basketball. 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.

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. In the mile run, however,

pace setting and pocketing, whether sportsmanlike or not, have become customary, and thus this event approaches a game.

The Greek myth of Atalanta is a classical illustration of a contest won by deception. 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 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 them; there are similar rules in basketball, football, and all games.

It becomes apparent 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.

Bowling, a competitive sport often referred to as a game, clearly falls under the classification of a contest, for the reason that skills are matched with no opportunity for interference with opponents. Golf also conforms to the definition of a contest except in professional match play where there is opportunity for interference with the opponent by obstructing his ball on the green with a stymie. In ordinary medal play no such interference takes place.

Horseshoe pitching, quoits, curling, and bowling-on-the-green, offer very little chance for interference with one's opponents, but since some opportunity is offered, they are classified as games.

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, in which the rhythmic and dramatic plays suited to the period of early childhood are sometimes called "singing games" and "dramatic games." Since the term

“game” applies 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 defined contests, games, and plays 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 general and more all-inclusive term, including hunting, fishing, skating, and swimming, which are not necessarily competitive, as well as horse-racing, bull-fighting, track and field, baseball, football, and the other activities which have been classed under contests and games. The term “athletic sports” or “athletics” means nearly the same thing, but suggests that the activity is promoted in the form of competition rather than as mere recreation.

As distinguished from games and sports, which are primarily competitive and recreative, the term “gymnastics” refers to exercises for the purpose of developing strength and control of the body.

KINDS OF CONTESTS

I. *Contests Between Individuals.*—Primarily, 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 pre-historic times, long before there were any games. The Greeks were the first in civilized history 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.

Track and field events, swimming, and gymnastics are the outstanding examples of sports in which highly organized contests are held.

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 Olympics," 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-round 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.

In the Greek Olympic games, and even to-day in some European circles, only one place was awarded in each event. In this country an effort has been made to encourage those individuals who feel that they do not have the ability to win an event, by selecting more than one place. First and second places were therefore selected, then third place, later fourth, and to-day in intercollegiate competition five places are frequently selected.

Another application of the same idea is to divide the players into groups depending upon athletic ability and to conduct separate competition for each group. Sometimes chronological age is used as the basis of grouping, sometimes weight, sometimes height; most frequently to-day the method is a combination of age, weight, and height. There are also more elaborate systems which give different weightings to age, weight, height, and sometimes include school grade.

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; expert golf players are given handicaps when playing men of lesser ability.

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 intramural championships.

Achievement Tests.—To avoid the faults of the championship plan, several plans of tests have been devised to stimulate physical activity among all ages of children and adults regardless of the degree of natural ability they may possess. In these tests, each individual must pass a certain standard in a selected list of events to get a badge or certificate. Having secured the badge, more difficult tests await him. Separate tests are provided for boys and girls, and for the different age levels. Among the best known of these tests are the Athletic Badge Tests of the National Recreation Association, and the National Physical Achievement Standards for Boys.

Another type of test uses a point system for scoring. There are several types of these. In some, a certain number of points are given for equalling a minimum standard in the performance of a feat, and additional points for excelling the minimum. In other systems a scoring table is used 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. Other systems attempt to provide an incentive for bringing all individuals up to average ability by offering the greatest number of points for increment in performance around the average standard in each event. Above and below the average performance the point values decrease for each increment until they are comparatively small at the upper and lower ends of the scale. Still other point systems give an increasing number of points for achievement the nearer the individual comes to the peak of his capacity.

II. *Contests Between Groups.*—Another device to encourage 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.

Relay races used for more formal competition are being more and more standardized, just like other contests, but there is at the same time also a 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.

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.

I. 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 is the old “Beater Goes Round.” 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.

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 "Fisherman," "Looby Loo," and "Trades" have a little more of team play.

6. The final group, of the type of "Prisoner's Base," 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.

II. *Personal Combats*.—Combats are games rather than contests when analyzed, even though 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.

III. *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: *baseball*, *tennis*, and *football*. Basketball 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.—These combine 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 a soft ball, has come into popular use and supplies the need very well. "Long Ball," "German Bat Ball," and "One Old Cat," long used as introductory games, are going out of favor and the "Playground" game is taking their place.

Tennis Games.—These can be traced back to the tenth century, when they were played by 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 volleyball. It is the only one of the group adapted to use with large numbers and is very popular with players of both sexes.

The games of the tennis type are also played in "singles" form, but inasmuch as they are often played with two or more partners assisting each other in teamplay, they are classed as team games.

Football Games.—This type uses 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 representing 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 or 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, and polo grew up in certain schools and athletic clubs. American college football and basketball are of more recent origin, the former being developed around 1880 and the latter in the “90’s.”

IV. *Mental Competition.*—There are a number of games which are based entirely upon mental competition. Conspicuous among these are the well-known games of chess, checkers, Mah-jong, cribbage, dominoes, and the many varieties of card games, such as bridge, poker, and so forth. The games of this type are also closely allied to social play, as they constitute the entertainment at many social gatherings.

KINDS OF HUNTING PLAY

Actual hunting is a socially acceptable form of behavior, which is not the case in actual fighting. Actual hunting takes the following forms:

<i>Shooting</i>	<i>Angling</i>	<i>Spearing</i>
with guns	still fishing	in rapids
with bow and arrow	bait casting	through ice
with slings	fly casting	harpooning
with blow guns	trolling	

Trapping

- with arresting traps, such as nooses, mechanical jaws, mesh, or nets
- with inclosing traps, such as pitfalls and door traps
- with killing traps, such as weight falls

The weapons of actual hunting are used in contests, as in riflery with its target shooting and stunt shooting, in trap shooting, in archery with its target shooting, dummy deer shooting, and roving. Darts, blowguns, and boomerangs are similarly used.

A very popular form of hunting in recreational activity is that type which involves no intent to kill, as in hunting with field glasses and cameras. It also takes the form of hunting for non-moving objects such as wild flowers, trees, nature objects in general, curios, and the like.

Intellectual play involves hunting, as in hunting for words in crossword puzzles, for parts in jigsaw puzzles, in hunting for facts, in scientific effort.

KINDS OF CURIOSITY PLAY

Curiosity is a factor in many play activities—in fact in all play activities when the child takes them up for the first time because he wants to see what they are like. Nothing would be gained by listing all play forms in which curiosity is involved.

It is a particularly conspicuous drive in play of the following types: exploration, nature lore, mental games, reading, puzzle solving, and experimenting with apparatus.

KINDS OF ROVING PLAY

Roving includes all those activities which involve movement across some considerable amount of space: hiking, back packing, trek carting, pack muling, horseback riding, gypsy hiking with team and wagon, dog teaming, bicycling, automobile riding and hitch hiking, paddling and portaging, sailing, motorboating, flying and gliding.

When these activities are worked up into contests, they take the form of the contests discussed under kinds of competitive play. When so used, careful supervision is necessary to insure safety.

KINDS OF CREATIVE PLAY

The wish for creativeness opens a vast sphere to the play leader and an extremely valuable one both from the educational and recreational standpoints. Creative effort in play life divides into two general fields: (1) creative effort using material objects as in the arts and crafts, and (2) effort in the non-material sphere such as composing poetry and music. A selected suggestive list illustrating the scope of the possibilities in play programs is shown on the opposite page.

The tendency in creative activity to-day is to tie up the project with other activities or with the life situation of the individual at the moment, rather than just making things for the sake of making them. When thus related to other activities, the project takes on new meaning. Thus we can work up lists similar to the above around dramatics, such as the making of scenery, costumes, and the like; around music, such as the making of simple and primitive instruments; and around nature lore, which presents endless opportunities.

Creative effort utilizing material objects:

Arts and crafts

Basketry
 Batik dyeing, tie dyeing
 Beading
 Block printing: linoleum, wood
 Book binding
 Candle dipping
 Caning and seat weaving
 Cement craft
 China painting
 Cord tying
 Crocheting
 Decorating ready made articles
 Embroidering
 Etching
 Feather craft
 Glue craft
 Jewelry making
 Leather craft
 Mask making: modeling, casting, papier-maché
 Metal crafts: brass, copper, pewter, silver, and wrought iron
 Modeling in clay
 Needlework
 Paper folding
 Plastic relief painting
 Pottery
 Raffia
 Rug making
 Sketching
 Soap carving
 Spinning
 Stenciling
 Tin work
 Wax craft
 Weaving: hand loom, foot power, cord, and braid
 Wood carving
 Wood working: airplanes, kites, boats, ship models, paddles, boomerangs, toys, furniture

Woodcraft

Ash baskets
 Birch bark: baskets, shelters, canoes
 Bows, arrows, targets
 Bridges and towers
 Buckskin: making buckskin clothing
 Caches
 Camp knicknacks: noggins from burls, paper knives, brooms, rakes, willow beds, candle sticks, war clubs, coat hangers
 Drums
 Dugouts and rafts
 Firecraft: fire building, cranes, hangers and claws, rustic grills
 Gourds
 Horn craft
 Hunting knife making
 Peace pipes
 Pine needle craft
 Rawhide craft: rattles, parfleche cases, and pouches
 Rope and twine from bark
 Rustic furniture: stools, log benches, chairs, and tables
 Shelter building: bough lean-tos, bark shelters, tepees and wigwams, slab camps, log lean-tos, log cabins
 Totem poles: miniature, large, snow
 Whittling

Experimental

Wireless
 Radio
 Chemistry
 Automobile

Creative effort utilizing non-material subject matter:

Dramatic skits, composing of
 Music, composing of
 Poetry, composing of
 Stories, composing of

It has been frequently demonstrated recently that children have a striking capacity for the composing of poetry and music and so on when they are properly encouraged under competent leadership.¹⁹

KINDS OF VICARIOUS PLAY

When direct participation in the above kinds of play activity, growing out of the wish for adventure and new experience, is impossible, people participate in them vicariously through the medium of (a) make-believe play, (b) reading, (c) moving pictures, (d) drama, and (e) day dreaming and reverie.

KINDS OF IMITATIVE PLAY

The learning of all games involves imitation, and the imitating of expert players goes on constantly in all forms of play. Most of coaching is based upon demonstration, observation and imitation, or experimentation. There are certain types of play, however, which are primarily imitative: free play, simple imitation, story plays, rhythmic plays, and mimetic exercises.

Free Play.—Individual children and small groups regularly 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.

Kinesthetic pleasure in movement is probably the outstanding feature of free, informal play. Recreative swimming is one example. Other examples are the carefree participation in throwing and catching a ball, in shooting baskets, and in trying stunts. The imitative element is strong, as the participant is usually conscious of the proper form in the activity and is trying to approximate it.

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

¹⁹ See Hughes Mearns, *Creative Youth*. Garden City: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1930.

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.—Story plays illustrate dramatic imitation. 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 comments 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. The popularity of story plays among game leaders has waned somewhat with the increasing emphasis upon rhythmic play.

Song Plays and Folk Dances.—These forms of play are imitative, and still the motive that makes them so popular with girls is a complex one. They involve rhythm, music, sociability, and interaction with the opposite sex. The dramatic or make-believe is an added attraction.

Song plays and folk dances often involve dramatizing the habits and mannerisms 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." As we saw in Chapter I these plays and dances are remnants of once serious religious rituals, which have long since lost their original significance and are pursued as play.

Mimetic Exercises.—Devices are utilized to teach large classes the correct form in gymnastics and in the standard track and field events, such as putting the shot and the crouching start in sprinting. To-day the fundamental movements in many games and contests are taught in classes by means of mimetic exercises in mass instruction; the crawl stroke in swimming, the arch shot in basketball, punting and charging

in football, the service stroke in tennis, and the club swing in golf, are examples. 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.

KINDS OF ACQUISITIVE PLAY

Acquisition in play life takes the form chiefly of *collections*—postage stamps, match folders, tobacco cans, nature cards in packages of merchandise, autographs of famous people, pictures of athletes and movie actors, butterflies, arrow heads, and so on without end. Adults are similarly given to collections centering around some hobby, such as guns, antiques, Indian curios, books, and the like. Nature lore and woodcraft leaders utilize this collecting interest extensively in teaching their subject matter, urging children to collect nature specimens.

KINDS OF SOCIAL PLAY

The simplest type of play involving the wish for response is conversation, as seen in the casual gatherings of children, and in making calls on the part of adults. Parties, picnics, banquets, and so forth are for purposes of sociability and response.

The various club movements, although primarily concerned with certain purposes like scouting, church work, civic progress, outing recreation, music, etc., also are fostered by the desire for a congenial group to meet together in sociability.

Athletic contests and games furnish opportunity for sociability along with the training in physique and intelligence. The play day is a form of athletic get-together between schools in which the competitive aspect is less intense and there is more opportunity for sociability than in the traditional type of interscholastic meets.²⁰

The most common courtship and 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. Kissing games,

²⁰ See A. F. Hodgkins, "An Interpretation of Play Days," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*. May, 1932.

once prominent features at parties, are of this type. Social dancing is popular year in and year out and, although the type of dancing changes from time to time, dancing continues as a most relaxing and satisfying type of recreation and probably always will. Young women are especially fond of the simple social dances, so much so that many of them, if free to choose, would seldom engage in another kind of amusement when it is possible to dance. There is a decided satisfaction in the rhythm of dancing, yet the fact that people usually dance in couples shows the prominence of the wish for response.

KINDS OF AESTHETIC PLAY

The wish for the aesthetic manifests itself in: (1) *music*—in listening, participating, and composing; (2) *art*—painting, sketching, sculpturing, crafts, and photography—both through observation and creative effort; (3) *religion*, as seen in ritual and worship; (4) *nature appreciation*; (5) *dramatics, pageantry, and club and lodge ritual*; (6) *literature*, both reading and composing, and (7) *rhythmic play*. Rhythmic play appears in children's song plays, and in the various dances the outward forms and characteristics of which were described in the last chapter.

The possibilities of accomplishment and appreciation of each of these seven forms of aesthetic play are so great that a whole book would be needed for the treatment. Here they merely can be mentioned. They have perhaps a more limited following than physical play at the present time but those familiar with them are usually devoted enthusiastically to them and may even enjoy them more than the well known physical play which is more universally participated in.

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CHAPTER VII

HOW AGE AND SEX INFLUENCE PLAY

WHILE Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Herbart, and others of the older educationalists emphasized that educational principles should be based on child nature, it was not until the advent of recent scientific methodology that the nature of the child became the object of thoroughgoing study. The appearance of Wilhelm Preyer's *Soul of the Child* in 1882 marks the beginning of the modern child-study movement. This lead was quickly followed by the works of Sully, Shinn, Baldwin, Major, and Moore. Later a long array of scientists and educators gave their attention to the matter of childhood, among them G. Stanley Hall, James, Dewey, Thorndike, Binet, Stern, Bagley, Terman, Claparède, Colvin, Freeman, Kirkpatrick, O'Shea, Pyle, Judd, Whipple, Gates, McCall, and Norsworthy and Whitley.

Child study is regarded to-day as a major phase of the science of psychology, and psychological and sociological literature abounds with treatises on the subject. Many books popularize the results of research for the use of parents. Special attention is being given to the gifted, the deficient, and the delinquent child. The Children's Foundation is dedicated to the study of the child. The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection in 1930 evidenced the importance with which the subject is regarded.

As a result of this study of child life a number of interesting and significant facts regarding the characteristics of the different age stratifications of children have been brought to light. 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 likes and dislikes; 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.

Play activities vary in a general way with age and sex stratification. 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 basketball, putting whole-hearted effort 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 occupied in interesting and compelling activity that their attention will not turn to other things. Without such knowledge the teacher will have to learn the same things slowly by experiment, with much consequent loss of time and of confidence of pupils and employers.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Before approaching the play characteristics of the different age periods, it must be thoroughly understood that individual differences in interests are enormous and, as a result, play behavior varies tremendously as one goes from individual to individual through a group. These differences exist in every aspect of human behavior that psychology has studied to date. Practical workers in the field of playgrounds and camps are quick to point out the wide range of individual interests. The recent scientific studies of play behavior show emphatically that individual differences in any given age group are so striking and characteristic that they seem to be of more importance than differences between age groups. It is impossible to say, therefore, that in any particular age group—say 8 to 12 years of age—certain definite play activities are to be used which will meet the needs of all or even the majority of the players.

Older writers were much inclined to break up the pre-maturity years of life into age periods and recommend definite lists of games as the ones particularly adapted for each period. While we are able to show that certain types of activity are more characteristic of certain age levels than of others, we cannot assume that these activities will meet the needs or satisfy the wishes of every individual in this age; in fact, we are much safer in saying that no activity will prove interesting and satisfying to *all* individuals in any age group, for the reason

that there is such a wide variation in physical and mental growth and in interests growing out of varying experience. There are not only individual differences in interests but organic, structural, and functional irregularities which alter the needs of individual cases.

Chronological age is a very unsatisfactory basis of classification. Physiological age, or the state of maturity of the individual, does not coincide with chronological age, some individuals being three and four years in advance of others of the same chronological age. Even when groupings are made according to age, weight, and height, the factor of differences in interests enters to complicate the situation.

This being true, every organization handling play and recreation must present a large number of activities—a program so wide in scope and varied in nature as to satisfy every individual interest. All too often adults in charge of these organizations build a narrow program of activities that they think children like or should like. This means that activities in which many children have no particular interest are forced upon them, and all sorts of incentives must be resorted to to get results. Not only is it true that *adult likes and child likes do not coincide*, but *the likes of individual children do not coincide*. Each individual has a right to expect activity in which he is interested.

CONTINUITY OF PLAY ACTIVITIES

The above emphasis upon individual differences does not mean that there are not rather clearly defined age stratifications in respect to play interests. Common observation of playing children of varying ages indicates that boys of the age period of nine to twelve years, for instance, participate as a rule in activities which are different from those of the period of six to nine, or the period from twelve to fifteen.

The obvious fact that periodicity does exist, however, does not lead to the conclusion that any given play activity is limited to only one age period. It may be more characteristic of one age period than the others, but it had its beginnings in the preceding age period and carries over into the next. Lehman and Witty's findings point to the marked continuity of activities from one period to the next. Some activities, such as reading, and throwing and catching balls, are characteristic of the play of people from eight and one-half to twenty-two years of age.¹ While the play interests and activities of each age period differ from those of the other periods in striking degrees, the transition is never abrupt.

¹H. C. Lehman and P. A. Witty, *The Psychology of Play Activities*, p. 49 ff. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1927.

DIFFICULTIES IN DIVIDING AGE PERIODS

The transition of each individual from one period of life to another is gradual and partial, his interests developing slowly with experience and his body changing proportionately with growth. 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 between the ages of 11 and 13, and in boys, between 12 and 15. 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 program. 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 in 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. 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 roughly 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 even later.

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 on, *maturity*.

PRE-SCHOOL PERIOD (0-6)

This period is called early childhood. Babies enjoy rolling, kicking, pulling, pushing, swinging, running, jumping, and so forth, and keep up an almost ceaseless round of physical activity during their waking hours. The need 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. Bright colors have a particular appeal. Building with blocks, digging in the sand, wading in shallow water, and playing with swings, teeters, 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 housekeeping, farming, keeping a store, carrying the mail, directing the traffic at a street crossing, and so forth, with special interest in certain cases of unusual activity, such as moving 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 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, imitation is still a major characteristic of play. Imitative plays are conspicuous on every hand up until the ages of ten and twelve: boys are much given to playing cowboy, Indian, soldier, and teacher, and girls to playing with dolls, playing house and school, and dressing up like adults. Toy play of the younger period gradually goes out. Children are much inclined to give the objects they handle a symbolic meaning which is in keeping with their make-believe tendencies at these ages.

Self-assertion is characteristic of this age and because of the delight in displaying their superior powers, the children will seek to develop skills and perfect their coordinations. In fact, self-assertion is so prominent a characteristic that a group of children, if left to themselves, will often spend their whole play period disputing over what they will play.

The activities of this period are largely individualistic: this does not mean that they are not at the same time social, for solitary play is in fact seldom found. The activities, however, are more of the self-testing and individual competition type rather than of the team type; examples are found in such play as marbles, boxing, wrestling, roller skating, climbing, riding, running, coasting in wagons. The achievement tests referred to in the preceding chapter were devised by play leaders to give children a program of individual contests which can be practiced with little or no equipment. This period of later childhood is important as a time for acquiring muscular control. Great perfection of coordination is not yet possible, but this is the time when practice must begin if special and unusual skill is to be obtained.

Tag games and hiding and finding games are particularly characteristic of this period. Creative effort comes into evidence in crude attempts at construction, and the tools of construction are popular. Singing plays are very popular, particularly with girls.

The outstanding characteristic of this period is the *wide scope and variety of activities* engaged in. In later periods the number of activities grows less and less. Childhood is the period of exploration and experimentation. The wish for new experience and all that it implies is boundless in intensity. Curiosity is paramount. All of the world is new and challenging, and all normal children go forth adventuring to see what it is like. They seek to test themselves in the activity of the world—hence the tendency toward many activities, both physical and mental, and the great versatility of interests.²

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 more sudden and radical changes in moods, interests, and habits of thought and conduct than at any other period of transition.

Imitative and make-believe play have largely passed out of the picture by now, as have such characteristic activities of the preceding period as simple tag and hide and seek games.

Self-testing play and individual contests still continue, but tend to take the more standardized form of track and field sports. The gang-

² Cf. H. C. Lehman and P. A. Witty, *The Psychology of Play Activities*, p. 72. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1927.

ing tendency begins to appear and leads to an inclination toward team games. Baseball and football, which were characteristic of the younger period only in the scrub forms, now tend to become more highly organized. Basketball enters also. Hiking becomes very popular with boys and girls, and there is an unusual interest in such organizations as Scouting and Camp Fire. The wish for *participation* becomes strongly evident.

The physical activity program in this period should be generalized in nature, providing every boy and every girl with the opportunity to participate in many activities rather than to specialize in one or two to the neglect of others. It is the time when they should be forming wholesome interests, and they should participate widely not only in number of activities, but in all the skills within each activity. For that reason, in his team activities, the boy should acquire experience in all the positions on the team, rather than begin to specialize immediately in any one. Because of the gang interests at this age, group activities predominate but, nevertheless, there should be some training in leisure-time activities that have recreational or hobby value, because otherwise those students who do not continue with school after the junior high school years will lose this opportunity entirely.

For these reasons, the trend is definitely away from interscholastic competition on the junior high school level. Not only does it deprive the young athlete of the opportunity to browse around and find his interests in the various sports and various positions, but it causes him to lose his adaptability. In other words, early specialization is gained at the expense of general all-round ability. Many athletic misfits are thus created. A comprehensive intramural program, on the other hand, makes for versatility and also greatly enlarges the numbers of potential players and leaders for the senior high school and college programs.

At this age, the liability to overstrain in the excitement of varsity competition and in the zeal for victory is greater than in the case of older high school boys, for the junior high school period is one of rapid growth and liability to exhaustion under long-sustained effort. Furthermore, in games of physical contact, competition between junior high school boys is dangerous because boys vary so much in size at this age. A suitable classification plan is necessary.

A system which forces children into strenuous physical effort in specialized events at too young an age prevents their physiological development. As Lowe and Porritt point out, very few boys who are outstandingly successful in competition in younger school years continue their athletic success in later years. Rather than athleticizing

these gifted boys at young years care should be taken to hold them back in order that their ability may come to its peak when they are more fully developed.³

In view of these objections, the present tendency is towards the promotion of an intramural program for junior high schools rather than the interscholastic approach. The intramural program is very easily introduced in the junior high school and completely satisfies the demands of the students unless adult leaders hold forth the counter-attractions of inter-school competition. The somewhat plausible claim of the smaller communities, where there is only one junior high school, that they should be allowed to go outside their cities for competition if the large cities are permitted to hold competitions among their many junior high schools, is answered by the rapidly growing "sport days." These give opportunity for occasional outside competition, and yet the occasions are directed toward an all-school participation rather than toward the intensive rivalry of a small group of selected players at so young an age.

The physical activity program in brief should include physical achievement tests; a limited amount of marching, rhythmic, calisthenics, and apparatus; mass teaching of fundamental game skills; competition by squads; relays and recreational games. Swimming should have special teaching periods if the facilities are available. This activity program may be supplemented by the teaching of the rules of the more popular school and recreational sports. The teaching of hygiene should be fitted into the program and handled in adequate fashion. The student should be motivated through the spirit of emulation and of group contribution to take a pride in physical fitness. Further, at this time of introductory experience with the well-known school games, it is most necessary that the participating students should become familiar with the ethics of good sportsmanship.

LATER ADOLESCENCE (15-18)—*Senior High School*

It is interesting to note that very few new activities appear in this period which were not played in younger years except those connected with increased sex interest, such as dancing, dates, and parties. Many of the activities of the younger periods are eliminated and the number of activities engaged in is less than in the preceding period and about half of those of the childhood period.

³ D. S. A. Lowe and A. E. Porritt, *Athletics*, p. 320. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1929.

This period has been called the period of loyalty. Cooperation and team play become the dominant characteristics of physical play. Although interest in track and field sports, with emphasis on 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 desire for individual recognition and the tendency to push one's self forward are often so dominant that team games are difficult to control. 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." 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, unless overdone, is not apt to be so productive of harm as long-distance running and such games as basketball, where the practice is both strenuous and long continued. To avoid impairing the health from physical overexertion, games of the basketball type are played in quarters instead of halves, and runs over one mile have been omitted from high school meets. Football accidents should be prevented by providing players with suitable protective clothing and by 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 ON)

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 in the early years of this period. 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, and so on, attract a larger number of spectators than any other type of display. 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 programs, 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 tends 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 stimulate the individual to continue wholesome recreations rather than later to slump into those of the passive type.

SEX DIFFERENCES

It goes without saying that there are many differences in the behavior of the two sexes which must be considered in play leadership. These differences are due primarily to two factors: (1) difference in physiological structure and function, (2) difference in social conditioning.

In considering the physiological differences, one is impressed immediately with differences in the skeletal framework of the two sexes. The bones of the female are not only lighter, but the greater width of the pelvis gives the thigh bones an obliquity which affects the running ability of the girl and makes it impossible for her to compete against male standards.⁴ Even at birth there are differences in bodily development between the sexes, boys on the average being taller, heavier, and larger about the chest. Boys continue to be taller and heavier until the age period from eleven to fourteen, when girls become taller and heavier than boys of the same age. The prepubertal acceleration in growth occurs a year earlier in girls than in boys, and boys continue to grow in height later than do girls. The weight of the female, although on the average less, is relatively more adipose tissue, and the relatively less muscular tissue is not so well adapted to withstand the effects of strenuous forced effort.⁵ There are differences in the rate of

⁴ Compare J. F. Williams and W. R. Morrison, *A Text-Book of Physical Education*, p. 171. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1931.

⁵ See D. G. A. Lowe and A. E. Porritt, *Athletics*, p. 310. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1929.

metabolism between the two sexes, the male possessing a metabolic level approximately 10 per cent higher than the female.⁶ This is a conditioning factor favoring greater activity and aggressiveness. There are functional differences in the female, not only in respect to the obvious reproductive functions of menstruation, pregnancy, and lactation, but also in respect to the ability to store up energy and withstand cold and pain. The female is held to possess a greater general constitutional vitality. Langdon-Davies maintains that owing to differences in the rate of metabolism no amount of exercise would make women as muscular as men:

The sex difference in metabolism can be summed up by saying that the female stores up energy longer than the male; that is, the period between taking in the outside matter and giving out the energy produced from it is longer; and hence women tend to store fat rather than muscle. Muscle is always the result largely of use and of action; a man who exercises his arms, for instance, will be more muscular than the other man; but apart from the effects of work and education, there is a sex difference due to different rates of metabolism; no amount of gymnastics will make women on an average as muscular as men.⁷

The glandular make-up of the sexes is also different. According to Lowe and Porritt, the endocrine glands and thyroid and adrenal glands function to a great extent in the female causing a higher output of nervous energy and a smaller production of physical energy.⁸

These physiological differences are not sufficient, however, to account for the behavior differences between the sexes, and as compared to social conditioning are a minor factor. The role of women in society is defined by social tradition and from infancy on the girl is subjected to social pressures making of her a somewhat different type of being and predisposing her to different activity. That the differences in conduct between the sexes is more the result of social than of biological heritage is illustrated in the changes which have taken place since women have had the opportunity to participate in activities outside of the home. Girls are participating more and more in the activities which have been regarded in the past as the peculiar sphere of boys. The girl of to-day does not faint at the slightest provocation as girls of a few years back did when such action was considered to be the appropriate response for a cultured and sensitive gentlewoman. Neither does she have difficulty in getting herself up over the curb on the street. She

⁶ See P. Popenoe, "What a Child is Born With," *Our Children* (edited by D. C. Fisher and S. M. Gruenberg), p. 45. New York: Viking Press, 1932.

⁷ John Langdon-Davies, *A Short History of Women*, p. 73. New York: The Viking Press, 1927.

⁸ D. G. A. Lowe and A. E. Porritt, *Athletics*, p. 310. New York: Longmans, Green and Co.

has taken to athletics and outdoor sports with eagerness once the taboos were removed. It has been said of girls that they are lacking in sportsmanship as compared to men. That was probably true in the past, but once they were permitted to engage in competitive activity, they very rapidly took on the attitudes of sportsmanship, until to-day it is difficult to observe differences in this respect to any marked degree if at all.

The Vaertings, in their study of the physical and psychological characteristics of the two sexes in a culture where women rather than men are dominant, indicate that the traits which we commonly regard as masculine are in that culture the traits of women. Similarly, men under such conditions display many of the characteristics of women in our culture.⁹ Whatever validity and importance may be attached to these findings, the current research and thought indicate that men and women in their inborn intellectual and social capacities are much closer together than has been generally assumed in the past. Thorndike finds the chief psychological differences between the sexes to be that women vary less from the average standard, are more observant of small details, less interested in things, and more interested in people and their feelings, less given to pursuing, capturing and fighting, and more giving to nursing, comforting, and relieving pain.¹⁰ Havelock Ellis maintains that the main differences are that women show less variability, less artistic ability, greater affectability, and greater primitiveness.¹¹ These differences are small, however, and the striking thing is not the differences between the sexes but the individual differences within each sex.

We are probably safe in assuming that women are on the whole somewhat more emotional than men, are more tender and sympathetic, and more tactful. It does not necessarily follow however that these differences are inborn and inevitable. Allport has pointed out the tremendously important role of conditioning in developing these feminine characteristics, and indicates that with different training from infancy on they could be decidedly altered.¹² When we regard infancy as primarily a state of teachability, it becomes evident that through a different type of training we can remedy the relative boisterousness, lack of sympathy, and destructiveness of boys and the emotionality of

⁹ M. and M. Vaerting, *The Dominant Sex*, New York: Geo. H. Doran Co., 1923.

¹⁰ E. L. Thorndike, *Educational Psychology*, Vol. III, p. 169 ff. New York: Teachers College, 1925.

¹¹ Havelock Ellis, *Man and Woman*, Chaps. 13, 14, 16, 18. London: A. & C. Black, Ltd., 1930.

¹² F. Allport, *Social Psychology*, p. 345 ff. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924.

girls.¹³ Organized play activities doubtlessly can make a distinct contribution to girls in developing poise and emotional stability. The object in play leadership should be to develop in boys to the fullest possible extent desirable male qualities, and in girls, desirable female qualities.

Even though the behavior differences of the two sexes are largely the result of tradition and education, they are none the less real. In the field of play, the differences do not appear so much in the *kind* of play activity in which boys and girls participate for there is in fact a greater similarity than a difference in the play interests of the sexes, but there is a marked difference in the *way* in which the activities are played. Boys engage in more active, vigorous games than girls; while many of the active games of boys are also played by girls they are participated in less vigorously and strenuously. Boys are more given to competitive games than girls and play them with more of a driving, winning spirit. Organized play activity in general is more characteristic of boy behavior than girl. Games requiring a high degree of muscular skill are more frequently preferred by boys than girls. Girls are more conservative and sedentary in their play behavior.

Both boys and girls are interested in creative effort but boys are more given to constructing large projects and girls to smaller and more delicate things; girls are somewhat more interested in decorating the project than in its mechanical construction. Both boys and girls make collections and while both collect stamps, birds' eggs, marbles, and cigarbands, girls' collections of nature objects show more of an indication toward mosses, butterflies, and colorful things, and less toward the boys' favorites of animals' claws, teeth, live frogs, lizards, and the like.¹⁴ Girls collect doilies, handkerchiefs, samples of soap, perfume, toilet articles, and art books.

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

¹³ Compare M. W. Curti, *Child Psychology*, p. 494 ff. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1931.

¹⁴ Taken from M. T. Whitley, "The Child's Instincts and Impulses," *The Child: His Nature and Needs* (M. V. O'Shea, editor), p. 47. New York: The Children's Foundation, 1924.

their abilities and interests as much as two years earlier than others. The influence of the teacher has something to do with this. Some 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, and some 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 natural interests 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 difficult to say. 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 some point, therefore, between the end of the third grade and the end of the sixth, separation of the sexes in competitive play seems advisable.

Lehman and Witty's findings show that there is a greater differentiation in the play activities of the two sexes at the ages of eight and one-half to ten and one-half inclusive, than at any other period. After this period, as chronological age increases, the sexes tend to engage more frequently in the same activities.¹⁵ It is obvious however that even though they may engage in the same activities they cannot be expected to compete with each other in physical activity, and therefore should be separated.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Not so much because of difference in the kind of activity they like but because of differences in physical capacity and differences in the way they play, it seems best to separate boys and girls at this time in practically all active games. During this period great changes take

¹⁵ H. C. Lehman and P. A. Witty, *The Psychology of Play Activity*, p. 106. New York: A. S. Barnes & Company, 1927.

place in both sexes in structural organization and functional capacities. Boys play more vigorously and roughly and seek opportunity to match their strength against their equals. Girls particularly enjoy social dancing beginning with the thirteenth year, while boys do not develop this interest in a marked degree until about the sixteenth year. Girls play baseball but in a less vigorous and driving way. Basketball for girls likewise must be modified since they are not capable of as much continuous running as boys. Volleyball also should be modified with a smaller and lighter ball being used. Track and field events and athletic tests are popular with girls of this period, but it goes without saying that they should compete against standards of their own. Girls should have play fields of their own, separate from those used by the boys. Camping, hiking, nature lore, and woodcraft are major interests of girls of this period.

It is good social training to have the sexes play together part of the time, but such a situation calls for a thoroughly competent and informed teacher with good judgment, and necessitates a program limited to such games as volleyball, playground ball, tennis, hockey, and the not-too-strenuous group games. In the interest of social education, the two sexes should be brought together as much as possible in the non-physical types of recreation, such as dramatics, music, handicraft, social dancing, and social functions.

Serious attention should be given to the promotion of play among girls between the ages of twelve and fifteen, for this 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 certain few recreative forms of activity, such as tennis, golf, swimming, and dancing, the plays of the two sexes must be separate. Girls play basketball, field hockey, tennis, soccer, speedball, and playground ball, and engage in swimming, hiking, canoeing, and especially dancing; boys have a growing interest in athletic games, such as soccer, football, baseball, basketball, and volleyball. Even in

golf and tennis there is rarely any direct competition between the boys and the girls, although they may play together for companionship. Badminton, deck tennis, paddle tennis, bowling, and archery are excellent girls' games.

In practically all organized sports, the rules governing the men's game must be modified to meet the needs of women, and such rules are prepared for all leading sports by the Women's Athletic Committee of the American Physical Education Association.

The formal program for girls differs from that of boys and all activities are modified to meet the needs and capacities of girls. The classic formal systems differentiated between exercises suitable for men and women, and such differentiation is essential in a well conducted gymnasium program to-day.

The tendency still remaining in some places to have high school girls play basketball by boys' rules should be discouraged. The boys' rules make for a faster game which 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. Interscholastic basketball is dangerous for the reason that girls who are in no physical condition for strenuous activity, will compete for the honor of the school, often to their permanent injury. Scheduled games, highly publicized and backed by school spirit, lead girls to participate at times when their better judgment would otherwise tell them to abstain from severe exertion. The national leaders of athletics for girls are in practically unanimous accord in opposing interschool athletics and favoring in their place, intramurals and play days. The latter, a development of the women teachers, is a distinct contribution to physical education and recreation and has been taken up by men also in the form of "sport days."

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, how-

ever, 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. The average college girl is able to practice outdoor recreative sports with profit, but she frequently neglects this chance for exercise and takes too little to give her the physical ability she needs for later life. The women's physical activity programs of colleges, although still less well developed than the men's, are rapidly becoming more efficient and presented more attractively with the result that an ever increasing percentage of girls are participating. Fitness for vigorous games, however, will come only as a result of regular systematic practice of such vigorous games from the age of puberty on.

Women of college age participate mostly in basketball, volleyball, tennis, field hockey, playground ball, golf, soccer, speedball, fieldball, fencing, bowling, canoeing, rowing, riding, and folk dancing. Track and field events, natural gymnastics, tumbling, and pyramid building are also used. Much popularity surrounds such less strenuous activities as deck tennis, clock golf, table tennis, tether ball, and dart throwing.

There is a marked tendency on the college level to bring both sexes together for recreational activity. Hikes, outdoor recreational meets, and informal social gatherings are very common. Many colleges have social and recreational organizations for graduate students. When mixed groups are together the active games which are used must of course be determined by the women's ability: volleyball, tennis, golf, badminton, swimming, and playground ball are the most commonly used.

The play activities of the two sexes are probably 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 outdoor and indoor recreation rather than 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. The school play program should familiarize boys and girls with the type of games and sports they will need in later life. 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.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

There is a greater similarity than difference in the play interests of the two sexes. Most play activities are engaged in by both sexes with equal frequency but there is a difference in the way the activities are played. Differences are to be noted in the greater tendency among boys than girls toward the more vigorous active games, toward organized and competitive games, and those requiring muscular skill. These differences are due to differences in physiological structure and function, and to differences in social conditioning. Girls entered into strenuous play as soon as the taboos were lifted.

Throughout history, the loyalty of womankind has been bound up with the home, rather than with the larger group organizations, such as the tribe or state. As a result girls were lacking in qualities of cooperation and loyalty which are prerequisites to team play. Once they were permitted to do so, they entered into athletics and vigorous sports with enthusiasm, with the result that there has been a marked improvement in the cooperation, loyalty, and sportsmanship of women players. It seems safe to say that such participation in play is valuable social education for the new role which women are playing in society.

Not only has there been a change in the attitudes of women players but a marked development in the physiques of young women during the past few years. Statistics accumulated in measuring the physiques of students entering college show that girls of this group are from an inch and a quarter to two inches taller to-day than they were thirty years ago. Japanese girls have also showed a marked increase in height in recent years. This increase is probably due to increased general physical exercise on the part of women of to-day as compared to thirty years ago. Most of the increase in the height of the girls is in a greater length of legs, which seems to indicate that the change is the result of more active life. The languid, dependent, Mid-Victorian type has been superseded by the healthy, vigorous-spirited, and self-reliant women of to-day.

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Part III

CHAPTER VIII

THE NEED FOR PLAY IN MODERN LIFE

MANY very significant changes far reaching in their effects have taken place in our social life in recent years and have resulted in serious social maladjustments. So swiftly have these pathological social conditions come upon us as a result of rapid change that the remedial measures of society have lagged far behind. Among other things these changes have thrown out into startlingly bold relief the need for an immediate and extensive development of a well rounded play program for all of America, regardless of age, sex, location, or social stratification.

THE NEED IN RESPECT TO HEALTH AND STRONG PHYSIQUE

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-round 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 more recent generations, the majority of people were 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. 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 varied activities brought.

WORK HAS BECOME HIGHLY SPECIALIZED

In grown-up life, the all-round 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*.

This is an age of intense specialization with almost a total disregard for bodily abilities. The opportunity for all-round 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 man was engaged

that frequently prominent older members of our society to-day will disparage 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 a 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 a well-balanced physical development, 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, however, provided one thing that the past could not give—leisure time—and it is here that we find the opportunity that will admit the 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 arguments against 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-round 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.

THE NEED FOR HEALTH INSTRUCTION IN SCHOOLS

The schools have arrived at the point where they offer exercise in the form of plays and games, athletic work, gymnastics, and rhythmic activity. Too, they often require a physical examination to determine

whether or not the pupil is in good 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 of the past, and even physical education, have been woefully weak. The field outside of muscular exercise has been too much neglected, with practically little or no emphasis on matters pertaining to hygiene and functional health.

Health habits and attitudes should be taught, not in a theoretical way, but with practical emphasis on how the individual should take care of himself. Instruction in the form of health plays, games, and pageants has been a great incentive in getting the children to practice health and to build up permanent health habits.

The modern point of view in respect to health education in the school is discussed in detail in the next chapter.

Statistical studies resulting from the examination in connection with the draft during the World War revealed in striking fashion the amazingly widespread prevalence of poor posture and physical defects leading to poor body mechanics, and brought out the further fact that the great majority of these defects could have been prevented had the proper corrective exercises been given in childhood.¹ The posture surveys by Klein and Thomas² among public school children, by Cook at Yale³ and by Lee and Brown at Harvard⁴ all reveal the same fact—the prevalence of bad body mechanics in the great majority of children and adults. The Klein and Thomas statistics resulting from a study of 1708 children between five and eighteen years of age at Chelsea, Massachusetts, show that *only 8 per cent of school children showed good body mechanics*. Of the children fourteen years of age and over, 12 per cent showed good posture. The Yale and Harvard studies revealed that not more than 20 per cent of young adults displayed normal spinal

¹ For a discussion of physical defects see *Body Mechanics*, a publication of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. New York: The Century Co., 1932.

² A. Klein and L. C. Thomas, *Posture and Physical Defects*, Children's Bureau Publication, No. 205. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1931.

³ R. J. Cook, "Report of the Orthopedic Examination of 1393 Freshmen at Yale University," *Journal of Bone and Joint Surgery*, April, 1922. "Postural Defects in College Men," *American Physical Education Review*, April, 1923.

⁴ L. T. Brown, "A Combined Medical and Postural Examination of 746 Young Adults," *American Journal of Orthopedic Surgery*, Nov., 1917.

contour. It seems safe to assume from these statistics that certainly not more than 25 per cent of our youth possess good body mechanics.

That postural defects can be improved with exercise is brought out emphatically in the Klein and Thomas record. In one year of training, 60 per cent of children showed improvement while only 10 per cent of children receiving no training improved. More than 50 per cent of those who showed improvement during the first year continued to improve during the second year of training.

More and more public schools to-day are employing special teachers to take charge of remedying these physical abnormalities caused either by constitutional weakness or by an environment of confinement and strain and sedentary existence. Likewise certain progressive private camps are employing therapeutic experts to do case work with physically defective campers.

That play can be utilized to improve these conditions is becoming increasingly apparent as experimentation goes on. Just as calisthenics have given way to games for the rank and file in the gymnasium, so the uninteresting exercises prescribed for those with defective posture and similar retarding abnormalities are being replaced with games and contests. Various contests and games of kicking, running, reaching and stretching, and various rhythmic plays are being used by imaginative orthopedic leaders for foot deformities which do the work as effectively as formal exercises and, since they bring joy to the performer, are entered into with more zest and are more apt to be continued in private. Archery, bait casting, blow guns, and similar not-too-strenuous activities are being prescribed for shoulders, spines, and chests which need attention. In general, vigorous play life develops the body in a normal natural way, and for those who are defective, the future promises much in the way of a development of play-motivated exercise which will bring remedy.

THE NEED IN RESPECT TO MENTAL HEALTH

Contemporary life is favorable to the creation of mental disturbances, as we have seen in the preceding pages. Labor in industry is frequently under conditions which are unhygienic, filled with noises, nerve-racking vibrations, dust, odors, and stale indoor air. These factors put a strain upon mental equilibrium and physical resistance. Sedentary habits of students, intellectual workers, and business men likewise tend to result in an unfavorable condition of the organism. Industrial work and much of economic effort in general to-day is

unsatisfying to the wishes of man—a point which is discussed in the pages to follow—and when motives are unsatisfied, irritability and an unfavorable mental condition are apt to result. Whatever increases strain places an added hazard in the path of attaining and safeguarding a sound and healthy personality.

Nervous disorders and disturbances of mentality are decidedly on the increase in America to-day, a fact which carries with it a distinct challenge. Mayo has stated that every other bed in the hospitals of the United States is occupied by a patient suffering from a nervous or mental disease. The findings of Rorem show a still greater percentage: in 1931 fifty-four per cent of the hospital beds in America are in hospitals for nervous and mental patients, and 95 per cent of these beds are occupied as compared to 65 per cent in general hospitals.⁵

These facts do not necessarily prove that nervous disorders are on the increase but may indicate only that a greater percentage of nervous patients are being cared for in institutions. On the other hand, not all cases of nervous disorder find their way into institutions. Certainly these figures represent only a very small percentage of neuroses, and if the cases of mild and acute neurosis could be added the figures would be more startling. The consensus of opinion of authorities in the medical profession is that nervous disorders are decidedly on the increase in the United States which seems to indicate a serious maladjustment between the type of life people are forced to live and that which they desire to live.⁶

To the individual with a sick personality, normal interaction is often very difficult if not impossible. Vincent comments upon the differences between the sick and healthy personality as follows:

The difference between a sick and a healthy personality is as clear cut as the difference between a sick and a healthy body. The sick personality is shy, sensitive, superstitious, fearful, lazy, untidy, indecisive; it is unable to cooperate, lacks persistence, procrastinates, is given to violent dislikes or to unstable enthusiasms; it may lie, steal, or commit violence, may find retreat in drugs or in drunkenness; it may curse itself as worthless, or may on the other hand refuse to see its own imperfections; it may have an unreasonable attitude of admiration for or of aversion to the opposite sex, marriage as an institution, or toward all convention or government.

The healthy personality, on the other hand, has vitality, courage, and interest; is alert, decisive, prompt, direct, objective, resourceful, neat though not a slave to neatness, honest though not rude, humble though self-respectful, confident but not arrogant; it is kind, tolerant, reverent, is moderate in appetites. It has a sane

⁵ C. R. Rorem, "The Percentage of Occupancy in American Hospitals," *Journal of the Medical Association*. June 11, 1932.

⁶ See W. F. Ogburn, *Social Change*, p. 312 ff. New York: B. W. Huebsch, Inc., 1922.

attitude toward religion, toward marriage, and toward authority. It appreciates its own strength and its own weaknesses; it has a sense of proportion, a sense of humor, a love of beauty, and a love of its fellow men.⁷

THE NEED IN RESPECT TO SAFETY

Modern city life has brought with it many hazards which jeopardize the safety of the individuals on every hand. With the speeding up of methods of transportation, the unalert pedestrian is seldom safe on congested streets. The traffic toll is constantly mounting. Industry presents similar hazards. It is estimated that we are killing by accidents each year 100,000 people. The total number of deaths from accidents in the twelve years from 1920 to 1932 is estimated at over 1,000,000; in addition, 25,000,000 have been seriously injured. Childhood has suffered tremendously as a result of accidents. In 1929, approximately 18,000 children were killed. In 1928, "the death rate for accidents for ages five to nine was not only higher than the death rate for any other cause, but over twice as high as that for the next higher cause, diphtheria. In the ten to fourteen age group accidents form a still higher percentage of all deaths, and are still over twice as great for the next most serious cause, which is for this age group tuberculosis. In the school age group as a whole, namely, ages five to fourteen years, accidents cause nearly three times as many deaths as any single disease."⁸

As a result of this situation there is a distinct need for that type of physical training which tends to quickness of movement, speed on foot, agility, and alertness in general. The annual toll of elderly people who lose out in the struggle with traffic indicates the need for physical alertness. As we shall see in a later chapter, play is the type of physical activity which, better than any of the traditional approaches to physical education, contributes those qualities.

The responsibility of the school and play leader in respect to safety goes beyond the supplying of safe apparatus and adequate leadership in supervising play; it includes education in safety and the development of physical capacity of the type mentioned above to the fullest possible extent for all students.⁹

Education for safety includes the instruction which will show itself "first and most fundamentally in the formation of an attitude of mind,

⁷ Lee Vincent, "Physical Education's Contribution to the Mental Health of Students," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*, April, 1933.

⁸ This quotation and the above statistics are from the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *The School Health Program*, p. 180. New York: The Century Co., 1932.

⁹ See F. S. Lloyd, *Safety in Physical Education in Secondary Schools*. New York: National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, 1933.

which will successfully discriminate between dangers that are to be avoided and dangers that are to be faced and which will lead the child to take the appropriate action in each case; second, in the formation of habits of safety; third, in the acquisition of certain learnings with regard to dangers and the way either to avoid them or to face them; and fourth, in the acquiring of the appropriate skills to put these learnings into use."¹⁰

Stack suggests the following methods as successful in safety education in the kindergarten and elementary schools:

1. Actual practice exercises in performing some activity in a safe way, such as crossing the street, sharpening a pencil, using sharp shears, etc.
2. Mild experiences and adventures with certain dangers.
3. Demonstrations of the effects of wrong doing or wrong action. Studies have tended to show that when we can demonstrate to pupils the serious effects of wrong doing and the satisfaction that comes from right action, that this method is far more effective than either positive or negative suggestions.
4. Dramatizing and using safety stories. These appear to be singularly effective in teaching good safety habits.
5. Safety projects. These have been unusually good methods of teaching safety. Many of these typical projects were reported in the 25th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, in publications of the National Safety Council, and in state and city courses of study.
6. Safety games. These also seem to be effective methods of teaching safety. City and state directors of physical education can do much by sending out descriptions of some good safety games that have been organized.
7. Poster lessons. A large number of interesting posters that are helpful as a basis for teaching safety lessons may be secured from automobile clubs, safety councils, and insurance organizations. Of course, it is always best to have the children make their own posters, but posters from agencies outside the schools are sometimes useful in planning safety lessons.
8. Motion pictures and slides. These are also valuable in stressing certain subjects in safety. Several very good films are now available and may be secured at a minimum cost from various national and local safety organizations. Films on fire prevention have been found to be very useful when rotated through elementary schools in a city system.¹¹

Statistics seem to indicate that the efforts in safety education which were started aggressively about 1924 have borne results. In the seven years from 1924 to 1931 the accident mortality for adults has increased 32 per cent, while during the same period the accident mortality for children has remained practically stationary. The National Safety

¹⁰ White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *The School Health Program*, p. 177. New York: The Century Co., 1932.

¹¹ H. J. Stack, "School Safety Education," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*, November, 1930.

Council points out that in the three years between 1928 and 1931, in certain large cities studied, the accident mortality of adults increased 25 per cent, while the fatalities among children of school age showed only a 10 per cent increase.¹²

SUMMARY

From the point of view of the past with its asceticism which exalted the mind at the expense of the body, with its scholasticism which emphasized the intellect, and with its Puritanism which worshipped otherworldliness, there has been a distinct swinging of the pendulum back toward the physical in play. The changes in the manner of living since the Industrial Revolution have resulted in conditions which in many ways are not as conducive to the health and development of vigorous physique as formerly. This has resulted in an increasing awareness of the necessity of developing a leisure-time program of healthful and muscle-building activity and an increasing consciousness of the constructive role which play can accomplish in the pursuit of these ends. The modern play and recreation movement is, therefore, regarded as a means to health and strong physique through activity which develops and conserves neuromuscular and organic power, and through direct health and safety education.

THE NEED IN RESPECT TO SATISFYING HUMAN WISHES

It has been shown that specialized labor gives niggardly and one-sidedly to physical development and that play is needed to supply generalized 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 general work. There are several reasons why interest is apt to be lacking in the modern mode of work: (1) the monotony of repetition in piece work; (2) the lack of opportunity for expression of the creative; (3) the lack of opportunity for sociability; and (4) the strain of the modern tempo in industry.

MONOTONY

Modern industry from the worker's standpoint is built upon concentration upon an unvarying task, suppression of variation, and the subordination of personality. The net result is monotony. Hour after hour and day after day the same small meaningless task is repeated—as in the case of the girl who pastes labels on fruit jars on the moving

¹² Figures from the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *The School Health Program*, p. 181. New York: The Century Co., 1932.

shelf before her—and there is nothing to look forward to but an endless succession of days in which the same task is repeated. Monotony is the very opposite of life. It makes of man an inanimate machine when he is so constituted that he rebels against repetition and seeks *new experience and adventure*. We are even told that we must not eliminate the morons from society in that they do many tasks in industry more successfully and methodically than normal individuals—the poor, plodding, slow-thinking feeble-minded may endure the monotony cheerfully, but normal men cannot.

We have seen that play is an attitude of mind and that there are two ways of getting work done—play and drudgery. Because of the very nature of the tasks he must perform, however, there is little chance for labor in industry to be anything else but drudgery to the average laboring man. Whatever the nature of the task, too much repetition is intolerable.

LACK OF OPPORTUNITY FOR CREATIVE EFFORT

The pewter smith in the old days made his article complete from the time he picked up the rough pewter until the finished article was sold to the consumer. The design was his, and he put into it all in the way of beauty and artistry at his command; he placed it before the customer with a distinct feeling of pride in the thought that no one in the community could do it as well. We see much of the same thing among the craftsmen of the Southwest Indians and the Mexicans to-day. In a craft culture the wish for creative effort is satisfied. Who makes the Ford automobile? No one in particular but many, many individuals. Who derives the satisfaction of having created it? No one. Man wants the opportunity to express his personality in some specialty in which he knows he is proficient, and he wants to see the task completed in his own hands with the feeling that he has been the cause of its existence. Instead he finds himself in a cut-and-dried task which in no adequate sense gives him an opportunity for the expression of his personality and which calls for but one small fraction of his ability. So another human wish—the creative—is left dangling in mid-air by modern industry. Furthermore, both in factory surroundings and in product the wish for the aesthetic finds little satisfaction.

LACK OF OPPORTUNITY FOR SOCIABILITY

Not only did the craft worker find 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, 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 while he works.

STRAIN IN MODERN LIFE

We have seen that long-continued concentration on a task and the resulting monotony soon terminate in nervous exhaustion of workers. This strain has been recognized almost universally during the last two decades.

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 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 airplane 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 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 school-room, his activity curbed, with restlessness and tension prominent factors of his daily existence. He saves his pocket money to see a film thriller.

CONCLUSION—THE REVOLT AGAINST ARTIFICIALITY

It is a far cry from the running, striking, throwing, hunting, and fighting life which nature has fitted man to live, from the adventure-

some life for which his wishes predispose him, to the endlessly monotonous movements of the modern factory. The attendant of automatic tools does not live in the sense that life is activity toward the fulfillment of wishes—he merely exists while he works. He comes as the slave to the galley, and he leaves with the gladness of the convict who is pardoned. The whole factory system is defeating to inner life. Restlessness results and is obvious on every hand. Laborers are not usually aware of the source of their irritability, but they are vaguely conscious that somehow life is unsatisfying. They leave one factory and go to the next; only to find it is equally drab and monotonous. They strike for shorter hours and higher wages, but when these things are obtained, life is little if any more satisfying than before. The laborer is like the horse pawing in a stall or a wolf in a cage—he longs for a freedom he does not know how to obtain. The difficulty is inherent in the nature of the tasks he must perform.

The school child is faced with the same situation, for it is difficult to conceive of a more artificial type of existence, considering the nature of youth, than the school forces upon them. The rank and file in the large cities look forward to the time when they can escape from school and enter industry, but when that time comes, they find industry as defeating to life wishes as the school. As Jane Addams points out, youths entering industry react in three ways: some rebel and refuse to work, and consequently are labeled as shiftless and incorrigible; others become floaters going from factory to factory in search of satisfying work they never find; and the third group resign themselves to their fate and join the leaden-eyed army of American workers. This third group constitute a sad picture in that the dynamic creative spirit of youth becomes gradually crushed.

“The great wrong of our civilization is its dullness—the dullness of the day-by-day. The great hope of our civilization is the possible romance of the day-by-day.”¹³ Man cannot live by bread alone—we need the wine of poetry along with the bread of prose. Industrial unrest is not economic but spiritual, not physical but moral. It is the revolt of man who sees life slipping away from him without his having lived, who sees wishes unfulfilled and aspirations unattained and unattainable. There are two alternatives in solution—strike at the industrial system and change it to something more satisfying to human wishes, or make life possible in its fullest extent to all men in the margin outside of work. It is to the cultivation of life in this margin that the modern recreational movement is dedicated.

¹³ E. M. Root, “Life’s Bread and Wine,” *World Tomorrow*, March, 1926.

THE NEED IN RESPECT TO CHARACTER

WE have seen in previous chapters that play groups are primary groups—intimate face-to-face contacts. In such groups, human nature is affected most profoundly. The play group is such an important factor in the development of character that a separate chapter, "Play and Character Formation," is devoted to it later in the book. In that chapter the use of play as a constructive means to desirable character will be discussed.

Play is also used as a preventive measure, that is, to keep children away from undesirable and harmful amusements. This phase of the subject we shall discuss here.

USE OF PLAY TO OFFSET THE INFLUENCE OF HARMFUL AMUSEMENTS

Life will not be denied, and, when socially acceptable living fails to bring opportunity for the satisfaction of human wishes, boys and girls will turn to vicious and anti-social ways. Vice is for the most part merely a compensation device when other forms of satisfying amusement are not forthcoming.

Probably the first argument advanced for the introduction of playgrounds was that they would help to reduce the rapidly growing amount of juvenile delinquency. In order to prove this contention, a number of studies were undertaken. As early as 1907, Allen T. Burns, a social worker, made such a survey in Chicago, and concluded: "To provide a probation district with adequate play facilities is co-incident with a reduction of delinquency of from twenty-eight per cent to seventy per cent, or forty-four per cent as an average."¹⁴ The conclusion to be drawn is that delinquency is very largely a matter of inadequate play facilities and leadership, and that this recreational need is felt proportionally as living conditions are found to be worse.

The question of juvenile delinquency has received careful study in recent years. Studies in many cities show that when playgrounds are started, juvenile delinquency tends to decrease. The opinions of city officials are one source of such information. Judge E. J. Marks asserts that owing to the opening of playgrounds in Anaheim, California, in 1924, juvenile delinquency decreased 70 per cent during the first six months in 1925 as compared to the same period in 1924. District Attorney Fox, who supervised a certain Philadelphia district for a five-year period before playgrounds were opened and a similar period after, maintains that the period of supervised recreation showed a decrease

¹⁴ A. T. Burns, "Relation of Playgrounds to Juvenile Delinquency," *Charities*, Vol. XXI, pp. 25-31.

of 50 per cent in juvenile delinquency as compared to the previous period.¹⁵

Truxal lists the following cities in which officials claim a great decrease in delinquency after playgrounds were instituted: Toronto approximately 100 per cent decrease, Knoxville 50 per cent, Visalia, California, 80 per cent, St. Louis 50 per cent, Binghamton 96 per cent, Leominster, Massachusetts, 53 per cent.¹⁶ The National Recreation Association cites numerous other instances showing a decrease of delinquency with the installation of recreational facilities.

Map studies from various cities presented by Truxal show less delinquency in the neighborhood of playgrounds than in other sections of the city; case studies furnish a similar indication of the effect of recreation on delinquency.¹⁷ The effect of recreation on delinquency cannot be accurately determined until many more scientific studies have been made. If the above-mentioned opinions and findings are to be accepted as accurate estimates, it cannot be assumed that the operating of playgrounds alone was responsible for the decrease in delinquency; a careful study might reveal many other causes in each city. However, the studies to date seem to indicate that recreation does have a desirable effect on lessening anti-social activity. 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 remarked.

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.

¹⁵ From L. H. Weir (editor), *Parks, A Manual of Municipal and County Parks*, p. 11. New York: A. S. Barnes & Company, 1928.

¹⁶ A. G. Truxal, *Outdoor Recreation and Its Effectiveness*, p. 119 ff. New York: Columbia University Press.

¹⁷ A. G. Truxal, *Outdoor Recreation and Its Effectiveness*, p. 124 ff. New York: Columbia University Press.

He becomes a happy child, developing in a normal way and having an optimistic outlook on life. This atmosphere spreads to the homes and helps to create a similar congeniality there.

Among adults who must endure the monotony of industry, excesses and debauches are frequently resorted to when satisfying recreation cannot be found in the narrow margin of life outside of working hours. Alcoholism and drugs are frequently the quickest and sometimes the only seemingly adequate method of escape. As a laborer in the stockyards district of Chicago said when asked why he got drunk: "It's the quickest way out of packing town." War was declared by the United States in 1917, and was welcomed with wild enthusiasm. After years of the monotony of routine existence and the grind for money and progress, war brought a deep plunge into the primitive, a release from inhibitions, a moral holiday. Glamour and color came back to fill drab days with high adventure. When everyday living is unsatisfying to wishes and urges, even war is welcome.¹⁸

Escape of some sort from the humdrum of the day-by-day is absolutely necessary, however fascinating one's work may be and, considering the nature of their tasks, it is tremendously important for laboring men and women. The prevention of the harmful types of escape through compelling and fascinating activity of the constructive sort is, therefore, conspicuous among the objectives of the recreation movement. Escape may be found through experiences vicariously enjoyed in the movies, but it is infinitely better to find it in the enjoying of the activity itself.

The advent of leisure time, along with the strain resulting from laboring conditions, has brought with it 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. It must be recognized that at the present time 90 per cent of the people need guidance of some sort for their leisure time. This brings us to the important present-day problem of education for leisure.

THE NEED FOR EDUCATION FOR LEISURE

THE working day has been shortened from ten hours to eight hours to six hours, the working week shortened from six days to five and one-half days and then to five days. The six-hour day and the

¹⁸ See G. T. W. Patrick, *Psychology of Relaxation*, Chapter 6. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916.

five-day week in themselves mean leisure time to an extent we would never have believed possible a few years ago. But, if our greatest social thinkers are to be believed, the end has not yet been reached. They are holding forth the prospect of still more spare time for the future and are maintaining that this will be necessary if the available work is to be evenly divided among the available workers. Some scientists even go so far as to forecast a two-hour working day.

Man, throughout history, has always prized leisure and has longed for it. Whenever he has tried to conceive of an ideal state of existence he has always dreamed of many free hours when he could follow the dictates of his pleasure. In Plato's *Republic*, in Sir Thomas More's *Utopia*, in George Bernard Shaw's *Back to Methuselah*, in H. G. Wells' *A Modern Utopia*, the happy and contented citizens are pictured as having many hours free from work and compulsion. In consistency it would seem that mankind, with leisure provided in such plenitude as never before, had at last found Utopia. But perversely, now that man has this leisure, he is not sure that he wants it—at least not in such abundance. The sad truth in the present situation is that people do not know what to do with their free time now that they have obtained it.

This is not the first time that people have had leisure at their disposal. The ancient Greeks had this possession. It was, however, the leisure of a privileged class and was made possible by the work of a downtrodden body of slaves. Rome also had leisure for a select group of citizens at the expense of slaves and of spoils from its many provinces. To-day, however, this problem is magnified in all its aspects for machinery has replaced the slavery of previous ages and has placed free time at the disposal of *all* men instead of a privileged few. This, while democratic, makes the problem a stupendous one.

In general there are two ways to use leisure. The one is the way of Greece in its Golden Age. Freedom from want and liberty of time were used to produce a great culture of art, literature, and philosophy that remains as a heritage to all time. Some writers of to-day—but they are few—predict that America will use its newly-born leisure in the same way to raise the level of refinement, happiness, and culture of its people. Most writers however are not so optimistic and rather see a menace confronting us. To them, America is headed in the opposite direction—namely, the way of Rome in its decline. To Rome, in its glorious days, leisure was used to conquer, to govern, and to civilize. In its dying days, however, leisure meant idleness, meant doles, meant free entertainments, meant license and orgies and corruption.

Such a prospect is to say the least a pessimistic one. It is nevertheless a possibility as the titles of current articles and books on the subject would indicate.

It is not difficult to see why the men and women and even children of to-day are bewildered by the leisure which has been thrust upon them so unexpectedly. To the worker of the old ten-hour day and six-day week, recreation simply meant rest for a tired body and weary spirit. When, later, he found himself with two extra hours a day upon his hands and an extra half day to boot, he found the answer in new devices which were fostered to entertain him—movies, automobiles, radios, professional sports, and others with which we are all familiar. He had no resources within himself for the art of self-entertainment and for a while had need of none, for many commercial recreations were beckoning him, and with prosperous times he had the means to pay for them. But now, when he has still another two extra hours per day and another extra half day enforced upon him without any choice in the matter, the problem no longer is simple. He has reached the end of his resources in regard to paying for recreation, and has found also that there is a limit to the satisfaction offered by strictly passive amusement. He wishes to *do* for himself—to achieve in reality and not solely through the imaginative medium of watching or listening to others.

People unequipped for leisure often tend either to get into trouble or stagnate. The papers on Monday morning contain a long list of crimes and vicious action over the week-end. In times of much unemployment we see men stagnating on every park bench. Both situations are socially undesirable. The typical recreation leader thinks in terms of occupying this leisure with directed play activity, which is of course much more desirable than allowing men to live empty lives or engage in vicious pursuits, but it would be much more desirable if they could be trained so that they could find their own amusement. Men are skill-hungry individuals, and it is much better to educate them in skills so that they can become self-active in leisure hours than to attempt to amuse them in the leisure hours of later life.

In seeking a solution we immediately assume that there is promise in leisure—that leisure offers a hope and not a threat. In taking this stand there is no attempt to try to prophesy. We do not know which way leisure is going to take us—whether to new heights of happiness and attainment or to the road that spells ruin for ourselves and our civilization. We cannot predict what society will do, but we do know that society has the power within itself to determine what the course

shall be. The answer lies in the years ahead but the responsibility lies in the course that society chooses to take to-day.

The course that is open is education—education for leisure. Communities must add to their schools a fourth R—namely, Recreation.

We cannot escape being pessimistic about the possibilities of the uses of leisure by the present generation of older people. That is not their fault, however. With leisure thrust upon them so suddenly and so generously, it is only to be expected that they would not know how best to use their spare time. Nor does the generation just growing into manhood and womanhood, for the reason that the schools have also failed to prepare them. But, for the youngsters still with many years of schooling ahead of them, there will be no excuse for permitting them to face life similarly unequipped to use their free hours happily and profitably.

Despite this unpreparedness, the period of pessimism in leisure need not necessarily be prolonged. It is possible for adults to acquire an interest in physical, educational, and cultural hobbies, although it must be admitted that with age there is more inertia to overcome, and things which in childhood would have been undertaken gladly and with enthusiasm have to be persisted in by sheer force of will until a certain degree of proficiency is gained. Nevertheless they are possible to the adult and for this reason it has become a vital necessity that adult education for leisure hours be provided.

The greatest hope, however, lies in the education of children. Just where does the school stand in regard to education for leisure? Before the present century it ignored it. Then, largely at the students' insistence, it recognized such extra-curricular activities as athletics, orchestras, dramatic and debating clubs. At first the main emphasis was centered on keeping the children busy for the moment according to the interests that appealed at the particular time. But this in itself was not enough. Many a football and baseball player graduated from school and, after the zest of competition was over, rather envied a less athletic individual who knew how to play tennis, who enjoyed hiking, or who could dive and swim. In similar fashion, the boy who tooted loudly on the bass horn in the school band wished afterwards that he had also learned to strum a ukelele or to sing. In short, the team or group activities, valuable as they were for the immediate period, provided no opportunity for participation after school days were over.

The schools have now come to realize this shortcoming, and recent years have witnessed an additional emphasis in the school recreational program. To-day, the student finds encouragement and opportunity to

swim, to play tennis, volleyball, golf, handball, and other games that he can use in middle age as well as in youth. Reading and literature as attributes to a rich recreational life are being stressed with particular emphasis on the enjoyment and appreciation that come from being taken into the inner dwelling of the world's greatest minds, rather than from the standpoint of the mechanical details of grammar and punctuation. Dramatics, music, and art also have untold possibilities of recreational value and are therefore being taught from that angle. And so we go on through the handicrafts which will form foundations for hobbies to many who are skilled with their hands; to end up with the student clubs, which will be a training for those who enjoy the arts of sociability and conversation. All these activities are being emphasized not only from the standpoint of the individual's own personal development but also from the standpoint of normal, congenial, social relationships. In general, the school is tending to place less emphasis upon defunct subject matter and more upon life craft.

With the inclusion of recreation into the school curriculum, education indeed becomes a life-long process. There is no reason why education should cease with formal schooling. It should, to the contrary, persist informally and unceasingly as long as hobbies can give new meaning to the physical, intellectual, aesthetic, inventive, and social arts. Fortunate, therefore, is the individual well endowed with the tools of recreational living for he has an investment that will bring him compound interest in the years ahead. This holds true regardless of whatever trade, occupation, or profession he may enter.

The recreational-educational organizations for youth are making a distinct contribution to the education for leisure. Their many varied activities develop interests which will mean enduring hobbies and which will lead to a richer and fuller life.

The summer camp looks upon its function in education largely as a preparation for leisure. Its skills are not those for the earning of a living but for the enjoyment of life. Those who learn to love nature and find enjoyment in the woods, and those who know woodcraft and canoeing have a world open to them throughout life that others do not have. So also with respect to horseback riding, sailboating, dancing, handicraft, arts and crafts, and countless other activities which camps embody in their programs. The romantic, picturesque, colorful approach to recreation which characterizes camps of the better sort is a particularly salient contribution to training for leisure. When one takes a long view of life, it is probably true that the most enduring

form of play is that which grows out of the imagination. Anything which develops the scope of the imagination is preparation for leisure hours. To the extent that the summer camp capitalizes upon its opportunities and conducts a varied challenging program rich with compelling and imaginative activities, it is making an educational contribution of first magnitude.

By way of summary, the programs for education for leisure should proceed along three lines; *first*, the providing of facilities and full opportunities to those now in need of wholesome recreation; *second*, the refinement of recreational interests already formed through such media as adult education and improved standards for the theatre, sports, reading, radio, etc.; *third*, a conscious, constructive attitude toward recreation, so that the children now growing up may be interested in and provided with the types of recreation that will be useful and beneficial throughout life.

THE ECONOMIC VALUE OF PLAY

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.

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 valua-

tion 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. Short play recesses during the working day increase the efficiency of the workers in the actual time they are working. Inasmuch as play conduces to health, it is also advantageous from the standpoint of reducing the worker's days of sickness. Then, again, workers who are well contented do not become transients, and herein is one of the biggest savings to the corporation and possibly the biggest reason why it favors broad recreational programs. 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. For these reasons industries, seeking cities in which to locate, invariably ask what recreational facilities the municipality is able to offer.

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.

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 volleyball, 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. Although these chores develop strong muscles and make the child apparently a healthy being, yet the type of chores is often such that it makes him stoop-shouldered, and only too often ungraceful and clumsy. 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 weakness is evidenced too in the inability of the country boy to cope with his city brother in passing the playground achievement 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 that he is as badly off as the city urchin 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 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.

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 newcomers 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 IX

THE PHYSICAL BENEFITS OF PLAY

JOYOUS abounding health is the physical condition that men have always desired and for which they have prayed. Such a condition implies completeness and soundness of body, which means the absence of disease and infection, and the normal functioning of every organ, and power.

William James is the source of the delightful phrase, "Simply to live and breathe should be a delight." With abounding health the chances are that life will not only be a constant joy and worth the living, but will appear to us to be successful. The individual with an abundance of vigorous health has a decided advantage in everyday life. With organic power there is resistance for disease, abundant energy for the strenuous life, and reserve force to meet the emergencies when they arise. No person may hope to escape being called upon at times to go beyond the limits of endurance. The army physicians and nurses, who in the midst of war time found themselves confronted with a deadly epidemic of influenza, serve as an example, for the extra burden was one that only those with reserve power could carry.

Health implies more than mere absence from disease. It includes the vigor to fight the battles of life enthusiastically. Aristotle conceived of a healthy man as one who was free from every illness while also engaging in the activities of daily life. To seek to remain healthy by denying oneself human contacts was, to Aristotle, an untenable position. He compares it to the man who stores money and keeps it out of circulation; the man who cultivates physical development without using his body in every kind of activity in daily life amasses a capital of vitality without using it for complete living.¹ The modern point of view regarding health could scarcely be put better than in these statements of Aristotle's written so many years ago.

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 upon the health of the

¹ Aristotle, *Rhetoric*, 1, 5, as quoted by J. E. Chryssafis, "Aristotle on Health Education," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*. January, 1930.

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 school increasing the time for physical training, introducing new types of activities, examining the pupils to discover defects that might lead to serious results later, prescribing remedial measures in cases where improvement is possible, and educating the entire student body in the principles of healthful living. All communities have their public health departments to-day which are on the watch for epidemics, which are on the alert to isolate any case of contagious disease as soon as it is discovered, and to locate and stamp out the source of the trouble. 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.

Human life must be conserved at all costs. This point is fundamental in the philosophy of social welfare. That the efforts of the health movement to conserve it have borne fruitful and far-reaching results can be proven with a wealth of statistics. In the eighteenth century the expectation of life in England and America was between thirty-five and forty years. In some communities (Philadelphia and Northampton, England) it was under thirty years. Owing to the battle against disease and the health education movement, the expectation of life in the United States increased until in 1901 it stood at forty-eight years and in 1925, fifty-eight years.² The five diseases which were the great life destroyers in the past century are practically under control to-day: from 1880 to 1925 the death rate per 100,000 from tuberculosis had decreased from 282 to 41, from diphtheria from 124 to 5, from typhoid fever from 47 to 5, from scarlet fever from 40 to 2, from infant diarrhea from 105 to 19. Of the entire group of communicable diseases only pneumonia and influenza still remain to be conquered, but there can be no doubt that they too will soon fall into control before the onward march of the health movement. To-day people are dying from heart disease, apoplexy, nephritis, and cancer. Nervous disorders are also on the increase and are causing much unhappiness. These diseases

² Statistics from C.-E. A. Winslow, "Health," *Whither Mankind* (C. A. Beard, editor), p. 188. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1928.

form the battle line of the present-day war against the destroyers of life.

The play and physical education movement with its defense of the right of childhood to play, its education of children in health, its emphasis upon activity for all, and its fascinating and compelling program which constantly beckons adults away from the sedentary life and nervous strain of work, is doing much to advance the cause of health.

OBJECTIVES OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

THE physical education movement is interested in the development of the full man and is not inappreciative of its opportunities for mental development and social education, nor is it lacking in serious efforts to accomplish these ends. However, its primary concern is big muscle activity which will lead to organic health and muscular development. The objectives are set forth in ten cardinal points in the platform of health and physical education, adopted in 1931 by the American Physical Education Association:

1. An adequate health examination and a comprehensive protection program for every school child, to include control of communicable diseases, healthful school environment, and hygienic standards in the entire curricular and extra-curricular life of the school.
2. Adequate indoor and outdoor facilities in every school and adequate time in the curriculum.
3. Coordination of community effort in policies, finances, and use of facilities for programs of health, physical education, and recreation.
4. Health and physical education instruction, based upon scientific materials progressively arranged throughout the grades and upper schools, and directed toward personal accomplishment and social ideals.
5. Establishment of procedures for the scientific classification, grading, and promotion of individuals to insure the best educative results.
6. Professionally trained and accredited supervisors and teachers for all branches of the health and physical education program, including the coaching of athletic teams.
7. Promotion of the idea of play and recreation as aspects of the finest living.
8. The accreditation of health and physical education in all schools and colleges for graduation and the acceptance of such credits from high school for college entrance.
9. The organization and administration of health and physical education in schools as a single, executive department, closely integrated and thoroughly coordinated with the general purposes of education.
10. Extension of the desirable and practical measures for the promotion of health and physical education among boys and girls in schools to all members of the community, as the broader implications of education are recognized.

Neilson and Van Hagen set the general and specific aims of physical education as follows:

The general objectives of Physical Education are:

1. The development of organic vitality.
2. The development of many specific neuro-muscular skills.
3. The development of proper ideals and attitudes toward physical activity.
4. The establishment of desirable habits of conduct.

Some of the specific objectives of Physical Education may be stated as follows:

1. Prevent handicaps and improve physical efficiency.
2. Improve the individual's posture.
3. Decrease mental strain and improve mental health.
4. Develop symmetry, control, and grace of bodily movement.
5. Develop ability to meet physical emergency.
6. Develop alertness and quick response.
7. Develop an active response to rhythm.
8. Develop courage, self-control, self-sacrifice, courtesy, kindness, loyalty, obedience, honesty, cooperation, and initiative.
9. Create in youth an intelligent and healthful interest in physical activity and give to him a fund of activity material for use in leisure time.
10. Create an interest in the physical welfare of others.
11. Promote the desire for wholesome associations and recreation.
12. Develop the proper spirit toward victory and defeat.
13. Develop good character.
14. Develop the qualities inherent in leadership.³

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 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.

³ N. P. Neilson and W. Van Hagen, *Physical Education for Elementary Schools*, p. 6. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1924.

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 recent times because the work is of the confining type and does not allow normal activity. We saw in an earlier chapter that girls entering college are from an inch and a quarter to two inches taller to-day than those of thirty years ago when sedentary habits were in vogue for womanhood, and that Japanese girls have become taller since the introduction of western sports in Japan. Rational exercise is always conducive to health and strength.

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 natural capacities and urges as they appear in growth, and building them up into complex acts, such as walking, running, jumping, throwing, and climbing, just as fast as the growth of the organism 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 was 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 the 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.

PLAY AND ORGANIC HEALTH

Big-muscle activity stimulates growth, and consequently play is an absolute essential to the growing child. There can be no question on the point that muscles are directly developed by physical activity. While the development of the muscles in general is a condition favorable to health, the development of the muscles of the trunk is of particular importance. The abdominal muscles must be well developed and in good condition for the maintenance of upright posture and for holding the internal organs in their proper place. With poorly developed abdominal muscles or with their deterioration, the organs of the pelvic region are allowed to sag, to assume unnatural positions, and are subjected to pressures, all of which interferes with normal and efficient functioning.

Physical exercise is commonly thought of as contributing primarily to the development of the muscles, but a still more significant contribution, however, is to the development and general health of the *organs* of the body. Exercise is in fact the best known means for such development.

A convincing indication in this direction is to be found in the Report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association of 1924:

1. Circulation is increased throughout the entire body, or through the part exercised. This circulatory activity increases carriage of food to the tissues, removal of wastes, distribution of the endocrine secretions, and equalization of the water and heat content of the body.
2. Big muscle activity increases the demand for oxygen, and thus causes an

increased respiratory activity, with the resulting increase in the rate of oxygenation of the blood, increased rate of elimination of the carbon dioxide, and increased oxygen supply to the tissues. This increased respiratory activity is the result of the demands made by the exercise; and deep breathing without the bodily exercise will not have the same results. During increased activity the respiratory apparatus naturally responds by frequent and deep respirations.

3. Exercise stimulates the excretory system, and increases the elimination of waste through kidneys, lungs, intestines, and skin.

4. Digestion is improved and assimilation is accelerated by exercise. Digestion is not only a chemical but a muscular process. If the musculature of the alimentary canal is flaccid, digestion is retarded and impeded. Peristaltic movements are more vigorous when the muscle tone of the alimentary canal is good. Exercise is essential in keeping the muscles in good condition. The constipation resulting from sedentary life is in large part due to inadequate muscular activity.

5. Big muscle activity stimulates growth, and for the growing child is absolutely essential.

6. The heart is strengthened by the exercise of the skeletal muscles of the body. The best known way in which some types of weak heart can be made strong is by gradual and increasing amount of physical work of the skeletal muscles. Exercise for the person with a weak heart should be arranged by skilled specialists; it should not be prescribed by any untrained person.

7. The muscles of the body are directly developed by physical activity. This is of great importance for health as regards the muscles of the trunk; the abdominal muscles must be in good condition for the maintenance of the upright posture which is necessary for the best position and functioning of the abdominal and pelvic organs; and therefore of great importance for health.

8. Rational exercise results in increased neural activity, and in neuro-muscular control, which develops skill, accuracy, endurance, agility and strength.⁴

From the above report it becomes apparent that exercise has a beneficial effect on the following sets of organs, each of which we shall discuss in turn: (1) *the heart and circulatory system*, (2) *the respiratory system*, (3) *the digestive system*, (4) *the excretory system*, and (5) *the nervous system*.

Heart and Circulatory System.—Exercise develops the muscular power of the heart at the same time that it develops the skeletal muscles. The size of the heart is related directly to the general development of the muscles of the body and is affected by physical activity just as bodily musculature is. Herxheimer found in x-raying the athletes in the 1928 Olympic games that the marathon and long distance runners had the largest hearts in proportion to the weight of the body. Oarsmen and long distance bicyclists had hearts almost as large as the marathoners. The sprinters had hearts but slightly larger than non-athletic people, and the hearts of the middle distance runners

⁴ *Health Education*, p. 50 ff. New York: Thomas D. Wood, 1924.

were midway between those of the sprinters and long distance runners. There seems to be a direct correlation, therefore, between the size of the heart and the endurance of the activity in which an individual regularly engages.⁵

Hutchinson points out that animals noted for their speed and endurance in running, such as the horse, deer, and antelope, have much larger hearts than slower animals. The thoroughbred race horse, he shows, has a larger heart than the heavier dray horse; the deer a much larger heart than a sheep or calf of the same weight. Birds which walk and scratch such as chickens have smaller hearts than those like the hawks which fly; tame ducks smaller hearts than wild ducks. The largest heart in the world in proportion to weight is that of the humming bird, whose tiny wings whirl at such a speed that one can see only a blur around his body.⁶

Not only the size of the heart but its efficiency is increased with physical exercise. The heart of a trained athlete pumps a greater volume of blood per minute with fewer strokes than the heart of a person untrained in physical activity.⁷ Furthermore, the athlete's heart empties itself more completely with each beat and consequently has a greater output per beat than that of the non-athletic person. The result is that the pulse rate of trained athletes is slower during exertion than that of non-active individuals; it also returns to normal much more quickly and is slower during periods of rest.

Exercise stimulates in general the circulatory system. When muscles are active certain chemical changes take place: the muscle fuel, glycogen, is used up and must be restored by sugar brought in the blood stream; lactic acid is created and must be removed by oxygen brought by the blood. In strenuous exertion such as running, the tissues are crying for oxygen and the heart works frantically to supply it. In stimulating the circulatory system, exercise is instrumental in causing the oxygen and nutriment to be carried to the tissues of the system, the lactic acid, carbon dioxide, and other wastes to be removed, and the endocrine secretions to be transported to organs where they are needed.

The best known way in which some types of weak hearts can be strengthened is by gradually increasing the amount of physical exer-

⁵ See E. C. Schneider, *Physiology of Muscular Activity*, p. 274. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1933. Also, A. G. Gould and J. A. Dye, *Exercise and its Physiology*, p. 284. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1932.

⁶ Wood Hutchinson, *Building Strong Bodies*, p. 63 ff. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924.

⁷ See Statistics in E. C. Schneider, *Physiology of Muscular Activity*, p. 271. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co., 1933.

cise the individual takes. The person with a weak heart of such a type that it can be strengthened in this way must increase the amount of exercise slowly, however, and should be under the constant supervision of a skilled specialist. Strenuous and long continued effort when the heart is not strong enough for it may have serious consequences. This is why exercise of the strenuous and grilling type must be carefully regulated during adolescence, a period of life when the heart does not develop as rapidly as skeletal and muscular growth in general. Following sickness it is also exceedingly important that the amount of exercise be increased gradually.

Respiratory System.—Exercise increases the demand for oxygen and thus causes an increased respiratory activity. Increased breathing means an increase in the oxygenation of the blood and in the elimination of carbon dioxide.

The person well conditioned by frequent exercise is able to expand his chest more, and to breathe more deeply than the sedentary person. He also breathes more slowly. His entire lung area is accessible to air whereas in untrained people large parts of the lungs may be inaccessible to inhaled air. The trained person thus has a greater capacity for delivering oxygen to the tissues. He breathes less air and absorbs a greater proportion of oxygen from that which he does breathe. This is true of the trained person both while he is exercising and resting.

The increased rapidity and depth of breathing during exercise is the result of the condition of the organism created by the exercise, the respiratory mechanism responding with deep respirations to meet the demands. Deep breathing while not exercising will not produce the same results as natural breathing during exercise.

It is in the period of youth that exercise makes its greatest contribution to the development of the respiratory system. The chest is enlarged by constant exercise during youth but exercise does not increase it much thereafter. Exercise in adulthood, however, does keep the breathing mechanism in good condition and increases ventilation. A large, well-developed chest often leads to the supposition that the respiratory system is efficient, but this is not necessarily the case. A person with a well developed chest may have very poor pulmonary ventilation, whereas excellent breathing may be found in poorly developed chests. Proper exercise, regularly taken, is the best known means for the development of the respiratory system.

Digestive System.—Exercise materially aids the normal functioning of the digestive system through increased circulation of blood in the

alimentary canal and the massage of the area which takes place through the play of the abdominal muscles. Digestion is a mechanical as well as a chemical process. Food is moved along the intestines by a series of contractions and relaxations. Exercise facilitates this peristaltic action at the time the exercise is taken and is of permanent benefit in developing strong healthy muscles in the abdominal region. Good muscular tone is essential to vigorous and efficient peristalsis. In general, exercise aids the mechanical factors of digestion.

Excretory System.—Efficient elimination is a factor of primary importance in the attainment of abounding health and the capacity for continuous and efficient work. Lack of energy and ambition, a general sluggishness, headaches, and muscular aches may result from poor elimination from the intestines, kidneys, and lungs. Regular vigorous exercise is beneficial to intestinal elimination through working the muscles of the abdomen and increasing the circulation of blood in the intestines. Constipation, so common among sedentary people, is often the result of insufficient muscular activity.

The functioning of the kidneys is temporarily stopped the moment a person begins strenuous exercise, and they secrete very little during the period of extreme activity owing to the fact that the surplus water in the body is needed for perspiration. After exercise perfectly normal and healthy kidneys frequently throw off albumen and an excessive amount of acid. This condition is not to be considered alarming but rather as the normal reaction after strenuous play. In common with all internal organs the kidneys are toned up and invigorated by regular exercise. The sedentary life which leads to overweight and flabby muscles places an added burden on the kidneys. As stated above, weak abdominal muscles allow the internal organs to sag, which is a condition tending to handicap the normal functioning of the kidneys.

Nervous System.—The general health of the body resulting from the active life reacts favorably upon the central nervous system. Exercise causes increased neural activity. Furthermore, during play the central nervous system is given a rest from the strain of constant attention to details necessitated by work-a-day life. The relaxation during play is a favorable condition to a healthy mental attitude and reacts favorably on general physical health. Play also leads to neuromuscular control and directly influences the development of endurance, skill, speed, and strength, all of which we shall discuss presently.

Conclusion.—Regardless of age or sex, moderate and regular physical exercise is decidedly beneficial and necessary to the joyous abound-

ing health which every normal person so much desires. It benefits directly or indirectly all organs of the body, tones up the organism in general, and makes possible strenuous and efficient effort in the pursuit of one's life aims. The sedentary life diminishes vitality and resistance, and carries with it many perils. Care should be taken, however, in selecting the proper exercise. Individual differences in the capacity for exercise vary tremendously, and the normal beneficial results of exercise may be destroyed by activity which is too strenuous or not suitable for the individual. Older people often make the mistake of endeavoring to continue the sports of their younger days or of attempting to compete against youth in vigorous sports. Lack of exercise in youth is most undesirable and makes normal growth impossible, but happily nature has endowed the child with a need to do which will not be denied unless the child is pampered too much by adults. Outdoor exercise in contact with the sun and fresh air is much to be preferred to indoor from the standpoint of general health.

PLAY AND RELAXATION

It is a fact that the average person does not know how to relax, and there should be definite education in this art just as much so as in the development of bodily coordinations through activity.

The physical education profession has more responsibility in regard to teaching the fundamentals of relaxation than it has yet attempted to undertake. Rest and relaxation are the counterparts of activity and should be practiced to balance the demands that activity has made upon the muscular and nervous systems.

The first responsibility of the physical educator is to supply the large muscle activity so necessary to the normal growth and development of children. To this premise all will agree; and, moreover, all will agree that present-day leaders in physical education and play organizations are already segregating those individuals to whom a rest program is more necessary than is participation in exercise taxing strength and endurance.

It is true, furthermore, that there are alternating periods of effort and rest in play and that there is rhythm in exercise itself which is restful. It is also true that play activities relieve mental strain by change of occupation and attention. The various gymnastic systems have given considerable thought to this matter from the physiological aspect but as yet have not given sufficient consideration to individual differences or to the mental hygiene aspects of physical education.

Relaxation, however, means more than rest periods for cessation

of activity, more than momentary pauses in prescribed exercises, more than the common "at ease" after standing at attention. It means more than a special program outlined for a "special case" child in a corrective or preventive class for underprivileged children. All this routine is teacher-ordained, and the individual obtains no knowledge of the necessity for rest or ability to apply principles of relaxation to himself when not under supervision. There is no kinesthetic self-consciousness to accompany the present practices.

A knowledge of relaxation should be possessed by normal individuals as well as by special health cases. More than immediate relief from fatiguing effort is needed. The knowledge of how to relieve bodily and nervous tension at any time should be inculcated.

A study of the mounting increase of nervous diseases will reveal at the same time the inability to relax. The first step in the rehabilitation of nervous breakdown cases and insomnia is the learning of bodily relaxation, only possible in practically all cases by *unlearning* the present methods of trying to accomplish this result.

A knowledge of many leisure-time activities, while helpful, does not necessarily mean that the individual will be able to relax—he needs special education along this line. Unfortunately, the physical educator of to-day is not prepared to instruct the adult of to-morrow how to overcome unnecessary tension, when to be quiescent, how to recover quickest from muscular fatigue, or, in particular, how best to overcome chronic nervous fatigue and the pessimism which invariably accompanies it. His preparation does not warrant such presumption. The need now is for research and investigation in this neglected field. Then the teacher-training institutions will be able to prepare the newer generation of teachers and play leaders with the knowledge that is needed before any such instruction is attempted. When this time arrives, an understanding of relaxation and its applications will be a part of each individual's equipment in health habits and health knowledge. His education for leisure will then comprise not only a knowledge of active leisure-time skills and interests but also an understanding of purposeful relaxation and how to bring it about. This equipment will mean a happier and more effective life.⁸

HEALTH EDUCATION

IN the early days of physical education there was all too much emphasis upon exercise as a means to health as compared to health

⁸ For detailed discussion of the subject of relaxation see E. Jacobson, *Progressive Relaxation*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

education. Unless fortified by knowledge of the principles of health development and conservation, the benefits of a carefully guided scheme of exercise may be easily ruined.

We saw earlier in the chapter that the child born to-day has a greater expectation of life than the child born fifty years ago. The death rate is strikingly lower than in the past and continues to decrease. Communicable diseases are largely under control but still cause one fourth of the deaths in the United States. Communicable diseases are preventable through the cooperation of an educated and informed public. Many other leading causes of death are the results of the violation of the laws of health, and it is reasonable to assume that much of this is due to ignorance. With an adequate comprehensive scheme of health education reaching all of the children and youths in the schools, the child of to-morrow may expect a longer life than the child of to-day.

Young people with an extended training in healthful living, thoroughly familiar with the importance of the means to health, will seek to safeguard in every possible way not only their own health but that of their children. The results of such education will not only be felt in their own lives but in succeeding generations.

"Sound health" is the first point of the seven cardinal principles of education adopted by the National Education Association in 1918. The importance given the health factor in this platform gave a decided impetus to the health education movement which has occupied such an important place in educational thinking during the past ten years.

The objectives of health education in the school go far beyond the immediate health needs of the pupils and their remedy, even beyond the changing of environmental factors in the pupils' out-of-school life which may be contributing causes to the undesirable conditions. The objectives include the constant and strenuous effort to implant knowledge and develop proper habits and attitudes in respect to the following:⁹

1. *Personal habits of living*, including exercise, rest and relaxation, eating, dressing, emotional and social behavior, and safety.
2. *Knowledge of the elementary facts of first aid and the care of the sick.*
3. *Knowledge of the principles of health in relation to the community*, including sanitation, food supplies, housing, effects of poverty, unhygienic working conditions in industry, communicable disease, needs of different age and sex groups, public health and medical service.
4. *The desire for personal health*, including dissatisfaction with mere absence of disease, low vitality, poor posture, abnormal weight.

⁹ Cf. *Health Education*. New York: Thomas D. Wood, 1924.

5. *Consideration for the health of others*, including caution in spreading communicable disease, and a willingness to forego personal pleasure for the good of all.

In the early days of health education the emphasis was upon learning the facts of physiology with little discussion of their application. Later the approach shifted to more of an emphasis upon hygienic laws, but the material was still handled largely in academic discussion. The third stage in the evolution, reaching its height between 1920 and 1930, placed the emphasis upon the formation of health habits. A fourth stage is now becoming apparent, with the objective not only the formation of health habits but of attitudes toward health, the goal being an individual who is capable of self-direction, who knows the facts concerning the probable consequences of the various kinds of conduct and who has the desire to safeguard the health of himself and others.

It should not be assumed that the physical educator must carry the entire burden of health education. It is true that he is primarily interested in health and physical fitness but the task is so large and involves so many lines of attack that he would be helpless in coping with it alone. Health education involves the entire machinery of the school system. Every teacher in the school, regardless of type of subject matter he teaches, has the opportunity to teach health facts. The history teacher finds such an opportunity in showing, for example, the effects of ignorance of certain laws of health and sanitation upon the people of the period he is studying, the English teacher in referring to the effects of conduct upon health in the stories being read, the civics teacher in discussing the responsibility of the state in controlling disease. So with all the other teachers.

A special course which has health instruction as its primary object is needed, but alone will not accomplish the desired end. Many high schools have such courses on an elective basis to-day, but are chosen by only a small percentage of the pupils. Health instruction should reach all the pupils in the school. Even if all pupils did take such a course, the fact would still remain that every teacher should carry some responsibility for health instruction.

This does not mean that the physical educator is excused from active and aggressive leadership in health education, or that he should not give more attention to it than in the past. The very position he holds in the esteem of the pupils places him in a position to do very effective work along this line.

In addition to the physical educator, there are other agents in the well-planned school system making specific contributions greater than

that of the average teacher: the school physician, nurse, psychologist, teacher of social science, teacher of natural sciences, teacher of home economics, visiting teacher, and school health officer.

In approaching the problem of health education on the high school level, the intellectual maturity of the pupils must be considered. When the elementary pupil asks "Why?" he is frequently entirely satisfied with the answer "Because." As the child grows older, however, he increasingly wants to know the reason for things, and with the attainment of intellectual maturity in high school he is not interested in following a recommended line of conduct, unless he sees an adequate reason for it. The object of education is to produce an individual capable of intelligent self-direction. An act is desirable or undesirable, right or wrong, depending upon what the *consequences* of it are, a point which will be discussed more fully in the chapter on "Play and Character Formation." In health education, care should be taken to present the facts objectively, showing what the funded experience of the race and the latest scientific research show to be the probable consequences upon health of certain types of conduct. Having done this, habit formation should then be left to the initiative of the pupils.

The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection in 1930, through its Committee on the School Child, made the following recommendations concerning health education in secondary schools:

1. All subjects in the secondary curriculum should contribute to health instruction. In addition a special course available to all pupils should be offered.
2. There should be general participation in athletics under proper supervision, in order to avoid exploitation of a few and to give the benefits to all.
3. Pupils should be safeguarded against overindulgence in extracurricular activities.
4. School administrators and school physicians should cooperate in planning school schedules.
5. School health committees should be formed and special persons named in the larger schools to coordinate health instruction and health service.
6. Programs of individual pupils should be planned with regard to the twenty-four hour day of the pupil, taking into account home study, work for pay, extracurricular activities, extra lessons. Programs should be planned with regard to physique, intelligence, and future plans of the student rather than with regard only to requirements for college entrance.
7. School strain should be reduced to a minimum.
8. Obligation for correction of defects should be left definitely to the home, the school medical service acting in an advisory capacity only.¹⁰

¹⁰ *The School Health Program*, Report of the Committee on the School Child, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, p. 173 ff. New York: The Century Co., 1932.

PERSONAL PREPAREDNESS

WE hear much 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. An individual is frequently able to perform the routine tasks of his day-by-day life without undue exhaustion but in an emergency or when confronted with heavier work or with long-continued effort he may not have the vitality to meet the situation efficiently. That is, his *crest load* is not sufficient. The crest load, according to Schneider, refers to the greatest amount of effort a person can perform during which his respiratory and circulatory systems, working at the maximum, will supply the oxygen sufficient to meet the demands of the body. It is an overload when the intake of oxygen is not sufficient.¹¹ The crest load is increased by regular exercise and decreased by lack of exercise.

Personal preparedness in meeting the exigencies and contingencies of life calls for physical ability along the lines of *strength, speed, skill,* and *endurance*. These were the qualities 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 addition 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. When one's crest load is high it is reasonable to assume that he will perform his daily tasks with great zest and enthusiasm, and will suffer less fatigue from them. Consequently, he has more energy available for the enjoyment of life. A man may not need strength to perform his office duties but he does need it in an emergency such as in an automobile accident when he must lift the car to free an injured person; with greater strength he might have the capacity and the desire to do certain tasks about his home which otherwise he gets done by spending money to hire men who have the strength. He needs strength in his recreation, and with it he is apt to participate in a type of recreation which is conducive

¹¹ E. C. Schneider, *Physiology of Muscular Activity*, p. 75. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1933.

to health. He needs strength for vacations and for trips; with it he is able to enjoy types of vacations he otherwise might avoid or, taking them, fail to enjoy.

The same is true of endurance: with it, he completes his routine work with energy to spare, is able to continue when emergencies demand, and has a type of recreation available that otherwise would not be possible. Speed and skill in general motor development may not be needed in the type of work-a-day life engaged in by most people, but they are certainly essential to safety in a world of machines, and their presence brings joy in play life.

If we live for work-a-day existence only, we may get along without a great degree of strength, endurance, skill, and speed, but if we seek to live and enjoy life to the fullest these are qualities much to be desired. New spheres of activity in sport, travel, and outdoor life are open to us with them. And when one considers the contribution of these elements to the growth of the child, who would seek to destroy the child's ambition to become strong, speedy, skillful, and able to endure long-continued effort?

STRENGTH

Strength means muscular force. This force is dependent on three factors: the size of the muscles, their readiness to act in response to stimuli, 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 or exercise 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.

The size of the muscle is directly affected by regular and strenuous work. The muscle not only becomes larger but the fibers tougher. Activity destroys certain constituents of the muscle, but, to use Schneider's phrase "when nature replaces the lost materials, she overcompensates."¹² One of the most interesting facts brought to light by

¹² E. C. Schneider, *Physiology of Muscular Activity*, p. 256. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1933.

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.

The physical ideal of the boys of a few years back was the massive frame with knots of huge bulging muscles playing beneath the skin. The professional wrestler of the period typified physical perfection and the leopard skin over the massive chest was the symbol of masculinity. So-called "physical culture" systems were devoted to producing this type. Experience in athletic sports soon proved, however, that agile and quick-thinking men could compete in certain games more efficiently than men with these massive builds, and that these overdeveloped bulging muscles were frequently a detriment. As the ideal changed the type of training was altered, and play became one of the chief means of muscular development.

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 have been fully as strong in swinging the bat, but it was Ty Cobb's speed that gave him a three-base hit when others got 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 so effective as 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 weight 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. This explains why an inexperienced football player, playing opposite an experienced man, is at such a decided disadvantage—he must give attention to detailed movements which to the experienced man are automatic and consequently cannot be as alert as his opponent in meeting the exigencies and contingencies of the game.

Scientists and famous coaches agree that the best time to teach boys to become star athletes is between the ages of twelve and eighteen. 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 nor-

mally tired; whereas if he were to spend the same time in running errands, the irksomeness of the tasks would bring about a state of nervous fatigue that would make him ready to quit in a short time. The hunter and golfer forget that they are tired; but the ordinary pedestrian does not.

A man may have great strength without having great endurance; he may be able to lift a heavy 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 basketball 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, running 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, increase the appetite, and flush out the whole system rather than only a small part of it. 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 some 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, scarlet fever, or influenza; 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 months 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

	STRENGTH	SPEED	SKILL	ENDURANCE
Imitative Plays	*	*	*	*
Rhythmic Plays	*	*	**	***
Track Sports, Dashes	*	***	*	*
Hurdles	*	***	**	**
Distance Runs	*	*	*	***
Field Sports, Jumps	**	*	**	
Weights	***		**	
Stunts, Tumbling	**		**	
Heavy Apparatus	**		**	
Tests, Chinning	**			**
Throwing	**		**	
Relay Races	*	**		*
Bowling	*		**	
Croquet			*	
Golf	*		**	*
Goal Games	*	**	*	*
Tag Games	*	**	*	*

TABLE OF PHYSICAL QUALITIES DEVELOPED BY PLAYS AND GAMES—Continued

	STRENGTH	SPEED	SKILL	ENDURANCE
Personal Combats	***	**	***	***
Baseball	**	***	***	*
Lawn Tennis	*	**	***	**
Handball	*	**	**	***
Volleyball	*	*	**	**
Soccer	*	***	**	***
Speedball	*	***	***	***
Football	***	**	**	***
Field Hockey	*	**	**	**
Basketball	*	**	***	***
Badminton	*	*	**	*
Archery	*		**	
Squash	*	**	***	**
Paddle Tennis		*	**	**
Codeball	*	*	**	**

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 aesthetic side of bodily development, gave all-round 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 achievement tests 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 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. Play movements must be practiced in childhood or a graceful command of them will be lost; awkwardness in learning increases as years go by.

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 by still more work. 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 owing 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 rifle 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 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, com-

manded 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" and rhythmic activities, while posture training and corrective exercises are exceedingly popular when presented in game form.¹³ Two of our most popular games, basketball and volleyball, have been devised in recent years with a distinct view to give well-balanced exercise.

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 advocates of gymnastics say,

¹³ See M. Carver, "Motivation of Child Interest in Corrective Physical Education in Elementary Schools," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*, October, 1933. Also C. L. Lowman, C. Colestock, and H. Cooper, *Corrective Physical Education for Groups*, Part V. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1932.

that decides what movements a child at play will make; his movements are determined by organic structure which is the result of countless centuries of evolution, predisposing him to certain movements. Being alive and seeking growth this organism functions in its natural way and develops accordingly, urged on by wishes which themselves are based on the nature of the inherited structure. As the structure changes with growth it naturally seeks to function in the use of the new capacities. Who shall say that Nature's way is not wiser than that of any instructor, unless of course we want to make out of the structure something that Nature did not intend?

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 program rather than supplant it, will also furnish values of their own.

Play has this advantage: if, during the growing period, opportunity is furnished along natural lines, the child will take part of his own volition, 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 to be brought to his attention at this time. He does not have 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 gymnasium. The physical benefits of play and exercise are unquestionable; the problem is simply to provide natural means for children to satisfy their play motives and to inspire grown folk to seek health and to supply for themselves the exercise that is denied through lack of time and space, or through unwholesome employment.

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CHAPTER X

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. Such statements as "The Body the Servant of the Mind" and "The Body the Temple of the Mind" are familiar in everyday usage.

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. To-day'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 inter-related and indispensable to each other in a normal existence.

INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT OF PHYSICAL AND MENTAL ABILITIES

MENTAL growth goes hand in hand with bodily growth. 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 mentality. After maturity, play is still needed, not so much to educate as to recreate.

The human organism must be regarded as a unit, and anything that contributes to its physical well-being tends to enhance its psychological well-being. This view is quite universally supported in the field

of psychology and education to-day. One of the chief means of mental health is an abundance of vigorous play. Play aids bodily health, and bodily health is a contributing factor to mental health, as we have already noted.

Educators have made a study of the relationship between mental and physical growth, and have found that on the whole children retarded in their physical development are backward mentally; or, vice versa, that large and healthy children are precocious in their school work. 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.¹ Courtis, after an extensive study of the Detroit schools remarks: "On the average children progress in school in proportion to their physical development. Those who are well developed physically are promoted more rapidly than those who are physically handicapped."² Hollingworth shows that intellectually gifted children are not only heavier but heavier for their height than average children; they are stronger and swifter and puberty is reached at an earlier age.³ Studies of Schmidt of Germany,⁴ and Godin of Switzerland,⁵ are very emphatic in the same conclusion. Terman, in a research with one thousand gifted children in California, found that they were above average in height and weight.⁶

Latarjet of France, in a very scholarly paper read before the International Olympic Conference at Los Angeles, 1932, recites interesting experiments where subnormal children have shown surprising mental progress when their intellectual work was decreased and the time thus saved was devoted to a regimen of physical education and games. In his words "We soon noticed, in less than three months, not only an improvement in the children's physique, a curve of normal growth, but also surprising intellectual progress; improvement of attention and memory; apparent and moreover surprising improvement (but to be explained by the neuromuscular improvement) in writing

¹ L. P. Ayres, *Laggards in Our Schools*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1909.

² P. C. Packer and A. B. Moehlman, "A Preliminary Study of Standards of Growth in the Detroit Public Schools" (Introduction by S. A. Courtis), *The Detroit Educational Bulletin*, No. 5, June, 1921, p. 4.

³ L. S. Hollingworth, *Gifted Children*, p. 85 ff. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926.

⁴ F. A. Schmidt, *Physical Education and Mental Development*. Goettingen, Germany: Vandenhoeck and Ruprecht, 1920.

⁵ P. Godin, "Physical Training and Mental Training," *Mind and Body*. September, October, 1922.

⁶ L. M. Terman, *Genetic Studies of Genius*, Volume I, p. 5. University of California Press, 1925.

and drawing; and finally improvement in character, a fact which greatly astonished the parents themselves.”⁷

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 mental and physical powers is also very definite. Disorders of the body produce mental ill health; and mental hygiene, one of the newest of medical fields, is making use of physical activities in its treatments.

Play hobbies have therapeutic value in taking the attention away from subjective worries about self and focusing it instead on interesting objective pursuits. Play, in this way acts as a balance wheel to normal personality, thus contributing to a stable outlook on life and everyday problems.

The normal individual, when mentally fatigued from long concentrated study, also 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. Mental activities and bodily activities are only two aspects of the same thing—the life of the organism.

PLAY'S PART IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF NEUROMUSCULAR CONTROL

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 into full maturity without long 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. 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 must rely on learned responses for survival, and 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 the tendency to be active, which is a primary and ever-

⁷ A. Latarjet, "Physical Education, Athletics, and Mental Hygiene," *Supplement to the Proceedings of the Institute of International Relations*, p. 16. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1932.

present fact in life. 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. 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 scheme of education to-day aims to direct the play so that it gradually blends itself into work as the child's mentality grows stronger.

PLAY GIVES CONTROL OVER THE BODY

The nervous system consists in general of the two great clusters of nerve centers, the brain and the spinal cord. Through it muscular and glandular control is achieved; and through it the individual gets knowledge of the outside world and 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 much of its activity, the so-called "voluntary actions," is accompanied by awareness.

Bodily and motor control must be achieved before the higher brain centers can be freed for more abstract thinking. The more actions that can be made automatic and involuntary, the more time and energy are correspondingly left free to meet the complex problems of adult life. The human brain 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 one 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 attention concentrated on the accomplishment. Only after considerable effort are they learned. Later, however, he 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!

THE ORDER OF DEVELOPMENT

Infancy and Early Childhood.—During the first few years the *infant* practices the mechanics of the ordinary movements of life (those needed every day), 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 became automatic—performed without 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 automatic is begun. The plays of the child are 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 which 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. As these fundamental movements become habitual the child is freed from the necessity of giving conscious attention to them and is at liberty to turn to other things.

Later Childhood.—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 habitual 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 nerve center 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 automatic 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 higher brain centers are free to exercise 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 fall under the classification of games; it is also demonstrated in the new enjoyments in intellectual games like checkers and dominoes. The child's freedom from the need of giving attention to mastery of bodily movements is also evidenced in his ability to spend half his day in school studies.

The more complicated muscular movements of later childhood, while largely made automatic, are not so to the extent that the more fundamental everyday movements are. However, people to-day are agile and graceful in relation to the extent that 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.

Adolescence.—When the period of *adolescence* is reached 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 automatic 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 higher nerve centers from gross muscle activities, for the movements have no end in themselves, being made in behalf of the larger ends in the way of individual and team success in situations that approximate adult life, for athletics do contain the elements of cooperation, specialization, and competition 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 gained mental 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*.

Maturity.—When the state 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 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 involve the big muscles and related nerve centers. Patrick's recreation theory of play is based on this idea which states that the more recently acquired capacities in the history of the race, such as analysis, concentration, and abstract reasoning quickly result in fatigue, and that by returning to the older and more elemental big-muscle activities rest and relaxation can be achieved. 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 nervous system. 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 defeating some one in a game. The change is all the more valuable when it brings big muscles into use. Big muscles coordinate without much voluntary effort, 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.

The play movement thus has a distinct function to perform in educating for leisure, thereby providing familiarity with a wide variety of games which will act as balancing factors later in life. The aim of the movement should be to produce individuals who will be self-active in their leisure hours, rather than to provide entertainment for idle people.

PLAY GIVES WIDE RANGE OF EXPERIENCES

WHILE the child is exercising 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 attitudes, 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 brain 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 switch-board" 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 usually has less 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 and of curiosity 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 airplanes 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 thus widen still further 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 in that they are retained in memory and form the basic materials used in imagining and reasoning and as these capacities develop they 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 capacity of observation as regards the practical interests of life, and a clearness of perception that will serve to stimulate the workings of his highest mental powers. Play forces the child into contact with the environment and therefore into learning; through it, he becomes more objective and observant.

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." More recently, another lover of children, Luther Burbank, 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."⁸ 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 ideas 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. Through the games of youth, play leaders hope to 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 and emotional attitudes are modified to make him a normal social person.

Cooley has pointed out vividly the tremendous effect of the play group in the creation of human nature.⁹ Gangs and teams are of outstanding significance in transmitting the social heritage, which is acquired more readily in the free spirit of play. The play group is a *primary* group, and it is in the close, intimate face-to-face contacts of primary relationships that human nature is most affected. Next to the home, the play group has greater potentialities in the creation of human nature than any other type of relationship in the life of the average child.

⁸ L. Burbank, *The Training of the Human Plant*, p. 91. New York: The Century Co., 1922.

⁹ See C. H. Cooley, *Social Organization*, Chap. 3. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909.

In play the child's 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 borrowed progressive ideas 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 personalities 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 conversely, the man of business to lack in intellect and culture.

Play enriches and broadens the personality and develops an adjustive mechanism for meeting life situations. Since a large part of mental hygiene consists of helping the person to adjust himself to the realities of his life, any activity which makes that life more pleasant and wholesome is of inestimable benefit. This mentally hygienic value of play is what Curti has called its integrative value. She suggests that play aids in the total adjustment of the individual by helping him to have a more varied and imaginative approach to problems. Although she warns of the danger of phantasy, of allowing the imaginative play to satisfy without trying to bring about the desired achievement in actuality, yet she says that this is less often the case than that play is really integrative to the personality, in furnishing at least partial satisfactions to many motives which in our civilized society cannot be completely satisfied. Says she, "This view of play is consonant with Spinoza's ideal of the free man. He is the person who not only enjoys the simplest pleasures that come his way, but whose whole activity has the spirit of play, because it is harmoniously integrated in the satisfaction of the dominant ideals of the personality."¹⁰

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 creations of his imagination; 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 still more difficult adjustment, that found in the team game, in which he must not only have sure control of his body and of the

¹⁰ M. W. Curti, *Child Psychology*, p. 376. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1930.

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. 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 cause him to lose prestige with his group. 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 kaleidoscopic life of moving persons and things. The person trained 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 over confidence and the necessity of teamwork, 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 training for the competitive life, 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. 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 pro-

duces a person who 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.

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.

If left to himself in his play the child learns through trial and error, and also through imitation of the ways of others whom he admires and whose ways seem successful and satisfying. But adults are not content to depend upon these natural methods of education; they resort to direct means of inculcation to make sure that the child is equipped for life. This shaping pressure which they apply is of two types, *informal* and *formal*. Examples of the former are found in the Indian father teaching his son to make a bow and arrow or the present-day mother teaching her daughter how to cook. This is education, but it is casual, irregular, and unsystematic, and, while it met the needs in the early life of the race, such apprenticeship falls far short of an adequate preparation for the complex life of to-day. The boy would not get very far in law or medicine, for instance, by mere association with those engaged in these professions. He must begin a long way back and build a careful foundation. This calls for the formal type of education as we see it in schools.

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 equipment for life. 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 is shaped by 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 many clear and vivid impressions is prepared to visualize the 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 abstract thought. Observations such as the falling of the apple and the movement of steam in the tea kettle led to the discoveries 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. Psychology tells us that every experience records an indelible mark upon our sensitive nervous system, 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. Action and feeling should precede thought in the earlier emphasis of educa-

tion. 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. To prove most valuable and interesting, it should be gradually introduced, the type of story depending on the child's stage of development. First there are the stories of animals with fictitious personalities, Mother Goose rhymes, and fairy tales; later there are the stories of action—those of legendary heroes, of Indians, and of travel and adventure; in adolescence 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 tin soldiers and by playing adding games 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. The mentality of the child is not developed as far as that of the adult, and interest in abstract things will not come until 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 only way for the nervous system to receive impressions is through the senses. Exactly how the higher mental processes operate is not known, but it is known that they depend upon experience for their functioning.

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 person *attends* to the situation at hand, and observes it closely. Children are apt to pay attention only to things which are interesting to them and this explains why those educational-recreational programs for boys and girls which are built upon interest have been so successful as compared to that type of education which relies upon formal superimposed subject matter.

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 as his nervous system develops and as he acquires experience. 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 chimneys much too small for him, 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 interests and wants and even then lacked any voluntary power of control over them. The developed product of civilization shows a being who, although still motivated by basic wishes and emotions, uses his intellect in setting ends for himself and predicting the consequences of his action, and also relies upon his reason and abstract thinking to assist him toward intelligent goals. His aesthetic appreciations have been developed and his emotions 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 sentiments of justice, truth, religion, etc., will be personified for him and invested with living beauty.

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CHAPTER XI

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. 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 may be a positive detriment to society if associated with an unstable or dissolute character. The master criminal is an example of a brilliant individual gone astray through lack of desirable character; his abilities are used to menace society instead of to better it.

Because health and knowledge without moral stamina may produce an individual who may actually 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 they cite the example of Theodore Roosevelt 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.

The value of play in the promotion of character has long been recognized by foremost educators. In ancient times, Plato, Aristotle, 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 even more important for their moral values than for health and recreation; and this example has since been followed by the other leading schools of England. In our own country, the opinion that athletic sports are an important factor in character

development, is evidenced by the advertisements of the wealthy and exclusive private schools, which feature this part of their program.

DEFINITION OF CHARACTER

The habits and attitudes of an individual, taken together and integrated, constitute character. The term refers to a person's tendency or predisposition to react in characteristic ways toward life situations. Kilpatrick defines it as "the organized aggregate of working habits."¹ Predispositions lead to overt acts which enable us to see evidence of their existence; conduct is thus the objective phase of character.

Character, in a more restricted sense, consists primarily of habits and attitudes involving standards of right or wrong. These attitudes involving an evaluation of the moral are the individual counterparts of the *mores* which are the social customs or folkways that the group considers indispensable and of particular importance to its welfare, and which people are expected to follow. The *mores* constitute the group's moral standard. An individual determines rightness as we shall see presently, not only by reference to the group's moral standards but by a consideration of the consequences of his conduct. That type of conduct, then, which, more than other types, is considered as evidence of character is activity that involves standards of morality and rightness. While in the broad sense character is evidenced by an individual's conduct in general, in this restricted sense it is evidenced by *qualitative* conduct.

THE CONCEPT OF TRAITS

The qualities of character are frequently referred to by such words as loyalty, courage, honesty, thoughtfulness, and so forth. These are said to be traits of character. In a sense, however, loyalty is an abstraction. One cannot be loyal in general but only to specific situations. In the experience of an individual there may be hundreds of specific responses, each differing more or less from the others, all of which involve some type or degree of loyalty. So with the other traits. Man thinks in terms of words, however, and must have words to express his concepts. To speak accurately and precisely we would need to have a separate word for all of the responses involving loyalty but since that is impossible we use the word loyalty as referring to a number of specific action patterns that are characterized by having the com-

¹ From W. H. Kilpatrick, *Foundations of Method*, p. 319. New York. By permission of The Macmillan Company, Publishers, 1925.

mon element designated by the word loyalty. We are forced to put specific habits and attitudes having common elements together into bundles and carry them by a verbal handle of a trait name.² Given this meaning, we are thus justified in using the term "trait." Character traits are convenient words to represent groups of experiences having certain obvious attributes in common and which fall under one heading.

In talking to children, however, we cannot speak of honesty or sportsmanship or any other trait with any assurance that it has meaning unless we associate the terms with specific experiences which we know they have had. All too often we use such terms supposing that they have the same meaning to children that we give to them, when as a matter of fact they may have as many meanings to the class as there are individuals in it, and to some may have no meaning at all.

CRITERIA OF MORALITY

As a result of conflicting philosophies of morality in America today, the development of a methodology for character education is very difficult, and the situation exceedingly complicated. What act is right? When is an act a moral one? By what criteria is an individual to determine whether a contemplated act is right or wrong? Until some generally accepted criteria are established, character education can be nothing more than shooting in the dark, and, when conflicting criteria are prevalent as they are at the moment, the result is apt to mean added confusion in the minds of young people who are attempting to develop an adequate philosophy of life.

There are three points of view regarding morality which we need to canvass briefly: (1) *right for right's sake*, (2) *social standards*, (3) *consideration of consequences*.

RIGHT FOR RIGHT'S SAKE

To Kant "two things fill the spirit with ever new and increasing wonder and awe . . . the starry heavens above and the moral law within." The moral law within determines rightness. What is the source of this moral law? It is other-worldly, not conceived by mortal man in this mundane world, but superimposed by a divine being. Since the divine being has imposed this universal law of right upon the world, since it is absolute and beyond question by mortal man,

² Compare C. H. McCloy, "Character Education through Physical Education," *The Research Quarterly of the American Physical Education Association*, October, 1930.

man is in duty bound to follow it. He is confronted with the necessity of doing right for the sake of doing right, of seeking truth for the sake of seeking truth. This is Kant's famous *categorical imperative*: the obligation to do one's duty regardless of the results. Not only has there been laid down this absolute law with the resultant duty of man to follow it, but there has been placed within the human breast a monitor—that greatest of wonders to Kant, the human conscience—to guide man in the following of the law. Nothing in this world can account for the conviction that we must act from a sense of duty and duty alone.

Character education, according to this point of view, consists of inculcating in youth an absolute moral law. In short it consists of developing in men attitudes and sentiments in conformity with the moral code laid down by religion, so completely that they will act in accordance with them regardless of consequences. This simplifies the matter in that we know definitely what these moral laws are by referring to religious authority.³

SOCIAL STANDARDS

Whenever people live together for any length of time they develop folkways or group customs which are characteristic of their way of living. When these ways are evaluated by the group and some of them are found to be indispensable to its welfare, we have the rise of *mores*. Since the mores constitute the moral standards of the group and are considered indispensable to welfare, all societies take pains to see that all people in the society conform to them and use various devices to secure or enforce conformity.

The mores are right. That is, they are held to be right by the group. They constitute the only standard of rightness and morality the rank and file of the group knows. They are not necessarily held to be other-worldly, superimposed on the group by a divine being, but are the result of experience and are backed up by years of tradition.

Now, since society by one scheme or another enforces conformity to the mores, we have a case of *might makes right*. The individual is relatively helpless, and the group is powerful. To get on, he must conform. In time he comes to think the mores are right and helps to force others to conform. Might of this type has been and is an important factor in getting people to believe certain things to be right.

Most of character education to-day is built upon the acceptance of

³ For an excellent discussion of right for right's sake, see M. C. Otto, *Things and Ideals*, Chapter 3. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1924.

social standards as the criteria of right and moral conduct, and the inculcation of them in youth. If the youth can be so trained that he will react in socially acceptable ways, he is thought of as having good character and the task of character education has been adequately performed.

CONSIDERATION OF CONSEQUENCES

In most of the experiences of life it seems obvious that action in conformity to the social standards is the desirable and right thing to do. However, it may easily happen in certain situations that conduct in conformity to social standards may be immoral. According to the social standards, one should be obedient to those in authority over him, but in many situations obedience is senseless and even immoral. Obviously then, the social standards as a criterion of morality do not always apply to all the situations of life. The reason lies in the fact that action in accordance with the *mores* may at times have undesirable *consequences*. All acts have consequences, whether we consider them or not. In situations where the standards seem to promise undesirable results, one should act, regardless of the standards, in such a way that he will insure desirable consequences.

Let us suppose that one is confronted with a situation involving truth telling and is strongly tempted to tell a lie. Two courses are open to him—which shall he follow? At this point a moral situation arises. Morality starts with a conflict of desires. And as Otto puts it, life is a “howling mob of desires.” Choice is inevitable. The foundation of moral life lies in the ability to choose.

In deciding what to do in the truth-telling situation, the individual can submit the problem to an external authority—that is, to the religious or the social codes of morality. These codes state that it is wrong to tell a lie; consequently he tells the truth. Now it may very easily be that this course, precious as truth telling is to society, may lead him to undesirable consequences. It may cause him to be unnecessarily cruel. The doctor, for instance, who faces his patient whose chances to live are small, is met by the question, “How am I doing, doctor?” The doctor, living true to the social code of truth telling, answers, “You will probably die before the day is over.” Is this a moral act? Most people would agree that the more moral thing to do would be to tell the patient that he is doing quite well and should hope for the best. So with practically all the so-called traits of character.

When the social standards do not seem to apply, the other course open is to anticipate the probable consequences of the contemplated

acts and proceed in such a way as to insure the maximum of desirable consequences. In such a situation one must act out of consideration not only for his own desires but also for the desires of others—not to safeguard the desirable consequences from his own selfish standpoint but from the standpoint of all others with whom he is associated.

Character education consists of developing in youth habits and attitudes of living in conformity with the socially accepted standards so long as such conduct seems to insure desirable consequences to everyone concerned—and this will be the case in most of the situations of life—but when conflict arises and such conformity does not seem to promise these desirable results, youth should be trained to act in such a way as to insure them.

Nothing is more certain than that every youth must know what the accepted standards are and what society expects of him in the way of morality, and those responsible must go to endless trouble to train him in this direction. But he must be taught to regard these standards as funded human experience, as the result of many years of life during which people have found that certain acts are defeating to inner life and tend to have disastrous consequences. When so regarded, they do not become absolute standards leading to blindfold morality, but they become a vast resource helping him adequately to predict the probable results of his action.

The end in character education is to develop in the individual a *philosophy of life* free from conflicting standards. Such a philosophy seems attainable only when the approach in education is such as to help him to develop attitudes which will safeguard desirable consequences for everyone with whom he is associated and will lead to the richest possible attainment of satisfied wants for all. This is the task confronting the play leader and teacher, and play life is filled with opportunities for the accomplishment of such education.⁴

LEVELS OF CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

CHARACTER is primarily based upon emotions, in that attitudes always have an emotional connection. Man's conduct is more dependent upon feeling than upon thought. Since the more fundamental emotions require muscular activity for their expression, it follows that play, which provides for this natural expression, is a significant factor in the development of character. The worth of any activity in the promotion of moral qualities is determined chiefly by the opportunity

⁴ For a discussion of this general point of view see M. C. Otto, *Things and Ideals*, Chapter 5. New York: Henry Holt & Company, 1924.

it affords for the development of attitudes, and by the nature of the emotions it arouses.

The way in which moral training is best applied will vary according to the child's age and experience. Many writers have traced the order of character development from infancy to maturity. McDougall, for instance, in the following quotation distinguishes four steps in character building:

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.⁵

While it may be difficult to show experimentally that children pass through such definite stages, there is evident a general sequence of development as the child grows into society.

The very young child is a creature of impulse, dominated by emotions, and with little if any capacity to reason. He has no sense of right or wrong. He learns that certain acts have pleasant results while others produce pain or discomfort, and in this way his conduct becomes somewhat regulated.

As the child develops he profits by his experience with the physical environment and understands the consequences of bumps, burns, and falls, and he finds, too, that there is an additional factor in the environment—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. His actions please or displease others as well as himself. To his own immediate satisfaction or pain in the act, he learns that there is an added set of consequences—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 disapproval, and what is fully as important, though more frequently neglected, worthy acts should be suitably commended.

As the development of the self expands, the child strives independently to succeed. He goes through a process of trying himself

⁵ Wm. McDougall, *Social Psychology*, p. 186. Boston: John W. Luce and Company, 1923.

out and testing himself in a great variety of situations. In this process of finding himself and achieving the ability to live as an independent being, of developing self-confidence and initiative, proper guidance and encouragement by adults is needed.

As the years of adolescence approach, and the child's capacity to rationalize increases, the discipline of mere restraint and coerced obedience must be gradually modified. The previous "don'ts" must be explained in terms of the undesirable consequences which make the "don't" necessary. He is no longer interested in a certain type of conduct merely because parents and teachers or adult-imposed codes say it is desirable; he insists on knowing *why*, that is, what consequences result from it that make it desirable. His increasing fund of knowledge of consequences makes him increasingly able to foretell the future results of his present actions, and he seeks an increased independent control of his own conduct. If unexplained discipline is too long enforced, either the child's independent spirit will be broken or he will rebel; in which case he is forced to face life with no adequate moral training and will have to find out the consequences of acts by the dangerous trial-and-error method.

As the growing child moves out from the home and affiliates with groups of his own age still another set of consequences of conduct appear to him. To his own gratification, and to the satisfaction in adult approval, there is added now a satisfaction in the larger social approval 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." His conduct now 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. The disapproval of one's own group is a much more powerful influence than adult disapproval.

With approaching maturity the man or woman takes his conduct into his own hands. He has passed through the socializing stages of adult regulation and gang regulation, and now he becomes a self-governing *individual*. His background of social experience, his memory of the results of past actions, both immediate and remote, makes it possible for him to foretell for himself the probable results of conduct. He attempts to think in terms of total situations and total outcomes. The gang law is no longer sufficient; it may be broken and no one the wiser. He has become a law unto himself.

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 and is to safeguard the desired consequences of conduct. In short he has established for himself a philosophy of life which we shall hope is free from conflicting standards and is based on the point of view that no act is right unless it leads to desirable results in the richest possible fulfillment of satisfied wants for everyone. This is the end and aim of character education; unfortunately everyone does not reach it in its highest level. But these personal attitudes and values which are reached in later adolescence do not become a fixed and rigid standard that regulates conduct throughout life—they are constantly changing with added experience. As Dewey so aptly puts it, education is the “constant reconstruction of experience,” and education is a *lifelong* process.

GENERAL PROCESS OF CHARACTER EDUCATION

No one can live in a group for any length of time without having his character affected. Just living with people and interacting with them is bound to affect character. The habits and attitudes which, taken together and integrated, constitute character are the result largely of contact with other people. But while character is the inevitable result of interaction, we must remember that there are various kinds of character: the Chicago gangster has character as well as the preacher. The point upon which we can have no assurance is that *desirable* character is going to result from contact with people.

There are four main processes by which society alters and shapes human character, each of which we shall discuss in turn: *imitation*, *suggestion*, *instruction*, and *control*.

THE PROCESS OF IMITATION

WE have seen on several occasions in preceding chapters that man is an imitative creature. He is so constituted that he takes on from others the ways he admires. Habits and attitudes are acquired by trial and error, but they are also acquired by “borrowing” them from others. Whenever we see activity by others which we admire and which seems to be successful to them we tend to imitate. Much of imitation is unconscious, and we take on the ways of others and thus unknowingly alter our characters. Again we imitate deliberately and consciously.

Through imitation boys take on the ways of the gang. The gang is a primary group and, next to the family, is the most potent factor

in affecting character. Its ways and attitudes, good or bad, moral or immoral, social or anti-social, tend to become the ways of the individual members. Play groups are certainly more potent in determining attitudes and habits than the formal and artificial environment of the school room. The set of values which the family holds is usually very different from that which exists in the gang. The boy adopts both and acts according to one or the other depending upon which group he is in. These conflicting standards exist in his personality without his being unduly concerned or even conscious of the conflict as something undesirable until adolescent years when he attempts to develop a philosophy of life for himself. Leaders can do much to assist him in straightening out these conflicts.

Hero worship proves an especially potent force in altering character. Youths are constantly seeking models who picture for them the ideal life they hope to attain. There is no way to dodge this imitation of admired models, for it is the way society works. The play leader's way of pitching the baseball, his habit of wearing a gym shirt, his tendency to be late at appointments, his smoking, his slang expressions, his consideration for others, his cheerfulness in defeat—all are patterns which his followers tend to imitate and take away with them.

Whether the leader is aware of it or not, he is constantly a model and is affecting character. Since the leader holds a certain attitude or habit, his prestige adds authority to the attitude. The very fact that he acts in a certain way is proof sufficient that it is the thing to do. This places a distinct challenge on the shoulders of the play leader or coach. His opportunity and responsibility in respect to character are boundless. The selection of play leaders of admirable character is all-important. No one, however skillful he may be in his specialties and however gifted he may be as a leader, has a place in a play organization unless his personal character is acceptable as a model for youth.

THE PROCESS OF SUGGESTION

By suggestion "we mean the process of communicating an idea from one individual to another, when the idea is accepted more or less uncritically or without rational ground."⁶ When in contact with others, particularly in natural lifelike situations, we often take on ideas uncritically and thus develop attitudes and sentiments, or already existing attitudes are strengthened and intensified. Children are particularly susceptible to suggestion, and the remarks and comments of their play

⁶ C. A. Ellwood, *The Psychology of Human Society*, p. 347. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1925.

associates and particularly of leaders are thus implanted in their minds. Three factors determine the effectiveness of the suggestion. *First*, the *prestige* of the source of the suggestion. The respected leader holding a position of high esteem is able through suggestion to influence his followers tremendously. *Second*, the *duration* and *repetition* of the suggestion. When a positive suggestion comes over and over again from a play leader, it tends to penetrate. In the *third* place, the *volume* of the suggestion leads to effectiveness; this is of course closely related to repetition. We see an excellent example in advertising; at every turn in driving down the road or in fingering through magazines we find one particular brand of cigarettes or make of toothpaste staring us in the face. Indeed, advertising is proof sufficient of the effectiveness of suggestion, for, if it did not lead to action on the part of people, it would be discontinued.⁷

If strong, aggressive, vivacious leaders of play who occupy a position of unquestioned prestige and popularity among boys and girls suggest frequently and forcefully the desirability of certain types of action, it is certain to have some effect in shaping attitudes. For this suggestion to be effective, however, it cannot be divorced from activity and handled in academic fashion; it must come in the course of activity which presents the possibility of an immediate following of the suggestion, or if not immediately, in the very near future.

THE PROCESS OF INSTRUCTION

ADULTS are not willing to leave the characters of their children to the natural and unplanned process of imitation and suggestion. Through affection for them and fear of the consequences, they deliberately try to inculcate in them the attitudes and sentiments which they desire them to hold. Some of this is informal as when the father tries to guide his son in respect to truth telling, and some of it is formal as when schools and play leaders deliberately set up schemes for the guidance of character growth.

Nothing is more obvious than the fact that education in morality is necessary; the development of right attitudes is one of the primary goals of education, if not the most important. Children will receive training in morality from some source, and the folly of leaving the development of moral judgment to chance information cannot be exaggerated. The question is not one of whether or not the child is to be instructed in morality, but rather how the instruction is best given.

⁷ See F. E. Lumley, *Principles of Sociology*, p. 224 ff. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1928.

THE DIRECT AND INDIRECT METHODS OF MORAL INSTRUCTION

Some educators favor the plan of special classes in ethics or morality in the school curriculum, in which the various character traits are defined, discussed, and interpreted. The use of such definite classes which deal exclusively with character and morality constitute what is called *direct moral instruction*. Aside from the school, most of the organizations and agencies for youth of the character-building sort utilize this method. The Sunday school relies primarily upon discussion and preaching for the development of character. The Boy Scout program presents a series of character qualities in its law which says that a Scout is trustworthy, loyal, helpful, friendly, courteous, kind, obedient, cheerful, thrifty, brave, clean, and reverent; boys learn them and repeat them, they are discussed, and it is assumed they put them into practice.

The educators who support the use of direct moral instruction in the school hold that it affords an opportunity for thorough-going systematic presentation of moral qualities. We can be sure, we are told, that all character qualities are covered in business-like fashion.⁸

Other educators, and they are by far the most numerous in America to-day, feel that moral education can best be carried on in connection with the regular school courses and in connection with activity in general instead of in special classes in ethics. This point of view maintains that since the habits and attitudes which constitute character are attained through conduct, the most effective place for such education is in connection with situations calling for moral living. Since such situations arise in all classes in the curriculum, all teachers are confronted with the necessity of teaching morality incidentally in connection with these courses. This method is called *indirect or incidental moral instruction*.

The discussion of the qualities of character—trustworthiness, loyalty, helpfulness, and the like—has a place in social education as we shall see later, but they cannot be handled in an abstract way in dealing with children; these words take on meaning and become understandable to youth only as they are related to definite experience. One cannot teach honesty effectively except in situations calling for honesty, and those situations appear in arithmetic, shop work, history, civics, handicraft, baseball, and all the other activities of the school

⁸ For discussions supporting direct moral instruction see W. W. Charters, *The Teaching of Ideals*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929; and H. Neumann, *Education for Moral Growth*. New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1933; and H. Neumann, *Lives in the Making*. New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1932.

and club, and all of the activities of life. And so with the other traits. All of which raises the question as to whether there is any subject matter of morality which can be singled out and taught more effectively in a separate class in morality than if it were handled incidentally in connection with other class and school activities. Every teacher on the staff has constant opportunities for moral instruction and every teacher shares in the responsibility just as all teachers must assume some responsibility for health education. In the social give and take of play situations an unexcelled opportunity is offered to play leaders.

A detailed discussion of the merits of the direct and incidental approaches to moral education is beyond the limitations of this chapter. Suffice it to say that there is a place for both in play and club leadership. The incidental method, however, is of particular interest to play leaders since they are dealing primarily with activity rather than discussion.

THE LAWS OF LEARNING IN CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

The same laws of learning apply in character education as in any other phase of education. We go astray when we seek a separate or different psychological process in character building. Character education in common with all education is governed by (1) the law of readiness or interest on the part of the individual himself, (2) the law of exercise or practice, and (3) the law of effect.

According to the law of readiness the child must *want* the desirable habit or attitude. It cannot be forced upon him by adult authority, discipline, or extrinsic incentives. When he wants the right, is interested in acquiring right habits, he is in a state of readiness to learn, and acts accordingly. This leads to the second law—practice and exercise. Moral habits and attitudes are acquired through practice—precise practice. The boy on the football field learns sportsmanship only through wanting to be sportsmanlike and practicing sportsmanship, practicing it because he wants it. He may be sportsmanlike because the rules insist and referees are there to enforce it; if this is the case, he probably is not learning to be sportsmanlike but rather to be discreet—it seems to be the wise and sensible thing to do in the immediate situation. The coach and the teacher train sportsmanship and honesty by helping the child to *want* these qualities and, wanting them, to practice them. That child is honest or sportsmanlike who of his own accord chooses the path of honesty or sportsmanship because he is that kind of an individual.

It is only through practice that moral lessons are learned, just as

it is only through practice that one learns to swim or play golf. Information helps, but it is in doing the act that learning takes place. Neumann puts it as follows:

The most important moral agency, when it is rightly inspired, is found in the actual performances of the pupils themselves. It is one thing to hear right conduct praised or see it exemplified; it is quite another, and more necessary, thing for the boys and girls themselves to do the acts. Character is essentially a matter of action, the habitual performance of certain kinds of deeds rather than others, and the only genuine way of learning how to do these deeds is to do them, just as the only way to learn tennis is to play it. Nobody really understands what "responsibility" means until he has been entrusted with a task that has succeeded or has failed because of him. So with respect to "service," "generosity," and all the other possible terms of the moral vocabulary; any genuine comprehension of them, as Aristotle pointed out, first requires practice in the deeds themselves.

The better schooling of our times has seized upon the fact, not only that this practice must come first in the order of learning, but that pupils take to activity so much more readily than they do to the relatively passive business of listening or reading. They are eager to engage in athletics, to run a school paper, to dance, to act plays, to build, to do dozens of things impossible for those who merely sit at a desk, study, and recite. One of the richest veins of education has been tapped in recent years by turning these energies to account.⁹

This leads us to the third law: not only must the child practice the right but he must practice *with satisfaction*. "What the children think and feel as they act is probably the largest factor in determining what traits shall go into their character."¹⁰ Whether any act becomes a habit and thus a part of character or whether it grows into an aversion depends upon the child himself, that is, whether it brings him satisfaction or annoyance. To a certain extent, the learning of moral habits is thus beyond the control of play leaders and teachers, but they can provide the practice and help to bring the necessary satisfaction or annoyance as the case may demand. In the course of situations calling for moral conduct on the play field or in the class room, leaders can call the child's attention to the need for a change in his ways, and then can give him an opportunity in a stimulating environment to practice the desired quality in such a way that it will bring satisfaction. Leaders can also help the child to see the situation in its entirety and to consider the remote as well as the immediate consequences. The player who is sportsmanlike *merely* because the referee

⁹ H. Neumann, *Education for Moral Growth*, pp. 191-2. New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1923.

¹⁰ From W. H. Kilpatrick, *Foundations of Method*, p. 327. New York. By permission of The Macmillan Company, Publishers, 1925.

demands it and it is the prudent thing to do, is dominated by a consideration of the immediate consequences and so needs the help of adult leaders to see the situation in its entirety and to consider the remote as well as immediate consequence.

Conduct leads to habits and thus to character. As Kilpatrick points out, this resulting character leads to conduct again, but since the character is slightly different because of the new habits, the conduct is different. This new type of conduct leads to new habits and thus to a further change in character, and so the process goes on. The laws of learning being what they are, the leader or teacher must begin in character education with conduct—with activity, rather than preaching, academic instruction, and abstract discussion. Thus is explained Kilpatrick's three-fold aim in moral education: the immediate aim is *good conduct*, the intermediate aim is *good character*, and the third and remote aim *good conduct*.¹¹

Nash lists as follows the conditions which must be present if an activity is to present character building opportunities:

1. Education must be a *doing* phenomenon.
2. The child must be interested in the act.
3. Participation in activities must be satisfying.
4. The activities should offer opportunities for complete integration.
5. Activities must provide opportunity for leadership and followership.
6. Activities must offer opportunity for self-direction.¹²

CONCOMITANT LEARNINGS IN PLAY ACTIVITY

The play leader is constantly finding opportunities for moral instruction in situations which call for immediate application on the part of the players. The direct learnings in play are the skills in the game that is being played, and the moral learnings are the concomitants. One can run the whole gamut of so-called character traits and find very few that do not represent possible concomitant learnings in a week of play activity. The need is that the play leader shall constantly analyze the situation for possible desirable concomitant learnings and emphasize them at every possible turn. Right here rests the greatest weakness in the use of play as a definite means to character education: the leader or teacher becomes so en-

¹¹ W. H. Kilpatrick, *Foundation of Method*, p. 311 ff. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1925.

¹² Jay B. Nash, "The Role of Physical Education in Character Education," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*, March, 1933. For a complete evaluation of physical education activities for character, see Jay B. Nash, *Character Education Through Physical Education*, Part V, pp. 111-169. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1932.

grossed with the game or subject matter itself that he fails to take advantage of the opportunities for moral education. Character instruction is as much the duty of the play leader as is the teaching of skills. Concomitant learnings so often have been regarded as what is learned that was *not* planned for. In preparation for his day's work, the worthy leader will think through the probable concomitant learnings that each activity may accomplish. Every activity does result in concomitant learnings, but unless the leader is alert to emphasize the desirable responses, the learning may be of the undesirable type.

It is a trite comment that unless one knows what he is trying to teach, he probably will accomplish little in teaching it, but in character education through play this is a most pertinent point. The temptation to concentrate on skills is so great that the teacher often fails to set definite objectives for the establishment of moral habits and attitudes through the daily practice. As LaRue puts it, "If I were asked to state the outstanding difference between the professional and unprofessional teacher, it would be that *the professional teacher thinks out clearly just what he is trying to do and has a plan for doing it.*"¹³

The football coach, for instance, who seeks to accomplish worth while ends in character development will find it necessary to think through and list the probable moral learnings, both desirable and undesirable, which may result from the football experience. With such a list carefully thought out, he will possess a much better appreciation of the social situation in football practice and will be much more alert in detecting opportunities for emphasizing moral qualities. Promptness is as much a learning in football as punting, courtesy to opponents as much as forward passing, and so with many other qualities of character.

Let us analyze briefly the possible concomitant learnings which may result from a single contest such as the high jump, as this will indicate the analysis that may be made for any game or contest. It should be understood that such lists as the following are not to be discussed with the players but are thought out by the leader for his own information.¹⁴ In high jumping the player may learn among other things to be:

1. Considerate or inconsiderate of others.
 - In putting up the bar or not doing so after knocking it down.
 - In smoothing the pit or not after jumping.

¹³ D. W. LaRue, *The Child's Mind and the Common Branches*, p. 69. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924.

¹⁴ H. S. Dimock and C. E. Hendry have suggested lists of concomitant learnings resulting from camping activities in *Camping and Character*, p. 68 ff. N. Y. Association Press, 1929.

In starting the practice with the bar low or too high for the poorer jumpers.

In keeping quiet when another man is to jump or in making noise which will disturb him.

In taking unnecessary time in jumping or in jumping promptly.

2. Unselfish or selfish.

In waiting his turn or seeking to jump out of turn.

In insisting on keeping the bar near his own jumping height or adjusting it to the needs of others.

3. Tolerant or intolerant.

Toward poor jumpers.

Toward smaller boys.

Toward others he does not like.

Toward other racial groups represented on the team.

4. Reliable or unreliable.

In attending practice regularly.

Giving his best in practice.

Doing his assigned duties in connection with practice.

5. Fair and just or unfair.

6. Obedient or disobedient.

7. Loyal or disloyal.

8. Self-controlled or lacking in self-control.

9. Modest or boastful in victory.

10. Persevering or quick to surrender.

11. Courageous or cowardly.

12. Prompt or tardy.

13. Confident or lacking in confidence.

14. Profane or refraining from profanity.

The concomitants which may successfully be taught vary with the age and development of the child. 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 overlap somewhat, 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.

Individualistic Qualities.—The individualistic group involves those qualities necessary for the success of the individual in competition and life. They are most primitive in the race and likewise appear first in the child. In most normal children 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. Types of individualistic conduct are represented by the following trait-names:

Courage	Self-restraint
Ingenuity	Thoroughness
Initiative	Aggressiveness
Decision	Ambition
Perseverance	Enthusiasm
Determination	Reliability
Self-reliance	Resourcefulness
Self-control	

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 child will readily form the associations which will help to develop the qualities belonging 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. The concomitant learnings of the social type are represented by the following words which taken together are often spoken of in the world of play as sportsmanship:

Kindness	Thoughtfulness
Unselfishness	Courtesy
Friendliness	Helpfulness
Truthfulness	Tolerance
Justice	Sociability
Honesty	Cheerfulness

These social ideals are taught the average individual from child-

hood. The teaching should be carried on unceasingly at home, in school, and at play. The supervised playground assumes a share of the responsibility. The plasticity of the child's nervous mechanism makes him extremely sensitive to environmental conditions. He can be conditioned to almost any conceivable form of social custom. With such a capacity for adjustment it is tremendously important that the environment, which includes the teacher, be wholesome. The state of plasticity and teachability gives to the parent and leader the opportunity to develop all that is fine and lofty in social qualities and at the same time it presents a distinct danger, since the child is just as susceptible to the anti-social as to the social.

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.

Sportsmanship should be considered more vital than winning. 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 used to strictly selfish ends.

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. 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 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.

The civic qualities include *loyalty, cooperation, obedience, and service.*

It would be foolish to expect that all the qualities listed under the three divisions mentioned will be possessed to a significant degree by any one person. Their development, however, should be the aim of the play leader. The love of play is so strongly implanted in the child that he responds naturally and easily to the lessons that are constantly arising in play. The fact that his whole interest is centered in this attractive activity further helps to make the situation ideal for moral instruction. Play of itself, however, 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 leadership must be such that it constitutes a worthy example, holds definite objectives in character development, and analyzes every play situation for opportunities for emphasizing concomitant learnings.

MEANS OF CHARACTER INSTRUCTION IN PLAY GROUPS

Of the various means of character education, five are of most interest to play and club leaders: (1) mottoes, (2) discussion, (3) story telling and dramatizing, (4) games, contests, and play projects, and (5) individual counseling. We shall discuss each of these briefly.

Mottoes.—We have seen the force of suggestion in influencing behavior. The motto suggests to us a moral principle, a way of acting, and its repetition through sign and spoken word acts upon us in much the same way as the advertiser's cleverly turned phrases.

There has been in the past, however, a confidence in the capacity of maxims or mottoes to influence conduct which is all out of proportion to the facts. Children and adults, for that matter, arrive at a true general conception only through experiencing a number of particular instances. The motto is a generalization and it has meaning only as it refers to concrete examples or individual instances which the child has recently experienced or is experiencing. Properly handled and constantly interpreted in connection with specific situations as they arise, mottoes do have effect and can be made a very worth while tool. The ease with which they can be grasped and used as compared to the more difficult methods, however, makes it necessary for leaders to realize their limitations.

Discussion.—Preachment has been the tool upon which traditional character education has relied. Reference has been made at many points in the foregoing pages to the relative ineffectiveness of words

in influencing behavior as compared to activity. It should not be assumed, however, that language is useless as a means of acquiring experience, or that a child must actually perform an action in order to learn its significance. We can overdo the importance of the phrase "learning by doing." The animal learns only by doing, but the human being can profit by the experience of others and of past generations.

In the case of young children, verbal teaching is ineffectual unless based upon responses in specific situations. The verbal teaching leads to verbal habits which the child frequently does not relate to everyday activity. Having had experience, however, discussion may be distinctly beneficial in helping the child to relate the common elements in situations which seem to him to have nothing in common. For instance, a boy may steal marbles or a basketball from the gym and when detected it is brought forcefully home to him that this is stealing and is dishonest conduct. He stops stealing. At the same time, however, he may be cheating in arithmetic. It has never occurred to him that this is dishonesty too. An analysis of the two situations in a discussion group helps the boy to see the common element in the two experiences and to apply a name to it—dishonesty. Then, when he encounters a new situation involving a different type of honesty he is more able to analyze it in the light of past experience.

In this way discussion groups can be valuable instruments in character education. Occasional discussions on the part of an athletic team or play group may serve to classify seemingly unrelated types of experience as undesirable or desirable behavior in the minds of the players. Much of their success, however, depends upon the leader. He must draw his material out of the definite experience of the group or the discussion will be ineffectual. He must use many stories and illustrations which deal with situations similar to those the group has recently experienced. In other words, discussion must supplement activity, never replace it, in social education. So used, discussion is too important a device to be neglected if play activity is to function to its fullest extent in education.

Story Telling and Dramatization.—Of all the ways in which the spoken word may be used to influence behavior, the story is the most effective. It is not activity, but it is the next thing to it. In his imagination the listener experiences the situation. He sees himself in the hero's role. It is as if it were he who did the heroic thing—who was loyal to a friend, obedient to orders, kind when there was provocation to be cruel. When a similar situation arises the listener has, in a more real sense than we are apt to realize, "been there before." A good story

teller not only has the capacity to entertain, but he possesses an outstandingly effective device for education. Story telling is a skill every recreational director should strive to master.

Viewed educationally no story is worth the telling unless it contains some point or lesson which the story teller seeks to impart to his listeners. Great care should be taken in selecting a worthy story which portrays vividly the lesson desired and which at the same time has a compelling and intriguing plot to carry it on. Once the story is selected, care must be taken to let *it* teach the lesson, to tell it as interestingly as possible and with no thought of moral instruction while telling it. If the lesson can be taught by the story at all, the plot will do it. To moralize at the end all too often destroys the effect. Naturally, a story uninterestingly told will be relatively ineffective in teaching the lesson, no matter how strong a medium it may be in itself.

Dramatics constitute a medium more effective if anything than story telling in social education. The listener pictures himself in the desirable roles in a worthy drama just as he does in listening to a story. Participation in dramatics also is a valuable means to character. Children learn to play the role of desirable characters and to experience the sound of disapproval when there is a portrayal of undesirable traits. Owing to the number of people involved and the time consumed in producing an effective play, dramatization is not as convenient a tool for everyday use by play and club leaders as story telling.

Games, Contests, and Play Projects.—Games, sports, and physical education in general contribute to character development first of all in the development of strong and healthy bodies. Johnson once remarked that the sick man is a scoundrel. Although there are examples of men with weak and frail bodies who possessed outstandingly strong wills, they are to be regarded as exceptions. Flabby muscles and flabby wills quite generally go together, particularly in adolescence. Emotional instability, nervous disorders, morbid fears, and similar indications of weak will and lack of integration may very frequently be traced to poor health. In contributing to sound health and strong physique, play and sports build a foundation favorable to an alert mind, a joyous cheerful disposition, and a strong will.

Play also contributes to character through the establishment of moral bonds. Regardless of what has been said in favor of the various uses of discussion, talking, reading, and so forth, habits and attitudes are the result primarily of activity. Stories and books are valuable in building ideas and practicing moral judgment, but it is in actual prac-

tice in life situations that moral education is finally achieved. As Kilpatrick puts it, "We cannot build a response without responding. . . . Situations reported in books and elsewhere afford but a colorless and unreal responding. A little is possible. A child may say 'If I ever get a chance I'll do this and so.' This has some effect, but such effects are slight in comparison with actually responding to actual situations."¹⁵

It thus appears that the greatest opportunity comes to play and club leaders through guidance in the course of games, contests, and club and school projects such as found in the handicrafts, woodcraft, nature lore, publishing the school and club paper, practicing for the play, and participating in community enterprises and civic service.

Moral choices must be made at every turn in the course of games and competitive sports. Applying the points brought out in the discussion earlier in the chapter, the following suggestions should be kept in mind, if the play is to result in the greatest possible accomplishment in social education:

1. *List the probable concomitant learnings.*
2. *Bring satisfaction by praising and commending the desirable moral act.*
3. *Bring annoyance by condemning the socially undesirable act.*
4. *Enforce the rules promptly, surely, impartially.*
5. *Point out at every turn the destructive consequences of the bad act, the desirable consequences of the good.*

The player may learn by trial and error, but the business of education is to substitute instruction for this blundering, wasteful, and time-consuming process, and to prevent the frequently disastrous results of trial-and-error learning in the moral field.

6. *Emphasize the broader, more remote, and far-reaching consequences of the good and bad act as well as the immediate.*

Winning at any cost may appear as an immediate and very desirable result, but it fails to take into consideration all of the consequences which appear when a larger view is taken.

7. *Study the effect of the games on the individual players.*

Leaders are so often engrossed with winning that they fail to observe the social effects of the game on individual players. These outcomes should be studied if effective character guidance is to result. For instance, it may be found in observing a game that:

- (a) A player constantly attempts to star at the expense of good team play

¹⁵ From W. H. Kilpatrick, *Foundations of Method*, p. 340. New York. By permission of The Macmillan Company, Publishers, 1925.

(a factor often evaluated by coaches in terms of the winning efficiency of the team rather than in terms of the effect on the individual's character).

(b) A player takes the hard knocks of the game with courage and self-control.

(c) A player assumes leadership in supporting high standards of sportsmanship.

(d) A player refuses to recognize and give credit for a good play on the part of the opposing team.

(e) A player is timid and self-conscious in the presence of the crowd.

(f) A player consistently breaks a rule when he finds he can "get away with it."

(g) Certain players clique together in team play in an effort to make an unpopular member of the team "look bad."

(h) Certain players change their attitude toward people of another race through constant association with a player of this race on the team.

(i) A player flares up in anger when fouls are called on him.

(j) A player becomes sullen and morose in defeat.

(k) A player abandons living habits which would lessen his effectiveness for the good of the team.

Individual Counseling.—When an individual child differs in behavior in some significant way from the rest of the group, the individual approach to character education is necessary. The following are examples familiar to many games leaders: the shy and backward child who does not participate; the player who is unduly selfish; the player who persists in grandstand playing; the child who is over-sensitive and moody; the child with capacity but who accomplishes but little; the bullying and quarrelsome child; the child with temper tantrums; the day-dreaming and introverted child; the child who has no regard for equipment or property rights.

In such cases as these the game leader will have to work with the deficient individual constantly and will have to seek sympathetically to help him toward a more desirable adjustment. Every experienced game leader and coach can refer to children whose conduct has been made more acceptable through individual guidance and counseling in the course of play activity. In difficult cases the leader may need to secure the assistance of the psychologist, the psychiatrist, and the social worker.

THE PROBLEM OF TRANSFER

Although it is generally granted that in the course of games, desirable moral attitudes are developed, can we have any assurance that these attitudes will shift to other phases of life and result in desirable behavior? Will sportsmanship on the baseball field transfer to the business world and result in ethical conduct?

Following the recent research which indicates that learning does not transfer to the extent that we once thought it did, the statement has frequently been made that there is no transfer of moral attitudes from play and athletics to the activities of one's larger life. That such transfer may take place becomes clear in reviewing the following points already mentioned in other connections earlier in the chapter.

First, moral habits are learned in specific situations, and a habit learned in one situation may be expected to function in another situation only to the extent that the second situation has elements like those in the first. A boy who has learned not to question the decision of the referee in football may be expected, without much additional training, to refrain in a similar way in basketball. It does not follow, however, that he will hold the same attitude toward the law in his business life. The latter case, although it contains essentially the same social situation, differs too much from the former. The common features are obvious to an adult but not to the boy. This fact that specific learnings transfer only to very similar situations would be discouraging to the play leader interested in social education, were it not for a second process.

Second, if two experiences involving the same social situation are analyzed for the child he may learn the common elements in the two and attach the same trait-name to them. The child may think of obedience to the rules as one thing and obedience to the law as something else, never sensing the common elements, and hence no transfer takes place, but if the common elements are pointed out to him and he grasps the similarity, there is a possibility and a probability of transfer. The pointing out of the common elements in varying situations leads the child to generalize them, and with growing maturity, to intellectualize the process. In this way moral attitudes learned in specific situations in play are transferable to other situations.

Very obviously such transfer will not take place without guidance on the part of leaders, teachers, or parents. An educated adult may analyze the situation for himself, and then generalize and intellectualize the process, but the child does not. Unless some effort is made by leaders, then, to relate for the children the moral learnings in games and athletics to other types of conduct where they apply, there can be little hope of immediate transfer.

The tendency of adults to generalize their experiences is a common observation. An illustration is seen in the case of a college baseball player who was cut from the squad and later asked the coach for another chance; he was given it, and made the team. Later in life,

whenever he was discouraged and apparently defeated by circumstances, he would recall the baseball experience and determine to keep trying. Children, however, need help in learning to generalize.

It must be remembered that socially undesirable attitudes learned in play may transfer by this process as well as the desirable ones. To the extent that there are identical elements, anti-social practices may carry over and transfer to other spheres of life.

It is too much to expect the play leader or physical education teacher alone to integrate the desirable moral learnings in games with the rest of life. The cooperation of the entire faculty is necessary. The history teacher can easily associate the chivalry of the knights with sportsmanship in athletics; the civics teacher can show that service to the state is essentially the same in principle as sacrifice for the team and the school; and so with all subjects in the curriculum. The play leader, however, should not shift all of the responsibility to other teachers, for his experiences in the daily play periods will present many opportunities to assist players in widening the application of the concepts learned in play and in generalizing from them.¹⁶

THE PROCESS OF CONTROL

SOCIETY everywhere utilizes certain means of social control to protect its standards and enforce conformity. These are of interest to us not so much from the sociological angle of describing how society works, but rather as devices which leaders of play activity and groups use in character education.¹⁷ These controls are of two general types: (1) rewards, (2) punishment.

REWARDS

Praise is a valuable form of reward, and it should accompany all commendable moral acts on the part of children. People are so constituted that praise is sweet music to their ears. It stamps in the desirable act so that the individual becomes aware that pleasant consequences ensue from so acting. In the learning process activity must be accompanied by satisfaction. "Let satisfaction accompany the right" is a maxim in the theory of learning. Play leaders then should be certain to commend the individual who acts in a moral way.

¹⁶ C. H. McCloy presents an excellent discussion of this subject in "Character Building through Physical Education." *The Research Quarterly* of the American Physical Education Association, October, 1930.

¹⁷ For a discussion of social control, see F. E. Lumley, *Means of Social Control*. New York: The Century Company, 1925.

Material rewards are often used to cause children to act in the desirable way. Badges, pins, and buttons in children's organizations and the playground point systems offering points for sportsmanship are examples. Danger enters here in that the children may try for the badges with no interest in the moral acts as desired ends in themselves, and consequently the probability of learning is much less.

We must remember that it is through precise practice of the moral act because the child wants it that the act is learned. In a certain sense what we are doing in using rewards is purchasing right conduct, which of course is socially undesirable. It can be said that there is the same danger in using praise, but obviously here the individual is more apt to participate in the activity for its own sake and praise just comes along afterwards. If honors and awards can be used in this incidental way there would be no objection, but, when they are publicized and held before children before the activity starts, the chances are that the attainment of them will, to many, become the end.

PUNISHMENT

In the same way that a feeling of satisfaction must accompany the right if learning is to take place, annoyance must accompany the wrong. Play leaders should be quick to bring annoyance to the offender when his acts are undesirable, and having brought annoyance, to point out that this unpleasant situation is an inevitable and unavoidable consequence of such action. Weak-willed officials in athletics who are vacillating and slow in detecting fouls are educating in anti-social activity. A much more effective situation educationally exists when the disapproval of undesirable acts comes from the group itself and not the teacher. When a game is made unpleasant or a hike spoiled because one boy's conduct is bad, he is sure to hear from his associates with a pointedness that strikes home. When the leader or teacher reprimands, all too often the child resents the interference and develops an inner attitude of dislike for the desirable way of behavior which the leader is trying to inculcate. He is then practicing the moral behavior with annoyance rather than with satisfaction, and consequently it does not result in learning.

In society, *laughter*, *ridicule*, and *satire* are forms of annoyance used to enforce conformity. Who can stand to be laughed at or ridiculed? For play leaders, however, these methods are very questionable.

Punishment through the imposing of *specific penalties* upon the offender is a last resort when other means of causing annoyance have not proved of adequately severe consequence to induce right action.

This practice is much too often used by leaders of children, who too frequently are not willing to take the more time-consuming method of talking with children and pointing out the results of action. Autocratic leadership is always undesirable and ineffective; no one can really lead except from within. If a leader is worthy of the name in the leadership he possesses and is admired and liked, actual punishment will be seldom needed. A little friendly talk between the offender and the leader by themselves, with emphasis on the consequences of that type of action, is usually all that is needed. What the offender needs is *help—sympathetic help*. If more severe methods must be used, curtailment of the privileges of participating is the course to follow.

A relationship of friendship and comradeship between leader and players constitutes a most powerful means through which the leader can affect the players' conduct. It constitutes a situation in which the leader can hope to influence significantly the choices of players and the habituating of desirable qualities of character to a degree unknown to unapproachable and unsympathetic leaders. Such a kind, sympathetic, friendly relationship is the best means of control—punishment is seldom necessary and advice is sought and cheerfully received.¹⁸

True leadership is *positive*. The emphasis should be upon "do" whenever possible, not "don't." The negative approach seldom if ever brings the whole-hearted enthusiastic response of children.

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.

The use of drugs—opium, cocaine, and alcohol—is resorted to for escape and a temporary feeling of exhilaration and contentment. Their injurious effects upon physical, mental, and moral health and growth are commonly known. Sex vice carries with it the ever present threat of venereal disease and the formation of attitudes which jeopardize the stability of the family and the nurturing of children. Gambling is the staking of money on some game or events, the results of which are uncertain. The custom is not only unfavorable for the development of attitudes of sportsmanship on the part of winners, losers, and spectators, but it violates the first principles of common honesty, namely that a fair bargain must benefit both parties.

¹⁸ Compare C. E. Germane and E. G. Germane, *Character Education*, p. 201 ff. New York: Silver Burdett & Company, 1929.

Our chief concern in this book is a description of the nature of play and its constructive value in life. Consequently, we are concerned primarily with the promotion of wholesome play. However, considering the detrimental effects of injurious forms of play, a word needs to be said regarding their control. There are three lines of attack, all of which are needed: (1) prevent the commercialization of vice; (2) teach everyone the harmful consequences of vice; (3) promote wholesome play activities as a preventive measure.

That laws are needed in the control of vice is obvious, but laws in themselves cannot solve the problem unless backed by an informed and sympathetic public opinion. It has been characteristic of the American mind, when confronted with a moral problem, to think of passing a law prohibiting the undesirable activity. Once the law is passed, the problem is assumed to be solved. Thus when confronted with the liquor menace, the first thought was for a prohibition law. A national campaign of education was conducted by interested parties over a ten-year period which brought the country up to the point where it sanctioned the passing of the law. The campaign of education ceased, because it was felt that the law solved the problem. Experience immediately indicated, however, that the problem was far from solved. *Law does not in itself solve any moral problem.* Since public opinion was not fully in accord with the prohibition law, it could not be enforced. It is probable that if the campaign of education for temperance had been continued for another ten years as strenuously as it was the first, we would have had less use of liquor in America without the prohibition law than with it. Prohibition might have fared better had it entered the picture at some other time than at the close of the World War when moral restraint was low and there was a rapid change in moral standards and ideals. But this is merely indicative again of the fact that education and not law is the principal factor influencing behavior.

Education is a slow, tedious, discouraging process in the solution of social and moral problems, but it is the only process which promises success. Laws are of course needed in dealing with certain forms of vice, but they must be accompanied by education or they will fall far short of accomplishing the end. Education, then, is the main road to reform.

The second approach, that of educating children in the consequences of vice, must come at the time in their lives when the problem is a paramount one confronting them in the actual, immediate life situations. Children must be familiarized with the funded experi-

ence of the race in respect to the consequences of such types of action. Only when the child is thoroughly familiar with the results of vicious conduct and is trained constantly to evaluate his contemplated acts in terms of the consequences to himself and others is he equipped to step into the whirling stream of life.

The third factor influential in eliminating vice is an adequately developed and widespread play movement reaching all ages and classes of people. The active promotion of wholesome play furnishes activity which satisfies human desires without the need of resorting to the vicious forms. Likewise, it furnishes a substitute for commercialized forms of amusement which are less constructive and beneficial.

MEASURING RESULTS IN CHARACTER FORMATION

SINCE organizations promoting play wear the label of character-building agencies and set forth a program toward this end, the assumption has followed that they are accomplishing their objectives. The very nature of their activity, being of the type that in theory should result in desirable character, has led to the feeling that significant results are being accomplished. Casual observation of children by leaders has seemed to indicate that they are being benefited. Merely labeling an activity a character-building agency, however, does not make it that; undesirable as well as desirable attitudes are developed in play, and casual observation is no adequate appraisal of results. There has been a growing tendency, therefore, to seek adequate measuring devices which will determine scientifically just what the character results of any given play activity are.

The measurement of character is much more complicated and difficult than the measurement of other phases of intellectual development or of physical development and health. If one thinks of character as strict conformity to accepted social standards, the problem is one that we can hope in time to cope with somewhat successfully, but if it is regarded in terms of the consideration of the consequences of conduct the issue becomes considerably more confused.

Four main types of devices are in use to-day for measuring character changes. First, we have the *attitude measurement scale*. Children are required to fill out these scales at the beginning of the season and again at the end, with the view of finding how the experience has changed attitudes. An attitude measurement scale only deals with one attitude at a time and many scales are needed to cover the many varying types of social behavior. Even then the integration of atti-

tudes, and the effect of one set of attitudes in regulating conduct which might result from other sets, is not shown. Unfortunately, ready-made attitude measurement scales for children, which the average busy leader may pick up and use, are very few in number at the present. Such scales, when adequately worked out, furnish some indication of character needs.

A *second* method of studying an individual's character is the *individual's own story*. In describing his situation and his behavior, either verbally or in writing, the individual is of course inclined to picture himself in acceptable light, to disguise, rationalize, and conceal. However, he does the same thing in his bodily activity. Language responses are coming to be regarded as behavior just as much as any bodily activity. Something of an insight into the individual's character can be obtained from his own story, and we do get a more or less adequate picture of the situation as he viewed it, the motives which impelled him to action, the roads he conceived to be open to him, and the consequences he predicted and attempted to safeguard.

A *third* method commonly used is *observation of behavior*. These observations are made objectively with no idea of what ought to be and are carefully recorded. When a number of these observations concerning an individual have been accumulated, they are studied and an effort made to determine the character needs of the individual. In connection with this method, a fourth technique, the *behavior frequency scale*, is also used.¹⁹ A list of types of behavior is compiled and filled out for each individual at intervals of two or three weeks, by two or more adults in contact with the individuals, each working independently. If the scale at the end of the season shows desirable changes in certain types of response, the assumption is that the program has probably made a contribution.

These two last-named methods begin with a recording of behavior which is all in the right direction. From them the teacher can determine whether the individual conduct has been in conformity to the standards the group expected of him. Whether he acted wisely or not in each instance, with a view to the consequences of his conduct, is not so well indicated. One can easily record the fact that a boy was untruthful but this does not indicate just how immoral and unintelligent the act was. To determine this one would have to know the entire situation, see it through the offender's eyes, determine the motive which impelled him, figure out all the possible courses he might have fol-

¹⁹ See G. B. Watson, *Rating Scales*, Occasional Studies, No. 2. New York: Association Press.

lowed, with the consequences of each, and determine whether he followed the course which insured the maximum of desirable results for all concerned. To approximate this, in all cases involving moral action, would require a most careful case study of all individuals by trained experts; and, viewed practically, this is an ideal which, worthy as it is, is attainable only in particularly fortunate organizations.

It is true, nevertheless, that if an individual is shown in the behavior records to be quite consistent in a certain type of response, such as tardiness, selfishness, or failure to tell the truth, the chances are he is ignorant of the consequences or fails to consider them in their broader implications. If, when this consistency is shown, the leader or counselor takes the pains to study the case and determine the situation from all angles, he may very easily and justifiably arrive at the conclusion that this individual has a distinct need of help, and if with guidance the tendency to so act becomes less consistent, we can probably safely assume that we are accomplishing a desirable end.

Another method used in the observation of behavior is to set up behavior situations involving a certain type of moral response and expose the individual to them. An example is leaving money on a table and sending the boy or girl into the room. As a method of studying the various phases of character of every individual in a club, camp, or play group it meets the same practical difficulty that adequate case study does.

The tools for the measurement of character present to the play and group leader an opportunity to determine to the best of his ability the social needs of children who are entrusted to his tutelage and the results of his work with them. These tools are far from adequate, but through experimentation with them they will become improved and in time this most important phase of education may become definitely measurable. Any research and experimentation which hastens the attainment of this goal is making an outstanding contribution to human welfare.

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CHAPTER XII

PLAY AND CITIZENSHIP

PLAY has become an integral part of our school system, the nation over. Plays and games are prescribed in the curriculum with the same definiteness that courses in reading or mathematics are mapped out. Progressive states have outlined courses of play which they recommend for use in their schools. Most of the larger cities have done likewise.

It is of practical import that the teacher who takes charge of the play program 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 certain learning, either direct or concomitant, is expected through any prescribed exercise, the teacher must keep before the pupil the desired accomplishment. For instance, if our schools, by means of play, hope to develop in the child attitudes of the honesty or loyalty type, the play teacher must call attention to these points whenever opportunities are presented in the games. A child probably will not gain a respect for sportsmanship from his play if the teacher does not stress its importance, and especially not, if no move is made to bring reproof to the offender through the condemnation of 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 program 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.

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 program of our schools is too often considered without regard to the rest of the school program. To get the most efficiency out of our educational system, the physical program 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 periods 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. This degradation of the body may have been responsible, as one of the contributing factors, for 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.

Two conflicting ideas of government were involved in conflict during the World War. 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 desires and wishes of the youth. No nation has ever been more successful than was Germany in making its educational system—of which physical training was a very important part—serve its national aims. Looking back, we cannot help but wonder at its marvelous system of gymnastics, the universal play interest worked up in it, and its efficiency in getting the desired results. This training was backed up with the moral philosophy of duty for duty's sake, and with duty defined as service to the state. That duty was absolute.

Rulers have had a way throughout history of utilizing play as a means of inculcating in youth their own ideas and dogmas. Children's clubs in all countries are used quite generally as a means for instilling a nationalistic attitude, and are utilized by political parties as a medium for spreading their own particular doctrines. The youth movement of Germany, once youth-conceived and youth-directed, now is broken up into many factions, and exploited by the leaders of some political or social group for the furtherance of their own narrow cause. Radical leaders invariably look to youth for their warriors.

Mussolini in Italy has developed an elaborate and carefully regulated scheme of clubs through which Italian youth is instilled with Fascist ideas and filled with nationalistic emotion. Hitler in Germany and Stalin in Russia are following a similar course. In fact every ruler looks to the play organizations of youth as a medium for building stability for himself and his principles. Youth is gullible, impressionable, and easily swayed, and once convinced is a dynamo of energy for the advancement of the cause.

DEMOCRACY OF GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION: ITS MEANING

DEMOCRACY involves volunteer submission to elected authority. Whereas autocracy demands unquestioned leaders and submissive followers, democracy calls for equals who bow only to the leadership of men of their own group. 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 so

far as access to the facilities is concerned—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 program 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 social and vocational in nature, added to the school subjects, whereas formerly the old classical program 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.

In education "the things which are socially most fundamental, that is, which have to do with experiences in which the widest groups share, are the essentials. The things which represent the needs of specialized groups and technical pursuits are secondary."¹ This has frequently been referred to as the social criterion of educational values.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ATTITUDE OF SERVICE TO THE STATE

Education begins in the home, but it cannot long remain there. The child soon moves out to the street and the alley where neighborhood children make their contribution. Later he enters the school, affiliates with the gang, and moves out in ever larger and widening circles. His loyalties are first tied up with the home, then with the neighborhood group, the school, the city; his loyalties are related to many, many groups and to ever larger and more scattered groups. In the end he conceives of the full meaning of the state and his loyalty

¹ John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, p. 225. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916.

is to it. The role of the citizen becomes understandable to him, and, if his education has been adequate, he strives to play the role.

Citizenship involves service to the state. This service of course is not limited to the military type nor performed only in time of war; but in his everyday life, as needs arise, the good citizen owes an allegiance and a service to his country in the solving of its problems. A feeling of belonging to and having pride in country is the typical result of just growing up in a country and being associated with adults who possess a nationalistic attitude. But citizenship involves more than nationalistic emotion, it involves an attitude that leads to a willing sacrifice of time and effort for the good of the national group.

Recreational-educational organizations for children attempt to utilize play in the development of this attitude of service. The Boy Scouts, for instance, foster the ideal of serving the community through community good turns such as regulating traffic, distributing literature for the Community Chest, and cleaning up alleys in the spring clean-up campaigns. The Girl Scouts and Camp Fire Girls do likewise and find, for instance, joyous activity in rolling bandages for the Red Cross. During the World War, the Boy Scouts turned boyhood into an asset for the country, whereas in previous wars it had been a liability in the pursuit of the immediate end of winning the war.

Two points of view are behind this service activity on the part of these organizations. First, the attitudes we call citizenship are taught in the same way as anything else, that is, through activity, particularly activity which the individual has accepted as his own and which leads to satisfying results. The ideal of service is acquired primarily through being of service. These organizations make the rendering of service by children possible and thus set the stage for the taking on of the desired attitude. This is infinitely better than abstract discussion about the ideal of service.

The second point of view behind this activity is that citizenship does not begin at twenty-one, when the franchise is available to men. Children are citizens in as real a sense as are adults and owe their obligation of service to the country within the limitations of their capacities. Our task is to provide the opportunity for children to play the role of the good citizen here and now.

PLAY AS A BARRIER TO PROVINCIALISM

Patriotism is loyalty to place, whereas nationalism is loyalty to culture. That a certain amount of nationalistic emotion is desirable

and necessary goes without saying—no national group could long survive and retain a unity without it. Too much nationalism or worship of the country's culture, however, leads to provincialism and narrowness of vision, shutting out the contribution of foreign cultures, and fostering international and racial hatred. Intense nationalism sets the stage for war. As long as nationalism is on the increase in the world as rapidly as at the present, one must view all the disarmament conferences and bids for permanent peace with much uncertainty as to the possibility of their success.

There is a distinct danger, therefore, that organizations for boys and girls with a flair for nationalism and much glorification of country may overdo their efforts. Society is always eager to inculcate strong nationalistic feeling in children, and the secondary schools contribute decidedly toward that end. When this is continued to the point that they regard all other cultures in the world as vastly inferior to their own, a provincialism is developed that closes their eyes to the contributions of excellent worth to be found in all foreign cultures including the so-called savage—contributions which we need for the enrichment of our own culture.

Play groups do much to overcome provincialism in general, particularly if children in their play are not exploited by adults with provincial biases. Children who play on the playground with immigrant children find that the latter are quite human and likable and have some qualities which all American children might do well to acquire. The school athletic team which has members of many nationalistic groups on it, as is so often the case nowadays, contributes to racial tolerance and the breadth of vision which is the essence of democracy. Play on the play fields brings youth in contact with all kinds of children. This is of distinct advantage for socialization. Children should have association with all classes and races in ever-increasing numbers and widening circles if democracy is ever to be a fact. Democracy is more than a form of government; it is a mode of associated living.

Organizations for children can do much toward the promotion of international and interracial good will. The Y. W. C. A. and Y. M. C. A., for instance, with clearcut objectives in this direction, bring into their camps occasional leaders and campers of other nations and colors. Their records show that campers not only become fond of them but are impressed with the desirable and often superior qualities of the cultures they represent. Likewise the Social Settlement is based upon the philosophy that all foreign-born neighborhoods in our large cities have something to offer to us in the way of culture that we need; and,

at the same time, we have something they need. The settlement program is designed to make this mutual exchange possible.

Democracy depends upon the development of common interests and the sensing of a common life among all elements of the population. The social nature of education is a plain fact. We learn meaning by discovering what things mean to others. The aim is to develop children with the ability to enter into a wide variety of interest; *in short, to regard nothing human as foreign to themselves.*²

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 as near as possible the same advantages. This means that all start out with a uniform program, 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 program; and yet, at the same time, there are certain exercises that should be taken by all. It cannot be said that the program 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 similar activities. In all these there is found the specialization that goes with democracy; but it is a development of the individual *himself*—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

² See B. H. Bode, *Fundamentals of Education*, Chapter 3. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1921.

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 in turn 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 basketball are but a reflection of the present ideal of democratic citizenship—they are an index of our national life. As individualism and *laissez faire* with its ruthless competition diminishes in favor of a more cooperative type of community life, the intense drive to win in athletics will doubtless lose its cutting edge. On the other hand, more of an emphasis on play as cooperative effort for the greatest joy of all participating rather than to win at any cost may condition youth in such a way as to hasten the attainment of a more cooperative mode of living in general in the society around us.

While American sports reflect our distinctive national traits they are in many respects superior to them. The sportsmanship in athletics is probably on a higher level than the ethics of business competition, and certainly athletics appear to be cleaner than politics in our cities. In college life the tactics used in athletic competition are more sportsmanlike than those used, for instance, in fraternity and sorority rushing.

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 program. 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 presents the opportunities to teach the individual habits and attitudes falling under the heads of 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 can promote 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 and skill which is promised future use only in a military way. The adaptability that play gives is shown by the quickness and effectiveness with which non-military nations are able to fashion 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. More 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. Moral and physical aspects should also be considered. The moral training should be along the lines of the simple social qualities, 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 program 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 program 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 mainly individualistic, not in the sense that it is performed alone but that it is of the type in which the individual himself wins or is tested. While the very young child plays along with two or three other children they do not like to play together and there is no organization for a common effort. At seven or eight years of age, however, children enjoy group games in which there are two sides of from three to a dozen players but no organization on the part of the sides. "Pom Pom-Pull Away" is an example. Each individual while playing on a side has opportunity to display his individual strength and daring and to discover his capacities.

Not until the seventh and eighth grades do we find the cooperative element of team play 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 very long 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 achievement tests is very strong; and in the seventh and eighth grades the relay sports, remotely requiring the team sense, and the games of soccer, volleyball, playground baseball, all of which call for only a slight degree of specialization, appear.

PLAY AND THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Because the criticism was voiced for some time that the eight-year elementary school is longer than is necessary for the work to be accomplished, there arose 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 program is therefore chosen with the purpose of drawing out and gradually developing the child's capacity 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 participation in club activities, 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. The group game has now given

way to the team game, in which there are a definite number of players, each one of whom fills a specific position and plays only what the position calls for. The player no longer exploits himself but subordinates himself for the good of the team. Regardless of what may happen to *him* the *team* must win. To continue to play group games when children have grown socially to the point where they are ready for the teams is to arrest development—they need the discipline of cooperative effort and subordination. Thus in the junior high school we see a transition in the type of play from the individualistic to the cooperative.

Just as the school periods are lengthened upon entrance into the junior high school 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 program. The exercises should all have alternate periods of strenuous action, then rest.

Another way in which the physical program is adapted to the needs of this age level 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 at this time are becoming a more conspicuous factor. 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 competition of our high schools and colleges is concerned. Here is where the child should receive a broad and general course covering all our team games, for certainly there should be no attempt yet at specialization in any one sport.

PLAY AND THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

The high school yet remains to be discussed. 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 program 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 corre-

spond 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 program.

The aims of athletics are so closely related to the aims of 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 program 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 academic activities; 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- and attitude-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 exer-

cise 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 temporarily 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 given favored consideration among the applicants for officers' training camps. College athletics, when actuated by high ideals, do help to turn out spirited men, socially inclined, and animated with positive vigor.

CONCLUSION

We have seen that the child begins playing side by side with one or two other children but for the most part playing independently; later he enters group games in which he plays individualistically even though playing on a side; at fourteen or fifteen he plays on teams in which individuality is subordinated and cooperation is paramount. He has learned to be a cooperative member of a social group. It must not be supposed however that team cooperation is the end of the process. With the coming of maturity, as Hart puts it, these experiences should have made of him "a socially valuable *individual*. He has become a member of a social group through his gregarious and group play, and has learned something of what he can actually do in *competition* with his fellows. He has had real experience of team play, and has learned what he can do in *cooperation* with his fellows. He is both social and individual—and that, I assume, is what we need in America, these days."⁸

The importance of play in an individual's life does not cease with his graduation from the public schools to enter into life both as a

⁸ J. K. Hart, "Socializing through Recreation," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*. November, 1930.

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 there will be danger of its being 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 and contributing 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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Part IV

CHAPTER XIII

HOW PLAY IS PROMOTED

PLAY is too large and too important a phase of life to be handled by our schools and public playgrounds alone. It is so necessary a phase of our daily existence that many of our institutions like the church, the factory, and other organizations not dependent upon public taxation have incorporated it into their program 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 type of play promotion which gives greatest promise of meeting the needs for all stratifications of society. Through such support as the community gives, a broad field of play activities is furnished without direct charge to the players. Although minor charges to cover maintenance are often made for some types of public recreation such as the use of golf courses, swimming pools, and the like, for the most part the facilities are entirely free, inviting universal participation, so that all alike may share in the benefits.¹ The program 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 program. 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

¹ See National Recreation Association, *Charges and Fees*. New York: National Recreation Association.

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. The National Recreation Association conducts surveys of recreational needs, supplies field organizers to develop new city systems, and publishes much literature that is sold at a nominal cost. The American Physical Education Association gives active leadership to the play movement particularly from the school angle, sponsors recreational legislation, publishes literature, and assists in securing adequate play facilities for schools. The Russell Sage Foundation also publishes valuable play literature and undertakes, to a limited extent, the giving of advice and field help. The Office of Education in the Federal Department of Interior conducts research and publishes literature on play subjects.

Play as a public function requires an extensive plan in administering its program: *municipal and school playgrounds, field houses, social centers, parks, bathing beaches, camps, libraries, museums, music studios, handicraft shops, and theatres* for amateur dramatics—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 largely being promoted through their programs. The *playgrounds* and *social centers* are among the most important factors in the success of organized play, and separate chapters are devoted to a discussion of them—"The Play Center" and "Organization of Play Activities." The summer camp is also of such significance in the modern recreational-educational development that a separate chapter is devoted to it—"The Organized Summer Camp."

PARKS

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.

BATHING BEACHES

There is but little to say about bathing beaches: the city controls them and furnishes attendants, guards, and equipment. The beaches are 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 special events such as swimming races, aquatic meets, and water pageants are scheduled at frequent intervals to add interest and color to the program.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Public libraries to which everyone has access are, of course, to be found in every city in America and even in many of the very small villages. They are an integral part of the play movement and constitute a recreational-educational institution of first magnitude in American life, even though their place as a recreational agency in the community has not been fully appreciated to date. Reading not only brings pleasure during the reading, but in the case of young children it fires their imagination to the point where they live over again the story in imaginative play. Story-telling hours with gifted specialists in charge are operated by many libraries, and play rooms for children are sometimes found. In addition to the main library, centrally located, branch libraries are often established, thus bringing reading privileges into the outlying neighborhoods.

Reading is a conspicuous play activity in the lives of people from ten years of age to maturity. In the adult years of life it is a major leisure-time interest to a very large percentage of people, particularly women, who are more inclined toward the broadly cultured type of leisure-time activity than men. Men are, however, inclining more toward cultural recreation than in the past. There has been a tremendous increase in the number of books and periodicals in public libraries, and a much greater use of them than twenty-five years ago. Thus the library is becoming a recreational center of increasing importance. Recent years have witnessed the publication and eager reception

of a great number of non-fiction books popularizing science, philosophy, and travel; every bookstore and library presents a startling array of such works. The same is true of magazines. This may indicate a shift toward a more serious type of reading. The fact still remains, however, that most of the reading of America is fiction and is participated in for escape and the vicarious experiencing of the thrilling life which is impossible in the day by day routine of life.²

Public libraries are usually operated by a special board and are not part of the direct responsibility of the recreation commission, although many community centers under this commission have small libraries.

MUSEUMS

Museums such as those operated by state or large city governments are also significant recreational-educational institutions, permitting imaginative youth to discover new worlds and to picture more accurately the historic events of the country, the life of primitives with all of its glamour and picturesqueness, and the marvels of animal life from all over the far flung frontier of the world.

MUSIC, DRAMATICS, ART, AND CRAFT FACILITIES

Although most of the promotion of music for the public in American communities is sponsored by special clubs and associations headed by interested and public spirited boards, the recreation departments are placing an increasing emphasis on this type of promotion. Such promotion consists of participatory activities such as mass singing, glee clubs, bands, orchestras, harmonica bands and contests, and so forth, as well as concerts and entertainments in which the public listens rather than participates. In 1931, a total of 101 communities reported glee clubs and 123 communities had harmonica bands, under the leadership of the recreation department. The activities are carried on for the most part through the regular facilities of the recreation departments, in connection with playgrounds, field houses, community centers, and parks.

Public recreation departments are also placing an increasing emphasis upon participatory dramatics as a phase of public recreation. In 1931, a total of 82 communities reported drama tournaments. Specialists on the staff are frequently found for this type of promotion. Many cities have open air theatres for the promotion of dramatics, pageantry, and musical entertainments. Most community centers and field houses

² See R. S. and H. M. Lynd. *Middletown*. pp. 229-248. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1929.

have dramatic facilities, and some cities have a stage built on a truck or wagon trailer which can be transported from playground to playground as needed. A few communities boast of municipally owned theatres.³ The thought behind all of this work is not only the entertainment of the public through listening to dramatic productions (although that in itself is a worthy end) but the provision of facilities and leadership for direct participation in dramatics on the part of as many people as can be interested.

Public art galleries are found in most large cities, but are managed by separate boards rather than by the public recreation departments. The galleries give excellent opportunities for that phase of recreation related to the satisfaction of the wish for the aesthetic, both through observation of art and participation. Arts and crafts are playing a role of increasing importance in the public recreation program, and usually operate through shops and studios in connection with regular community centers, play rooms, and playgrounds, rather than in separate buildings.

As stated in a previous chapter, there is a distinct cultural lag in America in respect to the intellectual and aesthetic phases of expression in play, as compared to the more purely physical. This lag is characteristic of American life in general. Athletic and physical play have been developed much more extensively and efficiently than has music, art, crafts, and dramatics. To-day, there is a distinct trend in American recreational leadership to swing the pendulum toward a more adequately balanced program and also toward the refinement of the intellectual interests of the public.

OTHER TYPES OF RECREATIONAL SERVICE

In addition to the provision of facilities and leaders for play in definite play centers, the public recreation departments furnish guidance of far-reaching significance in the promotion of play in general throughout the community. We find them conducting leadership-training courses for leaders from all recreational, group work, and religious agencies who care to come; they cooperate with churches and neighborhood groups in program planning for recreational ends; they conduct mail service on all phases of programming and recreational administration; they provide picnic and outing service to all who ask, both in the supplying of equipment and the suggesting of programs of activities.

³ See A. E. Wood, *Community Problems*. Chapter XVII. New York: The Century Co., 1928.

In general, the public recreation department is an influential factor 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 programs unhindered, still they must be subject to public approval and regulation. In this way it can be said that the community actually stands back of and promotes all forms of recreation.

COMMERCIAL ASPECT OF PUBLIC RECREATION

In one way the public type of promotion takes on a commercial aspect. We have already seen that charges are made for the use of some types of public play facilities, but these are small, as a rule, and are for the purpose of defraying the expense of maintenance. The commercial aspect stands out most conspicuously in such activities as public school and college athletics, dramatics, musicales, and others. 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.

This semi-commercial phase of promotion presents spectacles or exhibitions which are both entertaining and educational. It is, however, 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. 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 the students.

The inter-school athletic movement has taken such a firm hold on the public that a chapter has been devoted later in the book to the question of "Athletics in Schools and Colleges."

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 their 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 worth while one to the promotion of recreation. 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 given attention.

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 PLAY GROUPS

Under the caption of open groups we must include the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Pioneer Youth of America, Big Brother and Big Sister Federation, Inc., Boys' Club Federation of America, Four-H Clubs, Woodcraft League of America, Junior Achievement, Junior Red Cross, Knighthood of Youth, Girls' Friendly Society, Sportsmanship Brotherhood, Boy Rangers of America, Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, Young Men's and Young Women's Hebrew Association, Knights of Columbus, churches, settlements, industrial organizations, summer camps, certain athletic and social clubs, and miscellaneous organizations where play is incidental.

Boys' and Girls' Clubs.—The many group work organizations for youth in the above list are recent outgrowths of the play movement whose programs stress the objectives of character-building and citizenship, and thereby give a valuable supplement to our school training. They are so important that the basic schemes of organization and program utilized by them are taken up under a later chapter on "Boys' and Girls' Clubs" 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.

Young Men's Christian Association.—This organization in its first form was really what the words imply: The Young Men's Christian Association. It was organized in London in 1844 and in Boston in 1851, 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 basketball, swimming, volleyball, 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.

Like all social institutions, the Y. M. C. A. policies and methods have changed with the passing of the years. In the past this organization was strongly institutionalized and met people for the most part as they came to the building. To-day there is a distinct trend away from the building and a tendency for leaders to meet boys and young men in their own neighborhoods. The Y. M. C. A. is thinking more and more of the entire community as its field of operation rather than

its own paid 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.

The Y. M. C. A. has attempted throughout its history to bring out religious educational values through various forms of social expression, a suggestive list of which, as the Y. M. C. A. of to-day sees them, being as follows:

Gymnasiums	Father and Son Movement
Swimming Pools	Thrift
Bowling Alleys	Playgrounds
Billiard Rooms	Camping
Game Rooms	Night Schools
Club Rooms for Boys	Organized Boys' Group Work
Conferences for Boys	Specially trained leaders for boy's work
Physical Education	Hobby Clubs (Handicraft and Interest
Vocational Guidance	Groups) ⁴

In many cases the Y. M. C. A. acts as a student employment bureau. The boys' department is a well-organized institution with a characteristic philosophy, which we shall note again in the discussion of boys' and girls' clubs, showing how it differs in methods and point of view from other organizations for youth. The boys' department, as well as the senior, has finely equipped and well-conducted camps during the summer months.

Young Women's Christian Association.—In many respects the Y. W. C. A. is similar to the Y. M. C. A. in objectives and activities. It was organized in London in 1861 and first started in this country in 1866 in Boston. According to its constitution it aims "To advance the physical, social, intellectual, moral, and spiritual interests of young women." This association possesses a very progressive and liberal point of view on social, economic, and educational matters, being particularly interested in the advancement of interracial and international goodwill and in the solving of economic and social problems. Through its recreational and group activities it aims to educate toward these broad ends. It strives to reach all classes and races of girls and young women, working through schools, industries, and churches. Its Girl Reserve movement is one of the most significant approaches to work with youth and we shall refer to it in more detail in the chapter on "Boys' and Girls' Clubs."

⁴ National Council of the Young Men's Christian Association, *Boys' Work to Match the Times*, p. 17. New York: Association Press, 1929.

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 point of view of using play merely for its drawing power, although entirely worthy, is fast giving way to the realization of the distinct benefits that play itself can make to personality. Every activity is fast being recognized as having religious value; religion is looked upon as attitude toward every activity. The shift is gradually away from abstract discussion groups to life situations as the place to teach for moral and social ends. Among children, life situations are in large part play situations.

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, basketball 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 function of the church as a community center is largely one of supplementing other agencies in the community: if adequate social center facilities are provided in the neighborhood, the church is relieved to a certain degree of the necessity of providing recreational activities and free to concentrate on the more precise problems of religious and moral guidance; when such facilities are lacking, it becomes the function of the modern socialized church to promote them. The church follows two methods in the provision of recreational facilities: (1) to provide the actual place and the leadership for an adequate program for the neighborhood; (2) to use its vast influence in educating and moulding public opinion so that other agencies will be established to care for the needs. This is largely true in respect to social needs in general.

Religion is indelibly related to recreation and has been throughout all of history from earliest savage times to the present. As we have seen in previous chapters, worship itself has a distinct recreational value. Sociable expression has always surrounded gatherings for relig-

ious purposes. Even in Puritan times with the opposition to play, some recreational expression was found through worship and church meetings. To many people, church work is the major means of sociable and recreational activity. Even though other agencies may supply adequately the recreational needs, some play and sociable activity will always remain in the church program, and must remain if it hopes to attain ends in the moral education of children. In small towns and rural districts the church has a distinct function in providing a center for recreational life and leadership for community play. In these districts, if such facilities are not provided by the church they probably will not be made available to any adequate degree by any agency.

The church has an advantage as a recreational center 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.

Church public opinion as a rule supports the public play movement to-day, but it needs to do so much more adequately and energetically, not only because of the general values which citizenship receives from the public play movement, but for the specific services which a public play organization gives to the churches. The municipal department organizes church athletic leagues, supplies leadership for parties and picnics, program suggestions, drama and musical service, and training courses for volunteer leaders of church young people's organizations.

In the final sense, the church has a definite and most important relationship to the recreational life of the community, inasmuch as it can set standards which will largely determine the type of recreation that its followers will seek. The church should assume much more responsibility than it already has in elevating the recreational life of the community. There is a reciprocal relationship between recreation and morals.

One of the most significant contributions to recreation in the church field has been made by the Church of Jesus Christ of the Latter Day Saints. The Mormons have given aggressive leadership to the promotion of play, have conducted research and published valuable literature for recreational leaders.

Other Religious Organizations.—The Young Men's Hebrew Association and the Young Women's Hebrew Association are organizations

similar to the Christian Associations and conduct work along similar lines for members of their faith. The Jewish Welfare Board, organized in 1917, has since the War taken over much of the work of the Y. M. H. A. and Y. W. H. A. and is promoting a social and recreational program for Jewish youths.

The National Catholic Welfare Council, organized in 1919, coordinates and sponsors activities, recreational and otherwise, for those of Roman Catholic faith in the United States.

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 accomplished a great work. Their program, 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 settlement is a center where the neighborhood can find its own self-expression, whatever the nature of national or racial background may be. Settlement workers have always been motivated by the objective of conserving the elements of splendid worth to be found in foreign cultures, with the hope that America may profit by them, and at the same time contribute to the foreign neighborhoods that which is fine in American culture.

The social settlement was an early factor in the promotion of the public play movement and has been influential in opening up the school buildings for social and recreational purposes. In the settlements we frequently find a recreational-educational program including a high level of music, art, and dramatics, with expert leadership in charge, bringing these skills and appreciations within the reach of all. Some settlements specialize particularly in music or dramatics. We also find excellent craft and hobby activity, including woodwork, basketry, clay modeling, photography, chemistry, radio, bookbinding, and so forth. Nature lore, woodcraft, and camping are quite universal. A gymnasium, athletic leagues, game rooms, billiard rooms, are charac-

teristic features. Discussion groups, forums, and adult education are very popular.

The settlement does not confine itself to building activity but is much concerned in educating for home recreation. Hiram House in Cleveland, for instance, has a philosophy of food, rest, and activity, actively consisting of work and play and responsibility; this program is achieved largely through group workers and case workers who visit the homes regularly and give guidance to parents, thus working more efficiently than they could possibly do by merely meeting people in clubs in the building. They hope to strengthen home ties through recreation, rather than to pull children away constantly for building activities.

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 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, basketball, volleyball, 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.

In 319 industries studied by the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics,

in 1927, it was found that 59 had athletic clubs, 157 operated baseball diamonds or athletic fields, 50 had tennis courts, 13 had golf courses, 223 sponsored baseball teams, 41 had football teams, 177 conducted annual picnics, and 33 operated summer camps.⁵

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.

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.

At the present moment the trend among industrial workers is in the direction of supporting the community recreational program and favoring the participation of their workers in the community program, rather than providing special facilities for their own use. Many large city recreation departments, among which Oakland and Los Angeles are outstanding, have special industrial departments of the public recreation service. Industries of to-day, looking for a city in which to locate a factory, invariably ask what the city is able to offer in the way of public recreation facilities.

Athletic Clubs and Organizations.—Local athletic clubs began to appear during the middle of the last century, and during the first quarter of the present century prospered tremendously. They were for the most part composed of young men interested in athletic sports, and their programs featured a wide range of physical activity. The Amateur Athletic Union, commonly called the A. A. U., is a national federation of such clubs and other interested groups. It requires a fee for mem-

⁵ See *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1927. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Dept. of Labor. Reprinted in pamphlet by National Recreation Association.

bership, also an amateur standing; and it rigidly controls the participation of its members in competitive sports. Its program features track and swimming competition in sectional meets as well as national ones.

The trend is distinctly away from the old type of athletic club, and the Amateur Athletic Union is tending increasingly to look to playgrounds and schools for future participants in its activities. Certainly the general athletic club, featuring a wide range of athletic activity, is giving way to specialized clubs made up of individuals interested in some specific sport. The local clubs of this type have affiliated into organizations of national scope, with stereotyped rules and regulations for the activity they sponsor and a machinery for its promotion. As examples of these organizations with national or at least widespread jurisdiction, the following might be mentioned: Amateur Fencers League of America, National Association of Scientific Angling Clubs, National Archery Association, the American Bowling Congress, American Canoe Association, United States Golf Association, United States Field Hockey Association, United States Amateur Hockey League, National Horseshoe Pitchers Association, Amateur Skating Union of the United States, United States Intercollegiate Lacrosse Association, American Lawn Bowling Association, American Roque League, National Ski Association, United States Lawn Tennis Association, National Association of Amateur Oarsmen, Amateur Trapshooting Association, American Snowshoe Union, National Cycling Association, National Amateur Casting Association, and United States Football Association.

Some of these organizations may be regarded as exclusive, but for the most part their membership fees are not prohibitive to the average citizen and they are open to all who have an interest in the activity they sponsor.

Music, Art, Drama, and Book Clubs.—Thousands of clubs interested in music are to be found all over the country—the Monday Musical Clubs, singing and instrumental groups, and the like. The same is true of art, and in the field of literature we have reading circles, book review clubs, and book-of-the-month clubs in practically every city. People with an interest in dramatic expression likewise affiliate, neighborhood dramatic groups and little theatre organizations being common and widespread. In 1930, there were approximately 1,800 producing amateur dramatic organizations in America, a number of which are concerned with improving dramatic entertainment for children.

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 PLAY GROUPS

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 (1) fraternal orders for men and women, such as the Masons, Eastern Star, Elks, Knights of Pythias, and Odd Fellows, and the college fraternities and sororities; (2) the noonday luncheon clubs, such as Rotary Club, Kiwanis Club, and Exchange Club; (3) nationalistic organizations; (4) fellowship clubs; (5) private schools which limit their enrollment; and (6) the many exclusive city and country clubs.

Fraternal Orders.—Fraternal orders and secret societies were largely a contribution of the past century, practically all important and well known orders having their origin before 1900. They have enjoyed widespread popularity and growth, with an estimated membership at the present moment of 35,000,000 but reliable evidence seems to indicate that the peak of development has, or has very nearly been reached. Masonic orders have in the past three or four years shown membership gains which barely offset their losses, and other fraternal lodges taken as a whole have shown a marked decline since 1925. Greek letter societies, however, show a marked upward trend in recent years, owing to the fact that the enrollment of students in colleges has increased tremendously and that during the years 1920 to 1930 the national prosperity was reflected in the students' social life.

For the most part the program is not so much one of general public improvement and citizenship as it is one of recreation and fellowship that is confined to the particular group concerned. In so far as the members are concerned, 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.

Luncheon Clubs.—Conspicuous among the recently developed leisure associations are the luncheon clubs, which have prospered to such a degree as to demand particular attention. The first Rotary Club was organized in Chicago in 1905 and by 1910 there were sixteen of these clubs which were affiliated into the Rotary International. The Exchange Club came into being in 1911. The first Kiwanis Club was started in Detroit in 1915 and the Kiwanis International organized the year following. The Lions International appeared in 1917. Zonta, a luncheon club for women, was organized in 1918. From these beginnings we now have twenty-seven different national organizations of luncheon clubs. The extraordinary growth in the membership of these clubs occurred after the year 1920. The estimated membership of the luncheon clubs in America in 1932 was 500,000. The growth of this movement still continues, although the past three or four years have not seen as marked an increase as formerly. The growth probably will not be so great in the future as most of the available field has been organized. Says Steiner, "Whether these clubs will prove to be more than a passing fad, it is difficult to forecast. Undoubtedly the weekly use of the lunch hour for the promotion of good fellowship is a device well-suited to those whose daily work is carried on in the heart of the city."⁶

In addition to sociability and fellowship for their members, the luncheon clubs are of particular interest to the recreation field because of the generous and aggressive support they give to public recreation, and particularly to the so-called character-building agencies. These clubs are the key organizations in money-raising campaigns for the group work organizations for youth.

Nationalistic Organizations.—Immigrants and descendants from European countries in this country frequently affiliate into clubs for social activity along the lines characteristic of their own culture. These groups have rich contributions in the way of music, dancing, and festivals, and often gymnastics and games. The Turnverein as representative of the German nationality and the Sokols of Czechoslovakia illustrate this class. There are associations just as typical to represent the Polish, Bohemian, and other nationalities. The objection has been

⁶ From *Americans at Play*, by J. F. Steiner, one of a series of monographs based on the Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends; by permission of the publishers, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

raised that these distinctive nationalistic groupings hinder the process of assimilation, but this is a provincial attitude growing out of the feeling that our own American culture is superior, is without need of improvement, and must be conserved as it is at any cost. The modern social point of view has it that these foreign cultural patterns may make distinct contributions to our own cultural life and should be not only conserved, but fostered.

The American Legion is an American organization with strong nationalistic tendencies. It has assembly places for social and recreational purposes. In addition to promoting recreation for its own members the American Legion is providing aggressive leadership in the promotion of community recreation in general. The Michigan Department of the American Legion at its 1932 convention, for instance, adopted resolutions in part as follows:

The American Legion, Department of Michigan, calls to the attention of its many posts the opportunities they have to serve the youth and the adults of the state by aiding the promotion of programs of recreation and athletic activities. The legion has been and always will be interested in the youth of the country. For them, participation in clean, wholesome athletic activities will always be one of the best means of development of good sportsmanship, good citizenship, and healthy living. . . .

The Department of Michigan urges each local post (1) to study the recreation needs and opportunities of the youth and the adults of its own community, (2) to aid established organizations now carrying on recreation programs, and (3) to express to municipal authorities its belief in the value of the development of recreational and athletic activity programs.

Fellowship Clubs.—There are many non-fraternal and non-secret organizations which have fellowship as their main purpose. The non-fraternity student groups in colleges are of this type. The Unions for men and women in the large universities, which really correspond to social centers, must be listed as semi-exclusive 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, cards, and in some cases squash and handball. 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.

Private Schools.—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, and they stress these recreational facilities in their advertising more than any other aspect of their program. 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.

City and Country Clubs.—The exclusive city and country clubs are of minor 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 of the country club offer a wonderful recreational opportunity for the men and women of wealth and leisure who use the advantages that are offered in the way of golf, tennis, squash, handball, swimming, and boating.

From the public standpoint, the good points which must be set forth for the play of exclusive clubs are often offset by the extravagance of fashionable yachting and polo, and of over-elaborate dances and banquets; the fact that stands out then as regrettable is that so much money should be squandered on the play of an exclusive few when the general public is so greatly in need of funds for even the simplest and most inexpensive recreation.

INFORMAL PLAY GROUPS

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, card parties, or parlor games, and so forth. Since these clubs are local and informal, it is difficult to measure their growth. An indication of the increased interest in card playing can be found in the fact that almost four times as many playing cards were sold annually in 1930 as in 1900. The *mores* regarding dancing and card playing are changing rapidly, and the old taboos which prevented many from participating are fast losing their strength.

All of children's play in and around the home is of this type. Play

begins at home, and while we must admit that the type of home in America has changed in recent years, the fact remains that much play is still to be found there, and much more could be found with proper education of parents and the public. The movement for home play is spreading rapidly in America. Modern architects and builders are tending to include play space in apartments and residences, such as indoor play rooms and outside sand piles, swings, and other apparatus.

Of the 908 families studied in the Indianapolis Recreation Survey, it was found that:

- 841 homes had backyards;
too many backyards had little in the way of play equipment;
- 584 homes were equipped with "victrolas";
- 497 homes had radio sets;
- 425 homes had pianos;
- 85 homes had pianolas;
- 577 families said they had libraries;
- 584 families subscribed to magazines;
- 626 families had automobiles;
- 135 husbands and 230 wives said they played musical instruments;
- 248 husbands and 123 wives said they had other hobbies but the number of different hobbies totaled only 35;
- 379 families made trips in automobiles once a week, 407 twice a week;
- 323 families went to the movies once a week, 86 twice a week, and 46 three times a week;
- 318 families had family play nights;
- 70 had family orchestras of three or more members.⁷

Within the possibilities of home play are toys, card games, table games such as checkers, dominoes, ping pong, billiards, and table golf; reading, story telling, handicraft, furnished play goods, music, dancing, gardens, family excursions, and trips.

The public recreation movement is regarding the promotion of home play as one of its most important functions. It is carrying on educational campaigns among parents through newspapers, lectures, radio, demonstrations, and cooperation with parent-teachers associations; it is conducting an advice service for parents, issuing instructions on games and home play activities, mailing publications and bulletins to interested parties, setting up exhibits of home play equipment, and conducting parents' home play clubs. The National Recreation Association states the objectives of the home play movement as follows:

1. To encourage provision of adequate space and facilities for the play of children at home.

⁷ E. T. Lies, National Recreation Association, *The Leisure of a People*. Report of Survey of Indianapolis, p. 93. Indianapolis: The Council of Social Agencies, 1929.

2. To strengthen home ties by focusing attention on the importance of parents' playing with their children.
3. To provide attractive programs of social activities for adults as well as children in the home and in connection with neighborhood life.
4. To promote knowledge in the community at large of the educational value of the children's play activities and to encourage critical and intelligent selection of such activities for the child in the home.⁸

Play of the informal type is often destructive in nature. When left to themselves, children and adolescents often turn to undesirable and anti-social types of play. Therefore, the public play movement carries with it the responsibility to provide wholesome alternatives.

It has been shown that the people need education in their choice of informal play. This type of play should be supported to the utmost. Much more than in the past, 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 outing 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 widespread 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 PROMOTION

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 resorts, horse races, moving picture shows, roof gardens, skating rinks, music halls, theatres, and so forth. 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

⁸ National Recreation Association, *Home Play* (pamphlet), as quoted by J. E. Rogers *The Child and Play*, p. 67. New York: The Century Co., 1932.

making appropriations for this purpose. In spite of the development of the public play movement, the commercial field continues to increase and is more profitable than ever. The demand for recreation has become so great that all of the development of the play movement which we have reviewed in this chapter fails to meet the needs, and the commercial enterprises have been quick to expand their facilities and reap the increased profit. With the coming of increased leisure the demand for recreation will be still greater, and the time will probably never come when the community play program and the private recreation clubs will meet the need fully and adequately.

Commercial recreation appears to be here to stay. "This provision of recreation on a commercial basis is as legitimate and inevitable as is the supply of food and other articles required in daily living. At present as in the past commercial interests are in control of many different forms of amusements and their position has become more firmly entrenched both by increasing patronage and by greater efficiency in business organization. The total amount of recreation that is made available on this commercial basis is enormous and provides for a very considerable share of the leisure time of the mass of the people."⁹ This being true, considerable attention needs to be given to the nature of commercial recreation and its effect on conduct.

COMMERCIALIZATION OF SPORTS

Baseball, which has long been commercialized to the point where it is a big business, continues to remain popular and very profitable in spite of increased competition from other sports. Recently professional football teams have gained a considerable following. Prize fighting, with a long background of commercialization, made record making profits between 1920 and 1930, and wrestling, basketball, tennis, ice hockey, and golf are being used as a source of profit for players. Another aspect of the commercialization of sport is found in the opportunities for noted college athletes to capitalize their fame by entering the motion picture and vaudeville field.

Horse racing still continues to increase in popularity, judging from the annual increase in purses and stakes. Dog racing has recently gained a widespread following.

The most undesirable feature of commercialized sports is the strenuously promoted gambling enterprise which surrounds them.

⁹J. F. Steiner, *Americans at Play*, p. 103. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933.

POOL ROOMS AND BOWLING ALLEYS

Pool and billiard rooms were many in number and decidedly popular up to 1921 but in that year a decline set in, and in the five years following, the taxes paid by them decreased over 50 per cent. The number of bowling alleys, however, has more than doubled between 1920 and 1930. The small, ill-kept, poorly ventilated pool room and bowling alley is giving way to large, centrally located, well-equipped halls. In cities where public recreation facilities have flourished, pool rooms have had difficulty in competing. The unsavory reputation of pool rooms has been responsible also for the decline. The chief objections to them are found in the facts that they are often unsanitary and poorly ventilated, are hangouts for undesirable types of people, and headquarters for professional gamblers.

THEATRES AND MOTION PICTURES

The legitimate drama, light musical show, vaudeville, burlesque, dime museum, and Chautauqua have all been forced far into the background of the commercial picture by the motion picture. The moving picture has a tremendous influence on conduct. We have seen that mankind is suggestible and much inclined toward imitation, and the movies present life-like situations so realistically that they are an ideal form of suggestion. Probably no means of suggestion or no imitative pattern, aside from actual interaction, has such potentialities for influencing conduct. Much concern is therefore manifested over the undesirable type of pictures which are frequently shown. The motion picture is excellent recreation of its type, and it has proved frequently that it can be artistically worthy, inspiring, and uplifting. The majority of pictures, however, fall far short of these standards; in fact, many even exert a most vicious influence.

The socially undesirable aspects of the motion picture are: (1) it frequently portrays crime in a glorified light and vividly displays the techniques of the criminal; (2) it vividly and entertainingly suggests immoral conduct; (3) although often not immoral, it is frequently low, crude, coarse, and unrefined; (4) it is so frequently inane and stupid; (5) it very frequently is inartistic and contributes nothing in the way of appreciation of the fine and lofty in any field; (6) it portrays luxury and extreme wealth in such a way as to lead to dissatisfaction in his present state on the part of the average youth; (7) it paints a very undesirable and untrue picture of America to foreign countries.

Much of the objection to the motion picture is due to the fact that pictures are produced for adults, yet a great part of the audience in America is youth. There is a distinct need for children's pictures.¹⁰ A campaign of education is needed to bring pressure upon the producers for better and more wholesome pictures in general. Censorship is being used by six states, but it is generally agreed that censorship so far has been unsatisfactory and falls far short of the mark. The only adequate road to social reform is education and an aroused public opinion. Censorship of export films by the government is recommended, allowing only those pictures to be shown abroad which do credit to American culture.¹¹

The Sub-Committee on Motion Pictures and Theatres of the White House Conference made the following recommendations:

1. More "family programs" arranged by exhibitors and increased effort by producers to make available suitable pictures for such programs.
2. Continuation and extension of the work of local "better films" committees in bringing about more cooperation between exhibitors and the public in program building and in the regulation of attendance by children.
3. The further development of "public relations" activities between producers and citizens' organizations, both national and local.
4. More attention by theatrical producers to plays suitable for youth, and the arrangement of special occasions and appropriate admission prices to stimulate their attendance.
5. The encouragement by schools, recreation agencies, and churches of the organization of amateur dramatic groups, and the making available to them of leadership and facilities needed for their activities.
6. Better and more uniform legislation among the states governing the employment of children in public performances.¹²

COMMERCIAL DANCE HALLS

The small, ill-kept, and poorly supervised dance hall is giving way to the large palatial hall. There are fewer dance halls to-day than in 1915, but those that do exist are much larger in size. This has eliminated much that is undesirable in commercial dancing. There has been, in the last ten years, a decided increase in the number of taxi-dance halls, open to men only, with partners furnished by the hall. Cabarets and night clubs have also increased in number and popularity since 1920. Road houses and dance halls outside the city limits are becoming more numerous and, since they are outside the jurisdiction of the city,

¹⁰ See A. M. Mitchell, *Children and Movies*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

¹¹ See Fred Eastman, *The Menace of the Movies* (pamphlet). Chicago: The Christian Century.

¹² J. E. Rogers, *The Child and Play*, p. 111. New York: The Century Co., 1932.

they are free from regulation, and patrons are at liberty to determine their own standards of conduct.

Dancing is ever popular, and a normal, satisfying, and relaxing type of recreation. Adequate facilities under wholesome conditions will always be needed. Public recreation departments occasionally operate dance halls with admission charged, but they are immediately confronted with the same problems of control as the commercial hall.

Regulations are needed for the commercial hall regarding closing hours, admission of minors, and lighting of the hall and surroundings.

RADIO BROADCASTING

With the perfection of the radio to the point that a child can operate the controls, the vast theatre of the air, with its remarkable facilities for entertainment, is open to the average American home. Through the advertising on the part of industries, programs of outstanding entertaining value are available without cost beyond the purchasing of the radio. There has been to date no strong movement to control radio broadcasting. A great deal of criticism has been heaped upon the commercial use of the radio, however, by those who would like to see its greater use for education and cultural improvement.

AMUSEMENT PARKS

The commercially operated amusement park has long been popular in America and is still well patronized in larger cities during the summer months. In smaller cities, however, a large number of them have been abandoned.

CONCLUSION

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 theatre, music halls, and the movies can all be molded from the standpoints of art, education, and recreation; and, many amusements like pool and billiards, often 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 civilization. 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

high 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. With the increase in leisure the chances are that the community program will be inadequate for many years to come, if indeed it can ever be entirely adequate. The chances are that commercial recreation in some form or other is here to stay.

Commercial recreation cannot be expected to supply the *variety* of recreational interest that is needed or the opportunity for *participation* in such activities. Commercial recreation can provide a seat for a man to watch a baseball game, and, because this means only about four or five square feet of space, can make a profit of it. It cannot, however, provide opportunity for participation in baseball, which needs a two- or three-acre lot for eighteen players and is too expensive for profit. Similarly commercial recreation cannot afford opportunity for participation in music or drama or the great variety of activities necessary if the varying tastes of the people are to be served.

It is *participation* that is the outstanding growth-producing and educating factor in play—looking on, while entertaining, is so often negative. Says Stuart Chase: "The most rewarding forms of play, furthermore, are those in which the player participates directly with his own muscles, his own voice, his own rhythm. To exercise the faculty vicariously through the play of others, while frequently amusing enough, is far less helpful biologically. In brief, first hand is better than second hand. If this distinction is a valid one, it follows that the value of play in a given culture may be roughly appraised by the volume of its participating as against its non-participating forms. A group given to doing is on the whole having more fun, and serving its nervous system better, than a group given to watching."¹⁸ Commercialized recreation can never provide the opportunity for the masses to participate.

In general, commercial recreation needs to be controlled and elevated to more acceptable levels, and the road to reform is education, not censorship or prohibition.

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

¹⁸ Stuart Chase, "Play," Chapter in *Whither Mankind*, edited by Charles A. Beard, pp. 335-336. New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1928.

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 program; and even the exclusive clubs of privilege, in spite of the gulf between their program 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 program 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. Through the elevating of public taste and the building of an enlightened public opinion by a wide spread and progressive campaign of education, those forms which are good should be encouraged and caused to raise their standards to loftier levels, and those which are bad should be suppressed. At the same time, the influence of the undesirable forms of the commercial can be greatly diminished 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 to-day's pleasures are stronger than its temptations. Amusement is stronger than vice and can stifle the lust for it."¹⁴ It is only natural that with the ascendancy of public promotion of wholesome play we shall find that vice will gradually eliminate itself; for

¹⁴ Simon Patten, *New Basis of Civilization*, Chapter 6. The Macmillan Company, 1907.

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 interrelated with all other phases of play promotion; also that it carries a definite responsibility towards them. All are needed. The publicly controlled play program, 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 meagre beginning compared with the possibilities. The public thinks that it has contributed lavishly; but in this, as in other institutions supported by taxation, the need has been far from adequately met. This fact is only too evident when it is considered what is paid out each year in the United States for luxuries. The following table of expenditures of American consumers in 1931 is most revealing:¹⁵

	<i>Amount Spent</i>
Motor Car Expenditure	\$10,164,000,000
Motorboats and Yachts	35,000,000
Smoking	1,964,000,000
Drinks and Narcotics	2,325,000,000
Jewelry and Gadgets	450,000,000
Personal Adornment *	1,075,000,000
Confectionery and Chewing Gum	353,000,000
Theatres	1,393,000,000
Commercial Sports	203,000,000
Private Sports	570,000,000
Other Amusements †	405,000,000
Public Recreation:	
Municipalities	\$147,179,000
Counties	8,600,000
States	28,331,000
Federal	9,300,000
Total	<u>\$193,410,000</u>

* Cosmetics, barbering, hair dressing, beauty parlor service, etc.

† Circuses, carnivals, fairs, parks, dancing, cards, toys, etc.

The above amusements may be considered as conducive to personal pleasure, but the expenditures for them are so great that one is

¹⁵ With the exception of the figures on public recreation these statistics were taken from *The American Consumer Market* (Reprint from *The Business Week*, April 27 to Sept. 7, 1932), Tables 11, 12, 15. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., Inc. The public recreation expenditures are from J. F. Steiner, *Americans at Play*, p. 183. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933.

forced to the conclusion that the public recreation movement does not necessarily have to be hampered because of the excuse so often given—lack of funds.

Government is the collective agency for us all and through it democracy is now providing for its own recreational life most economically. Parks, reservations, golf courses, swimming pools, and playgrounds can be secured for most citizens of our democracy only through the collective action which government represents. Our democracy will look primarily to the school as that part of government which will educate our people so that they will have tastes and skills which will serve them in their leisure—education for the wise use of leisure. Our democracy will look to the schools, parks, and recreation commissions as the subdivisions of government to provide facilities and opportunity for the continued exercise of these recreational tastes and skills.

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CHAPTER XIV

ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC RECREATION

ALTHOUGH public recreation on a tax-supported basis is regarded primarily as a function of the municipality, we find both the federal government and the state governments in possession of facilities for recreational use by the general public.

FEDERAL RECREATIONAL FACILITIES

THE federal government in recent years has manifested an increasing interest in the advancement of public recreation and the making of facilities available to the rank and file of the people. In 1924, President Coolidge called together the National Conference of Outdoor Recreation, and in 1930 President Hoover convened the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, a conference which gave considerable attention to the advancement of play and the development of recreational facilities. Said President Coolidge: "Play for the child, sport for the youth, and recreation for adults are essentials of normal life. It is becoming generally recognized that the creation and maintenance of outdoor recreational facilities is a community duty in order that the whole public might participate in their enjoyment. This presents a particular challenge to municipal and county administrations."¹

The national parks, national forests, and national monuments constitute a recreational resource of outstanding importance. None of these areas are maintained primarily for the purpose of recreation. The national parks were established to preserve areas of scenic beauty, and new areas cannot be turned into parks unless they measure up to the standards of beauty and scenic interest set by the federal government. The national forests were established to conserve areas of valuable timber and to encourage a policy of intelligent use of timber lands.

The national parks are administered by the National Park Service, a branch of the Department of Interior; the national forests by the

¹ Letter of endorsement by Calvin Coolidge. L. H. Weir (Editor), *Parks, A Manual of Municipal and County Parks*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928.

Forest Service in the Department of Agriculture; and the national monuments by the Department of Agriculture, the National Park Service, and the Forest Service. All of the agencies are favorably disposed toward the largest possible use of these areas for recreational purposes and enjoyment by the public, provided that such use is consistent with and does not conflict with the primary purposes for which the areas were established.

There has been a movement, although not a very concerted one, for the establishment of a federal commission for the particular purpose of promoting recreation. The more common attitude is that present branches of the federal government in control of areas suitable for recreation can be coordinated in such a way as to secure the maximum use of their facilities by the public. As a general proposition, the federal government tends to look upon the administration of recreation as a function more of state, county, and municipal governments than of federal government.

STATE RECREATIONAL FACILITIES

STATE parks, forests, and game preserves offer recreational facilities widely used throughout the country. In some states these are a major recreational resource, particularly for the encouragement of camping, woodcraft, and nature lore. State governments frequently establish state tourist camps at convenient intervals along main traveled highways; these are usually larger, wilder, and more rugged areas than those maintained by cities. There has been no consistency in policy among the states as to what branch of the state government shall be responsible for the administrative control of these areas. It is variously located in forestry departments, park boards, conservation departments, fish and game commissions, and departments of public works. According to Steiner, the most recent tendency is in the direction of a more centralized control of parks, forests, and game preserves through departments of conservation. This movement toward coordination has gone forward most notably in Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, New Jersey, and California.²

There is an urgent need that state governments purchase and conserve the choice wild lands, closing them to hunting and fishing, and preserving them as beauty spots for outings for the general public. Unless the state exercises foresight these lands will rapidly fall into the hands of the wealthy for private estates, fishing clubs, and the like,

² See J. F. Steiner, *Americans at Play*, p. 170. McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1933.

and the common man will not have access to them. A situation will then exist similar to that in England where large landed estates are shut off, with the result that the masses must become poachers if they trespass upon them.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF CITY RECREATION

THE question of proper administration of public recreation in the city has been a perplexing one ever since the playground movement was inaugurated.

Many cities have maintained playgrounds where the support has come through donations of 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 many cases the authority has been vested in the school board, in other cases the park board has 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 are 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 program of its own during

the school day. Consequently, there are many who feel that it is the logical branch of government to assume the responsibility for all of the community's play.

The advocates of the school board plan advance the following reasons:

1. The school is closest to the ideal from the standpoint of location; it is already in the neighborhood, and there is no other agency that can compare with it in being in close touch with the children and neighborhood conditions.

2. Play is being increasingly looked upon as an activity of educational importance, and as such it would seem that the proper agency for its administration would be the board responsible for education in general.

3. The buildings and grounds possessed by the school board are needed in any city's recreation program. With the changing nature in school architecture and landscaping, these facilities are becoming increasingly valuable from the recreation standpoint.

4. The school is already administering a physical education program for children, which as we shall see in other connection later, is becoming increasingly a play-motivated program.

5. The curriculum of the school also contains facilities and leadership for music, art, dramatics, and handicraft—activities which are becoming an increasingly vital part of community recreational programs.

6. The teaching staff under the school board contains a high degree of specialized skill in the wide variety of the activities which constitute a recreational program, and possesses, as well, a knowledge of teaching processes and experience in handling children. From a standpoint of character and ideals, teachers possess, as a general rule, the high standards required for play leadership.

7. In the interests of economy in smaller cities, the physical education department can administer recreation by employing part-time help to fill in the out-of-school hours and the summer months. There is then no duplication of overhead expense of administration. The school board is thought by many to be the only agency acceptable for the administration of recreation in small cities where the overhead expense of separate administration is impossible.

There are many who feel, however, that the school board is not the proper agency in the community for the administration of recreation and offer the following objections:

1. A community recreation program must meet the needs of all age

stratifications in the community and is not limited to school children only. Not more than 15 per cent of the population attend school. The average school board has, in the past, been accustomed to think largely in the terms of children and their needs, and has given little attention to the problems of the pre-school and the post-school elements of the population. With the growing emphasis upon adult education as a function of the school, however, the school boards are tending to broaden their sphere and in time this objection may not be as pertinent as it is held to be at present.

2. The average school board has confined its efforts to activities which take place during school hours and has been inclined not to assume the responsibility for the out-of-school periods, such as late afternoon and evening, week-ends, and summer vacations. It is estimated that 80 per cent of community play takes place when school is not in session.

3. The average school board, thinking that its responsibility is for administration of education in the traditional sense, is inclined to include recreation in the budget as an extra item of less importance and, when reduced for any reason, the appropriation for recreation is apt to be the first to be eliminated.

4. An adequate recreational program must utilize all of the recreation facilities in the community—parks, waterfronts, churches, lodges, and various other institutions.

5. Although adult recreation may be educational, it is not regarded as necessarily so to the same extent as that of children. School teachers, because of pedagogical backgrounds and experience in the school room, frequently do not make the best leaders for adult recreation.

THE PARK BOARD

The responsibility for the administration of recreation in many cities rests with the park board. In the early days of the playground movement the park boards were a great help in sponsoring the movement. The park board possesses many facilities essential for the promotion of the recreation program, such as parks, play areas, field houses, golf courses, camping and hiking areas, bathing beaches, and swimming pools. The development and maintenance of these facilities is an important function of the park board. Park boards possess comparatively large budgets and are able to provide funds for the securing and maintenance of outdoor recreation facilities.

There is, on the other hand, considerable opposition among some

authorities to the placing of the recreational responsibility in the hands of the park board. This opposition is based on a number of reasons: first, so much of the energy of the park board is consumed by the provision and upkeep of material facilities such as landscaping, road and bridge construction, tree surgery on street trees, the upkeep of zoological gardens, zoos, and the like, that minor attention only is apt to be given to the development of a program and the provision and training of leadership. Recreation, after all, is primarily a question of activities and leadership. Facilities are essential only as they make the program possible.

A second objection to the use of park boards is that they, like school boards, think in terms of their own properties and are unaccustomed to the promotion of activities in school buildings, churches, lodges, and other available resources. Furthermore, park boards as a rule do not have adequate indoor facilities and, as a result, either no worthy indoor program is carried on, or field houses are constructed in parks, necessitating a costly duplication of buildings inasmuch as the school buildings are already in the community. In very few cities have school buildings been turned over to park boards in which to conduct a recreational program. The experience in America has indicated that school boards are less likely to turn their facilities over to a park board than to an independent recreation commission upon which they are represented.

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. 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 RECREATION BOARD

There is a distinct tendency in America to-day, especially in large cities, toward the use of a separate recreation board plan—the creation of a board composed of individuals having an interest in and an appreciation of both school and park objectives—which will have administrative authority over all recreation activities. Owing to the wide range of activities which it is necessary for an administrative body to carry on and the many agencies which must be coordinated in an adequate community recreation project, it is felt by many that a separate recreation board or commission can hope to achieve better results than either park or school boards. Such a board uses facilities provided by the park, the school, the street, the waterfront, and any other municipal board or department having equipment it needs, as well as special facilities secured for its own use or loaned to it by private groups. It utilizes these facilities in conformity with a city-wide plan designed primarily for the promotion of recreation, and recreation is thus never a side issue with it. Members of the board may be elected, but are much more frequently appointed by the mayor or city commission. They have the same relation toward the director of recreation as does the school board toward the superintendent of schools.

The advantages of a recreation board as the administrative authority of recreation have been stated by the National Recreation Association as follows:

(1) A recreation board provides a coordinating body on which representation may be secured of all groups whose property must be used in the operation of an economical recreation system. The appointment on the board of representatives of school and park boards provides the machinery for such cooperation. Through a recreation board in this manner all the resources of all the departments of the city may be harmoniously utilized.

(2) Boards appointed for other purposes are usually already loaded with work and find it difficult to give recreation interests adequate attention.

(3) The members of a recreation board are selected with the thought of recreation in mind; other boards are selected primarily for other purposes.

(4) A city recreation program is not confined to any special facilities, ages, localities, or groups but involves the helping of all people in the city to use their leisure time with the greatest pleasure and profit. No existing city department

was created for the purpose, or has the means of rendering this particular service, hence the need for a special commission.

(5) It is easier to secure an adequate appropriation for recreation if the question of the appropriation is not confused by being combined with that of a large appropriation for, say, boulevards or industrial education.

(6) A separate recreation commission, appointed for the sole purpose of studying recreation needs and meeting these needs, can more readily be held responsible.

(7) The recreation interests are likely to be kept more permanently before the community if a separate board with an efficient superintendent of recreation is at work.

(8) The problems of recreation in a city are so large and varied as to require the individual attention of the strongest possible municipal board, needing all the time and energy the members of an unpaid board can give. The superintendent of recreation in a city needs the hearty support of such a group of public-spirited citizens, able to give careful attention to all the intricate and vital problems involved in a comprehensive municipal recreation system.

The objection most commonly raised to the creation of a playground and recreation commission is that doing so sets up another city department, thereby adding to the already complicated municipal government. It is also claimed that duplication results due to setting up new administrative machinery. The inadvisability of creating a department with little if any property, to conduct a program on properties controlled by other departments, is also argued.³

When local traditions and conditions permit, the recreation board plan seems quite ideal in large cities. Small cities, however, are unable to finance the overhead expense involved in a separate administrative machinery. In these communities one of the other plans may be more practical, and the choice of the school board as the directing agency has met with much favor.

THE COMBINATION PLAN

Many cities are using a combination of two or more of the three agencies—park, school, and recreation commission. These commissions are combined in various ways in different cities, but the combination of the school and recreation commission is the more common.

The reason for such combinations is that the specialized skill of each department is needed. The park commission is needed for the landscaping, gardening, and layout function; and the recreation commission or the school board contributes a specialized skill in the direction of activities. Unless very carefully organized, such a system is apt to carry with it considerable duplication of effort and involve constant overlapping and friction between two different departments.

³ *Administration of City Recreation*, Bulletin No. 21. New York: National Recreation Association, February, 1933.

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

Occasionally other agencies of government are responsible for recreation, such as the department of public works, department of public welfare, department of finance and revenue, water departments, departments of public safety, swimming pool commissions, departments of public property and buildings, mayors, city councils, and city managers.

NO UNIFORM PLAN POSSIBLE

The plan of administration of recreation in any city must depend upon local conditions in that city. It is possible to point out cities where park boards are administering recreation with outstanding success. On the other hand there are cities where the park board's efforts in this direction have been a distinct failure. It is likewise possible to point out examples where the school board has administered recreation with conspicuous merit, and, on the other hand, there are examples where the school board has failed.

In studying the problems of a given city, it may be found that the park board is steeped in politics, or is possessed of leadership with no enthusiasm whatever for recreation. To place that responsibility in the hands of such a board might very easily mean permanent disaster for the cause of recreation in that community. On the other hand, the school board may be extremely conservative in its attitude, and very reluctant to give leadership to the newer recreation movement; or it may be over-burdened with responsibility and not possessed of enough funds to adequately administer the school curriculum, let alone to take on the added burden of public recreation. To advocate dogmatically that the school board is the agency to administer recreation might easily result in disappointment here. To wait for a liberalized attitude on the part of the school might mean the postponement, for many years, of the establishment of an adequate program.

Any plan of recreation which does not make the fullest possible use of its school and park facilities for recreation must of necessity fall short of meeting the problem in fullest effectiveness. The church, also, possesses many facilities and resources that the community needs for recreation. Many industries supply recreational facilities which are often made available to the community at large. A cooperative plan is needed, bringing into play and coordinating all of the resources in the community, seeking the enthusiastic contribution of every possible

institution. With this in mind, some cities have found it more effective to use a separate commission in which all of the resources of the community are represented.

The point in the above discussion is that no uniform plan can be advocated for every city in America. The plan can be arrived at only after a careful study of local conditions. H. S. Braucher, Secretary of the National Recreation Association, well states the situation from the standpoint of the best welfare of the program: "Instead of trying to make one uniform plan throughout the length and breadth of the land, the Association has advocated using all the existing facilities in a city for recreation, making sure that each community has at least one well-trained, experienced recreation executive and that there is an adequate plan of cooperation between different groups that are conducting play, that all available recreation resources, whether in schools or parks or elsewhere, are utilized."⁴

ESSENTIALS OF COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

As we have seen, the exact type of organization for recreational ends will depend, to no small extent, upon local conditions in each community. Regardless of local conditions, however, there are several essential principles which must be safeguarded:

1. *A Responsible Board of Control.* A board, commission, or other definite organized group should be placed in control of the community's recreation with the responsibility and power to give continuous and undivided attention to the study of the leisure-time problems of all elements of the city and to work out the most effective means of solving them. Such a board should contain representatives of both the school board and the park commission, inasmuch as both school and park property is essential to an adequate and comprehensive program. In the pursuit of continuity in planning, it is recommended that the terms of office of the members overlap so that not more than one or two expire each year.

2. *A Trained Executive.* A full-time executive, with a broad social education, thoroughly trained in the administration of recreation, should be employed to direct the program. This task will require all of the time and energies of such an executive and, in an organization of any size, a number of assistants and specialists will be required. In many cities the director of recreation is also required to supervise the

⁴ From a letter to the authors from H. S. Braucher of the National Recreation Association.

physical education curriculum of the school or to give attention to other city functions, but nothing is more obvious than the fact that an adequate recreational program will require all of the executive's energies and that very rarely, if ever, will one man be able to do justice to the program if his attention must be divided.

3. *A Definite Budget.* A definite budget, set aside for recreational purposes only, is to be desired. Adequate recreational planning must take a long view into the future and, with this in mind, many cities have voted a mill tax for recreational purposes, thus assuring the board of a relatively definite amount of money upon which they can rely each year. Unless the director knows what he may expect next year and the year following he cannot plan with any degree of security. Without a definite budget usable for recreation only, the funds are apt to be diverted into other channels in times of financial emergency. In some cities, a percentage of the park or school budget is definitely set aside for recreation.

4. *All Suitable City-Owned Property Should be Available.* A comprehensive program requires the use of all available properties in the city, regardless of what branch of city government may have jurisdiction over them. It is desirable that a plan should be worked out between the board responsible for recreation and the various departments controlling suitable properties so that the full use of these properties may be possible for recreational ends.

5. *A Varied and Comprehensive Program.* The primary consideration should be a vital, compelling, challenging program of recreational activities, suitable to meet the needs of all elements and age stratifications in the city. All too often, the tendency is to think in terms of the upkeep of property rather than of the success of the activities. While facilities are essential, and administrative routine necessary, it is through the program that the objectives of recreation are accomplished. Behind the program is, of course, leadership.

With the above features safeguarded under an organization which coordinates and integrates all branches of city government having facilities for recreation and which provides an executive of vision and tact, the recreational needs of the community will be well met.

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CHAPTER XV

THE PLAY CENTER

THE term "play center" is variously used to include the school ground, municipal playground, 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 as particularly important in connection with our discussion of organized play. The first of these is the playground and playfield 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 program 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 PLAYGROUND AND PLAYFIELD

Good city planning calls for a variety of outdoor play areas which fall under the following types:

- 1.—*Home play yards*, such as backyards, porches and roofs.
- 2.—*Play lots* or playgrounds for children of preschool age. These may be sections of larger play areas, or may be courts within apartment buildings, or roofs.
- 3.—*Playgrounds*—neighborhood play areas for boys and girls up to fourteen years of age.
- 4.—*Playfields*—neighborhood play areas primarily for youth over fourteen and adults, equipped with athletic fields for organized sports and games.
- 5.—*Parks*—primarily landscaped areas, but which frequently provide play facilities for children and adults.
- 6.—*Reservations*—large areas in outlying districts for camping, picnicking, woodcraft, nature lore, and the like.¹

In this section we shall discuss the playground accommodating

¹ See play space objectives recommended by the Committee on Recreation and Physical Education of the White House Conference, as recorded by J. E. Rogers, *The Child and Play*, p. 151. New York: The Century Co., 1932.

children up to fourteen years of age and the playfield for young people over fourteen and adults.

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.

SPACE FOR PLAYGROUNDS

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.

In the congested areas of cities it is frequently necessary to use very small playgrounds, often as small as one acre. These are, of course, better than nothing, but their use must be limited to children twelve years of age and under. Areas of four to five acres, while too small for a complete playground, will meet average needs quite acceptably. Playfields call for considerably more space. Children need ample space

for their games, and areas of such size should be provided that apparatus is not crowded and the various playing groups are separated adequately from each other.

The following table prepared by the National Recreation Association suggests the amount of space needed for the apparatus commonly used on playgrounds.²

Type of Apparatus	Dimensions of Length in Feet	Apparatus Height in Feet	Approximate Use Space Requirements in Feet	Space in Square Feet
Circular Traveling Rings....	10 diam.	12	25 diam.	490
Giant Stride.....	12	32 diam.	804
Horizontal Bar.....	6	6-8	12 X 20	240
Horizontal Ladder.....	16	7-7½	8 X 24	192
Merry-go-round.....	10 diam.	30 diam.	707
Sand Box.....	Size and shape varies, 6 X 10 to 12 X 20	12 X 16 to 18 X 30	
Slide.....	16	8	12 X 30	360
Gang Slide.....	16	8	20 X 45	900
Racer Slide.....	16	8	20 X 30	600
Kindergarten Slide.....	8	4½	8 X 20	160
Swings—set of 3.....	15 at top	12	30 X 35	1,050
Swings—set of 3.....	12-15 at top	10	25 X 25	625
Swings—set of 6.....	30 at top	12	30 X 50	1,500
Chair Swings—set of 3.....	10	8	20 X 20	400
Scup Swings—set of 3.....	10	8	15 X 20	300
Teeters—set of 4.....	12-16	2	20 X 20	200
Traveling Rings—set of 6...	40 at top	12-14	20 X 60	1,200

Junglegyms are not included in the above table; the usual types require a space 12 by 15 feet in size, or 180 square feet.

The total space required for the apparatus referred to in the table is 9,728 square feet.

It is desirable to have safety zones around all apparatus, especially if it is of the revolving or swinging type, and all equipment should be placed at least 15 feet away from buildings, fences, and other apparatus.

In determining the amount of play space needed for school grounds Strayer and Engelhardt have given the following:

- 10,000 square feet for less than 100 pupils
- 4,000 square feet for the next 100 pupils
- 4,000 square feet for each additional 100 pupils

The space required for organized games and sports on children's playgrounds is indicated in the table shown on the opposite page.³

The total space required for the games and sports given is 286,563 square feet, or slightly over six and a half acres.

² National Recreation Association, *Play Areas*, p. 23. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928.

³ National Recreation Association, *Play Areas*, p. 72. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928.

Name	Dimensions of Play Areas	Use Dimensions	Space Required (Sq. Ft.)	Number of Players
Baseball	75' diamond	250' X 250'	62,500	18
Basketball	35' X 60'	50' X 75'	3,750	10-12
Clock Golf	Circle 20' to 24' in diameter	30' circle	706	any number (4-8)
Croquet	30' X 60'	30' X 60'	1,800	any number (4-8)
Field Hockey	150' X 270'	150' X 330'	49,500	22
Football	160' X 360'	180' X 420'	75,600	22
Handball	20' X 30'	35' X 40'	1,400	2 or 4
Horseshoe Pitching	stakes 30' apart	10' X 40'	400	2 or 4
Paddle Tennis	18' X 39'	26' X 57'	1,482	2 or 4
Playground Ball	45' diamond	125' X 125'	15,625	20
	35' diamond	100' X 100'	10,000	
Soccer	150' X 300'	150' X 360'	54,000	22
Tennis	27' X 78' (single)			
	36' X 78' (double)	50' X 120'	6,000	2 or 4
Tether Tennis	Circle 6' in diam.	20' X 20'	400	2
Volley Ball	25' X 50'	40' X 60'	2,400	12-16

SPACE FOR PLAYFIELDS

Playfields are considered as areas for children over fourteen years of age and adults, where official athletic fields for organized sports and games are maintained. Older players, of course, need more play space than do the younger ones. Strayer and Engelhardt maintain that "no site of less than 10 or 12 acres will suffice for girls' play fields, boys' athletic fields, tennis courts, basketball courts, volleyball courts, experimental gardens, proper placement of buildings, and give desirable landscape setting. In large cities, larger areas should be secured so as to make possible an athletic field, separate buildings for gymnasiums, baths, dressing rooms, shops, and the like."⁴

On playfields which are to include playgrounds for younger children, Weir suggests the following allotment of space:⁵

Playfield of 10 acres.

- a. Space for children's playground, about 2 acres
- b. Space for women's and girls' athletic field, about 2 acres
- c. Space for men's and boys' athletic field, about 4 acres
- d. Space for small park, about 1 acre
- e. Space for community house, swimming pool, and additional parking, about 1 acre

Playfield of 20 acres:

- a. For children's playground, about 3 acres
- b. For women's and girls' athletic field, about 4 acres
- c. For men's and boys' athletic field, about 6 acres
- d. For park and parking, about 6 acres
- e. For site for community house and swimming pool and grounds adjacent, about 1 acre

⁴ G. D. Strayer and N. L. Engelhardt, *Standards for High School Buildings*, p. 10. New York: School of Education, Columbia University.

⁵ L. H. Weir, *A Manual of Municipal and County Parks*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928.

The space requirements for organized games and sports commonly found on playfields are stated in the following table:⁶

Name	Dimensions of Play Areas	Use Dimensions	Space Required (Sq. Ft.)	Number of Players
Baseball.....	90' diamond	300' X 325' (or more)	97,500	18
Basketball.....	50' X 94' (max.) 35' X 60' (min.)	60' X 100' (average)	6,000	10
Basketball (Women's) ..	45' X 90'	50' X 100'	5,000	12-18
Boccie.....	18' X 62'	30' X 70'	2,100	2-4
*Bowling Green.....	14' X 110' (1 alley)	120' X 120'	14,400	32-64
Clock Golf.....	circle 20'-24' in diameter	30' circle	706	any number (4-8)
Cricket.....	wickets 66' apart	420' circle	138,545	22
Croquet.....	30' X 60'	30' X 60'	1,800	any number (4-8)
Field Hockey.....	150' X 270' (min.) 180' X 300' (max.)	180' X 330' (average)	59,400	22
Football.....	160' X 360'	180' X 420'	75,600	22
Handball.....	20' X 34'	40' X 50'	2,000	2 or 4
Hand Tennis.....	16' X 40'	25' X 50'	1,250	2 or 4
Horseshoe Pitching.....	stakes 40' apart	10' X 50'	500	2 or 4
Lacrosse.....	210' X 450' (min.) 255' X 540' (max.)	250' X 500' (average)	125,000	24
Paddle Tennis.....	18' X 39'	30' X 60'	1,800	2 or 4
Playground Ball.....	35' or 45' diam.	150' X 150' (or more)	22,500	20
Polo.....	600' X 960'	600' X 960'	576,000	8
Quoits.....	stakes 54' apart	25' X 80'	2,000	2 or 4
Roque.....	30' X 60'	30' X 60'	1,800	4
Shuffleboard.....	10' X 40' to 50'	15' X 50' (or longer)	750	2 or 4
Soccer.....	150' X 300' (min.) 300' X 390' (max.)	210' X 360' (average)	75,600	22
Tennis.....	27' X 78' (single) 36' X 78' (double) 60' X 120' 7,200	2 4
Tether Tennis.....	circle 6' in diam.	20' X 20'	400	2
Volley Ball.....	30' X 60'	50' X 80'	4,000	12-16

* Most bowling greens in public recreation areas are 120' X 120' which provide 8 alleys. The amount of space required for a single alley would be 20' X 120'.

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, 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.

⁶ National Recreation Association, *Play Areas*, p. 73. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928.

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 on children's playgrounds, 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 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.

The areas for the younger children should be divided into the following divisions: (1) small areas, secluded if possible, and well protected for the use of children under six years of age; (2) areas for apparatus; (3) space for free play, for simple play activities—running games, and the like; (4) shaded areas for quiet games, handicraft, story telling, and so forth.

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 takes but little more 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 will 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 leader'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. 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. In such a situation, any fence, unless a hedge, tends to detract from the appearance of the park as a whole.

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 backstop for the particular game, it may be necessary to build up additions on top of the regular fence. Tennis and baseball backstops of adequate height are not only necessary for the convenience of the players but for the protection of neighboring property; citizens are frequently much annoyed by players running across their lawns and gardens for balls.

GRADING

The playground surface must be level, therefore the grading problem must be given consideration. 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. Following heavy rains, however, the water will wash out the ground and leave gullies.

The problem of grading is a technical one requiring a lengthy discussion to handle it adequately. Further than these few general principles, we cannot go. Those who are confronted with play areas needing much grading should consult more technical material.⁷

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-round 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, handicraft areas, 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 volleyball, newcomb, tennis, and playground ball are played, require a much 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, or treated with calcium chloride. 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.

Many playgrounds have had excellent success with "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 watered 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.

Surfaces of gravel, cinders, or concrete, such as are sometimes found, are very objectionable. The loose gravel makes an unsure foot-

⁷ See National Recreation Association, *Play Areas, Their Design and Equipment*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928.

ing, and children are tempted to throw the stones. Cinders lead to injuries when players fall. 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.

A committee of the Chicago Board of Education on the surfacing of playgrounds made the following recommendations in 1924:⁸

1. The Committee condemns the use of cinders for surfacing either on playgrounds or school grounds used for play purposes.
2. Future playgrounds should be crowned to drain to the side, rather than the present method of draining to the center.
3. In the case of playgrounds now constructed in which cinders combine or compose the major portion, the cinders should either be removed or regraded to permit not less than a 4-inch coating of yellow clay to be properly rolled and surfaced with torpedo sand. The use of yellow clay with a sticky texture is preferred.
4. In the case of new playgrounds to be constructed, they should be excavated, if necessary, 14 inches and filled with at least 6 inches of cinders, properly rolled, and 6 inches of yellow clay, properly rolled; surfaced with torpedo sand and drained to the side. The subgrade upon which the cinders rest should be parallel to the finished grade.
5. All grounds should be treated at least twice a year with a solution of calcium chloride, approximately $\frac{1}{4}$ gallon to the square yard (liquid form).

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 cinders with loam (approximately three to one). This is placed over a porous surface such as crushed brick, stone, and so forth, and then watered and tamped. Tennis courts need very careful construction. Clay courts are the best all-round practical ones. They are the most easily constructed 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. Handball and paddle tennis courts are made of asphalt. For volleyball and basketball courts a mixture of asphalt, gravel, and clay is recommended.

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

⁸ National Recreation Association, *Play Areas*. pp. 98, 99. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928.

should be swept carefully before sprinkling, and any open cracks filled up with snow.⁹

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 volleyball, playground 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. Modern lighting facilities have simplified the problem, and lighted tennis courts are common in many cities. Baseball and football are being very successfully played at night. 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 tend to congregate 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

⁹ For more complete discussion of surfacing, see National Recreation Association, *Play Areas*, New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1928.

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
 Volleyball
 Handball
 Basketball
 Croquet
 Tetherball
 Quoits or horse-shoes
 Paddle tennis
 Badminton

Play apparatus

Swings
 Sand bin
 Giant stride
 Horizontal bar
 Seesaws
 Slides
 Teeter ladders
 Parallel bars
 Traveling rings
 Swinging rings
 Merry-go-round
 Balancing board
 Sliding pole
 Vaulting horses
 Jungle gym
 Horizontal ladder

Play supplies

Balls for games
 Playground ball
 Basketball
 Volleyball
 Baseball
 Football
 Cageball
 Tennis
 Handball
 Hockey (field)
 Water polo
 Tetherball
 Bounceball
 Vaulting standards
 Measuring tape
 Quoits
 Horseshoes
 Croquet sets
 Boxing gloves

Bean bags
 Ring toss
 Target board
 Medicine ball
 Handicraft materials
 Bows
 Arrows
 Archery target
 Darts
 Dart targets
 Golf cage and net
 Shots
 Badminton racquets

Miscellaneous supplies

First-aid outfit
 Repair kit
 Benches
 Tools for maintenance
 Roller
 Marker
 Equipment chest
 Awnings
 Attendance blanks
 Prizes
 Cards for tests
 Inflators
 Lacing needles
 Lime
 Megaphones
 Whistles
 Starting guns
 Blank cartridges
 Stop watches

GROUND FACILITIES

Field House: The field house is found on many playgrounds nowadays. 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. Separate dressing accommodations for the two sexes must also be provided. These bath houses should be carefully constructed of durable material.

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 life guard is there for immediate service. The life guard 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 represent the popular preference: swings, sandbox, giant stride, horizontal bar, tecters, 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. Two sand bins should be provided, one for older and one for younger children.

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 appeal to the natural desire of the child to 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.

ATTENDANCE

ATTENDANCE blanks should be used 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. Statistics regarding attendance should be for home use only. It is unwise to attempt to compare the attendance of one city with another, or to attempt to stimulate attendance on the playgrounds by publishing the attendance records of the different playgrounds in a city. Such tactics only lead to the padding of attendance records. 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, dodgeball, 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 program, and can be the center of many healthful activities. Its situation is usually 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 SCHOOL BUILDING AS A PLAY CENTER

THE playfield 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 as a center for play of the physical type differs from the playground in several respects: first, play is only a part of a wide curriculum; second, play attendance is often compulsory; third, the play is regulated 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 program 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 program 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.

Certain facilities are needed to conduct play in the school building. Of course the kindergarten room is a playroom. Then, too, the classrooms 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 50 by 90 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 the following play material:

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, stall bars, traveling rings. (All attached apparatus should be removable.)

Game Material—Basketball, volleyball, indoor baseball, medicine ball, boxing gloves. Courts should be marked off for basketball, volleyball, indoor baseball, handball, badminton, and tennis if possible.

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

Additional Material—Balance beams, 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 references given in the list at the close of the chapter.

The indoor swimming pool is usually smaller than the one found on the playground. The average size is 30 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.

In addition to the physical type of play, the school also has facilities and leadership for other rich play activities, such as music, dramatics, story telling, arts and crafts, and nature lore. The classroom work in these activities, if they are handled in a worthy way educationally, will take on the aspects of play. Aside from their use in the regular curriculum, these activities constitute no small part of the extracurricular program and are the source of countless hobby groups. Handled in this way, these activities carry over into the home and furnish material for home and club play activity.

WIDER PLAY USE OF THE SCHOOL

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.¹⁰

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.

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. In 1911, the National Education Association approved this wide use of the school. 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.

In recent years one of the outstanding developments in the larger use of the school has been in Milwaukee, a city which long prided itself as the *City of Lighted School Houses*. Its Board of Education distributes an advertising folder annually inviting the public to "invest your time to advantage; your lighted school house offers you many enjoyable and profitable opportunities—make your winter evenings count."

The increased use of the school building has tended to give Boards of Education a closer insight and sympathy regarding 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

¹⁰ C. A. Perry, *Wider Use of the School Plans*, p. 272. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1910.

give a place of increased importance in the curriculum to such activities as 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 school plant, under these circumstances, becomes the dwelling place for a large community family.

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.

THE PROGRAM OF ACTIVITIES

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.

Recreational.—The recreational group consists of the active physical exercises and games that are found in the gymnasium, of swimming, of bowling if alleys are available, of games of skill like pool and billiards, and of mental contest games like checkers and cards. A prejudice often exists against games like bowling, billiards, and pool because of the surroundings with which they are so often associated; but these amusements in themselves are very scientific and fascinating and can be made a wholesome influence when properly conducted. A suggestive list of possible recreational activities follows:

Basketball	Indoor baseball
Nine court basketball (women)	Volleyball
Captain basketball	Newcomb

Gymnastics	Hand tennis
Calisthenics	Paddle tennis
Apparatus	Table tennis
Swimming	Shuffleboard
Longball	Deck tennis
Pinball	Dart throwing
Endball	Bowling
Badminton	Roller skating
Relay races	Rope jumping
Active group games	Folk dancing
Centerball	Pool
Squash	Billiards
Handball	Checkers
Codeball	Dominoes
Boxing	Chess
Wrestling	Cards
Tennis (indoor)	

Social.—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:

Motion pictures	Boys' and girls' clubs
Social dancing	Adult clubs
Social dramatic activities	Parties
Social games	Fun nights
Folk dancing	Banquets
Social music activities	Bridge and other card clubs
Community celebrations	Community sings
Holiday and special play celebrations	

The success of fun evenings of this type 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 program for it arouses a friendly spirit. In the case of the moving pictures 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.

Educational.—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.

The following list suggests the type of activities that fall under the educational group:¹¹

Dramatic

Elementary dramatic expression:

Dramatic games

Pantomimes—simple character im-
personations

Drama tournaments

Charades

Dramatic stunts

Story telling and story acting

Community drama:

One act and full length plays

Minstrel shows

Vaudeville entertainments

Play making

Pageantry

Religious drama

Educational plays:

Safety—Health—Thrift

Historical—Mythological

Music

Community singing

Community choruses

Community concerts

Glee clubs

Orchestras and bands

Musical competition—vocal and
instrumental

Music festivals

Toy symphonies

Ukelele playing

Harmonica playing

Easter music

Christmas music

Community opera

Music memory contests

Music weeks

Oratorios

Creative and Constructive Activities

Sand box play

Handicraft (see Chapter VI)

Paper work

Sewing, knitting, etc.

Cooking and domestic science

Art

Community art exhibits

Painting

Sketching

Plastic art

Photography

Linguistic

Reading

Debating

Forums

Public speaking

Lectures

¹¹ Many of these activities were taken from mimeographed bulletins of the National Recreation Association.

Civic.—The civic group includes all activities of a civic, social, or patriotic nature. The following list suggests a few of the possibilities:

- Public forums
- Lectures on current topics
- Historical pageants
- Dramatic activities
- Holiday celebrations
- Citizenship classes
- Participation of immigrants in community activities
- Industrial and civic inspection trips
- Civic improvement societies
- Service to community
- Welfare campaigns
- Parent-teacher associations

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 classrooms 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 their special field of usefulness.

ADMINISTRATION

In the early days the community center (often called "social center" or "neighborhood center") fell decidedly behind the playground in efficiency, but with experience it has improved its administration and program. The problem of the choice and extent of leadership for the community center, however, has not been easily 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 program 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.

Two systems have been followed here: (1) to place the responsibility in the hands of the school principal and his staff; and (2) to turn the building over to a special staff supplied by the community recreation office or by some social agency, as is the case in the Anthony Wayne Experiment in Cleveland, in which Hiram House, a social settlement, supplies the leadership and takes possession of the school from 3:00 P.M. until 11:00 P.M.

Where the first system has been used, 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.

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 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 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 program. He could find additional help for special work like music, dramatics, debating, and so forth, by an arrangement with the respective day school teachers,

who then, however, should be relieved of some of their other work in order to retain sufficient energy for the evening duties.

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.

When the second plan is followed and the control of the school building 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 program, 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.

When an experienced and thoroughly competent director of community recreation is placed in charge of the school center, however, there is no reason why this second plan should not work very successfully, and it has worked successfully when these conditions have been met. The director of the center must have the whole-hearted and enthusiastic cooperation of the principal of the school, for without this his work will be severely handicapped. Neither the director of the center nor the principal must regard his work as separate and distinct from the work of the other; both lines of activity are aspects of the same process—the enrichment of the entire life of the community and the solving of its social needs.

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 program 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.

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 program. 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 programs of the playground and community play building, when combined, make an attractive offering. There is no better way of explaining the working of a program 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 program is taken from the Annual Playground Reports and the Activities Program Bulletin for 1933:

Month	Events Required of All Park Centers		Events Suggested and Optional, Promoted Locally
	Promoted Through the Department Office	Promoted by Local Park Staff	
JANUARY	<p><i>Inter-Park Competition:</i> Basket ball: 85%, 95%, 105%, 115%, 125%, 135%, and Unlim- ited Divisions Women's Volley Ball: A, B, C, D, E and Married Women Grammar Schools Basket ball Inter-Park Skating Meet Ice Boat Races</p>	<p>Winter Carnival: Snow Sports Sled Races Snowball Target Shooting Out-of-Doors Day Skating Preliminaries Snowman Contests</p>	<p>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</p>
FEBRUARY	<p><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 Womens Gymnastic Meet</p>	<p>Valentine Making and Party Holiday Celebrations: Lincoln's Birthday Washington's Birthday</p>	<p>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</p>
MARCH	<p><i>Inter-Park Competition:</i> Girls' Volley Ball, Con't. Basket ball, Con't. Wrestling Tournament: 100%, 107%, 115%, 125%, 135%, 145%, 158%, 175%, Heavyweight 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 Basketball Tests</p>	<p>Gymnasium Exhibitions Wrestling Preliminaries Marbles Tournament Indoor Pentathlon (Preliminaries)</p>	<p>Table Tennis Tournament Indoor Quoits Tournament Sewing and Fancy Work Exhibit St. Patrick's Day Programme 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</p>
APRIL	<p><i>Inter-Park Competition:</i> Skipmobile Tournament Kiddie Car Races Boys Volley Ball Tournament, Con't. Seniors Volley Ball Tourna- ment, 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 Marbles Tournament Indoor Model Airplane Meet</p>	<p>Gymnasium Exhibitions, Con't. Indoor Track Preliminaries Roller Skate Preliminaries Skipmobile Preliminaries Doll Day, Competitive Car- riage Parade Dressmaking Exhibit Doll House Exhibit Paper Doll Exhibit Doll Baby Show Doll House Furnishings Doll Drama, etc. Clothespin Doll Dressmak- ing Contest</p>	<p>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 Ex- hibit</p>
MAY	<p>Baseball Tournament Grammar Schools, Public and Parochial Kite Tournament Marbles Tournament Croquet Tournament Doll House Exhibition Folk Dance Contest Roller Skating Tournament Girls' Volley Ball Tests Boys' Playground Ball Tests</p>	<p>Preliminary Kite Tournament Annual Exhibitions, Con't. May-Basket Exhibit</p>	<p>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</p>

Month	Events Required of All Park Centers		Events Suggested and Optional, Promoted Locally
	Promoted Through the Department Office	Promoted by Local Park Staff	
JUNE	Baseball Tournament, Continued Playground Baseball, Boys: 75%, 85%, 95%, 105%, 120% Divisions Playground Baseball, Girls Jr. Inter., Sr. City Play Festival South Park Play Festival Summer Instructors Institute Volunteer Leaders Institute Junior Boys Outdoor Track	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	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 Boys Tennis Boys' Track and Field, Inter. and Sr. Girls' Track and Field Jr., Inter. and Sr. Outdoor Airplane Meet	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
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 Boys' Horseshoes, Jr., Inter. and Sr. Girls' Jackstones	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 Sings 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 Venetian Night Model Yacht Regatta Boys' 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 Girls' Doll Exhibit	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

Month	Events Required of All Park Centers		Events Suggested and Optional, Promoted Locally
	Promoted Through the Department Office	Promoted by Local Park Staff	
OCTOBER	<p><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 Touch Football, Jr. and Inter. Puppet Shows Football Tests</p>	<p>Pushmobile Preliminaries Halloween Parade: Novel, Amusing and Artistic Costumes</p>	<p>Community Bicycle Trip Roosevelt Anniversary Home Gardens Exhibit Home Arts Exhibit Community Nights Hoop Rolling Tournament Pleasant Sunday Afternoons Nutrition and Dietetics Courses Forum Movies Home Nursing Course Columbus Day Celebration Citizenship Week Dog and Cart Races Candy Making Contests Cake Making Contest</p>
NOVEMBER	<p><i>Inter-Park Competition:</i> Soccer, Continued</p> <p><i>Schools:</i> Girls' Volley Ball, Con't. Boys' Soccer, Con't. Cross Country Race Model Motor Boat Races Model Airplane Races Photographic Exhibit Table Tennis Tournament Checker Tournament Boys and Girls, Jr., Inter, Sr.</p>	<p>"Come and See" Day Armistice Day Celebrations Toy Making Contests</p>	<p>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</p>
DECEMBER	<p><i>Schools:</i> Girls' Volley Ball, Con't. Boys' Soccer, Con't. Spelling Match</p>	<p>Christmas Celebrations Community Tree Community Caroling, etc.</p>	<p>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</p>

Such a program 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; furthermore, the adaptation to seasonal use offers practical help to the playground worker.

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CHAPTER XVI

BOYS' AND GIRLS' CLUBS

GROUP work organizations are playing a larger and larger part in the leisure-time life of youth in America. The development of this type of work is largely a contribution of the past thirty years. The Young Men's Christian Association was started in Boston in 1851, the Boys' Club of Hartford, Connecticut, was organized in 1860, and the Young Women's Christian Association came into being in America in Boston in 1866. The first American social settlement was opened in New York in 1886. Not until much later, however, did any of these organizations set forth a program of recreational-educational work for boys' and girls' work as we think of it to-day. The first program of this type appeared in 1901 in Ernest Thompson Seton's Woodcraft Indians. The Boy Scouts started in England in 1908 and were organized in America in 1910; the Camp Fire Girls followed in 1911, and the Girl Scouts in 1912.

As we have seen before, the organizations of this type to-day are many in number, a list of the leading ones of national scope being as follows: The Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, the Young Men's and Young Women's Hebrew Associations, the Knights of Columbus, the Pioneer Youth of America, Big Brother and Big Sister Federation, Inc., Boys' Club Federation of America, Camp Fire Girls, Inc., Four-H Clubs, Junior Achievement, Junior Red Cross, Knighthood of Youth, Girls' Friendly Society, Sportsmanship Brotherhood, Boy Rangers of America, and the Woodcraft League of America.

TYPES OF CLUB ORGANIZATION

VARIOUS types of club organization are used in play centers, community centers, settlements, schools, and the like. Directors differ in their preferences in this respect. There are in general four types of organization in common use to-day: (1) Mass clubs. (2) Mass clubs with interest groups. (3) Small clubs or gang clubs. (4) Combinations of these types.

Mass clubs consist of large numbers of individuals united in one

large club. Such clubs are usually built on age stratifications, throwing all the members of a certain age span together in one club. Thus we have a common classification into midgets, juniors, intermediates, and seniors. Leaders often feel that children under ten or twelve years of age are too individualistic for small clubs of the gang type and thus prefer mass clubs for them. The program in these clubs is of necessity limited to mass activities and entertainment. This type of organization is frequently seen in settlements, boys' clubs, community centers, and the Christian associations.

In the *second type* of organization, a mass club is formed for certain activities, with its members being affiliated also with small sectional clubs or interest and hobby groups. Thus in community centers, Christian associations, and playgrounds we frequently find a mass club for certain ages for such activities as swimming, gymnasium, and physical games, while at the same time each member belongs to a small hobby club or interest group for craft work, nature lore, music, story telling, discussion, or some similar interest.

The *small club* or *gang club* brings together a few individuals with common interests and loyalties. The usual procedure is to build around a natural gang which already is united and integrated, thus utilizing loyalties already existing. Such a club has considerable solidarity to begin with, and all that is needed is to provide leadership to assist in guiding toward a constructive program. It is frequently necessary, however, to bring together into a club scattered individuals who had no common relationships in the past, and develop them into an organization with stability and solidarity.

Combinations of these plans are frequently found. The Boy Scouts, for instance, unite three or four patrols of eight boys, which in theory are gang clubs, into a troop or large club. The troop is thus a large club comprised of smaller clubs with special ties and interests.

OBJECTIVES OF GROUP WORK

As Williamson puts it, "group work concerns itself with services toward individuals in a group, brought together through a common interest, and guided by means of suitable and congenial activities toward a well-rounded life for the individual; and, for a group, a cooperative spirit and acceptance of social responsibility. . . . Its underlying philosophy maintains that normal and satisfying group activities tend to develop in the individual a richer personality that is emotionally sound and effective in its adjustment to other people; also that

group life is the means of passing on the social patterns, customs, and conventions by which society is organized.”¹

The objectives of individual group work organization vary, of course, in detail:

The Young Women's Christian Association purposes “to advance the physical, social, intellectual, moral, and spiritual interests of young women. The ultimate purpose of all its efforts shall be to seek to bring young women to such a knowledge of Jesus Christ as Savior and Lord as shall mean for the individual young woman fullness of life and development of character; and shall make the organization as a whole an effective agency in the bringing in of the Kingdom of God among young women.”² In addition, the National Office adds that the Y. W. C. A. “conceives itself to be a fellowship for the development of personality in young women and girls in accord with a Christian character ideal,” and “an agency for social progress in local communities, in national life, and in international relations.”

The Young Men's Christian Association sets forth its aims as follows: “The Young Men's Christian Association is a fellowship whose primary purpose is to win boys and men to Jesus Christ, to associate them in Christian living, and to help them to discover and to accept the full meaning of Christian discipleship for their own lives and for society.”³

The Boys' Club Federation promotes “a meeting place for boys, with capable leadership and adequate program of activities to meet their developmental needs.”⁴

The Camp Fire Girls “provides activities of natural interest to girls, it makes these activities doubly interesting through an appeal to the imagination, which is a vivid trait in the character of adolescent girls, and it works quietly toward the end that through fun and happiness girls may achieve a beautiful and useful womanhood.”⁵

The Girl Scouts' purpose is “to help girls to realize the ideals of womanhood as a preparation for their responsibilities in the home and service to the community.”⁶

The Boy Scouts of America is organized “To promote, through organization and cooperation with other agencies, the ability of boys to do things for themselves and others, to train them in Scoutcraft, and to teach them patriotism, courage, self-reliance, and kindred virtues, using the methods which are now in common use by Boy Scouts, by placing emphasis upon the Scout Oath and Law for character development, citizenship training and physical fitness.”⁷

¹ Margaretta Williamson, *The Social Worker in Group Work*, p. 7. New York: Harper & Bros., 1929.

² Article of the Constitution of the Young Women's Christian Association of the United States of America.

³ Opening paragraph of the final Report of a Commission on Message and Purpose of the Young Men's Christian Association made at the meeting of the National Council held in Cleveland, Ohio, August, 1931.

⁴ Margaretta Williamson, *The Social Worker in Group Work*, p. 15. New York: Harper & Bros., 1929.

⁵ *Handbook for Leaders of Camp Fire Girls*, p. 8. New York: Camp Fire Girls, 1929.

⁶ *Blue Book of Girl Scout Policies and Procedures*. New York: Girl Scouts, Inc., 1927.

⁷ Article II, Constitution of Boy Scouts of America.

At first glance these objectives seem widely divergent. The objectives of the Christian associations have a distinct evangelistic tone, but, while their stated objectives still contain this emphasis, the trend in actual practice and interpretation is toward a much broader viewpoint, and there is a distinct movement in both organizations to alter the stated purpose so as to make it more inclusive. More careful scrutiny of the objectives, together with the practices of the organizations, indicates that they are all much alike in aims, attempting to guide the leisure-time activities of people toward the development of a rich and full life, an integrated personality, and an acceptance of social responsibility.

While their aims are much alike, the means by which they purpose to accomplish them differ, and an analysis of the types of programs used in club work to-day is necessary and will be very enlightening.

IMPORTANCE OF PROGRAM BUILDING

THE many varying approaches to program building used by the group work organizations in America to-day fall under two general and fundamental types: (1) *the prearranged program* formulated by a national headquarters, and to a lesser extent by local city headquarters, with some provision for adaptation to the local groups; (2) *the program which is an outgrowth of the interest of the local group*. There are two approaches to the latter type of programming: (a) the program evolved jointly by the leader and the group; (b) the approach in which the leader begins with the immediate interest of the group and guides the group on to wider channels of interest.

An adequate program presents an endless chain of fascinating and compelling activities, which are not only interesting in the doing but challenging to the imagination, and which are varied enough to satisfy every individual in the group, whatever his likes and interests may be. To be worthy from the angle of imagination, the program must contain large elements of color, picturesqueness, and romance, using the latter word in its broadest sense. Further, the adequate program must be of such a nature as to safeguard the laws of the learning process. Modern club work is thought of as a recreational-educational institution; it aims beyond mere entertainment and recreation, and seeks growth and education for its members. To accomplish this the program must be constructed upon principles which are educationally sound.

Let us examine rather carefully each of the fundamental types of

program building referred to above, and canvass the programs of one or two of the leading organizations using each type.

THE PREARRANGED PROGRAM

THE prearranged program attempts to set forth an ideal scheme of activities with the thought that growth in character and education can best be accomplished by following such a definite program arranged by experts. The program is usually drawn up by the national headquarters and set forth in a manual or handbook which is placed in the hands of the members. In this way a definite pattern is constructed according to which the local leaders are expected to cut out their local group activities, and the approach is frequently called the "paper pattern" program. Certain qualities, skills, and activities are held to be more important than others and to produce the desired results, and are therefore included in the pattern and suggested to or required of all members. Organizations with a definite test-passing program, setting forth graduated tests or groups of tests which must be passed in order, are of this type. There is often some allowance for adapting the program to the local need of the group and for the group to assist in its planning.

Probably the most complete and definite prearranged program is to be found in the Boy Scouts of America. The Girl Scouts, and to a slightly modified degree the Camp Fire Girls, are of this type also.

EARLY BEGINNINGS IN AMERICA—THE WOODCRAFT INDIANS

The first definite program of activities for children's club work on a nation-wide basis was established in 1902 under the name of the Woodcraft Indians by Ernest Thompson Seton, a gifted artist, lecturer, and author, and withal an authority on wild animals, Indians, and woodcraft. He had previously written extensively on the outdoor or woodcraft way with boys. This was the first organization for boys emphasizing outdoor, camping, and handicraft activities, with a program designed to be both recreational and educational. In the same year, 1902, the first woodcraft manual published by Seton, *The Birch Bark Roll of Woodcraft*, set forth a program and a philosophy which has had a tremendous and immeasurably far-reaching influence on boys' and girls' work.⁸ It was the first significant and comprehensive swing away from purely physical recreation. In 1903, the cause was advanced

⁸ Ernest Thompson Seton, *The Birch Bark Roll of Woodcraft*. 25th Edition, New York: A. S. Barnes & Company, 1931.

in picturesque and compelling fashion by the publication of Seton's *Two Little Savages*, an informative novel embodying the woodcraft way, which after thirty years is still going strong.⁹ Says Seton, in summing up the general philosophy behind his approach to boys and girls:

"I had a vision for my people—a man of perfect manhood, a being physically robust, an athlete, an outdoors man, accustomed to the brunt of flood, wind and sun—rough road and open spaces—a man wise in the ways of the woods, sagacious in council, dignified, courteous, respectful to all, and kindly as a good-natured giant; a man whose life was clean, picturesque, heroic and unsordid; a man of courage, equipped for emergencies, possessing his soul at all times, and filled with a religion that consists, not of mere occasional observances, not of vague merits hoarded in the skies, but of a strong kind spirit that makes him desired and helpful here to-day."¹⁰

Seton cooperated in the establishment of the Boy Scouts of America in 1910 and embodied his ideas and Woodcraft Indian material in the first Boy Scout manual, withdrawing the Woodcraft Indians at that time in favor of the Boy Scouts. Later the Woodcraft movement was reestablished and still exists under the name of the Woodcraft League of America.

BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA

History.—Lord Robert Baden-Powell, an English general and hero of the Boer War, was the founder of the Boy Scout movement. As early as 1893, Baden-Powell had experimented with scouting and camping as a means of training soldiers. During the war he was tremendously impressed with the lack of camping and woodcraft knowledge on the part of English soldiers as compared with South Africans, and this shortcoming led him to a realization of the need for a new and different type of military training for his soldiers. His book, *Aids to Scouting*, prepared for soldiers, met ready popularity among the boys of England and opened to him the vision for a scouting and camping organization for boys of the pre-soldier age. He set about the preparing of a new book, *Scouting for Boys*, published in 1908, in the preparing of which he received inspiration and suggestions from Seton's work in this country and the latter's book, *The Birch Bark Roll of Woodcraft* (1902).

⁹ Ernest Thompson Seton, *Two Little Savages*, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1903.

¹⁰ Ernest Thompson Seton, *Blazes on the Trail*, No. 1, p. 3. Santa Fe: Woodcraft League of America, 1928.

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.

An American, William D. Boyce, traveling in England in 1909, was impressed with the nature of the English Boy Scouts, and later secured the cooperation of a number of American business men and leaders of youth. This group brought the Boy Scouts of America into being, the organization being incorporated on October 8, 1910. In 1916, it was granted a federal charter by the United States Congress.

Size of Enrollment.—The Boy Scouts of America have prospered remarkably, and in the point of numbers, if for no other reason, stand to-day as one of the most significant phases of the recreational-educational movement for youth. Its growth between 1920 and 1930 is as follows:

1920	389,352
1925	593,132
1929	606,396
1930	629,303

It continues to grow, even though its increase in membership has not been nearly so rapid during the past five years. From 1910 to 1932, 5,670,786 boys and leaders have been associated with the Boy Scouts of America. In 1933 every nation with the exception of Italy, Germany, and Soviet Russia had its Boy Scout organization, more than two million boys being enrolled. The International Jamborees held at frequent intervals bring together representatives of all the Scout organizations in the world. Italy, Germany, and Russia have had strong Boy Scout organizations but recently with the rise of dictatorships the movement has been replaced in each country by other youth organizations which foster programs in keeping with the policies of the respective governing powers.

Scope of the Membership.—The Boy Scout movement is non-sectarian, being open to all religions and denominations. It is democratic

in the sense that all races, classes, and stratifications of society are found in its membership. It is found in rural as well as city areas, the Lone Scout organization being especially prepared for country youth. It holds itself to be non-military, although obviously distinctly nationalistic in tone and affiliations. It is a supplementary organization, the program being available for all organizations desiring a club program for boys.

Organization—The Individual.—Boys must be at least twelve years of age to be eligible for membership in the Boy Scouts proper, and while the age groups in the movement usually range from twelve to eighteen, often young men over eighteen are admitted as Boy Scouts. The needs of younger and older boys are cared for by special phases of the organization as follows:

Cub Scouts	9 to 11 years of age
Boy Scouts	12 to 18 years of age
Sea Scouts	15 years of age and over
Scouters	Leaders 18 and over

The Patrol.—A patrol consists of approximately eight boys. Modern leaders have ceased to fix the size of the patrol definitely at eight boys as has been the custom in the past but aim to utilize the natural gang grouping, be its number three or ten. 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, according to the groups of close friends naturally existing among the boys. Troops must be chartered by the National Council for a year at a time. It is important to note at this point that scouting is not an independent or separate organization but is rather a movement with a program which is conducted through already existing institutions, such as churches, schools, clubs, parent-teacher associations, playgrounds, and social centers. Scouting is administered by these institutions which have the advantage of dealing with familiar groups of boys. The "parent 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 twenty-one 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 and men eighteen years of age or over, who act as assistant scoutmasters.

Administrative Units.—The local troop is administered by a troop committee of the parent institution which sponsors the troop. The city or county, or larger local area, is in charge of a Scout Council with a paid executive and assistants. The nation is divided into twelve regions with regional executives in charge who are employed by the National Council. The National Headquarters has many departments and divisions of specialization. The detailed organization can be studied in the literature of the National Headquarters.

Educational Methods.—The methods of teaching upon which the Boy Scout movement relies is summed up in the phrase, "learning by doing." Rather than instructing by the traditional methods of lecturing and textbook assignments, the scouting program utilizes *first*, demonstration, observation, and experimentation; and *second* and more characteristically, the playway of competition and dramatization. Knot-tying, for instance, is taught by demonstration and experimentation; then knot-tying games are played in which winning depends upon the ability to tie the knots. Impromptu dramatizations calling for knot-tying skill and knowledge are also used. Tracking is taught by means of treasure hunts, first-aid and transportation of the injured by an accident that is staged, and so with all other phases of the system.

According to Baden-Powell, scouting was not designed as subject matter which adults are supposed to teach to boys; but as subject matter which boys are expected to teach to each other. Through the use of boy patrol leaders, who are trained by the scoutmaster, the activities are taught to boys by boys and together the patrol works out the projects. Furthermore, scouting is designed as a system of self-education. The meeting inspires and stimulates, the manual supplies suggestion and source material, and the scout is expected to spend his leisure time at home in attaining skill and knowledge in the activities. It thus provides home activity of a recreational-educational nature.

Scope of the Activities.—An analysis of the program shows an exceedingly wide range of required and suggested activities. These fall under the following general heads:

1. *Nature Lore.*—Includes a study of the stars, birds, reptiles, insects, fishes, rocks, plants, shrubs, trees, and so forth.
2. *Wild Life and Conservation.*—Wild animals, economic value of trees, birds,

minerals, fuels, and so forth; precautions against loss by forest fires and harmful insects; forest and game laws; and so forth.

3. *Campcraft*.—Use of knife and hatchet, fire building, cooking, hiking (day and over-night), tent making, rafts, canoeing, rowing, sailing, use of compass, measuring of heights and distances, and so forth.

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; and so forth.

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; and so forth.

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

The Graduated Test Passing Program.—The Scout program consists of a series of tests or groups of tests which boys must pass if they are to advance or “get on” in the organization:

The Tenderfoot Rank

1. Know the Scout Law, Oath, Motto, Salute, Sign, and significance of the badge and uniform.
2. Know the composition and history of the national flag and the customary forms of respect due to it.
3. Tie the square knot and any eight of the following knots: sheet bend, bowline, fisherman’s, sheepshank, slip, clove hitch; two half hitches, carrick bend, miller’s knot, rope halter, pipe hitch; stevedore, barrel hitch, girth hitch, binder twine bend, lariat loop, hitching tie.

The Second Class Rank

1. At least one month’s service as a Tenderfoot and know how and when to wear the Scout uniform.
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.
11. Demonstrate five rules of safety.
12. Show evidence he has put into practice the principles of the Scout Oath and Law.

The First Class Rank

A Second Class Scout, upon meeting the following requirements to the satisfaction of the proper local Scout Authorities, may be enrolled as a First Class Scout and is entitled to wear the First Class Badge of the Boy Scouts of America:

1. At least two months' service as a Second Class Scout, and be able to identify the rank, length of service and position of leadership of Scouts and local Scouters by means of their badges and Insignia.
2. Swim fifty yards. (Jump overboard, feet first, into water slightly over his head, swim twenty-five yards, make a sharp turn about and return to the starting point.)
3. Earn and deposit at least two dollars in a public bank (premiums paid on life insurance are accepted, if earned); or plant, raise and market a farm crop.
4. Send and receive a message by Semaphore Code, including conventional signs, thirty letters per minute; or by the General Service Code (International Morse), including conventional signs, sixteen letters per minute; or by the Indian Sign Language Code, thirty signs per minute.
5. Make a round trip alone (or with another Scout) to a point at least seven miles away (fourteen miles in all), going on foot, or rowing boat, and write a satisfactory account of the trip and things observed.
6. Review Second Class First-Aid Requirements. Describe methods of panic prevention, what to do in case of fire, ice, electric and gas accidents; what to do in case of a mad dog bite, or snake bite. Demonstrate the treatment, including dressing where necessary, for a fracture, poisoning, apoplexy, heat exhaustion, sunstroke, frost bite and freezing; also demonstrate the treatment for sunburn, ivy poisoning, bee stings, nose-bleed, ear-ache, grit or cinder in the eye, stomach-ache; demonstrate transportation of the injured; demonstrate the triangular bandage on the head, eye, jaw, arm (sling), chest, fractured rib, hand, hip, knee, ankle and foot. (Roller bandages may be substituted on arm and ankle.) Demonstrate how to make and apply a tourniquet.
7. Prepare and cook satisfactorily, in the open, using camp cooking utensils, two of the following articles as may be directed: Eggs, bacon, hunter's stew, fish, fowl, game, pan-cakes, hoe-cake, biscuit, hardtack or a "twist," baked on a stick, and give an exact statement of the cost of the materials used. Explain to another boy the methods followed.
8. Read a map correctly, and draw, from field notes made on the spot, an intelligible rough sketch map, indicating by their proper marks important buildings, roads, trolley lines, main landmarks, principal elevations, etc. Point out a compass direction without the help of the compass.
9. Use properly an axe for felling or trimming light timber; or produce an article of carpentry, cabinet-making, or metal work made by himself; or demonstrate repair of a decaying or damaged tree. Explain the method followed.
10. Judge distance, size, number, height, and weight within 25 per cent.
11. Describe fully from observation ten species of trees or plants, including

poison ivy, by their bark, leaves, flowers, fruit and scent; or six species of wild birds, by their plumage, notes, tracks, and habits; or six species of native wild animals, by their form, color, call, tracks, and habits; find the North Star, and name and describe at least three constellations of stars.

12. Furnish satisfactory evidence that he has put into practice in his daily life the principles of the Scout Oath and Law.¹¹

Merit Badges.—Having reached the second class rank, a scout may qualify for five out of a list of forty merit badges, and having become a first class scout, all of the ninety-six merit badges are open to him. Up to this point the tests must have been followed in a prescribed manner, but a choice of tests is now open and the individual may follow his interests. Having passed five merit badges he becomes a *star scout*; ten (including five specified ones), a *life scout*; twenty-one (including twelve specified ones), an *eagle scout*. Eagle scouts may continue their advancement by earning palms, bronze, gold, and silver. Candidates for the advanced honors appear before an adult board called the Court of Honor.

Code of Morality.—The Boy Scout movement sets forth a series of virtues or character traits in its Scout Law which constitute the moral code which is to govern the conduct of its members:

A Scout is

trustworthy	courteous	thrifty
loyal	kind	brave
helpful	obedient	clean
friendly	cheerful	reverent

Members are asked to take a Scout Oath which runs as follows:

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.

Inasmuch as the movement begins with traits which are learned, discussed, and recited, its method of character education is primarily that of direct moral instruction (see chapter on "Play and Character Formation"). It will be noted that the emphasis in the oath and law is positive, there being no reference to "don'ts."

The Prearranged Nature of the Program.—We have gone thus far into detail in the discussion of the Boy Scout program in order to point out clearly its prearranged nature and to contrast it with other

¹¹ See *Boy Scout Handbook*. New York: Boy Scouts of America.

points of view in program building which we shall discuss later. The Boy Scout program of tests was created by the National Council, set forth in a manual, and all local units instructed to plan their activities in accordance with it. The program is an adult-conceived one, and one is to assume that the activities which boys must enter into to get on in the organization, such as knot-tying, first-aid, and map-making, are in themselves valuable to successful living and therefore should be followed. Furthermore, the doing of these activities is assumed to provide interesting joyous activity in contact with ideal leaders, and thus to provide a situation for the taking on of character qualities. The program is so administered that the test-passing pattern must be rigidly followed if the individual is to advance whether or not he has an immediate interest in the activities. It is hoped that as a result of this exposure he will develop a permanent interest in new activities.

It will be noted that there is very little opportunity for choice or the following of individual interest in the tenderfoot, second class, or first class tests. The assumption is that these tests provide the basic skills which are needed for successful outdoor life in much the same way that the required curriculum of the elementary school provides the tools which later education will need. After the completion of these fundamental required tests, the merit badge system later offers a wide range of choice.

Throughout the entire scheme, however, the leader does not begin with the interests of the group as they exist and build programs from them, but rather the program exists before the group and the group is caused, by one device or another, to follow it. In order to insure the following of the program, a system of honors and awards are used—a device which is quite generally relied upon in order to make the pattern type of program effective.

The Boy Scout program of activities is so wide and comprehensive in nature that every boy regardless of his individual differences may find something to interest him. Scout troops engage in many varied types of activities. Through the compulsion of honors and awards and adult emphasis upon test passing, however, the scout must follow the rigid routine of graduated tests if he is to succeed and secure prestige in the ranks of the organization.

Evaluation of the Program.—The breadth and comprehensiveness of the program of suggested activities in the *Boy Scout Handbook* leaves little to be desired in the way of program materials. Its outdoor emphasis is excellent and all in the right direction. It is gripping and compelling to countless thousands of American youth and satisfies

drives and wishes that to many could not be satisfied adequately and wholesomely without some organization to open up the way.

The Boy Scout method of education in skills is a doing rather than a talking process, which of course is educationally sound. Furthermore, it has developed a scheme of games to teach subject matter which is unique, and which makes a distinct and very significant contribution to educational methodology. (The Girl Scouts have likewise made distinct contributions in this direction and have, if anything, created more teaching games than the Boy Scouts.) Its teaching by the play way, by dramatization, and competition is excellent. Its conception of its program as activities which boys teach each other, rather than skills which adults teach boys, is all in the right direction. As a scheme of self-education with the meetings aimed to inspire and arouse interest, with the thought that the boy will learn the skills in his leisure time at home, it is encouraging rather than destroying home activity.

Its patrol system is unique and challenging. In theory it organizes the gang into patrols, each with its own leadership constituting a self-governing unit. Within this unit much of the educational work is carried on, the boys teaching each other. The patrol system is sound organization. The Boy Scout movement meets boys in their own neighborhoods, organizing in their own churches, schools, and play centers, a method which is sociologically much more sound than asking them to go to a centralized out-of-the-neighborhood headquarters.

The Boy Scout movement has a unique and impregnable point in its favor in that it has worked. It came at a time when the country was eager for such a program; it answered a felt need and sprang into immediate popularity. Since its first wave of popularity it has become accepted by the American public and has become very firmly entrenched.

The Boy Scout movement, however, is not without its critics among the progressive thinking elements of the population. These criticisms are along the following lines:

1. There are some who feel that the program is too rigid in nature and lacking in flexibility, contending that no prearranged program can meet the needs of all groups of boys in America, as the Boy Scout approach seems to assume. These thinkers feel that a program should be the outgrowth of the interests of the group rather than of a super-imposed pattern. This point of view we shall develop later.

2. There are those who feel that the rigid and inflexible system of honors and awards is not as sound in the light of modern educational theory as a system which relies on interest in the subject matter. (For

an extended discussion of incentives, such as badges, pins, or buttons, see Chapter XIX.)

3. There are those who feel that in administration the movement is rigid, placing the pattern organization as more important than the needs of the local unit. The needs of the local unit are held to be paramount, and the unit should be more free to adapt the program to its own needs and interests than administrative officials are often inclined to allow.

4. There are some who feel that the movement has swung much too far away from the simple outdoor, woodcraft emphasis of its early days, with its picturesqueness, romance, symbolism, and color, to a more formalized, straight line, and stereotyped approach. Rather than merely reflecting American materialistic philosophy, it is contended that an acceptable program should emphasize the artistic and more broadly cultural needs looking toward a better America which youth can, if properly conditioned, create to-morrow.

5. There are some who feel that the movement, while democratic in the sense that it is open to all, is nevertheless conditioning youth in the direction of a typical materialistic philosophy. Its friends among the organizations in the average city are held to be those of a distinctly conservative nature, interested in the maintenance of the *status quo* in business methods and ethics. The Pioneer Youth, for instance, was organized with the purpose of influencing its members in a more liberal direction.

6. There are those who, while admitting the movement is obviously non-military, feel that it is too strongly nationalistic in emphasis and affiliations.

THE GIRL SCOUTS

The Girl Scout organization and program is so nearly like that of the Boy Scouts in basic structure that a detailed discussion is not needed. It, to, is a prearranged program. Practically all that has been said of the Boy Scouts will apply to the Girl Scouts. There is one outstanding respect in which the two organizations differ: the Court of Honor of the Girl Scouts is not a body for the conferring of honors as in the Boy Scouts but a group made up of the captain and her patrol leaders which meets regularly for the purpose of program building. The patrol leaders meet with their girls and get their ideas, and then come to the captain in the court of honor and together they work out a program through discussion. The device leads to a more flexible outline of work and insures consideration of the interests of the girls.

While girl scouting has practically the same test-passing scheme as its brother organization, it has probably placed less emphasis upon test passing and is inclined to consider favorably the lessening of the honor and award emphasis and the actual removal of some of the honors.

CAMP FIRE GIRLS

The Camp Fire Girls were founded in America by Dr. and Mrs. Luther Halsey Gulick. The idea grew out of a camping program 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 about 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."

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. As contrasted with many other American organizations the movement aims at a philosophy of beauty and of appreciation of that which is lofty and lovely in every sphere, thinking not in terms of a materialistic attitude of mind but of a beauty-seeking and beauty-loving attitude. It aims 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 learns, is something that is very urgent to make for success in the new roles 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 have various stages of attainment that can be reached in a manner similar to that indicated in the discussion 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 first three 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, and the girl receives a bead for each item of her work* while the Boy Scout 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 eight requirements:

1. She must be at least ten years old.
2. She must have paid her annual dues of \$1.00.
3. She must know the purpose and ideals of the Camp Fire Girls' organization.
4. She must be able to state the full name of the following persons: (a) The President of the United States, (b) The Governor of her State, (c) The Mayor or highest city official.
5. She must be able to tell how many stars and how many stripes there are in the American flag and be able to explain the symbolism of the flag.

6. She must know the watchword and be able to give the hand sign of the organization.

7. She must know the name of the official publication of the organization, *Everygirls Magazine*, its purpose and its value.

8. She must know the Camp Fire Law and repeat it before the other members of her group, either at a Council Fire, or other meeting saying: "It is my desire to become a Camp Fire Girl and to obey the law of the Camp Fire,"¹² which is

"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 requirements necessary to become a Wood Gatherer and to be received into full membership.

The Wood Gatherer's desire is as follows:

"As fagots are brought from the forest
Firmly held by the sinews that bind them,
I will cleave to my Camp Fire sisters
Wherever, whenever I find them.
I will strive to grow strong like the pine tree,
To be pure in my deepest desire;
To be true to the truth that is in me.
And follow the law of the Fire."

I. Wood Gatherer.

1. Have been a member of the Camp Fire for at least four months and not more than one year.
2. Have attended at least twelve regular weekly meetings of her Camp Fire and one Council Fire other than the one at which the rank is awarded.
3. Repeat the Wood Gatherer's Desire, alone.
4. Have selected a name and a symbol, and explained them at a Council Fire.
5. Have completed bead or leather Headband with individual symbol as design.
6. Know words and be able to sing any two of the Neidlinger Camp Fire Songs.
7. Repeat verbatim the Camp Fire Law, Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag, and the Fire Lighting Ceremony.
8. Present a list of all Camp Fire Honors earned.
9. Have earned at least 90 per cent of the points on the Health Chart in one month.

¹² Camp Fire Girls, Inc. *The Book of the Camp Fire Girls*, p. 63 ff. New York: The Camp Fire Girls, Inc. 1931.

10. Have won, in addition to the above, at least fourteen elective honors, three of which must be chosen from Home Craft, three from Citizenship, and two from Nature Craft.¹³

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.¹⁴

¹³ Camp Fire Girls, Inc., *The Book of the Camp Fire Girls*. p. 63. New York: The Camp Fire Girls, Inc., 1931.

¹⁴ See *Book of the Camp Fire Girls*, p. 67 ff. New York: The Camp Fire Girls, Inc., 1931.

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

1. The applicant must be fourteen years of age and must have demonstrated ability in leadership, craftsmanship, and team work.
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. Must have kept the health and thrift charts three consecutive months.
4. Must also be able to present five big honors each in a different craft.

Conclusion.—A superficial glance at the Camp Fire program will indicate the characteristic beauty aspect of the organization. In its emphasis on craft activities, its use of symbolism, its tendency toward poetry, music of the better sort, ceremonials, gowns that are pleasing in lines and decoration, beads instead of pins and buttons, it is constantly making a bid for the artistic and beautiful. In this respect it is conditioning children in such a way as to offset a generally recognized lag in American culture. The movement is distinctly feminine and strives to conserve and develop those qualities which are distinctly related to the sphere of womanhood.

The program is, like that of the Boy and Girl Scouts, a prearranged one, but its test-passing program is more flexible and open to choice. In each rank the girl is permitted to pick a certain number of tests out of the many possibilities offered, these to be picked as her interests may indicate. Thus it is less a definite, superimposed program and offers more of an opportunity for satisfaction of individual interests as the girl goes along.

EVALUATION OF THE PREARRANGED PROGRAM

The prearranged program is definite, full of suggestions, and easy to operate. It comes "wrapped up in convenient packages," so to speak. It can be picked up and utilized without long study and effort. It is particularly useful for volunteer leaders who are unskilled and unspecialized in group work and busy in other activities. Owing to these factors it appeals to the average leader.

The more recent approaches to programming, which seek to build upon the interest of each particular group, call for a degree of craftsmanship and specialized skill which the average untrained leader usually does not possess. In meeting the needs of a large number of groups which rely on volunteer leadership, the prearranged program offers a workable and usable course of activities which can hope for success.

PROGRAMS BUILT OUT OF THE INTERESTS OF THE GROUP

TURNING now from the ready-made, prearranged programs which are taken from a national source and parcelled out in weekly assignments, we shall discuss that approach to programming which seeks to build on the interests of the members of the club. There are two approaches to this point of view.

In the *first*, the leader and the group, working together, plan their work. The leader of this type prefers a definite systematic program, carefully planned in advance, but does not wish to superimpose his own choice of activities upon the members without consideration for their interests or respect for their personalities. He wants the group to have its full share in the planning. Consequently he suggests as many types of activities as possible out of his experience and capacities, seeks to determine the reaction of the members to the suggestions, discovers by one means or another their own desires and interests, and together with them evolves a program for the month ahead and for the season.

The *second* type of interest approach begins with the situation the club is in at the moment, with the interests it now has, and then seeks to enlarge these interests, and lead on to an ever-widening field of activities. This point of view is based on that law of education which says that a gripping, compelling interest is essential to the learning process. The life situation in the club at the moment is sure to provide interests which furnish a starting point. These interests belong to the group, the members have accepted them as their own, and no artificial stimulation in the way of honors and awards is needed. The leader begins here and constantly looks for related interest, or possible out-growths of present interests, which will lead to wider interests and new activities. This leads to a changing, growing program in which stereotypes and "patterns" can have no place.

Many organizations seek to use this approach, but it is not as easy to visualize as the ready-made programs which are definitely in manuals and are easy to describe and use. The program of the Boys' Club Federation is of the interest type and never has been standardized. The policy of the Boys' Department of the Young Men's Christian Association to-day, and particularly that of the Girl Reserve movement of the Young Women's Christian Association, is of this type. Let us look at the last two programs briefly.

BOYS' WORK PROGRAM OF THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

Like all social institutions the Young Men's Christian Association is constantly changing. It has passed through a number of stages of

growth and is still changing and growing. Its boys' work must be judged as it is to-day rather than by the views it held at any period in the past. The boys' department has passed beyond the "building" aspect which previously characterized its work, when boys were met as they came to the building and organized in various clubs and gymnasium classes. It works not only with its own members but also with the youth of the entire community. It does not ask boys to come to the central building as much as in the past but goes out to the neighborhoods and meets boys there in organized club work. In fact, many progressive secretaries are asking how best to carry on their work in spite of the elaborate building equipment they have on their hands. The Y. M. C. A. does not have a rigid national organization which makes all units more or less alike, and consequently policies vary from city to city, but in more progressive associations the policies in club programming are as we shall describe.

The leader discovers a gang needing attention, meets it in its own neighborhood, retains its own natural gang organization, and seeks to guide it. The program it starts with is the one the gang already has. It then seeks to expand the interests of the gang and to lead it on to ever newer and widening spheres of interests. It is not so much concerned with what activities the club uses or what skills are being learned just so long as there is a compelling interest on the part of the boys which leads to joyous, enthusiastic activity in contact with wholesome leaders. From the leader-boy relationship in a satisfying lifelike situation, it feels that character guidance is possible in an ideal way.

In progressive Y. M. C. A. circles the program is based on the following principles:

1. The boy already *has* a program, though it does not carry that name.

The important element in an organization's program is that process by which leaders help a boy in the formulation of his own program in light of all the resources which the boys and the leaders can find in the community. It is not a selected list of activities, which the leader points out, that affects the life of a boy, it is what the boy and the leader give attention to in the environment.

2. This boy's program is developed by the boy in many different groups. Any group is attractive to a boy as long as it contributes to *his* purpose.

3. Boys have a diversity of needs according to:

Age
Social Setting
Interests

4. A boy conforms to the requirements of agencies and organizations as he finds it necessary in order to carry out (achieve satisfaction in) details of his own program.

5. A boy grows according to certain laws which have always been in operation but not always recognized:
- a. He learns what he is ready to learn.
 - b. He learns from experience—practiced or observed.
 - c. He continues to do that which brings him satisfaction. He will discontinue doing that which brings him dissatisfaction.
 - d. He learns what he associates with his present interests.
 - e. He transfers his learning in one experience to other experiences on the basis of elements identical to both experiences.
6. Any group leader must confer with the leaders of other groups in which a given boy holds membership in order to help the boy intelligently.
7. Leaders learn how to help the boy choose, plan, carry out, and judge his whole experience.
8. The satisfaction a boy secures from an experience is often quite different from that which the leader intends.¹⁵

The boys' department has had a preconceived program somewhat similar to that of the Boy Scouts, but it is seldom used to-day except as a church or other organization asks for a workable outline to use.

The boys' department seeks to build around interests already in existence. Club work is thus organized around interests as follows:

Organized Around Y. M. C. A. Building Interests:

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Friendly Indian | 7. Scout Troops |
| 2. Explorer | 8. Junior Achievement |
| 3. Pioneer and Comrade | 9. Athletic |
| 4. Hobby | 10. Gymnasium |
| 5. Newsboys | 11. Swimming |
| 6. Bible Study | 12. Junior Leaders |

Organized Around Employment Interests:

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Apprenticeship | 4. Store |
| 2. Western Union or Postal Telegraph Messengers | 5. Factory |
| 3. Office | 6. AREB |
| | 7. Employed Boys' Brotherhood |

Organized Around Church Interests:

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Friendly Indian | 4. Comrade |
| 2. Explorer | 5. Sunday School Clubs |
| 3. Pioneer | 6. Sunday School Athletic Teams |

Organized Around School Interests:

- | | |
|----------------|------------------------|
| 1. Gra-Y | 4. Continuation School |
| 2. Four Square | 5. Hi-Y |
| 3. Junior Hi-Y | |

¹⁵ A. S. Reed, C. C. Robinson, R. Sorenson, *Boys' Work to Match the Times* (pamphlet), p. 13. New York: Association Press, 1929.

Organized Around Neighborhood Interests:

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Indian Guide | 5. High School |
| 2. Corner Gangs | 6. Mixed High School and Employed |
| 3. Employed Boys | 7. Knot Hole Gang |
| 4. Specific Interests | |

Organized Around Other Centers of Interests:

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Homes | 4. Playgrounds and Social Centers |
| 2. Settlements | 5. Hang-outs |
| 3. Missions | |

The *method* used by the leader and group, or the way the activity is initiated, planned, carried out, and judged is in reality the program of the Young Men's Christian Association. The materials available through the National Council office tell leaders and groups *how* to decide what organization and program they will follow, not *what* constitutions, officers, and activities they will have.¹⁶

The leader in approaching a new group uses "interest finding sheets" to discover existing interests with which he can begin work. He studies the life situation of the group, in an effort to find vital program materials and needs. He respects the personality of the boy and his desires always. He regards the boy as primary and the program secondary. He uses various attitude measurement scales, behavior frequency scales, and case records of behavior to assist in determining character weaknesses and needs of each individual.¹⁷ In the use of these the volunteer is guided and instructed by the boys' secretary.

The Hi-Y Clubs constitute an important phase of the work of the Boys' Department. These clubs are organized in senior high schools and use the same method of programming described above. These clubs are largely what the boys wish to make them and usually fall under three types:

1. Reformers' clubs, in which the members set up campaigns to remedy school evils.
2. Craft, hobby, and vocational clubs.
3. Discussion clubs, in which life problems of immediate interest to members are handled.

The clubs to-day are mostly of the last two types, there being fewer and fewer of the first type which characterized the Hi-Y clubs in past years.

¹⁶ A. S. Reed, C. C. Robinson, R. Sorenson, *Boys' Work to Match the Times* (pamphlet), p. 14. New York: Association Press, 1929.

¹⁷ See A. J. Gregg, *Group Leaders and Boy Character*. New York: Association Press, 1927.

THE GIRL RESERVE MOVEMENT OF THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

Probably more completely than any other organization in the field, the Girl Reserves have attempted to utilize the approach to programming which discovers and utilizes the interests of the group. It has constantly avoided "paper patterns." Likewise it has consistently shunned honors and awards which it feels are devices needed when adult-conceived or prearranged external programs are used. Through group discussion it discovers the needs and interests of girls. It begins with these and seeks constantly for associate learnings or extensions of the present interest which will lead on and on. It is interested in broad social problems rather than immediate "busy work" and any activity is acceptable material which offers possibilities of conditioning in respect to these broader social points of view.

What the program is to be cannot be determined in advance, but only after meeting the group and discovering its needs. It must be an outgrowth of the life situation the group in question is in. Any activity related to interests and needs is acceptable provided it is *on going*, that is, if it leads on to other experiences in such a way as to make possible ever-increasing appreciations, skills, and knowledge.

The Industrial Department of the Y. W. C. A., as quoted by Williamson, suggests the following criteria for judging the value of any particular program:

1. Is it based upon actual, felt needs and interests of the girls so that there is purposeful, intensely interesting activity?
2. Does it take into consideration the interests and needs of the whole group?
3. Does it lead to an ever-increasing number of active interests?
4. Is it sufficiently elastic to make possible the following-out of these new interests when they develop?
5. Does it provide practice in the making of conscious choices, and are the consequences of these recognized and experienced by the girls?
6. Is there an experience of democracy provided in which each girl shares in the making of plans, abides by group decisions and shares in the responsibility for group activity?
7. Is there opportunity for cooperation with ever more and wider social groups?
8. Is real satisfaction felt in connection with activity which arises from higher, more social motives or which enlarges the girl's viewpoint and widens her interests and appreciations?¹⁸

¹⁸ Margaretta Williamson, *The Social Worker in Group Work*, p. 45. New York: Harper & Bros., 1929.

In estimating the value of any proposed activity for the program, Perkins suggests the application of the following criteria:

- (a) Is it something that can grow and change?
- (b) Is it something that can lead in several directions?
- (c) Is it something that has an excitement or difficulty which is thrilling to try to overcome?
- (d) Is it something that can probably be successfully done, considering leadership, material at hand, and the risks involved?
- (e) Is it something that will draw in all sorts of people, materials and experiences, and lead out into fresh contacts and investigations?
- (f) Does it bring in something new and lead out to something new?
- (g) Is it something that will make a difference in your surroundings and leave a definite mark? ¹⁹

The Girl Reserves rely upon the process of group discussion largely for the discovery of material. In properly conducted discussion the creative power of the group is brought into play, and the contribution of all members is made to the enrichment of the program.

EVALUATION OF THE INTEREST APPROACH

The *interest* approach to programming, in theory at least, has a greater regard for the laws of learning than any prearranged outline could have. In using it the leader is safeguarded from cutting across the real interests of the group and forcing attention on artificially imposed activities. It considers the group as of primary importance. It has a greater respect for the individual personalities of members. It deals with the life situation as it exists in the particular group at the particular time and regards the needs of the group in question as of paramount concern. It utilizes the creative power of the group in planning its own destinies, which power is great once it is developed and released.

On the other hand, it is a difficult approach to programming as compared to the prearranged setup. The ready-made program is definite, full of suggestions, and easy to operate. It is thus inviting to leaders. It can be picked up and used without long study and preparation. The study of interests of the group and the building of a workable plan out of them requires better trained and higher caliber leadership. Those organizations using a prearranged program contend that, relying on volunteer and often inexperienced leadership as they must, a tangible and workable ready-made program offers greater possibilities of success.

¹⁹ Ruth Perkins. *Program Making and Record Keeping*, p. 45. New York: The Woman's Press, 1931.

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CHAPTER XVII

THE ORGANIZED SUMMER CAMP

ORGANIZED camping is an integral part of the present-day play movement. Indeed, the camp is merely a large playground which offers practically all of the advantages of the city playground and many more which are peculiarly its own. The summer camp is the summer playground at its best.

Camping and its basic technique, woodcraft, are the oldest human arts. In the earliest dawn of human history men were found subduing the wilderness to their own ends and, out of the wild materials which the natural environment offered, fashioning and devising ways of living comfortably and happily. That is woodcraft and it is the art of camping. The building of a nation on the American continent depended to no small degree upon the mastery of the techniques of woodcraft, and the latest and most elaborate books on woodcraft contain little if anything more than a description of these age-old skills of the pioneer and the Indian. Many city-dwelling adults of to-day obtained in their childhood days on the farm a knowledge of these pioneer skills of which their own offspring are supremely ignorant but for which they long.

Yet even to these children of thirty or more years ago, camping in the form of periodic expeditions into the woods for the more primitive life was much practiced and enjoyed. With the old "nag," a tent, and an assortment of canned goods, they would hit the trail to the wilder country. Parents could not be blamed for worrying as this motley crew made its departure. With little to guide them in the way of knowledge of cooking and sleeping arrangements, adequate precautions for health and comfort were sadly neglected. Yet in spite of these unnecessary hardships, the glamour of camping and the fascination of woods life was irresistible and back they would go to the wilds again.

There are some to-day who decry the departure of these simple informal primitive methods of camping. There is something to be said for this point of view and many organizations to-day are striving to promote this type of camping. But woodcraft is not sleeping on rocks and eating half-cooked food; rather, it is living comfortably within the limitations of an outdoor and primitive environment. Education

in woodcraft skills is necessary. It is naïve to assume, as many seem to, that because the human race has a heritage of countless centuries of roving life in the woods and streams, children by nature possess the necessary skills for such life. Luther Gulick once demonstrated this to a group of open-air philanthropists by taking a number of boys from East Side New York up the Hudson and setting them down in the Interstate Park. The philanthropists stood by and watched. The boys wandered aimlessly around for a while and then settled down in the shade and shot craps and smoked cigarettes until called for lunch. We see much the same thing to-day in driving along the highways and witnessing "campers" beside their tents in some farmer's field, playing contract bridge on collapsible tables and lying in hammocks reading popular magazines. No, camping skills must be taught if children are to possess them and be able to live successfully in the woods.

When we compare the occasional haphazard camping trips of boys a few years back with the organized camp of to-day, we immediately see many distinct advantages in the present system. Boys alone cannot provide the advantages which accrue from an organization which specializes in camp promotion. With capable organization and skilled leadership, children in organized camps can, with little loss of independence, have safe, sanitary, comfortable living quarters, the best of food, and safeguards against danger, and, in addition, experience the maximum of recreational and educational opportunities.

Organized camping does not preclude the traditional type of camping in which a few boys or girls are on their own and caring for themselves. Organized camps quite generally specialize in trips and hikes on which campers are on their own resources. But boys and girls cannot be expected to possess the experience of adults and, while they might, if thrown on an uninhabited island for a summer, take on some camping skills, this blundering, trial-and-error process is slow, wasteful, and painful as compared to observing, experimenting, and learning under expert leadership. One of the tasks of the organized camp is to teach the woodcraft skills which will make successful independent camping possible now and in the future life of its campers. Thousands of boys and girls, men and women, still continue to pour out of our cities every week-end; the organized camp has not spelt doom to the independent and on-your-own method of camping as some would have us believe, but rather has encouraged it. Because of their experience in organized camping these people go forth possessed of skills which increase their confidence and happiness in the woods. And this the organized camp does under adequate safeguards for health and per-

sonality. It is easy to see, therefore, why parents have changed their attitude toward camping and have overcome their fears, sending their children forth to the camps with confidence, joy, and high expectations of lasting benefit.

A memorable and thought-provoking sight will greet one's eyes if he wanders into the Grand Central Station in New York some day during the last week in June. Thousands of boys and girls, lettered banners over their heads, duffle bags and paddles in their hands, smiles on their faces, are bidding farewell to fond parents. Many thousands more are awaiting train time in all the cities across this great land of ours. Organized camping has developed into a tremendous institution in America to-day. Most thoughtful parents have come to regard at least a summer or two in an organized camp as an essential part of a boy's or girl's education.

THE APPEAL OF CAMPING

The zest and appeal of camping is undying in the youthful heart. "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."¹ Witness the perennial popularity with youth of the Western movie star as a symbol of the rugged roving fighting life of the plains; the hero worship of the American Indian among the youth of all countries in Western civilization; the continued popularity over a thirty-year period of Ernest Thompson Seton's *Two Little Savages* and of the mass of other outdoor books of the same type in the juvenile sections of libraries and book stands. This much we can safely assume: youth is activity; it strives for independence and hardihood; it is skill hungry; it longs for and demands new experience and adventure, and has a peculiar susceptibility to suggestion concerning the life and ways of the wild and open country. The business of leadership is to teach these skills and to supply the opportunity for the fulfillment of these dreams. Many organizations to-day are dedicated to this end.

Nor is the camping movement confined alone to boys and girls. Adults in ever-increasing numbers are turning to the woods and lake country. The rush and hurry of modern life, the constant demand of

¹ A. E. Richardson and C. E. Loomis, *The Boy Scout Movement Applied to the Church*, p. 312. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1915.

industry for top-notch efficiency, the minute subdivision of labor with its monotony and constant repetition of the same small task over and over (which in no adequate sense gives expression to one's personality), the increasing demands upon the higher nerve centers of long continued concentration and analysis, the use of small muscles instead of large—these characteristics of modern work-a-day life make vacations an inevitable necessity, and every individual from the high-salaried executive to the day-laboring man is forced at intervals to seek escape. Not only is such escape pleasant but it is profitable for he returns with renewed zest for the task and something of the spirit of youth again in his eyes.

From the grind of the city with its monotony of repetition, with its rush and hurry, its heated days and breathless nights, its odors of motors and its nerve-racking noises, its pavements and barren concrete walls, its endless parade of uninteresting strangers, the individual looks to the open country for ideal relief and relaxation. There in the woods he finds escape in a life rich in simple and colorful things—green fields, rippling water, sunlight on stirring leaves, the mirror magic of lakes, the sighing of pine tops. The thick woods, the darkness, the queer noises stir the imagination of childhood days, and the wild free self is aroused again. He drinks in the wine of the sunset and is lulled to sleep by that sweetest symphony in all the world, the patter of rain drops on the tent roof. From the prose of the city and the village, men turn to the poetry of the wilds. All men need escape and in increasing numbers they are finding it along camping's magic and colorful trail.

America is rapidly becoming a nation on wheels, and herein lies another secret explaining the present-day phenomenal development of woods activity. Camping owes its thanks to the automobile. While the wheel may have developed cities and segregated people in metropolitan areas, it may be the means of the rediscovery of American soil. As A. E. Hamilton has said, the end-result may be that these resilient rubber tubes will not insulate us from the earth but rather bring us back to it. In the old Greek myth of Anteus, power came to him whenever his feet were pressed against the solid ground: there is more than myth in this classic tale.

Thanks to the automobile earth things are once more becoming the possession of a fast urbanizing America. Tents are appearing on every roadside in the summer; rows of identical cottages reminding one of mining villages line up behind the rural gas stations; farmers' signs appear on every highway inviting us to camp in their fields, roadsides, or front yards. Merchants are pressed for tents, axes, duffle

bags, and scores of new and unheard of devices which would disgust an old-time camper. Books and magazines are flooded with camping wisdom and an even greater supply of camping nonsense. The Northern wilds and Canadian bush which once were inaccessible except to the accomplished woodsmen are now within a day or two's drive from the northern half of the United States. Parents who would rebel at the thought of sending their children hundreds of miles away to camp now are reassured by the fact that the automobile has brought them within easy visiting distance. Lake property has boomed tremendously in value. Municipalities have provided and advertised their tourist camps and their outlying picnic grounds equipped with cooking altars and many conveniences. States have their reserves, have established trails, and have provided shelters and rangers to assist the tourists. The Federal Government has opened its natural forest reserves and parks.

When the wild geese clang their clarion call of spring and life and hope, the spirit of youth grows restless and casts longing eyes through the prison windows of school, and the auto-driving army of adults dig out once more the road maps to the open country.

Camping, in common with all social movements, has not been without its prophets. Ernest Thompson Seton through the romantic and colorful appeal of his writings and lectures has led folks earthward. Nessmuk, Horace Kephart, Dan Beard, and scores of others have made available to all who will read, the skills of the woodsman. Magazines, sensing the public pulse, have flaunted in compelling style the appeal of the open country. Outdoor organizations have aggressively preached their gospel. To-day, scientific books on camp organization, administration, and the application of recreational and educational theory have appeared to fulfill a long-felt want and point the way to a more efficient, far-reaching, and satisfying camping movement of the morrow.

TYPES OF CAMP PROMOTION

ALL social organizations must be demonstrated as something workable, as fulfilling a real need through the medium of non-municipal agencies before any hope can be entertained for municipal supervision or management. One can scarcely expect public taxation funds to be expended for endeavors of doubtful worth in the public mind. Organized camping has been no exception to this rule. It had its conception in the minds of far-sighted individuals and owes its beginnings to their enterprise or to that of equally far-sighted philanthropic friends. The first summer camp seems to have been started by Ernest Balch in 1880

on Chocorua Island and called Camp Chocorua. A clergyman named Nichols soon followed with Camp Harvard at Stow in 1882. This was taken over in 1884 by Dr. W. T. Talbot and moved to Lake Asquam and called Camp Asquam. The first organization camp was established by the State Executive Committee of the Y. M. C. A. in 1885 on Lake Champlain under the leadership of Sumner F. Dudley and called Camp Dudley. It is operated to-day under the same management and is the oldest existing camp. The camp idea spread slowly and met with little response except from enthusiasts, and in 1900 there were no more than twenty-five camps. Since then, however, camping has prospered amazingly.²

The rise and growth of the movement has been accompanied by the appearance of many agencies which have concerned themselves with its promotion. In this way camping has been backed by many organizations and, as a result, camps may be classified as follows: private camps, semi-public camps, industrial camps, and municipal camps.

PRIVATE CAMPS

Any survey of camping on this continent at the present moment must give a most conspicuous place to private camps operated by individuals or corporations at a fee covering all expenses and usually making a profit. To-day, camping at its best is doubtless to be found in the private camp field.

As a rule, the private camps run for eight weeks, giving them an opportunity to do careful constructive work in pursuit of their objectives; they usually have sufficient funds to make possible a varied, complete, and comprehensive program of recreational, educational, and personality-moulding activities and guidance; they have a larger percentage of counselors per camper, obtaining, as a general rule, an adult leader for every four or less campers; and they usually can afford to have a larger percentage of superior counselors trained in leadership, expert in the skills which they teach, and well-versed in educational principles. The fact that these camps operate for profit does not preclude their holding conscientious objectives for the accomplishment of constructive ends for their campers; in fact, some of the finest idealism in the recreational-educational field is to be found among private camp directors. Certainly not all private camps measure up to these standards, but as a type these facts hold.

² The above reference to the history of the movement was selected from Porter Sargent, *A Handbook of Summer Camps*. Boston: Porter Sargent, an annual survey. See section on Beginnings of the Movement.

Popular conception has it that the private camps are silk-glove propositions which cater to the children of the very well-to-do. Without doubt they have reached all too few in the past and their campers have come from the upper and upper middle classes. Camps in the early days were very frequently a continuation in the summer of the winter program of private schools and catered largely to their pupils. To-day, however, private camps are often operated at fees acceptable to families of average means and are frequently patronized by such families at a distinct sacrifice in order to secure for their children the superior advantages. The implication that they are silk-glove affairs, however, is far remote from the truth, since some of the most rugged and backwoods-like camps in America, necessitating for their program a high level of woodcraft, canoeing, and bush-traveling skill, are to be found under private auspices.

Variation among the private camps is as wide as the field of camping itself. Some specialize in particular activities. There are, for example, camps emphasizing athletics and swimming and little else. There are canoeing camps utilizing the camp site largely as a base out of which long canoe trips operate. Some of these canoeing camps operate in two localities, one for younger campers where canoeing and woodcraft skills are taught and from which campers are graduated in later years to an older boys' camp in wilder country where long canoe trips in the bush are the rule. There are horseback-riding camps, some developing a high degree of park-style riding, others of the western type relying on long pack-mule and riding trips operating out of a base camp. Likewise, there are camps with a mountain climbing emphasis. Other camps fight shy of such specialization, presenting as complete and well-balanced a program as possible, wide enough in scope to satisfy every camper interest.

In addition to the all-summer camp, another type of private camp has recently come into popularity, the *day camp*, in which campers are transported by bus each morning from their homes to the woods for a day of outdoor activities, and returned again in the evening to spend the night with their families.

Although no concern of this chapter, mention should also be made of that type of commercial promotion in which desirable land is made available and rented for picnicking and tenting purposes. Attractive bathing beaches and many other conveniences are provided. These developments are not without many benefits, especially to the poorer classes.

SEMI-PUBLIC CAMPS

The so-called character-building agencies, such as the Boy and Girl Scouts, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A., Camp Fire Girls, Four-H Clubs, Pioneer Youth, and Boys' Clubs of the Boys' Club Federation, are rendering a tremendous service in the advancement of the camping cause by making camping available to the rank and file at very low cost. Their camps operate at a nominal fee barely sufficient to care for the routine operation of the camp. While these camps are often self-sustaining, their directors and important leaders are usually year-round executives of the organization, and the income of the camp is quite often supplemented by contributions from the budget of the organization, which in turn is financed through community chests or popular subscription. These camps are usually located within easy access of the cities which they serve, and the cost of traveling is thus eliminated. Such camps ordinarily operate in sections of one or two weeks, the campers as a rule staying for one section only, although some continue for two or three sections, and, occasionally, all summer. Some large city organizations operate two camps, one of the typical short-term variety and the other resembling the private camp set-up and catering to all-summer campers. One of many examples which could be cited is found in the Detroit Y. M. C. A. which conducts a short-term camp at low cost near the city and another more expensive camp for all-summer campers in the wilder country of northern Michigan.

The program of the camps of the character-building organizations is usually a continuation of the year-round program of the organization and complements it, and is thus not regarded as an end in itself. These camps serve well the purpose of vacation and recreation and accomplish some educational ends, but the shortness of the term spent by most campers renders impossible the careful constructive work in health, social adjustment, and education which the all-summer camp is able to accomplish.

The Four-H clubs render a distinct service to farm youth in providing summer camps for them. The tendency is to select outstanding boys and girls with leadership capacity from rural neighborhoods and attempt to give them in a week or two of training in camp the inspiration and skills which will enable them to return home and enrich the recreational life of their associates in the year-round program.

Social settlements operate camps for the neighborhoods in which

they work. Owing to the fact that those neighborhoods are usually underprivileged, these camps operate at a much lower cost and often are entirely charitable. Naturally the program is affected by the immediate needs of the campers, and, since malnutrition is often prevalent, the health-building factor looms so large that it often overshadows all other phases. Children of all ages and often mothers of infants are taken.

Aside from these year-round organizations which feature camping in the summer for their children, camps for underprivileged children are often sponsored by other types of institutions with a philanthropic spirit. Examples are found in the University Fresh Air Camps of the University of Michigan and Princeton University, which are supported by funds solicited from students and alumni. Inexpensive leadership is obtained by using students as counselors. Rotary and Kiwanis Clubs and similar business men's organizations frequently sponsor camping, but usually do not operate the camps themselves, merely contributing to the budgets and equipment of the camps of the so-called character-building agencies, and financing the way of many underprivileged children who could not otherwise attend.

MUNICIPAL CAMPS

Municipal camps have been slow in development because of the immediate need confronting city recreation departments for concentration upon the development of city playgrounds. In recent years, however, there has been a growing emphasis upon camping as an important function of the recreation commission, and many larger city departments present camping facilities of some sort. Outstanding developments in this direction are seen in the Pacific coast cities, Los Angeles operating four camps, Oakland three, and San Francisco, Sacramento, Stockton, and Berkeley one each. Detroit also has a well-developed camp. In some cities these developments consist of nothing more than tracts of land developed for camping purposes and available for camping and hiking parties, but in the above cities permanent leadership and organized camp programs are offered.

Organized municipal camps are supervised in two ways: one type resembles the semi-public camps described previously, with campers registered for one- or two-week periods at low cost; the other type provides permanent leadership at the camp and assigns to each playground days when the camp facilities are reserved for it. Parties from one playground, accompanied by playground leaders who cooperate with the permanent camp leaders, spend one or two days at the camp

at a low fee covering meals, then vacate in favor of a group from another playground.

INDUSTRIAL CAMPS

This type of camp is operated by a certain industry or large store to give its employees a vacation at a very reasonable cost. The development in this field has been meager and experimental and cannot be said at the present moment to be on the increase. In 1927, thirty-three industrial establishments reported that they were conducting summer camps, but most of these consisted of country club houses and camping facilities available for employees, rather than of organized camp programs with adequate leadership.³ For the most part, industrial camps consist of equipped camp sites where week-ends and vacations may be spent.

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 in order to permit the campers a certain amount of freedom of dress.
5. There should be a large open field for games and activities.
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.
8. There should be a large woods nearby for nature, woodcraft, and hiking.
9. The camp site should be beautiful and inspiring.

THE CAMP LAYOUT—BUILDINGS

Two types of layouts are to be found in the camping field.

1. The Military plan. In this arrangement the sleeping tents or cabins are placed in rows forming streets or a hollow square, with the other buildings such as dining hall, recreation building, and hospital

³ See *Monthly Labor Review of the Bureau of Labor Statistics*. May 1927. Washington: Department of Labor.

in formal relation to the sleeping quarters. A variation of this plan arranges the tents in a semicircle or circle.

2. The Topographical plan. This layout avoids any semblance of a formal arrangement but seeks to place the living quarters more or less at random where they fit in naturally and picturesquely to the topography of the camp site. The larger buildings are likewise placed with a view to the natural setting.

Selection between these two plans is largely a matter of personal choice, affected by the limitations of the camp site. It needs to be said, however, that the trend in camping in general is decidedly away from the formalism of the military approach. The older camp emphasized not only the military layout but formality in the method of programming, camper-counselor relationships, and discipline. The modern camp director tends to feel that better results are to be obtained by a more natural, congenial, and lifelike approach. Hence the topographical plan has been in the ascendancy.

The latter arrangement leads to a more beautiful, colorful, and picturesque camp site. It separates the tents or cabins a little more, thus giving privacy to the tent group and freedom from the noise of other tents. Too great a separation is very undesirable, however, in that it makes control more difficult, destroys the feeling of oneness in the camp, and sacrifices general camp morale and *esprit de corps*. When a wide variation of age exists in the camp, however, the different age levels must be separated somewhat.

Sleeping quarters may be tents, tent-cottages, cottages, or dormitories, while in the Southwest and southern Pacific coast region campers sleep right out in the open, even in permanent camps. Dormitories hold little favor in organized camps for children. As between tents and cottages or cabins there are points in favor of each:

Advantages of tents:

1. They are in keeping with the simple outdoor life which should characterize camping.
2. There is a romance and picturesqueness about life in them which is particularly appealing to the imagination of boys and girls, and which is of such importance in the minds of many directors as to affect all other considerations.
3. The openness and airiness of tents provide a more healthful arrangement for sleeping than cottages or cabins, in which the housing of six or eight people in one room is of very questionable health value. Some cities for instance have laws against more than two or three people sleeping in the same room.
4. The original cost is low.
5. They are particularly adapted to use on temporary or camp sites where permanent buildings are impossible.

Advantages of cottages or cabins:

1. They are longer lived than tents and do not require the constant care and upkeep.
2. They are more easily prepared for occupancy at the beginning of camp and more easily closed.
3. They furnish better protection against the weather and insects.

If the camp site is infested with mosquitoes, the advantage of a carefully screened cabin or cottage is so great as to offset the appeal of the open tent. Flies also often awaken campers with the coming of daylight and cause the loss of much sleep. In this situation a tent-cottage may not only offer necessary protection but safeguard the romantic appeal which gathers around tent camping. All tents should be equipped with a floor raised six or eight inches off the ground. There are many interesting types of tent-cottages, cottages, and cabins for use in summer camps and a careful study of these should be made before building a camp.⁴

The dining hall should be fitted into the topography in such a way that it blends with the natural scenery and presents if possible a beautiful view of the lake or landscape. It must be far enough away from the sleeping quarters so that noise and odors from the kitchen will not be too disturbing, yet not so far away as to make the walk too time-consuming. Some camps use the dining hall for a recreation building by clearing the tables away, but this is undesirable, and if possible a separate recreation building should be provided. All buildings should be attractive and camplike, made to fit into the particular environment in which they are located. The barracks-like or dancehall-like type of structure stands out like a sore thumb in camp. Camping is romance and beauty and simplicity, and buildings should reflect this spirit.

Special attention should be given to the sanitary location of toilets with respect to the tents and kitchen, of incinerators, washing facilities, stables, and drinking water. On all these matters of permanent equipment and layout, the standard books on camping should be consulted.

OBJECTIVES OF CAMPING

BEFORE any sort of an enterprise can be successfully undertaken a definite conception of its objectives must exist in the mind of its director, and camping is no exception to this rule. This seems too simple and obvious a fact to mention but the lack of specific objectives

⁴ See L. H. Weir (Editor), *Camping Out*, Chapter 4. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924; also H. W. Gibson, *Camp Management*, Chapter 5. New York: Association Press, 1923.

has been an outstanding criticism of the whole field of recreational-educational work in the past. Workers have presumed that somehow they were doing good, but precisely and in detail just what they were striving to accomplish through their work they had not adequately analyzed.

Everyone related to the camp has objectives. Parents have their objectives in sending children to camp.⁵ Campers have their objectives in attending camp. The director has objectives and each of his counselors must have objectives relating to their phases of the program. Very obviously the director must be familiar with the objectives of parents and campers, and their objectives must become an integral part of his objectives as the director.

Objectives must be arrived at before counselors can be employed because very obviously they will affect the type of counselors selected. No effort can be made to lay down objectives for the camping field as a whole for they vary from camp to camp and from director to director. Each director will doubtless have some which are unique and characteristic only of his camp. In a general way, however, the objectives of organized camping as we conceive them are as described in the following paragraphs.

FUN FOR THE CAMPERS

Camping is first of all a great glad game. Too serious an attitude on the part of the director in the pursuit of his adult ends of character will result in failure from every angle. "Camp programs are adult-made. Usually the director or head counselor, sitting at his city desk during the winter and spring months, maps out and determines the activities which his campers will enjoy during the coming season.

"Adult likes and camper likes frequently do not coincide. Most certainly director *aims* and camper *aims* do not coincide. The boy or girl in camp cares nothing at all, except in a vague, indefinite sort of way, about the fine phrases and high idealism with which the director announces his aims and purposes. Neither does he care about the character-building and personality-moulding aspects of this or that activity which justifies its existence in the director's mind. The camper's aim in attending camp is 'fun.' He judges every activity on the basis of pleasure and interest. Very obviously the director must keep this fact in mind; to fail to satisfy the camper-aim will result disastrously, however well thought out all other phases of the camp may be. The

⁵ See H. S. Dimock and C. E. Hendry, *Camping and Character*, pp. 20-24. New York: Association Press, 1929.

satisfaction of the camper-aim of 'fun' must become an essential part of and must shape and color all other phases of the adult-aim."⁶

ABOUNDING HEALTH AND STRONG PHYSIQUE

Camping is vigorous life in the open with regularity of schedule and plenty of wholesome food. It is naïve, however, to assume that a camp experience will inevitably result in an improvement in health and physique even though this idea seems to have been quite generally held in the past.

There is no such thing as the inevitability of good results in health or any other objective of camping. True, the general routine in a well-managed camp is conducive to healthful living, but the store of energy brought to camp by individual campers varies tremendously and their capacity to withstand the strain of vigorous activity varies accordingly. Life in camps has frequently been too much rush and hurry. Insufficient sleep has been the rule, not the exception. Programs designed for the average normal healthy camper prove too strenuous for many who are less efficient physically, with resultant loss of weight and depletion of energy on their return home. This puts the problem on a case basis; each camper must be studied individually in respect to his ability to withstand the strain of the program which of necessity is blocked out for normal healthy campers. When loss of weight is noted in individual cases, these individual programs must be altered, added nourishment given the campers in question, and sleep more carefully safeguarded. Short-term camps have been particularly at fault here, and campers have often returned home physically depleted.

Campers appear in camp with many postural difficulties which are easily remedied. It is the function of the camp to provide the leadership which will make correction possible.

In short, the camp director must set definite health and physique objectives and must make sure that they are obtained in each *individual case*. To this end he must set up a specialized machinery. Life in a well-managed camp is not only conducive to abounding health but also furnishes an ideal situation for the health education of campers.

SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

This objective has to do with the development of attitudes, habits, ways, and capacities which will make for successful, harmonious, effective living with others. The most difficult lesson any of us ever have

⁶ Bernard S. Mason, *Camping and Education*, p. 1. New York: The McCall Co., 1930.

to learn is how to get along with others. None of us ever learn it completely. Children as they come to camp are frequently woefully weak in this respect. In the give and take of camp life, in the contact with others of their own age and with adults, they learn under sympathetic guidance what "goes" with people and what doesn't.

Whenever people are together, they take on each other's ways of acting. Those ways which a predominating number of the campers possess tend very rapidly to become the ways of all, and we have the establishment of campways and traditions. A new camper soon adopts the ways of the camp; the habits of the group—desirable or undesirable—become his habits and he takes them away with him as a part of the contribution of the experience in camp.

A camp is an isolated harmonious society. It is a primary group—close intimate face-to-face contacts lived in day and night for eight weeks. It is difficult to think of any relationship outside the family where the socializing, uniformizing process goes on more profoundly. Character is an inevitable result of camping; no one could live in such a primary group relationship without having character affected—and probably affected profoundly. But, as we have seen before, there are many kinds of character—and there is no such thing as the inevitability of *good* or *socially acceptable* character results of camping.

The camp director must very definitely decide just what in the line of character he hopes to accomplish, then bring together the type of leadership which will accomplish it. In many camps of the better sort to-day, personnel experts with a psychiatric background are employed to study the character or personality difficulties and shortcomings of each individual in camp and to assist him in making the necessary adjustments.⁷ This is a swing away from the mass approach of the past in which cure-alls for character were handed out to the camp as a whole and a swing toward the application of the case approach which is characterizing all of group work to-day.

EDUCATION IN TECHNIQUES

Camp supplements the formal education of the schools. Its business in education is the development of interests and skills in many crafts and activities not handled—or inadequately handled—by the schools. The purely recreational camp is largely a thing of the past. The modern camp director thinks in terms of converting the summer months, otherwise wasted educationally, into constructive activity. He must

⁷ See H. S. Dimock and C. E. Hendry, *Camping and Character*, Chap. 8 and 12. New York: Association Press, 1929.

never do this, however, at the expense of the camper-aim of fun. That is, he bases his program on the interests of campers and tries to lead them on to new and "better" interests, not to force new skills on them. If this is done successfully, the camp is not only of worth educationally, but it does not depart far from a recreational camp.

Camping is education for leisure, and when one thinks of the tremendous increase in leisure ahead of us, the camp looms as an educational institution every bit as significant as the school, or would if it could reach more children. Camping is education for life and the skills growing out of camp activities will contribute to a rich and full life every bit as much as most school-taught skills and more than many of them.

These things being true, the director surrounds himself with counselors not only skilled in techniques which they can teach, but familiar with the principles of progressive education and teaching methods.

APPRECIATION OF FINER THINGS

Music in camp can be jazz and slapstick, or it can be music of the better sort. Certainly some jazz must remain in camp—the camp cannot be divorced that far from the life of to-day—and some of the old camp standbys in the way of songs will remain. If, however, the emphasis is on music of the better sort, under competent enthusiastic leadership, much can be done to develop an appreciation of such music on the part of campers. A music director with a beautiful solo voice can affect materially the tone of the camp in respect to appreciation of finer things, merely through his singing and his love for the type of songs he sings. And the same is true of dramatics, story telling, and nature lore.

The director surrounds himself with leadership which can develop an appreciation of higher values in respect to music, dramatics, literature, nature, arts and crafts, and the beauty of human personality.

LEADERSHIP

CAMPS are not built around things; they are built around personalities. Palatial dining halls and summer-resort-like recreation buildings do not make the camp. The thing that counts in camp is leadership—models, heroes. As we have already seen, youths are ardent hero worshippers. They feed their personalities on the admired traits in those they hope some day to be like. In the close intimate life of camp the quality of the leadership is all important. The camp counselors must symbolize in their personal life the ideals and objectives of the camp.

Furthermore, camp counselors must be specialists in skills they are there to teach. No matter how ideal a man may be in character and personality, if he has no skill which he can contribute, it is difficult to consider him seriously. On the other hand, the most gifted teacher of a needed skill cannot be considered if his character falls short of the camp ideals.

In respect to age, the high level of skill and teaching ability usually requires mature leaders. The judgment of young counselors is often faulty, especially in emergencies. Too many middle-aged adults, however, often dampen the spirit of joy which must predominate in the camp. Youthful counselors as a rule carry with them a glamour that the more mature frequently do not have. They represent the stage which campers soon expect to enter; they are more efficient as models, and they are more satisfactory from the standpoint of socialization. The staff should be composed of both younger and older counselors—too many of either will be unsatisfactory. The use of very young and inexperienced counselors such as older campers—a custom common in many camps—is a very questionable policy from the standpoint of the serious pursuit of objectives.

Regardless of age, camp leadership must have the spirit of youth—the spirit of joy. It must participate and thrill in the activities. It must be friendly, agreeable, approachable. It must be sympathetic and understanding. It must maintain respect and have the capacity to maintain order, but it must never be overbearing or “bossy.” It must be impartial and have no favorites.

Counselors grow in camp and are benefited by the camp experience as much as campers. One of the great tasks of the camp director is the training of his leadership staff.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STAFF

The Camp Director.—He is the executive of the camp, a man of organizing ability and financial experience. He is responsible for the budgeting of the funds and the handling of all financial matters, although in organization camps he frequently works under a financial committee. In large camps he has a bookkeeper and office secretary. He is responsible for publicity, advertising, and the enrollment of campers. He deals with parents, meets visitors, advises with parents regarding their problems and complaints, and is responsible to them for the accomplishment of objectives. Some directors prefer to direct the program personally, but a director has one man's job without this specialized function and as a rule employs a program director who works

under him. He also selects and employs counselors, although, if he is wise, he will confer with his program director regarding the acceptability of these counselors for the reason that they will have to handle activities in which the program director must work with them personally.

The director, for the best results, must be a well-socialized individual able to work harmoniously with others, especially with his staff. He must be a man of sympathy and tact in that he is arbiter in the disputes and conflicts of personalities which arise without end when people live together in the close relationship of camp. He must be a man of vision and idealism in that the idealism of the camp reflects to an unusual degree his personality. Although an executive he must be more than an executive in the business-man sense of the term for he must symbolize all in the way of idealism, educational philosophy, and objectives that he hopes his camp will stand for. These values must radiate from him or from others in high authority with whom he surrounds himself and whom he endorses.

The Program Director or Head Counselor.—Next in authority under the director comes a counselor responsible for the program of activities. He is sometimes called an assistant director, but more frequently a head counselor or program director. His duties are to formulate, set in operation, and direct in general the program and activities of the camp. He keeps up morale and *esprit de corps* and is for the most part the moving force and inspiration behind the program. From the standpoint of program and activities he is the director of the camp. The heads of all departments on the camp program and all activity leaders are responsible directly to him.

The program director must be somewhat of a specialist in modern educational principles and be responsible for building a program on these principles. He trains and supervises the leadership staff and educates them in the philosophy and principles of education on which the camp operates. He must be equally well versed in recreational activities. He must be versatile, original, imaginative, creative, broad in his sympathies and interests, and riding no particular hobby of his own.

Department Heads.—Under the program director are the heads of the various departments of the camp program. These directors of activities are specialists in their lines and responsible for their departments. Some camps may object to a departmentalized program and to specialists, in the sense that they work exclusively with their spe-

cialty, but the use of the term department does not necessarily mean a formalized school-like program—certainly we cannot justify that—nor does the specialist necessarily confine his activity exclusively to his specialty—that also we cannot justify. One thing is certain, however, the major activities must be under thoroughly trained experts if significant results in skills are to be possible. In addition to their specialties, these counselors must have varied interests and must circulate, contributing to every activity within their capacities.

These department heads are of the following types:

- Swimming counselor
- Canoeing counselor
- Sailing counselor
- Athletics counselor
- Tennis counselor (usually separate from athletics)
- Horseback riding counselor
- Riflery counselor
- Archery counselor
- Nature lore counselor
- Woodcraft counselor
- Indian lore and Indian dancing counselor
- Pioneering and woodwork counselor
- Arts and crafts counselor
- Music counselor
- Dramatics counselor
- Dancing counselor
- Trips counselor

The waterfront involves a large element of danger, and division of authority in the use of waterfront facilities may result in disaster. One individual should be in absolute charge of all waterfront activities. Usually, this is the swimming director—a highly skilled, mature, and experienced individual. In small camps this counselor may handle swimming, canoeing, and sailing. But in a camp of any size, while he is responsible for all regulations and supervision of water activities, he confines his teaching to swimming and other counselors handle canoeing and sailing.

The use of a “water sports counselor” and a “land sports counselor” is an older method of classification of duties which does not meet the needs to-day. There are many water sports and many land sports, each of which needs specially trained leadership.

Some camps have an educational director, but, when a program director is present, it is difficult to see a place for a separate director of education. This is the precise function of the program director. However, in camps of the Boy Scout type an official sometimes called

an educational director is in charge of the test-passing program. A recreational director likewise often appears on the list of staff members. Here again one has trouble in finding a function for such a counselor: all of the above is recreation and the supervising leader is the program director. It is likewise all education; the line between the two is difficult to draw.

In camps with a limited staff some of the above departments may be combined. For instance, one individual may handle woodcraft, Indian lore, and woodwork. Music and dramatics often fall under one head. The duties of the trips counselor in organizing off-campus trips and overnights are frequently handled by the canoeing counselor and advantageously so because canoes in the camps located in woods and lake country are usually the medium of transportation. While all trips will not involve canoes but may consist of hiking, riding, or sailing, one man usually is responsible for their organization and this man is often the canoeing counselor. Short hikes are run regularly by counselors whose activities call for such expeditions—nature lore, woodcraft, pioneering, and so forth.

In organization camps special names may be applied to the activities counselors, growing out of the terminology characteristic of the organization, but regardless of the names applied, the above classification indicates the scope of the skills which must be brought to the camp, and the terms applied are those characteristic of the private camp field at the present.

Director of Evening Activities.—Some camps carry a counselor giving special attention to evening programs. These evening programs are of such importance, however, that usually the program director desires to give them his personal attention. The dramatics counselor is often assigned the duty of giving attention to the details of all evening programs, whether dramatic or not, and plans with the program director. The music counselor also plays a large part. Some short-term camps have a “stunt officer” but this term is bad in that it implies that the evenings consist of nothing more than “stunts.” The whole camp program, evenings and otherwise, must be integrated and all should be headed by one man, the program director.

Therapeutic and Personnel Experts.—It is not assumed that the average camp will be able to carry these experts, but the point of view involving their use is on the ascendancy so decidedly in better camp circles at the moment that a reference to their functions is indispensable.

We have referred in the section on the health and strong physique objective to the need for a careful analysis throughout the summer of each individual camper's capacity to withstand the strain of the program and the altering of the individual programs of those who are expending more energy than they can restore. Likewise we have referred to individual postural needs of campers and the administering of exercises to meet these case needs rather than mass exercises handed out to the camp as a whole. This calls for a specialized skill on the part of some counselor. The need is for a therapeutic expert who makes these individual analyses and is the immediate advisor of the program director, informing him of the changes in individual programs as they are needed.

We have also referred in the section on the social adjustment objective to the approach to character formation which calls for the study of individual maladjustments and the needs of each individual personality. This involves the use of modern psychological methods and measurements and calls for a highly specialized counselor with a psychiatric background. He also is the immediate advisor of the program director on the individual needs of campers.

These two supervisory experts—therapeutic and personnel—become the immediate staff of the head counselor. "The head counselor is the organizer and supervisor of the program, with the cooperation of a therapeutic worker, who, by the case method, studies, conserves, and develops the health and physique of each individual camper, especially the abnormal and subnormal, and a personality worker who by the case method studies the adjustment and personality difficulties of each camper and suggests program alterations for those who depart from the normal in any respect. These two workers are active participating members in the camp program, functioning as other counselors, but with their specialties in these directions."⁸

Dietitian.—This official works out menus, supervises the kitchen staff, and purchases or is responsible for purchasing food supplies. He is usually given a budget inside of which he must stay in the purchasing of supplies. This official has in past years often been called a mess officer or a quartermaster, but the tendency to-day is to use a trained individual in foods and to call him a dietitian, extending his duties to cover all purchasing.

Medical Staff.—A doctor should be on the staff if at all possible—

⁸ Bernard S. Mason, *Camping and Education*, p. 107. New York: The McCall Co., 1930.

very few camps of the better sort care to operate otherwise. In case of disease, an outside doctor is usually called in to confirm the diagnosis of the camp doctor. In addition, camps often carry a trained nurse. Some eliminate the doctor and rely on a trained nurse with the help of nearby doctors. There are a few progressive camps to-day which are pioneering in the therapeutic field and carry in addition to the usual medical staff an orthopedic expert.

Store Keeper.—The camp store opens a few minutes each day and handling candy and routine necessities is under the supervision of a counselor with capacities in this direction, often the bookkeeper and financial assistant to the camp director.

Postmaster.—This duty is usually a minor assignment of some activity counselor. He not only handles mail, but is responsible for seeing that all campers write home frequently, keeping a chart of letters written home by all campers and often posting lists of suggested subjects for campers to write about.

CAMP ACTIVITIES

CAREFUL studies of the typical programs being offered in the camps of the country indicate that all too few of the activities which should comprise an adequate program are being used. The tendency is to use the traditional activities only. The program should be filled with interesting, varied activities, wide in nature and scope, imaginative, challenging, and always compelling. There are many individuals in camp, all with different interests, and the activities must be broad enough in scope to satisfy all these individual likes. Directors too often build programs satisfying their own personal likes and dislikes. Camps are run for campers, not counselors; for children, not adults. All possible activities should be there and the facilities for them. The specialized camps referred to early in the chapter, such as riding, canoeing, or backwoods camps, are all right provided their limitations are duly stated in the advertising so that those whose interests are not in accord may seek camping elsewhere. Camping is adventure, high adventure, *new* adventure; therefore, the program must be always changing and growing. With all the possibilities which camping offers, there is never any excuse for drabness and monotony.

Effort should always be made toward color and picturesqueness in camping, toward the dressing up of activities in romantic clothes, challenging to the imagination.

We have already mentioned the major activity departments of the camp: swimming, canoeing, sailing, athletics, tennis, woodcraft, nature lore, Indian lore, riding, riflery, archery, dancing, arts and crafts, pioneering and woodwork, music, dramatics. These activities break up into many, many activities.

The scope of the program is only indicated in the following list:

Water activities

Swimming and life saving
Swimming meets, regular and novelty
Canoeing and canoeing meets
Stunt canoeing
Portaging
Sailing
Motor boating
Row boating
Canoe tilting
Water polo
Water cageball
Water baseball
Water pillow fighting
Log rolling
Aquaplaning

Athletic sports

Baseball
Playground ball
Volleyball
Cageball
Speedball
Soccer
Basketball
Tennis
Golf
Boxing
Wrestling
Touch football
Track events

Minor sports or "fillers"

Paddle tennis
Deck tennis
Hand tennis
Tetherball
Badminton
Horsehoe pitching
Dart throwing
Blow guns

Minor sports or "fillers"—(Continued)

Table tennis
Axe throwing

Horseback riding

Riding shows
Riding trips
Moonlight rides
Early morning rides
Saddling races
Flag raids, etc.
Stunt riding

Shooting

Rifle
Pistols
Trap shooting

Archery

Target shooting
Roving
Dummy deer hunting
Making bows, arrows, targets

Woodcraft

Axemanship
Fire building
Whittling and wood carving
Shelter building
Bark craft
Horn craft
Buckskin craft
Rawhide craft
Rustic furniture
Basketry of woods materials
Log cabin construction

Indian lore

Indian dancing
Costume making
Drum making
Other musical instruments
Pipe making
Feather craft

Indian lore

Rawhide craft
 Buckskin making
 Council fires
 Pageants
 Tomahawk throwing
 Indian nature trails
 Indian songs
 Indian legendary lore
 Indian symbolism and art
 Tepee and wigwam making
 Sweat bath construction
 Beading
 Silver and shell bead work

Nature lore

Familiarity with nature objects
 (trees, birds, etc.)
 Nature trails
 Spatter prints
 Blue prints
 Smoke prints
 Ink prints
 Leaf collections
 Wood collections
 Twig collections
 Seed collections
 Plaster casts
 Recording animal tricks
 Aquariums
 Mounting insects
 Star overnights

Music

Orchestra
 Group singing
 Solo work on fine level
 Goodnight song
 Musical shows

Wild West

Lariat throwing
 Rope spinning
 Whip cracking
 Western riding

Wild West—(Continued)

Stunt riding
 Circus

*Arts and crafts*⁹

Basketry
 Leather plaiting
 Leather tooling
 Jewelry making
 Brass, silver, copper, pewter,
 wrought iron
 Design
 Wood painting
 Canoe paddle painting
 Pottery
 Dyeing
 Weaving

Dramatics and story telling

Vaudeville and stunt nights
 Dramatic productions
 Musical shows
 Dramatic reading
 Pageants
 Circuses
 Concerts
 Story telling
 Poetry
 Costume making
 Make-up
 Scenery painting
 Stage lighting

Council fires

Grand council
 Little council

Dancing

Aesthetic
 Tap
 Gymnastic
 Indian
 Folk
 Social

Library

The program is punctuated and relief given from routine by trips which take all campers away from the camp site at least once a week. Special days also serve this purpose—campers' own day in which they

⁹ See complete list of arts and crafts activities in Chapter VI.

run the camp, topsy-turvy day when the schedule runs backward, Christmas day with a decorated tree and gifts for all, circus day, and so forth.

EVENING ACTIVITIES

Evenings are regarded as perhaps the most important part of the whole day. It is in the after-dark activities that the camp spirit reaches its highest pitch. Particular attention under competent leadership should be given to them. So important are evening activities that the time on which a camp operates may well be set so that there is a full hour of darkness before bedtime.

Evening activities are of four general types: (1) dramatics on the camp stage or in the dining hall (these may be more or less impromptu such as dramatized stories and mock trials, or of the type of vaudeville and stunt nights in which each tent presents an act, or perhaps a play or musical comedy in which every effort is made to do a worthy piece of artistic work); (2) story telling around the campfire; (3) councils; (4) tent or cabin campfires.

Story telling nights have proved to be one of the most popular of camp events and a good story teller is a most valuable asset. No one who can talk easily can fail completely as a story teller if he is willing to make the necessary effort, and there are several excellent treatises on the subject. Appreciation hours in which the reading of poetry predominates are common in some camps, particularly girls' camps.

The best single approach to evening work is the council fire held in the council ring which is copied after Indian council rings. Councils are of two types—grand and little. The grand council is an Indian ceremonial featuring Indian dancing and is colorful, ritualistic, and religion-like.¹⁰ Little council consists of challenges or dual contests with two competitors in the ring working before the gallery of the camp in the stands. The winner is challenged until a champion is determined. This council fire technique is little understood and practiced and it is difficult to determine why. It transcends all other activities in glamour, but it takes dynamic leadership on the part of the counselor in charge. Every camp should have an authentic colorful council ring and a counselor familiar with council procedure.¹¹

Open or unprogrammed evenings should be the exception, not the

¹⁰ See Bernard S. Mason, *Camping and Education*, pp. 222–229 for description of Grand Council. New York: The McCall Co., 1930.

¹¹ See Ernest Thompson Seton, *Birch Bark Roll of Woodcraft*, pp. 210–217 for construction of ring; pp. 26–35 for games. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1931.

rule. An occasional open evening is appreciated, however. Tent campfires, in which each tent is by itself around its little fire, also offer variety and enjoy distinct popularity in camps where they are practiced.

DAILY SCHEDULE

THE following schedule for daily routine is recommended:

- 7:00 *First call.*
- 7:15 *Everybody out of bed.* Flag raising (the tendency is away from a reveille formation and formal colors).
Morning dip—optional but not encouraged.
- 7:30 *Breakfast.* At sound of horn campers gather informally outside dining hall, and, when all are present, the signal to enter is given. Marching in is more characteristic of the camps of yesterday—the trend is toward informality. Campers present themselves with faces washed, hair combed, arms and feet covered. Officer of the day inspects at door. Campers sit by tents, at *small* tables if possible; this arrangement eliminates much noise and shouting. Counselor serves food family style. Conservation of family training in table manners is emphasized and table slang is avoided as much as possible. Slow up the eating, avoiding rush, noise, and confusion. If at all possible, employ dish washers. Time is too precious for more constructive work for campers to spend energy washing dishes.
- 8:00 *Counselors' staff meeting.*
Campers clean up tents or cabins. Counselors join them at close of meeting.
- 8:50 *Inspection of tents or cabins.*—No grades or awards—emphasis on cleanliness for the sake of cleanliness.
Personal inspection of each camper by doctor for cleanliness and infection. Doctor goes to hospital afterwards to receive patients.
- 9:15 *Interest groups, 1st period.*
- 10:15 *Interest groups, 2nd period.*
- 11:15 *General swim.* No instruction—that is given in interest groups. General swim is for the joy of the sport. No swimming except at scheduled hours and place. Signal to enter the water is not given by the swimming counselor until his life guards are all in place.
- 12:05 *Dinner.* Announcements follow each meal, each counselor being called on by the program director. Singing takes place at the noon and evening meals, usually camp singing at noon and solo work at night. This slows up the meal and relieves the rush and nervous tension which accompanies it.
- 12:45 *Store open.*
- 1:15 *Rest hour,* carefully supervised and enforced, counselors with their tents.
- 2:15 *Interest groups, 3rd period.*
- 3:15 *Interest groups, 4th period, or*
Athletic Leagues.
- 4:15 *General swim.*
- 5:45 *Supper.*
- 6:45 *Unscheduled,* and open for informal games, tournaments. and so forth.

7:30 *Evening entertainment.*

8:45 *Call to quarters.*

9:00 *Goodnight song.* The tendency is to eliminate the army bugle because of its implications, and replace it with calls which symbolize more accurately the life in the woods. Camp Fairwood in Northern Michigan uses the lumberman's horn throughout the day, except for colors, and ends the day with a group of songs sung by the music director from a canoe on the lake.

Note that all campers receive ten hours sleep. This is not sufficient for some age levels in a strenuous program of activities, but it is impossible in camp to secure longer hours. The needed extra hour is obtained during the rest hour. This is not an hour of sleep as a rule, but it affords rest and thereby helps. Quiet must prevail during rest hour. An additional hour of sleep is obtained every few days when it may seem necessary, by putting the camp to bed at the hour for evening entertainment. This procedure usually takes place on rainy nights when campers will go to bed willingly.

On Sunday, the camp gets up a half hour or an hour later, and the morning is featured by a church service. The afternoon is characterized by special activities giving relief from the routine of weekdays. The evening in some camps has a vesper service and in others it is the time for Grand Council, the major event of the week and the spiritual pinnacle of the program.

METHOD OF CAMP PROGRAMMING

THERE have been two schools of thought with respect to scheduling a camper's time, the older point of view holding that the camper should be subjected to a fixed and compulsory schedule of activities, the newer contending that the camper should be relieved of all such compulsory schedules with respect to activities and should be entirely free to do as he pleases.

That compulsory camp activities are taboo should need no argument. There can be no absolute assurance that one type of camp activity has greater potentialities than another in the accomplishment of camp objectives. Individual differences in likes and dislikes are conspicuous and should be recognized. The element of interest is of outstanding importance.¹²

Without some schedule of interest groups, however, chaos is apt to result, and counselors cannot be expected to cope with the situation.

¹² See Bernard S. Mason, *Camping and Education*, Chap. 5. New York: The McCall Co., 1930; also, Joshua Lieberman, *Creative Camping*. New York: Association Press, 1931.

Some sort of a compromise between the two points of view must be struck. Campers are therefore given interest sheets containing the names of the major departments of the camp program as listed above, and asked to check seven in which they are particularly interested.

This system amounts to a series of interest groups chosen by the campers, and when chosen, a schedule of those interest groups is made up for each camper, so that he can work them into his day without conflicts. For instance, one camper's schedule might read as follows:

- Monday 9:15 Horseback riding
- 10:15 Woodcraft
- 2:15 Riflery
- 3:15 Swimming

- Tuesday 9:15 Nature lore
- 10:15 Riflery
- 2:15 Artscraft
- 3:15 Reserved throughout the camp for athletic league games or special events.

Wednesday and Friday duplicate Monday; Thursday and Saturday duplicate Tuesday. An effort is made to keep these interest groups down to six campers to the counselor, twelve if there are two counselors in the department. Sometimes a schedule is worked out on the basis of a two-hour period instead of one hour.

This may appear to have all the earmarks of a rigid school-like schedule, but compulsory attendance does not necessarily follow. If interest groups are worthy of the name, however, the campers will be in attendance as a rule. If interest ceases, the camper's schedule should be changed. If he wants to stay more than one period in a given activity, no harm is done. Special projects growing out of the life situation in the camp are constantly arising to take campers away from the stated schedule of activities, such as making scenery for the show, or building a totem pole for the council ring. These projects should be always welcome, sought for, and financed by a special budget for the purpose. While working on them, campers abandon their basic schedule for the time being, then go back to it when the project is completed. The setting up of these interest groups is a time-consuming task for the program director, but it safeguards the individual's interest and that is all important, as well as giving a workable organization to the camp by means of which the counselors can be expected to do good work.

HONORS AND AWARDS

CAMPS have for many years used systems of honors and awards with definite test-passing schemes to stimulate interest in activities. While many camps of fine reputation use such schemes to-day, the trend has been somewhat away from them in recent years. Entirely aside from the argument pro and con regarding their use, experience has shown camp leaders that extrinsic incentives are not needed in camp as much as in other types of group work for the reason that the camp environment offers so much in the way of interesting and challenging activity which in itself is appealing. Enthusiastic, whole-hearted participation can usually be achieved without recourse to these means. Many camp directors feel that a program which is more educationally sound can be achieved without their use, on the grounds that the compulsion should be found in the lure of the activity and the camper's interest in it, not in artificial awards.¹³ Other directors favor their use for reasons discussed in detail in the chapter on "Organization of Play Activities." If point systems in camp are desired, they would follow in a general way those described in the above reference for use on the playground.

AGE CLASSIFICATION OF CAMPERS

FOR purposes of programming and to insure fair competition in contests, campers must be divided into age groupings. Four groupings are customary: midgets, juniors, intermediates, and seniors, grouped according to age, weight, and height, with the camper going into the classification into which two of his measurements place him. In large camps sometimes as many as six groupings are used.

DISCIPLINE

CAMP counselors are much too prone to penalize. The goal is to restore the offender to a normal state of participation and conformity, and what he needs is help—sympathetic help. A little friendly, intelligent cooperation on the part of the counselor will eliminate much of the need for "punishment." If this fails, a little while alone on the meditation log after the talk may result in a more thoughtful and considerate camper, or, if extreme measures are needed, the curtailment of privileges is the course to follow.

Even though work is one of the most prevalent punishments in

¹³ See W. H. Kilpatrick, *Foundations of Method*, Chapter 11. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1925.

the boys' camps, it is very doubtful whether its use has a place in a sound educational policy. Work is rather to be regarded as an honor and a privilege, a thing to be glorified.

A scheme of self-government in camp can do much in caring for administrative problems and in planning programs, but when this machinery includes a court for the trial and punishment of offenders, the policy is exceedingly questionable. It is an aping of an archaic and medieval institution in society and publishes the information that the management of the camp expects traditions to be broken.

When the camp program is fascinating and compelling, and life in the camp society is satisfying, few regulations will be broken. Widespread disregard for traditions indicates something vitally wrong with the program, and measures should be taken to reform *it*.

VISITORS

THE problem of visitors is an important one to camp directors. Parents and sightseers do much to distract the attention of campers from their work and make the accomplishment of objectives more difficult. They consume endless time on the part of director and counselors, who must greet them and show them about the camp site. They seek permission to take campers away on leave to nearby resorts, a practice which often is not desirable. On the other hand, most camp directors like to have parents and the interested public see the camp site and the program in action, feeling that this is the best method of education of adults concerning what the camp is accomplishing. Parents have a sincere interest in the camp and have a right to know what is being done there.

In order to safeguard against undue disturbance and at the same time display the camp program in action to those who are interested, most camps have set visitors' days on which the gates are open; but at other times keep the camp site closed to guests. These open periods are usually Saturday afternoon and Sunday after 9:30 a. m. Some camps follow the policy of opening the camp to parents every evening during the camp fire period with the thought that they will not only enjoy the performance but their presence will swell the audience and add incentives to the performers.

PRECAUTIONS FOR SAFETY

IN spite of all precautions, strenuous physical activity is sure to result in occasional minor injuries. These are to be expected and antici-

pated. Most of the injuries which occur in the organized camps, however, are not the result of strenuous activity but of carelessness in the casual life about the camp site. "Poor housekeeping" accounts for a surprisingly large number of injuries. Holes in floors and broken steps, roots on paths, protruding stones, and the like result in many a bruised foot and broken arm. Extreme precautions should be taken to clear up all main traveled paths and areas frequented particularly at night.

It goes without saying that a thoroughly adequate sanitary system must be installed, including latrine and garbage disposal facilities, and the director should seek expert advice on these matters. Drinking water should be analyzed at intervals of every two weeks by the state department of health.

Health examinations of campers should be required by a physician at the time of registration, and again the day before departure. The record of this last examination should contain a statement that the camper has neither had, nor been exposed to a contagious disease within one month of the opening of camp. Upon arrival a complete physical examination is given the camper and his heart reaction tested in the heat of exercise. Talks should be given the campers during the first day or two regarding the necessity of reporting immediately after an injury in which the skin is broken, or upon the first symptoms of illness. The doctor's personal inspection of campers each morning should include an examination of the throat if there is any tendency in camp toward colds or throat infection, and each camper should be asked concerning his bowel movement the day before. This inspection also checks on whether teeth have been brushed that day.¹⁴

The waterfront must be in the hands of a thoroughly competent and trained specialist and no camp can be excused for allowing campers to enter the water unless every possible precaution is taken for safety. Swimmers should be carefully classified at the beginning of camp into at least three classifications: non-swimmers, beginners, and swimmers. Until these classifications are worked out all campers should be regarded as non-swimmers and limited to the non-swimmers' area of the swimming beach. The swimming beach should be divided, depending on depth, into carefully marked off areas for each class. A lookout tower for the head of the life guards should be erected in such a position on the beach that there are no obstructions to the view. One or more life boats, equipped with crews of two, should patrol the

¹⁴ For a detailed discussion of Safety and Sanitation see Ben Solomon, "Camp Hazards and Safeguards," *Camp Life*. Summer 1933, p. 2. Also see J. E. Sanders, *Safety and Health in Organized Camps*. New York: National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, 1930.

beach during swimming periods. Care should be taken to see that rowboats are never overloaded, and the use of canoes should be limited to first-class swimmers.¹⁵

UNIT CAMPING

THE discussion thus far in this chapter has dealt with the organized camp in which campers are located in one large unit, although broken up, of course, into tent or cabin groups for housing purposes. The English method in camping tends toward the use of small units rather than the large mass group. In this country, the Girl Scouts are experimenting considerably with this system and most Girl Scout camps operate on this basis at the present time. The large camp is broken up into units of fifteen to twenty girls under the leadership of a unit leader, and located in a unit camp removed somewhat from the other units on the camp site. Each unit has an open sided headquarters with cooking utensils and fire place, and cooks two meals a day by itself, all units coming together for the evening meal. The program, for the most part, takes place within the unit and under the direction of the unit leader and assistants, there being very few events planned for the entire camp. Versatile leaders with a smattering of many skills are looked for rather than specialists.

Many of the Boy Scout camps at the present time operate on a basis similar to this. The camp is opened to scoutmasters who bring their troops in for periods under their own leadership. Sometimes the camp has specialists who remain there all summer to assist the scoutmasters, and sometimes the entire responsibility rests with the scoutmasters.

The unit system has the advantage of informality, making possible a type of camping calling for a greater use of woodcraft and cooking skills than the large camp, and resembling more the independent on-your-own camping in vogue before the rise of organized camping. The experimentation which is being done in this direction, if successful, may lead to a general trend in organized camping toward this sort of approach.

MEASUREMENT OF RESULTS

WITH the awakening on the part of camp directors to the fact that desirable results were not an inevitable outcome of camping, there has been a growing tendency to apply to camping certain measuring devices to determine just what is being accomplished in the attainment

¹⁵ For details and instructions on waterfront safety, American Red Cross Bulletin, N. H., 471. April, 1931.

of objectives in the course of the camp season. The health and strong physique objective is rather definitely measurable and the modern camp is careful to determine the progress each individual is making in this direction. Education in skills is also measurable, as it is comparatively easy to show that more skill or knowledge is possessed by an individual in a certain activity or subject at the end of the season than at the start.

In the field of character the question is considerably more confused, since measuring sticks cannot be as readily applied to changes in attitude as to the more tangible and observable changes mentioned above. There is a distinct trend in camping, however, to use all possible devices for determining growth in character and social adjustment. The devices are, for the most part, *attitude measuring scales, the camper's own story, observation of behavior, and behavior frequency scales*.¹⁶

Some camps carry personnel experts, with a psychiatric background, to accumulate and study these data, diagnose the needs of individual campers, and prescribe the help they may need. The above measuring devices are discussed and evaluated in Chapter XI.

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¹⁶ See H. S. Dimock and C. E. Hendry. *Camping and Character*. New York: Association Press, 1929.

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CHAPTER XVIII

ATHLETICS IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

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 athletic sports should comprise a large part of physical education in our high schools and colleges. Until recently, however, athletics were limited to the performances of a few carefully trained members of the student body; and these alone received the benefits of this type of instruction. On the other hand, for the great rank and file of our high school students, physical education offered the less enjoyable exercises of the gymnasium, performed two or three times a week according to the requirements.

The physical education program, however, is not accomplishing what it should if it lacks sports and games. This does not mean to imply that gymnastics should be ignored entirely. A judicious blending of gymnastic exercises with an athletic program would help in adding the benefits of formal discipline to the extent desired, and also of bodily development in posture, poise, and strength; but athletics should come first and predominate. When athletics, including recreative sports, track and field, and team games, comprise the main plan of work of the physical director, athletics will take their proper place in physical education.

While interscholastic and intercollegiate athletics are still limited to the few who are favored with outstanding ability, athletic games and sports have found their way to-day into the physical education periods to an increasing extent. Furthermore, through the rise of the intramural movement, athletics have increasingly been made available to all who wish to participate.

The traditional disparity between the members actually participating in athletics and the student body as a whole has been so great, that for many years athletics and physical education have been looked upon as separate phases of the school program, even so far as to have separate teachers. The trend to-day is to bring the two departments together

and to use a trained physical education person as the coach. Some schools, however, still have a coach and a physical education teacher. The coach in this case is usually a regular teacher in the school, with his program lightened so that he can carry athletics in addition. The physical director then has charge of the gymnasium, compulsory exercise, examinations, corrective work, hygiene instruction, and the intramural program.

The present status of athletics is the result of a process of evolution in which there are ten rather well defined stages in which different objectives appeared and came to the fore. We shall discuss these objectives briefly.

THE EVOLUTION OF ATHLETIC OBJECTIVES

THE educational objectives of athletics have greatly varied from period to period. The result, therefore, is that to-day's conception of athletics is an entirely different one from that of twenty or thirty years ago. New objectives have gradually made their appearance as new conditions have arisen in the economic and social structure of our national life. The effect of these objectives has been cumulative. In no case, has any one of the ten objectives which we shall trace through their evolution entirely disappeared. The emphasis on one may have lessened, and the emphasis on another may have strengthened, but the influence of all has remained to affect the total result. Consequently, at the same time that school authorities have been conscientiously striving to exercise more effective control over this phase of the educational curriculum, their problems have kept apace; for the assumption of new objectives has accordingly meant added responsibilities which in many cases were school-wide and community-wide in their ramifications.

From a student's plaything, athletics have grown to be a source of interest to the entire student body, to the entire community, to the entire state, and in the college sphere, to the entire nation. In fact, the Olympic Games hold the attention of the entire world.

The institution of athletics as it exists to-day is known to all. We need not dwell upon it any longer at this time. What may not be clear is the way in which this institution grew. Such a study has its value, for, by tracing its sources and its paths, we may the better perceive where it is headed.

SAFETY VALVE

The first objective of athletics was called the "Safety Valve" function. When desultory forms of athletic activity first appeared on the

scene in the 1880's and 1890's, educators at first, with but little enthusiasm, saw in them a possible value in the utilizing or diverting, in a harmless way, the excess energies of students who were possessed of more than an average amount of physical vitality and vigor. It seemed that this superfluity of animal spirits might well be expended in the rough and tumble of vigorous sports, and thereby diverted from the more vicious occupations of hazing, drinking, gambling, hair-cutting, class rushes, "town and gown" brawls, putting cows in belfries, locking teachers in rooms, playing hooky, going on strikes, and other ingenious means of making life a worry for the teachers in charge. Even for a time after athletics came on the scene, the students' propensities for this sort of thing increased rather than diminished. The period 1900 to 1905 might well be called an age of pranks. By one schoolman it was called an age of "smart-aleckism." The following quotations are only a few taken at random from a single educational journal of that time.

"Vandalism prevails in the —— High School. The Seniors bolt classes at will and in general imitate the college roisterer. Their last offense has been to steal the school clock pendulum."

"The students of —— College recently were reprimanded for a prank in which they turned a flock of sheep be-decked with tincans into the girls' dormitory."

"The girls at —— College were recently perturbed at finding a boy in disguise at their annual athletic indoor meet. The faculty are planning a fit punishment to make an example of him."

"The boys of —— High School make life miserable for their superintendent. Their latest offense was to let live rats into the school room. They had previously torn down the school flag."

"The boys of the —— High School recently locked out their principal for three hours."

"At —— hazers were punished by having to shovel snow on the village streets for six days under the supervision of the town marshal."

"The students at —— College recently put up a large beer sign in the college chapel and greatly disturbed the customary convocation services."

"Superintendent —— of —— mounted on a bicycle, is a terror to evil doers. He happened the other day to spy four truants. It was a chase through the streets and alleys, but by a beautiful flank movement and a leg charge down a bluff, Mr. —— gathered to his arms one of the lads and bore him in triumph to the office. Through him the hangouts of the other hoodlums will be learned and justice meted out to them."

In considering this objective it should be kept in mind that athletics were merely considered as a negative avenue of using up energy in out-of-school time. The positive values in the way of affecting character, mental normality, and sociability were not yet perceived, or if so, not

yet stressed. There was a definite relationship between this emphasis and the campaign slogans of the newly organized playground movement in the large cities to the effect that organized play would reduce the growing amount of juvenile delinquency.

It should also be kept in mind that there was no conception of a relationship between athletics and physical education. Physical education, then one of the various systems of formal gymnastics, was a school subject within the curriculum, and athletics were just as definitely outside the curriculum.

It is only natural that the great impetus for extracurricular forms of education in which athletic activities are so strongly represented, should follow directly upon this age of student pranks, hazing, and vandalism. To-day, there are occasional schoolmen who speak disparagingly of the value of such extracurricular activities as athletics, orchestras, bands, newspapers, debating clubs, science clubs, nature clubs, and so forth, and have praise only for the three R's and for the disciplinary subjects. Before jumping to conclusions, however, they should study the picture of school life before the advent of these new interests.

Schoolmen sometimes fail to realize and appreciate this value of the extracurricular program simply because they have never experienced a situation replete with annoyances such as have been described. The fact that these things do not exist to-day is one that should be attributed largely to these new educational interests, so valuable because the students themselves share in them and largely organize them. These extracurricular interests have grown up to occupy the students' attention and to make school a place of attraction rather than a prison to them. Whenever one hears of students on strike to-day, it is not because of dislike for school but rather because some of their prerogatives in the extracurricular field have been infringed upon.

RUGGED MANHOOD

The second objective that was claimed for athletics became most stressed in the days of Theodore Roosevelt's rise to power. This was the health and character-training side of athletics which has become one of the most important educational objectives of the athletic program. Certain preliminary events had helped to stimulate a dominating interest in athletics beginning with the year 1900. In 1896, with the revival of the Olympic games, there was an increased interest in competitive sports. The games of basketball and volleyball had just been invented and were gaining in popularity in gymnastic circles. The

Spanish American war, as is usual with all war experiences, left a strong realization of the need for physical fitness and courage.

To these actual events and happenings, there was also added academic challenge in the writings of Karl Groos, who gave scientific evidence that competitive play had come to the race through the process of natural selection and that it was a most necessary factor in the struggle for existence. Herbert Spencer, who so greatly influenced schoolmen, had also stated that "the first requisite for success in life is to be a good animal." In our own country William James was making his famous statement, "a moral equivalent for war," and asserting that games of personal contact sublimated the pugnacious tendencies and emotions into higher channels and to more idealistic ends.

All these tendencies to emphasize the vigorous and self-reliant values of athletic sports were thrown into the spotlight by Roosevelt's ardent espousal of them. Roosevelt, himself, was the best and most quoted example of the value of a regimen of sports and outdoor life. From a childhood of semi-invalidism, he had gained health and confident personality from roughing it with men on a ranch. Later, upon his entrance into politics, he became immediately engaged in a battle with the trusts and vigorously wielded the "big stick" and preached the doctrine of the strenuous life. It was only natural that he should be intensely interested in vigorous sports and outdoor life as a means of training aggressive and self-reliant leaders. Some of his epigrams on sport have been preached over and over again and are still familiar. In 1903 he made the statement, "The development of a sound body is the development of a sound mind." Probably his most famous saying—one which is seen on the walls of many school rooms—is, "Play the Game. Don't foul, don't shirk—but hit the line hard." In short, his athletic philosophy stressed winning modestly, losing gracefully, and never being a molly-coddle.

The effect of athletics upon health and character has always been a debatable subject. It has been quite generally conceded, however, by many famous educators that both health and character-training qualities are to be gained in sports and games. In a questionnaire submitted by Thorndike to approximately one thousand school administrators of California, the subject in the curriculum that was given the highest rating for its effect upon character was organized play and games. Reaney of London University in 1916 submitted a similar questionnaire to the headmasters of English schools and also found that the replies ranked athletics highest in possibilities for character training. These are the opinions of practically all schoolmen. If space permitted,

they might be supplemented at length by the opinions of disinterested observers of international prominence.

The evidence, therefore, seems to be strongly in favor of the very definite contribution that sports when properly conducted can make to health and character. For this very reason, however, it is important that the choosing of the athletic teacher should be considered with the utmost seriousness. Some years ago, President Angell of Yale University said, "I would rather have a man of questionable character in any other position than that of athletic coach, for nowhere is the pernicious influence of any individual so serious." So far as the spirit and wholesomeness of the general student body is concerned, the coach is perhaps the most influential man on a faculty.

GLORY OF THE SCHOOL

The early friends of athletics did not foresee the third objective which grew as a result of this early period of athletic prosperity, that of the exploitation of school teams for advertising purposes. It soon became evident that schools which developed unusually successful teams received wide publicity of a nature bound to attract the favorable attention of prospective students. College administrators saw in winning athletics an advertising medium and as a consequence there was a decided lowering of standards in an effort to win at any cost. Nor were college heads the only offenders, for city superintendents and principals found themselves quite willing to share in the reflected glory and the community support that came with championship teams. Even where educators ignored or actively opposed this trend, the pressure from the rapidly intensifying student and alumni interest was too great to be stopped.

These tendencies gave athletics a severe set-back in the esteem of conscientious schoolmen, for their real purposes became submerged in the search for ephemeral success. The history of athletics since the early 1900's has been a struggle to check and control this short-sighted tendency to place success in winning above standards. Although mutual regulations have greatly assisted in remedying competitive affairs, athletics still labor under the cloud that unfair and dishonest methods of promoting threw over them. To-day, it is becoming more apparent that the policy of low standards is, in the long run, a losing one. An unnatural reputation out of keeping with the size of the school is not lasting, for the killing pace of keeping this up cannot be maintained.

UNIFYING OF SCHOOL ACTIVITIES—SCHOOL SPIRIT

The fourth function of athletics in order of appearance is that of school spirit. There is no unifying agent in school activities as powerful as athletics. About 1910, this tendency to amalgamate all school activities about the athletic contests became quite general. This was caused at first by the need to raise money for equipment and other expenses of the teams. The first affairs that involved the entire school in this connection took the form of dramatic entertainments, socials, and penny bazaars. Out of this general interest of the students in helping the athletic teams there grew in time a situation in which practically all departments of the school shared and made their contribution.

The game must be considered as more than an affair involving two teams of players and their respective crowds of rooters. Prior to it, there is the mass meeting, an occasion giving the orchestra an appreciative audience. Banners and posters made by the art department are displayed in the school halls. The school paper prints feature stories of the coming contest and of the one that has just taken place. The school band plays an indispensable part in making the game a colorful spectacle, and furnishes the opportunity for a friendly display of courtesies; it also leads in the singing of the school songs. The athletic banquets are made possible by the efforts of the domestic science department which furnishes the food and service. Moreover, the general interest in athletics makes this topic a lively one for school debates.

All these relationships make athletics the hub about which many of the school activities and functions revolve. These organic relationships all contribute to the "we" feeling of students and supporters, to the sharing of common interests and loyalties.

The game gives the school an identity that reaches out beyond its walls—a spiritual bond. It 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 high school or 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 symbolized to them the spirit of carefree youth and the success of their school—their *Alma Mater*.

COMMUNITY SPECTACLE

The next objective claimed for athletics was that they afforded a community spectacle. In other words, emphasis began to be placed upon the spectacle aspect of the game. The unifying bond that was first formed within the school by the interest in athletics soon spread to the communities at large.

The spectator interest in athletic sports is a natural one. All forms of sport and recreation furnish a subject of common interest. Schiller many years ago called play "an offset to specialization." The specialization of business and the professions isolates men into small groups according to mutual interests and friendships. But sport is common to all and is therefore a great leveler and humanizer. No wonder that, next to the weather, sport is the most common topic of conversation.

Another value of the spectacle, as Groos so strikingly brings out in his discussion of witnessing "fighting plays," is that the spectators undergo the same sensations as those of the 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 that inner imitation allows us to take part in fights through subjective participation in attack, defense, strategy, risk, victory, and defeat.¹ The elemental emotions are aroused in even the most sedate human being. 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 members of the crowd, then, as well as the players, share in the emotional training that results from the athletic spectacle, and there is brought home to them the meaning of courage, loyalty, perseverance, poise, and self control. The ideals they hold in their hearts are demonstrated.

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 often in a desire to test out their own skill in a like manner. These games 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. Varsity exhibitions keep the ideas of physical prowess alive in this age when the goal of success is so often one of sedentary occupation. In every line of endeavor, whether it be art, music, science, business, or athletics,

¹ Karl Groos, *The Play of Man*, p. 244. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1901.

the outstanding figures who have achieved high attainment serve as the inspiration for those lesser lights who are starting out on their own careers and seek examples to emulate and pattern after.

The new situation brought about by the new "spectator interest" was both encouraging and discouraging. On the one hand, the intensified interest by the alumni and citizens in the athletic teams of their schools brought increased support to the entire school body. In many ways this interest spread over more departments and activities than that of athletics. For example, a certain community took great pride in its high school basketball team; loyal supporters followed the team to the state tournament, and there saw it win the championship. At the spring elections the following week the enthusiastic citizens overwhelmingly voted to approve a bond issue for a new school plant which had long been badly needed.

On the other hand, the schools found that this new interest was not entirely a blessing. By inviting the community to support their games they invited at the same time an extra insistence on the part of the public upon having a voice in deciding many school affairs, particularly in regard to the selection of the coach, the eligibility standards of the players, and the choice of opponents. This factor caused much embarrassment to administrators in general and led to many abuses. Far-seeing school administrators, however, have been able to minimize this interference and even to use it to advantage, by encouraging the dominance of such progressive leadership as that of the parent-teacher groups and the civic clubs.

STANDARDS OF SPORTSMANSHIP

The next two objectives of athletics came about as a result of shortcomings in the older system. The first of these was a conscious effort to improve the standards of sportsmanship. Because of the frequent problems that were foisted upon the school men by too partisan followers as well as by players, it became apparent to all that better standards of sportsmanship were absolutely necessary. An educational campaign in this direction had already been begun with the players but was not complete until extended to spectators as well.

Many measures were taken by the educational authorities. An attitude of hospitality toward visiting teams was encouraged, as was an attitude of courtesy toward the game officials. Fraternalizing between rooters was fostered by joint meetings of luncheon clubs, and between players by joint banquets. The home school extended greetings to the visitors on the printed programs and in other ways. Cities and schools

seized upon these friendly ideals with enthusiasm and many instances could be cited where schools that had been kept apart by severed athletic relationships were brought together again in clean, friendly rivalry.

These local campaigns for higher sporting ethics were assisted by campaigns directed from state departments. The state authorities drew up rules of conduct for players, coaches, rooters, and officials. In the East a national movement, the Sportsmanship Brotherhood, was inaugurated in 1923 by a group of sporting enthusiasts. The purpose of this organization was to foster by publicity and encouragement, the ideals of chivalry. It drew up the "Sportsman's Code" and made it available in poster form. This code, reproduced below, became a familiar sight on the walls of schoolrooms and gymnasiums.

"The Code of Honor of a Sportsman is that—

He keep the rules
He keep faith with his comrade
He keep himself fit
He keep his temper
He keep his pride under in victory
He keep a stout heart in defeat
He keep a sound soul, and a clean mind and a healthy body."

These measures were supplemented by local, district, and state meetings to bring together officials and coaches on a common interpretation of rules and other procedures. This was an important measure in preventing misunderstandings and it brought about a much higher grade of officiating. Ratings of officials were made by schools and in turn the officials rated the schools and teams for whom they worked.

There are a few other aspects to this process of education. The improved status of officiating brought about increased respect of the spectators for the officials in charge of the games and increased confidence in their decisions. Again, as the spectators became more educated in the finer points of sport, there came a new appreciation of the technical features of the play, apart from the interest in mere winning or losing. It is the uneducated spectator who sees only the more obvious and spectacular aspects of the game, and who demands the impossible from the players. The person who does not understand boxing can appreciate only the knock-out—he does not feel the appeal of a scientific exhibition.

All in all, the campaign for sportsmanship has accomplished wonders considering the odds against which the work had to be done. Any instance of unsportsmanlike conduct to-day stands out markedly because it is so much the exception. Even the penalties for fouls on players are rarely for intentional rough play. They are rather for technical errors in play and for overzeal in the desire to be of assistance to one's teammates.

ATHLETICS FOR ALL

We have mentioned the steadfast efforts of educators to improve the older system of athletics by removing the abuses which crept in and by emphasizing a positive campaign to create sportsmanship and good will. Another need, however, had been apparent for some time, and now in its turn a seventh objective was vigorously championed and promoted, namely, athletics for all. Assuming prominence practically only within the last ten years, this movement has grown with cumulative force as more and more athletic participants have been enlisted. Originally, it was a movement meant to enlist the so-called athletic wall-flowers, for it was commonly realized that the older program featured only fortunate individuals who already possessed a maximum of physical strength and skill. It was commonly realized, also, that if athletics possessed enjoyment and worth while values for those few individuals who were participating, then all the students should have their chance to receive similar opportunities and gain.

Some schoolmen are prone to feel that the movement of intramural athletics was neglected too long and should have been begun much sooner. It is a question, however, if this phase of athletics was not a natural sequence to the more spectacular inter-school phase which captured the imagination of the public and made sports a byword. Whether intramurals would have grown so rapidly had not the stage been so well set is problematic.

In attempting to widen the older program of athletics, the intramural movement at first fell into a natural error. In its early beginnings, it accepted the varsity program of sports as an example to be followed, with the result that football, basketball, baseball, and track were the first intramural sports. It was soon found, however, that on the whole these sports demanded too much equipment, training, and endurance for promotion on such a widespread scale. The intramural leaders, therefore, began to experiment with many recreative sports that could be played more informally. Consequently, the curriculum of sports became greatly enlarged to include swimming, tennis, golf,

handball, archery, soccer, speedball, volleyball, playground baseball, touch football, and many others.

In general the intramural program has followed three lines of procedure: that of featuring and popularizing many new sports; that of surrounding the more strenuous activities with training regulations and health safeguards; and that of offering skilled instruction to novices who would have been entirely neglected under the older system of athletic participation.

Once introduced and under way, the intramural movement has affected the entire athletic structure. From this point on, the influence of this new movement will be noted in all the developments that take place. By promoting a wide variety of sports, it greatly broadened not only its own program but the interscholastic program as well. It was only natural that in these newer sports a nucleus of skilled players should develop who would eventually demand the privilege of inter-school competition.

Indirectly, the intramural movement also developed new interests which eventually led to experiments in a new type of inter-school competition, such as the Play Days and Sport Days, in which many activities are featured and large numbers of players and teams are engaged. Probably the greatest educational contribution, however, was the placing of value upon informal recreation as well as upon the organized athletic competition. By this emphasis the intramural movement directly anticipated the conception of "Education for Leisure" which gradually became a definite objective in itself.

FINANCING ATHLETICS FOR ALL

The eighth objective of athletics is really a digression but at the same time it is inseparably bound up with recent athletic developments. It came as a result of the crowd-drawing power of athletic events. Athletics, particularly in the case of the larger colleges and the larger high schools, became a money-making institution. Fortunately, these surplus funds began to be used for very worthy projects such as, for example, the providing of facilities and equipment for the rapidly growing movement of intramural athletics, the purchase of uniforms for the school band, the providing of gymnasium costumes for indigent students, and the financing of institutes in health and physical education. In the colleges, many stadium drives were won on the argument that the profits would provide increased opportunities for wholesome recreation for the entire student body, both men and women.

This practice of utilizing athletic contests as the means of financing

the movement of "athletics for all" had its dangers as well as its good points. In some cases it made the matter of gate receipts so paramount that opponents were scheduled because of their crowd-drawing power without regard to standards. In many cases it led to increased admission prices to the games to the point where many students were either prohibited from seeing their team play or else given last minute consideration in the choice of seats. In one large state tournament in basketball the large arena had three tiers of galleries but, owing to exorbitant charges, the first two tiers—those which were closest to the players—were almost entirely vacant, while students packed the more distant galleries. The incident was valuable in pointing out to athletic authorities the fallacy of such a procedure and resulted in permitting the student rooters to receive the consideration which is their due.

There are many philosophical questions that could be debated on the situation. The one most frequently debated is whether the end justifies the means. The end does not justify the means if it involves a lowering of athletic standards and a recession from the spirit of amateur play. With standards rightly upheld, however, it is entirely justifiable to use gate receipts for worthy purposes and for a promotion of recreation for all.

EDUCATION FOR LEISURE

Education for leisure has been a direct outgrowth of the more recent trends in the intramural program. While originally the aim of the intramural department was to provide wholesome recreation for the immediate needs of the students, it gradually became apparent that many of the newer activities developed interests that carried over into the leisure hours of adult life. This emphasis was greatly encouraged by schoolmen because of the inclusion of this objective in the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education. Since the increasing hours of leisure will comprise the great social problem for the coming generation, it is imperative that the schools anticipate this need.

In connection with this objective it is essential to bear in mind that exercise can easily be made a habit. The problem for education is simply to create the right habits and attitudes during the plastic years of youth. The play spirit then is so strong that the boy or girl will undergo the practice necessary to acquire the skills for reasonable proficiency. These skills, once acquired, give lasting enjoyment. Boys and girls will be led to a high and constructive type of recreative leisure if they are given opportunity to acquire the fundamental skills when young.

In addition, the knowledge of the popular games has other enjoyments besides the participation in them. There is leisure-time value in reading the accounts of important sporting events in their season, such as the National Open Golf Tournament, the International Tennis match, and the big football game. Again, there is the enhanced appreciation in the watching of sporting spectacles that comes from an understanding of the finer points of play.

BROADENING OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION TO INCLUDE ATHLETICS

The tenth and last objective to be discussed refers to the inclusion of athletic activities in the physical education program. There is no question but that the rapid rise in popularity of the intramural movement has had a decided effect upon the make-up of the required physical education program.

An evidence of this influence is found in the newer mass methods of teaching athletic skills. In place of meaningless and uninteresting calisthenic movements, exercises have been devised which permit the teaching of swimming strokes, track techniques, basketball skills, golf form, and so forth, to large groups of students in class formation. Students submit themselves to such instruction with zest. Their imagination is captured and the incentive to apply the newly acquired techniques in the voluntary after-school intramural activities is added.

Along with the teaching of athletics in mimetic form in the physical education class, there is another change in the gymnasium program which can be attributed to intramurals. That is the plan of dividing the class into smaller units with student leaders and the devotion of a part of the gymnasium period to organized competitions between these groups. The scores are kept and the standings of the various teams are listed on the bulletin board. A great variety of activities can be incorporated into such a plan. In addition to the extra interest that such a feature adds to the class program, there is the advantage of giving all the students the experience of group loyalty, of cooperation in a common cause, of self-control under stress, and of being tested in sportsmanship.

A further influence of intramurals is the policy of permitting students in physical education classes to elect the sports they prefer and to give credit for participating in them as satisfying part of the requirements of the course. This is in keeping with the modern educational philosophy of permitting considerable freedom of choice within a general requirement.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it may be stated that to-day's situation shows a very close relationship between the required physical education program, the intramural program, and the interschool program. There is every evidence that these three phases of physical exercise will more and more be considered as parts of an integral and larger unity, and that past independence and rivalries will tend to disappear as this closer working basis takes place.²

Of the above three programs only the first is needed in the elementary grades. The junior high school will develop more athletes and more adaptable athletes if the intramural idea is featured. In the senior high school, however, all three programs have their proper place and the relationships between them must be worked out for mutual effectiveness.

The future of athletics will no doubt find new objectives added to the ones that have been given and no doubt changed social conditions will bring stronger emphasis to certain objectives and will weaken others. As a general rule, the trends in athletics will largely adjust themselves. Ten years ago the windows of sporting goods stores were filled with baseball equipment; today they are filled with golf equipment. The styles in sports change as unexpectedly as the styles in clothes. Where evils clearly exist, they should be opposed by education and restrictive legislation; but where opinion is divided on the merits of certain athletic trends, the rule of *laissez faire* may better apply. The process of social evolution will inevitably decide the matters in question.

THE PROBLEMS OF INTERSCHOOL ATHLETICS

ATHLETIC sports sprang up so rapidly that school authorities lacked the insight to grasp the educational advantages which they offered, and for a long time gave but little supervision to them, with the result that many problems grew up which became so rampant as to threaten the continuance of the institution. Two courses were open to school authorities: either to eliminate athletics or to reform them. Since it became apparent with study that practically all the objectionable features could be eliminated with proper regulation, the decision went in favor of reform; and to-day such problems, although constantly tending to recur, are minimized because of the strict supervision of athletics in better school circles. Solution took the course of faculty control—

² For detailed discussion of these relationships the reader is referred to E. D. Mitchell, "Intramural Relationships," *Proceedings of the 35th Annual Meeting of the Society of Directors of Physical Education in Colleges*, December, 1931, p. 42-53.

over twenty years late, but luckily not too late. There are other agencies operating but this is the vital one.

While the charges made against athletics, the most serious of which are given below, were pertinent at one time, the situations giving rise to them no longer exist to any significant extent. Since, however, they are constantly tending to reappear here and there in the athletic world, ever-vigilant, never-relaxing attention should be given to their complete elimination.

PROBLEMS IN BOTH SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

The most serious of the charges that have been raised against athletics, together with the constructive measures that have been developed to counteract them, are discussed in the paragraphs that follow:

"Only a Few are Reached."—Varsity athletics have been for the few, not the many; and instead of seeking to train all to moderate accomplishment, have trained the strong to excellence. This is a valid criticism if applied rightly. As long, however, as athletics are justified as a social agency they are serving their purpose by training the teams that publicly compete. Therefore this criticism must fall at the doors of the programs of physical education and intramurals which have as their duties the welfare of all.

"The Training is One-Sided."—Athletics do not aim to train the strong to symmetrical strength, but rather to surpassing achievement in one sport, according to this charge. 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 has been overcome to a certain extent by the setting up of individual point systems which compel the individual to pass from four to ten different requirements in order to gain the state letter, school letter, or intramural award, as the case may be. The tests require versatility in different varieties of skills, 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-round events such as the pentathlon and decathlon are being given more honor than the individual ones.

The new program of the junior high school is a right step in this direction, because it provides for participation in a wide variety of sports and for rotating positions on teams, all of which tends to lead to general development, rather than to specialization in one sport or position for purposes of competition.

Most important of all, physical education in its educational sense is coming to mean competent supervision which will properly classify all individuals, whether on the athletic team or not, in regard to their physical proficiency and will require a necessary time on exercises which are needed to round out their interests and development.

"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 disability has always been the greatest with those not physically fitted. Health examinations, now being universally required for competition on first, second, or intramural teams, are an absolute necessity. Again, under proper supervision, participants are being classified so that they are more equally matched in strength and endurance.

Another preventive factor which helps is supervision that gives proper training along physiological lines. The old type of coach naturally applied college methods to high school boys, these being the only ways he knew. The new type has been trained in physical education and realizes that high school boys are consuming much of their energy in growth, and therefore cannot stand as rigid and intensive training as the college athlete. To assist the coach in this respect the rules of the games have been adjusted to the age needs of school boys.

State supervision to-day limits the number of track events a player may enter. Previously at many district and state track meets a boy was allowed to enter more events than he was physically able to stand. Basketball tournaments, too, have previously resulted in an undue strain on the players, for a large number of games were played in a short time. In many states limitations are now placed on the number of games permitted on the high school basketball schedule, and these also prohibit more than two games a day in tournaments.

Within the last few years a number of important researches have been conducted in regard to obtaining data to further the welfare of the players taking part in competitive athletics.³

"Lowers Scholarship."—Athletics require such an amount of time and energy that the players on the teams cannot keep up with their studies. This objection dates back to the days of student control when brawn and strength competed for the school under the guise of taking

³ F. S. Lloyd, *Safety in Physical Education in Secondary Schools*, New York: National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, 1933. Also Joseph E. Raycroft, M.D., Chairman, *Handbook on the Prevention and Care of Athletic Injuries*, Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1931. (Committee study of the National Collegiate Athletic Association.)

penmanship or art in order to be eligible for the team. But to-day the above charge is far from being true.

Eligibility rules require a passing grade for participation in athletics. Many statistical studies among both high schools and colleges show that athletes in order to be eligible must outrank the general mass of students in scholarship.⁴

Relating this matter to that of the students' energy, the experiences of many athletic coaches would lead to the conclusion that members of teams that are properly coached gain weight during the playing season, a fact which would indicate that physical vitality is not depleted over this period, but rather is increased.

"Coaches Not Best Type."—The coaches are not of the right type to influence growing young manhood. This charge was often true in the past but hardly to-day. It was the overemphasizing of winning that once 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. Several states have laws to the effect that coaches must not only hold certificates to teach but must meet the same qualifications as teachers of physical education. 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.

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. Normal schools and universities have instituted courses for prospective teachers of physical education and athletics. The classes in these courses are very

⁴ For evidence see the following: H. J. Savage, H. W. Bentley, J. T. McGovern, and D. F. Smiley, *American College Athletics*, p. 123 ff. W. C. Ryan, Jr., *The Literature of American School and College Athletics*, p. xxix, p. 152 ff. New York: The Carnegie Foundation, 1929.

largely composed of men who are not necessarily varsity athletes. 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 very beneficial in giving a closer relationship between the faculty and the athletic activities.

Most men preparing at normal schools to-day take these courses, and the small city 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 a member of the teaching staff takes charge.

The following recommendations concerning the training and qualifications of coaches, taken from the report of the committee on physical education and athletics of the North Central Association, although pertaining to the college level, are typical of the present-day emphasis on coaches of the highest type:

Coaches and physical education directors should be employed upon the same basis as other members of the faculties in our colleges and universities, both with respect to training and compensation, and the process of appointment should follow the normal channel used in the appointment of other faculty members.

Administrators should insist that directors of athletics and physical education and the coaches have at least a master's degree in the field of Physical Education or in an allied field, obtained from a reputable university.

As soon as the academic training of the faculty in the physical education departments has been brought up to a respectable higher educational standard, physical education directors and coaches should be placed upon their own honor with entire freedom of conducting their activity in accordance with the ethics of their profession. They should be freed from the drastic regulations now imposed, many of which are unethical in themselves, and impossible of enforcement.

It is recommended that the coaches be required to carry normal teaching loads including the time spent in coaching.⁵

"Teaches Wrong Ideals."—It has been claimed that athletics develop dishonesty, trickery, and unsportsmanlike conduct on the part both of the players and of the spectators, and by so doing have created a harmful moral atmosphere. Many things are contributing to make these assertions almost negligible.

The first factor 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,

⁵ *Report of the Committee on Physical Education and Athletics*, pp. 32-33. Reprint from the *North Central Association Quarterly*. June, 1933.

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 many states, state interscholastic athletic associations serve this purpose. Schools are classified according to size, and definite rules regarding the basis on which schools can compete with each other are laid down. Smaller state organizations which follow in general the state rules are the district associations, the county associations, down to city associations.

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 certain period. Common organization helps a great deal to remove mutual distrust, as each school knows that the other is playing under the same rules, and that there is no advantage to any one in lax eligibility. The associations of some states even go a step further by making out a certified list of officials who are known to be competent and fair, and requiring schools belonging to the association to choose from this list.

PROBLEMS PERTAINING PRIMARILY TO COLLEGE ATHLETICS

The institution of college athletics finds itself in much the same situation as athletics in secondary schools. Overshadowing all other phases of physical exercise in the way of attention, publicity, and financial expenditure are the teams that are chosen to represent the school in matches with rival institutions. For this competition picked men are chosen and these compose what is known as the varsity team—the word “Varsity” being a contraction of the word “University.”

In addition to the athletic problems just discussed which pertain to the college as well as to the high school, there are others which have developed primarily in connection with college athletics. These have been fought just as earnestly and have gradually fallen under control. In general, these go back to one thing—the extensive commercializing of athletic competition. 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.

The 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. 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.

As we have already seen, the emphasis on gate receipts finds a defense to a certain extent in the fact that a large amount of money is obtained that at present 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 minor sports and intramural activities that could not otherwise be carried on are made possible.

Proselyting.—Conspicuous among the problems connected with college athletics is the practice known as proselyting. This 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. Proselyting 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 waste of effort, for if all schools alike ceased their activities along this line, each would get its fair share of good athletes and its share of athletic championships in the long run.

Proselyting is one of the most persistent problems in athletics and one of the most difficult to control. The realization of its pernicious influences was probably the chief factor leading to the well-known Carnegie Foundation investigation of college athletics; a formidable undertaking, culminating in 1929 with its report, Bulletin No. 23, which stirred the athletic world and public alike upon this particular question.⁶ While the most vicious type of open, direct proselyting with its accompanying evil of subsidy has probably declined in recent years, the policy of recruiting athletes, either actively or passively, still goes on and is a widespread practice.

In 1933 a report of the North Central Association Committee on Physical Education and Athletics showed that the practice of favoring athletes by means of scholarships, loans, and jobs was not as serious as

⁶ See H. J. Savage, H. W. Bentley, J. T. McGovern, and D. F. Smiley, *American College Athletics*, p. 224 ff. New York: The Carnegie Foundation, 1929.

had been supposed, despite rumors to the contrary.⁷ The point is made that any such assistance to athletes is "heralded widely," while little attention is paid to grants to non-athletes.

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 or expense account.

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 a non-scholastic game where admission is charged shall be rated a professional as regards school competition. This is a more workable law, but it has often been evaded by the subterfuge of "passing the hat" among the spectators instead of charging gate admissions.

Of all the different sports, baseball causes the most trouble along this line for the reason that it 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 basketball making inducements to the star school players, and this is a much more serious thing. No varsity player 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 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

⁷ See B. L. Stradley, Chairman, *Report of the Committee on Physical Education and Athletics*, The North Central Association Quarterly, Vol. VIII, No. 1, June, 1933. Ann Arbor, Michigan: The Ann Arbor Press.

depends on college players, with strong advertising power, to make a go of it.

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 and there has been some tendency to modify it on a graded basis according to the seriousness of the offense; and again, in some instances, to class the offender a professional only in the sport in which he has accepted money. When a fair rule is finally settled upon, it should be strictly enforced.

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 in regard to 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 of the cost of sending men to different sections of the country over each week-end when there are so many better ways in which the money might be used.

Gambling.—Of all the forms of gambling, that which relates to college athletics can be the least condoned. 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 part. The student who loses money blames the team and the coach, but never himself. The practice moreover aggravates the desire for a winning team out of all proportion to its importance.

Unwise Schedules.—Long trips, barnstorming tours, and post-season games are objectionable on the grounds that they take an unwise amount of time away from study if participated in regularly. The end sought in such cases is usually one of advertising. Schools which regularly play long schedules involving many intersectional trips and post-season games are bound to allow low scholastic standards of the athletes at the same time.

Tutoring.—Tutoring athletes who are behind in their work is a vexatious problem. Quite often in the past funds have been contributed by alumni for this purpose, and capable students have volunteered their

service to help the athletes; however, all methods of tutoring athletes are much less commonly practiced to-day than a few years ago. Athletes as a whole should not need to be tutored any more than any other type of student. 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.

The Training Table.—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 evening dinner at their regular boarding houses, or are forced to eat a cold meal hurriedly. Most conferences to-day have a regulation limiting the length of daily practice, a ruling which has done much to relieve this situation.

The argument concerning the advisability of the training table is a constantly recurring one but for the most part it centers around the use of the training table in the pre-season rather than after school opens. The pre-season usually starts from two to three weeks before the opening of the college year.

SUGGESTIONS FOR EFFICIENT INTERSCHOOL 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 the most 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 the most important rival as a close to the season. Avoid an anti-climax.
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 by semester.
 - 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 representing the Athletic Association should be from the two upper classes.
 9. Sell season tickets at special rates to the students, residents, and business men. Many schools are now including athletics in a general "all activity" admission ticket, which, in the case of colleges, is often compulsory.
 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 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 a specified number of tickets for the respective games.
 13. Buy and handle equipment in a business-like and economical manner.
 - a. Buy high 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. To-day there is a tendency in some schools toward a letter of uniform size for all participation.
 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 the services of a school physician are not possible, get a physician to volunteer his services for the season. Often a young graduate will help in order to extend his acquaintanceship 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, as red on white in case the players receive white on red. Some schools simply give a different style letter,—such as an outline letter. Let the manager get as much prominence as possible along policies planned by the Board of Control. Let him meet visiting teams and assist in the arrangements for their stay. Also let him provide for the officials' quarters and other needs.
 20. Arrange pleasant quarters for the team when on trips. Have prearranged 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. Occasionally 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 and turnstile on the grounds save much time, and are 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.

TRENDS IN INTERSCHOOL ATHLETICS

WHILE the most striking expansion in the athletic field in recent years has been in connection with intramurals, close observation indicates that interscholastic athletics are expanding in many unusual ways. Many of these efforts at increasing the scope of interscholastics

are necessarily experimental in the early stages but seem to indicate the present trends in thinking in regard to athletic competition.

SOME RECENT EXPERIMENTS

Much experimentation is also being carried on in placing limitations upon athletic participation and expansion. Paradoxically, what limits in this respect in reality expands, for the limiting measures are really directed at the overemphasis on a few players, and the outcome is to get more players on teams, to give more responsibility to the players in general, and to share the honors more widely.

More Sports and Teams.—With the increased facilities, both in high schools and colleges, many new sports, especially of a recreational nature, are being used in interschool competition: tennis, swimming, golf, wrestling, fencing, playground ball (between high schools within a city), soccer, speedball, handball, squash, badminton, bowling, rifle shooting. When facilities are limited, the older sports only are used.

In the universities there has been some agitation for two teams of equal rank in each sport so that when two schools are competing two games are staged, one at each school. The policy which has been more generally adopted is that of having a representative second team rather than two of equal rank. Good competition can be found with smaller institutions and more players have a chance to compete. The second team idea on the whole, however, has not met with the same success in college circles as it enjoys in the high school.

Another experiment which would be interesting to try out in colleges would be to have well coached "All-Soph" teams, similar to the present "All-Frosh" teams. Competition between two such teams would restore considerable of the collegiate aspect of sport, but could only be made practicable and equalized if varsity competition were limited to the two upperclass years. A rule of this nature has been discussed from the standpoint of further eliminating the evil of proselyting.

Wider Distribution of Honors and Awards.—In keeping with the tendency to extend the scope of athletic participation, the number of players on the various squads have been increased. More players get into the games and more players are given the privilege of wearing the coveted school letter. A number of years ago, it was not uncommon to find twelve letters being awarded in football and six or seven in basketball; to-day, to the contrary, it is not uncommon to find as high as twenty-five varsity letters being granted in football and ten to twelve in basketball. In order to equalize the importance of membership on

the various teams, and also, in the case of the colleges, to cut down on the expenses for awards, there has been considerable experimentation along the lines of making the varsity letter the same size for all sports and giving but one letter a year regardless of how many sports in which a certain player may qualify.

Other practices in regard to awarding school letters may be interesting. In the girls' programs, and the boys' programs also in the junior high schools, the letter is awarded on the basis of a point system which may include such additional factors as service, leadership, and sportsmanship. A basic insignia is usually given after the earning of a certain number of points; and this insignia may have additional bars or other distinguishing features superimposed upon it later upon the accumulation of more points.

The state letter plans, such as originally introduced by Missouri, and now developed to a high degree by Alabama, encourage not only athletic participation and progress, but also the contributions of athletic accomplishment to the ends of service, leadership, health, and high standards.

Classifying Schools.—This policy allows smaller schools to compete on an equal basis and win honors. While a few years ago only one state championship was decided, now there are frequently from three to five, depending upon the number of divisions into which the schools have been classified. Under the old system, small towns concentrated on one sport, but now with the possibility of championships in all sports in associations of schools of their own rank, they enter all. Frequently small leagues of near rivals of equal rank in a section of the state are organized and this tendency seems to be growing. In general the larger cities are largely confining their athletic competition to schools within their own boundaries.

Classifying Players.—Plans to bring about equalized ability have long been practiced in certain sports like boxing and wrestling where as many as eight divisions in weight are made. This idea has been extended to team events as well and, for purposes of playground competition and school intramural competition, the players have been classified according to age, weight, height, and grade, used either as single factors or in combinations. In interscholastic competition the plan of having heavyweight and lightweight teams has been carried on among the schools of the Chicago area for a number of years and has been successful. It is easier to administer where a group of competing schools are in a close area, and particularly when they are under one admin-

istration. At present, a number of Eastern universities are carrying on additional competition with teams whose members are under 150 pounds.

The tendency for classifying players for competition seems to be growing as more and more individuals wish to participate and more teams are therefore needed. Originally the plan was intended to safeguard the physical welfare of the players but as the movement for "Athletics for All" grew, the purpose of classifying became extended to include more players. Later, there came an emphasis on equalized ability from the standing of equalizing the competition and producing the ideal game from the standpoint of interest and value. The general tendency toward equalized competition has been accelerated by the prevailing tendency of the larger schools to start off their schedule with opponents of the same rating, instead of picking practice games against easier opponents as was so long the custom.

Extra-School Competition for Intramural Champions.—In this type of experiment, the intramural champions of neighboring schools are brought together in competition. Schools located near each other can very easily carry out this arrangement, and it has been particularly successful in giving some extramural competition to a large number of sports that do not have varsity recognition. It has been found also that the prospect of playing in the special games of this nature adds extra zest to the intramural competitions, and makes a highly satisfactory award, even though no other is offered.

The early scattered experiments of this nature have largely merged in the more complete and organized movement which takes the form of Sport Days with boys and Play Days with girls. These occasions are given more complete discussion in other sections of the book.

Limiting Amount of Participation.—This tendency has developed in a number of ways. First, was the need to keep star performers in such events as track and swimming from entering too many events. The changes in rules of the various games to adapt the time of playing periods to college, senior high school, and junior high school players, was probably the next movement to be evidenced. With the introduction of group and individual point systems which gave extra consideration to the high total winner, there came, however, a tendency for players to engage in too many sports, and so, in turn, measures are being taken to safeguard the amount of participation.

Some of the most recent experiments limiting participation are being found in the field of interscholastic athletics. Some cities, Detroit

for example, have adopted a rule whereby an athlete may not compete in football and basketball the same semester. This rule not only assists the athlete from overdoing, but helps him in other ways, such as catching up with his studies and giving him time to try his hand at recreative sports as well as team sports; moreover, it serves the commendable purpose of permitting more boys a chance to play on the varsity teams.

Limiting Coach's Power During Games.—The idea has always prevailed that whenever a game has actually begun, the players themselves should have considerable freedom in directing their play. To that end, the rules of the various games prohibit “coaching from the bench” and furthermore do not permit entering players to talk to their teammates until one play has intervened. During the years 1928 and 1929 a movement to further restrict the coach's power received much attention. This was the movement initiated by Dr. F. R. Rogers, in charge of the physical education and athletic program of the state of New York, and commonly referred to as “player control.” By it, the coach was not permitted to sit on the bench during the progress of the game, and, theoretically, the players were no longer pawns under his control.

The new plan was adopted throughout New York State and in a number of larger cities throughout the country. It aroused a storm of discussion. The arguments for and against are too numerous to discuss in a short space. Many practical difficulties were encountered in carrying out the plan and after 1931 it failed to make further headway. The idealism behind the plan, however, has remained, and has had lasting value in stimulating many other approaches to training leaders in the physical activity program through delegating many responsibilities to the captains and squad leaders.

State Direction.—In leagues, conferences, and associations, the consolidation of authority in a commissioner or director provides an active promoter of athletic participation, an authority for the maintenance of standards and regulations, and a neutral arbiter in case of disputes and misunderstandings. Following the example of college athletic conferences, many states now have supervisors invested with authority over their high school athletic associations. Such an officer usually has a representative committee made of school officials to act in the capacity of a Board of Governors. Where a compulsory state physical education law is in effect, the state supervisor may also be given charge of interscholastic athletics but this is not always the case. Where the control is independent of the state department, the finances for the state athletic association and its director must be secured from various sources such

as school membership fees, receipts from basketball tournaments, officials' registration fees, and so on.

Abolishing Spring Football Practice.—The agitation in this direction was largely directed toward reviving the popularity of other spring sports, such as track, baseball, tennis, and golf; and it has been largely confined to high school circles. Previously, the coach has been compelled in self defense to devote his efforts to the promotion of this unseasonal sport, for the reason that his rivals were doing likewise. In the large universities, the practice did not cause as much harm, because coaches were available to take charge of the other sports. In the high schools and small colleges, however, particularly where one teacher handled the entire athletic program, the promotion of spring football had most pernicious results because it practically meant the abandonment of any real attention to the other school sports that came at that time of the year.

Schools have gotten together through their conferences and quite generally have legislated against spring football. In behalf of the practice, it may be stated that it enabled coaches with large squads to give more individual attention to all players than is possible in the busy rush of the fall season; and it also meant a chance to give training in football fundamentals which became better learned over the longer training period in accordance with the maxim of William James that one learns to swim in the winter and to skate in the summer. From the standpoint of support on broad educational aims, however, spring football is out of place.

Abolishing State and National High School Competition.—The opinion of schoolmen has become decidedly adverse to over-emphasis on tournament play, particularly where three to four weeks handrunning were spent in attending tournaments or meets at increasingly distant places from home. The loss of school time and the physical strain on the competing players did not seem to be compensated for by the broadening effects of travel that were argued. The national tournaments have therefore been abandoned, intersectional high school games have largely become a thing of the past, and a number of states have even gone so far as to legislate against their own tournaments. Opinion is still divided on the question of state tournaments and no doubt they have had an important part in educating spectators and players in regard to the standards of play and of sportsmanship possible when conducted under the best possible conditions. Even where the state tournaments are still maintained, however, the tendency has

been to lessen the number of preliminary tournaments and to plan the arrangements so that the players do not have to engage in too many games.

Indirectly, the above trend has a valuable effect in lessening the coaching emphasis upon a few players and distributing the attention among more students so that more teams and more honors result.

The Rotating Captain Plan.—There has been a tendency among many athletic leaders to favor the idea of distributing the captainship honors. This is particularly acceptable when there is no outstanding leader among the players. The responsibility may be passed around by one of several plans. A captain may be appointed by the coach for each game or may be voted upon by the players for each game. Again, the position may be rotated among the senior players. Another plan is to elect a captain with assistant captains as well; for example, in football, an assistant captain for the line and one for the backfield, and, in baseball, an assistant captain for the infield and one for the outfield. There is no uniformity among the many plans that are being tried, but the extent of the practice indicates a desire to distribute student leadership more widely, more justly, and more effectively.

Cooperative Competition.—A practice which developed with the unification of athletic administration among the Detroit high schools⁸ and which has also been used with outstanding success by Buffalo and certain other large cities, has rendered it possible for older and larger high schools to help new and struggling schools in financial and other ways. The schools that have built up successful athletic teams can play to larger crowds and obtain larger gate receipts. By this plan some of their funds may be loaned out to newer schools to meet the extra cost of purchasing initial equipment. Schools also contribute a certain percentage of their funds to joint athletic projects in which the whole city is interested. This fund may be used to assist the development of intramural programs, to procure outstanding speakers for physical education meetings, and other worth while purposes.

ATHLETICS FOR WOMEN

ATHLETICS for girls are fast becoming an accepted part of the general education program, but there is a wide difference in policy in their administration from that used for boys. The principle that girls should participate in athletics is generally accepted to-day, but distinct prob-

⁸ V. S. Blanchard, "Cooperative Competition in Athletics," *American Physical Education Review*, Vol. XXXII, No. 1, January, 1927, p. 8.

lems of control and conduct are involved. The tendency of the early days of the movement toward an imitation of boys' activities is undesirable—girls should have a specialized program based upon their own interests and needs. Such a program would very obviously include more than basketball, which has in many localities constituted the major and sometimes the only girls' sport. Volleyball, captainball, field hockey, fieldball, soccer, swimming, golf, archery, riding, hiking, and endless similar activities are acceptable for girls' use. There has been a growing feeling that it is undesirable to stage girls' games in connection with boys', particularly a feeling against having girls' basketball games serve as a curtain raiser or as an interlude for boys' interscholastic games.

While the pendulum has swung far in the right direction of encouraging athletics for girls, the trend is distinctly away from interschool athletics of the type engaged in by boys, and rightly so. Girls' games should not be staged for the enjoyment of spectators, gate receipts, or the reputation of the school; as we have seen in a previous chapter, such a practice may do very serious physical injury to girls, and very probably has in the past. Rather than the entertainment of spectators, the purpose of girls' athletics should be physical development, the enjoyment of action, the development of sportsmanlike and similar desirable attitudes, and the acquiring of skills in a wide variety of games and activities of the type which may carry over into later life.

It follows from the above facts that the girls' athletic program, aside from that which is carried on in connection with physical education, is almost exclusively intramural. Suggested lists of activities for girls intramurals in junior and senior high schools are presented later in the chapter. The school letter or other athletic award for girls is almost universally given on the basis of individual point systems within the school. The only interschool athletic relationship for girls which can be looked upon with favor is the play day in which several schools participate.⁹

The objectives and safeguards for girls' athletics are well presented in the platform of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation of America. This federation aims to:

1. Promote such programs of athletic activities for girls and women as shall meet their needs, and as shall stimulate interest in activities that are suited to all ages and capacities.
2. Promote competition that stresses enjoyment of sport and the development

⁹ See P. R. Brammel, *Intramural and Interscholastic Athletics*, Monograph No. 27, of the National Survey of Secondary Education, p. 78. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933.

of good sportsmanship and character rather than those types that emphasize the making and breaking of records and the winning of championships for the enjoyment of spectators or for the athletic reputation or commercial advantage of institutions and organizations.

3. Promote interest in awards for athletic accomplishment that have little or no intrinsic value.

4. Promote educational publicity that places the emphasis upon sport and its values rather than upon the competitors.

5. Promote the use of suitable costumes for athletic activities.

6. Promote the provision of sanitary and adequate environment and facilities for athletic activities.

7. Promote the apportionment of adequate time allotment for a physical education program such as shall meet the needs of the various age groups for growth, development and the maintenance of physical fitness.

8. Promote the training and employment of women administrators, leaders and officials who are qualified to assume full responsibility for the physical education and recreation of girls and women.

9. Protect the health of girls and women through the promotion of medical examinations and medical "follow-up" as a basis for participation in athletic competition, and of a system of supervision that shall assure a reasonable and sane attitude toward participation in activities at times of temporary physical unfitness.

10. Protect athletic activities for girls and women from the dangers attendant upon competition that involves travel, and from their commercialization by interest in gate receipts.

11. Promote the general adoption of approved rules for the conduct of athletics and games for girls and women.

12. Promote the study of the existing rules of all sports to the end that they may be changed to meet the specific needs of girls.¹⁰

METHODS OF PROMOTING ATHLETICS FOR ALL

WE have discussed the problems of administration of athletics from the standpoint of controlling the undesirable trends and safeguarding the constructive contributions which athletics may make. We have also referred to recent trends in expanding the interscholastic and intercollegiate programs to include more players and a wider variety of activities. We now turn to the further extension of the movement to the point where it reaches the entire student body.

ATHLETICS IN THE PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

The first attempts in the direction of universal athletics consisted of inserting games and sports in the physical education courses which are usually required in high schools and during the freshman and sopho-

¹⁰ Department of School Health and Physical Education of the National Education Association, *Athletics for Girls*, p. 13. New York: Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation, 1933.

more years in colleges. A few years ago lack of space and equipment hindered the use of sports for all physical education students, the facilities frequently being so limited that only the varsity had adequate opportunity to play. Now practically every high school has its own gymnasium and athletic field, and the new gymnasiums are constructed with a particular view to furnishing facilities for many sports.

Several devices have been developed in connection with physical education classes to stimulate the interest and secure the participation of the rank-and-file in athletics.

Achievement Tests and Point Systems.—These tests, described in Chapters VI and XIX provide opportunity for every boy regardless of ability. They are 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, borrowed from the playgrounds, has not been worked out by the high school as fully as it has by the elementary school, although some of the systems are admirably adapted for high school use. Different grade systems of various cities have events numbering anywhere from three to fourteen in the test. The standards of accomplishment are graded and badges, buttons, or ribbons may be given as the student passes from one grade to another. The standard tests have value because they furnish an incentive to the individual to improve his physical accomplishments.

As described in the next chapter, group or team point systems and combinations of group and individual systems are frequently used.

Mass Athletics.—This plan, also, is borrowed from the playgrounds and elementary schools, but the secondary schools have used it successfully, and the universities have even been led to experiment with it. 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 achievement tests and require all-around ability, and consequently well-rounded practice instead of specialized practice. 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 rooms and homerooms. The attempts at using whole high schools, or whole universities, as a unit for competition have largely failed.

Competition by Squads.—Breaking up the gymnasium class into squads with student squad leaders furnishes units for competition in athletic games and sports. Scores may be recorded and percentages

figured, tournaments conducted, and championships decided, just as in any athletic league. Group point systems are frequently used in connection with gymnasium squads.

Crediting Varsity and Intramural Participation.—Participation in voluntary athletics is stimulated in certain schools by giving school credit for such participation. This plan gives recognition to the educational significance of membership on first teams, reserve teams, and intramural teams, and is very easy to introduce in school systems which require that students engage in a stipulated amount of extracurricular activity.

Required Athletics.—The varsity and intramural athletic programs, improved and organized as they are to-day, offer their many advantages to all students desiring to participate in them. The only ones now being neglected 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.

Studies made since compulsory physical education went into effect in certain schools show that many persons of non-athletic ability or interests have found the play periods enjoyable ones and have developed permanent play interests. With athletics entirely optional, the boy who is overstudious and wrapped up in a desire for scholastic honors often will not take any time from his studies to devote to play. Merely saying that participation in physical activity is beneficial will not induce these non-athletic students to give it the necessary time. As soon, however, as they understand that the play periods are part of the regular work and that it is obligatory to be present, there is no option, and consequently much of their reluctance to go to the playground vanishes.

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 high school or college, the goal in view being to reach every student who is interested in any form of sport. Said Aristotle so many years ago, "The principal aim of gymnastics is the education of *all* youth and not simply that minority of people highly favored by Nature."¹¹ And again, "The measure which the state should adopt for public welfare should always aim at the grand mass of

¹¹ Aristotle, *Politics* VI, 1, 1342 b.

citizens; for only the education of all the citizens, with no exceptions, will give birth to collective virtue.”¹² The rapid growth of intramural activities has largely offset the “athletics by proxy” criticism that has identified itself with the varsity exhibitions.

Intramural athletics sprang into prominence in colleges in 1913 and rapidly became one of the traditions of student life. The growth of the movement has been phenomenal and spectacular, making possible facilities which would not have been dreamed of a few years ago. The success of the intramural idea in college circles led to its introduction into high schools about 1925, and there it has been gaining momentum rapidly. As stated previously the athletics of the junior high school and the girls’ athletics of the senior high school are tending to become almost exclusively intramural in nature. Much of the present-day popularity is due to the generous approval with which the general public and the school authorities view this phase of athletic sports.

During this period of rapid expansion, a number of outstanding changes have taken place in intramural athletics. In general, these changes have been concerned with the promotion of a wider variety of sports, with the development of adequate facilities, with the offering of skilled instruction on a student-wide scale, with an emphasis on informal as well as organized participation, and with the improvement in health requirements in connection with the competitions. In keeping with these developments, it is only natural that improved techniques should have been invented and successfully put into practice for the stimulation of student interest in physical exercise and for the successful administering of athletic programs including large numbers of participants.

EXTRAMURAL ATHLETICS

The general opinion of intramural athletics is that it is a program of voluntary athletics “within the walls” or boundaries of one particular school. This is the meaning which most intramural directors prefer.

The interpretation which limits intramural athletics to activities within one school has not, however, always been followed. A number of city directors, in filing reports of their school-boy activities, such as the Public School Athletic Leagues, refer to certain competitions between various schools of the city as intramural. Where grade or junior high school events are waged and the occasions are informal, with no admission charged, they use the word intramural. From the standpoint that the competition is within the one city, there is some

¹² Aristotle, *Nicomachean Ethics*, V, 5, 1130 b.

justification for referring to such competition as intramural. Yet at the same time, the same directors refer to games between the high schools of the same city, where extensive publicity, crowds, and gate receipts are involved, as interscholastic competition.

In order to avoid this difficulty and to make their reports more clear, many directors are using an entirely new term to cover the interschool competition of the elementary and junior high grades. Some refer to it as "extramural." Others use the word "inter-mural," giving the implication of competition between a number of schools that, taken together, have a unified system. The use of the former term is preferable and should be encouraged. The word "inter-mural" has so long been used wrongly to designate "intramural" that by now any attempt to distinguish between these two words would only be confusing to the layman. The word "extramural" is new and can be given the correct meaning. It also signifies a new type of competition which includes both varsity and intramural features.

The word "extramural" also has the advantage of satisfactorily covering the new type of competition found in Play Days or Sport Days—occasions on which a large number of teams and players from one school compete against teams and players similarly representative of another school. Sometimes the players are chosen on the basis of winning an intramural championship; other times teams are sent regardless of their previous intramural records. Two schools or a number of schools can compete in this fashion. With so many games and contests taking place at the same time there is but little spectator emphasis. This competition is not varsity because there is no emphasis on crowds or on the display of the highest skill attainable by careful coaching. Neither is it intramural, because it is outside the boundaries of one school. By far the best title for this purpose seems to be "extramural."

THE SCOPE OF THE INTRAMURAL PROGRAM

In order to reach all the students a great variety of activities must be offered. Individual differences are so great that if every individual is to be successfully drawn into activity a varied and challenging program is necessary. In instituting the program it is best to rely at first on the older and better known sports, and then gradually increase the scope.

SUGGESTED PROGRAMS OF ACTIVITIES

Intramural athletic activities suitable for the *junior* and *senior high schools* may be selected from the following lists:¹³

¹³ See Michigan High School Athletic Association Bulletin, *Intramural Activities Number*, Vol. VIII, No. 10, April, 1932, p. 263.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL BOYS

<i>Fall</i>	<i>Winter</i>	<i>Spring</i>
Archery	Basketball	Archery
Clock golf	Boxing	Clock golf
Football field meet	Foul shooting	Dodgeball
Golf	Gymnastics	Golf
Horseshoes	Handball	Horseshoes or Quoits
Playground baseball	Ice hockey	Playground baseball
Soccer	Table tennis	Swimming
Speedball	Shuffleboard	Tennis
Swimming	Skating	Track
Tennis	Swimming	Volleyball
Touch football	Twenty-one	
Volleyball	Wrestling	

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL GIRLS

<i>Fall</i>	<i>Winter</i>	<i>Spring</i>
Archery	Archery	Archery
Clock golf	Basketball	Clock golf
Fieldball	Captainball	Fieldball
Golf	Foul shooting	Golf
Hit-pin ball	Table tennis	Hit-pin ball
Horseshoes or Quoits	Quoits	Horseshoes or Quoits
Kickball	Shuffleboard	Kickball
Kick-pin ball	Skating	Kick-pin ball
Newcomb	Swimming	Newcomb
Paddle tennis	Twenty-one	Paddle tennis
Schlagball	Volleyball	Schlagball
Swimming		Swimming
Tennis		Tennis
Tetherball		Track and field
Volleyball		Tetherball
		Volleyball

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL BOYS

<i>Fall</i>	<i>Winter</i>		<i>Spring</i>
Archery	Badminton	Relay carnivals	Archery
Clock golf	Basketball	Shuffleboard	Baseball
Cross-country	Bowling	Skating	Clock golf
Football	Boxing	Skiing	Golf
Football field meet	Codeball	Squash	Horseshoes
Golf	Foul shooting	Swimming	Playground ball
Horseshoes	Gymnastics	Track activities	Swimming
Playground ball	Handball	Twenty-one	Tennis
Soccer	Ice hockey	Water polo	Track activities
Speedball	Table tennis	Wrestling	Volleyball
Swimming			
Tennis			
Touch football			
Volleyball			

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL GIRLS

<i>Fall</i>	<i>Winter</i>	<i>Spring</i>
Archery	Archery	Archery
Clock golf	Badminton	Clock golf
Deck tennis	Basketball	Deck tennis
Fieldball	Bowling	Fieldball
Field hockey	Deck tennis	Field hockey
Golf	Fencing	Golf
Handball	Foul shooting	Handball
Horseshoes or Quoits	Handball	Horseshoes or Quoits
Newcomb	Quoits	Hurdles
Playground baseball	Shuffleboard	Newcomb
Soccer	Skating	Playground baseball
Speedball	Skiing	Soccer
Swimming	Stunts	Speedball
Tennis	Swimming	Swimming
Tetherball	Table tennis	Tennis
Volleyball	Twenty-one	Tetherball
		Track and field
		Volleyball

Students may participate in some of these games and sports during regular physical education gymnasium classes, but most of the activities are carried on at specially arranged times such as the following: (1) extra activity periods which may necessitate the lengthening of the school day, (2) additional gymnasium periods, (3) after school, (4) noon periods, (5) evenings, (6) Saturday mornings.

In utilizing the *noon* period, care should be taken to confine the activities to non-strenuous sports such as the following:

NOON HOUR ACTIVITIES

Achievement tests	Deck tennis	Sidewalk tennis
Archery	Horseshoes	Skill events in games
Basketball free throw	Paddle tennis	Table tennis
Clock golf	Putting golf	Target throw
Dart throwing	Shuffleboard	Twenty-one

In the early days of the college movement the varsity program was accepted as the example to follow in intramurals, with the result that football, basketball, baseball, track, and tennis were the first intramural sports. Even as late as 1920 this was the situation. Following the recognition of the need for an enlarged curriculum of sports, activities not only of an athletic but of a recreational nature were gradually added until the list of sports frequently used to-day is as follows:

	COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY	
Archery	Golf	Squash
Badminton	Gymnastics	Swimming
Baseball	Handball	Table tennis
Basketball	Hockey	Tennis
Bowling	Horseshoes	Tobogganing
Boxing	Playground	Touch football
Codeball	Skating	Track
Cross-country	Skiing	Volleyball
Fencing	Soccer	Water polo
Football	Speedball	Wrestling
Foul shooting		

Sports like football, baseball, cross-country, boxing, and wrestling, which require regular attendance and training, are holding a limited but faithful group of adherents in college intramural athletics to-day; but the great majority of the students are turning to the more recreative sports like tennis, swimming, golf, handball, volleyball, squash, and so forth. The average student prefers the team or individual sport that has fun, unintensified rivalry, and an absence of grind. This tendency on the whole is a good one, because the physical makeup of the average student is better suited to the more leisurely type of sports. Then, too, the student is acquiring an interest in activities that have distinct health, recreational, and social usefulness in his later business and professional life. Such sports have much greater possibilities as education for leisure than team games of the major sport type.

The activities for the women's intramural program in colleges does not differ materially from those suggested previously as suitable for senior high school girls.

UNITS OF ORGANIZATION

In the organized competition, students are reached in leagues which use school units such as classes, fraternities, societies, homerooms, and the like. There are also individual sports in which teams are not required but the student competes for himself.

In *secondary schools* the following units of organization may be used:

- Squads in gymnasium classes.
- Classes, such as the 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th grades.
- One-half classes, such as 9B, 9A, 10B, and so forth.
- Homeroom
- House
- Study hall
- Courses
- Clubs
- Arbitrary divisions of entire school into groups.

In *colleges* and *universities* the tendency to-day is toward a three-fold division in organization: (1) all-campus, (2) fraternity, and (3) non-fraternity. The all-campus unit is useful in organizing for sports in which the individual competes for himself, such as swimming, track, tennis, handball, squash, boxing, wrestling, fencing, golf, and archery. The successful development of this type of competition on an intramural basis is dependent upon adequate and attractive facilities for meeting the needs of the entire student body.

In sports like basketball, baseball, volleyball, speedball, and hockey, in which a team basis is absolutely essential, the tendency is to fall back upon *residential* loyalty, such as the fraternity or dormitory, in the one case, and *leader* loyalty in the other. The fraternity leagues are almost 100 per cent efficient in attracting entries if the proper devices for securing interest are used. The problem of similarly interesting "independents" in team competition is not so easily solved, although it is not difficult to secure their participation in individual and recreative sports when adequate facilities are available. Dormitory teams and squad groups from the gymnasium class are other possible means of reaching these non-organization students. Every effort should be made to encourage the informal play of students and to watch these groups carefully for potential leaders. By encouraging the outstanding leaders to organize teams, the number of teams entered in non-fraternity leagues can be greatly increased.

STEPS IN ORGANIZING AN INTRAMURAL PROGRAM

I. Decide on Objectives.

1. Leisure Time
2. Health
3. Preparation for Life Situations
4. Citizenship
5. Joy of Participation
6. Skills

II. Appoint a Director.

1. In large university, fulltime man and assistants.
2. In small college combine coaching and intramural work. (Preferably track coach or coach of minor sports.)
3. (a) In large high school, combine gymnasium instruction and intramural work. (Release this instructor from one or more gym classes.)
(b) Some high schools have intramural faculty manager similarly as they have a faculty manager for the varsity teams.
4. In small high school, get faculty manager. (Release from one or more classes or add increase to salary.)

III. Get an appropriation.

1. In large University, \$5000.00 to \$20,000.00 budget, including salaries.
2. In small college, \$500.00 to \$5000.00 including salaries.
3. In large high school, \$500.00 to \$2000.00, assuming there is no salary expense.
4. In small high school, \$200.00 to \$500.00 assuming no salary expense. (The big expense in an intramural budget is salary.)

IV. Appoint helpers.

1. Voluntary student managers.
 - (a) Give awards.
 - (b) Give points towards school letter for services in promoting and handling games.
2. In colleges, practice teachers from specializing physical education students.
3. Officials for games—nominal fees or points toward athletic letter.

V. Arrange time periods.

1. Use after school periods.
2. Avoid evening play in high schools or else do not require same students more than one evening a week.
3. Introduce squad competition into the gymnasium periods.
4. Utilize noon hours for skill activities not requiring strenuous effort.
5. If no other time available consider adding an additional gym period per week and devote to Intramurals.
6. If no additional gym periods can be secured consider using one of the present gym periods for Intramurals.
7. Organize sport clubs in certain activities and arrange members so all have free period at same time.
8. Utilize Saturday mornings. In winter, can also utilize Saturday afternoons.
9. In small schools can utilize free periods which often come last in the morning and afternoon. Can have a final game between the best teams from each period.

VI. Arrange program of sports.

1. Adapt to facilities available.
2. If facilities limited, use limited program of the best known sports.
3. If facilities plentiful add many of the newer sports.
4. If facilities limited, use some of the time possibilities suggested in Section V.

VII. Decide on units of competition.

1. In large university will have best success with small social units like the fraternity. The dormitory plan is excellent where available. Open tournaments and meets will help reach the non-fraternity students.
2. In small college, feature the "class" unit.
3. In large high school feature "session" room or classes by half grades.
4. In small high schools feature "classes"; also make more use of individual competition and of individual point systems. The color plan of dividing

the school is also successful; for example—one half school “The Purples,” other half “The Golds.”

5. In Junior High Schools use “homerooms”; also choose up teams, giving names of colleges or of Big League baseball teams.

VIII. Safeguard training and competition.

1. Physical exams for all.
2. Preliminary training periods for more strenuous sports.
3. Eliminate football unless can equip and train players.
4. In Junior High Schools classifying players (weight, etc.).

IX. Adapt eligibility rules to own particular school.

1. Read handbooks of other schools and select for own needs.

X. Methods of creating and keeping interest.

1. Publicity in schools and city newspapers; in handbooks and programs; posters.
2. Awards—nominal. (Some states will not allow more than \$1.00 award to high school athletes.)
 - (a) Selection from cups, medals, plaques, numerals.
 - (b) Get interested person or a civic club to donate the permanent rotating trophies.
3. Personal solicitation by managers.
4. Devising point systems.
 - (a) Group.
 - (b) Individual—honorary athletic society.
5. Counting participation on Extra-Curricular credit and on Point Systems.
6. Coaching whenever possible.
 - (a) Easiest in colleges in the so-called minor sports, as intramurals uncover and encourage varsity material.
 - (b) Faculty help for each team.
 - (c) Use specializing physical education students. (College.)
7. All star teams.
 - (a) Use fair method of selecting.
8. Posting records and winners.
9. Having annual athletic carnival.
10. Use intramural teams in preliminaries to some of varsity games.
11. Get good officiating.
12. Give fair and impartial consideration to all; i.e., in use of facilities, in scheduling, in matter of protests, in selection of managers, etc.

CONCLUSION

PREVIOUSLY in this chapter mention was made of the closer inter-relationships growing up among the interscholastic, intramural, and physical education programs. This situation in the small college and high school field is being met by the tendency to unite these various activities under one administrative head and this procedure is a very

commendable one now that the graduate schools are giving the broad training needed by the individual being entrusted with such unification. The opportunity for larger administrative responsibility is also attracting candidates to the teaching field by presenting a profession with a more attractive future. In the case of the larger university, where single departments are so much more comprehensive in size and are therefore more in need of separate administrations, it is naturally much more difficult to bring the programs mentioned under the administration of any one individual. This need for unification therefore must be met by increased cooperation between the departmental staffs concerned, and in this cooperation toward mutual goals, the departments are quite generally assisted by an administrative committee which directs the general policies and the allotments of funds.

The present status of both intramural and interscholastic athletics is well summed up in the concluding paragraph of the recent report of the National Survey of Secondary Education which states in part, "One has the feeling that the general program of intramural sports is in the process of establishment, while the program of interscholastic athletics is in the process of adjustment. Both are being appraised in the light of educational outcomes, and, rightly selected and administered, both are felt to contain definite educational values. The schools in this study which seem to be setting the pace in this field are headed definitely in the direction of dovetailing these activities and making both of them parts of a larger program which includes not only them, but also the health work in the schools and the work in physical education."¹⁴

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¹⁴ P. Roy Brammell, *Intramural and Interscholastic Athletics*, Monograph No. 27, National Survey of Secondary Education. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933.

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CHAPTER XIX
ORGANIZATION OF
PLAY ACTIVITIES

THE administration of play when large numbers of people are involved calls for a definite scheme of organization. The first step in such an organization is to decide upon what types 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. In addition, special programs must 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 program 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 play and mimetic exercises.
3. Story telling.
4. Rhythmic plays, including song plays and the various kinds of dances.
5. Nature lore.
6. Handicrafts, arts and crafts.
7. Music activities.
8. 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 program, but interest must be maintained at a high level.
9. 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 undirected 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 8 are practiced here.
10. Outdoor sports including swimming, hiking, skating, snow play, etc.
11. Tests of physical ability. (Badge tests, point system, etc.)
12. Athletic contests. (Track and field, etc.)
13. Elementary games. (Tag and goal games.)

- 14. Personal combats. (Boxing, wrestling, etc.)
- 15. 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 space; 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;

ILLUSTRATIVE CHART

	PRE-SCHOOL 0-5	PRIMARY 6-8	ELEMENTARY 9-11	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	←	→ Story	→ Plays	→ Mimetics				
Stories 3	←		→	→				
Rhythmic Play 4	←		→	→				
Nature Lore 5	←		→	→				
Handicraft 6	←		→	→				
Music 7	←		→	→				→
Gymnastics 8	←		→	→	→ Boys	→ Girls	→	→
Free Play 9	←		→	→ girls	→ Boys			
Outdoor Sports 10	←		→					→
Physical Tests 11	←		→		→ Girls	→ Boys	→	
Athletic Contests 12	←		→		→ Girls	→ Boys	→	
Elementary Games 13	←		→	→ Boys	→ Girls			
Personal Combat 14	←		→		→ Boys			
Team Games 15	←		→		→ Girls	→ Boys	→	

above the primary grades for tests, contests, and team games. Girls above the elementary grade increase their interest in rhythmic play. 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.

Dramatic play has been treated in the chart only as it applies to dramatic imitation in young children's play. The interest in dramatic expression as a form of recreation is, of course, more or less constant from young years on to maturity.

THE PLAY PROGRAM FOR A SCHOOL

THE play program for the school must be based on an understanding of the play interests and needs of children of various ages. Certain activities are usable the year round, while others are of seasonal interest only. Oberteuffer suggests in the following tables curriculums for elementary and secondary schools, based on the Ohio Physical Education Series and on Neilson and Van Hagen's material in *Physical Education for Elementary Schools*:¹

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

THE SIX-YEAR CURRICULUM FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Boys and Girls

Grade	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
All year Indoors or Outdoors	Rhythmics Story Plays Mimetics Hunting Games	Rhythmics Story Plays Mimetics Hunting Games Relay Races	Rhythmics Mimetics Hunting Games Relay Races Athletic Games Stunts	Rhythmics Mimetics Hunting Games Relay Races Athletic Games Stunts	Rhythmics Mimetics Hunting Games Relay Races Athletic Games Stunts Individual Athletic Events	Rhythmics Mimetics Hunting Games Relay Races Athletic Games Stunts Individual Athletic Events

PLAY DAYS

The school play program should feature occasional special days, demonstrations, play days, festivals, and the like. Play days are frequently held for the pupils of one school, and again they are used to bring together pupils of two or more schools.

Play days differ from traditional competitive meets of the inter-scholastic type in that all the visiting players take part in a number

¹D. Oberteuffer, "The Content of a Modern Program of Physical and Health Education," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*, March, 1933.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS*
THE SIX-YEAR CURRICULUM¹ FOR BOYS²

Grade	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII	Not Suitable (See Footnote 3)
ALL YEAR	Apparatus Clogging—tap Games—low org. Giant volleyball Hiking Life-saving Marching Swimming Tenkoi Tumbling Volleyball	Apparatus Clogging—tap Games—low org. Giant volleyball Handball Hiking Hockey Life-saving Marching Social dancing Swimming Tenkoi Tumbling Volleyball	Apparatus Clogging—tap Games—low org. Giant volleyball Handball Hiking Hockey Life-saving Marching Social dancing Swimming Tenkoi Tumbling Volleyball	Apparatus Clogging—tap Giant volleyball Gymn. dancing Handball Hiking Hockey Life-saving Marching Social dancing Swimming Tenkoi Tumbling Volleyball	Apparatus Clogging—tap Giant volleyball Gymn. dancing Handball Hiking Hockey Life-saving Social dancing Swimming Tenkoi Tumbling Volleyball	Apparatus Clogging—tap Giant volleyball Handball Hiking Hockey Life-saving Social dancing Swimming Tenkoi Tumbling Volleyball	Aesthetic Dancing Badminton 3 Ballet Fencing 3 Fishing Hunting Ice hockey 3 Lacrosse 3 Miniature golf Rowing 3 Rugby Squash 3
FALL ONLY	Soccer Speedball Touch football	Soccer Speedball Touch football	Archery 5 Speedball Touch football	Archery 5 Football Golf Soccer Speedball Touch football	Archery 5 Football Golf Soccer Speedball Touch football	Archery 5 Football Golf Soccer Speedball Touch football	
WIN-TER ONLY	Touch football Winter sports	Touch football Winter sports	Basketball Boxing Touch football Winter sports Wrestling	Basketball Bowling Boxing Touch football Water Polo Winter sports Wrestling	Basketball Bowling Boxing Touch football Water polo Winter sports Wrestling	Basketball Bowling Boxing Touch football Water polo Winter sports Wrestling	
SPRING ONLY	Baseball—hard Baseball—soft Horseshoes 5 Speedball Tennis Track 4	Baseball—hard Baseball—soft Horseshoes 5 Speedball Tennis Track 4	Archery 5 Baseball—hard Baseball—soft Horseshoes 5 Speedball Tennis Track 4	Archery 5 Baseball—hard Baseball—soft Golf Speedball Tennis Track	Archery 5 Baseball—hard Baseball—soft Golf Speedball Tennis Track	Archery 5 Baseball—hard Baseball—soft Golf Speedball Tennis Track	

* Numbers refer to footnotes below chart on page 476.

THE SIX-YEAR CURRICULUM¹ FOR GIRLS²

Grade	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII	Not Suitable (See Footnote 3)
ALL YEAR	Baseball—soft Clogging—tap Folk dancing Games—low org. Giant volleyball Hiking Life-saving Marching Natural dancing Pageantry Ping Pong 5 Swimming Tumbling Volleyball	Baseball—soft Clogging—tap Folk dancing Games—low org. Giant volleyball Handball Hiking Hockey Life-saving Marching Natural dancing Pageantry Ping Pong 5 Social dancing Swimming Tenikoit 5 Volleyball	Baseball—soft Clogging—tap Folk dancing Giant volleyball Gymn. dancing Handball Hiking Hockey Life-saving Marching Natural dancing Pageantry Ping Pong 5 Social dancing Swimming Tenikoit 5 Volleyball	Baseball—soft Clogging—tap Folk dancing Giant volleyball Gymn. dancing Handball Hiking Hockey Life-saving Marching Natural dancing Pageantry Ping Pong 5 Social dancing Swimming Tenikoit 5 Volleyball	Baseball—soft Clogging—tap Folk dancing Giant volleyball Gymn. dancing Handball Hiking Hockey Life-saving Marching Natural dancing Pageantry Ping Pong 5 Social dancing Swimming Tenikoit 5 Volleyball	Baseball—soft Clogging—tap Folk dancing Giant volleyball Gymn. dancing Handball Hiking Hockey Life-saving Marching Natural dancing Pageantry Ping Pong 5 Social dancing Swimming Tenikoit 5 Volleyball	Aesthetic dancing Badminton 3 Ballet Baseball—hard Boys' basketball Boxing Fencing Fishing Football Heavy apparatus Hunting Ice hockey Lacrosse Marbles Miniature golf 5 Rowing Rugby Squash Touch football Wrestling
FALL ONLY	Soccer	Soccer	Soccer Speedball	Golf Soccer Speedball	Golf Riding Soccer Speedball	Golf Riding Soccer Speedball	
WIN- TER ONLY	Winter sports	Winter sports	Basketball Winter sports	Basketball Danish gym. Water Polo Winter sports	Basketball Bowling Danish gym. Water polo Winter sports	Basketball Bowling Danish gym. Water polo Winter sports	
SPRING ONLY	Horseshoes 5 Tennis Track 4	Horseshoes 5 Tennis Track 4	Archery Horseshoes 5 Tennis Track 4	Archery Golf Horseshoes 5 Track 4	Archery Golf Horseshoes 5 Riding Tennis Track 4	Archery Golf Horseshoes 5 Riding Tennis Track 4	

Explanation of Numbers in Secondary Curriculum Tables

1. Adopted from the summary of a survey of the opinions of city and village supervisors in Ohio, 1930. Also from La. Forte on Grade Placement in 24th *Proceedings of Society of College Directors*.

2. Modification of this curriculum because of local climatic, economic or other differences is desirable.

3. These activities may be usable under favorable facility conditions.

4. Not all track and field events are desirable.

5. These are recommended principally for use in the restricted or corrective program.

of different and varied games on the same day. The emphasis is on the spirit of play rather than on playing to win or for the entertainment of an audience; the sports are for all, rather than a selected few, and care is taken to select activities in which all can compete. There is opportunity for social contact and informal intermingling with all of the players of the institutions represented. The term "sports days" is often applied to play days for boys when the emphasis is on athletic sports.

Play days are frequently used on the summer playgrounds as well as in schools. In a sense every day is a play day on the playground, but the term usually applies to the bringing together of special groups in the neighborhood or to a get-together between children from neighboring playgrounds, not so much to compete in definite sports but to play together informally in a variety of games.

Smith and Coops suggest the following activities for a girls' field day:²

Mass Games:

- Cageball
- Dodgeball, Circle or Progressive
- Bullets (ref. LaSalle "Play Activities")

Team Games:

- Volleyball
- Basketball
- Soccer
- Field Hockey
- Baseball
- Long Base
- German Bat Ball
- Captainball

Relays:

- Potato
- Obstacle or Stunt
- Indian Club
- Over and Under
- Rope Climbing
- Circie
- Shuttle

Stunts and Tumbling:

- Pyramid Building
- Group Stunts

Individual Challenges:

- Target Throw
- Quoits
- Hopscotch
- Rooster Fight
- Indian Wrestle
- Basketball Throw for Distance
- 20-Yard Dash
- Rope Climbing
- Individual Stunts

Folk Dancing and Social Games:

- Seven Jumps
- Sicilian Circle
- Virginia Reel
- How Do You Do
- Conversational Circle

Health Contests:

- Posture Parade
- Poster Contest
- Height and Weight Rating

²H. N. Smith and H. L. Coops. *Play Days*, p. 16. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1928.

A play day program which an elementary school may use in the school yard or nearby playground to bring all of the pupils of all grades into action is suggested by the Division of Physical Education of the Philadelphia Public Schools:³

Grades 1, 2 and 3

I. Exhibition Work

A. Mass Exercises

1. Setting-up exercises by all classes, at one time if space permits, otherwise by grades or classes

B. Folk Dances

1. First Grade—Little Sister or Chimes of Dunkirk
2. Second Grade—I See You or Carousel
3. Third Grade—Gustav's Greeting

II. Games (to be played for natural expression of joy and happiness)

- A. First Grade—How D'ye Do, My Partner or Cat and Mouse
- B. Second Grade—Jolly is the Miller or Looby Loo
- C. Third Grade—Day or Night or Ball Relay

Grades 4, 5 and 6

I. Exhibition Work

A. Mass Exercises

1. Setting-up exercises (4th, 5th, and 6th grades) en masse or by grades

B. Dances

1. The Jolly Crowd
2. Gathering Peascods
3. May Pole Dance (Bluff King Hal)

II. Athletic Activities (either color contests or class contests may be arranged)

A. Track and Field Activities

1. Standing Broad Jump (aggregate distance)
2. Ball Throw Overhead (shuttle form)

B. Games

1. Dodgeball
2. Endball (form 2)
3. Ball Relays (various forms)

Grades 7 and 8

I. Exhibition Work

A. Mass Exercises

1. Setting-up exercises (en masse by grades)
2. Mass Drill—*Keeping Step with the Union or Moon Winks Three Step*

B. Dances

1. Aesthetic Dance—*Entr'acte Gavotte or Marsovia Waltz*
2. Folk Dances
 - (a) Ox Dance
 - (b) Come Let Us Be Joyful

³ From National Recreation Association, *Recreative Athletics*, p. 58. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1930.

II. Athletic Activities

A. Track and Field Activities

1. Standing Broad Jump (shuttle or aggregate)
2. Ball Throw (overhead or free style)
3. Relay Race (shuttle form)
4. Tug-o'-War
5. Potato Race (teams)
6. Other Team Events

B. Games

1. Captainball
2. Volleyball
3. Double Dodgeball
4. Other Team Games

PROGRAMS FOR SUMMER PLAYGROUNDS

PROGRAMS 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 proper place 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. 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 programs is concerned; but the daily program is entirely different, as the same children may spend their whole day on the playground during the summer months.

The problem of program planning involves (1) the blocking out of a general skeleton program for the season and year, (2) routine daily activities, (3) special events, (4) major demonstration events.

GENERAL PROGRAM

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, and so forth. In a sense it includes the daily and special programs. The general program 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 leaders. 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 program.

In planning the season's program, care should be taken not to attempt to insert all the activities at once but to build the program up gradually and progressively throughout the summer. For example, it would be unwise to start out the first week with a schedule of interplayground 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 competing later for the all-city championship. Suitable events for this purpose would be horseshoe pitching, croquet, clock golf, shuffleboard, table tennis, hand tennis, handball, first trial for achievement tests, and so forth. 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 leagues in the popular team sports, such as baseball and volleyball for boys, and newcomb 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 season's program should be built up progressively throughout the summer, inserting new activities constantly. Tournaments start one week, the finals carry over into the next week, and at the same time new tournaments start which extend into the week following. In this way something new is provided all the time to challenge the interest of children and keep them in regular attendance. The schedules should all be finished in time so that the last week of the season can be devoted to arranging for a final festival day to close the activities.

The following program for the season is suggestive merely, with no intent to present all the activities but rather to indicate the progressive nature of program building:

1st week

Opening of playground.

Daily routine activities.

Informal play and scrub games.

Practice for team games (baseball, volleyball, and so forth).

Local playground tournaments in individual events (croquet, horseshoes, shuffleboard, target pitching, and so forth).

2d week

Daily routine (group games, singing, handicraft, nature, dramatics, story telling, and so forth).

First trial achievement tests.

City tournaments among local winners of croquet, horseshoes, target pitching, and so forth.

Begin baseball leagues.

Local (home) tournaments in individual events, table tennis, handball, clock golf, twenty-one, shuffleboard, and so forth.

3d week

Daily routine activities.

Home (local) track meets.

Baseball leagues (continued).

Begin volleyball league.

City-wide tournaments among local winners of table tennis, handball, clock golf, twenty-one, and so forth.

Doll parade on home playgrounds.

Kite flying on home playgrounds.

4th week

Daily routine activities.

City track meet.

Baseball league (continued).

Volleyball league (continued).

City kite-flying championships among playground winners.

City doll parade among playground winners.

Local swimming meet.

Local tennis tournament.

Community carnival.

5th week

Daily routine activities.

Baseball league (continued).

Volleyball league (continued).

City swimming meet.

City tennis tournament.

Home gardening display.

Home manual arts and collections display.

Home golf tournament.

Home archery tournament.

Dramatics and pageant rehearsal.

6th week

Daily routine activities.

Baseball league (continued).

Volleyball league (continued).

City golf tournament.

City archery tournament.

City gardening display.

City manual arts and collections display.

Minor tournaments in games of low organization (local).

Historical pageant.

Rehearsal for circus.

7th week

Daily routine activities.
 Baseball league (concluded).
 Volleyball league (concluded).
 Minor games tournament elimination intercity down to last 2.
 Second trial achievement tests.
 Preparation for Demonstration Day.
 Handicraft exhibitions.
 Circus.

8th week

Daily routine activities.
 Unfinished championships.
 Finishing *all* craft projects.
 Closing community carnival and demonstration of playground activities.

A varied, comprehensive program of many different types of activities is essential and a constant effort should be made to keep the program balanced. There is always a danger that the enthusiasm of the leader for some particular type of activity will cause him to emphasize it to the neglect of other types in which the children have a vital interest.

The suggested year-round program for social centers presented at the conclusion of Chapter XV suggests appropriate major and secondary activities for each month of the year. Such a skeleton program should be drawn up at the beginning of each playground season and kept for ready reference. Otherwise the time slips by and important activities are forgotten in the rush of the day-by-day activities.

DAILY ROUTINE PROGRAM

The regular day-by-day routine of the playground involves the following activities:⁴

Free play on courts and apparatus, including tennis, badminton, handball, paddle tennis, table tennis, hand tennis, deck tennis, shuffle board, clock golf, tether ball, etc.
 Local league games—baseball, basketball, volleyball, newcomb, touch football, soccer, etc.
 Track and field events.
 Individual coaching in various sports.
 Relay races.
 Mass athletics.
 Active group games.
 Archery.
 Folk dancing.

⁴ See Bulletin No 1224, National Recreation Association.

Song plays.
Group singing.
Achievement tests.
Handicraft—sewing, weaving, paper cutting, cardboard construction, etc.
Story telling.
Dramatization of stories.
Health stories.
Club meeting—boys, girls, mothers, etc.
Toy symphony orchestra.
Nature lore.
Practice for special events.
Rehearsal of folk dance, pageant, demonstrations, etc.

The daily program must be elastic and is usually made out for himself by the director of each playground, since the particular needs may vary in different sections of the city. The scheduled program of daily activities 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, nature lore, and other play that is not vigorous for the heated hours of the day.

Example: 1:30 — 2:00 Free for all play
 2:00 — 4:30 Team games.

After making out the daily program 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 program should consider that the early part of 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 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. Team games of newsboys, however, should be scheduled in the morning or early in the afternoon in order that they may get away later for their work. 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 PROGRAM

- Morning Director gets equipment and material ready, puts on bulletin board.
- 9:30-10:00 Free play on apparatus, courts, sand boxes, etc.
Free play with materials; inflated balls, etc.
Recreative games of low organizations.
- 10:00-11:00 Achievement tests
Story telling—handicraft
Nature lore
Swimming
Free play
Tennis, horseshoe pitching, handball, table tennis, shuffle board,
paddle tennis, dart throwing, etc.
- 11:00-12:00 Achievement 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 leaders)
Free play with materials
Story telling—handicraft
Singing
Horseshoe pitching, beanbag target throw, croquet
Practice for newsboys' team games.
- 2:15- 3:00 Kindergarten and gymnastic games
Recreative games of low organization (dodgeball, captainball, etc.)
Folk dancing
Track and field
Practice for team games
Team games for newsboys.
- 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
Achievement tests
Handicraft
Club meetings
Nature lore
Dramatization of stories
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, etc.
- 6:30- 7:00 Games of low organization
Practice for team games.
- 7:00- 8:00 Team games; baseball earlier, change to volleyball when it begins to get dark
Tennis, horseshoe pitching, etc.
Efficiency tests.

SPECIAL EVENTS

At least one of the following events or some similar activity should be scheduled each day, and advertised in advance among regular patrons of the playground, these events replacing the routine events when necessary:⁵

- Local track meet
- Local swimming meet
- Local tournaments—
quoits, checkers, marbles, jack-stone, jack-knife, tennis, golf, etc.
- Inter-playground league games
games of baseball, basketball, volleyball, etc.
- Community dance
- Hike—nature, camera, etc.
- Party—(young men and young women)
 - “Mock track meet”
 - “Smile party”
 - “Automobile party”
 - “Poverty party”
 - “Masquerade,” etc.
- Fun Fest—(boys and girls)
 - “Masquerade”
 - “Famous character contest”
 - “Historical event contest”
 - “Stunt meet”
 - “Mock track meet,” etc.
- Industrial inspection trip
- Trip for swim
- Playground clean-up day
- Novelty meets—
races on roller skates, scooters, bicycles, kiddie kars, stilts, etc.

Once each week a special event should be scheduled of such nature as will attract parents to the playground. Such events should be thor-

⁵ Largely taken from Bulletin No. 1224, National Recreation Association.

oughly advertised throughout the community. One or more of the following together with combinations of the routine activities may be used for such a program:⁶

- Interplayground play day or sports day
- Sectional track meet
- Sectional swimming meet
- Community picnic
- Community carnival
- Community celebration
- Field day of any community organization
- Playground outing to point of interest
- Pageant—health, historical, symbolical, etc.
- Circus
- Wild West show
- Indian pageant
- Demonstration of folk dancing
- Exhibit of playground handicraft
- Exhibit of articles made by boys and girls other than playground handicraft
- Hobby show
- Minstrel show
- Baby show
- Pet show
- Doll show
- Kite day
- Boat day
- Decorated vehicle parade and vehicle races—roller skates, scooters, kiddie kars, stilts, tin can stilts, velocipedes, pushmobiles, coaster wagons, bicycles, doll carriages, baby carriages, etc.
- Evening program of activities for parents—father and son and mother and daughter party, etc.
- Band concert
- Holiday program (Memorial Day, Fourth of July, etc.).

MAJOR DEMONSTRATION EVENTS

At least once each month a major event should be scheduled, the purpose being to extend the influence of the playground throughout the entire neighborhood and bring the entire community together in a play day. A wide variety of activities should be included, and every effort made to enlist the interest of parents. Activities in which adults may participate as well as observe, should be provided. This will replace to a large extent other organized activities on that day and will furnish program material for weeks in advance, in that much preparation will be needed if a significant program is to be presented. These major

⁶ Largely taken from Bulletin No. 1224, National Recreation Association.

events, as well as the special events, serve to punctuate the program and relieve the monotony of routine activities for the regular attendants of the playground. The cooperation of parents may be enlisted as entertainers, special officials, and leaders for the day.

In utilizing the talent in the neighborhood the play leader is able not only to present a much more attractive and efficient program but at the same time to interest influential citizens in the work and in public recreation in general. 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. Such a pageant calls for the selection of a location which will enable 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 of time and featured on the bulletin board and in the newspapers. This allows the director to plan with definiteness, and also permits parents and children to look forward expectantly 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 program 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 DEMONSTRATION 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. (Dodgeball, 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—basketball distance throw.
9. Girls—baseball throw.
10. Girls—standing broad jump.
11. Girls—basketball 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. Basketball game—older girls. (Exhibition game of two best teams.)
5. Newcomb game—younger girls.
6. Playground baseball—senior boys. (Exhibition.)
7. Volleyball—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 DEMONSTRATION DAY OR NEIGHBORHOOD FESTIVAL

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, basketballs, volleyballs, 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 beforehand. 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 program 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 program.
25. Have a meeting place of all the directors and officials.
26. Rehearse each one's part in putting through the program.
27. Do not leave anything to chance.
28. Use neighborhood leaders and prominent persons in official capacities.

CLASSIFICATION OF PLAYERS

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 for playground use, 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, height, and weight combination, probably the most practical of the schemes yet devised.

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. 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.

When groupings are made on the basis of the three measurements of age, weight, and height, the player is usually placed in the group into which two of his measurements place him. That is, if he is twelve years old and weighs eighty pounds, but is five feet tall, he is classified as a midget. Often a system of exponents is used in connection with this system, as in the following chart worked out by the Department of Physical Education of the Public Schools of Oakland, California:⁷

<i>Exponents</i>	<i>Height</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Weight</i>	<i>Exponents</i>	<i>Sum of Exponents</i>	<i>Class</i>
	50-	10-	60-			
1	51	10-5	65	1		
	52-	10-6	66			
2	53	10-11	70	2	9 and below	A
		11-	71-			
3		11-5	75	3		
	54-	11-6	76-			
4	55	11-11	80	4	10-14	B
		12-	81-			
5		12-5	85	5		
	56-	12-6	86-			
6	57	12-11	90	6	15-19	C
		13-	91-			
7		13-5	95	7		
	58-	13-6	96-			

⁷ From National Recreation Association, *Recreative Athletics*, p. 19, New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1930.

Exponents	Height	Age	Weight	Exponents	Sum of Exponents	Class
8	59	13-11	100	8	20-24	D
		14-	101-			
9	60-	14-5	105	9		
		14-6	106-			
10	61	14-11	110	10	25-29	E
		15-	111-			
11	62-	15-5	115	11		
		15-6	116-			
12	63	15-11	120	12	30-34	F
		16-	121-			
13	64-	16-5	125	13		
		16-6	126			
14	65	16-11	130	14	35-38	G
		17-	131-			
15	66-	17-5	133	15		
		17-6	134-		39 and	
16	67	17-11	136	16	above	H
17	68					
	69 and over	18 and over	137 and over	17		

EXAMPLE

Pupil whose height is 54 inches.	Exponent for height is.....	4
Age is 12 years 8 months.	Exponent for age is.....	6
Weight is 83 pounds.	Exponent for weight is.....	5
	Sum of Exponents is.....	15
	Pupil is in Class "C"	

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	5'2	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
<i>EXAMPLE</i> —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.

ORGANIZING ATHLETIC COMPETITION

WITH older players there is 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 five 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 is now used extensively also for basketball and volleyball; (3) the percentage plan or "round robin," first used in baseball; (4) the combined plan; and finally (5) 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 program 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 PROGRAM 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			
6.	120-yd. high hurdles, final...	3:10			
7.	220-yd. dash, trial heats	3:25			
8.	220-yd. low hurdles, trial heats	3:40			
9.	Half-mile run	4:00			
10.	220-yd. dash, final	4:10			

Field Events

1.	Pole Vault	1:45
2.	Shot Put	1:45
3.	High Jump	
4.	Discus Throw	
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, four inspectors to assist the referee, five 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 where there are several thousand contestants.

To run off a meet promptly much depends on having capable and aggressive men for the positions of 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 customary 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.

In scoring in the Olympic festival plan, three, four, or five place winners may be picked in each event. When three places are selected, five points are awarded to the first place winner, three to the second, and one to the third; when four places are picked the scoring is 5—3—2—1, and with five winners it is 5—4—3—2—1.

In addition to individual scoring, it is possible to score the groups in events of this type. To accomplish this 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 seventh 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	100 times	60 times	
	5 av.	4 av.	3 av.	School 1
60 yard Dash	282 sec.	225 sec.	184 sec.	
	9.4 av.	9 av.	9.2 av.	School 2
Standing Broad Jump...	174 feet	150 feet	110 feet	
	5.8 av.	6 av.	5.5 av.	School 2

Likewise, the average of all the seventh grades of the city can be matched against the seventh 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. All of the events in the achievement tests can be used.

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 program for swimming meets:

1. 400 yards relay. Four men, each to swim 100 yards.
2. Breast stroke, 200 yards.
3. Back stroke, 150 yards.
4. Short dash. 50 yards for pools exceeding 60 feet in length; 60 yards for pools 60 feet or less in length.
5. 440 yards.
6. 100 yards.
7. Fancy diving. (See New Diving Rules, page 15.)
8. 220 yards.
9. Medley relay. Back stroke, breast stroke and free style. Three men on team, each swimming 100 yards.
10. Water polo (optional for Dual Meets only).⁸

In awarding honors in fancy diving the rules provide that there shall be not less than five nor more than seven judges who shall mark each diver independently, and the ratings of the judges 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 in full below, 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:

<i>Dive No.</i>	<i>Dive</i>	<i>Degree of Difficulty</i>	
		<i>1m.</i>	<i>3m.</i>
1.	Plain front dive, running.....	1.1	1.2
8.	Backward dive	1.4	1.6
13.	Half gainor, running, straight, or pike.....	1.8	1.9
18.	Backward jack-knife	1.1	1.2
22.	Front dive with ½ twist, running.....	1.6	1.7

The official rule book of the National Collegiate Athletic Association lists thirty-three optional dives, all of which are weighted for

⁸ National Collegiate Athletic Association, *Intercollegiate Swimming Guide*, New York: American Sports Publishing Co., 1933.

difficulty and the list gives the value of each in points; for example, the backward $1\frac{1}{2}$ somersault straight is valued at 2.1 and the back dive, full twist, 2.0. Each dive is carefully described and illustrated in the book. A similar rating of exercises on heavy apparatus has also been worked out.⁹

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:

REFEREE'S RECORDING SHEET *

COMPILED BY GEORGE W. GRAVES, U. S. A. REPRESENTATIVE F. I. N. A. ON DIVING AND RULES

COMPETITION DIVING RECORD

SEPARATE RECORDING SHEET TO BE USED FOR EACH COMPULSORY AND OPTIONAL DIVE IN COMPETITION. SEE RULES ON BACK OF SHEET

NAME OF COMPETITOR						NUMBER
DIVE NO.	TITLE OF DIVE				RUNNING OR STANDING	(C) DEGREE OF DIFF.
NAME OF MEET					HEAT.	FINAL.

JUDGES AWARDS

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	TOTAL OF THREE OR FIVE JUDGES AWARDS (=37)
7	8	9	8	6	8	6	(A)

CALCULATION OF JUDGES AWARDS

TOTAL AWARD OF JUDGES	AVERAGE VALUE OF JUDGES	MULTI-PLIED	BY THE DIVE DEGREE OF DIFFICULTY	TOTAL POINTS FOR DIVE	REFEREE'S CHECK
(A)	(B)	X	(C)	(D)	

SECY.

REFEREE

NOTE; THE REFEREE: Shall record all awards of judges, and deliver record sheet to Secretary of Diving, after he has eliminated the highest and lowest awards of the five or seven judges. Secretary shall make all calculations on this record sheet after each contestant completes the dive.

In case all awards are of the same value (7 or 8 etc.), two awards are to be eliminated regardless of the judge.

TO OBTAIN FINAL POINTS (1)—Divide total (A) of the three or five judges awards by 3 or 5 to obtain the average value—(B)—of the judges award, then multiply the average result by the degree of difficulty of the dive—(C)—(as given above) according to tables A or B of international regulation for diving, to obtain the results (D) of total points for dive.

EXAMPLE OF FIGURES SHOWN IN JUDGES AWARDS

$$7+8+8+8+6=37 \div 5=7.4 \text{ X (D of Diff) } 2.2=16.28.$$

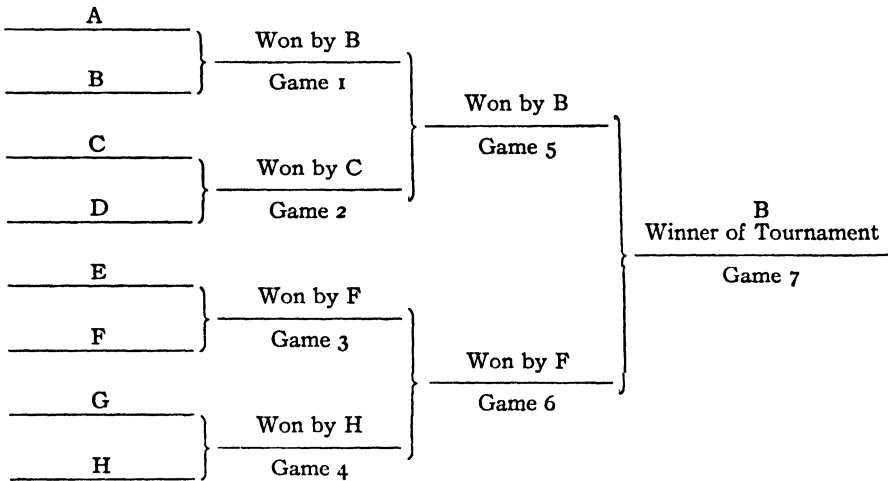
* From Spalding's Athletic Library. Used by permission.

⁹ See *Mind and Body*, December, 1921.

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 highest sum of rankings.

THE TOURNAMENT OR ELIMINATION METHOD

In tennis, basketball, volleyball, 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:



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 13 of the 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.

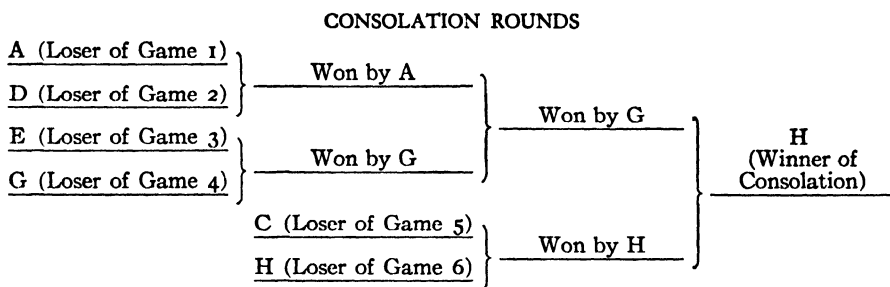
TOURNAMENT PLAN WITH 39 TEAMS

	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	Game 33		
	D.....					
	E.....	Game 10	Game 26	Game 34		
	F.....					
	G.....	Game 11	Game 27	Game 35		
	H.....					
	I.....	Game 12	Game 28	Game 36		
	J.....					
	K.....	Game 13	Game 29	Game 37		
	L.....					
M.....	Game 1	Game 30	Game 38			
N.....						
O.....	Game 2	Game 31	Game 39			
P.....						
Q.....	Game 3	Game 32	Game 40			
R.....						
S.....	Game 4	Game 33	Game 41			
T.....						
U.....	Game 5	Game 34	Game 42			
V.....						
W.....	Game 6	Game 35	Game 43			
X.....						
Y.....	Game 7	Game 36	Game 44			
Z.....						
Byes	a.....	Game 14	Game 37	Game 45	Game 48	Game 51
	b.....					
	c.....	Game 15	Game 38	Game 46		
	d.....					
	e.....	Game 16	Game 39	Game 47		
	f.....					
	g.....	Game 17	Game 40	Game 48		
	h.....					
	i.....	Game 18	Game 41	Game 49		
	j.....					
	k.....	Game 19	Game 42	Game 50		
	l.....					
	m.....	Game 20	Game 43	Game 51		

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, the 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.

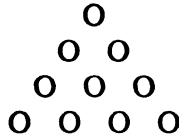
A more complete plan for a consolation series for eight teams would be as follows: the two winners in the consolation round just mentioned are bracketed with C and H, losers of the second round of the regular series, and the winner of this consolation plays the loser of the regular final round for second place. The following chart illustrates the plan:



Such a plan might be worked out for sixteen 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 basketball teams in the same city, a plan known as a "perpetual tournament" or "ladder tournament" can be used. First, a list of the players of 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 two listed above him, and must accept a challenge from either of the two next below him. In case a player defeats one of the two above him, he exchanges places with the defeated man. The plan is an especially good one for picking a representative team for outside competition. A variation of this plan is

to arrange a poster in the form of a pyramid similar to the following:



There should be as many circles on it as there are teams in the competition, although if there are one or two more circles than teams, no damage is done. No teams are on the pyramid to begin with. The teams challenge each other and the winners are placed on the bottom rung of the pyramid. From then on, they challenge some teams on their own line, the winner always moving up. When all the circles are full the regular rules of ladder tournament apply: a team challenges a team in the line above, and if it wins it exchanges places with the loser.¹⁰

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 basketball 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 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. The following schedule gives the routine of games for leagues of three to eight teams:

¹⁰ See Erna Driftmier, "The Ladder Tournament," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*, October, 1931.

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, a large school system on one occasion had 84 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 83 games in the first round, which of course is out of the question. Dividing the 84 teams into 14 leagues including 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.

HONOR POINT SYSTEMS AND AWARDS

The honor point system has been introduced into a large number of playground and school systems during the past few years, and various schemes have been devised for awarding points for participation and achievement in all types of activities on the playground, both physical and non-physical. Some of these systems are simple, being based on a few activities and a limited number of points, whereas others are elaborate, necessitating considerable record keeping. Some are restricted to the individual boy or girl, whereas others involve group participation or achievement.

There has not been a complete agreement among recreational authorities as to the desirability of honor systems. Those who favor such a system feel that its use is desirable for the following reasons:

1. It stimulates interest in new activities, introducing or exposing children to activities they might not otherwise engage in and which may become a real and enduring interest in their lives. While they may engage in the activity at first merely for the award or recognition, their motive may shift after engaging in and enjoying the activity to an interest in the activity itself.
2. It adds zest to old activities.

3. It encourages practice for proficiency in activities when children are away from the leaders.
4. It encourages greater participation and more regular attendance.
5. Leaders of average ability who must deal with large numbers can arouse interest and produce results more effectively with such a system than without.
6. It is apt to lead to a wider, more varied, and more carefully thought-out program.
7. It sets standards for achievement and makes possible a measure of individual and group progress.
8. If properly worked out, it gives an opportunity to everyone, even the physically handicapped child, to excel and gain recognition and respect.
9. The wish for recognition is universal; honor is recognized as one of the most coveted goods of men. All worthy effort should bring recognition to the participant.

Many authorities are opposed to the use of honor systems and awards in general, and advance the following arguments against them:

1. Play should be for play's sake; an activity should be carried on because of interest in *it*, because of the joy of participation. Awards constitute an artificial or extrinsic incentive.
2. Honor awards set a false goal and encourage children to be more interested in the prize than in the activity. They condition too much for a purely materialistic attitude, encouraging children to participate for what they can get out of it.
3. There is no assurance that interest will shift from the desire for the award to a liking for the activity. They may cause a dislike for a frequently repeated activity and a likelihood of its being dropped as soon as the award is won.
4. The system often places a premium upon native ability and causes unhappiness among many who cannot achieve so readily and realize that they are not getting on; without these honors the less fortunate ones might find joy and satisfaction in just participating in the activities.

5. Good leaders do not need them; they can inspire children to participate without.

6. The system is too expensive in time, effort, and money.

If honor systems are to be used it is important that inexpensive awards be given. Many awards 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 on 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 inexpensive medals may be given at the end of the season to the boys and girls who have shown the best all-round athletic efficiency, sportsmanship, and reliability.

Whenever it is possible to find a permanent place to put an award 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; 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.

Suggestions for Honor Point Systems.—If honor points are to be used it is important that several factors be taken into consideration in building the system, since it must be uniform, fair to all, and give opportunity to everyone regardless of age, sex, and interests:

1. Points should be given for participation and effort in the activity as well as for achievement or excellence. This encourages the backward and handicapped child and at the same time is not unfair to the child who naturally excels.

2. Awards should be given to individual boys and girls to stimulate effort. A child moving to another part of the city will be enabled to take his record with him.

3. In cities where there are several playgrounds, a uniform system of awards is desirable. A plan for figuring the total points for each playground can then be worked out, encouraging rivalry between the playgrounds.

4. Separate plans should be worked out for boys and girls.

5. The system should be based on a classification of children as described earlier in this chapter.

6. The tests should be progressive so that an incentive is offered to work for higher honors year after year.

7. Awards should be offered for a wide variety of activities, thus allowing for individual likes and interests. Such a system leads to the broadening of interests and introduces children to many types of activities.

Types of Honor Point Systems.—There are no uniform honor point systems in use in the playground and school systems of the country to-day. Various systems have been worked out by different recreational organizations and physical education departments. Some of these offer points for *participation* only, some for both participation and *achievement*, some include additional points for *sportsmanship*, and others, used particularly by schools, emphasize in addition *health, leadership, and scholarship*. In addition to the individual point systems some organizations use *group point systems*.

Plans Based on Participation.—An example of this plan is found in the following system used by the Playground and Recreation Association of Wyoming Valley, Pennsylvania. No points are given for winning or for special attainment in the activities but merely for *participation* in them.

GIRLS

<i>Activity</i>	<i>No. of Points</i>
1. Pet Show	1
2. Safety League Member	1
3. Beautifying Playground	1
4. Folk Dancing on Square	2
5. Ukulele Contest	3
6. Needle Work	1
7. Basket Weaving	2
8. Making Paper Flowers	2
9. Mardi Gras Parade	1
10. Hop Scotch	1
11. Making Lanterns	2
12. Marching in Lantern Parade	1
13. Track Meet	2
14. Physical Fitness Tests	2
15. Participation in Play or Pageant	2
16. Participation in Circus	2
17. Careful Club Duties	2
TOTAL	28

<i>Activity</i>	<i>BOYS</i>	<i>No. of Points</i>
1. Pet Show		1
2. Safety League Member		1
3. Beautifying Playground		2
4. Participation in Circus		2
5. Harmonica Contest		3
6. Wood Carving		2
7. Safety Patrol Duties		2
8. Making Floats		2
9. Mardi Gras Parade		1
10. Making Lanterns		2
11. Marching in Lantern Parade		1
12. Track Meet		2
13. Physical Fitness Tests		2
14. Participation in Play or Pageant		2
15. Indian Council		2
16. Baseball Pitching		1
TOTAL		<u>28</u>

Plan Including Participation and Achievement.—The Achievement Club plan of the Bureau of Recreation of the Board of Education of Chicago aims to give opportunity to the child of lesser ability. It offers no points for winning, the emphasis being placed on *participation* and *progress*. The scope of the activities offered is included in the following list for junior boys and girls. Similar lists of fewer activities are available for older boys and girls.

Junior Boys
30 points per event

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Ice Skating | 18. Soccer Football |
| 2. Snow Modeling | 19. Diabolo |
| 3. District Ice Carnivals | 20. Stilt Tournament |
| 4. Sled Meets | 21. Volleyball Tournament |
| 5. Whittling and Carving | 22. Barber Shop Quartette |
| 6. Wrestling Tournaments | 23. Harmonica Soloists |
| 7. Local Playground League
(Playground Ball) | 24. Harmonica Quartette |
| 8. Roller Skate Tournament | 25. Whistling Contests |
| 9. Marble Tournament | 26. Ocarina Contests |
| 10. Inter-Playground Ball League | 27. Flute Contests |
| 11. Baseball Field Day | 28. Checker Tournaments |
| 12. Junior American League Baseball | 29. Clog Dancing |
| 13. Track and Field Meet | 30. Efficiency Tests |
| 14. Pushmobile Races | 31. Local Volleyball |
| 15. Rodeo | 32. Sand Craft |
| 16. Horseshoe Tournament | 33. Mardi Gras |
| 17. Lantern Parade | 34. Football Efficiency Test |

Junior Girls
28 points per event

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Ice Skating | 19. Mardi Gras |
| 2. Rug Making | 20. Lanterns |
| 3. Snow Modeling | 21. Tops |
| 4. Art Windows | 22. Diabolo |
| 5. District Ice Carnivals | 23. Track and Field |
| 6. Ice Skating Efficiency Tests | 24. Field Ball |
| 7. Sled Meets | 25. Volleyball |
| 8. Rope Skipping | 26. Apparatus Contest |
| 9. Doll Village | 27. Harmonica Soloists |
| 10. Local Playgroundball | 28. Harmonica Quartette |
| 11. O'Leary Tournaments | 29. Whistling |
| 12. Roller Skating | 30. Ukelele |
| 13. Jackstones | 31. Checker Tournament |
| 14. L. O. Games | 32. Hare and Hound |
| 15. Folk Dance | 33. Horseshoes |
| 16. Inter-Playgroundball | 34. Whittling |
| 17. Original Doll Show | 35. Efficiency Tests |
| 18. Handicraft | 36. Local Volleyball Tournament |

The Houston Recreation Department plan includes participation and achievement in five divisions of activities: (1) *Neighborhood organization*, including club work and civic activities; (2) *Music*; (3) *Drama*; (4) *Athletic*; (5) *Playground*, including handicraft, rhythmic, and environmental activities.

The Detroit system offers points for participation and for excelling in playground activities. Any one receiving ten merit points is entitled to a suitable award. Points are available to boys in the following types of activities: (1) *team work*, (2) *field events*, (3) *hiking*, (4) *boxing*, (5) *athletic efficiency tests*, (6) *swinging clubs*, (7) *handicraft and drawing*, (8) *dramatics and pageants*, (9) *swimming*.

A plan which ties up an individual point system with a group point system is shown in the following table. In the team games, each member of the team is awarded the same number of points that the team is given. 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 his taking part. The minor sports, except for giving only one-half as many points, are graded in the same manner. The inclusion of points for attendance and sportsman-ship is optional with the individual director.

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
Volleyball	10 etc.	Achievement Test	10 etc.
Swimming	10 "	Tennis	10 "
Achievement Test	10 "	Track	10 "
Tennis	10 "	Baseball	10 "
Track	10 "	Basketball or Group Game.....	10 "
Basketball	10 "	Newcomb	10 "
Badminton	5-3-2-1	Novelty Relay	10 "
Quoits	5 etc.	Badminton	5-3-2-1
Target Throw	5 "	Target Throw	5-3-2-1
Novelty Events	5 "	Attendance and Sportsmanship.	10-6-4-2
Attendance and Sportsmanship.	10-6-4-2		
Possible Total	100 points	Possible Total	100 points

*1—1st place; 2—2nd place; 3—3d place; P—participation

Plans Including Sportsmanship and Reliability.—Point systems built on this plan add to participation and achievement the additional factor of sportsmanship. Under this plan, games are won as a rule by the number of points scored, but sportsmanship is an added factor in securing points in the point system. The plan of the Bureau of Recreation of the Board of Education of Chicago is typical of this system:¹¹

Sportsmanship	60 points
Reliability	10 points
Winning	30 points

Sportsmanship. Sportsmanship to include: (1) Fouls and infractions of the rules charged to a team; (2) Prompt acceptance of the official's decisions; (3) Language and conduct of players during the contest; (4) Conduct of spectators and partisans of a town during the game; (5) Conduct of team and followers to and from game.

Reliability. Reliability to include: (1) Promptly appearing for play at scheduled hour and date; (2) Faithfully carrying out all rules as to eligibility; (3) Captains having line-up ready for scorers.

Winning. The team that wins will be credited with 30 points.

On the whole, the scoring of sportsmanship and reliability 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. In the opinion of many, the offering of points or awards for sportsmanship purchases desirable conduct—the players may act in a sportsmanship manner merely to get the award and if this is the case the process is felt to be of doubtful educational merit. There is much less

¹¹ National Recreation Association, *Recreative Athletics*, p. 32. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1930.

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.

Plans Including the Additional Factors of Health, Scholarship, Leadership, and Service.—Many public school point systems extend the scope of the factors considered still further and include health and scholarship. Of the most comprehensive schemes of this type is that used by the State of Alabama Board of Education. Its purpose is to offer every boy and girl an opportunity to play and achieve success in a wider field of activities than interscholastic athletics. Three letters are available to students, representing graduated levels of proficiency. The activities covered are shown in the following chart:

OUTLINE OF SCORING	<i>First State Letter 500 Points⁽¹⁾</i>	<i>Second State Letter 700 Points⁽²⁾</i>	<i>Third State Letter 800 Points⁽³⁾</i>
<i>Group A</i>			
Medical Examination Required	30	30	30
Removal of Remedial Defects	70	70	70
Athletic Training Habits	100	100	100
Scholarship	100	100	100
Sportsmanship	100	100	100
Leadership and Service	100	100	100
<i>Group B</i>			
Team Sports	100	100	100
Individual and Dual Sports	100	100	100
Group Games and Contests	40	40	40
Athletic Skills	70	70	70
Stunts—Individual, Combination	20	20	20
Outing Activities	50	50	50
Rhythmic Activities	20	20	20
Tumbling	10	10	10
Gymnastic Skills	20	20	20
Practice	70	70	70
<i>Total Possible</i>	1000	1000	1000

Activities scored for any letter may be repeated for subsequent letters.

(¹) 200 from each group, 100 additional; (²) 250 from each group, 200 additional; (³) 300 from each group, 200 additional.

Under each heading a comprehensive list of requirements is presented, outlining what must be done to earn points.

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 atten-

dance 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-round Efficiency in Athletic Sports." No change whatsoever is needed from the regular program, 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 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, such as organizing teams, scholarship, sportsmanship, and reliability.

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, basketball, baseball, and track would be included in the major divisions; swimming, tennis, hockey, bowling, wrestling, and volleyball, in the intermediate; and handball, horseshoe 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.¹²

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¹² For a description of the various methods of group and individual scoring, see Elmer D. Mitchell, *Intramural Athletics*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1929.

CHAPTER XX

THE PLAY LEADER

THE play leader 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 space 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 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 an adult leader, 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 delinquency.

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 in the years about 1910 that the whole play movement was temporarily placed in disrepute, and residence owners objected strenuously to having playgrounds established in their neighborhoods. The Playground and Recreation Association of America (now called the National Recreation Association), 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.

One of the most significant conclusions of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection in 1930 was that boys and girls are definitely in need of trained leadership for that portion of their play and recreation which takes place outside the home. The reason has to do not only with the character effects of unsupervised play but also with learning to play skillfully.

THE SUCCESSFUL PLAYGROUND

WHEN we turn to the capably supervised playground we see a more pleasing picture. It is a busy spot. Leaders 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 leader 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.

PRACTICAL BENEFITS OF SUPERVISION

Let us study the process by which the experienced play leader 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.

It takes a wise, sympathetic, and trained leader 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 leader 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 leader, 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 and baseball, require a considerable degree of knowledge and skill before one is apt to enjoy them. A capable leader, versed in the most successful methods of playing a game, can help any player to a much more rapid advancement than he could ever acquire alone.

Organized Competition.—The trained leader 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 child being pitted against other children of his or her 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. When play is organized, schedules of games are possible, and these make 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 leaders; when not available they can appoint the more capable boys and girls, who, with a little direction and experience can do very well in all but the most important games. Fair play at all times is necessary to the success of all games and plays involving rivalry. The game that is not competently officiated and handled does not leave a satisfactory feeling of enjoyment for either winner or loser. Unjust decisions are apt to result in suspicion, wrangling, loss of time, general dissatisfaction with the play, and the development of bad habits when one side suspects the other of unfairness and justifies retaliation on that basis. The one thing that should be emphasized above all others as preparation for citizenship is the habit of acting fairly and courteously under the stress of competition.

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 of 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, because of their new attachment to a team, will ask for information in correct habits of living and exercising. 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 also to see that this talent is directed into proper channels.

Danger of Over-supervision.—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."¹ 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 leader in the way of accomplishment constitute 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 leader 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 leader who partakes of the spirit of youth receives many confidences in trust. Here is the chance to reach the child. Surely we cannot stint in securing men and women for such places.

If a community stints by giving inadequate pay, someone is sure to lose. 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 leaders of play must be given dignity in their calling, otherwise the profession will suffer from lack of desirable men and women to enter it. In the past, two excuses have been given for using people

¹ G. E. Johnson, "Why Teach a Child to Play," *Proceedings of the Third Annual Playground Association*, 1909.

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 was at one time some truth to the second reason, but it is one that has disappeared. 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 school 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 leaders 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. This disposes of the problem of inexperienced helpers who are not capable of their best service until the season is practically over.

The handling of play in our schools is largely entrusted to the physical education teachers; 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 should have academic and professional training that is equal in every respect to that of the general educator. He should be respected by the latter as being the intellectual equal of those engaged in teaching the other subjects in the curricula of the schools or colleges. 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.²

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

² Extract from *School of Education Catalogue*, University of Michigan, 1924-25, p. 83.

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.

A DISCUSSION OF 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 main 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 stronger in self-reliance. No one can ever hope to be anything of a leader if he lacks this quality. The reason is that a significant individuality can only be developed through self-reliance, through conflict with environment or any other opposing element. 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 influential that even when he occasionally makes an unpopular suggestion, the confidence that others put in him will be strong enough to make them follow.

The leader needs the power of human understanding. Cooley, an authority in sociological thought, makes this a paramount essential.⁸

⁸ For a most stimulating discussion of the nature and function of leadership, see C. H. Cooley, *Human Nature and the Social Order*, Chapter 8. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1902.

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 not go contrary to their interests. Leadership then, to use the words of Cooley, involves "*a significant personality plus a sympathetic understanding.*"

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 because of his accomplishments, which speak loudly for themselves. St. Francis, for instance, did not aspire to be a leader in his new movement; nor, indeed, did Darwin in his. The accomplishments of both men vested them with leadership, without their 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. They might be more successful in their quest if they were willing to assume simply the role 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 that would bring him into disfavor with the vested interests of society. This type of leadership, although not the highest, is the one most found in the field of politics.

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

Leadership in the field of recreation and physical education calls for certain qualities of personality and physique without which the student cannot hope for success, or at least will find his efficiency much impaired. Many college students who declare their intention to train for a professional career in this field are obviously destined to failure because of physical and personality shortcomings. Efforts are constantly being made to raise the level of the personnel in the field, to

set standards for admission to professional schools, and to offer advice to those who desire to enter training as to their qualifications for this field of endeavor.⁴

The desirable qualities for play leadership in general fall under the following headings: *personal, technical knowledge of play activities, health knowledge, cultural education, and the capacity to mix in public affairs.*

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 a thoroughgoing 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 leader who is calm and masterful, giving the impression that such a thing as insubordinacy is not even being anticipated, 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 them occasionally, does not lessen the teacher's influence. Rather, it helps it, especially 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.

The person naturally adapted to be a play teacher will meet with

⁴ See "Report of the Committee on Teacher-Training in Physical Education in the United States," *The Research Quarterly of the American Physical Education Association*. March, 1933, p. 57.

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 was shown by the experience of Judge Lindsay and “his gang” in Denver.

Another personal element to success is good health. The play leader should have a sound body with reasonably good posture and free from hindering organic disorders. Without health, the teacher cannot maintain his or her vigor, especially so when it is often 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 be given the opportunity to 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, strict, sincere, 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.

In *Camping and Education* the results of several studies are presented which show the campers’ own evaluation of the qualities of play leaders. The summary of these reactions of children to leaders are as follows:⁵

Campers favor leaders:

- 1—Who are agreeable, friendly, and approachable.
- 2—Who are strict and can maintain order.
- 3—Who participate in all the activities with the campers.
- 4—Who are sympathetic and understanding.
- 5—Who are fair to all and have no favorites.
- 6—Who are efficient in their assigned work in camp.
- 7—Who are athletic.
- 8—Who are not over-bearing, “bossy,” and conceited.
- 9—Who are not unnecessarily severe.

Technical Knowledge of Play Activities.—Next to these personal qualities that have been discussed, there is need for an expert knowledge of play.

⁵ Bernard S. Mason, *Camping and Education*, p. 146. New York: The McCall Co., 1930.

The play leader must be thoroughly acquainted with 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 on a big scale and have places, teams, equipment, and officials ready when it is time to play. He should possess at least an elemental level of craftsmanship in the handicrafts, arts and crafts, and woodcraft.

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. A knowledge of social dramatics, story telling, and song leading is invaluable. Along these various lines, he must have a business sense for the raising of funds, the purchase and care of equipment, the general handling of budgets, and the like. Although it is not necessary that he be able to do all these varied types of activities himself, it is a distinct advantage to be able to do so—certainly he should be able to perform some activities well. At least he must possess a thoroughgoing sympathy for all the varied types of recreation and strive to secure volunteer leadership for those types which he cannot give active leadership to himself.

Health Knowledge.—The play leader 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.

Cultural Education.—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 instructor 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 and in raising the moral tone of the school and neighborhood; 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 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 and the technique of group discussion.

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 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 and a moral leader. 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 representative teams in a baseball, basketball, or volleyball league, or to organize a gymnasium class for which he will provide leadership.

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 or school 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 capacities 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 make-up more so than others. He can then plan accordingly. For instance, the student particularly interested 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 student 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 invaluable. The student desiring to coach athletic teams 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 student looking forward to having charge of physical education classes will need practical training in gymnasium routines, including physical examinations, health instruction, tests, and exercises, and will also need to know the successful methods of handling large numbers of students in both organized and informal intramural activities.

There is plenty of opportunity to-day to receive special training along one's own particular needs, for practically all normal colleges and universities have introduced physical education courses, and many cities and rural districts conduct special institutes. The larger universities are also conducting graduate courses in play supervision in summer schools for school superintendents, principals, and physical educators. A specialized school for the training of recreation executives is conducted by the National Recreation Association, presenting a one-year graduate course to a limited number of carefully selected graduates in the fields of physical education or social administration from standard universities.

With so many opportunities for advanced professional instruction, the teacher, once located on a job, should not cease to grow. He should keep up-to-date through reading widely in his field, through the best books and current literature, through attending professional conferences, through extension courses with higher institutions of learning, and by attending a summer school occasionally.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE PLAY STAFF

THE recreation system of a city has become a year-round affair. Sometimes the school board has jurisdiction, sometimes the park board, sometimes a special city recreation commission, and sometimes both the school board and park board in cooperation, the park board in such a case handling the out-of-school and vacation-time play. The system works best when one individual is placed in charge of the whole program.

THE REGULAR STAFF MEMBERS

Assured of a unified administration which, as just mentioned, is necessary for the successful conduct of a modern, city-wide, recreation program, it is also important that the many details of this program

be wisely distributed among the members comprising the staff. Our next discussion will take up the customary ways in which this allotment of duties is made, keeping in mind that these practices will vary according to the size of the city and the number of recreation workers that make up the staff.

Recreation Superintendent.—The superintendent of recreation has charge of the general administration. His duties are 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 programs, the choice of activities, and the promotion of them; also, the direction of the rest of the teaching force.

The minimum requirements for eligibility for this office, as laid down by the National Recreation Association are held to be as follows:

Minimum age—Cities under 100,000—25 years
 Cities over 100,000—30 years

Experience—Executive experience in recreation work, education, city planning, personnel management, or business:

Cities under 100,000—3 years
 Cities 100,000–500,000—5 years
 Cities over 500,000—7 years

Education—College education or equivalent plus special training in two of the following: recreation administration; community organization; personnel management; public administration and finance; public education; city planning; educational administration.

The superintendent of recreation must be a competent executive and a very versatile individual with a broad social outlook, thoroughly familiar with wide social needs of the community. His interests must be broad enough to maintain the confidence of all factions and parties in the community. He should be an aggressive and enthusiastic promoter of recreation, capable of stimulating the imagination of the community and arousing its enthusiasm for the advancement of his programs. He should be a good organizer and an aggressive publicist. As an administrator he should be familiar with business management and capable of efficiently handling budgets and finances, and should be able to competently supervise his staff of paid workers and volunteers. He should possess a technical knowledge of a wide range of recreation skills and be able to train his staff of workers, both paid and volunteer, a task which will call for a knowledge of the latest pedagogical methods.

Specialists Assisting the Superintendent.—The superintendent of recreation is an executive, a city-wide administrator, and in a large city system must be assisted by a number of specialists who promote certain specific types of recreation throughout the community. 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 corps of directors to work under him, he should remember to select 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 specialists and associates he can get work of any particular nature done well. The specialized skills needed are of the following types:

Athletics for Men and Boys
Women's and Girls' Activities
Community Music
Community Drama
Handicraft
Folk Dancing
Nature Lore

In smaller systems more than one of these functions can be assigned to one individual, but the important thing is that adequate leadership for the broad comprehensive program indicated by the above list be provided. When one scans the above list it becomes immediately evident that the problem is much broader than physical play and recreation, and an adequate program is not insured unless the superintendent is an individual who has experienced a broad, rich, and varied type of recreational training.

In large city systems district superintendents are frequently found, each of whom 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 smaller cities instead of having district superintendents, have supervisors for one special activity, folk dancing and pageantry, 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.

In communities under 50,000 population, a full-time director of community recreation will usually be impossible unless combined with the position of director of physical education for the public schools. The executive acting in this combined capacity will usually

have especially trained assistants to whom are delegated the responsibilities of the after-school and evening recreational programs throughout the school year. With the opening of the summer playgrounds, the director and his assistants are free to give their time to the playground program. This arrangement is a practical and efficient set-up for cities that are unable to employ two full-time staffs.

Playground or Community Center Director.—The next official is the director in charge of one playground or one recreation building. He is an executive on a smaller scale. In the smaller systems he will have to act as play leader also, especially in handling the activities of the older boys, in leading the business-men's classes, and in supervising leagues of competitive games in the evening.

Play Leaders.—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 instructor. After the boys and girls segregate, then a man teacher should coach the boys in their sports and handle their club work and a woman should take care of the other girls' games, dancing, and club activities.

One mistake that is often made in the administration of a school recreational program is to expect a person to act in a broad executive capacity and also to coach the teams in such sports as football, basketball, 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 stimulate a broad comprehensive program of social and cultural as well as physical activity.

VOLUNTEER RECREATIONAL LEADERSHIP

There has been an increasing tendency in public recreational circles toward the use of volunteer leadership which gives promise of growing into a permanent and accepted policy of administration. Vol-

unteer leadership does not dispense with the regular staff of play leaders but supplements their work. It adds invaluable services not apt to be found in the regular vacation recreation program. From this standpoint, there is every reason to believe that there is a permanent place for volunteer leadership in the special activity phases of summer recreation, such as, for example, music, handicraft, story telling, nature trips, gardening, art work, and educational trips to printing houses, telephone plants, automobile shops, and the like.

Usually where the volunteer plan has been tried, it has been backed by a number of meetings of influential citizens who are strong backers of an educational as well as recreational program of summer activities. By having such a committee or advisory council made of such civic-minded men and women from many walks of life, excellent publicity is usually forthcoming. These people carry weight in their respective neighborhoods and as a result of their presence, the newspapers (especially if the local editor is an interested member of the committee) are very apt to sponsor the work with enthusiasm. This publicity may extend over the whole season if each day the playground director is able to announce a program which includes specially sponsored activities in addition to the regular events.

In addition to this possibility of extra interest and enthusiasm on the part of influential community groups, and the helpful backing of newspapers, there are other possibilities in the volunteer plan. It gives opportunities to draw upon other recreational facilities previously unavailable for the playground children. For example, one of the members of the Community Committee may be a college or industrial leader who will offer the use of a swimming pool on limited occasions; or a wealthy citizen may open up private tennis courts at certain hours for playground use under playground supervision. Again, in conjunction with the volunteer service, short-term recreation training courses are usually offered. These serve an educational purpose in enlightening the community on modern recreational needs. And, without doubt, also, another educational influence is fostered by having the volunteer leaders in touch with the regular program so that they may gain a sympathetic insight and appreciation of the amount of work involved in the ordinary routine of administering a summer playground.

The volunteer leadership plan, wisely directed, also has in its favor the fact that in reality more expert service can be secured for the special activities than probably can be given by the trained directors themselves. The trained directors and teachers will have a broad, all-

round understanding of the program but may not be specialists in the one activity for which a volunteer leader is procured. The volunteer leaders, their interest secured, are apt to be the best the city can produce—authorities in their special fields. Musical organizations, for example, may lend leaders for community singing, for bands, and for the music which is needed for the pageant or demonstration.

The volunteer plan has additional merit in tying up the playground schedules with other social service agencies of the community such as the parent-teacher groups, service clubs, churches, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., and so forth. Representatives from these groups are apt to be found on the Advisory Council. Leaders in these organizations have a chance to enlarge upon the sphere of their activities. The playground director is the coordinating director of this enlarged and cooperative program.

The experienced playground director, in recognizing the merits of the volunteer plan and in adopting some of its features for his own use, will be aware of the dangers that accompany it. There is the chance that the public will mistake volunteer leadership as a satisfactory substitution for salaried service and this misconception must be guarded against. The director will also realize that volunteer helpers need continued supervision or their interest will wane. He will learn to expect little help from volunteers in discipline problems, care of equipment, or use of equipment. Special care must be taken in regard to the safety of children who are taken away from the playground on special educational or outing trips.

Despite these difficulties, it must be said in all fairness that the volunteer leadership plan has given unexpected stimulation to playground support when given an adequate trial, and has yielded valuable newspaper support of a most helpful nature. It has given new vigor and emphasis to certain educational features of the recreational program. The trained directors have become more administratively minded and have made valuable contacts in coordinating the service rendered both by adult volunteers and by junior volunteers on the playground. The director has thus become a leader in training leadership. For these many reasons the volunteer supplementary program does not appear to be a temporary recourse, but rather a permanent and desirable aspect of community recreation.

CONCLUSION: THE OUTLOOK FOR SERVICE

THE person who takes up physical education or recreational leadership as a life work has the satisfaction of knowing that he is making

a distinct contribution to the happiness of mankind. He is not only providing opportunities for the enjoyment of leisure to the rank and file of children and adults, but is equipping children for a richer and fuller life through the building of strong healthy bodies, desirable character, and a knowledge of many skills and techniques which they can use in the leisure which to-morrow will bring.

Recreational leadership and physical education demands just as specialized a training as any of the professions. The many-sidedness of the duties that the young man or woman taking up physical education or recreation as a life work may be called upon to perform has already been shown in the discussion of the varied nature of the leader'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 recreation and who is worthy of being called a physical education or a recreation executive cannot fail to have unlimited confidence in the work he can accomplish. It is a profession that does not promise the most in the way of material compensations, but there is the greater reward 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 leader has a new and inviting field of promise stretching before him. The physical educator or recreational executive 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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