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American Sport and Physical Education History (to 1975): An Anthology

BY

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AMERICAN SPORT AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION HISTORY (to 1975): AN ANTHOLOGY

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DEDICATION

To the late Fred E. Leonard, A.M., M.D. Oberlin College Ohio

and

To the late Seward C. Staley, M.A., Ph.D. University of Illinois UIUC

and

To those who follow in their tradition…

Contents

PREFACE

Some people really enjoy reading history, while others can take it or leave it. A very few can't stand it in any form–not even in a highly adventurous, romantic novel. However, this latter group is very decidedly in the minority. Most people seem to respect history; perhaps it's a case of revering and not speaking evil of the dead. Whatever the reason, just about everybody pays lip service to history and believes that it belongs in the educational curriculum at various points along the way–all the way up the line, in fact, to the historical review of related literature in the usual Ph.D. thesis!

From what has been said to this point, a foreigner viewing our educational system for the first time might be apt to think that history, in one form or another, is the most important subject in the curriculum–and it may well be from the standpoint of the time spent on it throughout the years. The child has it forced upon him throughout his early school years; some facets of it are thrust upon him during the junior high school experience; and world history and American history are typically included in the high school years. At the college or university level, he doesn't usually escape without a variety of course experiences involving a greater or lesser amount of related history as well.

This point was emphasized in an unpublished study made by Dean Emeritus Seward C. Staley, University of Illinois, some fifteen years ago. In an effort to make a case for the sponsorship for a history of sport conference, he called a meeting of interested people at the Hotel Sheraton Gibson in Cincinnati on December 28, 1959. He explained to the group assembled that an assessment of the history offerings on the Urbana Campus of the University of Illinois showed that 1,400 of the 2,200 courses offered in the fall semester of 1959 included some history in the course outline. More specifically, he found that 350 (15%) of the courses were directly or basically historical in nature; that 350 (15%) others included a considerable amount of historical material (25 to 50%); and that 700 (30%) includes some (5 to 25%) historical materials.

The student specializing in physical education and sport is fair game for the history ploy at a slightly later stage of his development –that is, the period of general education is just about over when he falls prey to an often traditionalistic teacher who would ply him with historical data often from secondary and uninteresting sources. In the professional physical education curriculum, this is usually carried out–for a number of reasons–in a routine, pedestrian fashion. Still further, every teacher of all of the different theory and practice courses in the major program seems to believe that he has a responsibility to offer the student a short history of that particular subject's background. (This is fine, of course, if time permits, and if the material presented is accurate and reasonably comprehensive.) In the curriculum of

general professional education–designed to produce master teachers–it may be presented in a slightly progressivistic manner under the heading of "social foundations" of education.

With such an array of courses covering the history of "this and that", one might expect the new graduate student in physical education *to really understand history*, both generally and specifically, as it might apply to the world, to the United States, to general professional education, and to specialized professional education as related to physical education and sport. Would that such were the case! However, the average graduate student registering for a course in the history of physical education and sport seems to possess but a hazy concept of the sweep of human history on this earth. In addition to the lack of information about the chronology of events, he or she is completely inadequate if questioned about what might be designated as the persistent or perennial problems that humans have faced down through the centuries. Specific or general questions about educational history, even in the Western world, cannot be answered either. Having made these observations, the somewhat disheartened, graduate history of physical education professor hardly dares to inquire about historical knowledge relative to sport and physical activity!

Just how matters developed this way is difficult to explain. The lodging of deprecatory remarks about earlier teachers will in all probability solve nothing. In the final analysis, the parents will probably be blamed for bringing such stupid offspring into the world. The only reasonable approach would seem to be a concerted effort by dedicated physical education and sport historians to remedy the situation insofar as this may be possible. Fortunately, this does appear to be happening in a variety of ways.

In the spring of 1968, the First International Seminar on the History of Physical Education and Sport was held at the Wingate Institute near Tel Aviv, Israel. Subsequent seminars of this type have been held in Canada, France, Asia, the United States, Austria, etc. (at the time this is being written). Professor (Dr.) Frantisek Kratky, Charles University, Prague, as President of the ICSPE Committee on the History of Physical Education and Sport, has been laying plans for the eventual preparation of a truly representative world history of physical education and sport.

Within the framework of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (prior to its change in name), Dr. Bruce L. Bennett and Dr. Betty Spears have served as Historians (in that order). Similarly, Dr. Mabel Lee, Dr. E. Craig Davis, and Dr. Ruth Schellberg have served as Archivists, respectively. Then a completely separate section for the History of Physical Education was organized under the Physical Education Division of the Association. There have also been very helpful sessions on teaching methods and other pertinent aspects of the work of the history of physical education and sport teacher at each annual convention. Professor Bennett

has coordinated a regular column on history in the JOHPER, and Dr. Betty McCue spearheaded the question of information retrieval in this sub-area of the discipline, as did the Editor with the assistance of Mr. Thomas Abernathy and Dr. Melvin Adelman.

Still further, the Big Ten's Body-of-Knowledge Project has included the history of physical education and sport as a part of one of the six areas for investigation in the ongoing effort to develop the disciplinary aspect of the entire field. The editor of this present volume was related to this development from the outset. In 1964 he presented a paper on the status of research in physical education history. At a subsequent meeting he coordinated a program which included a presentation on the history of physical education by the above-mentioned Dr. Bennett. Another development that the Editor conceived and helped to inaugurate was the establishment of the first oral history research office in physical education and sport at the University of Illinois, Urbana. This project has been guided by Professor Marianna Trekell and is providing a considerable amount of "warm, live historical material" for better teaching and research (upon demand of the investigator concerned). In 1971 the Big Ten Symposium on the History of Physical Education and Sport was held at The Ohio State University (coordinated by Professors B. L. Bennett and Seymour Kleinman).

Three highly significant history of physical education and sport symposia were held in 1970, 1971, and 1972 at Edmonton, Alberta.; Banff, Alberta; and Windsor, Ontario, respectively. These sessions were spearheaded by Professor M. L. Howell, then of the University of Alberta and his associates at that time (Professors R. G. Glassford, Ann Hall, and Peter Lindsay). The most recent Canadian symposium at the University of Windsor was coordinated by Dr. Alan Metcalfe and his associates (Prof. Gordon Olafson and Dean P. J. Galasso). At the time of this writing the third Canadian Symposium is scheduled for August of 1974 at Dalhousie University, Halifax with Dr. Sandy Young, Chairman.

Lastly, before moving on (with apologies to people and places who may have been missed in physical education and sport history's "success story" above), the formation of NASSH (the North American Society for Sport History) must be mentioned. Dr. Marvin Eyler is the first President; Dr. Guy Lewis is the President-elect; and the tireless efforts of Dr. Ron Smith and Dr. John Lucas should be cited as well. The 1973 Meeting was at The Ohio State University in Columbus, and in 1974 the sessions will be held at The University of Western Ontario (with Dr. Robert Barney as Convention Manager). NASSH, in addition to annual proceedings, will also begin a journal in 1974 to supplement the already highly successful journal organized by Dr. Alan Metcalfe at the University of Windsor (now with Dr. Mike Salter as Co-Editor).

Justification for this Book. In addition to the general discussion of the present status of physical education and sport history as a sub-disciplinary area within the field, more specific justification should be provided for the publication of a book of readings in this area at present. One substantial reason is that the body of historical knowledge about physical education and sport needs to be supplemented. Still further; much of the work already completed is not readily available in a suitable form (and at a reasonable price) for professional students. Nowhere is any publication is there a sampling of the historical endeavor of many of our better and established physical education and sport historians on this topic. In addition, an effort has been made to include some of the work of a number of our fine, but somewhat younger, historical scholars. Altogether twenty-five different historians of physical education and sport have their work represented in this volume.

The various selections are preceded by an essay outlining the social and educational foundations of United States history, although no effort has been made to specifically relate this essay to individual readings. There is also a brief "lead-in" to each of the essays (readings) which were included. The several appendices include an approach to the description, explanation, and evaluation of the historical role of sport in selected societies prepared by the Editor, as well as analyses of completed theses (more than 500 of them) and an excellent annotated bibliography of athletics in the United States.

The particular selections included cover the sweep of U. S. history, and they represent in many cases condensations of much longer investigations. Thus, this book includes the results of literally thousands of pages of historical writing. Of course, this does not mean that the reader would not learn more about the history of this field by referring to the original works. However, at least the particular work is being called to reader's attention, and he or she will obtain some of the essence of the study. This person will be able, also, to follow through with a detailed investigation in detail through Doctoral Dissertation Abstracts and/or microfilm, the purchase of a xerographic copy from University Microfilm, or perhaps even inter-library loan.

These readings on selected historical topics may he used in a number of different ways in the professional preparation of a student. (This is not to say, of course, that they could not be useful in the general education of any college student.) An instructor could use this volume either as a required or supplementary text in a history of United States history of physical education and sport course. A professor could also build a "foundations" or "principles" course around it–depending upon the teaching method or technique used. Still further, it can be an addition to all types of libraries. Those involved in teacher education in this field ought to have this book on a "personal reserve book shelf." At the graduate level such a readings volume can be most useful either as a text, supplementary text, or reference volume.

A word of explanation may be needed to justify the contention that this book can be used in so many ways. Normally one would not expect a book to be equally useful at both the undergraduate and graduate levels of education. In fact, the field of physical education, as well as the field of general professional education, must continue current efforts to distinguish correctly between what is undergraduate study and what is true graduate endeavor. Times are changing, and many physical educators (and educators) are beginning to truly comprehend, as they try desperately to catalogue and file materials that the body of knowledge (in physical education, for example) is increasing at a geometric ratio. This means that the results of scholarly work must be made known to teachers and prospective teachers promptly and regularly. Thus, the practitioner, the teacher of teachers and coaches, and the scholar and researcher must be truly research oriented. This is why a volume such as this, based on a large number of historical investigations, can be employed in so many ways.

It is so difficult to acknowledge the past assistance received that an editor (and co-author) is tempted to extend a general "thank you" and leave it at that. I am indeed grateful to all of those colleagues who permitted the use of their writings in this book (Each will receive two copies of the volume, and an annual contribution of a percentage of the royalties will be donated in their names to the American Academy of Physical Education.) Professor John S. Brubacher, who was selected as one of eleven who made the greatest contribution to professional education in the United States in the first 75 years of this century, offered friendship, encouragement, and intellectual stimulation to the editor at a time when it was really needed. (This was at Yale University in the 1940s where it was the editor's good fortune to study under him while pursuing the Ph.D. degree). For this assistance I will always be grateful. My wife (Bert)–my best and worst critic at one and the same time–has been helpful and very patient. Mrs. Sue Richardson, my secretary at Illinois, Urbana, was extremely helpful and most patient as well. It is a sincere wish of the editor that this publication will be of some help to those of us who are endeavoring to promote the study of physical education and sport history.

The editor is most grateful for the continuing and enthusiastic support received from Mr. Robert Watts of the Stipes Publishing Company–and, of course, from Mr. Stipes himself–in regard to his various contributions to the Stipes Series on Physical Education and Sport. Ms. Marie Mayer, who assisted with the preparation of the manuscript before the actual printing process, should be recognized for her invaluable assistance as well.

Our profession and discipline most assuredly needs to know "where it has been, and how it got there." By continuous, careful assessment of "where and what we are at present," the guideposts for the future should be somewhat more readily apparent. We need all of the help–and then some!–that we can get in this truly perplexing world situation. Writing now from a

Canadian perspective (even though still a U. S. citizen), it is not difficult to see that the future of the United States is being challenged as perhaps never before. A careful study of history is a first prerequisite along the way to full understanding.

Lastly, a few words about the dedication of this volume seem appropriate at this point. Professor Leonard had dedicated his *A Guide to the History of Physical Education* "to the memory of Dr. Edward Mussey Hartwell who first in America blazed the trail which I have tried to follow." Be that as it well may be, we felt that this book should be dedicated to Dr. Leonard for his valuable pioneering effort. Secondly, Dean Emeritus Staley of the University of Illinois, Urbana, has been retired more than ten years at the time of this writing, and he is still working away on a mammoth bibliography of sport history. This represents a culmination of continuing interest and effort toward the promotion of sport and physical education history over a long period. Lastly, the editor is very grateful to the other contributors. He is certain that through their continued efforts the history of physical education and sport will be placed on an increasingly sound basis.

Earle F. Zeigler
London, Ontario, Canada
July, 1974

PREFACE
(Second Printing)

The occasion for a second printing of this "anthology", "historical reader" or "compendium"–now with a slightly altered title–merits an explanation. This volume was published in 1975 as a "historical reader" treating the past of the field of physical education and educational sport in the United States and Canada.

> **Note: The editor, working and living in Canada, decided to include a Canadian supplement (i.e., four representative articles to further "internationalism." However, this material has been eliminated here because it painted an "insufficient" or inadequate picture of the Canadian scene. In addition, it made the original volume a bit unwieldy in size.)**

The 1975 volume of selected historical topics did indeed receive favorable criticism. The fine efforts of the many colleagues of the editor and author were most favorably reviewed by *Choice* in September, 1975 as follows:

> **A compendium of in-depth investigation into the historical, philosophical, cultural, and educational aspects of this broad-based discipline—physical education and sport—the work is presented in understandable and readable style. Notable among the presentations is the carefully prepared work of A. A. Pierro: *A History of Professional Preparation in Physical Education in Selected Negro Colleges and Universities* to 1958. The editor's notes and extensive bibliographies accompanying each of the 25 presentations were most helpful. Although an increasingly large number of historical investigations of physical education and sport are now underway, the works presented by Zeigler will certainly encourage scholars to do more in this vital area. This work will certainly prove useful for selected readings in general education, basic professional preparation in physical education and sport, and as a reference holding in libraries ranging from the junior college through the university.**

The original preface to this work has been left intact, along with the fine prologue by the late Fred E. Leonard of Oberlin College, Ohio that introduces the reader to "pioneers of physical training." The reader is urged to review all of these historical topics for the insight they may provide to the history of physical education and sport in America.

> **(Note: Four historical essays about sport and physical education in Canada were eliminated)**

It is now 34 years later. The typical history course in professional preparation programs in physical (activity) education and (educational) sport in the United States in the 20th century covered the world history of physical education and sport with significant emphasis on U.S.A history. This practice still prevails largely with the limited number of texts available, but there are "changes in the wind" occasioned by historical developments within the overall field.

The editor believes strongly that "what has gone before" should not be forgotten. To continue colloquially, if you don't know "where you've been," it's hard to know "where you are," and really difficult to know "where you should go!" This is the plight confronting the field of physical (activity) education and (educational) sport at the beginning of the 21st century.

For example, there are now more than 200 different names to describe what was formerly called the department of physical education in colleges and universities. These names often reflect the development of the field's allied professions (e.g., health education, recreation, dance) usually housed in the same building. Additionally, many of the name changes are a result of new emphases, curricula, and options that have emerged within the former physical education/sport units.

As it developed, there is now what might be called the "kinesiology (exercise science) wing" within the campus unit. It is not primarily interested with professional preparation programs in physical (activity) education and (educational) sport. The professors involved, men and women who have decided to call themselves kinesiologists or exercise & sport scientists, often want the professional programs designed to prepare public-education teachers and coaches housed separately, perhaps over in the professional education school on campus. For these kinesiologists (including physiologists, biomechanists, motor learning and control professors., *etc.),* social-science & humanities subjects are really out of place in the degree curriculum and are to be ever more downgraded and eventually eliminated. They are regarded as "barely related" to what should make up the subject matter of kinesiology (i.e., biomechanics, epidemiology, growth and motor development, measurement and evaluation, motor control and learning, physiology, and psychology). The *history* of what these scientists accomplish should be recorded, but "Who ever heard of the philosophy, the sociology, the cultural anthropology, or the economics *(etc.)* of kinesiology?" As a matter of fact, the author recently heard that even the *one* history course was being eliminated in a certain university's professional curriculum.

Interestingly, also, professional preparation programs in sport management have also mushroomed all over North America in the last quarter of the 20th century. This degree program is largely "persona non grata" to the kinesiologists and/or exercise scientists if it encroaches on their domain, because they believe that it might even lbe ess scholarly than the

"standard" professional physical education and sport degree programs. The sport management group, however, now numbers about 250 professional programs more or less in North America. It has a jointly approved NASPE/NASSM curriculum spelled out that universities must follow before acceptance for (voluntary) certification in the United States.

Resultantly, good texts and monographs in this area, where several hundred professional programs now exist, should sell *if the* physical education elements in them are downgraded and sport "reigns supreme" (i.e., such subjects as sport marketing, sport ethics, sport finance, sport management theory & practice, etc., are offered). Also, in this professional curriculum, treatment of the history of the field is related to management generally and more commercialized sport management specifically.

The physical (activity) education and (educational) sport professors, those who prepare teacher/coaches basically for the public schools and junior colleges, do fundamentally need the knowledge under girding of kinesiology/exercise science. However, such knowledge to date has been composed very largely of physiological and psychological studies (i.e., exercise physiology and motor learning). Strangely, however, what is not being stressed currently and/or sufficiently by this group is *biomechanics,* the ability to comprehend and analyze kinematic *and* kinetic movement as qualified teacher/coaches. Yet, this is exactly what they really need. But that's very complicated and therefore practically unattainable for 99.9% of prospective teachers and coaches without much greater curricular emphasis. Even these so-called kinesiologists, most of the ones who stress physiology and psychology in their own work, haven't along the way truly developed the competencies needed to analyze movement kinematically, much less kinetically—*but they nevertheless want to call themselves kinesiologists.* Thus, thinking in this vein, the name "exercise and sport scientists" would seem to be much more appropriate if truly earned…

This same group, the physical education/sport and exercise skills people, are steadily discovering that now sport management professors don't want much to do with physical education and sport for teachers & coaches in *educational* settings. Hence, physical (activity) educators are also increasingly "turning off" on the sport management area and attempting to shunt it elsewhere (perhaps to the recreation field). They still teach courses in the administration of physical education and athletics in educational institutions, however. So why should they, physical education and sport, allot any salaried full-time equivalents to the sport management training program?

Health education, as has recreation, have also been trying to escape from physical education and sport "lo these many years" and become separate professions! Yet, school health-education knowledge is still needed by the physical education and sport teachers. Admittedly such "knowledge

content" has grown so greatly that the physical educator-coach simply can't keep up fully with the mushrooming knowledge base of what has become an allied profession..

Finally, there are the social science & humanities people who developed some importance as the physical education/sport curriculum began its emergence as a discipline in the 1960s. As important as this author feels their subject matter is, they are nevertheless truly "running scared." This is so because they see kinesiology and exercise science emerging as a discipline in colleges and universities (often with the health sciences). They know that many kinesiologists feel that their students might be better kinesiologists *if* they didn't have to take courses in health, physical education, recreation, and sport management that are sociologically, historically, social psychologically, and philosophically oriented! In addition, unfortunately, as the people teaching these courses are "gradually" retiring from service, and since it is often impossible financially to justify replacements in these difficult times, many of the people who taught these courses are simply not being replaced.

If the reader has persevered to this point, he or she can now better understand why the editor believes this is an appropriate moment for consideration of the history of physical education and educational sport in America. This should help both theorists and practitioners understand better the "changing scene" that has "emerged" at the beginning of the 21st century. The editor believes strongly that there indeed is "great confusion out there" as to the overall field's development.

Before concluding this preface, the editor/author wishes to express his deep appreciation to Robert Watts, Editor and Partner of the Stipes Publishing Company in Champaign, Illinois. An editor/author could not hope for a better relationship than he has had with Mr. Watts and Stipes over the past 45 years. I am especially grateful at this time for the permission granted to reproduce this out-of-print text.

Additionally, he is also indebted to those colleagues and friends who permitted me to use a "segment" of their work in this book originally. An annual contribution from any royalties earned was at the time donated in their name to the American Academy of Physical Education while the volume was available from Stipes.

The editor/author hopes that members of the discipline, profession, field–whatever eventually named–will find this material useful as they plan for–and hopefully make–sound progress–in the 21st century.

Earle F. Zeigler
Richmond, BC, Canada
2009

PROLOGUE

INTRODUCTION TO PIONEERS OF MODERN PHYSICAL TRAINING

Fred E. Leonard, A.M., M.D. (deceased)
Professor of Hygiene and Physical Education
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Since all human institutions and agencies as they exist today represent only the latest stage in a long process of growth and development, each is best understood when we turn back to the past and retrace the significant steps in its evolution to present forms. Such a study of beginnings yields many a useful clue to what would otherwise defy analysis. It gives perspective in assigning values to new solutions brought forward for old problems, and it enables one to start where others left off, profiting by their successes and avoiding their mistakes.(1)

> **Editor's Note: With this particular selection, this and the following numbers refer to corresponding numerals in the General Bibliography for the paper. This material, now in the public domain, was published in the Second Edition by the Association Press, New York City, 1915.**

In ancient Greece (2) **there were two strongly contrasted types of education, unlike in aim and method. The earlier Doric or Spartan type had discipline for its key-note and aimed to produce a citizen-warrior. The other and much broader type was the Ionic or Athenian, which became more and more the dominant one throughout Greece and her colonies. It regarded the individual as valuable in and for himself, and sought to promote first of all his full and free development. It we commence our review with Athens, in the fifth century before Christ, we find that each free citizen was required to provide his sons with instruction in gymnastics and music. The former trained primarily the body and the will; the latter, including literary branches as well as music in the narrower sense now conveyed by the term, developed the intellect and the emotions. Thus mind and body were to be educated together, and the end was individual completeness and harmony of parts. The gymnastic exercises practiced in private schools (palestrae) and usually given out-of-doors were little more than orderly contests in wrestling, running, jumping, and throwing the spear and the discus.**

Grown men met for exercise and conversation in the various gymnasia, state institutions maintained at public expense and administered by public functionaries. Probably by the end of this century no important Greek town, in the parent land and in the far-scattered colonies that dotted the borders of the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, was without one, at least, of these structures. At the great national festivals, which helped to bind together the

politically distinct members of the Greek race, interest was centered chiefly on competitive exercises—running, jumping, throwing the spear and the discus, wrestling, and boxing—between free-born citizens, of pure Hellenic descent and untainted by crime. There were also horse- and chariot-races. These athletic contests were the only ones at Olympia, the foremost gathering of them all, and held the chief place at others where musical and literary competitions were added.

Among the Romans (3) **military training and the life of the camp furnished the only systematic bodily discipline. They were practical men, strangers to the Greek passion for beauty, and valued exercise only as it led to robust health and made capable soldiers. The Greek gymnastics never gained a foothold among them, either as a factor in education or in the form of the national games. These had now lost their original character of sacred festivals, and the contestants were professional athletes, tempted by the rich prizes offered, usually of low birth and not averse to trickery and falsehood. The public baths, found in Rome and in every important provincial town in the days of the Empire, present at first glance a striking resemblance to the Greek gymnasia, but one much less real than apparent, and the effect of the institutions on Roman life was on the whole an enervating one. Between the Panhellenic festivals celebrated in the stadium and hippodrome at Olympia in the time of Pericles, and those public spectacles which crowded the amphitheatre and circus of the degenerate Roman world during the first centuries of the Christian era, the contrast is even greater. The chariot races of the Circus Maximus and the combats in the Colosseum reveal a changed type of civilization and mark the lowest stages of athletic professionalism.**

It was inevitable that the early Christians, living for the most part in cities and thereby brought into close and daily contact with all the abominations of the decadent pagan society of the Empire, should exhibit a violent reaction from the prevailing luxury and sensual self-indulgence. In protest against its excess, they sometimes carried their stern self-restraint so far as to deny themselves the common comforts of life and decline to gratify those cravings of the body which are innocent and natural. Through the Alexandrian schools of philosophy they also felt the influence of that fundamental tenet of the Oriental religions which holds that evil inheres in matter, while mind or spirit is essentially divine and pure, that the flesh and the spirit, therefore, wage perpetual warfare on each other and the body is an enemy to be resisted at every point. Then, too, the persecution to which many converts of the growing Church were subjected kindled an intense religious enthusiasm which welcomed martyrdom and caused pain and torment to be considered meritorious of themselves. After the persecutions ceased the self-torture of the hermit and the monk took their place as a means and measure of human excellence. Mortification of the body thus acquired the dignity of a religious exercise, while the idea of pleasure came to be closely associated with that of vice. In spite of its disastrous physical effects upon the individual and the pernicious consequences of the doctrine

among the people at large, asceticism (4) soon became a part of the accepted teaching of the Church and the practice of a large proportion of her leaders and adherents.

> **Note: The reader is referred to a study in the companion volume by Ralph Ballou which gives us some new insight into the position of the Church on the matter of physical activity (EFZ, Ed.).**

In the cities of northern Italy, and throughout southern Europe generally, the inroads of the Germanic barbarians in the fourth and fifth centuries were not followed by the complete extinction of the race of lay teachers; but in transalpine Europe, from the sixth till the twelfth century, the Benedictine monasteries (5) were the chief, if not the only seats of learning, and education was almost wholly in the hands of monks of that order. Theological doctrines and religious interests absorbed human thought. Men were trained for the world to come, and the present world was deemed unworthy of attention. The soul was the one object of solicitude, and the body was regarded with contempt, so that there could be no such thing as physical training in schools conducted by the Church. The monastic discipline in all its severity was an essential part of school life.

A succession of influences, and chief among them the Crusades, operating in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, had widened the scope of human interests and produced a vague longing after knowledge which was not to be satisfied by the traditional teaching. Along with the demand for a different type and more advanced grade of instruction there arose here and there famous lecturers, who gathered about themselves great number of disciples. Centers were thus created to which other teachers and their followers were attracted, and this, in turn, led to an informal association of masters and pupils, out of which the medieval university developed. In Italy die long-neglected legal system of ancient Rome was studied afresh, the medical sciences were foremost in Moorish Spain, and in the regions of Europe farther north dialectic and philosophy were applied to the study of theology. Teachers were bound by superstitious reverence for authority, however, and as regards treatment of the body the influence of asceticism was still supreme. Provision for lawful amusements was rarely made in university statutes, which appear frequently to have regarded harmless attempts at pleasure with more hostility than they displayed toward actual vice and crime.

But meanwhile the hermit of early Catholic legends had been displaced as a popular hero by the knight. Military Christianity, as typified in the three orders of soldier-monks which had their origin in the twelfth century, could not fail to weaken the hold of the ascetic ideal. Chivalry (8), or the body of law and custom relating to knighthood, prevailed almost universally throughout western Europe between the eleventh and sixteenth centuries, and in its ideals of war, religion, and gallantry was summed up the whole

duty of the gentleman of mat age. The system can be traced in part to various customs of the rude German tribes which overran southern and western Europe in the fourth and fifth centuries, developed later under the influence of feudalism; but its final form was not received until the time of the Crusades (1096-1270), when the Church, in order to further her own designs, adopted and modified its practices. The decline of chivalry as a military system, although it began soon after the last Crusade, did not become complete until the fifteenth century. The early training of the knight stood in sharp contrast to the education imparted in the monastery schools. Running, jumping, wrestling, swimming, climbing ropes and poles and ladders, hurling stones, casting the spear, shooting with the bow and the crossbow, wielding the battle-axe, and fencing, at first with dull wooden swords, helped to harden his body and give mastery of its powers. The most essential exercise, however, was horsemanship, including the adroit use of shield and lance, and the ability to endure the weight and overcome the hindrance of full armor. Out of the rough trials of strength and skill that were a natural occurrence whenever knights met at leisure were gradually developed the tournaments common all over Christendom in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, a public spectacle no less brilliant, fascinating, and characteristic of the age than were the Panhellenic games or the gladiatorial shows of the Roman world.

The universities of the Middle Ages made an important contribution to the intellectual advancement of Europe, but it is not till we reach the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the period of the Renaissance and the Reformation (9), that we find men escaping from a conception of the world and the flesh which associated them with the devil, and from the authority of that theological dogma which centered thought and imagination for centuries upon the rewards and punishments of a future state and meanwhile paralyzed or thwarted every effort to master the resources or investigate the phenomena of the material universe. Among the chief factors in this process of transition from the medieval to the modern world was the Revival of Learning–that appreciative study of the Greek and Latin classics and all the long-neglected records of ancient civilization which supplied the Western nations with a new ideal of life and culture. Writers on education, influenced by their classical studies and also by the customs of chivalry, which had not ceased to shape the early training of the gentleman, began to speak in commendation of bodily exercise and recognition of its rights to a place in the curriculum, referring repeatedly to ancient Greeks and Romans as authorities or by way of illustration. A famous Italian physician, Hieronymus Mercurialis, in the first part of his treatise on the Gymnastics of the Ancients, published in Venice in 1569, sought to reproduce for his readers the Greek gymnastic and gymnastic exercises.

While the best of the Renaissance writers on education had begun to break away from authority and tradition, and with reason as a guide were groping their way toward a training better suited to the nature and present

needs of man than any the past could supply, the fact that their ideas gained currency throughout all Europe, and the way was thus prepared for practical reforms, is very largely due to the powerful influence exerted by John Locke and Jean Jacques Rousseau (10), men who belong to the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The former published "Some Thoughts on Education" in 1693, and the latter his "Emile," an educational romance, in 1762. Both urge the necessity of some sort of physical training in the scheme of education.

But it was not until 1774, when Basedow (11), filled with thoughts of reform in methods of teaching and determined to found a model school which should embody his ideas and force them upon the attention of educators, opened his "Philanthropinum" in Dessau, on the Elbe north of Leipsic, that we come to the actual beginnings of modern physical training. In this private institution, open to all classes of society, bodily exercise was given a place in the daily program from the start, incorporated into the plan of instruction as an essential factor and entrusted to one of the regular teachers. The first to be introduced were the "knightly exercises,"—dancing, fencing, riding, and vaulting; then followed "Greek gymnastics," apparently nothing more than orderly contests in running, wrestling, throwing, and jumping; and before the school was closed in 1793 most of the forms of exercise advocated since that day had been employed, i.e., simple games and athletic sports, gymnastics, military drill, manual labor and manual training, and school excursions.

A long list of pioneers of the new art now appeared in various parts of Europe.

GutsMuths (12) taught gymnastics for nearly fifty years (17861835) in Salzmann's Educational Institute at Schnepfenthal, and published important volumes on gymnastics, games, swimming, and manual training. Outside of Berlin, from 1810 through 1818, Jahn (13) met boys and young men for exercise, beginning with a few pupils and a little portable apparatus, but later preparing and equipping an outdoor gymnasium and playground, and with the help of squad leaders handling a membership of more than a thousand. Out of this voluntary association of "turners" developed thirty years later the popular gymnastic societies (Turnvereine) of Germany, which now number over 11,000 and have a total enrollment of more than a million men. Nachtegall (14) in Copenhagen, started a private gymnasium in 1799, the first institution in modern times devoted exclusively to physical training, and under his leadership Denmark became the first European state to introduce physical training into its schools as an integral part of the course and to prepare teachers of that subject by offering instruction tn theory and methods of gymnastics. Under the patronage of the King of Sweden Pehr Henrik Ling (15) opened in 1814 the Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics in Stockholm, and before his death in 1839 had laid the foundation of Swedish military, medical, and school gymnastics. The last branch was developed

into its present form under his son Hjalmar (16) in the third quarter of the century. The Spanish Colonel Amoros (17) devoted himself to teaching gymnastics in Paris from 1817 till 1848; and Clias (18) born in the United States, but of Swiss and French Huguenot descent, was active in three countries,—Switzerland (after 1815), England (1822-1825), and France (1841-1848). The chief work of Spiess (19), the father of school gymnastics in Germany, was accomplished in the years 18331855.

In the United States the different systems or sorts of physical training which have been brought forward for trial, and the agencies which have promoted its spread, fall into three groups, centered about 1830, 1860, and the decade from 1880 to 1890. The first includes Captain Alden Partridge and his military academies (20); the introduction of the Jahn gymnastics and the opening of school, college and city or public outdoor gymnasia under the director of the German refugees Beck, Follen, and Lieber (21); the attempt to provide manual labor as a system of exercise in educational institutions (22); and the earliest use of "calisthenics" for girls and women (23), by Catharine Beecher in her schools in Hartford and Cincinnati. To the second belong the gymnastic societies formed by native Americans on the model of the German Turnvereine (24); the building of the first college gymnasia, at Amherst, Harvard, and Yale, and the establishment of a chair of hygiene and physical education at Amherst (25); the lectures and exhibitions of Dr. Winship (26), the advocate of heavy lifting; the "new gymnastic" of Dio Lewis (27); the incorporation of military drill and instruction in colleges and universities organized under the terms of the Morrill Land Bill of 1862 (28); and our earliest acquaintance with the exercises of the "Swedish Movement Cure" (medical gymnastics).

In the third group we find the system introduced by Dr. Sargent at Hemenway Gymnasium of Harvard University (29); the organization of the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education tion (30); the report on physical education in American colleges and universities prepared by Dr. Hartwell for the Bureau of Education in 1885; the systematic efforts of German-American gymnastic societies and the North American Turnerbund to make their work known among native Americans; Dr. Wey's use of physical training with criminals and dullards at the Elmira (New York) Reformatory (31); the starting of training courses for physical directors in Young Men's Christian Associations, first at Springfield, Mass., and later in Chicago, and the appointment of a secretary for that phase of Association activity by the International Committee; the Boston Conference of 1889, and the introduction of Swedish school gymnastics into this country; the opening of a number of normal schools and summer courses for the training of teachers; and the rapid spread of interest in athletic sports and active games.

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INTRODUCTION:

HISTORICAL FOUNDATIONS: SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL

Earle F. Zeigler, Editor

The Colonial Period - Seventeenth Century. Conditions in the American colonies in the seventeenth century were difficult to say the least, and the finer elements of so-called civilized life were possible only for a relatively few wealthy individuals. The culture itself had been transported from Europe with its built-in class distinctions. Slavery was general practice, especially in the South, and the right to vote was generally restricted to property owners. Religion was established legally. The rules of primogeniture and entail served to strengthen the social distinctions. Cultural contrasts were marked, and it may be assumed that geography had a great deal to do with the differences that were evident. There was considerable feeling against democratic principles both from a social and political standpoint. Any consideration of educational practice must, therefore, be viewed in the light of these conditions described above.

Most of the American colonies established between 1607 and 1682 were guided in their educational outlook and activities by England's contemporary practices; the influence of the other countries was negligible at first. Thus, education was thought to be a function of the Church and not the State. Judging by today' standards the provisions made for education were extremely inadequate. In a pioneer country limited by a hazardous physical environment, the settlers were engaged in a struggle for existence. The early colonists migrated into different regions mostly by chance. These differing environments influenced largely the social orders of the North and the South; yet, there were many points of similarity in the traditions and experiences of the people as a whole. They all possessed a common desire for freedom and security—hopes that were to be realized only after a desperate struggle.

The church was the institution by which means the religious heritage, and also much of the educational heritage, was preserved and advanced. The first schools can actually be regarded as the fruits of the Protestant revolts in Europe. The settlers wanted religious freedom, and the reformers among them insisted that a knowledge of the Gospel was required for personal salvation. The natural outcome of this was

> **Note: Space does not permit, nor does reason support, any more material than is included as an introduction at this point. The review of the social and educational foundations only did seem to be necessary.**

to create schools so that the children might learn to read, and the dominant

Protestant churches brought about the establishment of the elementary schools. It is true further that localism, before the advent of the district school, meant that they would be randomly located. This was accomplished just as soon as the homes, the churches, and some form of civil government were established. The everyday needs of the citizens, of course, soon made the provision of elementary education even more essential.

Three types of attitudes toward education developed. The first was the compulsory-maintenance attitude of the New England Puritans, who established schools by colonial legislation of 1642 and 1647. The second attitude was that of the parochial school, and this was best represented in Pennsylvania where private schools were made available for those who could afford it. The pauper-school, non–State-interference–attitude was the third, and it was best exemplified by Virginia and the southern colonies. Many of these people had come to America for profit rather than religious freedom, and they tended to continue school practice as it had existed in England. In all of these schools, discipline was harsh and sometimes actually brutal. The curriculum consisted of the three R's and spelling, but the books were few, and the teachers were generally unprepared. Although the school hours were long, there was no place for play and recreation.

The pattern of secondary education had been inherited from England, too, and in most of the colonies Latin grammar schools appeared. This type of school was developed more significantly in New England. Higher education was not neglected. Nine colleges were founded mainly through the philanthropy of certain individuals and groups. In all of these institutions, except the Academy and College of Philadelphia (the interest in which was fostered by Benjamin Franklin), theology formed an important part of the curriculum.

<u>Growth and Development - Eighteenth Century</u>. With the advent of the eighteenth century the old religious interest slackened somewhat, and as the government developed a more civil character a tendency to create schools with a native vein or spirit grew. This was accompanied by a breakdown in some of the former aristocratic customs. The settled frontier expanded, new interests in trade and shipping grew, and the population increased. A trend toward individualism characterized this period. Several American industries date back to this time, and notable among these were the iron mills. Particularly disturbing were the restrictions placed by the English on the use of money by the colonists. There was sufficient prosperity, however, to bring about a change in the appearance of the established communities. Social status was very important to a number of these people, and colonials felt that they "had arrived" when they held office and land. Beginning in the third decade a revival of religious interest became evident. From 1733 on to 1763 the colonies were involved in a series of small wars with the Spanish and the French. These struggles were interspersed by periods of "cold war" maneuvering. The Seven Years' War (1755-1763) ended with the colonies as a

fairly solid political and economic unit, but the British evidently failed in their method of governance of the society, and a separatist and nationalistic feeling began to develop after 1775. Thus, from the middle of the eighteenth century onward, economic, political, and nationalistic forces were stirring, and these influences were felt increasingly in the promotion of elementary education. This change was probably due to a growing religious tolerance again, as well as a broader interest in national affairs. Both of these factors served to take the emphasis away from the earlier, strictly religious domination of elementary education.

Secondary education was still provided by the grammar schools. These schools, generally located in every large town, were supported by the local government and by private tuition. The curricula were non-utilitarian and were designed to prepare boys for college entrance. Insofar as higher education was concerned, the pattern had been established from the beginning (Harvard College - 1636) after the European university type of liberal arts education with a strong emphasis on mental discipline and theology.

It should be kept in mind that there were very few heavily populated centers, relatively speaking, even at this time. In the main, frontier life, and life in the small villages, was still very rigorous, and such conditions were simply not conducive to the so-called intellectual life with higher educational standards. Educational theorists had visions of a fine educational system, of course, but the states did not have many definite constitutional provisions regarding education, and the Federal Constitution didn't say anything about it at all. There was promise, however, in the many new social forces at work. Then came the period of unrest, and with the outbreak of the War of Independence education of the formal type came almost to a complete standstill.

The last twenty-five years of the eighteenth century saw a great many changes in the life of the United States. In the first place, the revolutionaries who started the war lived to tell about it and to help in the sound reconstruction of the nation—no small feat by any standards. Thus began the process of writing state and federal constitutions. Furthermore, it was very important to the early success of the country that commerce be revived, and this was accomplished sooner by the South because of the nature of the commodities they produced. New lines of business and trade were established with Russia, Sweden, and the Orient. The Federal Convention of 1787 managed to complete what has turned out to be the most successful document in all of history—the Constitution of the United States of America. Then Washington's Administration began, and it can be called successful both at home and abroad. The French Revolution became an issue in American politics, but Washington then declared a position of neutrality and was hard pressed to keep it.

As soon as the war was over, considerable attention was turned to education. In the remaining years of the eighteenth century, substantive development of secondary and higher education continued. In the North both Phillips Andover and Phillips Exeter Academies were established. The colleges of the Norm seemed to suffer more from the War than did those in the South, where an imposing list of both private, religiously-endowed and state institutions were founded.

<u>Nationalism, Growth, The Civil War, and Reconstruction Nineteenth Century</u>. The stage had now been set, and the United States entered a most important period in her history. Thomas Jefferson was in office from 1801 to 1809. This was followed by a second war with Great Britain–the War of 1812. In the ensuing nationalist era, a number of adjustments in relations with Britain and other nations were necessary. The Monroe Doctrine declared to the world that countries in this hemisphere should be left alone to develop as they saw fit and were not to be used by outside powers for colonization. This was a period in which the United States was finding itself, and the pattern was being set for future developments. Unfortunately the North and the South were being divided. the North being changed by virtue of the Industrial Revolution and many educational and humanitarian movements, while the South was nurturing a different type of society regulated by what has been called a slave and cotton economy.

In the realm of education, the first fifty years of the new national life was a period of transition from the control of the church to that of the State. State control and support gradually seemed more feasible, although the change was perhaps somewhat slow in coming. Political equality and religious freedom, along with changing economic conditions, finally made education for all seem a necessity. This period was characterized by the introduction of a number of semiprivate philanthropic agencies such as the Sunday School Movement, the city school societies, the Lancasterian Movement, and the infant school societies. The Lancasterian Movement was highly regarded for a period, since it made the education of all seem financially possible by the use of student monitors as instructors. But people soon understood the inefficiency of this method, and discussion was provoked which eventually led to the bearing of the necessary cost for adequate teaching and facilities by all of the citizens.

By 1825 a tremendous struggle for the creation of the American State School was underway, and in the field of public education the years from 1830 to 1860 are quite often called "The Architectural Period." Educational leaders and a number of leading citizens were calling for public schools which were tax-supported, publicly controlled, and non-sectarian. The problems of getting tax support, of eliminating the pauper-school idea, and of doing away with prorated tuitions were all difficult in themselves to solve. The elimination of sectarianism as a controlling factor and the appointment of public officials to administer school affairs were major problems. Then

came the establishment of the first public high school, and thereafter the establishment of state universities. The first compulsory school attendance law was passed in Massachusetts in 1852. The various types of schools had been gradually amalgamated into state systems, and by 1860 the American educational ladder was fairly complete. Federal support came with the Morrill Act of 1862, which granted public land to each state for the founding of a college of agriculture and mechanical arts.

With the development of the public school system, it was quite natural that attention turned to the quality and type of teacher hired for so important a task as the education of the coming generation. Educational journalism had its beginnings in America in the 1820s, and interest was shown in the recent European educational advancements. Before the establishment of the first normal schools, the status of common-school teachers was very poor. Secondary teachers in the Latin grammar schools and academies evidently fared somewhat better. Specific professional preparation of teachers was almost unknown. Today one can be quite critical of the teachers of this era, but they were probably living up to the demands of the times reasonably well.

Certification of teachers, after a fashion, began in the early century. Ministers and town authorities usually assured themselves that the candidates for teaching positions were "strong in the faith" and also had a minimum knowledge of the subject matter of the curriculum. In the Dutch schools of New Netherlands, license requirements were gradually taken out of ecclesiastical hands by the civil authorities, but the standards were still low everywhere in 1839— low, that is, according to present-day standards. It is true that there were legal requirements; nevertheless, the examinations involved were evidently poorly administered. The agencies issuing certificates were completely local and had only local validity.

The advances made in the training of American teachers in teaching techniques took place first in elementary education. This effort began around the time of and after the War of 1812. Private academies, private normal schools, state-subsidized academies or teachers seminaries, and state-controlled and state-supported normal schools were the first institutions that prepared teachers in any specific fashion.

Those leaders in this country who recommended teacher preparation during the first two decades of the nineteenth century actually knew very little about foreign normal schools until around 1825. It was at this time that travelers abroad reported back about the German normal schools, and these accounts gave impetus to the movement getting under way in this country. The German pattern was adopted but with some original modifications. The Reverend Samuel R. Hall is generally accepted as the founder of the first private normal school in the United States at Concord, Vermont in 1823. The first state normal school was established by Massachusetts legislation in

1839 for a three-year experimental period. It was begun at Lexington with Cyrus Peirce as principal. The second such school, actually authorized in 1838, was not opened until 1840 at Bridgewater in Plymouth Colony.

During the next quarter century the growth of institutions preparing teachers was not very great in comparison with later periods. The advances were small and achieved only after a struggle. Usually these normal schools were undertaken on an experimental basis. But with the rise of the public school movement, it was obvious that teacher-training would of necessity assume a larger role. Between 1840 and 1870 the country's population doubled, and, although it remained largely rural, the city populations were increasing at a great rate. Teacher education remained largely a problem of preparing elementary school teachers; this is explained when it is known that of the 6,871,522 students enrolled in public schools in 1870 that 6,791,295 of this number were in the elementary schools.

During this period State support and control of schools increased steadily, which was made possible by the fact that national wealth was increasing much more rapidly in proportion than the population. Four states established boards of education before 1850. This trend was important, because the magnitude of the overall development seemingly demanded a strong centralized department of education in each state. Practically speaking, of course, federal control of education would have brought about unification of the school systems much more readily and expediently, but this was not to be the pattern. Control of education from the beginning was to be left in the bands of the states. The development, therefore, can be characterized as haphazard, and public school officials at the state level are still subject to popular election in a number of states. Yet such development has been deemed necessary by many in a democratic, pluralistic system.

Difficult days were in store for the American people after the Civil War–a war that had wrought a tremendous change in the lives of the people. Interestingly enough, the South was able to return to its former national allegiance relatively quickly, although there does appear to be ample evidence that the South won the peace by its decision to keep their states a "white man's country." Their economic plight was extremely serious, but the people were aided greatly by being allowed to restore normal trading relations. The Reconstruction Period is generally regarded as an unfortunate part of our history. Lincoln had seemingly possessed the wisdom to meet the critical situation, but his life had been taken through assassination. Those who remained felt that strict justice should be employed to punish a seemingly ungrateful loser. AU in all, however, despite the fact that Lincoln and Johnson were followed by a twenty-four year series of Republican presidents who had all been military men of varying importance, the South had been treated reasonably well.

The period from 1870 to 1890, therefore, was marked by steady expansion and development. "Big business" became a reality; the country continued its march westward; organized labor made definite progress; and significant social and cultural developments took place. The development of urban society brought about a greater interest in social affairs than heretofore. Polite society became interested in music and literature, although it can be said that the Literature produced was not of extraordinary quality. Several fine art galleries and museums were founded, but the majority of the people had little understanding of the aesthetic in life. The architecture of the period was eclectic, and the simple beauty of Colonial homes was seemingly lost. Formal religion as expressed by its leaders was challenged strongly by evolutionary theories and pragmatism, and the church was hard pressed.

In the field of education the idea of equality of educational opportunity had made great strides, and the educational ladder was gradually extending upward. The number of high schools increased five-fold between 1870 and 1890. The state was assuming a position of prime importance in public education. State universities turned their attention to advancing the welfare of the individual states with resultant marked increases in revenue and attendance. The Southern states lagged behind the rest of the country due to the War, reconstruction, racial conflict, and a continuing fairly aristocratic theory of education. However, even in the North, President Eliot of Harvard called for educational reform in 1888, and one of his main points was the need for better training of teachers.

The status of teachers insofar as general teacher training improvement had come along slowly in this period. New Pestalozzian procedures had been introduced by Edward Sheldon in Oswego, New York in the 1860's, and this movement had gradually rather completely reshaped elementary education. Many state normal schools started at this time and were well distributed over the country as a whole. Although the facilities and courses of these institutions were poor at first, there has been a gradual improvement.

Professional courses of the time were not too effectual, mainly because scientific method had not yet been applied to educational research. In addition to the state normal schools, there was quite a rapid growth of city normal schools and classes which paralleled the enlargement of the cities. The college and university normal departments of this period were not very good, even though interest in teaching as an art had been started by New York University in 1832, by Brown in 1850, and by Michigan in 1860. After 1879 departments of pedagogy began to develop with the aim of preparing secondary teachers. The growth of in-service teacher education agencies began in this period of educational history. By 1890 such activities as reading circles, professional teachers organizations and institutes, and summer schools and extension work were contributing to the gigantic task of raising the levels of preparation of teachers in service.

Criticism of the educational system in the 1870s and 1880s had been present, but it assumed large-scale proportions in the last decade of the nineteenth century. All sorts of innovations and reforms were being recommended from a variety of quarters. This social movement in education undoubtedly had a relationship to political progressivism. In the universities themselves the formalism present in psychology, philosophy, and the social sciences was coming under severe attack. Out in the public schools other conflicts were raging, as the citizens were demanding that the promise of American life should be realized through the broadening of the school's purposes. Although the seeds of this educational revolution were sown in the nineteenth century, the story of its accomplishment belongs to the present century. That much progress has been made along these lines is self-evident; yet, the promise of the future is ever so much greater still.

<u>Changing Times, World War I, Depression, World War II, The Cold War, and The Great Society–Twentieth Century</u>. Looking back on the history of the twentieth century in the United States is frightening; so much has happened and it has all happened so quickly. The very tempo of life was increasing, and one can't help but wonder where we are going. The phenomenon of change is apparent at every turn of the road—from Teddy Roosevelt and his "Big Stick" to Taft, Wilson, and World War I. Then the twenties with booming prosperity, only to be followed by the Stock Market Crash of 1929 and the Great Depression. The rebuilding process seemed slow, but it was actually very rapid. Franklin Roosevelt and the New Deal followed, and things looked brighter again. But the war in Europe was not to be confined, and the attack on Pearl Harbor placed the United States squarely in the middle of World War H. Victory came for the Allies, but this period of peace was short–lived. The Iron Curtain, the Korean War, the Cold War, and the War in Vietnam followed in swift succession— quite a century by any standards!

In the political area, social legislation and political reform made truly significant changes in the lives of the people despite the ever-present struggle between conservative and liberal forces. Industry and business assumed gigantic proportions, as did the regulatory controls of the federal government. The greatest experiment in political democracy in the history of the world was grinding ahead slowly. The ideals behind such a plan were being challenged from all quarters, and wars and financial booms and depressions weren't the types of developments that made planning a simple matter. It seemed conceivable that democracy might be made to work at home, but what about the condition of the rest of the world ?

Laissez-faire capitalism had produced the "highest standard of low and mediocre living" for most people that the world had ever seen, but what was the "good life?" Was unmodified capitalism and vast technological expansion and advancement the answer? Some were beginning to wonder. Organized labor, through its leaders, set about to get what it felt was the

common man's fair share of the wealth. The population growth seemed to decline, but then it spurted upward again. The status of the family was disturbed as women entered the labor market in greatly increasing numbers in World War H. There were so many different "racial groups" and religious denominations and sects that understanding among peoples became extremely difficult. The concept of the WASP (White, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant) as the typical American was shattered into bits and pieces, probably never again to return.

The conservatives fought the liberals, and they both fought the Socialists and the Communists. Then they all turned against the fascism of Hitler, Mussolini, and Hirohito. Now we still have the inscrutable Oriental, an unreasonable fear of any type of Socialism and Communism, the "doves" and the "hawks" and what have you. For a while the United Nations appeared to be the hope of the world, but now people are wondering whether it can fulfill its hope of world peace and the advancement of mankind.

All of these developments mentioned above have had their influence on the subject at hand–education. Educational opportunities have been equalized, but there is still much work to be done. The Federal Government has participated increasingly in education, but where should it stop? The struggle between the state and the church in education has been reasonably well resolved, but what does the future hold? The schools are quite democratically administered, but do we truly know what the word "democracy" means? Is it an evolving concept, and will it change as our country changes? The school has traditionally reflected the social and cultural heritage; will it ever lead the way in educational reconstruction?

Nevertheless, now let us briefly return to the beginning of this remarkable twentieth century and trace the educational development somewhat more specifically. The goals of American education were that it would be free, non-sectarian, universal, publicly supported, publicly controlled, and compulsory up to a specified age.

<u>The First Decade (1900-1910).</u> What was the educational situation like in 1900? In the first place, the United States had a population of about seventy million people (62,947,714 in 1890), and thirty-two states had compulsory school attendance. Approximately 16,000,000 pupils were enrolled in elementary schools. From 1890 to 1900, secondary school attendance had increased from 202,963 to 519,251—a really remarkable increase! The higher education enrollment was 250,000, and the predominant institution was the four-year college. Seventy percent of the public school teachers were women. The average annual salary of teachers was three hundred and twenty-five dollars.

The elementary program was typically eight years in length, and was centered about what has been called the traditional subject-matter

curriculum including reading, writing, and arithmetic, as well as spelling, grammar, geography, history, and civics. There was great variation in emphasis on such subjects as drawing, music, nature study, and physical education. But times were changing, and there is evidence that the center of gravity had shifted somewhat from the subject-matter of instruction to the child to be taught. A new understanding of the nature of a child was developing through the strong influence of such authorities as William James, G. Stanley Hall, John Dewey, and Edward L. Thorndike. The scientific revolution and the growing complexity of American economic life was forcing education to be modified so that the needs of the day would be met.

At the secondary level of education, a rather thoroughgoing revision of the curriculum was taking place due to several significant factors. The very character of the population was changing, and the needs and interests of their offspring were becoming different from that of the former "college-bound" group in secondary education. There was consequently a continued multiplication of subjects and courses and a trend toward great freedom of election. This trend was coupled with the introduction of a variety of survey and problems courses. It can be said, however, that the need for a common background of experience was not neglected.

In higher education the influences mentioned above brought about similar changes as well. There were those who wished to preserve the traditional concept of a liberal education, but a broader general education was being considered seriously. The elective system seemed to be the answer to an American way of life characterized by individualism, capitalism, and industrialism. Course requirements were altered, subject-matter fields were grouped into larger bodies of knowledge, and the individual received greater attention generally.

The normal school was a well-established part of the American school system by this time. These schools admitted students of secondary rank and usually scaled their offerings to the ability of their student population. The program was designed to give the students a command of elementary subject-matter, academic secondary studies, and professional education work. The education courses included the history and science (so-called at that time) of education, as well as instruction in the area of teaching methodology. The normal school had become the main agency for the preparation of elementary school teachers and was beginning to enter the field of training teachers for secondary education as well. It was some time before they were accepted generally as being qualified for this latter work, since the length and quality of this preparation had to be increased. The transformation of the normal schools to collegiate status was necessary because of the vast growth of the number of public high schools.

Interestingly enough, teacher training in the area of professional education courses within the colleges and the universities in this early period

was in most cases no better than the normal school training. Some twenty or thirty different courses in professional education were offered. Many people would now argue that this number of courses should have remained fairly constant, and that research should have been directed at improving the scientific base and quality of these efforts. Unfortunately, by 1934 the number of professional courses in professional education had increased to nearly 600, and few would argue that this trend was justified. From another standpoint, it is interesting to note that there was fear on the part of college and university educators at this time that the normal schools were encroaching on territory far beyond their scope.

These first years of the new century certainly held great import for the field of education. In 1902 the township high school at Joliet, Illinois became the first public junior college through the encouragement of William Rainey Harper, who was the first president of the University of Chicago. In that same year, the distinguished school administrator and U. S. Commissioner of Education, William T. Harris, died, ending a notable career of service to education. In 1904, John Dewey was hired as a professor of philosophy at Columbia University.

In 1907, Dean Alexis F. Lange, of the University of California, encouraged California to enact the first junior college law, and the establishment of public junior colleges began there in 1910. Just one year prior, California had taken the lead in another direction with the inauguration of the first junior high school at Berkeley. Another significant development at this time, but in New York State, was the organization of the first class for speech defectives. In addition, at this time Abraham Flexner was carrying out his sweeping criticisms of medical education in particular and college education in general. Somewhere between 1890 and 1910 a so-called "fourth period" in American higher education began. The need had arisen for greater specialization, and the free elective system had seemingly gone too far. Now an attempt was made to bring some order into the confusing group of subjects which frequently characterized the college education of the time. Thus began the concept of a major program system.

The Second Decade (1910-1919). By 1910, with public high school enrollment at a new high of 1,000,000 students, the beginning of a movement can be traced which was to result in a rather complete reorganization of the educational ladder. This resulted in a six-year elementary school, a three-year junior high school, a three-year senior high school, and a two-year junior college (6-3-3-2), as compared to the former 8-4 plan. By 1917, for example, there were forty-six junior colleges, and one year after it was estimated that there were 557 junior high schools. Other developments included the passage of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914 stimulating agricultural extension service in education; the publication of Dewey's *Democracy in Education* in 1916, generally recognized as the most thorough presentation of the implications for education from a democratic society; and the Smith-

Hughes Act in 1917 providing secondary vocational instruction. By 1918 compulsory school attendance laws bad been passed in all states of the Union.

The Third Decade (1920-1929). The rate of change did not slacken in the 1920s after a slight depression in 1921-1922. Public high school enrollment reached 2,000,000 pupils, and the junior high school movement continued unabated. The years prior to 1920 had been an incubatory period for the Progressive Education Association, and it wasn't long before members were speaking of the "child–centered school," aided undoubtedly by Dewey's philosophy of democratic education. The new science of education produced strong interest in individual development, primarily because of the growing power of the psychology of individual differences. Testing and measuring of students and their various capacities expanded sharply. One result of this movement was the idea of classifying students according to abilities in "homogeneous groups." One heralded innovation at this time was the Dalton Plan involving a series of contracts or projects as developed in Massachusetts by Helen Parkhurst.

With the introduction of educational and intelligence testing, a need was revealed for various types of instruction for many different types of people. This represented the beginning of what was to become a vast lateral expansion of the public educational system. Various state and national curriculum committees were established; there was a movement to establish a federal department of education; adult education activities were increased; and a Carnegie Survey was conducted to assess the in-service education of teachers. The Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1920 exerted strong influence as well.

Education benefited greatly from the economic prosperity of the 1920's, and building programs were soon in evidence at almost innumerable points around the country. The development of the junior high school was rapid; some 16,000 public high schools were established by the year 1925. From 1920 on, the Junior College Movement grew rapidly, especially in the West. There were, for example, 46 teachers colleges in 1920, and the trend toward this "expanded" normal school was gaining momentum. For those who may or may not have had the benefits of a formal education, adult education activities were being sponsored increasingly, and interest grew to the point where the American Association for Adult Education was formed in 1926.

Thus, educational "developmentalism" and the increasing emphasis on social education brought about a great many changes and innovations during this decade of material prosperity. All types of "extra-curricular" activities were added to the program of the school. Within the school curriculum itself a variety of special classes were made available for the handicapped and atypical student. The trend toward equalization of educational opportunity was provided with a stimulus by restrictions

against child labor as well as by more stringent compulsory school attendance laws. Although it was pointed out that much greater federal aid was necessary for full realization of this social ideal, such backing did not come to any appreciable extent. The George-Reed Act of 1929, however, did allow secondary *vocational* education to be increased.

Dewey's influence aided greatly in bringing about what has been referred to as an "educational transformation" and a movement toward aiding children to realize greater social efficiency. Two extremely important educational developmentalists, G. Stanley Hall and Edward L. Thorndike, have made truly unique contributions as well. Hall stressed race perpetuation, the basic need for early sound emotional experience, and the well-balanced personality developed in accordance with the child's own nature. Thorndike has emphasized the uniqueness of each individual, which meant that his differences should be recognized and that opportunities for creative experiences should be provided. The breadth of the new school curriculum had actually been caught in the now-famous *Commission Report of 1918*. These aims were stated as the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education (health and safety; mastery of tools, techniques, and spirit of learning; worthy home membership; vocational and economic effectiveness; citizenship; worthy use of leisure; and ethical character).

The Fourth Decade (1930-1939). The 1930s were very difficult years for the United States. When the stock market collapsed in 1929, this event signaled the beginning of a most severe financial depression. It was inevitable that education would suffer from budgetary curtailment. Such curtailment meant that the entire educational program itself would be evaluated most carefully to determine at which points money could be saved. Educational conservatives demanded that the "essentials" stay, and that the "frills" had to be excised. The teaching profession suffered greatly as well, since (1) salaries were cut and (2) the field became overcrowded by the return of many to a field that offered security–albeit at a very low salary.

All of this resulted in a strong reaction against the aims of progressive education by both laymen and educators alike. Even some of the liberal spirits criticized it for too great stress on individualism and insufficient emphasis on a theory of social welfare. It was stated that the real basis for curriculum organization should be the experience of the learners. In addition, it was argued that the educational process should become a social process. From the depression onward, therefore, education assumed a new social emphasis.

In the area of higher education, there was a great deal happening as well. Alexander Meiklejohn started an "experimental college" at the University of Wisconsin designed to help the student focus study on a particular cultural epoch and bring integrated knowledge to bear on social needs. Along with this and other educational experiments at this level, there

was a separation generally of junior and senior colleges. To the former was assigned a general educational function, while the latter was to emphasize specialization leading to a degree. In retrospect, that "degree" was a program in which there was a limited major in a subject-matter field and several minor subjects in related disciplines. A further trend was to place greater responsibility on the individual student in acquiring his or her education. From another standpoint, however, colleges and universities faced with severe financial problems during this decade. The depression tended to curtail and, in many cases, eliminate significant private contributions to higher education. This forced an increasing amount of public monies into this level of education. An interesting sidelight to this latter development was a resurgence of interest in the social sciences, especially economics, because of a desire to comprehend the reasons underlying the economic crisis. It was during this period, also, that a gradual development of the University of Chicago's "aristocratic wing" of higher education was taking place under Hutchins.

Another "sign of the time" was a reassertion of the need for academic freedom because of a number of "red scares" on various campuses. In addition, the 1930s was a time when there were more than 4,000,000 students enrolled in public high schools. It was estimated in 1930 that there were 24,000,000 pupils in the elementary schools. The percentage of women teachers had risen to eighty percent in the public schools. During this decade, at least in some systems, teachers began to gain a voice in policy-making. In elementary education there was increased emphasis on the experience of the learners providing the fundamental basis for organization. Kilpatrick of Columbia Teachers College was a foremost exponent of the "learning by doing" dictum. A significant eight-year study at the secondary level involving thirty public and private high schools preparing students for college, with significantly altered curricula prior to guaranteed admittance, indicated that the students in the experimental curriculum made slightly higher grade point averages during their period of higher education.

The effects of the depression were in many ways unfortunate, but there were some beneficial occurrences as well. The educational and certification requirements for teachers strengthened. The problem of unemployed youth forced the Federal Government to devote considerable attention and money to the solution of their difficulties as best possible under the circumstances. This was accomplished through such agencies as the Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration, and the Works Progress Administration. The George-Dean Act in 1936 provided federal assistance to instruction at the secondary level related to occupations concerned with selling and marketing. Careful scrutiny and assessment of the purposes of education in American democracy resulted in the 1938 Educational Policies Commission statement that (1) self-realization, (2) human relationships, (3) economic efficiency, and (4) civic responsibility were the desired educational objectives.

The Fifth Decade (1940-1949). The year 1940 found the United States returning to normalcy again, although it can probably be stated that the word "normal" doesn't have a precise meaning in such a rapidly-changing world. There were approximately 650,000 children enrolled in kindergartens, but the elementary school enrollment had decreased to under 20,000,000 because of a declining birth rate and restrictive immigration laws during the 1930s. Public high school enrollment had climbed to 7,000,000, and there were approximately 1,500,000 students in higher education. The average teacher salary was $1,350, but New York's average was $2,600, and Mississippi's was $526. These figures, from the standpoint of comparison among states, do not mean too much unless the cost of living is included as well. The average expenditure per pupil for education was $80.00 annually, but this figure needs careful interpretation.

Then came World War II, and necessary war production exerted a great variety of influences on the educational structure. With the entire nation mobilized for war, so many needed changes and improvements simply could not be implemented. Federal funds were made available through the U. S. Office of Education to train defense workers in schools and colleges. Many colleges and universities were saved from financial ruin by governmental subsidization in one form or another. A great many teachers were asked to serve their country in the armed forces.

Mid-Century to the Present. It is difficult to achieve any historical perspective on the period after the cessation of hostilities in World War II. We are all part of these times, and there is a "blurring that takes place as we attempt to bring trends into focus." The population figures are again soaring. The Cold War and the "Hot Wars" have become part of the way of life. Basic science "marches on," and those engaged in the social sciences and the humanities are striving valiantly to keep apace. New terms like "urban sprawl" and "multiversity" are with us, and the old terms of juvenile delinquency and racial unrest are still here, but in increasing quantity. Living costs are going higher steadily. School boards, as well as boards of trustees in higher education, are searching for funds to provide the teachers and the facilities to get the job of education done. The standard of living is high for many, and it is miserably low for so many others. The United States is literally conducting the greatest experiment in democratic living in the history of the world, while the threat of non-militant and militant communism moves alongside with its own aims and ideals.

None can deny that it has been an interesting period in education. There was a return to the aims of social efficiency after the Global War, as well as a renewed emphasis upon the inculcation of moral values through the school. However, the Cold War proceeded to bring insecurity, and a demand has arisen to place major emphasis on the development of man's rational powers. Education for international understanding has increased,

but the seemingly ever-present nationalistic influence on education continues at home and in other lands.

At the elementary level, these social and political influences tended to bring about a return to what may be called the more traditional pattern of education with renewed emphasis on drill in fundamentals. Reappraisal is usually quite helpful, and it is probably inevitable that public confidence in the educational enterprise is disturbed at such time. However, it is unfortunate that the attacks brought to bear on "professional education" were quite so bitter. At the secondary level, they centered on what their proponents believed to be the anti-intellectualism of the high school. This minority group appeared to be telling all Americans that they knew what was best, and that the ends of democracy (in a republic!) would be served best by a return to a truly *essential* curriculum including "solid" subjects that have been time-tested. It now appears to be very fortunate that a respected educator like James Bryan Conant was available to survey the situation through the support of the Carnegie Corporation. His report gave substantial support to the American comprehensive high school that could serve as a medium where the needs and interests of all might be served. In addition, he recommended special emphasis on the needs of the academically-gifted individual.

Higher education has faced many similar problems. Enrollments went up sharply after the war and have been increasing ever since. Junior and community colleges are springing up practically overnight in many communities. State colleges have become state universities, and state universities have emerged as state "multiversities." Private colleges have grown also, but they have usually managed to keep this growth under control. Graduate education has swelled enormously as well, and federal support for research has exerted great influence on the programs involved. Great strain has been placed on the various professional schools, as they seek to maintain quality while meeting partially the increased enrollment demands. In all of this, there has been a note of urgency due to the world situation and the resultant "pursuit of excellence." Professors have been less available for teaching, and often less interested in that phase of their work. Demands on their time for service to state and nation have been great. The three goals of many universities have been teaching, research, and service, but the question is often raised as to the order of priority, if any, in the attainment of these goals.

CHAPTER 1

ORIGINS OF SELECTED CONTEMPORARY SPORTS

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Editor's Note: This chapter, and Chapter 3 by Dr. Moore following, blend unusually well. The first represents the results of a study of the origins of some ninety-five selected sports. It can be ordered from University Microfilms (either on microfilm or reproduced xerographically) in Ann Arbor.

The central purpose of this study was to determine, as far as practical, the origins of contemporary sports practiced in English-speaking countries. More specifically, the study attempted to (1) cite the earliest reference to the sport in the literature, (2) establish, if possible, the place of origin, (3) name, if possible, the person or persons connected with the origin, and (4) present, if possible, the circumstances of origin.

Some dates of origins could be definitely fixed; some could not. In the attempt to specify a date of origin for the latter, it was only possible to fix a date "ante quern." The critical point which had to be determined in these cases was the establishment of a date before which time it was reasonably certain that the sport did not exist, and after which time it was certain to have been in existence. For the most part, only when a date could be established beyond reasonable doubt was it included. With this approach as a guide, the writer may have erred, in some instances, on the side of conservatism. Quite probably, some of the sports included have an older history than that indicated. However, reasonable proof thereof is lacking. The sport of archery is a case in point. It is probable that for many years the bow and arrow played a triple role: (1) one of warfare, (2) one of livelihood, and (3) one of recreation. The problem here was to determine a point after which time archery was definitely practiced as a recreational activity, that is as a sport.

Certain limitations were imposed on the scope of the study. Sports that are practiced largely or exclusively in non-English speaking countries were eliminated except for cases in which mention of such a sport was necessary to a full understanding. For example, a statement explaining the relationship of jeu de paume and the origin of tennis is relevant. Extinct sports such as bull, bear, and badger baiting; jousting; cudgeling; and tournament were not included. Children's play activities—that is, games or sports such as hopscotch, blindman's buff, and battledore and shuttlecock were excluded. The study did not include games or pastimes which require little or no gross muscular movements such as card games, chess, and checkers. Sport-work

activities or contests such as wood chopping, plowing, axe throwing, and tree climbing were not investigated. Excluded also were miscellaneous sporting activities such as dog and horse shows. Omitted were some sports currently practiced in English-speaking countries for which there was insufficient source material available to warrant a valid statement. Finally, no attempt was made to present techniques, rules, or the development of the sports included.

Conclusions

1. **The evidence shows that there was a substantial increase in the number of sports introduced during the nineteenth century (see Figures one through five). A close relationship seems to exist between the increase of leisure time, in part induced by the Industrial Revolution, and this development. Of the ninety-five sports covered, forty-nine or 52% of the sports came into being during the nineteenth century. A combination of the figures for the nineteenth and the twentieth centuries reveals that sixty-five or 68% of the sports reported originated during this period.**

2. **England and the United States were the sites of origin for fifty-six or 59% of the sports covered (see Figure six). When considered from a worldwide sport's viewpoint, this may or may not be significant. One of the limitations imposed upon the study was to include only those sports principally practiced in English-speaking countries. If the study could have included the origins of all known sports, the percentage attributed to England and the United States might have been reduced.**

3. **Of those origins attributed to the United States, (24) seventeen or 71% occurred since the relative late date of 1890, and many of these are not particularly popular or universally practiced. Compared to older European cultures, this finding implies a rather late sports awakening. This may be due, in part, to the relative short life of the country. Again, the concomitant results of the Industrial Revolution may not have affected the sporting life of the people of this country until late in the nineteenth century. (It has been rather well established that the Industrial Revolution did not fully develop here until after the Civil War.)**

4. **In a general sense, it appears that, of the ninety-five sports covered, three emanated from children's play activities (examples, miniature auto racing and soap box racing); nineteen were invented (examples, basketball and volleyball); four came out of a search for food or livelihood (examples, hunting and fishing); twenty-six evolved from what might be termed natural activities, such as transportation and communication (examples, skiing and pedestrianism); eight were originally affiliated with religious or ceremonial activities (examples, tennis and lacrosse); two emerged from scientific exploration (examples, mountaineering and soaring); thirteen resulted from activities primarily used in warfare (examples, archery and**

target rifle shooting); six came from work activities (examples, rodeo and birling); and finally twenty-two were left unclassified because of lack of supporting evidence.

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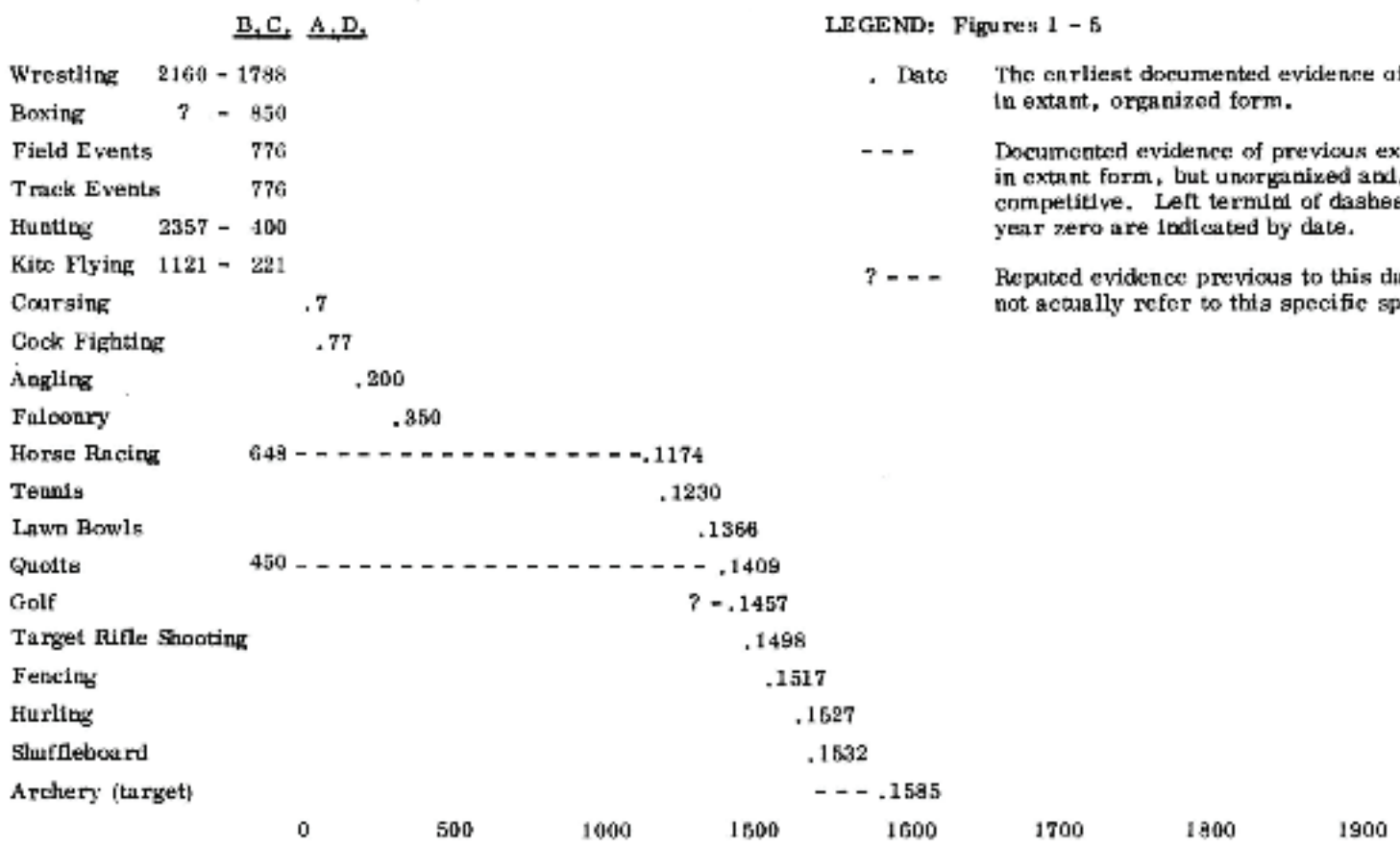
Figure 1



LEGEND: Figures 1 - 5

. Date	The earliest documented evidence of origin in extant, organized form.
- - -	Documented evidence of previous existence in extant form, but unorganized and/or non-competitive. Left termini of dashes before year zero are indicated by date.
? - - -	Reputed evidence previous to this date may not actually refer to this specific sport.

Figure 1. Chronological Distribution of the Dates of Origin.

Figure 2

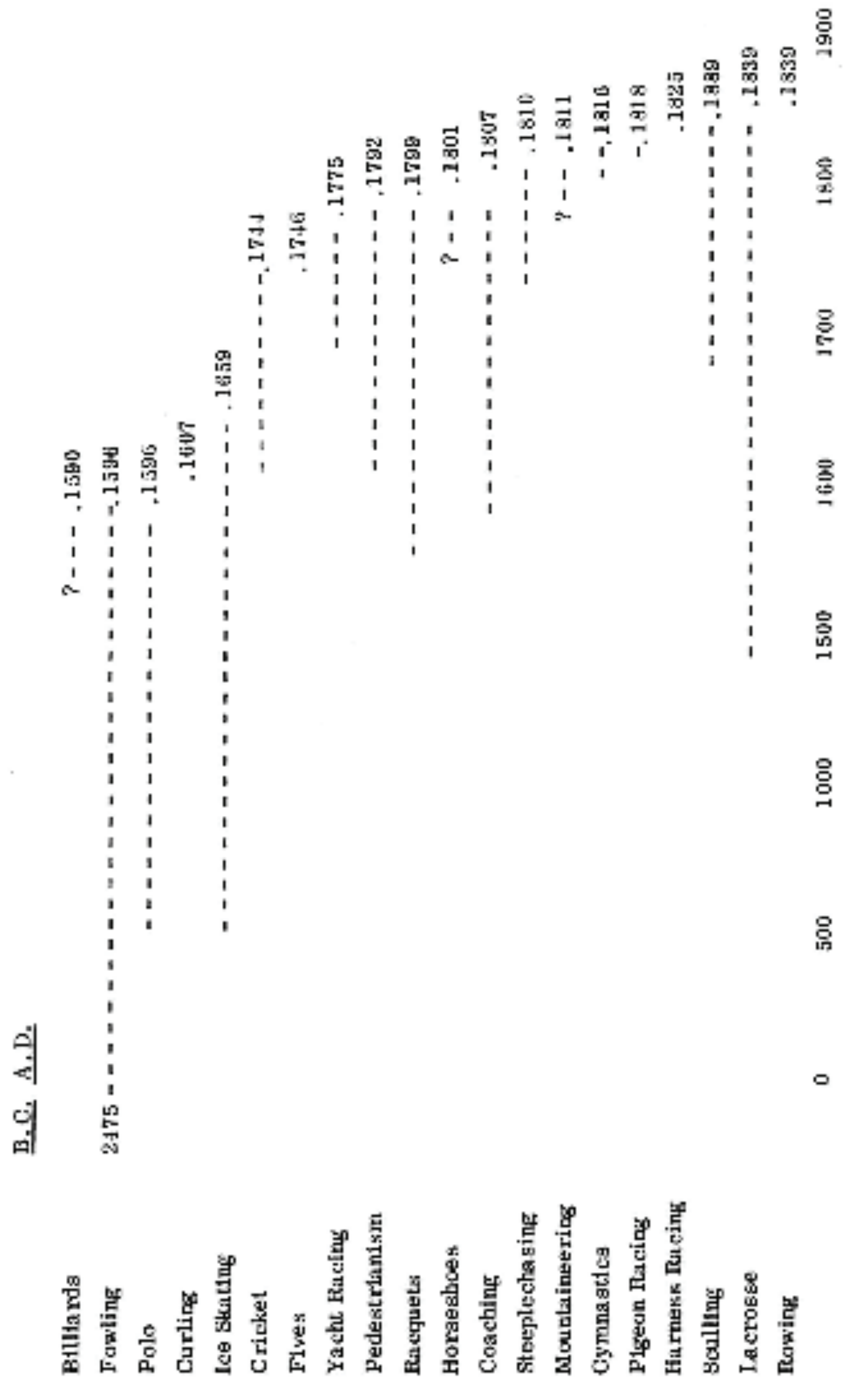


Figure 2. Chronological Distribution of the Dates of Origin.

Figure 3

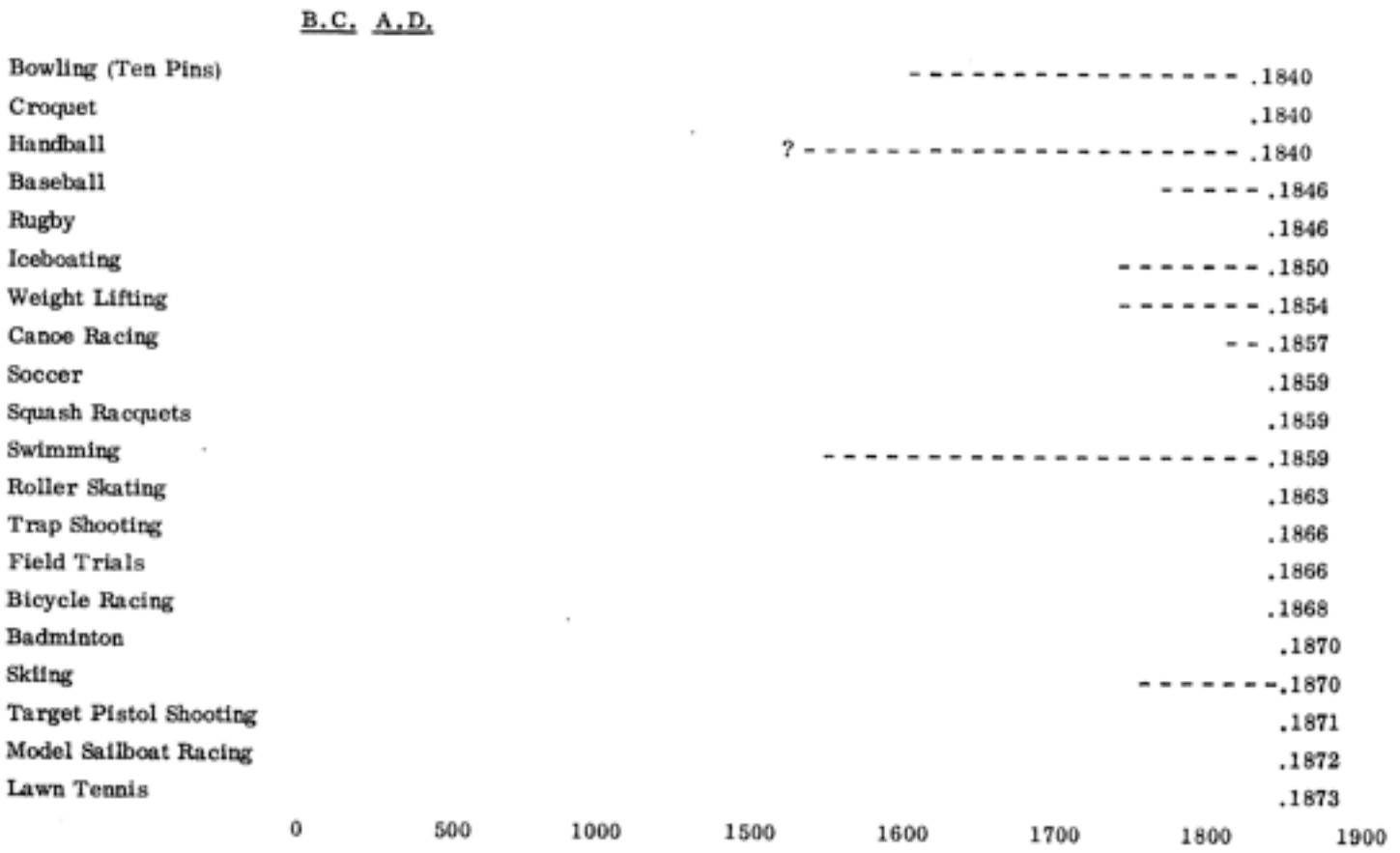


Figure 3. Chronological Distribution of the Dates of Origin.

Figure 4

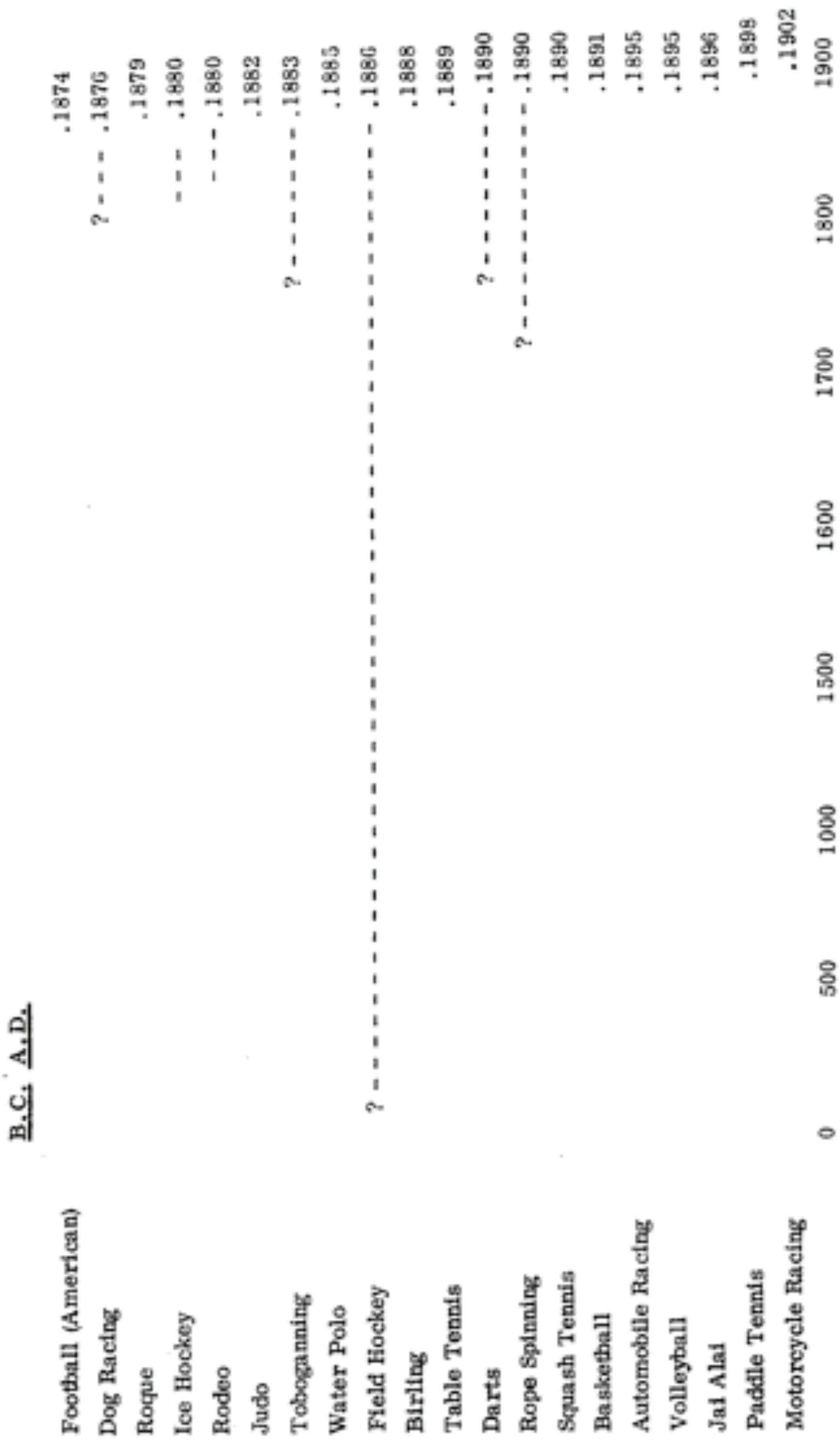


Figure 4. Chronological Distribution of the Dates of Origin.

Figure 5

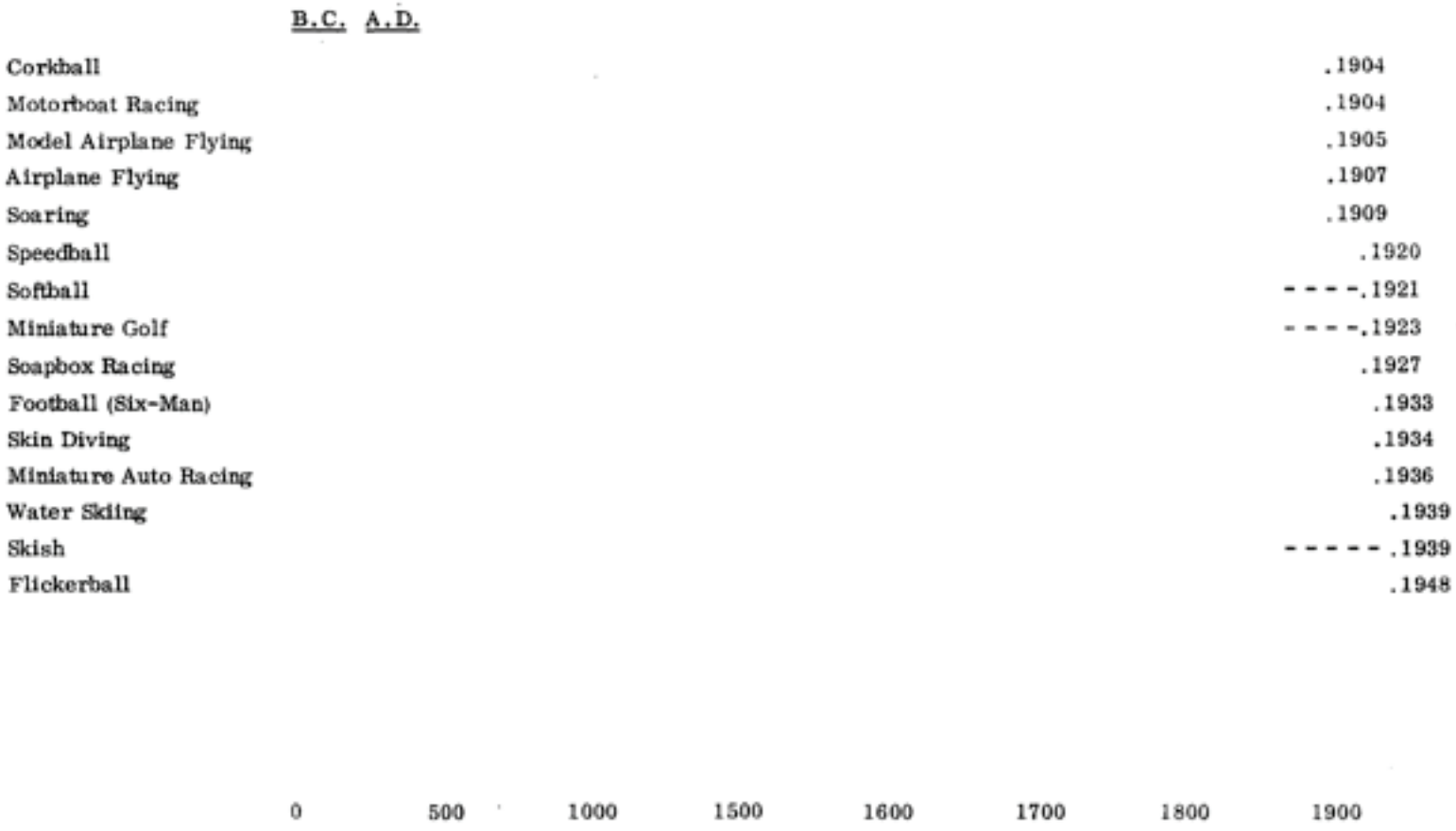


Figure 5. Chronological Distribution of the Dates of Origin.

Figure 6

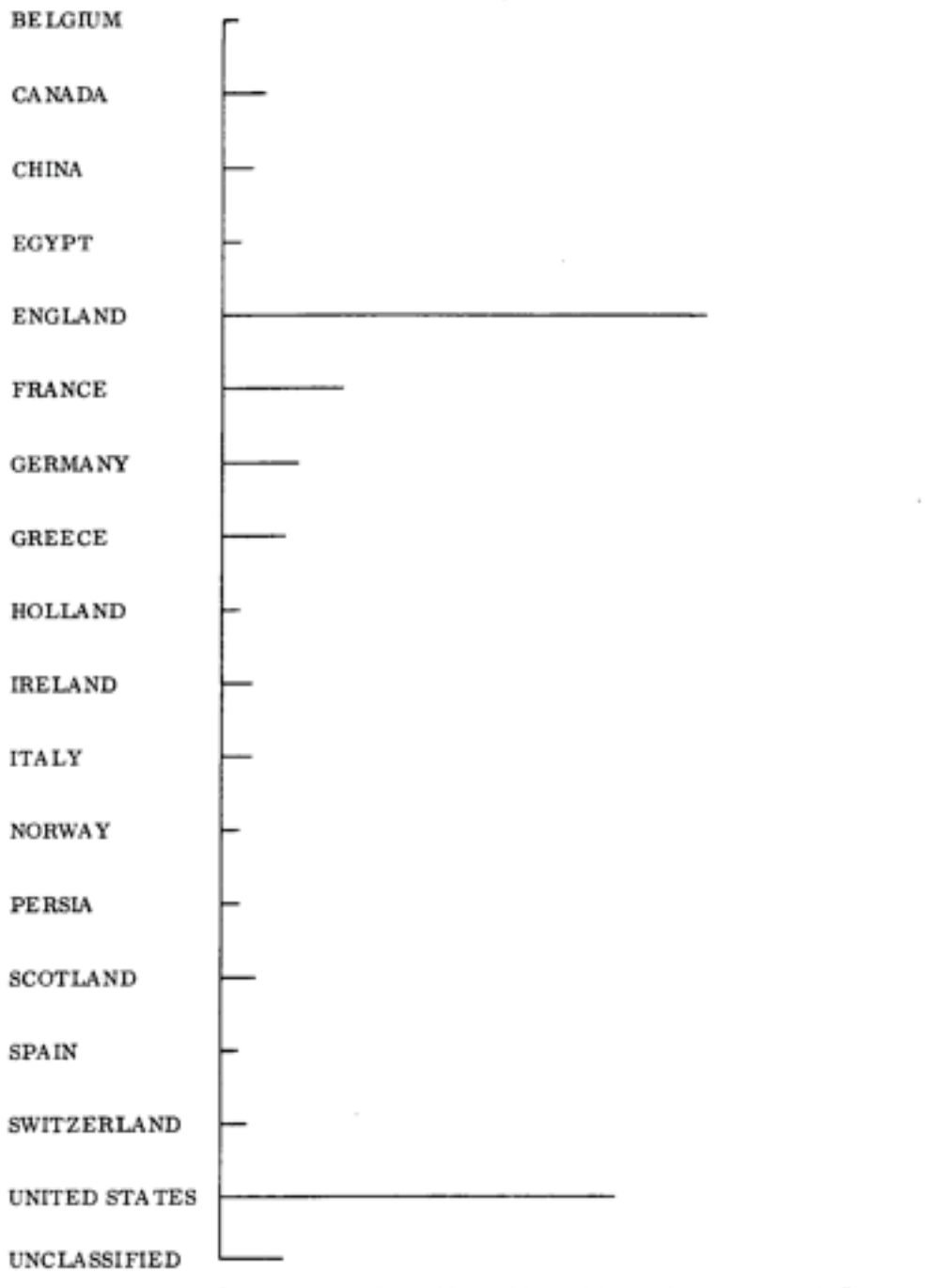


Figure 6. Percentage Distribution of Place of Origin of the 95 Sports.

Figure 7

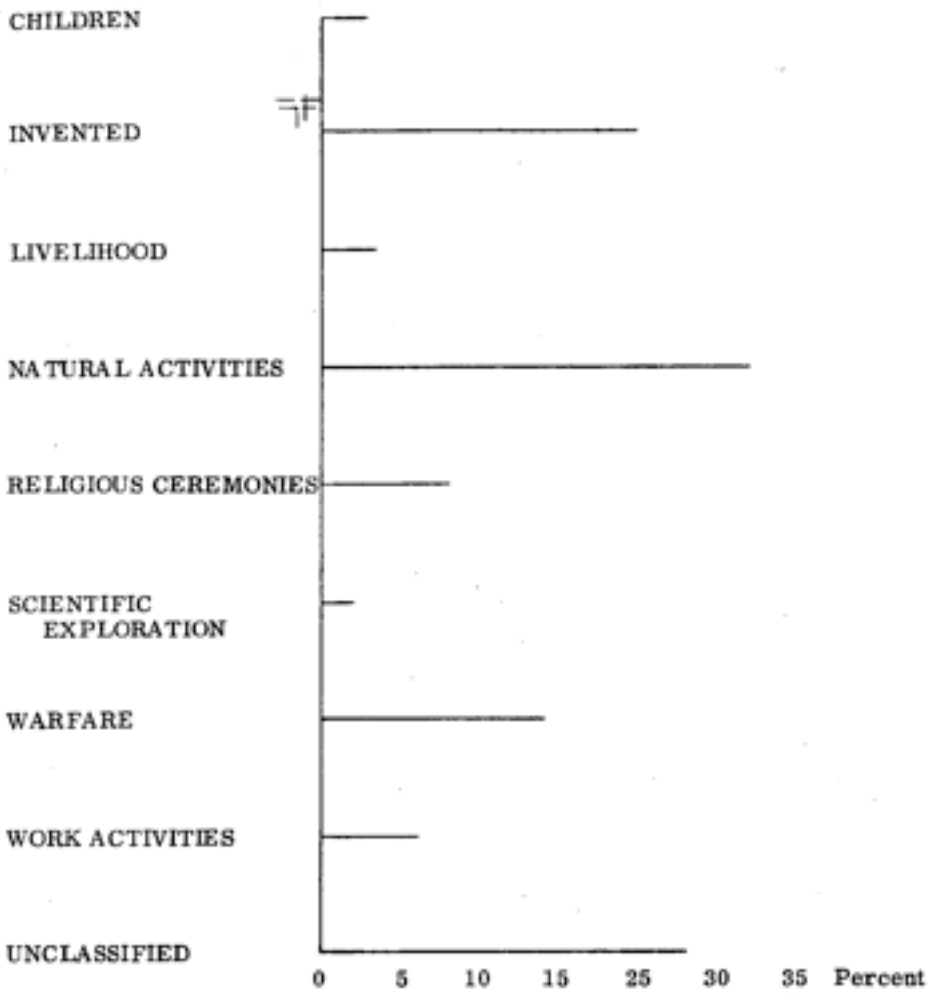


Figure 7. Percentage Distribution of Activities from Which the 95 Sports Evolved

CHAPTER 2

ORIGINS OF THIRTY-THREE SPORTS

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Introduction

The purpose of the study was to search for the origins of as many sports as possible which were not included in a study of origins (Eyler, 1956). The need for a study of this kind was evident because in many cases the origins of sports are omitted from historical writings, especially in histories of sports, and because only 95 origins of the approximately 250 currently practiced sports listed by Staley, (1955, pp. 5-12) had been included in a documented study of origins. Incidentally, it may be noted that Staley did not attempt to list all of the known sports, but concluded many of the lists with "etc." For example, Staley listed under automobile racing, "big car, hot rods, midget, special, sport, stock, etc." To this list under "etc." Staley could have added quarter midgets, modified stock cars, drag racing, etc. In addition, since Staley's list was published in 1955, a number of new sports have been introduced. For example, the automobile racing group has been increased by go-karting and formula junior. The point is that if the list were completed, the number of sports would be greatly increased.

In order to try to determine the reason why origins are so frequently omitted from literature, an investigation was undertaken which resulted in the following findings: (1) the only available documented study of origins was made by Eyler (1956) covering 95 sports; (2) the origins of the remaining sports are scattered, undocumented, or unknown; (3) there is a lack of agreement among writers on the origin of some sports; and (4) sources of information concerning origins of many sports are either unknown or not readily available.

> Editor's Note: A precis of the companion study to that of Professor Eyler was requested from Professor A. C. Moore of the University of Illinois, Urbana. It represents an interesting and direct follow-up to Dr. Eyler's slightly earlier investigation. Employing a somewhat different concept of a sport's origin, Professor Moore searched out the beginnings of thirty-three additional sports based on the date when the first set of rules appeared. In addition, he mentioned the earliest reference in the Literature to a sport as he was able to uncover such data.

As a result of this preliminary investigation, it was decided to make a study of as many origins of sports as possible, covering insofar as possible

the following specifics: (1) the earliest reference in the literature to a sport; and (2) the earliest reference in the literature to a sport indicating the date it was first performed as an organized sport with written rules, and denoting: (a) where it originated, (b) the person or persons involved in the origin, and (c) significant circumstances surrounding the origin.

The first specific is used to indicate that the sport was in existence in some form before it was organized with written rules. (Examples: (1) Quarter Horse racing has been in existence in some form since 1690; however, it was not until 1944 that the American Quarter Racing Association was organized to set up uniform standards of competitions; and (2) field archery had its beginning in 1934, but it was not until 1939 that the National Field Archery Association was formed to develop rules and regulations from competitive field-style shooting.)

Since many of the sports included in Eyler's study (1956) were established sports such as football, baseball, etc., it was decided to include in this work the origins of "splinter sports" and "combination sports." "Splinter sports" refer to sports derived from the basic components (equipment, playing area, rules, skills, etc.) of an established sport. (Examples: baseball—Little League baseball; basketball—Biddy basketball.) "Combination sports" refer to sports derived from the basic components (equipment, playing area, rules, skills, etc.) of two or more established sports. (Examples: archery and golf—archery golf; squash and handball—paddle rackets.)

The search for material and its analysis extended over a period of two years. It ended with the inclusion of 33 sports in the study. At least 50 additional sports were studied, but were not included because the evidence needed to meet the requirements of the study was insufficient.

In order to narrow the scope of the study the following were excluded: (1) children's play activities, such as marbles, parlor stunts, etc.; (2) extinct sports, such as bear baiting, gander pulling, coach driving, etc.; (3) work sports, such as horse pulling, wood chopping, axe throwing, etc.; (4) sports practiced largely by women, such as synchronized swimming, speedball, etc.; and (5) sports practiced principally in non-English-speaking countries, such as bullfighting, pato, etc. Also excluded were: (a) activities practiced exclusively for fitness, such as calisthenics, and (b) table games such as checkers, chess, card games, etc. No attempt was made to describe the techniques, rules, or development of the sports.

Sports used in the study were limited to those activities with recognizable rules or standards of performance, and which involved individual skill and physical ability. This definition varied in the degree of application with the individual activities covered. For example, the physical ability required for ballooning does not necessarily compare with the

physical requirements necessary for canoe slalom. The individual skill required for drag boating is not necessarily equal to that of rebound tumbling. This definition also covers activities which are usually considered a part of another sport. For example, ski jumping is considered an event in skiing competition. However, ski jumping qualifies as a sport according to the criteria of the definition used in this study.

A brief summary of the information found on the origin of the sports included in the study follow in alphabetical order:

Archery Golf

From all available evidence, archery golf appears to have been played for at least a century, but the earliest rules found were those used in 1935 at the first annual Ohio championship tournament held at Ohio State University. In 1937 the only known official archery golf rules were those adopted by the Ohio Archery Golf and Hunting Association. (Metcalf, 1937, pp. 554-556).

Ballooning

Credit for the first experiments in ballooning must go to *the* Montgolfier brothers, who released a hot air balloon in 1783. (Alexander, 1902, p. 13; Valentine and Tomtinson, 1903, p. 17; Bacon, 1903, p. 13). Jean Pilatre de Rosier, in 1783, was the first to ascend in a balloon thus being the world's first aeronaut. The first successful trip with passengers was made on April 13, 1803. In 1881, Dr. Angerstein founded the German club in Berlin for the promotion of ballooning as a sport. (Hildebrandt, 1908, p. 197).

Biddy Basketball

The first biddy basketball game was played June 1, 1950 at the Catholic Youth Center, Scranton, Pennsylvania. Jay Archer, Executive Director of the Youth Center, conceived the game "as a 'phase' of a gym program, primarily to enable youngsters, both boys and girls, to play and enjoy the game of basketball, to its fullest capacity, without too much strain." (Archer, 1960).

Canoe Slalom

From the available sources it was impossible to fix a date marking the exact origin of canoe slalom. According to McNair (1960), "canoe slalom goes back to 1934 v/hen the idea appeared in both Austria and Switzerland."

Dog Shows

Dog shows appear to have had their inception in England. The first recorded dog show was Mr. Pepe's Show at Newcastle in 1859, followed by a

Foxhound Show at Redcar.

The first large show was 'The First Annual Grand National Exhibition of Sporting and Other Dogs,' held in 1863 at the Ashbumham Hall, Cremorne, Chelsea, from March 23 to 28. (Ash, 1927, p. 676).

In April, 1873, the Kennel Club was formed in England in order to regulate and guide future shows. (Randall, 1956, p. 520).

Drag Boating

Drag boating "began at the Long Beach Marine Stadium, in 1956, when a group of aquatic hot rodders decided that the acid test for the theory concerning hulls, props and engines, would be a standing-start acceleration trials over the standing one-quarter mile, timed by good electronic clocks. " (Borgeson, 1960, p. 135).

Duck Pin BowHng

Falcaro and Goodman (1940, p. 39) believe that duck pins evolved as an offshoot of the game of lawn bowls about 1910. In his *New Encyclopedia of Sports* published in 1944, Menke (1944, p. 164) states, "Back in 1906 or 1907 a group of gentlemen grew weary from lifting the heavy balls for regular 10 pin bowling, and thought up the duck pin idea."

Although there are differences of opinion in the origin of duck pin bowling, the National Duck Pin Bowling Congress was organized in 1927 to standardize rules, and to serve as a governing body for duck pin bowling. In 1928 the first National Tournament was held in Baltimore, Maryland. (Falcaro and Goodman, 1940, p. 39; Menke, 1944, p. 165).

Field Archery

Field archery had its beginning at a little club at Redlands, California, in the spring of 1934, when its members built the first field archery club. These members decided to build a course similar to the courses for "annual field shoots" which the target archers of Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Oregon and other states were using for variety after a season of target shooting. (Yount, 1954, p. 1).

Go-Kart Racing

Murray (1959, p. 8) states that the name go-kart originated when Red and Custom Magazine decided to take pictures and write a story on the still-unnamed cars being driven in Pasadena's famed Rose Bowl. They elected to call the creation go-karts, a name originally given to a baby buggy

manufactured in the early 1900's.

Karting as an organized sport began in 1957 when a group of individuals, who had been interested in karts since their inception, banded together and formed the Go-Kart Club of America. The chief functions of the club are the formation of rules governing races, kart construction, safety practices, and to organize and promote races and other special events. ("The Go-Kart Club of America, 1959, p. 95; Murray, 1959, p. 88).

Hot Rod Racing

In a general sense, hot rod racing has existed in the United States since the late 1920s when second-hand Model-T Fords first became available at low cost. ("Hot Rod Racing," 1945, p. 86; "Hot Rodding Roared into Big Business," 1952, p. 46). However, it was not until the early 1930s that loosely-knit hot rod racing clubs were organized in California. It was soon evident that some governing organization was necessary to supervise and regulate the fast-growing sport; so, in 1938 several speed clubs organized the Southern California Timing Association, Inc., with Art Tilton as its secretary. (Hamilton, 1947, pp. 183-191; Laurence, 1941, p. 56).

Little League Baseball

Little League baseball was inaugurated in 1939 by Carl E. Sotoz, an employee of a lumber company, in Williamsport, Pennsylvania, as a result of a promise made to two young nephews when they were pushed aside by the bigger ball players.

Midget Airplane Racing

The idea for midget airplane racing began in 1939 when the cost of building and maintaining "unlimited class" racers became too great for most race pilots. As a result, interested pilots, designers, and builders of racers met in Los Angeles (the center of interest in the sport), and drew up specifications for the 190 cubic inch class midget racer. At this meeting were Art Chester, Ben O. Howard, Keith Rider, Tony LaVier and others.

Midget Auto Racing

From the evidence available, midget auto racing appears to have originated as a sport in 1932 in Los Angeles, California, when Dominic Distarce organized the Midget Auto Racing Association. ("Sports," 1937, p. 28; Morgan, 1946, p. 30; "Doodlebug Derby," 1937, p. 52; "Roaring Doodlebugs," 1936, p. 20).

Midget Football

"It all started in Philadelphia in 1930, when a group of Chamber of Commerce men appointed Joe Tomtin, Swarthmore College alumnus, to perk up community pride and spirit in run-down industrial areas." (LaBrum, 1952, p. 20). A few years later a national organization was set up to encourage and supervise the sport. It interested Pop Warner, the famous coach, into giving his name and support to the midget football movement. (Cloyd, 1952, p. 84).

Organized Camping

The idea for the first organized camp was conceived by Joseph Trimble Rothrock, the unacknowledged father of camping. While Dr. Rothrock was a practicing physician, he established the first boys' camp in history on North Mountain, Luzerne County, Pennsylvania, and called it "The North Mountain School of Physical Culture. " Mr. Keiser (1929, p. 4) quoting from a biographical sketch Dr. Rothrock wrote:

> **"In 1876, I had the happy idea of taking weakly boys in summer out into camp life in the woods and under competent instruction, mingling exercises and study, so that pursuit of health could be combined with acquisition of practical knowledge outside the usual academic Hnes. I founded the school on North Mountain, Luzerne County, Pennsylvania, and designated it a school of Physical Culture. There had been, I think, but a single attempt to do this work at an earner period."**

Mr. Keiser also said, "In private conversation, Dr. Rothrock often stated that his 1876 camp was the first ever established. The other attempt referred to probably did not pass the contemplation stage."

Paddle Rackets

Paddle rackets originated in 1954 at Greenwich, Connecticut. The persons involved in the origin are Joseph Sobek, the originator, assisted by Douglas P. Boyea, George Roberts, Frank S. Minnerly, Frank Sudell, A. U. Kutsay and Stephen Miser. (Boyea, 1960).

Pointing Dog Field Trials

Pointing dog trials appear to have commenced at the first recorded field trials at Cannock Chase, near Strafford, England, on

Pushball

"The game of pushball originated in America. The first pushball was made in Newton, Massachusetts, in 1894." (Pushball–the Biggest Plaything,"

1916, pp. 80-81). Although St. Nicholas reported a pushball being made in 1894, the first documented evidence of the game being played is found in Every Boy's Book of Sport and Pastime, published in 1897. "Pushball–This is a new game in some respects resembling football, which has recently been introduced at Harvard University, America, and is said to yield capital sport." (Hoffman, 1897, p. 448).

Quarter Horse Racing

Although Quarter Horse races have been held since Colonial times, and records are available for outstanding Quarter Horse racers between 1880 and 1902, Quarter Horse racing for the purpose of this study is not considered as an organized sport before organizations were formed to govern standards and rules.

In 1939 a group of horsemen met in Fort Worth, Texas to discuss the formation of the American Quarter Horse Association to preserve and promote the Quarter Horse. This Association was formed in March, 1940. (Gorman, 1949, p. 293). The American Quarter Racing Association was formed to set up uniform standards of competition in 1944. (Crowell, 1951, p. 135). In 1945, due to differences of opinion among the breeders of the American Quarter Horse Association, the National Quarter Horse Breeders' Association was formed in Hockley, Texas. (Crowell, 1951, p. 131).

Rebound Tumbling

Rebound tumbling (trampolining, as we know it today) was first established through the efforts of Larry Griswold and George Nissen (Loken, 1948, p. 3), who made the first trampoline available for general use. In the 1930s Nissen manufactured the Nissen Trampoline, and has directed promotion and publicity toward developing rebound tumbling as a sport. In 1959 he was awarded the American Academy of Physical Education's creative award. He was cited for developing "The first new sport of this Century in large muscle activity." (McCormack, 1960).

Retriever Field Trials

The first retriever trial recorded by the English Kennel Club Calendar and Stud Book was held on *the* estate of B. J. Warwick near Havant, England on October 12-13, 1900. This trial was for all-age stake for retrievers. Earlier attempts had been made to stage competition for retrievers during the early 1870's, and a private trial was held in 1899. However, these ventures did not establish the sport. (Brown, 1945, p. 80).

Roller Derby

Roller Derby, a copyrighted name, was introduced in Chicago by Leo ("Bromo") Seltzer in 1935. Although Seltzer toured in New York City; Miami, Florida; Louisville, Kentucky and Kansas City, Missouri, it was not until 1948 when players appeared on television from New York that Roller Derby gained national fame. ("Sport," 1936, p. 24; Menke, 1953, p. 730; Reynolds, 1936, p. 15).

Sand Yachting

The origin of sand yachting as a sport is not clearly established in available sources. (Dorsett, 1957, p. 119) states that:

> **Sand yachting originated sometime between 1895 and the turn of the century. . . . Primitive land yachts sped along Southport, England snores. Equally antique models were operated by Francois Dumont and eight brothers on Belgian beaches. Louis Beriot, the first aviator to fly across the EngHsh Channel, lured the Belgians to France for sand yacht races by offering a flight in his aircraft as a prize."**

Scuba Diving

The sport of scuba diving as we know it today dates back to 1943 when Gagnan and Costeau developed the first completely automatic demand-type of scuba. It was known as the Aqua-Lung. ("The Science of Skin and Scuba Diving," 1957, p. 169).

Skeet

"In 1910 a group of Massachusetts trapshooters grew tired of standing in one spot and firing at clay pigeons. They wanted something more like real hunting so they moved around the grounds and shot flying targets from different positions." ("Skeet: Shotgun GoH Holds Its First National Tournament," 1935, p. 25).

Sky Diving

Although parachuting dates back to 1776 when Sebastian Leonormand, a Frenchman, used a 14-foot parachute to jump from a high tower, Andrew Jacques Garnerin is credited with being the first parachutist in 1797 (Zim, 1942, p. 8), parachuting as a sport. According to (Zim, 1942, p. 129) and (Moshkovsky, 1939, p. 9) sky diving had its inception in 1930 when parachute clubs were organized in the Soviet Union. According to Moshkovsky, parachute jumping as a sport was introduced in the Soviet Union by women. The pioneers were Kuleshova, Grokhovskaya, Chirkova and Fyoderova.

Slalom

From available evidence, slalom racing appears to have originated in central Europe. Arnold Lunn, an Englishman, is credited with the development of slalom as we know it today. (Lunn, 1927, pp. 226-227).

Spaniel Field Trials

The Sporting Spaniel Club held the first field trial for Spaniels on the estate of William Arkwright, the president and founder of the club, in 1899, at Sutton Scarsdale, Derbyshire, England. (Phillips, 1932, p. 42; Camp, 1948, p. 799).

Star Class Yacht Racing

The Star Class yacht originated about 1835 with a boat called the "Sharpie," built for commercial purposes. However, the "Bug," which appeared in Long Island waters in 1907, designed by William Gardner, was a miniature Star boat. George A. Corry originated the idea for its design; so, he has since been called "The Father of the Stars." In 1910 it was decided by Corry and others to increase the size of the "Bug" from 17 feet to 22 feet and, at the suggestion of Stuyvesant Wainwright, the name was changed from the "Bug" to the "Star." (Menke, 1936, p. 442).

Tennessee Walking Horse Shows

Although the walking horse breed originated over one hundred years ago, it was not until after the Tennessee Walking Horse Breeders Association was formed in Lewisburg, Tennessee, in 1935, that it received much notice from the public. This association was formed by prominent owners who wanted to protect the blood mane of the horse. The United States Government officially recognized the Walking Horse as a separate and distinct breed of light horse in 1949. (Wells, 1955, p. 57; Kays, 1953, p. 226; Gorman, 1949, p. 226).

Touch Football

The exact origin of touch football appears to be unknown. (Crombach, 1958, p. 3) states that "there is evidence that a kind of touch football was played by the United States troops in the Spanish-American War and in World War I," and that a type of touch football was played in New Orleans grade schools and high schools before World War I.

Stecher (1926, p. 216) included rules for tag football in a book published in 1926; in 1930 Ortner (1930, p. 40) published a set of touch football rules that were in use at Cornell University. In 1932 Swain (1932, p. 34) published an

article on the kick in touch football in which he states, "We have had the game in this form in play for five years at Brown University in our intramural system with about twenty-five groups participating."

Water Ski Jumping

In 1928 Dick Pope, Sr. was the first to jump on water skiis from a wooden ramp at Miami Beach, Florida. (Pope, 1948, p. 52). The first time jumping was included in a meet was in 1936 at a meet held primarily for aquaplanists in Massapequa, New York, in which Jack Anderson of Greenwood Lake, New York jumped from a ramp about three and one-half feet high. (Prince, 1959, pp. 1-2; Anderson, 1950, pp. 163-164). However, the first jump made at a national water ski tournament was in 1939 at Jones Beach, New York. This was the first National Water Ski Tournament and was held under the auspices of the American Water Ski Association. (Anderson, 1950, p. 161).

Wheelchair Basketball

Level (1949, p. 626) gives credit for the conception of wheelchair basketball to the patients at Birmingham Veterans Administration Hospital, Van Nuys, California and to Bob Rynearson their Assistant Athletic Director of Special Services. Schweikert (1960, n.p.) states, "While the California Chapter of the Paralyzed Veterans of America has been popularly credited with the birth of wheelchair basketball, the New England Chapter of the same organization offered documentary evidence antedating California's claim to fame. However, both will agree that it started sometime in 1946, and it started in the Veterans Administration Hospitals."

Summary

In most cases all of the specifics were ascertained for each sport. However, in a few sports the location of the origin could not be definitely established. For example, Austria and Switzerland were both listed in available sources as the location of the origin of canoe slalom. In addition, there were a few sports for which there was no available evidence of the person or persons involved. Examples are pushball and sand yachting. In order to present a more comprehensive study of origins of sport, the ninety-five origins of sports found by Eyler (1956) were included in a chronological distribution of the dates of origin in the study. In some instances the dates of origins as found by Eyler have been changed to conform with specifics used in this study. This was necessary because the primary purpose of Eyler's study was to ascertain the date of origin or the earliest reference in the literature (when a date could not be ascertained with any degree of accuracy), while the primary purpose of the present study was to establish a date when the sport was performed as an organized sport with written rules. For example, Eyler (1956, p. 70) gives the origin of boxing as 850

B.C. He states, "Probably the earliest account of what may be termed a crude form of the sport was given in the Iliad (850 B. C.) concerning the funeral games performed in honor of Patroklos." However, the date of origin used in the chronological distribution in this study is 1743. This date is based on Eyler's (1956, p. 73) statement, "The first set of modern rules were produced by Mr. Broughton on August 10, 1743, being seven in number." The 1743 date was used because it is the first date mentioned by Eyler indicating the sport was performed at a specific time as an organized sport with written rules. Therefore, when a date given by Eyler could be changed to conform to the specifics of this study, it was done and placed in parentheses in the chronological distribution.

So that the reader might visualize origins of sports in terms of several short periods rather than one continuous period, the chronological distribution was divided into thirty-year periods of time, beginning in 1840. Prior to 1840, all origins are grouped together, since they are infrequent and date back to B. C. The periods of time are: prior to 1840; 1840-1869; 1870-1899; 1900-1929 and 1930-1959.

Conclusions

1. The evidence shows that the thirty-three sports covered in the study originated since 1862, with the greater percentage being introduced during *the* period of 1930-1959 (twenty-one sports, or 64%). The lack of origins in the study prior to 1862 appears to be due to the thorough search of available sources by Eyler (1956), resulting in the inclusion of origins during this period in his study. The probable reason for the substantial increase of origins introduced in the study during the period 1930-1959 is due to a comprehensive search of current literature, sports periodicals, magazines, etc. The number and percent of origins for the thirty-three sports by time periods are: two (6%) during the period 1840-1869, three (9%) during the period 1870-1899, seven (21%) during the period 1900-1929 and twenty-one (64%) during the period 1930-1959.

2. Of the thirty-three sports covered in the study, the United States is the site of origin for twenty-three (70%). England is the site of origin for five (12%). Two (5%) originated in France and three (9%) are unclassified. The high percentage of origins of sports attributed to the United States is probably due to a more thorough search of American literature, and the limitations imposed on the study (i.e., that of the inclusion of only those sports principally practiced in English-speaking countries.

3. Of the one hundred and twenty-eight sports included in Eyler's (1956) study and this study, the number and per cent of origins of sports stated in terms of time periods are: thirty-two (25%) originated prior to 1840; nineteen (15%) during the period 1840-1869; twenty-eight (22%) during the period 1870-1899; twenty (15%) during the period 1900-1929 and twenty-nine (23%) during

the period 19301959. The evidence shows that ninety-six (75%) of the one hundred and twenty-eight sports originated since 1840. This is apparently due to an increase in leisure time and the greater effort made toward the development and organization of sports (requirements imposed by the two studies).

4. In the distribution of place of origin of the one hundred and twenty-eight sports included in Eyler's (1956) study and this study, forty-seven (37%) had their origin in the United States, and thirty-seven (29%) originated in England. The high percentage of origins of sport attributed to the United States and England is probably due to the limitations imposed upon both studies–that of the inclusion of only those sports principally practiced in English-speaking countries.

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CHAPTER 3

A CULTURAL HISTORY OF SPORT IN ILLINOIS, 1673-1820

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Editor's Note: This third essay was obtained from Professor Phyllis J. Hill of the University of Illinois, Urbana. Here a research technique was borrowed from cultural anthropology and employed to strengthen an historical study. Dr. Hill carried out a cultural history of frontier sport in Illinois from 1673 to 1820 Readers should find this article to be highly informative and exceptionally well done.

Introduction

The problem which motivated this particular piece of research is actually a part of a larger problem: does the history of American sport contain factors of change, adaptation, and expansion which parallel those of the culture as a whole ? The basic premise of the study is that the sporting habits and customs of any people are an index of their national character. As the writer accepted this premise, it seemed reasonable to conclude that a sports index must have evolved in the same ways as other indices of national character.

In 1931, as an outcome of her doctoral dissertation at Columbia University, Jennie Holliman published a book entitled American Sports (1783-1835). The primary purpose of the work was "to show . . . American people of this period, as revealed in their sports and recreations." (Holliman, 1931, v). To accomplish a cultural approach to the history of sport, she attempted to trace the origins of American sports which were practiced during the period and to show the reactions of the people to them. Generally, she concluded that the principal American sports were rooted in England, as can be witnessed by the following quotation:

> **They (sports) were brought to America by the English. Here, the sports and recreations grew according to the environment found in the new country. Yet it is evident that sports in America during these years of history kept the color and form of European sports. (Holliman, 1931, p. 10).**

Sports and physical education historians have largely agreed with Miss Holliman that American sport is, indeed, a "gift" of our English heritage, and while they have accepted the form of sport as English, no very clear-cut

answer has been given to the question: why are Americans unable or unwilling to apply the English philosophy of sport to English sporting forms? The ethics which largely control the practices and purposes of English sport have been deeply rooted in the philosophies of amateurism and of gentlemanly conduct, of sport for sport's sake, (Mcintosh, 1958, pp. 13-24), while in America sport has been closely tied to personal achievement and success, which are largely controlled by the ethics of work and of professionalism. A historian might well ask: if the philosophies and ethics which govern the practices of English sport and of American sport are antithetical, can the forms of American and of English sport, in fact, be the same ? Miss Holliman concluded, at least in the period from 1785-1835, that they were.

The conclusions of this study brought forth several concerns, which the writer believed had historical significance. In the first place, we were asked to believe that sport, possibly a fundamental form of human expression, was not altered appreciably by its contacts with a new environment even as late as 1835. This seemed strange in light of the changes in other forms of human expression, i.e., religious, political, economic, and educational philosophies as they were observed in the institutions of the time. One might conclude that either sport is not a fundamental form of human expression which is shaped and molded by its cultural environment and, therefore, would not parallel the development of other institutions, or that it is so fundamental that it transcends all nationalistic boundaries. Dixon Wecter, noted social historian, denied *the* latter premise in 1937 when he wrote (p. 428):

> **Some day sport will find its wide-visioned philosopher. He will show us how cricket, with its white clothes and leisured boredom, and sudden crises met with cool mastery to the ripple of applause among the teacups and cucumber sandwiches, is an epitome of the British Empire. Or the bullfight with its scarlet cape and gold braid, its fierce pride and cruelty, and the "quixotism" of its perils, is the essence of Spain. Or that football with its rugged individualism, and baseball with its equality of opportunity, are valid American symbols, while Soviet Russia favors mass games. . . . Most of these things have been felt or hinted before, but their synthesis has never been made.**

In this quotation, Wecter implied that sports were an index of national character. If this is so, it seems reasonable to conclude that this index must have evolved historically in the same ways as other indices of national character. However, according to Holliman, no appreciable evolution had occurred by 1835, more than two hundred years after the founding of this country.

There are two conceivable answers to the questions raised by the Holliman study: (1) either the people studied were not representative enough and/or (2) *the* period in which she studied them was not long enough for her

to detect the subtleties of cultural change. There is some evidence to support both of these possible criticisms, in that a study of her bibliography reveals that the major portion of the data was gathered from diaries, periodicals of the time, and newspapers of the Atlantic Seaboard. It is noted here that the lives of most literate people who continued to occupy East Coast cities (certainly not a representative group I) were closely tied to England at this time. This was particularly true of the Southern leisure class, by far the largest group studied by Holliman.

While the Holliman study had great merit, the generalizations based upon the data gathered have seemingly contributed some misinformation to the history of American sport. However, before any further conclusions could be drawn, additional research was necessary.

To study sport as an index to national character is the work of a lifetime, but it does appear that the question lends itself to numerous smaller studies whose collective answers would shed a great deal of light on the problem at hand. Additionally, if sport is a cultural phenomenon, its study must be approached through cultural analyses. The following study is an example of the research that is needed.

Statement of the Problem

In an attempt to answer the question: is sport an index to national character, a study was made of the habits and customs of three discrete cultures in ascendance in Illinois during the period of 1673 to 1820. The cultures subjects to analysis were the Indian tribes of Algonquin stock commonly referred to as the Illini or Illinowek; the French who settled the southwestern area of the territory after 1969 as a result of France's imperiaHstic ventures into the New World; and the English-speaking peoples who came out to the Illinois country during or shortly after the American War for Independence.

Method of Research

Following the assumption that all cultural institutions are but elaborations of the basic goals of each culture, the political structure, the community and family life, the economic system, and the forms of education, religion, and leisure of each cultural unit were probed for their commonalities. Throughout the above process, the researcher was testing the theory of cultural configuration—that is, that the basic values and drive states of a selected culture would show up in an analysis of each institution promulgated by that cultural unit. The next step was to identify and to analyze the basic sporting patterns and ethics of that culture to determine what, if any, were the relationships between its sporting practices and its cultural institutions. This process was based upon the premise that human behavior is in variably a total and patterned response. Thus, if sport had

achieved the status of a cultural institution, its forms and ethics would be functionally related to those of the established cultural institutions. If it could be determined further that a complete cultural configuration occurred, sport would qualify as a cultural institution and, thereby, as an index to national character.

The process described is referred to by anthropologists as the cultural description approach; its purpose is to seek out configurations of cultural values. (Honigman, 1954, pp. 57-61) Although sport is not usually treated in most studies using this approach, for reasons given in the above discussion, the researcher felt justified in extending the use of cultural description to another area of human behavior. In this study all three cultures were treated by the same analysis, but no attempt was made to seek relationships among the cultural units. Each culture was analyzed as a separate entity. When the research revealed in some instances that there were common cultural features among groups, these were accepted as tentative indications of universality. The data were gathered by what may be called the historical-bibliographical method, subjected to analysis, and ordered chronologically by cultures.

As a sub-problem of the original problem, an attempt was made to identify the dominant cultural practices in both the former and the present environments of the American settlers. This was done to test Webb's frontier thesis which suggests that the critical variable in the alteration of cultural institutions is that of the environment. (Webb, 1952, p. 64) If all cultural institutions were adapted and changed according to environmental conditions and if sport were altered accordingly, much support would be gained for the original hypothesis.

For the purpose of this study, sports were defined as those activities which "required physical performance (movement), involved some degree of skill and/or set of recognizable rules," (Eyler, 1961, p. 8), and would be intended to amuse or to divert. However, soon after the analysis was begun, it became apparent that this operational definition would not discriminate clearly between certain work activities and certain sport activities. In the interest of the integrity and original intent of the earner definition, two questions were asked which the writer believed would not substantially change the premise, but would instead give it new dimensions and clarity: (1) did the analysis of each reference reveal that there were imposed limitations in the forms of rules, codes, or techniques which heightened the difficulty of the task and, thereby, increased its challenge; and/or (2) did the document contain references to the thrill and/or to the diversionary nature of the activity, which added emotional peaks to everyday life or changed a man's concept of his stature ?

Discussion of Data

Indian Cultural Practices

The first culture studied was that of the Illinois Indian tribes. The dominant institutions and beliefs were identified and probed for their commonalities. A cultural configuration was present as it was found that each institution was directly involved in pattern maintenance—in the perpetuation of culturally-assigned roles. Among these tribes, sport was found to serve a fundamental role in pattern maintenance and, therefore, qualified as a cultural institution.

The most popular activities among the male members of the tribe was lacrosse (la crosse), a ball game somewhat like contemporary American football; a ball game resembling contemporary field hockey; forms of hunting and fishing; running of foot races; and throwing games. The women played a game which greatly resembled volleyball and one requiring extraordinary dexterity (the throwing and catching of a two-inch ring with a long stick). Almost all of these activities had achieved ritualistic status. The movement patterns and the goals of each game were symbolic of their mythical origins. There was no evidence that any of the sports identified were imported into America at any time before or after the coming of the European. On the contrary, the Indian sporting practices appeared to be the direct and natural outgrowth of aboriginal institutions in America.

As to sporting ethics, Indian practices appeared to be more closely related to what are usually regarded as work ethics. It is to be noted that materialism was greatly apparent in this analysis. The profit motive could be seen in sport as well as in work. The profit in sport was also apparent in the gambling that took place. Among the tribes, gambling was associated with even the most loosely organized activities.

The analysis of the sporting activities revealed that there was a positive relationship between such personality traits as dominance, aggression, and individualism and the more popular sporting forms. As these traits lend themselves readily to testing, it was natural in the drive for power that competition was one of the distinguishing features of Indian sporting practices.

French Cultural Practices

The second culture to undergo cultural descriptive analysis was that of the French who occupied the Mississippi lowlands between the Illinois and the Kaskaskia Rivers. In the main, the cultural institutions and ideas of this group were merely imitations of those of former environments. Centuries of feudal, cleric, and monarchical despotism had trained the French to tradition, to subjection, and to dependence. The institutional structure of the

Illinois French culture counteracted any innovation, and the church and state had combined to check the development and expression of enterprise and individualism.

Of sporting practices, very little could be learned. The few existing records were concerned with accounts of team canoe races and of hunting and fishing. The lack of information led to the postulation that the French did not possess the characteristics necessary to the development of sporting patterns. They were seemingly a cooperative rather than a competitive society. Individualism, enterprise, and the need for adventure were simply not apparent from the analyses. If it could be agreed that these traits were necessary to sport, then some understanding of the failure of the French to develop sporting practices could be gained. Sport, or lack of it, was quite as much an index to the national character of the French as it was of the Tribes of Illini.

Cultural Practices of the American Settlers in Illinois before 1820

The third group studied were those English-speaking peoples who lived in the Illinois country between 1783 and 1820. These people were far from being a homogeneous group ethnically. Primarily, they were of German or Scotch-Irish descent, migrating most recently from the back countries of Maryland, Virginia and the Carolinas or from Kentucky and Tennessee. Their first generation experiences in colonial America were in varying degrees patterned after their Old World heritages. However, their colonial experiences on the western slopes of the Appalachians had begun to modify their former cultural expressions, so that by the time they crossed the Ohio into Illinois certain generalizations as to character could be made. These people shared high energy levels, a love of speed, and a need for power or self-determination. An analysis of the existing institutions revealed that change and innovation were constantly in evidence to allow for the personal desires and characteristics of the people. The power factor was the significant variable in the determination of cultural practices. This factor so necessary to survival in the wilderness became the prominent value. A configuration occurred as all cultural practices reflected the major value: the power drive.

The most popular sporting practices were forms of hunting and shooting, fighting and wrestling, and horse racing. Whatever the form, all events were competitive. There was no evidence that ball games or games of European origin were among the practices of these people, nor was there any evidence that these people accepted any sporting ethic that did not develop out of environmental influence. The sporting practices in Illinois were distinctly American.

In regard to the relationship between sport and cultural institutions, once more a configuration occurred. Sport was only another arena for

manifesting the same drives. On this basis, sport was accepted as a cultural institution and, therefore, as an index to national character.

Conclusions

In Illinois from 1673 to 1820, sport was definitely an index to national character. It not only reflected the goals and values of each of the three cultures, but was directly instrumental in the determination and maintenance of the goals and values of two of the three cultures. Moreover, in this period of study, sport qualified as a major cultural institution wherever the goal drives were positively related to self-determinism, materialism, and individualism.

The writer is well aware of the dangers inherent in universal prediction, of the risks of bringing the past too close to the present. It does seem, however, that these conclusions obligate some discussion of their implications.

The writer is forced to the position that American cultural practices, including sport, have been forged by environmental forces, rather than by Anglo-Saxon tradition unless one claims change and innovation as distinctly Anglo-Saxon traits. Following this line of thought, the English philosophy of sport, of amateurism, of gentlemanly conduct, and of sport for sport's sake is inoperable in a culture where sport is closely tied to personal achievement and success, and where work ethics and sport ethics are so close as to be virtually indistinguishable. Today, as we lament the professionalism and the conduct of American sport and seek to restore amateurism, let it be remembered that we have never recognized this as a value. Our cultural institutions stopped being English as the first settlers crossed the Appalachians. The solution to American sporting problems does not lie in English tradition. Rather, sport in America is a cultural phenomenon, and its problems must be studied and resolved in the American tradition. And, if all human behavior is, indeed, a total and patterned response, the understanding of sport can be furthered only when it is studied in reference to other human variables within the culture.

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CHAPTER 4

MIND AND BODY IN AMERICAN THOUGHT DURING THE AGE OF JACKSON

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Editor's Note: We are most grateful to the late Professor John R. Betts. Although an "outsider" to the field of physical education, he was warmly received because of his deep interest in the field. He taught history at Boston College. His well-documented paper shows us that the gradual development of physical training in the schools did indeed receive support from the "outside world."

Permission was obtained from Martin Ridge, Managing Editor of The Journal of American History, as well as from the author himself, for this modification of an article by Professor Betts which was entitled "Mind and Body in Early American Thought," and which appeared in the March, 1968 issue of this professional journal (LD7, 797-805).

English works on health and the dictums of Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Rush, and others had alerted Americans to the relationship of mind and body, but it was only in the Age of Jackson that the public began to recognize the dangers of sedentary life in a commercial, urban society. The twenties witnessed rowing races from New York to Charleston, pedestrian contests, and other athletic innovations such as German gymnastics. The writings of Gaspar Spurzheim and George Combes opened the doors to popular physiology, and the *Journal of Health* advocated "mens sana in corpore sano" as Andrew Jackson assumed the presidency in 1829.*

Physical strength of Americans in an urban society was inferior to that of their ancestors of the colonial era, and to that of frontiersmen, according to many reformers. *The New York Mirror* became concerned over health and physical degeneration, claimed "a healthy man in New York would be a curiosity," regretted the early fading of women's beauty, deplored the routine of schools, colleges, and seminaries, noted the total neglect of exercise in aU social classes, and appealed for more writing on the subject of health. Businessmen foolishly excused their inactivity as the result of lacking time, and thousands were going to unnecessarily early graves. *

Health faddists were on the march. Sylvester Graham, a temperance lecturer, concerned himself with vegetarianism, overindulgence, adequate sunlight, bathing, dress reform, sex hygiene, and exercise. *The Graham Journal of Health and Longevity* appeared in 1837 and related physical fitness

to great achievement. Plato, Aristotle, Cicero, and Caesar had appreciated the dependence of a sound mind on a healthy body, it was argued, and so had Shakespeare, Gibbon, Byron, Scott, and Davy. The *Boston Health Journal and Advocate of Physiological Reform* carried Graham's appeal. He found exercise a tonic, thought horseback riding a preventive of pulmonary consumption, and warned, "Aged people, after they have retired from the active employments of life, must keep up their regular exercise, or they will soon become feeble and infirm." (2)

Medical men rivaled health cultists in discussing physical fitness. Dr. William A. Alcott edited the *Moral Reformer and Teacher on the Human Constitution.* His Library of Health encouraged swimming and gymnastics and praised exercise as a means of avoiding consumption. (3) **The profession was especially concerned with the war on cholera, yellow fever, influenza, and other epidemics, but the wellbeing of individuals was thought to hinge in good part on exercise. Dr. John Collins Warren spoke to the American Institute of Instruction on the importance of physical education and lectured annually thereafter on the value of exercise in the development of the organic structure of the body. A study of muscular action was presented in *Human Physiology* by Dr. Robley Dunglison of the University of Virginia, while Dr. John Jeffries discussed "Physical Culture, The Result of Moral Obligations" in the *American Quarterly Observer*.**

The plight of the American woman's physical development and health was emphasized in the medical and physiological writings of such physicians as William Alcott, E. W. Duffin, J. M. Keagy, Charles Caldwell, John Bell, Caleb Ticknor, and Abel L. Peirson. Alcott cited the English girl's vigor in his *Young Woman's Guide to Excellence* as a curative for deformity of the spine and noted Pestalozzi's influence. Caldwell, a student of Benjamin Rush, had toured Europe and held the chair of medical and clinical practice at Transylvania University when he published *Lectures on Physical Education* in 1834 and *Thoughts on Physical Education* in 1836. The doctor noted the increase of insanity and dyspepsia, which he blamed on political and religious agitation and the pursuit of wealth. Observing Dr. William Beaumont's discovery of the role of gastric juices in digestion, Caldwell recommended abandonment of excessive mental exercise exertion, regulation of passion, and the practice of muscular exercise. Physical education, he contended, was vital to the destiny of the republic: "Its aim should be loftier and more in accordance with the destiny and character of its subject–to raise man to the summit of his nature. And such will be its scope in future and more enlightened ages."(4) **John Bell related exercise to femininity and grace in *Health and Beauty: An Explanation of the Laws of Growth and Exercise.* Caleb Ticknor discussed walking and riding in his *Philosophy of Life*.**

Abel Peirson, who had studied in Paris, edited the *Medical Magazine.* The prejudice against girls exercising in the open air, he declared, was

aggravated by the passing of the spinning wheel with its muscular demands and by the imposition of a social code which permitted only sledding and battledore as feminine sport. Poor girls! "There is no amusement which could be contrived, better suited to improve the shape of females, by calling into action all the muscles of the back, than the game of billiards. But this game has unfortunately come into bad repute, from being the game resorted to by profligate men of pleasure, to destroy each other's health, and pick each other's pockets." According to the learned doctor, French women surpassed other Europeans in lightness of step, symmetry of form, and retention of agiliiy and vivacity into old age. From duchess and leader of *ton* to chambermaid and peasant girl, this vitality was due to the French love of dancing.(5) **Feminist leaders also championed physical education for women. Catherine Beecher pioneered with *Suggestions Respecting Improvements in Education* (1829) and *Course of Calisthenics for Young Ladies* (1831); Mary Lyon at Mount Holyoke inaugurated a calisthenic quadrille; and Margaret Coxe features exercise in her *Young Lady's Companion* as an antidote to the ravages inflicted by a half century of increasing luxury.**

The wakening spirit caught hold of the educational movement. Professor Edward Hitchcock of Amherst cited the case of President Timothy Dwight of Yale as an example of the restorative powers of walking. He claimed that three or four hours daily were not too much to devote to moderate outdoor activity. Statistically, he found that 186 great men of ancient, medieval, and modern times had lived to the average age of seventy-eight, possibly due to physical culture as well as constitutional endowments. Andover seminarians heard Dr. Edward Reynolds of Boston deplore "the measured ministerial walk."

> **"Look at Germany," he advised, and imitate the ancients: "The same necessity which sent Plato and Aristotle to the gymnasium after severe mental labor, still exists with the hard students of our day."**

Princeton's Biblical Repertory lauded the intellectual benefits of rational gymnastics:

> **They not only minister present health, but look forward prospectively to firmness of constitution in subsequent life.**
>
> **Most of the Gymnastic games, also, are of a social kind, and awakened an intense interest in the competitors; absorbing the attention, sharpening the perception, and communicating alertness to the motions of the mind as well as the body. Thus they become invaluable auxiliaries to the more direct methods of promoting intellectual culture.** (6)

Theodore Weld's Society for Promoting Manual Labor in Literary Institutions encouraged active sports: "Their effects upon the economy are universal–are felt everywhere. A glow of pleasure, as indescribable as it is

exquisite, diffuses itself over all the organs. . . The vigor of the intellect is revived, and study once more becomes easy and successful." Publisher Mathew Carey acknowledged the importance of Weld's work.

Other testimonials to exercise were given by numerous professors, ministers, and leading citizens. Thomas Grimke of Charleston declared the habit of exercise "creates a greater capacity for mental labor, a more enduring energy, a loftier enthusiasm, a more perfect harmony in the whole system of intellectual powers." Francis Wayland, president of Brown University, recommended three hours of exercise per day: "No man can have either high intellectual action, or definite control over his mental faculties, *without regular physical exercise*. The want of it produces also a feebleness of will, which is as fatal to moral attainment as it is to intellectual progress." In his inaugural address, Mark Hopkins of Williams claimed many students spent too much time in drinking, smoking, and eating rather than in exercises such as sawing wood, walking, or gardening. "It is now agreed," he observed, "that the health of the body is to be one great object of attention, not only for its own sake, but from its connection with a sound state and vigorous action of the mind. "7 The editor of the *American Annals of Education and Instruction*, William Channing Woodbridge, duly recorded the views of the *Boston Medical and Surgical Journal* and discussed the sports of children. Samuel R. Hall recognized play as the only source of pleasure for some school children, because "brilliancy and force of thought are the natural fruits of activity." And Orestes Brownson commented on the "Necessity and Means of Physical Education" at the American Institute of Instruction.(8)

Thought on exercise in the Age of Jackson focused upon the common schools. *The New York Mirror* in 1833 warned:

> **The seeds of many diseases, which sweep hundreds and thousands of our most estimable men into premature graves, are planted at school by the injudicious ambition of teachers, who entirely overlook the body in their efforts to over cultivate the mind. Parents forget, in their zeal to clothe the brows of their children with the early laurel for the triumphs of learning, that learning itself is valueless without health. . . .**

Pedagogues became aware of the refreshment of the mind provided by exercise. Victor Cousin's widely discussed *Report on the State of Public Instruction in Prussia* revealed that all Prussian primary schools supported gymnastic exercises, for graceful carriage strengthened "the good qualities of the soul." Jacob Abbott's *The Teacher* recommended battledore and softball at recess. The Essex County Teachers' Association in Massachusetts called for a quarter-acre area for play and exercise at each schoolhouse. Alexander Dallas Bache asserted, "A system of education, to be complete, must combine moral, intellectual, and physical education." Commissioned by Nicholas Biddle and the trustees of Girard College to study European schools,

Bache noted the presence of commons or playgrounds for every school on the Rugby model. Central High School in Philadelphia and Houston Public School in New York featured the playground. Entering upon his historic "superintendency" of Massachusetts schools and aware of the new conditions of urban life, Horace Mann read the *Constitution of Man* in 1837. Thus he commenced a long friendship and correspondence with George Combe, whom he considered the greatest living man. The first issue of Mann's *Common School Journa*l appeared in 1838, asserting the involvement of mind and body and expressing dismay over the deterioration of the health of people:

> **Mental power is so dependent for its manifestations on physical power, that we deem it not extravagant to say, that if, amongst those who lead sedentary lives, physical power could be doubled, their mental powers would be doubled also. The health and constitutional vigor of a people is a blessing not to be lost–certainly not to be regained——n a day. . . . Gradually and imperceptibly a race may physically deteriorate, until their bodies shall degenerate into places, which without being wholly untenable, are still wholly unfit to keep a soul in. (10)**

During the 1830s, sports gained a foothold in the press because of the rising interest in horse racing, prize fights, and walking matches. Popular publications were the *American Turf Register*, the *Spirit of the Times*, Horatio Smith's *Festivals, Games and Amusements*, Robin Carver's *Book of Sports*, and a few manuals on archery and games, treasured by lucky youngsters.

The rise of sports coincided with the social changes of the times–for example, with the growth of an affluent middle-class in the North and a leisured aristocracy in the South. It coincided with the emergence of a spirit of reform: interest in Utopian experiments, women's rights, penal legislation, capital punishment, a peace crusade, care of the insane, temperance, public education, and the abolition of slavery. Greater attention to outdoor recreation may also have been related to unemployment and the depression of the late thirties and early forties. At any rate, labor editors concerned themselves with health and with the shorter work day. Men puzzled over the flaws in an urbanizing society. Albert Brisbane, a popularizer of Fourierism, charged American schools with hostility to both Nature and health; corporal dexterity and health, he thought, "were sources of internal riches."(11) Only a few reformers, however, seriously advocated increased attention to public health and better conditions for the working classes and the poor. Such was recommended by William Ellery Channing in 1840, by Dr. Lemuel Shattuck in his study of the overcrowding and the tenement life of Boston, and by the first report of the New York Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor (1845).

Sporting and athletic interest increased in the early forties as reports of English activities became more common." Pierce Egan's Book of Sports

and Donald Walker's British Manly Exercises capitalized on the acquaintance of many with Bell's Life in London, the Sporting Magazine, and James Gordon Bennett's Herald, which pioneered in sports news. The transcendentalist *Dial* even published Henry David Thoreau's translation of Pindar's Olympic *Odes*. Walt Whitman used the columns of the Brooklyn Daily Eagle in the mid-forties as a forum for discussing school playgrounds. In a pre-Freudian speculation on a young boy's drive for power, Emerson observed:

> **In playing with bat-balls, perhaps he is charmed with some recognition of the movement of the heavenly bodies, and a game of base or cricket is a course of experimental astronomy, and my young master tingles with a faint sense of being a tyrannical Jupiter driving spheres madly from their orbit. (13)**

In the early forties, too, Caldwell's *Thoughts on Physical Education* (1836) and Dr. J. Lee Comstock's *Outlines of Physiology* (1837) were reissued and remained popular. Shortly before his historic surgical experiment with Dr. William Morton's ether at Massachusetts General Hospital, Dr. Warren published his lecture in expanded book form and urged open-air exercise for factory workers.

Though specialization had begun to crowd discussion of personal hygiene and exercise out of professional medical journals, popular interest seemed to persist and grow.(14) The water-cure system of Vincent Priessnitz of Silesia, who came to the United States in 1831, stressed walking, skipping, jumping, and running, "but what lady dare do these things in these days of refinement?" The perils of urban comfort brought a revival of the gymnasium. Sheridan's gymnasium in New York catered to clergymen, lawyers, physicians, merchants, artists, artisans, and schoolboys. Harvard scholars in 1842 worked out under T. Belcher Kay, instructor in "the art of self-defense" to Francis Parkman, who prided himself on "a rapid development of frame and sinews. " (15) in New Haven, however, activity lagged badly. A student commented on the contrast with Cambridge in England:

> **There is one great point in which the English have the advantage over us: they understand how to take care of their health. . . every Cantab takes his two hours' exercise per diem, by walking, riding, rowing, fencing, gymnastics, etc. How many Yalensians take one hour's regular exercise? . . . The gymnasium has vanished, wicket has been voted ungenteel, scarce even a freshman dares put on a pair of skates, and there have never been ridable horses in New Haven within the memory of "the oldest inhabitant." (16)**

Taking note, men of Yale and Harvard formed sculling crews in 1843 and 1844.

Despite obstacles and even some religious objections, progress in physical culture continued. Playgrounds were adopted in Cincinnati and received the support of Henry Barnard. New York state schools recognized the need of muscular exercise, and teachers "in almost every school district" were said to have access to Andrew Combe's *Principles of Physiology*. Illustrative of professional activity were the work of the American Physiological Society by 1837 and the publication of *Human Physiology for the Use of Elementary Schools* by Dr. Charles A. Lee. Charles Dickens, though noting the American deficiency in exercise and being shocked by the emaciated prisoners of New York's Tombs, visited the Perkins Institute in Boston and found blind boys engaged in active sports, games, and gymnastics. (17) George B. Emerson lent the prestige of his name to the encouragement of walking, riding, gardening, sleighing, and general exercise in the open air and sunlight. (18) In the *Sixth Annual Report of the Board of Education,* Horace Mann expounded on the oxygenizing of the blood through "the athletic exertions of manual labor or of gymnastic sports," far superior to passive activities like sailing. Lack of space in cities led to physical degeneration, Mann thought, but he was pleased with recreational improvements in the schools during the decade up to 1845. Dr. David Thayer's gymnasium, he observed, was a boon to Boston clerks, students, lawyers, and clergymen; and he similarly praised Mrs. Hawley's gymnastic school for young misses. (19) The Michigan superintendent of education, O. C. Comstock, declared exercise was "essential to physical health, mental vigor and delightful study." (20)

Urban people, grappling with the need for schools and sound pedagogy, also faced mounting sanitation, housing, and health problems in a society marked by its high mortality rate. The labor of immigrant workers on canals and railroads and in factories and the vigorous life of farmers and frontiersmen more than met their requirements of physical activity. But there were impediments for others, such as old myths about night air and fashionable prejudices against athletic women. Early Victorian society in England, having reached a more advanced stage of industrialism, might hunt the fox, attend Ascot, encourage schoolboy games, introduce athletics and rifle shooting into the army and the military academies, and become disciples of Isaak Walton; but their contemporaries in America required an extra generation or two before the leisure provided by a maturing industrial system would become general enough to extend the health and sporting interests of the privileged classes to the populace at large. Religious hostility to amusement and recreation proved to be a continuing deterrent, and social acceptance of the machine raised doubts about the value of bodily strength and muscle. Still, the development of a nationwide system of education, the encouragement of child-centered educational programs, the immigrant's fondness for his active games, and the fear of physical degeneration made a breakthrough in attitudes toward recreation and sport by the late thirties and early forties. Rowing clubs in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Savannah, and

Detroit; throngs attending thoroughbred racing and trotting; matches between runners, pedestrians, and prize fighters; formation of numerous hunting and fishing clubs; sailing and yachting clubs in Atlantic coastal communities and on the Great Lakes; adoption of mass football, gymnastics, cricket, or crew at eastern colleges—all bore witness to the sporting fever. (21)

Mind and body were more intimately related to one another by the development of a native literature of pedagogues and physicians, by an awareness of English concern for exercise and German educational reforms, and by a mounting public recognition that the Puritan gospel of works lost some of its validity in a highly commercial, urban environment. Outdoor life took on greater appeal in the romantic call back to the solitude or to the primitive challenge of Nature; the woodland haunts of "Frank Forester" (Henry William Herbert) lured the angler and the hunter. Emulation of the frontiersman's vigor contributed to the mounting concern over the debility of college students, the fair sex, office workers, and children in the crowded tenement. Soon the voices of Edward Everett, Thoreau, Oliver Wendell Holmes, and others would aid the cause.

Events of the mid-forties were prophetic of things to come. As the nation looked to the threat of war with Mexico, the New York Yacht Club organized, and the Knickerbocker Club established the rules of baseball. In the near future German forty-eighters would establish Turner societies, Scottish Caledonians had introduced their native games, and Irish crewmen raced city regattas. Only in the generation after the Civil War would expectations be realized; but in the Age of Jackson, educators, physicians, and reformers had begun to develop a philosophical rationale concerning the relationship of physical to mental and spiritual benefits derived from exercise, games, and sports. From *the* diffusion of ideas developed by the medical profession under the influence of the Enlightenment and by educators and reformers affected by the romantic spirit, Americans were alerted to the threat against their physical and mental powers that came with the confinements of the home and school and the more sedentary habits of the city.

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CHAPTER 5

A HISTORICAL STUDY OF THE CONCERN OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT FOR THE PHYSICAL FITNESS OF NON-AGE YOUTH WITH REFERENCE TO THE SCHOOLS, 1790-1941

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Editor's Note: An essay review of A. Gwendolyn Drew's. *A Historical Study of the Concern of the Federal Government for the Physical Fitness of Non-age Youth with Reference to the Schools, 1790-1941*. It was a Ph.D. dissertation, at the University of Pittsburgh, in 1944. Professor Drew's willingness to allow the inclusion of this essay is greatly appreciated. The investigation traces the concern, or perhaps lack of concern, of the Federal Government for the physical fitness of non-age youth with reference to programs in public schools between the years of 1790 and 1941.

Introduction (1)

As the war threatened in 1939 the fitness of the youth of the United States became a subject of great importance. It had been known for some years that Germany had established a national program of vigorous physical training for all Aryan boys and girls. There was a note of warning for the world in the results of the rigid physical tests required of all German youth upon entering secondary school, and the order that every child be a member of a Hitler Youth group. Italy had adopted certain national methods in physical training and, as was revealed later, Japan had pursued a similar course.

Sports and activities of a recreational nature had been popular in the United States for some years; however, participation was far from universal. Three-fourths of the States had passed either mandatory or provisional laws in physical education, but the programs suffered, generally, from lack of facilities, personnel, and the legal provision for enforcing the laws.

Personal Views Expressed

Leaders in early American government recognized the practical attributes resulting from a program of muscular exercise. Their writings evidence both personal and political concern for the dissemination of this

point of view. Among these men, prominent and influential in national affairs, were the author of the Declaration of Independence, Thomas Jefferson; two of its signers, Benjamin Franklin and Benjamin Rush; and the author of the dictionary, Noah Webster.

The projection of a concept of physical activity in national and social affairs had advanced to a concrete educational provision suggested by Noah Webster. His recommendation appears to be one of the first of this nature to be made by a man of national importance. He pointed out that it was desirable for the growth of the young to participate in athletic exercise, and specifically advised that a fencing school was as necessary a part of a college as a professorship of mathematics.

Men of these times differed little in their view about the health purposes they tried to serve; they differed more on the means by which these purposes might be achieved. Manual labor attained the focus among certain classes; military training appeared to army leaders the most adequate program for building physical efficiency; and to others active exercise in gymnastics and sports appeared to warrant major emphasis. Literature of this period contributed subject matter in varying fields of thought. A number of writings were translations from the German; others were of English derivation, while a number were original American work. Terms used in the translations, such as physical education and softness, were identical to those in use today. Dr. Edward Mussey Hartwell referred to this early era as the "prehistoric period" of physical education.

Early Congressional Discussions

The need for the conditioning of youth was brought out as early as 1790, when President Washington directed Henry Knox, Secretary for the Department of War, to present his plan for a national system of defense. The prospectus, known as the Knox Plan, invested the legislatures of the States with the jurisdiction of seasonal camps, but seemed to retain certain governmental rights of recommendation. This was evidenced in the suggestion that no amusements should be admitted in camp but those which correspond with war—the swimming of men and horses, running, wrestling, and such other exercises as shall render the body flexible and vigorous. The anticipated outcome of the plan, so said General Knox, was to implant in youth a robustness of body which would be conducive to their personal happiness as well as t the defense of their country.

Although Congress took no action on the Knox Plan, it represents the initial consideration by the Congress of the United States for the physical conditioning of non-age youth. (Non-age is used in early Congressional records to signify non-voting age.) Furthermore, it served as the basic reference for the more advanced plan of William Henry Harrison in 1817. That it was initiated by General Knox may be of no significance, for in the

diary of William Maclay, a senator from Pennsylvania, a notation under the date of April 20, 1790, divulges that a sentence from the Secretary (Knox) meant more than all the Constitutions in the United States to many people.

That the members of Congress were alert to the necessity of the good physical condition of the troops of the United States is brought out in an act approved during the presidency of John Adams and the vice-presidency of Thomas Jefferson. This set up the provisions for specific stipulations concerning physical requirements,

The Congressional Report of the Board of Visitors to West Point in 1826 specifically pointed out the connection between preparation for war and emphasis on physical development. Military drills were held before 1826, but reference to gymnastic exercises was contained in the Report that year. The Board recommended that a gymnastics building be erected in order to provide accommodations for riding, fencing, and military drill, and that, in order to provide for careful physical education, a teacher should be employed to superintend instruction in gymnastics. Nothing came of this recommendation

Ward's disclosure referred to the ineffective execution of the provision for specific exercise days in the program of the militia.

It would appear that legislative efforts to improve youth physically were initiated in this period but not sustained. Nevertheless, a growing concern for building youth toward physical fitness for service was developing.

Proposals for the Physical Fitness of Youth

The War of 1812 provoked reverberations in Congress concerning the efficiency of the militia, and President James Madison in his annual message to Congress in 1816 directed attention to this matter. In order to take some action in carrying cut President Madison's suggestions, the House of Representatives passed a resolution that referred the question to a committee. With William Henry Harrison of Ohio as chairman, this report, made but six weeks later, was in the form of a prospectus for improving the physical condition of youth in order that they might be classified as able-bodied citizens.

Mr. Harrison, as spokesman for the committee, referred to the inefficient physical showing of the men in the War of 1812. He derided the prevalent training plan of the period as incorporating an error common to all the military systems in use in the United States –the error of too short a training period. It would appear that Mr. Harrison was referring to physical conditioning, for he terminated this critical view with a reference to *the* physical decadence of the Romans. He said that it was not until the

amusements of the theatre, the baths, and *the* public gardens had superseded the exercise of the Campus Martius that this degradation began to take place. The Committee made specific recommendations that provided for military instruction being incorporated in the curriculum of every school in the United States, and proposed that a corps of instructors from the army should teach the gymnastic and elementary part of the military education in every school in the United States. Such a program, as outlined by the committee, was expected to reach every child attending school.

In proposing the use of the schools for military instruction, the committee sought to reach youth at an early age. This was considered to be an essential phase of the program. The Knox Plan of 1790 had proposed training for youths as early as eighteen years of age, but Mr. Harrison thought that, although the Plan concerned non-age youth, it was too late in their lives.

No action was taken by Congress on the report of the Committee, nor was any action anticipated. The object was merely to get the idea of the proposals before Congress, to give members an opportunity for cogitation on the matter, and then to reintroduce the plan. In order to afford an opportunity to use this procedure, Mr. Harrison, at the close of his report, recommended the adoption of a resolution to require the Secretary of War to lay a plan before the House that would provide military instruction to all the youth of the United States. This was to be accomplished with as little distraction as possible from the ordinary course of education. What action was taken on this resolution was not recorded.

The legal right of Congress to prescribe a course of training for the militia had arisen as a question of technicality. Congress held this power only when the militia were in the service of the United States. The jurisdiction of the preliminary training belonged to the State government. In order to provide for this detail of law, Mr. Harrison, for the Committee, proposed an amendment to the Constitution of the United States in the form of a resolution. It was advanced that Congress, concurrently with the States, should have power to provide for the training of the militia, and also to provide for teaching in the primary schools. The system for the purposes of pre-military training of the non-age group appears to have died in committee with the close of Mr. Harrison's term of office on March 3, 1819.

Extensive perusal of official documents disclosed no further records of formal proposals made to Congress in this early 19th century period. However, in a speech before the House on May 31, 1984, on the subject of the bill making appropriations for the support of the Army and the military academy for the year 1842, Mr. Aaron Ward, of New York, directed his remarks to the difficulties encountered in training the militia. He referred to an Act passed in 1792, which called for the enrollment of every free, able-bodied citizen and the demand that these men be present on exercise days.

Since the states held the power for the training of the militia, there were unequal exercise periods: some states held annual rendezvous; while others assembled for review and martial exercise every second year; and still others only every third year. This was looked upon by Mr. Ward as inequality that had no justification. No action was taken to alleviate the conditions described by Mr. Ward, and it was some years later before Congress allied itself with a military training program.

Proposals for Pre-Military Training

The federal government acknowledged education as a national phase of American Life, when, in 1785, Congress enacted legislation reserving certain township sections for schools. Two years later, The Northwest Ordinance contributed to this recognition by declaring a government policy encouraging schools and the means of education. The ordinances prefaced acts through which Congress extended the policy of federal aid for education to states. From the time of these early enactments to 1862, grants to education in the form of land or moneys were of a general nature. However, during the period of the Civil War, when the war revealed a genuine need for physical conditioning, Congress invested itself with additional responsibilities.

The Morrill Act of 1862, passed at a time when the building of mechanical equipment had surpassed the progress of the agricultural phase of living, initiated the enlistment of federal funds for a specific type of education when it specified the teaching of agriculture, but included the provision that the institution concerned offer instruction in military tactics as well.

The force of the government sponsorship of military training was reflected in the physical training programs in the schools. During the Civil War there was a check on the gymnastic revival begun in the 1850s, and a growing prominence of military forms. There appeared to be general agreement that some form of bodily activity should be offered in the schools as physical conditioning. However, the strict militarists proposed military routine identical to that which was mandatory in the Army; and the physical educators proposed a training similar to that introduced by William Henry Harrison in 1817, which consisted of a program of games, exercises, and sports. The issue, national in scope, provoked discussion for some years. Allusions to the matter were made in newspapers and the governmental phase was opposed in the literature of the physical educators, who appeared to feel that Uncle Sam was an ardent supporter of military drill, but that the United States Government did not give the same encouragement to physical training. The federal government, however, did play an important role in fostering physical training by precept, if not through legislation. The United States Commissioner of Education, William T. Harris, presided over the Conference in the Interest of Physical Training held in Boston in 1889. The

meeting was viewed as a great success in view of the prominent national educators who were in attendance, and the impetus the meeting gave to physical education in the schools of the United States.

The first formal attempt to enact national legislation affecting the physical education program in the public schools was introduced December 19, 1894. The proposal sought to permit the officers of the Army and Navy to be detailed as instructors to the public schools, and was an endeavor to extend the Act of 1866 which authorized officers of the Army to be detailed to colleges and universities. The Secretary of War and the Major-General commanding the Army believed that no better employment could be given to officers of the regular Army in time of peace than in a dissemination of elementary military education. In the subsequent revamping of the bill, there was considerable discussion on the number of schools which could qualify; one representative said fifty, while another thought there might be thousands. No one seemed to have the data, and no decisions were reached. It was clear that some persons thought there were more valuable things to learn in school than military tactics.

A new approach to the subject of military instruction in schools was initiated in 1896. Certain statistics on the number of rejections by the Army were used by the sponsor of a Senate bill as evidence of the need for new methods in the physical conditioning of youth. In the opinion of the sponsor, the emphasis should be on bodily conditioning through physical activities not of the formal military type. In order to meet the physiological requirements of growing youth, physical training should (1) furnish a resistance to be overcome, (2) should include activities performed with vigor and rapidity to use as many muscles as possible, (3) should insure increased activity of the heart and lungs to improve the circulation and respiration;, and (4) should coordinate the action of the muscles and in so doing effect the training of the central nervous system.

In the period 1894-1897 nine bills and one House Resolution were introduced to enlist the support of the federal government in the physical conditioning of youth. Seven of the bills sought to amend certain Statutes so as to include public schools in the provisions two bills attempted to establish a bureau of military education in the War Department; a House Resolution attempted to furnish equipment to public schools from the government ordnance supplies; and one bill permitting retired Navy and Marine Corps officers to teach in schools and colleges became an act.

Provisions for Pre-Military Training and Physical Training

Congressional considerations, which aimed to make it possible to detail officers of *the* Army and Navy to the public schools as instructors in military training, met with some direct opposition. The National Women's Christian Temperance Union, through its Department of Physical Education,

declared that legislators were attempting to make the public schools a training-ground for war purposes. This society directed efforts against specific bills and, in an attempt to bring physical education to the attention of legislators and to the people, printed and distributed for general circulation over two million pages of pertinent literature written by specialists in the field of physical training. In addition, through their official publication, *Mind and Body*, the Turnverein sought to disseminate information supporting bodily conditioning through physical training as against that prescribed by the Army.

Simultaneously with the discussion of military training in the schools by Congress, the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education at its first convention in 1899 initiated a program designed to achieve a fuller recognition of physical training in the elementary, secondary, and higher educational institutions. The committee responsible for the work consisted of fifteen nationally known educators including Honorable William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education; President G. Stanley Hall of Clark University; Dr. Edward Mussey Hartwell of the United States Bureau of Education; and the President of the Association, Dr. Dudley A. Sargent. The work of the committee was a stepping stone toward a national acceptance of physical education.

The attendance of educational leaders from the United States at The Congrès International de l'Education Physique, held in Paris in 1900, was effective in establishing the trend of thinking toward a scientific outlook in the matter of physical education. The conference, attended by representatives from all parts of the world, directed national attention to the physical fitness of youth. The object of the conference was to define the concept of physical education by associating it with the scientific conditions of human perfection and, as such, stimulate interest in this phase of education on a national scale.

The founding of the Playground Association of America in 1906 allied this recreational organization with physical activity on a national basis. This society held the initial meeting of its Board of Directors in the White House upon invitation of President Theodore Roosevelt. It was early identified with promotional work to encourage physical education in every school in the United States, and later played an important role in sponsoring the administrative phase of the Fess-Capper Physical Education Bills, as well as supplying funds to encourage the passage of the bills.

The need for legislation concerning physical education in all states was advanced at the National Teachers Convention in Minneapolis in 1902. It was contended that there was more money available for the education of school children in the United States than in any of the European countries, so that money should not be the determining agent; that enormous sums of money could be saved to the country every year if the hygienic and prophylactic

values only were considered; that the educational and ethical values for building a self-controlling man and woman could not be estimated; and that everyone should keep working and agitating until physical education was established in every school.

Eighteen bills and resolutions, directed toward the improvement of the fitness of youth, were revealed in *the* official records for the period from 1898 through 1917. President Theodore Roosevelt lent his support to the movement through sending direct statements to Congress favoring the promotion of the teaching of military training in the schools of the United States. Secretary of War, Elihu Root, favored such a policy in 1902, as did Secretary of War, Luke E. Wright, in 1908.

Using the schools for the purpose of pre-military training was looked upon favorably by Congress, also. This is attested to by the fact that bills directed to this end were passed in this period. House of Representatives Bill 4742, proposed originally in 1899, passed with amendments in 1901; Senate Bill 5918, introduced in 1902, was virtually the same as the previous House Bill; Senate Bill 1399, in substance the same as the previous bills, holding an added provision for equipment, passed in 1904; and in 1909 Congress provided for ammunition to be used for instruction in target practice. The 1909 Act was still contained in the statutes as listed in the United States Code for 1940.

The initial proposal to provide for the physical fitness of youth through a program of physical training was contained in a Senate Bill in 1902. The bill proposed an executive department of physical culture. 1910 bills, introduced in both the Senate and the House, sought to improve the physical efficiency of youth by originating a division for the purpose in the United States Bureau of Education. A 1917 fourteen-page bill sought to promote physical culture through a plan of cooperation with the states. Funds for the payment of teachers' salaries were requested, and a plan for the training of teachers of physical culture on a state-matching, dollar-for-dollar arrangement was advocated. The bill carried provisions for awards and prizes. No consideration was given to any bill during this period that was specifically set up to aid in the physical fitness of youth through a program of physical training.

Fifteen of the eighteen bills introduced into Congress between 1898 and 1917 were aimed toward the improvement of the physical fitness of youth through a program of military training, however. The bills that failed of passage, with one exception, contained the approximate provisions of those that passed. They were lost in committee or tabled; none was actually voted down.

Proposals for Physical Education

That the youth of the United States were not physically fit when their services were demanded in the First World War was brought out in widely publicized draft statistics. The United States was a nation unprepared to meet the physical responsibilities placed upon her. The prevailing State laws had no way of bringing enforcement, and many programs of physical education placed no particular emphasis on conditioning. In response to public interest, the United States Commissioner of Education organized a working committee to sponsor a federal bill directed to improve the situation. The Playground and Recreation Association of America, through its National Physical Education Service, acted as the central agent for the work. Using the names of the sponsors, the Fess-Capper Physical Education House Bill and the companion Senate Bill were introduced in February 1920. These bills were afforded committee hearings and were the only bills entered on behalf of physical education to receive even this amount of consideration. However, neither bill ever came to a vote. The bills were simply revised and re-introduced as the Revised Fess-Capper Physical Education Bills, but were lost in committee with the close of the respective Congress.

During the time the Fess-Capper bills were in committee, a series of Department of Education bills, carrying in their provisions a section on behalf of physical education to the amount of $20,000,000, was under consideration. A number of revisions were made to these proposals, but the section providing for physical education remained unchanged throughout. These bills were re-introduced several times, but passage was never realized.

During the Great Depression of the 1930s, certain acts provided facilities for physical education. The Works Progress Administration, established by Executive order in 1935, rendered a service to the program of physical education through many channels. By 1939 this agency had figured in the construction and repair of facilities to the following extent: playgrounds, $33,952,863; athletic fields, $30,119,348; bathing beaches and outdoor swimming areas, $6,236,317; and social and recreational buildings including indoor pools, $47,697.146. The assistance given through direct projects of the W. P. A. involved personnel in 15,288 communities in the United States.

The National Youth Administration, established by Executive order in June of 1935, supplied emergency scholarship aid to high school and college students. Departments of physical education realized thousands of hours of work in the keeping of records, cleaning, repairing and dispensing equipment, lining and general upkeep of indoor and outdoor facilities, and clerical work in offices and miscellaneous jobs.

In 1940 the Schwert Physical Education BH1, backed by the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, made its appearance. Federal funds of $200,000,000 were requested for the purpose of national preparedness through physical education. Considerable promotional work was expended on behalf of the bill, but it never emerged from committee. The same fate was afforded the Revised Schwert Physical Education Bill of 1941. The non-passage of the Schwert bills was a severe blow to many professional persons. The Revised Bill seemed to have a chance of success, but hope was gone with *the* sudden death of the sponsor.

In the period from 1918-1941 twenty-six bills with physical education or military training provisions were introduced. Six were directed toward military training; five were entered on behalf of general education but included physical education provisions; and fifteen were designed specifically to aid physical education.

Summary

From the time of the first Congress, the United States government has shown concern for the physical fitness of youth and has recorded the ideas of the legislators. Thoughts on physical education appear not only in formal bills (although bills are interesting reading), but also in comments and speeches from the floor. The latter provide exciting reading in Americana.

There is written evidence of the conflict of military versus nonmilitary training methods for conditioning, and a clear picture of where Congress stood on money matters. Congress acted on military training bUls which involved no additional expense to the government, and did not act on physical education bills which contained clauses for federal funds. However, there was no positive expression on the part of Congress, to 1941, which directly reflected unwillingness to provide for physical fitness through a program of physical training in the schools. This much can be said, since no bill directly identified with physical education reached a status commanding Congressional ballot.

CHAPTER 6

THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF LABOR LEADERS TO PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Note: This interesting paper about the contributions of labor leaders to physical education over the years was first presented at the AAHPER Convention in Cincinnati in 1962. Dr. Weston very kindly consented to our use of the essay in this particular volume.

To a surprising degree, the growth of organized labor in the United States, and the shaping and molding of American physical education, have traveled parallel routes in the historical expansion of their roles on the American scene.

From the vantage point of 1962, it is clear that the American people have come to accept trade unions as an essential part of the democratic way of life. However, the powerful labor organizations create serious problems that affect the whole economy. However, the labor leaders have never been able to become an island unto themselves since they, too, are affected by all the pressures that interact in an expanding national economy.

To gain insight into the attitudes, views, and contributions of labor leaders and their organizations to physical education, it is necessary to examine closely the following points. How is physical education interpreted by labor leaders; in other words, what is their conception of physical education as to the aims and contributions of physical education? Have labor leaders supported physical education as an essential part of the school and college curriculum ? Have their views and activities concerning physical education changed with the evolution of American society? Has labor been a powerful cultural force that has had a marked effect on the development of American physical education?

To interpret correctly the actions of the labor leaders, one must examine the developments among the labor groups as they evolved from Colonial America to the present. In Colonial America the settlers had to devote nearly all their time and energy to securing food, clothing, and shelter and protection against a hostile environment. Organized health and physical education programs were not a part of their daily routine. It was not until the close of the eighteenth century that the shopkeepers began to form local trade societies that gradually evolved into the organized labor movement. This movement had an important influence upon physical education and

recreation in the nineteenth century with the transformation of an agricultural economy into an industrial age that brought increased leisure to the laboring masses. However, the laws of Colonial America were against play, pastimes, and leisure. Without stringent laws, the ruling fathers feared that the workers would frequent taverns and engage in sports and games. Participation in sports and pastimes was generally considered sinful and a dishonor to God, since leisure symbolized the triumph of evil over truly spiritual values. To condemn sports and pastimes was a vote for the moral and upright way of life.

The strength of labor became apparent in the 1830s, when the National Trades' Union secured a ten-hour day for the workers in many trades. "Our object in the formation of the National Trades' Union," declared its organ, *The Union*, on April 21, 1836, " . . . was to raise in the estimation of themselves and others, those who are the producers of the necessities and luxuries of life." John Ferral, the aggressive handloom weaver of Philadelphia, stated that this union promoted the activities of the German Turnverein with its physical activity that is essential for every family. This union was a powerful force behind German gymnastic programs in the Pennsylvania schools in the nineteenth century. Ferral, in backing the ten-hour day for the union, stressed the need for physical education instructional programs in the schools that would provide activity skills for family participation. Ferral's position on physical education was supported by Ely Moore, who was the first president of the National Trades' Union. Moore, originally a student of medicine, abandoned the medical field due to ill health and became a printer. He entered actively into the labor movement; he visited annually many schools in New York City, and is credited with stressing the need to participate in outdoor sports and games.

Thomas Wentworth Higginson asked in the *Atlantic Monthly* in 1858, "Who in our society really takes exercise ?" Soon a renewed campaign was started to eliminate prejudice against sports and games as an idle diversion and encourage more active participation in outdoor sports and pastimes. Labor leaders quickly came to the support of outdoor exercise to conserve National health, and more barriers to lei sure-time physical activity began to fall. Labor leaders were instrumental in promoting outdoor recreation as an important feature of American life.

During the 1890s Samuel Gompers visited Dr. Dudley Allen Sargent on several occasions at the Hemenway Gymnasium at Harvard University to discuss "problems in health and the physical stamina of the people." Information from the files of the A. F. of L. shows that Samuel Gompers was strongly influenced by Sargent to place greater stress on the need for better health conditions among the masses. On at least three occasions, Gompers was invited by Sargent to speak at the Hemenway Gymnasium on the "nature of personal health." In addition Sargent discussed with Gompers the question of manufacturing gymnasium equipment for physical education. In

Sargent's personal letters, a note from Gompers in 1896 shows that Gompers recommended that Sargent take out patent rights on his intricate physical education equipment. But Sargent never did, and consequently any manufacturer who wished took over the manufacture of the equipment Sargent had designed for physical education.

During the early years of the twentieth century, industrial recreation gained stature through strong support from many labor leaders and their unions. Samuel Gompers stated in the Trade Union Advocate that a carefully planned industrial recreation program for the workers and their families will secure goodwill in the community at large, teamwork on the playing fields, encourages teamwork in the organization, and improves the physical and mental well being of the workers. Further, it is a good medium for establishing a better esprit de corps among the various branches of industrial work. In 1919, a study was made in the many plants of the Carnegie Steel Corporation to see how industrial recreational programs benefited the workers. The conclusions drawn were to the effect that such programs improved physical alertness, created a better spirit, and brought about more friendly relationships. And the place to learn these recreational activities, according to leading labor leaders, was the school physical education program.

As the shadow of the First World War fell over the United States, Gompers, still President of the A. F. of L., was appointed to the Advisory Commission of the National Council of Defense. As the principle spokesman for Labor, Gompers supported programs of physical education in schools and colleges as essential to physical fitness for the youth of America. The *Philadelphia Public Ledger* stated in an editorial in 1918 that Gompers' fight for health and physical stamina among the union members was applied to the war effort to promote youth fitness.

Many labor leaders and labor organizations were shocked by the thirty-three per cent rejection rate of men drafted for military service as unfit to serve. Out of the accusations came an aroused public opinion which supported physical education, recreation, health and hygiene. Swimming pools, gymnasiums, and athletic fields for intramural sports programs were built throughout the country. State legislation in physical education was given strong support by the A. F. of L., and also by the United Mine Workers through the effort of John L. Lewis.

In scores of ways, workers were taking over the customs, mores, recreational events, and aspirations of the wealthy classes. Social democracy appeared to have attained a new validity as the American way of life. The A. F. of L. as labor's national spokesman supported a short week, greater leisure and recreation for the masses, and sports and games programs through industrial recreation programs and in the community. Local unions in nearly all the large cities supported bond issues for community

playgrounds, swimming pools, and athletic fields. Labor leaders happily agreed with President Hoover in 1928 when he said, "we in America are nearer to the final triumph over poverty than ever before in the history of any land." But only a few months later a host of unemployed citizens faced the grim problem of existence, and an equally great number toiled with little return as "The Great Depression" swept across the land.

Health and physical education as one of the so-called "special subjects" had "hard going" to survive the depression. Some programs were retained through the support of outside organizations such as the American Federation of Labor. For example, they were able to bring about a restoration of physical education programs in the Chicago schools where they had been eliminated because of drastic curriculum retrenchments. The A. F. of L. was instrumental in Michigan in saving the state physical education law, and also passed a resolution favoring the continuance uninterruptedly and undiminished of the health, physical education, and recreation programs. The American Federation of Labor, influenced by the value of organized recreational programs in improving the morale of the unemployed, repeatedly advocated the necessity of public recreational movements. Similar support came later from the Committee for Industrial Organizations. The Federal Government, through agencies such as the W. P.A., provided money and materials so that many communities were able to construct and staff new gymnasiums and community centers. Organized labor supported all these attempts by the Federal Government to raise the morale of the unemployed.

In 1938, John L. Lewis promoted the final steps in the organization of the C.I.O. with concern for the needs of the unskilled workers. He was a staunch supporter of industrial recreation. Correspondence in the archives of the C.I.O. shows further that John L. Lewis believed that physical education programs are necessary for growth and development of children, and also for them to gain physical skills for later leisure activities.

Labor leaders and their unions supported the organization of the National Industrial Recreation Association in 1941 to promote employee recreation programs. Early issues of this organization's journal—Employee Recreation—shows important support from labor leaders to organize company teams in the physical activities of softball, bowling, and basketball. Both labor leaders and management leaders supported industrial recreation as conductive to understanding and good fellowship, and as an excellent medium for establishing a better esprit de corps among the various branches of industrial work.

The attack upon Pearl Harbor in 1941 created an urgent need for National unity. Following this attack, John L. Lewis, speaking for labor, stated: "when the nation is attacked every American must rally to its defense." In his statement he supported physical fitness as essential to the

war effort, and to bring it about there must be strong programs of physical education, recreation, and athletics. Later in the war, William Green, President of the A. F. of L., stated before the War Labor Board, that greater support must be given to physical fitness in the schools and colleges through strong physical education programs. This statement was followed with a doorbell-ringing campaign organized by R. J. Thomas, newly-elected head of the United Automobile Workers, to stress war-time responsibilities. As one aspect of this campaign, emphasis was placed upon physical fitness through physical education and athletics.

In synthesizing labor groups as a cultural force in American society, and their understanding and support (or lack of support) for physical education, we have seen extremely interesting developments. It is widely accepted that labor leaders and unions form one of the most powerful culture groups in our society. Even the most conservative business leaders accept the basic role of the unions in the National economy. The editors of *Fortune Magazine* recently state "the growth, power and prestige of the unions is one of the significant features of the modern free enterprise system, and is playing on increasingly important role on the political scene." The latter point was outlined in a *U.S . News and World Report* article of February 26, 1962 entitled "How Congress Sizes Up President Kennedy." One question asked members of Congress was, "what group in your judgment is the most influential with the President?" The group chosen was labor leaders. There was the feeling among the Congressmen that it was obvious that we now have a labor government, and labor leaders are having tremendous influence; after aU, stated numerous members of both parties, the President owes his election to labor groups.

As far as the labor leader's understanding of physical education is concerned, it means sports and games, recreation, athletics, and physical fitness. The available literature in the field of labor shows quite clearly that labor leaders support physical education programs as necessary in the learning of sports and games skills for industrial and municipal recreation programs, and as an important medium for promoting physical fitness in time of national emergency.

Labor leaders see future advancements in automation resulting in more and more leisure time. At the A. F. of L.—C.I.O. convention in Miami Beach in December of 1961, a resolution was adopted by the delegates to promote a 35-hour work week to ease the problems of automation. In January of 1962, the Brotherhood of Electrical Workers in New York City responded by winning a 5-hour day as part of a 35-hour work week. Following this development, Arthur Goldberg, Secretary of Labor, stated in Washington that a shorter work week is absolutely essential to combat the Uls of automation. The National Advisory Council of the A. F. of L. —C. I. O. then went on record with a statement concerning automation that had one section pertaining to leisure. The statement was "Labor leaders have a

responsibility to help mobilize recreation resources and to support physical education programs." Walter Reuther stated that labor leaders will be the most powerful influence in shaping leisure time programs during the coming years of this century. He went on to emphasize that labor leaders as a group are giving careful attention to the report of the Outdoor Recreation Commission that was recently made public. This study—commissioned by President Eisenhower in 1956 and directed by Lawrence Rockefeller– analyzed the recreational needs of the American people through the year 2000. Among their many findings was a special emphasis upon increased leisure and more spending money; and a much greater need for sports and games programs that will become the medium of recreation programs.

While labor leaders have not usually spoken in the vein of the well-qualified physical education teacher concerning physical education in the school curriculum, labor leaders have, nevertheless, been a powerful force in supporting physical education for recreation and physical fitness.

CHAPTER 7

NATIONALISM IN AMERICAN PHYSICAL EDUCATION (1880-1920)

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Editor's Note: Chapter 7 was contributed upon the Editor's request by Professor Harold J. VanderZwaag, University of Massachusetts. This essay explains most succinctly some of the elements of nationalism present in developing American physical education between the years of 1880 and 1920. Dr. VanderZwaag tells how by 1920 "it was evident that the United States had evolved a program of physical education which was characterized by informaIity and emphasis upon national sports." This paper was presented originally at the 69th Annual Meeting of the National College Physical Education Association for Men, Philadelphia, Dec. 27-29, 1965.

The nineteenth century was a period during which *the* United States went through several stages in the development of its nationalism. The first half of the century was characterized by the growth of both national and sectional feelings in this country. However, the ties with the "old world" remained strong during this period. Following the Civil War, our nation set about to re–establish itself on a firm national basis. By the end of the century, this nationalism had been extended to a type of internationalism, in which the United States sought to exert its influence upon other nations through its newly formed institutions.!

This process of development was not restricted to political institutions. Other forces were at work developing our economic, religious, social, and educational institutions along a similar course. The changes in these areas did not always occur at the same time or at the same rate, but the interacting of these major historical forces was always evident.

Based on 19th century historical development, it is not surprising that many of the roots of present-day programs of physical education are found in the closing years of that century. This was another manifestation by the nation to cement its national unity by making institutions more distinctly American in nature. This was stated in 1881 as follows:

> **The first use we should make of our regained liberty is, therefore, the re-establishment of those institutions to whose influence the happiest nations of antiquity owed their energy and their physical prowess, their martial and moral heroism, their fortitude in adversity.**

Before considering the relationship between nationalism and physical education, it will be necessary to clarify what is meant by the terms "nationalism" and "physical education" in this context. It is evident that the term "nationalism" could lead to varied forms of inquiry due to its abstract nature. However, it will be used here to include those composite unifying forces of a nation, as compared to sectionalism and internationalism. Physical education would not be classified as an abstract term, but it is frequently misunderstood as to its content and scope. In our consideration here, it should be understood to include all those motor activities that are carried out predominantly for education *of and through* the human body.

Viewing physical education and nationalism in these contexts, it appears that the years 1880-1920, roughly speaking, were somewhat of a watershed in the history of physical education in the United States. For it was during this period that many of the international and sectional ideas on physical education were considered, modified, and merged into programs that make up our present-day bases of physical education.

The earlier history of physical education in this country was characterized by slow and sporadic development. Quite naturally, the earliest interest was largely in physical training of a military nature. However, Benjamin Franklin, possibly influenced in this respect by his contact with the royal courts of Europe, was one who envisioned a broader scope of physical education. Interest in physical education arose from several sources during the first eight years of the century, but the evidence seems to indicate that little progress was made on a national level:

> **In 1825, Professor Beck opened, in Northampton, Massachusetts, the first American school where gymnastics formed a branch of the regular curriculum. He has followers, but, considering our progress in other directions, his wheat cannot be said to have fallen on a fertile soil. Taking Massachusetts, Ohio, and North Carolina as representative States of their respective sections; it seems that at present (1881) an average of three in every thousand North American schools pays any attention to physical education.**

However, during the interim, there were periods in which physical education flourished on a sectional basis. An outstanding example was the wave of enthusiasm that accompanied the first introduction of the German Turnverein in this country at Cincinnati in 1848. Others followed rapidly in the North, mostly in the North-Central area. Members of the Turnverein were also active in support of the Union during the Civil War. But the Civil War years again, naturally, saw the popularity of gymnastics decline in favor of military drill. The situation noted above, as of 1891, can be accounted for

partly by the lack of interest in physical education following the war:

> **After the close of the war, the ardor for military exercises naturally declined very perceptibly. Then, since the military exercises had in a great measure supplanted those of the gymnasium, there came a period of comparative quiet in both these lines of physical training. This did not follow immediately after the cessation of hostilities, for such a movement once underway rarely collapses suddenly; but before ten years had passed popular interest was at a low ebb; then, after a time, it began to rise slowly and gradually, but surely.**

The earlier editions of *Mind and Body*, a national physical training journal first published in 1894, were much concerned about replacing military drill with a gymnastic system. In particular, the first managing editor, Hans Ballin, was a strong advocate of the German system of gymnastics. Following is an example of attitudes he expressed in some of his editorials:

> **Militarism is concluded in this issue. A perusal of the answers to our inquiries will convince that there is a majority of teachers opposed to military drill, and an overwhelming majority prefers a graded system of physical training to military drill. It can also be observed that in cities and schools where German physical training is in use, *the* educators are strongly in favor of it, and opposed to the drill, while on the other hand, in schools where Swedish physical training is "claimed" to be in vogue, a sentiment for military drill is predominant, as in Boston.**

In using the expression "graded system of physical training," Ballin was referring to a standard system of progressive exercise through gymnastic movements. The whole matter of gymnastic systems was one of the most pertinent issues of the time for physical educators. In fact, the Conference in the Interest of Physical Training held at Boston in November, 1889 was assembled largely for the purpose of discussing the various systems. The Swedish system of gymnastics had been recently introduced into the country, and its proponents were striving to compete with adherents of the revised German system for leadership. There was also the system introduced by Sargent at Hemenway Gymnasium of Harvard and various other "eclectic" systems. However, there was a great amount of disagreement as to whether there was or should be something that could be called an "American system."

Anderson of the Brooklyn School for Physical Training indicated that there was some form of an American system, which he would not change:

"The so-called American system is as scientific as that of Ling. . . . We begin where he stopped. . . .I have much respect for the German and Swedish systems. . . . but taken as they are they will not suit the American people." Hitchcock of Amherst College was not entirely in agreement with the former: "The gentlemen have spoken of American methods. I have been working at physical culture for quarter of a century. . . . I do not, however, think that we have a system." Channing was one who expressed the viewpoint that there was too much discussion about systems: "I suppose we are all laboring for the same end, yet we have too much to say about systems. Who, I may ask, can lay claim to any special system?"

One of the leading spokesmen for those actively engaged in physical training was E. M. Hartwell. His opinions seem to be representative of those at the conference who felt that a change towards a more unified system of physical training was necessary in the United States:

> **It is not within the scope of this paper to set forth the lesson to be learned from the best European system of physical training, or to show how fragmentary and defective our so-called American systems have been and are; but I remark in passing that a careful study of the German and Swedish systems of school gym gymnastics will be found an indispensable preliminary step for those who propose to organize a natural, rational, safe, and effective system of American physical education.**

Writers of physical education history seem to be quite in agreement that the Boston Conference of 1889 was a landmark in the history of American physical education. Its participants included many of the leaders in the gymnastic world and many of the most prominent figures in American education. An interesting result of the conference is noted in the action taken by the Boston School Committee on June 24, 1890, when it ordered the introduction of the Swedish system of gymnastics in all the public schools of that city and appointed Hartwell as the Director of Physical Training in Boston.

It appears that a number of other cities in the East followed the Boston example, while the Germans strengthened their position in the Midwest. Thus, sectionalism was still a dominant force in our physical education. However, it would seem that the real significance of the Boston Conference is to be found in indications that there would be more changed in the future–changes which would alter the course of physical education in the United States. For one thing, the papers and discussions had not been limited only to the area of gymnastics. Reference was made to athletics, and here possibly was the key to what the future would bring.

Rivalry among the various gymnastic systems continued throughout the 1890s with *Mind and Body* acting as the spokesman for the German system. A representative viewpoint of the time for that periodical is found in the August, 1897 issue:

> **While I think that all advocates of thoroughgoing physical education ought to unite in a solid phalanx to win the great mass for their common cause, and that they should leave to time and to experience the decision whether any of the present systems shall gain predominance by assimilating from others, or whether at some future congress of physical educators the various systems shall be merged into one, an American system adapted to our national educational requirements, I frankly say that upon the whole the German system, gradually developed and still developing by the thought and practical work of thousands of eminent pedagogics, surgeons, and other men of science of the highest standing in collaboration with the foremost physical educators, seems to be destined to form the substantial framework for the future, eclectic physical curriculum for the American school system.**

Similar arguments were being presented by those advocating other systems•. However, most seemed to be in agreement that some form of an eclectic system would be evolved. This was essentially the conclusion reached by James Boykin in the article written for the U. S. Commissioner of Education Report for the year 1891-1892:

> **Furthermore each wave of popular interest which the history of physical training disclosed has left its impress upon the general character of physical training as it is today, and has contributed to make what will be at some future time the American system of physical training. Such a consummation has not yet been reached, or the German system, the Swedish system, and the Delsarte system, would not enjoy such high favor; but there can be no doubt that in its final development the American system will be a composite not of these three, as the "combination systems" of today generally claim to be, but of all combined American experience in the field of physical training. The progress of the evolution toward an American system even in the last few years, may be distinctly seen, especially in school gymnastics; for have not the Germans begun to adopt the Swedish ideas of the day's orders and systematic progression, and have not the Swedes aimed to make their gymnastics more attractive, even going so far in one case as to use the German bars, and in another to advocate the use of a**

> **combination of systems for older pupils; and have not the professed followers of Delsarte adopted exercises that are plainly muscle makers as well as grace givers ? And do not they all utilize much that comes from the old English sports, from calisthenics, from Dio Lewis, and from Sargent? And is not all this found side by side and in harmony with military institutes after the plan of Colonel Partridge, manual labor and manual training schools after the manner of Dr. Cornelius and military drill in high schools after the war-time ideas ? And finally, there is reason to believe that until this composition of forces, this amalgamation of system does take place, so that a well-defined and well-established American system is produced, physical training will never rest upon a safe basis in this country.**

There is evidence, however, that supporters of specific systems were not ready to agree with Boykin. A rebuttal to this article was presented by Ballin in the March, 1896 edition of *Mind and Body*, in which he pointed out that he saw little evidence of the trends referred to by Boykin. Ballin added that Americans were not prepared to make a decision in this matter, because they had given neither the German nor the Swedish system of physical training a fair test; they had not yet accepted physical training as a necessary practice.

In spite of this apparent disagreement as to the status of physical education, as viewed by leaders in the 1890s, a trend toward more centralization can be noted. The establishment of the (American) Association for the Advancement of Physical Education in 1885 was an evidence of this change. But it must be stressed that the change was definitely not one which would establish a fixed system for the United States; rather, it was more a recognition of a national need and a national basis for physical education.

Again, it must be emphasized that this changing outlook was entirely in keeping with changes that were taking place in other areas in the lives of the American people. In the economic sphere, the doctrine of laissez-faire capitalism was being challenged. This meant that rugged individualism was losing ground to cooperative enterprises that would eventually be extended to the national level. Politically, with our western frontier closed, we found a new bond as a nation in looking for new frontiers where the American way of life could be spread. Socially, we were recognizing that the economic and political changes were creating certain national problems that were not present before. For example, the industrial revolution was resulting in a population shift from rural to urban areas. The requirements for physical labor in this urban industrial life were found to be quite different from the heavy physical labor of the farm. Some people saw that new forms of physical activity for leisure time would be required to meet the needs of this rapidly expanding urban population. At the same time, the shifting

population had the effect of promoting cooperation among divergent groups by bringing them into proximity where more organization was both natural and essential. Thus, the social individualism of the frontier was also rapidly being altered.

It was in such an economic, political, and social setting that the roots of our current programs of physical education can be found. The nation was experimenting with a new nationalism and a new conception of democracy. Within such a framework, a philosophy of physical education was developing which was to be distinctly American, although influences of the European background would always be evident.

The foregoing provides the key to the central problem of this paper: Has nationalism been the dominant force in the American philosophy of physical education? We notice that the nineteenth century was characterized by sectional interests and struggles among systems in physical education. This would not seem to be true today. What was the turning point? We have already advanced the thesis that the answer to this question is to be found in events which took place between 1880 and 1920. But what were these significant events, and why did they occur?

An answer to these questions is to be found in the steadily increasing interest in sports among the American people. The popularity of athletic contests was evident long before 1880. However, the earliest interest was developed through athletic clubs and intercollegiate athletics. The mass of the people did not receive the educational benefits to be derived from such activity. Doerflinger incidentally alluded to this fact in his article for *Mind and Body* while also advocating an acceptance of the German gymnastic system:

> **Athletic associations of all kinds have done a great deal to counteract the degenerative tendencies alluded to before. But their adherents form only a small fraction of the whole people. The great mass of the 70,000,000 inhabitants derive no benefits from them. National physical improvement can be accomplished only through institutions that reach practically the whole people. In my estimation there is but one practical way to attain this: the introduction of physical education in the people's schools. . . .**

Doerflinger was to be proven correct as to the means for gaining wider acceptance of physical education, but the emphasis in the physical education program did not take the form that he would have preferred. There is evidence that the English games exerted greater influence in the United States than any other elements of physical education from foreign countries:

> **The Honorable Edward Littleton, an authority in English higher education, has written a notable article in the "nineteenth century" on "Athletics in Public Schools." He canvasses the system with some thoroughness, and arrives at independent conclusions regarding it, which will be of special interest on this side of the Atlantic, now that such vigorous efforts are being made to adopt the same policy in our higher schools.**

Hartwell, a strong supporter of gymnastics, also made reference to the growing popularity of athletics on more than one occasion. In his concluding remarks at the Boston Physical Training Conference he stated: "We have at least established a department of athletics, if not a system. We have an inherited taste for out-of-door games that is not going to be squelched." This was confirmed in a later article found in the Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1903: "On the whole, the advancement of physical education in America has been greater in the past twenty-five years than in any other period of its history. Obviously the most striking and rapid expansion has been in the department of athletics."

This trend reached a climax following World War I as a result of facts brought out during the conflict:

> **Thirty-five per cent of the men in the first draft were rejected as physically unfit. . . . Only a minority of the men when they arrived at camp were possessed of the strength, endurance, agility, muscular control, and disciplined initiative necessary for the rigors of immediate intensive military training. This minority was made up largely of men who have had thorough and varied athletic experience under competent direction.**

By 1920, it was evident that the United States had evolved a program of physical education which was characterized by informality and emphasis upon national sports. Such a program was entirely natural in view of our changing educational and political philosophies. Educationally, there was a growing recognition that a sound program of education must be based upon the needs of the child. This was also being recognized in physical education: "We are rapidly coming to a system of physical education for the public schools, which will be based upon the play activities of childhood." Politically, we were moving in the direction of more national government control while retaining state and local autonomy in some important areas. A parallel can be seen in physical education where we adhered to a national sports setting while retaining great divergence among local programs.

Such a program is entirely consistent with our concept of democracy, but at the same time it represents an interesting paradox found in the history of American democracy. Our institutions have moved in the direction of increased nationalism, while, at the same time, we have broadened the base of participation and retained individual freedom. For physical education, the years 1880-1920 were particularly significant in establishing its position as a representative institution of our democracy.

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CHAPTER 8

GERMAN TURNERS IN AMERICA: THEIR ROLE IN NINETEENTH CENTURY EXERCISE EXPRESSION AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION LEGISLATION

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Editor's Note: A volume such as this would not be complete without a selection that explained something about the contribution of the German-American Turners to physical education and sport in the United States. Fortunately, the Editor's colleague and close friend has specialized in this area of historical investigation. It was very gratifying, therefore, to include this selection along with others describing what transpired in the nineteenth century. Our appreciation is extended to Professor Barney for his cooperation.

One of the most fascinating aspects of viewing Americans in their cultural setting is witnessing their predilection for sport and physical exercise. Interest in sport and exercise in the twentieth century has grown enormously among Americans of every age, socioeconomic status, and ethnic background. This exercise expression, viewed in collective fashion, is one which is underscored by the term "versatility," in perfect accord with the nation's so-called melting-pot society. The seeds from which this luxuriant foliage of physical activity grew were sown largely in nineteenth century American history. Among the more important of these seedling ingredients folded into America's emerging exercise culture was the German-American Turnverein experience. In fact, aside from the sports and games movement during the latter part of the period, few developments rivaled those contributions made by Turners to nineteenth century physical education legislation and exercise expression –contributions which demonstrated elaborate organization and intense zeal and discipline, cast in the true spirit of Germanic thoroughness and efficiency.

The philosophy and resulting practices of Friedrich Ludwig Jahn, father of the Turnverein movement in Germany, placed the subject of physical exercise in clear focus during German social development in the first half of the nineteenth century. With a patriotic zealousness reminiscent of later German leaders, of which Adolf Hitler cannot be excluded, Jahn, almost "single handed," developed a vast network of Turnverein organizations, the very basis for which was the dedication toward raising the physical fitness and responsive discipline of German youth. Stung to the point of utter humiliation by Napoleon's incursions into the Fatherland, Jahn sought to rehabilitate the spirit of those Teutonic virtues that he felt formed the very spinal column of Germanic culture. His success in that endeavor, in

long–term measurement, has contributed a vivid chapter to the social and political history of Western man. *Turnvereine* spurred the liberal revolution in Germany for much of the nineteenth century, a revolution aimed at a closer union of the semi-independent German states and, even more importantly, the substitution of constitutional liberty for the absolutism of monarchical rule.

The German *Turnverein* movement in America was one that was often implemented with the same spirit and dedication as had been the order of the day in Germany. Certainly the nineteenth century Turnverein experience in North America must be considered to have been secular in nature. German-American Turners, unlike many types of ethnic groups which emigrated to America from Europe and particularly those which came for reasons underscored by religious upheaval, immersed themselves in the public affairs of their new country in quite a natural manner because most of them had, in fact, emigrated from Germany in search of constitutional liberty. And certainly within the matrix of unrest exhibited by emigrating Germans was a deep-rooted concern for the proper education of their children. Since the Reformation in Northern Europe the subject of education had been one of particular interest and debate among the progressive and industrious Germans. Eighteenth and nineteenth century developments in the education of young people, including attention to the fostering of physical prowess in gymnastics, had made Germany a leader in the area of educational enlightenment. The education of their young in America continued to be a subject of intense interest to the emigrants, and their dedication to the task of developing such a process remained steadfast.

The Roots of the German Turnverein Experience in America

As early as 1825 the principles of German gymnastics and *Turnvater* Jahn's *Turnplatz* had begun to be applied in North America. The groundwork for the German expression of gymnastic exercise was laid initially by that distinguished trio of Carlsbad Decree exiles: Karl Follen, Karl Beck and Franz Lieber. Their collective work at Harvard College, the Round Hill School in Northampton, Massachusetts, and in the city of Boston, respectively, served as a springboard in launching the classical German Turnverein experience in the Western hemisphere.

As a result of the failure of the liberal revolutionary movements of 1848 and 1849 in Germany, thousands of political and social refugees emigrated to the United States in search of a new life. Among the first of those "Forty-Eighters" to arrive in America was one Friedrich Hecker, popular hero of a defeated republican uprising in South Germany. By November of 1848 in Cincinnati, Hecker had established a temporary home for the first German-American Turnverein. Other Turnverein societies followed in rapid succession, extending geographically from New England, New York and Baltimore on the eastern seaboard to the growing frontier cities of

Milwaukee, St. Louis, Indianapolis, and bustling New Orleans. Even isolated California felt the Turnverein growth impetus of the 1850's, with flourishing organizations forming in San Francisco and Sacramento, and smaller but ambitious "satellite" groups in a number of small mining towns and villages along the Sierra Madre gold field corridor. By the eve of the Civil War over 150 individual *Turnvereine* existed in America, encompassing a membership of between 9,000 and 10,000 individuals of direct German origin (Leonard and Affleck, 1947, p. 295).

The German verb *Turnen,* meaning "to do gymnastic exercises, " was the common denominator to all German-American *Turnvereine*, although social involvement and political activism often characterized the activities of many organizations with almost the same amount of fervor as the physical exercise variable. The form of exercise reflected was a combination of strict "Jahnistic" apparatus work and that type of free exercise expression closely akin to that espoused by Adolf Spiess, father of the free exercise movement in Germany.

German and American history in both the nineteenth and twentieth centuries leaves little doubt as to the effectiveness of Turner involvement with exercise. In those nineteenth century German military ventures following the Napoleonic Wars, Turners formed the backbone of the most physically fit and disciplined units of the Germany army. From a statistical point of view the first evidence of Turner fitness is reflected by the fact that in World War I, ninety-three per cent of all Turners examined for service in the American Expeditionary Forces were found to be physically fit, whereas the national average was not more than sixty-seven per cent (Leonard and Affleck, p. 313). No similar set of statistics are available for the Civil War but it has been substantiated that over 5,000 American Turners played prominent roles in support of President Lincoln's "cause," usually operating in the field as distinct Turnverein companies (Leonard and Affleck, p. 299).

Turnverein activity during the post-Civil War period and "Gilded Age" of American history (1865-1990) displayed vigorous growth and activity in terms of increases in membership, new societies, and in the preparation of gymnastics teachers. By the dawn of the twentieth century the number of Turners in America bad increased to more than 34,000. This membership was distributed throughout 258 societies that employed 166 teachers of German gymnastics (Leonard and Affleck, p. 310). Stemming from the work of those pioneer teachers of German gymnastics in America evolved the vigorous efforts of Turners towards having their unique exercise expression accepted as the form of physical education most desirable for American school children.

The Turners and America's First Legislation for Physical Education

Turner enthusiasm and persistence played an important role in shaping the character of American public school physical education, particularly in the Midwest where large numbers of German immigrants settled along the length and breadth of the Ohio and Mississippi River valleys. However, it was in the then fledgling state of California that Turners first involved themselves in the business of forging legislation aimed at bringing about mandatory physical education in the public schools.

Prior to 1940, various investigators concerned with tracing the history of American physical education believed that the first State laws for the subject to be included in the public schools were enacted in Ohio in 1892, even though Pennsylvania had attempted to pass similar legislation in 1890, only to have the effort vetoed (River, 1926, p. 239). According to research done prior to 1940 only North Dakota joined with Ohio in actually passing state laws concerning physical education in the schools before the twentieth century.

The history of American physical education is indebted to the late Dudley Sargent DeGroot, eminent scholar and athlete, for pinpointing exactly the date of the very first state laws for physical education in the schools (DeGroot, 1940). According to his research, completed in 1939, the state of California, in 1866, enacted the first legislation in the country that dealt specifically with the subject of physical education in the public schools. This was more than a quarter of a century before the 1892 Ohio milestone previously reported by historians.

And what of the laws themselves ? Today's student and professional practitioner of physical education might well be excused for thinking them to be quite humorous. Specifically, California's school laws for 1866 provided that: "Instruction shall be given in all grades of schools, and in all classes, during the entire school course in. . . the laws of health; and due attention shall be given to such physical exercises for the pupils as may be conducive to health and vigor of body, as well as. . ." *(Second Biennial Report*, 1866, Section 55). Under the "Rules and Regulations of the Public Schools of California," for the same year, is found an even more positive declaration: "In all primary schools, exercises in free gymnastics and vocal and breathing exercises, shall be given at least twice a day and for a time not less than five minutes for each exercise" (*Rules and Regulations*, 1866, p. 283). Inconsequential? Primitive? Perhaps. But every advanced, highly sophisticated piece of legislation had to originate from embryonic thought and governmental legislation relative to physical education has not proven to be any exception to that rule.

DeGroot's investigation of the history of physical education in California pointed specifically at John Swett, New Englander turned Californian, as the most important factor in the shaping of the historic 1866 legislation. DeGroot was at least partly correct in his assumptions pertinent to Swett. Certainly, the storied educator cannot be overlooked as a cornerstone figure in the history of public school physical education in California and other areas of the American West. Swett's role in that episode has been well documented (Carr, 1933, and Swett, 1876) and need not be amplified here.

Despite the saga of John Swett, the role of the early California *Turnvereine* in helping to formulate America's embryo physical education legislation was significant. By 1858 at least nine *Turnvereine* were known to have existed in Northern California alone. These organizations were nearly all located in communities situated along the corridor of Swett's educational and political activity–San Francisco, Sacramento, Oakland, Auburn, Stockton, Marysville, Dutch Flat, Sonora and Shasta (McCoy, 1962, pp. 67-68). As far as California's *Turnverein* history is concerned *the* first such organization was founded in San Francisco in 1852, even though two years earlier in the same city a German group devoted to vocalizing fDie Sänger am Stillen Meere) had been formed (*The Sacramento Turnvereine*, 1854-1954, p. 13). By 1860 western *Turnvereine* had banded together into the Pacific *Turnerbund*, the early leadership of which was provided mainly by the vigorous and energetic members of the San Francisco and Sacramento *Vereine*.

Even though there were some instances of attempts at strong political involvement on national issues among California *Turners*, the constitutions of the various western German organizations and their subsequent activity centered around social and physical expression rather than a focus on the psycho-politico efforts along the lines of the national *Bund*. Eastern and midwestern organizations, usually including high percentages of "Forty-Eighters" or "Greens," paid rapt attention to the political tone of the times and often applied their efforts towards affecting national policy (Hawgood, 1940). For instance, most *Turnvereine* in the East and Midwest steadfastly supported the position of President Lincoln and the enunciations of the Republican Party. Most Turners were staunchly anti-slavery in principle although not all were active abolitionists. In California and other areas of the West, political issues were sometimes lost in the stark realities of hard work to gain life's necessities. Florence McCoy, in her excellent study of the early years of Pacific Coast *Turnverein* activity in general, and that of the Sacramento *Turnverein* in particular, has concluded that, by the end of the first wave of German migration to California in 1852, few individuals were present who were dedicated to the national political causes which heightened the fervor of so many of the "Forty-Eighters" in the East. On the subject of public education, however, German influence was nationwide in importance in helping to spearhead local and state governmental legislation.

What then were the thoughts and activities of California *Turners* regarding physical education prior to the legislation under investigation? It is at least apparent that they could not be passed off lightly when the subject of physical education arose–a subject that many historians have felt formed the cornerstone of Turnverein activity. An examination of the constitution of the Sacramento Turnverein reveals that gymnastics participation and instruction to its younger members was of paramount importance among the fundamental purposes of the organization: "The purpose of the society is to further most strongly, through word and deed, the way of the gymnast and socialsm" (Second Constitution, 1854, p. 1). Socialism, if defined as active political involvement at the national level, was practically absent in the cases of California German organizations. Gymnastics occupied the front of the stage and membership in most societies consisted of four classifications, aU of which embraced quite solidly the furthering of gymnastics "by word and deed. " The Sacramento constitution, almost an exact copy of the San Francisco document of 1852, outlined its membership classes in the following manner:

(a) **Active members - those who participate in all gymnastic exercises and meetings.**

(b) **Inactive members - those who cannot fulfill the obligations of gymnastic exercise of the regular members, but who will interest themselves as much as possible in the furthering of the exercises.**

(c) **Honorary members - those who have given extraordinary service in the cause of gymnastics.**

(d) **Gymnastic students - those who have not yet reached their sixteenth birthday.**

Augmenting the efforts of California *Turnvereine* in spreading the gospel of fitness through exercise were the public gymnasia, a few of which made their appearance on the Pacific Coast in the 1850's. By far the most successful of these, and quite possibly the only indoor facility of its type in the state, was the Sacramento gymnasium opened in the summer of 1856 by Frederick Van Vleck (*The Sacramento Union*, Sept. 8, 1856). Van Vleck, of German-Dutch parentage, was not a member of the *Turnverein*, but simply an entrepreneur in the city's German community who sought to profit financially from the growing appeal for gymnastic exercise. His enterprise was popular with the Sacramento townspeople and in 1857 the program was enlarged to accommodate women. Late in 1856 Van Vleck was appointed by the Sacramento school authorities to teach gymnastics to schoolboys. The cost of this program was one dollar per month for each boy, the fee to be paid by their parents (*The Sacramento Union*, Sept. 15, 1857). By 1957, far in advance of Swett's ascendancy to the position of State Superintendent of

Public Instruction and the landmark 1866 physical education legislation, the Sacramento School Board of Education, in viewing the physical education activities of the *Turnverein* and Van Vleck's gymnasium, gave its formal approbation to the exercise movement as follows: "It is contemplated in this way (the work of the Turnverein and public gymnasium), it will be perceived to constitute gymnastics a regular branch in the course of education pursued in the schools" (*The Sacramento Union*, Sept. 28, 1857). The support for physical education in the school program, directed by German gymnastic influence in Sacramento, the state capital, was apparent. It is, therefore, to be expected that it was voiced strongly in the legislative chambers by various German representatives and citizens of Sacramento.

California newspapers of the 1850's and 1860's, particularly the San Francisco Chronicle and the Sacramento Union, covered Turner activity in breadth, underscoring the prominence of the German group in the pioneer society. And yet, not once in his prolific writing prior to 1866, did Swett mention the California Turners, or even the German people as a group, as having been an influence in helping to direct public consideration toward the need for physical education in the schools. This fact is difficult to fathom, especially since the German ethnic group in California between 1850 and 1865 formed both a considerable and influential portion of society. This was particularly apparent in the two most significant areas of the State relative to politics - San Francisco and Sacramento. The first California census, for example, reflected that in Sacramento County, one of the state's two "hubs" of political, social, and economic activity, there were far more Germans in residence than any other European-born ethnic group (California Census, 1852, Vol. 5). Further, the same census revealed that the number of Germans engaged in gold mining, unskilled labor, and other transient -like ways of living was proportionately small when compared to those Germans plying their efforts at trades which formed the bulwark of society. More than fifty per cent of all German men were engaged in professional, merchant, and skilled labor occupations. This figure represented a considerably larger percentage than that reflected by the second most prominent ethnic group - the Irish.

Germans were willing and able candidates for California's early legislatures as well. The various *Turnvereine* elected and heartily endorsed their own representatives for the state government. Their political presence was not negligible. The inference thus becomes quite clear that the Germans of Northern California, comprising a significant segment of not only the population itself, but the middle and upper classes of that population, and linked together in a new land by the traditions and heritages of the old country, of which Turnverein activity featuring physical exercise was most prominent, may well have been a formidable influence in activity and discussion leading to laws dealing with physical education in the schools, many of which were attended, or would be attended, by their children. Certainly education was a subject of great concern to Germans. Its

development in the various German states prior to the period under discussion was perhaps unrivaled in all Europe.

Epilogue

In the years following the 1866 California legislation, *Turners* undertook a systematic campaign to acquaint American educators and the public in general with the merits of the German system of exercise expression. A normal school dedicated to preparing teachers of the German system was established initially in New York City in 1866. Later it "traveled" to Chicago, Milwaukee, Cincinnati and elsewhere. Emanating from the various normal school courses a steady stream of gymnastics teachers fanned out into those cities of the American Midwest which had significant German-American populations. These teachers, located in such places as Kansas City, Chicago, Rochester, Louisville, St. Louis, Cleveland, Cincinnati and Dayton, among others, were ultimately successful in "instrumenting" regular instruction in gymnastics in the public schools of those cities well before the end of the century (Leonard and Affleck, p. 309). The *Turnverein* influence was felt nationally as well, since their delegates attended annual meetings of the infant (American) Association for the Advancement of Physical Education, outlining in strong terms all aspects of the Turnverein approach.

A distinguished historian of physical education, Dr. Edward M. Hartwell, who lived at a time during the nineteenth century when the German system of physical education rose to its zenith in America, identified the American Turners as being the most influential force in bringing about the introduction of gymnastic exercises into the public schools (Zucker, 1950, p. 109). No other individual or group did more to place the subject of physical education before the public's eyes than did the various *Turnvereine* of the United States. As Turnverein activity enlarged, so did an awareness of gymnastics on the part of lay people, an awareness which in no little way contributed towards support for governmental physical education legislation and personal involvement in physical exercise.

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CHAPTER 9

EDWARD HITCHCOCK, M.D., FOUNDER OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE COLLEGE CURRICULUM

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Editor's Note: It is a pleasure to be able to include a paper by Professor Welch that was abstracted from his earlier classic study about Edward Hitchcock of Amherst. In correspondence with Professor Welch, he told the Editor that this material had probably received sufficient exposure, but we emphasized that a volume of this type really should have information about Dr. Hitchcock in it. An excellent bibliography is included as well. An abstract of the author's book titled, *Edward Hitchcock, M.D., Founder of Physical Education in the College Curriculum is offered here*. It was published in cooperation with the East Carolina College Library in 1966. (This abstract was published originally in *The Physical Educator*, Vol. 24, No. 2:54-56 (May, 1967).)

Edward Hitchcock was professor of hygiene and physical education at Amherst College, Amherst, Massachusetts, from 1861 until his death in 1911. As director of the first successful program of physical education in any American college, Hitchcock was, in fact, the "founder of physical education in the college curriculum." The example he set was followed by many colleges and universities in America, as well as in Japan. Amherst College was the first institution of higher learning to make physical education an integral part of the college curriculum.

There had been sporadic attempts by other colleges and universities to start physical education programs during the period 1826–1830 and later during the 1850's. However, in no case did the institution provide adequate facilities and competent instructors. President William A. Stearns of Amherst College pointed out the need for physical education in college in his inaugural address of 1854. From the very beginning of his administration, Stearns was plagued with problems of student health. He urged the trustees to build a gymnasium and appoint a competent professor of hygiene and physical education. Stearns was successful in his efforts. Barrett Gymnasium was begun in 1859, and John W. Hooker, a physician and gymnast, was appointed as the professor in 1860. Hooker served effectively, but his health broke and he resigned at the end of his initial year. In 1861, Hitchcock was appointed to the professorship, and he served Amherst College and the cause of physical education with great distinction for the next half century.

Hitchcock was born in Amherst, Massachusetts, on May 23, 1828, where his father was the third president of Amherst College and an eminent geologist. From his father Hitchcock gained many insights into science and teaching. Hitchcock was superbly educated for a man of his day. His preparatory work was done at Amherst Academy and Williston Seminary, and he graduated from Amherst College with a bachelor of arts degree in 1849. He also held a master of arts degree from Amherst. His medical degree was from Harvard University, and he spent four months in Paris and London studying medicine, natural history, and comparative anatomy. In London he was the private pupil of Sir Richard Owen, the outstanding comparative anatomist of the British Museum. Hitchcock's work under Owen was the high point of his professional preparation, for comparative anatomy was his favorite subject.

After graduating from Amherst, Hitchcock taught natural history at Williston Seminary from 1850 to 1860. During the early 1850's he took leave to secure his medical degree from Harvard. When he became professor of hygiene and physical education at Amherst, he was especially prepared to direct a program of student health. He lacked training in gymnastics, but he overcame this weakness while on the job.

The Program

The program which Hitchcock developed at Amherst comprised required exercises for all students; extensive health care, supervision, and instruction; and scientific measurement. It became known nationally and internationally as the "Amherst Plan" of physical education. Each of the four college classes was required to meet four times per week for thirty minutes of exercise under the direction of the professor. The students dressed in uniforms and elected their own class and platoon captains. These captains were trained by Hitchcock in the art of giving calisthenics and maneuvering the class in the gymnasium. The exercises consisted of calisthenics with light wooden dumbbells, and the students repeated the drills in unison in time to piano music. A portion of every class was given over to free exercise during which the students ran, used the heavy apparatus, sang, danced, or turned somersaults. Hitchcock felt this recreational portion of the class was important to allow students an opportunity to work off their boisterous instincts.

The trustees of Amherst were particularly desirous that the health of the students be a primary concern of the new professor of hygiene and physical education. Hitchcock carried out this mandate with the utmost skill and success. He gave regular medical examinations to the students, and he kept detailed health records. Each student could call on him for health care and counsel, and he made daily visits to the room of sick students. His dream of a student infirmary finally materialized in 1897 when the Pratt Health Cottage was built and endowed.

Health instruction was a vital phase of the Amherst Plan. Hitchcock gave regular lectures in hygiene to the freshman class. He covered such subjects as diet, exercise, care of the muscles, care of the eyes, alcohol, tobacco, and reproductive organs. A course in anatomy and physiology was given to sophomores.

Body Measurements

One of Hitchcock's most original contributions was his work in anthropometrics, or the science of bodily measurements. He desired to put his physical education program on a scientific basis. By keeping accurate measurements on all students, he was able to show that regular exercise and proper health supervision improved the growth and health of college students. Hitchcock was the first American physical educator to apply the science of anthropometry to problems of the profession. Through his efforts and those of Dudley A. Sargent, anthropometrics became the central foundation for the entire profession of physical education in America during the latter hall of the nineteenth century. Hitchcock knew that detailed physical measurements over a period of years would be invaluable to anthropometrics in general. His work helped determine the average measurements of college students, and these statistics have been used in studies of human growth.

Publications

Hitchcock contributed only one book to the profession. This was a textbook in anatomy and physiology. However, a list of his published articles, papers, manuals, and reports covered eight pages in the *American Physical Education Review*. He ranks as one of the important writers in physical education in the nineteenth century, along with Sargent, Anderson, Hartwell, and Gulick.

Through his papers and news stories describing the Amherst Plan, Hitchcock influenced the development of physical education in many other American colleges. Three of his students, Edward Mussey Hartwell, Watson L. Savage, and Paul C. Phillips, made national contributions to American physical education. The Japanese government requested Amherst College to send a teacher to Japan to install the Amherst Plan. George A. Leland, another of Hitchcock's students, was selected for the assignment, and he spent three years in Japan. He is credited as being the founder of modern physical education in that country.

National Leadership

Hitchcock was a prominent member of the two principal professional organizations of his time. He was the first president of the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education, and he was

chairman pro tem of the meeting at which the Society for College Gymnasium Directors was founded. Hitchcock was a charter member of both organizations and was particularly active in the affairs of the Association. In addition to being president for the first two years, he was vice president for six years, a member of the National Council or executive committee for ten years, and, as a member of the committee on statistics and measurements, he presented important papers on anthropometry at the national meetings. Of equal importance was the fact that Hitchcock served as a harmonizing agent during the critical, formative era of the Association. He never dodged a debate, but he was friendly to all, especially to the younger men in the profession, and he was successful in holding dissident elements together for the advancement of the profession.

Honors

Many honors and recognitions were bestowed upon Hitchcock. He was granted an honorary doctor of laws degree from Amherst College and an honorary master of physical education degree from Springfield College. A special dinner was given in his honor by the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education. This dinner, held at a national convention in New York City, was in commemoration of Hitchcock's fortieth anniversary as professor at Amherst College and as leader in the profession. Later, the same organization made Hitchcock an honorary member, and this was his most prized recognition. Hitchcock is a fellow in memoriam of the American Academy of Physical Education. Hitchcock Memorial Field and Hitchcock Memorial Room at Amherst College were dedicated in his memory. In 1932 Amherst College was awarded the first certificate of high merit of the American Student Health Association. This award was in recognition of the pioneer work of President Stearns and Hitchcock.

Summary

Prior to 1860 there were no planned physical education programs in American colleges and universities. As a result of *the* work of Hitchcock at Amherst College, the way was opened for physical education to become an integral part of the college curriculum throughout the United States.

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CHAPTER 10

DR. DUDLEY A. SARGENT AND THE HARVARD SUMMER SCHOOL OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Note: This is a chapter from a fine biographical study about Dr. Dudley A. Sargent of Harvard completed by Professor Bennett in the summer of 1947 (Bruce L. Bennett, "The Life of Dudley Allen Sargent, M.D., and His Contributions to Physical Education. " Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1947) He describes the relationship between Dr. Sargent and the now defunct Harvard Summer School of Physical Education–a most successful venture that had significant impact on the development of physical education in the United States at that time.

Origin

The first summer school in the United States was started by Louis Agassiz, a Harvard professor, in 1873 for zoology students at Penikese Island in Buzzard's Bay off Newport, Rhode Island, although the University of Virginia had a summer session of law as early as 1870 (Willoughby, 1894, p. 898-900). The Penikese Island school was abandoned after a few years, but summer schools in chemistry and botany were started in 1874 (Wlloughby, 1894, p. 953) and geology was added in 1883 (Harvard Catalog, 1883-84, p. 243). The financial risk of these schools was assumed by the instructors who handled the receipts and paid the salaries through the Business Office of the University. These courses did not give credit towards a degree but simply offered an opportunity for review or extra study.

The idea of a summer school of physical training came to Dr. Sargent during a month's stay at Chautauqua, New York, in August, 1879 (Ledyard Sargent, 1927, p. 157). Soon after coming to Hemenway Gymnasium at Harvard University, Sargent received applications for teachers familiar with his methods and apparatus. Since many prospective teachers were busy during the year and could only come in the summer, Sargent began to use some of his vacation time to instruct them.

In a descriptive booklet that Sargent had published in 1882, he announced that a summer school would be opened in Cambridge, July 5, 1883, for a five-week session. The purpose was to train pupils in the theory and practice of health-promoting exercises to meet the growing demand for

teachers in this department of education. The course, open to both sexes, would include a series of lectures on the "Care of the Body" by Sargent and practical instruction in calisthenics, gymnastics, and athletics (*Dr. Sargent's System*, 1882, p. 8). We have no evidence to show whether the school was actually held or how many attended. It was not connected with Harvard, and the classes were undoubtedly held in Dr. Sargent's own normal school building. However, in 1884 Sargent advertised a summer session at his normal school (Hartwell, 1885, p. 59).

As the demand increased, Sargent wrote to President Elliot of Harvard and inquired about starting a summer school in physical training. Eliot approved the plan if Sargent cared to take the financial risk (Sargent manuscript, 1907). The first course, lasting five weeks, was given in 1887 and attended by a surprising total of fifty-seven men and women, only five less than the number enrolled in Chemistry, the largest course (Harvard catalog, 1887-88, p. 330). The plan and work of the first session is found in the catalog for 18871888:

> **The aim of the course is to qualify men and women as instructors in the Harvard system of physical examination and training. The present need is for intelligent organizers and teachers rather than for sMUful performers—for those who can arouse enthusiasm for health and bodily development rather than for gymnastic feats.**
>
> **The course consists of lectures by Dr. Sargent, examinations and exercises condensed from the winter course, and a new system of exercises adapted to the needs of school children.**
>
> **Certificates are given indicating the time spent at the school, the work done, and the nature of the service that each teacher is capable of rendering. A preliminary course of reading is prescribed for those who have entered their names for the course (p. 321).**

The fee was fifty dollars, and Dr. Sargent cleared about $1,500 the first year (Sargent manuscript, 1907). The success of this initial session was assured not only by the large number, but also by the quality of the students, most of whom held regular positions and came from all parts of the country. Among those present were Dr. Delphine Hanna of Oberlin, Professor John B. Crenshaw of Randolph Macon, Helen Putnam of Vassar, Carolyn Ladd of Bryn Mawr, Belle Boveé, then at Brearley School in New York, Anna Bridgman of Rockford Seminary, Dr. Frank Whittier of Bowdoin, and Booker T. Washington of Tuskegee Institute (Harvard catalog, 1887-88, pp. 321-24).

Program

Beginning in 1888 the work of the summer school was divided into theory and practice. The theoretical work comprised lectures and recitations in applied anatomy and physiology, personal hygiene, anthropometry, physical diagnosis, prescribing individual exercises, massage, physical exercise in treatment of spinal curvature, and testing for normal vision and hearing. Practical work included free movements, calisthenics, light and heavy gymnastics, marching, gymnastic games, track and field, boxing, fencing, swimming, and *the* Monroe system of voice training. Each student attending the full course was given a general certificate indicating the manner in which his or her work was performed (Harvard catalog, 1888-89, pp. 34142).

The curriculum of the summer school expanded and changed to include the latest work in physical training, games, dancing, and athletics. It was this elasticity and broad scope of the work offered which accounted for the wide appeal of the school, not only to young physical education students, but also to mature people from all walks of life. Thus, in 1890 the Delsarte movements, relaxing exercises, and Swedish gymnastics were added to the practical work (Harvard catalog, 1890-91, p. 351). The new aesthetic dancing was first taught in 1894 (Van Wyck, 1942, p. 411). The Harvard Summer School was the first to offer track and field instruction for women in 1896. The class was taught by James Lathrop, the Harvard track coach, who ordered the first pair of spiked running shoes for a woman (Ballintine, pp. 15-16). The Harvard Summer School played an important part in the introduction of English field hockey to this country. In 1901 Constance Applebee, who had just arrived from England, attended the summer school and demonstrated the game to the other students. Miss Harriet Ballintine, director of physical training at Vassar, was impressed by the game and invited Miss Applebee to come to Vassar in the fall. Other trips to Wellesley, Smith, Mt. Holyoke, Bryn Mawr, and Radcliffe followed. Dr. Sargent wrote a recommendation of Miss Applebee and the game for her book which was published in 1902 (Applebee, 1902, p. 58).

> **(Note: Field hockey was played by the men at Springfield College as early as 1897 and possibly also at Mt. Holyoke, according to McCurdy, quoted in Ballintine, p. 17. However, the continuous popularity of field hockey dates from Miss Applebee's visit.)**

An examination of the class schedule for 1906 shows that a wide range of courses were actually taught. In theory, histology, history of education, psychology, and philosophy of exercise were added to provide a broad background of training. Football, wrestling, fencing, hockey, and tennis were more recent additions to the practical work (VanWyck, 1952, p. 427). Methods of teaching, philosophy of educa

tion, history of physical education and first aid were taught in 1910 (VanWyck, 1942, p. 428). In 1915 four courses in playground work and a course in folk dancing reflected the rise of recreation activities in this country although the summer school had taught various games almost from the beginning (Van Wyck, 1942, p. 429). Even while recognizing the rise of athletics and recreation, the summer school continued to teach apparatus, Swedish gymnastics, tumbling, marching tactics, Indian clubs, and dumbbells as part of the necessary training of a well-rounded physical educator.

For the first ten years or so, the summer school was quite informal and course work was optional. Students attended whatever classes they liked for as long as they wishes. "The course of the summer school is entirely optional, the full list of exercises is laid before the students giving them the opportunity to select what they prefer or are best for them" (Letter to Miss Oldham, 1894). Beginning in 1899, two summers were required for a full certificate and courses were classified for the first or second year (Van Wyck, 1942, pp. 412-13). In 1902 at the suggestion of President Eliot, the program of graded courses was extended to four summers for a full certificate. This system was in effect during the rest of Dr. Sargent's administration which ended with his retirement from Harvard in 1919. Three years later by an arrangement with the Harvard School of Education, summer school students with a B. A. degree could complete four summers and receive the Master's degree in Education.

Faculty

No less important than the breadth of the courses was the quality of the instructors. Hartvig Nissen, a Norwegian who first brought Swedish gymnastics to the United States in 1883, taught that subject; Christian Eberhard, Francis Dohs, and Carl Schrader were all graduates of the Turnverein Normal School at Milwaukee; and Melvin Ballou Gilbert taught his own aesthetic and classic dancing for 15 summers. The theory courses were taught by distinguished physicians of Boston and the Harvard Medical School. At one time or another, Dr. Henry P. Bowditch, Dr. Edward H. Bradford, Dr. Walter Channing, Dr. Robert W. Lovett, and Dr. Myles Standish were lecturers. Men like Dr. R. Tait McKenzie, Dr. Fred Eugene Leonard, Dr. George Meylan, and Dr. Edward M. Hartwell came first as students and later as instructors. In addition to lecturers and instructors, in charge of the theory and practice courses respectively, Dr. Sargent used student assistants to help with course work in return for free tuition. This plan induced many expert performers to enroll as students to acquire the prestige attached to the Harvard Summer School (Van Wyck, 1942, passim).

Administration

After the first year of operation, all the Harvard summer schools were

placed under the supervision of a faculty committee (Willoughby, 1894, p. 954). This action may have been inspired by the great financial success of the first physical education session. As Sargent wrote to a former student, "Since you were here the University has taken the course under its sheltering wing and I am not quite as free as I once was. You see it appreciates a good thing" (Letter to Mr. Bell, 1889).

As a result of this new arrangement, Sargent was given a salary of $1,000 for the summer and his department was placed on a budget (Letter to Eliot, 1896). The physical training department generally showed a healthy surplus that was applied to the other expenses of the summer school. Sargent, therefore, vigorously objected to President Eliot when he received a check for $810 in 1895 and $837 in 1896 because he had exceeded his appropriation by that amount which was then deducted from his salary (Letter to Eliot, 1896). Sargent claimed that he was never told what his appropriation was, and that for 1895 at least the receipts for physical training exceeded expenses (Letter to Shaler, 1895). Eliot approved payment of the balance in 1895 and presumably the matter was settled to everybody's satisfaction the following year.

Up to 1900 enrollment at the summer school of physical education varied from 45 in 1888 to 124 in 1897. From 1900 on, registration never dropped below 111 and climbed to over 200 from 1912 to 1916. The war years of 1917 and 1918 caused a drop to 190 and 179, but 200 pupils attended Dr. Sargent's last summer in 1919 (VanWyck, 1942, p. 426). The school operated until 1932 when it was discontinued.

While it is comparatively easy to consult catalogs concerning the summer school and to gather statistics, it is more difficult to catch the spirit of student life. The idea of men and women exercising together by no means met with popular approval, particularly when the women wore the rather daring divided skirts, as advocated by Dr. Sargent. In reply to a question on this subject, Sargent wrote:

> The men and women exercise together at the Hemenway gymnasium, in the summer, and it is gratifying to see how freely they mingle together in their gymnastic costumes, with apparently no thought of anything but their work. I can see no reason why any ladies cannot admit gentlemen wishing to take the same exercises, if their costumes are proper to wear in view of each other, though they might sometimes object to certain individuals (Letter to Sanborn, 1890).

Most of the students worked hard and found that good grades did not come easily. Dr. Sargent set rigid standards for his pupils, and in the history of the summer school only one student received a certificate with the special

inscription for excellent work, "With honors in theory and practice" (VanWyck, 1942, p. 419). Coincident with the four-year graded program in 1902, Dr. Sargent introduced a complicated credit point system. Each subject was given a certain number of points toward a diploma, based on its estimated relative importance in a liberal course of study (Editorial Note, 1904, pp. 217-18). The results proved thoroughly unsatisfactory to *the* students who never knew their exact status in relation to graduation. Through the efforts of some of the staff members with Dr. Sargent, a new system was organized in 1906 with specific course requirements for graduation (VanWyck, 1942, pp. 415-16). The school day often lasted eight hours with additional study necessary in the evening.

Yet more important than the actual work accomplished was the free mingling and association of the pupils with their diverse backgrounds and experiences. Here was one place where exponents of the Swedish system could meet on equal grounds with the German gymnasts, or the football coach could talk sensibly and calmly with an Indian club specialist. Each learned to appreciate the value of *the* other's views under Dr. Sargent's broad philosophy, and the Harvard Summer School was of inestimable service in easing the bitterness engendered by "the battle of the systems" which split the physical education profession near the end of the nineteenth century. Every student of a worthwhile, sound system of physical training was assured a respectful and friendly, though critical, audience at the Harvard Summer School. Friendships were made and renewed each year and a professional camaraderie was encouraged.

Dr. Sargent soon realized the need of some type of recreational program for the students who worked hard during the year and then gave up a summer of leisure and rest to attend school. A reception and an exhibition were given at the end of each summer session and, about 1900, dances, organized by Dr. George L. Meylan, were held for the physical training students. These affairs drew envious appeals from other summer session students to the faculty committee for similar functions for themselves (Interview with Meyland, 1947). The entire school also went to the beach for an afternoon of recreation and fun that provided Dudley Sargent with one of his few moments of relaxation.

Problems of Summer Schools

The success of the Harvard Summer School was not inevitable. Many problems had to be solved, much hard work had to be done, and considerable foresight was necessary to establish its reputation. Springfield College started a summer session in physical training in 1887, the same year as the Harvard School, but it lasted only five years (Willoughby, 1894, p. 920). In 1904, Yale began a summer school of physical education that expired four years later (Yale catalogs, 1904 to 1908). These examples illustrate that the success of a summer school was not automatic. The Harvard School showed

a decline in attendance for a couple of years after 1905 that Sargent attributed to the following reasons:

1. Growth and development of similar courses in other universities.

2. Increasing attractions offered by summer camps.

3. Competition of other schools not only for pupils but also for instructors trained in the Harvard Summer School.

4. The current belief, having full value at other institutions, that the so-called "Sargent System" is not approved or adopted by either Harvard or Radcliffe authorities.

5. The discouragement if not actual prohibition of students from Radcliffe and Boston Normal School of Gymnastics from attending.

6. The Director is not a member of the Harvard Faculty (Sargent manuscripts, 1907).

The first three reasons were doubtless significant in influencing summer school attendance at Harvard. The last three were of lesser importance and probably more the personal grievances of Dr. Sargent than potent forces in the registration decline. Another cause, not mentioned here by Sargent, may have been the unpopular credit point system in effect from 1902 to 1905. However, whatever the effect of these factors, it was merely temporary, and 1908 marked the beginning of a steady upward surge in enrollment.

Influence

The Chautauqua Summer School of Physical Education, conducted by Dr. William G. Anderson and Dr. Jay Seaver, was by far the largest of all the summer schools and at times had nearly a thousand students (Morris, 1892, p. 367). The excellent work of the Chautauqua School in popularizing physical education cannot be discounted or overlooked, and in all fairness deserves recognition with the Harvard Summer School. However, the smaller size of the Harvard School was somewhat offset by the fact that approximately 75 per cent of the students were regularly employed teachers and in an excellent position, therefore, to promote the teachings of the school and put them into practice.

In the first twenty-five years, 170 college instructors and directors attended in addition to numerous high school, elementary, and private school principals and teachers from all over the country as well as Canada, Cuba, Japan, England, France, and China (Contributions of the Hemenway Gymnasium, 1913, i-xvi). One is impressed by the large number of leaders in

college athletics and physical education who have attended the Harvard Summer School. Dr. Sargent, who was a vigorous opponent of athletic evils, was encouraged by the influence of his summer school pupils in teaching athletics with regard for fair play and the rights of others and in interesting large numbers of youths in sports for sport's sake (Sargent manuscript, 1907).

Van Wyck, who served as secretary to the school for many years, has appropriately expressed the broad value of the Harvard Summer School in the concluding sentence of his excellent history of the school:

> During its life of more than three hundred years, Harvard University has rendered many services of great value to the community—not least in the list of these services is the contribution which was made to the physical welfare of the American people by the Harvard Summer School of Physical Education (VanWyck, 1942, p. 426).

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CHAPTER 11

A BRIEF CHRONICLE OF SPORT AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY FOR WOMEN

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Editor's Note: Chapter 11 is a brief historical summary of one of some fifteen "persistent problems" which have been identified over a period of twenty years by Professor Zeigler. It is hoped that this identification will not cause the Editor to be identified as a "male chauvinist"; in fact, just the opposite may be the case. The extent to which women achieve equality in this or other societies will undoubtedly have an influence on programs of physical education and sport. This paper was presented at the Second Canadian Symposium on History of Sport and Physical Education, University of Windsor, Ontario, May 3, 1972. The writer considers the question of sport and physical activity for women as one of some fifteen persistent (recurring) historical problems that are deserving of further investigation. This exploratory chronicle obviously just "scratches the surface." Others are encouraged to study and report on various aspects of this topic in much greater depth.

The great Aristotle believed that women had been fitted by nature for subjection to the male of the species because they had no ability for self-direction. Generally speaking, he felt that they were weaker, less courageous, and incomplete. Plato held a different view; he believed that women should have all types of education similar to the pattern he prescribed for men, including even the highest type of liberal education and preparation for warfare. (14)

Certainly one of the significant social trends of the twentieth century has been woman's "emancipation." In past societies it had been erroneously concluded that women simply did not possess the intellectual capacity to profit from the higher types of education. Hence, girls and women were typically given no intellectual function. On the whole, their duty has been to bear and rear children and manage the home. This concept has certainly changed for a percentage of women in the United States, Canada, and elsewhere. Equalitarianism has been fostered through such influences as the Industrial Revolution, the various wars, and through more democratic theories of state. Women's physical education and sport has been hampered not only by the place of physical education in a particular society, but also by *the* place that women held in any society under consideration–and to a considerable extent by the ideas that men and women had about the limitations of women because of their anatomical structure. (17,44)

Early Historical Background

In primitive and pre-literate societies, education took place largely in the home where the mother nurtured the young boys and girls until a division of labor took place. At this time the mother began the education of the girl in household arts, and the father started the boy on preparation for manhood. The boy's training was designed to test his strength, endurance, skill, and courage. That which might be called drudgery was assigned to the females in the large majority of societies, although there is evidence that women and young girls took part in minor amusements and played whenever possible

.

In early civilizations before the time of the Cretans and Spartans, there are evidences that girls and women engaged in various physical activities and games. In the Egyptian Civilization, for example, there is pictorial proof that women took part in simple ball games, swimming, archery and dancing. Dancing was not considered proper for members of the upper class, although certain priestesses evidently performed religious dances. With the common people, however, dancing was practiced regularly, and there were numerous professional women dancers. (21, 43, 45, 49, 70, 73, 81)

***China*. Aside from simple childhood games and the popularity of dancing, the large majority of people in ancient China got their exercise from various types of physical labor. Time for recreation was extremely rare. The emphasis on intellectual training was such that physical training was deprecated. A few girls whose families had means were educated, but physical activity was not a part of such training. There were a few exceptions, but these were rarities indeed. A simple, yet devastating maneuver like binding the feet kept women quite weak and useless for anything save household and decorative purpose. (12, 13, 73, 81)**

***India*., Although ancient India had a great many health problems, history indicates that there was considerable concern for health prior to foreign rule in the tenth century (A. D.), and that a number of sports and games were practiced. Accompanying the decline in physical activities and physical culture were the restrictions laid down by Buddha himself against the popular pastimes of the day. There was often a military class which had to keep fit for combat. Dancing was popular, but then fell into disrepute except for members of the lower classes and professional dancing girls. Generally speaking, there was a complete rejection of bodily activity for women (who were kept in an inferior social position. (61, 70, 73, 81)**

***Iran and Israel*. In early Iranian society there is no mention of physical education for women whatsoever, but in Hebrew Civilization the situation was somewhat different. Women appear to have occupied an important place, especially in early times. Dancing was often involved in religious**

worship, but subsequently continued only as a form of recreation and for various secular celebrations. There was a certain amount of physical labor for women in connection with the routine chores of the camps, or perhaps with the flocks in the fields or in vine culture on the hillsides. Particular health habits and recreational pursuits were considered desirable, *the* latter especially on the Sabbath. As social life increased, the women were confined more to the home. They were not expected to possess intellectual acumen. Many did involve themselves in simple games, music, and dancing.(42, 70, 81)

Crete. **The Cretan civilization preceded that of the Greeks and extended roughly for a period of several thousand years on the island of Crete and at other points in the Mediterranean Sea. It was evidently the first society in which women assumed a relatively important role. Even their deity was a Mother Goddess, and there appears to have been more equal status in marriage between the sexes. They did other things like hunting, driving chariots, and even bull-grappling –a most dangerous sport. There is evidence further that they attended various celebrations and religious festivals. Because of the proximity of the sea, they were active in boating and undoubtedly knew how to swim.** (21, 81)

Classical Civilization

Greece. **In the city-state of Sparta, presumably the most warlike of the various Greek city-states, the educational system was carefully designed to fulfill the avowed goal of military supremacy. Women received unusual attention, since it was felt that it was necessary for them to produce rugged children to be future warriors. They took part in many of the activities of the boys and young men and developed a concept of good health and their place in life. They wrestled, ran, played ball, threw the javelin, swam, and rode horseback. Some even won Olympic victories. Typically, they continued public exercises until marriage and were probably on the average the finest physical specimens that the world has seen to date. There is some disagreement as to whether this training fully accomplished its purpose. It is quite natural that the Athenians would ridicule these women because of the different standard held for women by them. There is evidence, however, that *the* dancing of *the* young Spartan maidens was graceful, and that their mien was appropriate to that typically expected of a woman.** (22, 42, 45)

Contrasting Cultures. **There were sharp contrasts between the Spartan and Athenian cultures; yet, the ideal of service on behalf of the state characterized Athenian life as well. The Athenians, however, did gradually develop a concept of education that envisioned harmony of development of all the aspects of man - physical, mental, moral, and aesthetic. They fostered, as perhaps never before, an ideal of liberal education for freemen that has been admired down through the centuries. And yet we find that women had virtually no part (immediately visible to the historian's eye) in**

the achievements of this civilization save for the function of child-bearing and care of the home. Subsequently, women achieved greater status as teachers of their children, but the boys were taken away from them when ready for the palaestrae. Lower class women did have opportunity to become entertainers in such occupations as dancing, juggling, and the playing of various instruments. Properly modest Athenian women played games as children; learned household arts as young ladies; at times learned to read and write; married early; and were rarely heard of thereafter. (11)

***Roman Culture*. The status of women in Roman culture was very low initially, but changed considerably during the time of the Empire. In early Roman education the average woman was definitely considered inferior, and had little to say about her place in Life. Her education came to an abrupt end when she married. Despite these limitations, her station is generally considered to be somewhat higher than her counterpart in Greece. She did learn how to read, write, and cipher and was responsible for the early education of her children. Presumably, she took part in childhood games and, in some cases, learned how to swim.**

In the later days of the Empire, women achieved a greater amount of independence including social and moral equality, as well as *the* opportunity to gain divorces from their husband and to own property. A developing laxity in morals took place, and adultery was much more common. Many women distinguished themselves in a variety of ways, however, and were trained in the various professions. Their pattern of education changed also, although there is doubt whether coeducation ever existed. Dancing, music, and literature were included, and then were banned later under the influence of Christian asceticism. (8)

The Romans never caught the Greek spirit of the total education of man, although they exercised for health and took part in a number of different sports, especially ball playing. Women went to the public baths, took part in the simple forms of ball playing, and watched the spectacles, but typically were not very active physically. The exercises of the gymnasium were simply not considered proper for women except in rare instances when such activity was tried and summarily rejected. (81)

The Middle Ages

The Middle Ages was a time when physical education sank to its lowest ebb except for the training of knights in the feudal period, and its appearance in some of the humanistic schools of the Renaissance Era. The Church gave very strong opposition to athletic and recreational excess during this time, and there developed a growing concept that the body was evil and its demands should be suppressed. The Romans in their final days so debased sports and games that such subsequent opposition was quite understandable. There were some exceptions to this belief, but they were

rare indeed. There is very little, if any, mention made of women during the "Dark Ages. " During the feudal period, girls received training in the courtly graces in schools conducted at the various castles. There were the usual children's games that persisted throughout history. During the transitional period, known as the Renaissance, the care and development of the body received greater emphasis. There is no evidence that *the* conception of all-round development was generally recognized, however, and this certainly held true in the education of girls and young ladies. The individual humanism of the early Renaissance gave promise for physical education, but a growing spirit of intellectualism cut short this hopeful development. In the lands where the Protestant Reformation took hold, study of the classics was combined with that of Biblical literature with the result that the educational aim was somewhat more social than individual. These so-called social humanists promoted a much narrower concept of education and copied Greek and Roman classic writers slavishly. With this approach, there was little room in the curriculum for physical education, music, or art. (12, 13, 20)

Early Modern History

During the 16th and 17th centuries there were a number of educators who rebelled against the formalism present in education at that time. These educators, known as Realists, have since been divided into three categories:

(1) the verbal realists who desired a strong body for the help that it could give the mind as it strove for religious piety;
(2) the social realists, who conceived of physical education as an important part of education for an integrated personality; and
(3) the sense realists, who desired physical fitness for its contribution to sound health and as a basis for intellectual attainment. (73)

Very little attention appears to have been given to education for girls during this era. Fénelon, Archbishop of Cambrai, provided some stimulus for the education of women by presenting his theories on the subject, but his main contribution appears to be in the direction of liberalizing educational method. Juan Luis Vives, a Spanish scholar, omitted such subjects as music, dancing, and drawing in his proposed curriculum, while including training in Latin and the vernacular, religion and moral conduct, and household and child management. John Locke, whose greatest contribution was made in the latter half of the seventeenth century, was greatly concerned with character development, as well as health and physical fitness as a necessary base. He stressed the need for recreational activity as well, mainly because of the refreshment from toil that it provided. His recommendations were made for boys and young men primarily. (12)

Eighteenth Century Europe

The eighteenth century is generally regarded as a transitional period

insofar as political, social, religious, and educational ideals are concerned. It might be designated as a reactionary period in education, especially in the first fifty years. Formal discipline in education developed as a reaction against the realistic theories. The tendency toward universal education was retarded to a considerable degree, since rationalism became an important goal in education. The greatest influence on education in this century came in the latter half through the influence of Jean Jacques Rousseau. (24) **He was the exponent of naturalism in education - an educational idea which represented a revolt against the corrupting influence of society and the absolute (dogmatic) authorities of the state and church respectively. His doctrine of naturalism gave unusually strong emphasis to the place of health and physical education in the child's education, because he evidently realized the interrelatedness or unity of the mind and body. But unfortunately for the women of his time, he did not appreciate the possibility that a woman might possess an individuality of her own. He felt that woman was destined to be a supplement to man. Hence, she should be strong physically for the result that this might have on her offspring. She should also receive sound moral instruction, as this would get her children off to the right start in life. Furthermore, her education should include such skills as singing, dancing, and a variety of household abilities, since the possession of these talents would make life more comfortable and enjoyable for her husband.**

***The Influence of Nationalism*. The influence of nationalism on education in both Europe and the United States in the nineteenth century was very strong, as it helped to bring about state-controlled and state-supported public school systems. In any national school system, physical training designed to maintain and improve the fitness of the populace will invariably find an important place, and this will usually include girls and women as well as boys and men. Thus, we find that various systems of universal, free, and compulsory education developed throughout the Western World to a greater or lesser extent. This secular and civic education typically included citizenship, physical fitness, and vocational training.** (12)

New Ideas in Elementary Education. Concurrent with the development of nationalism in education, another change was gradually taking place in connection with the actual educational process itself. Many concerned individuals began to realize that education should involve a type of control of the child's development according to certain psychological principles resulting from the interaction of the individual and his environment. The results of these new ideas were felt primarily only in the elementary school during this century, and subsequently extended to some degree to the other levels. (13)

Early Women's Physical Education in the United States

During the so-called "provincial period" following the "colonial

period" in American education, educational practices for girls and women began to change. This change in practice was true in the matter of exercise as well, which had previously been characterized by formalism. The boys and men of the early 1800's were following a German pattern as prescribed by Beck, Follen, and Lieber, but there was some variation in the exercise patterns prescribed for girls. (12, 25, 31, 64, 80)

Typically, girls were considered to be quite frail, and it was believed by many that calisthenics were much too strenuous. A new type of wand driUs known as Indian Scepter exercises was quite popular for a time. Another trend was the introduction of apparati to improve posture and develop strength. Women of this period, according to fashion, were expected to have small waists and weak backs. It was significant to note that - for the first time - walking, riding, croquet, swimming, skating, and archery were being recommended as desirable activities for women.

***Other Developments*. Around the middle of the nineteenth century, the Turners were promoting German gymnastics as the best program for the schools. At this time, also, George Barker Winship was declaiming that strength and health were synonymous. Furthermore, some colleges became concerned with the health habits and practices of their students. Then along came Dio Lewis with his "system" of light exercises designed for adult women, as well as for the young and the old.** (26, 36, 37, 69)

***Post Civil War Period*. After the Civil War, the exercises devised by Lewis, and those proposed earlier by Catherine Beecher, continued to meet stiff opposition from German gymnastics, Swedish gymnastics, and new patterns being devised by Hitchcock, Sargent, and others.** (9) **Interest in athletic participation in various sports and games arose simultaneously. Greater freedom in activity (and dress!) was gradually accepted, although such "freedom" was actually very limited in scope by the standards of today. In dancing there were changes as well away from the so-called "fancy steps" consisting of stylized movements with very little bodily action to a more classic form of dance which involved all parts of the body. In early health education, the emphasis had been on the unsatisfactory environmental conditions in the schools. During this post-war period, the concern was increasingly related to the harmful influence of bacteria, along with physiology of the body (including the harmful influence of alcohol and narcotics on the body).** (35, 58, 71)

Early Twentieth Century

At the beginning of the twentieth century, there was still a great deal of opposition toward the idea of women taking part in interscholastic athletics, but the re commendations of women's organizations in favor of intramural sports did not discourage the women basketball enthusiasts. The first standardized rules guide was published on behalf of the American Physical

Education Association in 1901. It is noteworthy that professional women physical educators made every effort to guard women's athletics from many of the difficulties that the men had encountered. (23, 35, 44, 74)

The "Natural" Movement. Another innovation at this time was the widespread effort to bring dancing into the curriculum. A new conflict developed - the extent to which dancing and athletics should supplant gymnastics in physical education programs. Folk dancing became so popular that many felt it and athletics were receiving undue attention. These trends were part of the growing "natural" movement in physical education, of course, which attempted to relate the field to current American educational theories. This movement undoubtedly had a relationship to the growing interest in play and recreation, as well as to the competitive athletic trend. (6, 7, 17, 60)

There is no question of the tremendous influence that Dewey's philosophy of education had on the natural movement. Wood and Cassidy's *The New Physical Education*, published in 1927, was designed to clarify this approach so that all who were interested might understand what the naturalized program was intended to accomplish. It was based upon a system of motor education to be implemented through "learning while doing." The belief was that it was in agreement with "modern educational theory" and helped the student to realize "concrete goals in activity." The major emphasis was to be on exercise that was more natural, spontaneous, and enjoyable. Education through the medium of the physical was to supersede education of the physical. (15, 27, 35, 79)

1930 to 1940. In 1930 the American Physical Education Association elected Mabel Lee as its first woman president, and in the following year the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation affiliated with the A.P.E.A. In 1940 this group (the Women's Division) merged with the National Section on Women Athletics (A.P.E.A.). This Section, now known as the Division of Girls' and Women's Sports, has exerted a strong, wholesome influence on all aspects of women's sport. The decade from 1930 to 1940 was dominated by the devastating financial depression, which incidentally gave impetus to the concept of education for wholesome use of leisure. Requirements for teachers were upgraded during this period. (10, 34, 35, 74, 76)

World War II

World War H dominated *the* decade from 1940 to 1950 and brought increased emphasis on physical fitness for both boys and girls. The time allotment for physical education was generally increased. The acceptance of women for enlistment in the various branches of the armed forces provided additional incentive for women to stress physical activity. Increased interest was shown in a large variety of individual, dual, and team sports, but

competition for women was still confined almost completely to the intramural program with some emphasis on interscholastic competition in specific geographical areas (e.g., Iowa). Interest in all aspects of the dance continued to grow, with special emphasis on modern, folk, and square dancing. (35, 40, 65)

Women's Aims in Physical Education

Women physical educators have continued to emphasize the need for a broad program of health, physical education, and recreation. Where possible, they have encouraged a program of required physical education for all girls, as well as a remedial program for those who needed it. They have taken the lead in the elementary field, and many have made an effort to implement a concept of "movement education" into our field. They have stressed health education, instruction in carry-over activities, and voluntary recreational participation. Recommendations for improved physical fitness from the national level in the latter half of the 1950's and the early 1960's are undoubtedly having an influence on girls' programs at present. The extent to which the desire for increasing physical fitness has influenced the gradual upswing in the caliber of girls' and women's sports has yet to be determined. (3, 4, 27, 35)

As educators, both men and women physical educators have a responsibility to bring all of the advantages to young people that the total field offers. In this regard, girls and women are no exceptions. They have the right to enjoy an outstanding, well-balanced program of physical education and sport.

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CHAPTER 12

THE EFFECT OF SOME CULTURAL CHANGES UPON THE SPORTS AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION ACTTVTTIES OF AMERICAN WOMEN, 1860-1960

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Editor's Note: Professor Trekell, the Editor's former colleague and personal friend at the University of Illinois, Urbana, has strengthened and extended an earlier study that treated the effect of cultural changes in the United States on sports and physical education activities for American women during the century from 1860 to 1960. This paper represents an amalgamation of a master's thesis completed at The Ohio State University that covered the period from 1860 to 1953. Subsequently a paper was competed extending the analysis to 1960. This paper was presented on March 18, 1965 at the AAHPER Convention in Dallas, Texas.

The 100-year period between 1860 and 1960 was characterized by more social, political and economic upheavals than in any comparable time period in the recorded history of man. The phenomenal advances in scientific knowledge during this era were the all-pervasive factor that precipitated the ever-accelerating rate of change in all aspects of society.

In keeping with this trend, the changing patterns of participation by girls and women in sports and physical education activities during the past century clearly reveal a full cycle of change. Practices evolved from almost no acceptance of or participation in sports and physical education activities to almost complete acceptance to active promotion of participation by women in a wide variety of activities.

Changing habits and attitudes regarding sports participation for women closely parallel progress made by women in other phases of American life—political, educational and economic—advancements which found them emancipated from the narrow bonds of home life. Changing patterns of participation in sports by women can best be understood against the backdrop of the entire women's rights movements of the past century, which clearly reflects the cultural climate of the times.

Only minor gains were made in increased participation in sports and physical education activities for girls and women during the first half of the nineteenth century. The preoccupation with expansion, the long hours of work both on farms and in factories, and the resurgence of religious

opposition to play and recreation inhibited any swift acceptance of the idea of recreation, sports, and physical activities. Major changes in the picture of sports and physical education activities for girls and women slowly began to appear after the close of the Civil War.

Launching of Women's Rights, 1860-1880

If the American belief in the ways of democracy was to survive, progress in solving the problem of equality for women was certain to come. As America began to settle herself after her initial struggle for freedom, she began to see the inconsistency of her treatment of women in light of her democratic ideals.

The effect of the Industrial Revolution upon the place of woman in society was incalculable. For the first time there was an economic reason and a social opportunity for women to leave the home. Until the upheaval caused by the Industrial Revolution, this great natural resource, the female force, remained unreleased, unrecognized, and unappreciated.

This need for women's potential on the labor market had an important contribution to make to the advancement of higher educational opportunities for women. It was believed that some useful social end should be served by this reservoir of potentialities. By 1860 a number of colleges, believing that women were misjudged and neglected, opened their doors to the fairer sex.

Although the Civil War interrupted the organized efforts of women's strivings for equality, wartime conditions allowed women to display their unsuspected talents and abilities. Despite the accomplishments of women during the Civil War, however, their rights were still denied.

The status of women in the social life of the nineteenth century had a definite bearing on recreation:

> Before the Civil War, nice women exercised very infrequently; they work skirts when they ran and to be utterly proper, they didn't run at all. Sometimes a few bold spirits would go ice skating, although a contemporary book of etiquette urged them to hang onto the coat tails of their male partners, thus enjoying aU the pleasure without incurring any of the fatigue of the exercise. (Jensen, 1952, p. 121).

The "social elite" began to approve of activities in which men and women could participate as partners. One of these was roller skating which was introduced in 1863 by James L. Pimpton. New York's social leaders had hoped that roller skating could be restricted to the "finer" class of people, but, before long, rinks were being built for all people. Soon after the elite frowned on roller skating as being a socially acceptable sport for women.

In 1874 another innovation for the emancipation of women from domestic life was the introduction of tennis to the United States by Mary E. Outerbridge. At first, tennis was confined to a few wealthy people in the East, but as times changed more courts were built and many more people participated. Ice skating was another activity in which women could participate without being ridiculed, because it was thought to be socially acceptable for the fairer sex.

Two equally important crazes struck the American people in 1876: Edison's telephone and the bicycle craze. One was bicycling, an activity in which 20,000 people were said to be involved. Men were riding the high two-wheeled bicycles, while the women rode high, three-wheeled tricycles. Bicycling was considered to be on a higher social plane than playing on ball-fields or ice skating in rinks. This outdoor activity proved to be a step towards the emancipation of woman from her usually inactive life.

In the post–Civil War era, physical education programs for girls and women were restricted to activities which society defined as feminine and lady-like. If a member of the fairer sex exerted herself physically, she was then frowned upon by a certain segment of society. Because physical training curricula were dictated by the opinions of society, girls and women participated mainly in bicycling, ice skating, calisthenics, gymnastic exercises, and walking. By 1879 women were slowly progressing in their efforts to gain equal rights. With determination and perseverance, women continued to struggle for those things they believed to be their full democratic prerogatives.

Progress in Women's Activities, 1880-1900

"Women's rights! What more rights do they want? My wife bosses me; our daughters boss us both, and the servant girls bosses the whole family. It's time the men were allowed some rights." *(New York Daily Tribune*, 1883, p. 5). One concludes that this Philadelphia man certainly was bitter, but not so much about women's rights as about women in general. Squire in her book, *The Woman Movement in America*, said, "Surely we women will have small reason ever to be thankful to politicians, statesmen, judges, legislators, or presidents or to men, no matter what they may in the future do for us." (Squire, 1911, p. 244).

The conflicts and feelings of the times were aptly expressed by these two people. Men had begun to feel that they were being dominated by women. Women believed that they were never going to gain their freedom, because men were not willing to accept them on an equal basis. In spite of and because of such feelings, and more doggedly than ever, the women continued their battle for woman suffrage.

Toward the latter part of the 1880s, women were making more progress in their efforts for suffrage. Utah's new constitution included political equality for women. During the period of 1880-1900, Colorado, Idaho, and Kansas followed suit in granting women municipal suffrage.

Women who were working played an important part toward the advancement of woman suffrage. In 1880, 14.5 per cent of the total population of women, sixteen years of age and over, were gainfully employed. Ten years later in 1890, 16.5 per cent were gainfully employed.

By 1900 most colleges and universities had opened their doors to women. In spite of opposition, it was slowly being accepted that girls and women had the right to, and would benefit from, a higher education. Their curricula consisted mainly of teacher training and homemaking. Some people maintained that women were too delicate and could not survive a strenuous college program.

Most physical education activities for girls consisted of various systems of gymnastics and exercises. It was during this time that there was much concern for the health status of girls and women. Care had to be taken to avoid undue strain on the "delicate female"!

Until 1892 colleges had neither introduced nor popularized any sport, but in this year Senda Berenson introduced basketball to the girls of Smith College. Then, in 1899, the first committee on basketball rules for women was organized.

Because of more leisure time and changes of attitudes, greater numbers of people were beginning to participate in recreational and sports activities. Tennis and golf were being enjoyed by the wealthier classes, people who could afford the equipment and money to join the country clubs, that were just coming into existence. In 1887 women first played in a national tennis tournament, but it was not until two years later that the United States Lawn Tennis Association officially recognized women tennis players. The first women's golf tournament was held October 17 and 18, 1894 at Morristown, New Jersey. By 1895 the United States Golf Association had sanctioned golf tournaments for women.

The increased interest in sports and amusement during this period brought with it a broad interest in recreation. Many people felt the need for play. The previous Puritan influence was diminishing. Religion still maintained a vital place in the lives of people, even though participation in many different forms of recreation was generally acceptable.

Fashion designers indeed had a difficult time trying to produce a riding habit for women. *Godey's Lady's Book*, "... advocated a kilted skirt trimmed with fancy brandenburgs, jacket bodice and vest, cloth cap and leggings.

Other arbiters of fashion favored divided skirts and top boots; there were suggestions that even bloomers might be worn without offense to female dignity and modesty." (Dulles, 1940, p. 266).

While the Women's Suffrage Movement was making only a dent in the struggle for equal rights, women were participating in sports and recreational activities in ever-increasing numbers. Women were accompanying men to sporting events. Women and men were active in the outdoor movement of walking, camping, and sailing. Of course, women could only be spectators at such activities as baseball, running, and boxing. Play, as the majority of people saw it, was not to be frowned upon as a worldly pleasure. People considered play to be important, because it contributed to healthy bodies and relaxed minds for both sexes.

Beginning of a New Century, 1900-1920

There was an increasing interest in liberality and a growing belief in equal rights. It was difficult to crystallize the scattered results into solid gains because of the diverse opinions concerning women's right. Congress and state legislatures were against full suffrage, while at the same time various labor unions were supporting women in their struggle to vote. Four Western states had already given women political equality. In spite of the many forces against them, women continued lecturing, distributing literature, working with legislatures and trying to build new interest.

During this era women increasingly entered the labor forces. By 1905 some five million women were at work. Approximately one million of them were working in factories. During World War I, as men left to join the armed forces, women took jobs in munitions plants, railroads, factories, offices, and other places. A few daring women went to France as ambulance drivers and nurses. After the War women lost many of these jobs, but in the interim they had proven that they had many talents and were capable of doing a good work.

Because of the increased number of women in the labor force, several significant events occurred. One was the enactment of a federal law already adopted by most states giving married women the right to collect and control their earnings. They were also to be held responsible for their own actions. In addition, the Federal Government and many boards of education adopted the principle of equal pay for comparable work regardless of sex.

1900 to 1920–What a boom period this must have been for fashion designers because of the changes made in women's clothing. During the war women shed their old armor plates while the skirts climbed from the floor to reveal stockings. "The athletic vogue was growing; some women were putting on more sensible clothes for bicycling and swimming. The 'rainy day' skirt, a daring two inches above the ankle, was hailed as a symbol of the

emancipation of women." (Jensen, 1952, p. 137).

About this time, the motion picture burst upon the scene to leave its indelible imprint upon the modes of American society. According to some, the evil eye of the motion picture camera would lead to a laxity of morals. Even though not everyone approved of the early pictures, women tried to copy hair styles and fashions from the actresses.

Schools and universities were constantly growing. By 1900 there were 500 universities, 175 normal schools, and 6,000 public high schools. The University of Nebraska, one of the 500 universities in the United States, deserves special mention, because it was its Chancellor Canfield, who: was a pioneer in introducing competitive athletics for women. Since no girls could run, let alone bend over in corsets and long skirts, he required a sensible costume for track and gymnasium. Even though men were not present, new girls at first would sink to the floor in shame over their bloomers–but in a week they generally got over it. (Jensen, 1952, p. 129).

In 1901 Spalding published the first basketball guide for women. The game of basketball originated in the late nineteenth century and was soon enjoyed by many girls in colleges and universities. Field hockey for girls and women had a tremendous growing period from the time it was introduced in 1901 by Constance Applebee. After World War I, soccer was beginning to appear as a team game for girls and women.

The acceptance of women in sports was aided in a large measure by Margaret Curtis, May Sutton, and Eleanora Sears. Margaret Curtis, from Boston, was a three-time winner of the Women's Golf Championship. May Sutton was America's first outstanding international tennis player. Eleanora Sears defied all conventional thinking and participated in such varied physical activities as tennis, golf, swimming, rifle shooting, squash, and motorboat and automobile racing. It is now said that she was the prime liberator of women in sports.

Other women were active in the conventional type sports and some expressed a desire to participate in additional activities. In 1912, at *the* sixth Olympic Games in Stockholm, women were invited to compete in swimming and diving. In 1916 women took up the sport of trapshooting.

In the early part of the twentieth century women made definite gains in their struggle for the right to vote. By 1920 women were confident that their desire for suffrage would soon be realized.

Women's Victory, 1920-1940

Final victory in women's long struggle for the right to vote came on August 18, 1920, when Tennessee ratified the 19th amendment and it became

the law of the land. Once they had gained suffrage rights, women turned their sights on participating in local, state, and national political campaigns.

The freedom to pursue their newly found gains was enhanced by technological advances. Between 1920 and 1940 many new conveniences appeared in the home which simplified women's household work. Such appliances as new stoves, laundering facilities, and cleaning equipment gave women time for leisure to take part in activities outside of the home without shirking domestic duties.

By 1920 women had made great strides by being granted political equality, and they were making a noticeable impact on the makeup of the labor force. The 1920 census showed that over eight million women were employed in the United States. By far the largest percentage of the total number of women workers were servants or domestic help, followed by the category of common farm laborers. Teachers formed the third largest group, followed by stenographers, clerks, laundresses, saleswomen, and bookkeepers.

The aforementioned gains by women were reflected in their styles of dress, which became less restricting. Some women during this period began to appear on the streets in pants or slacks; and nationally prominent women such as Marlene Dietrich wore mannish suits, both pants and jackets. Just as controversial as women wearing slacks was the proper attire for women who wanted to go swimming. At the beginning of the 1920's a woman wearing a one-piece bathing suit had to see that the neck of her suit was not too low, or the bottom of the suit too high. If it were suspected of being too brief, a policewoman measured her suit; when the suspicions were verified, the culprit could be arrested for being immoral. This ruling did not prevail for long, because styles and fashions fluctuated rapidly. In the 1930's everyone thought that the swimming suit styles then in mode were as brief as possible! (But we now know what has happened since….)

In the early 1920's schools were still having formal gymnastics, but in the latter part of this decade and the thirties other physical activities appeared in the schools. Many girl's and women's physical education programs included the fundamental skills of running, jumping, throwing, catching, climbing, team games, individual sports, dancing, self-testing activities such as "combatives," stunts and tumbling, formal gymnastics, and swimming. The major stated objective for participation by women in sports and physical activities centered on the benefits that would accrue in terms of health and vitality.

Growth of interest in sports and physical education activities in the twenties received considerable impetus from the dismal picture revealed about the health status of American youth as a result of the medical examinations for the Armed Forces during World War I. It was believed that an organization should be formed to stimulate sports participation in an

effort to cope with this national problem. In order to promote sports and recreation competition the National Amateur Athletic Federation was organized, holding its first meeting, February 21, 1923.

Mrs. Herbert Hoover [first name?] assumed leadership for the girl's and women's section of the Federation. Believing that there were fundamentally different factors underlying the athletics of men and boys and of women and girls, she was the prime instigator in organizing a Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation. This organization, pioneering in establishing standards and policies for women participating in sports and athletic events, did much to promote favorable attitude changes for sports activities for women.

In 1932 the Committee on Women's Athletics of the America Physical Education Association, dedicated to promoting a wholesome athletic program for all girls and women, changed its name to the National Section on Women's Athletics. This organization, now called the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports, carried major responsibility for rules and standards in most sports participated in by girls and women, especially in school and college programs.

Not only were women interested in participating in sports, but some wanted to engage in more highly organized competition. These women received their wish by taking part in the Olympic Games. One of the most outstanding women ever to participate in the Olympics was Mildred ("Babe") (Didrikson) Zaharias. In 1932 she broke four Olympic records. Between 1932 and 1950 the "Babe" was voted female athlete of the year five times.

Other outstanding women athletes flashed upon the American scene. Tennis was advanced by Helen Wills. In 1926 Gertrude Ederle swam the English Channel–the first women to accomplish such a feat–and she was greeted with the traditional ticker tape parade upon her return to New York. America's best woman golfer in the twenties was Glenna Collett, who won six United States National Amateur championships.

Between 1929 and 1937 America was engulfed in the Great Depression. In 1935 President Franklin Roosevelt established the Works Progress Administration to assist the unemployed. The program included building government housing, repairing and building roads and highways, establishing drama and art centers, and many other projects. By the close of 1937 the WPA had allotted ten per cent of its total expenditures for constructing recreation buildings, parks, athletic fields, swimming pools, tennis courts, and golf courses. This interest in establishing facilities to enable people to participate in recreation and sports activities reflected a national appreciation of the social, emotional, and physical values of such pursuits.

Recreation had now become a part of everyday living of the American people, both male and female alike. In fact, it might be said that recreation was a symbol of the American way of life.

Expected Contributions and Acceptance of Women, 1940-1960

During the period 1940-1960, women were gradually playing a more important role in shaping the pattern of government. This trend did not gain momentum until after the World War II. It was stimulated by the important contributions American women made in industry, government, and the armed forces during the war years. Women had been advancing in their social and economic positions before the war, but the need for their services and the quality of their work during the war helped to advance their status.

In 1940, 26 per cent of the women were gainfully employed. By 1960 the number had risen to 35 per cent. (*Highlights*, 1960, p. 3). Generally speaking women had been accepted as an integral part of the total labor force. Women were now entering occupations that once were forbidden to them. It is interesting to note that the average women worker of 1960 was married and 40 years old.

By 1960 most colleges and universities had not only opened their doors to women, but also permitted them to enter any field of study for which they were academically qualified. Even the Harvard Business School, one of the all-mile sanctuaries, admitted women in the graduate Management Training Program. The favorite undergraduate major programs of college women were education, English, home economics, business, commerce, and social studies. (Leopold, 1959, p. 3).

In spite of the continuing question and/or problem concerning the type of education women should receive, more women were graduating from colleges and universities. By 1960 women constituted 34 per cent of the entire higher education enrollment and 41 per cent of the entering class of that year. (*Americana Annual*, 1962, p. 233).

The emphasis on physical fitness, which grew out of a general concern for fitness during World War H, placed new demands on physical education programs. Schools and colleges sought to maintain quality programs of physical education and sports, rather than retreat to formal fitness and exercise programs. Physical education programs for girls stressed activities in which endurance, stamina, and skills could be developed. While lack of facilities precluded all schools offering some of the recreational, "carry over" activities, variety became the key word for high school girls' physical education programs.

Sports activities were not limited to educational institutions. Most city recreation systems had a division of sports activities for girls and women.

They provided an opportunity for girls to participate in such activities as bowling, swimming, basketball, dance, softball, volleyball, tennis, golf, and personalized exercise or fitness programs.

In 1959 more attention was focused on skilled women athletes as they trained for Olympic team membership. The winter Olympics being held in Squaw Valley, California did much to build interest in winter sports activities for men and women.

As more and more women trained for the Olympics, the competition became keener and records were constantly being broken. The greatest runner since Mildred Didrikson Zaharias's time was Wilma Rudolph from Tennessee State University. She won three gold medals in the 1960 Olympic Games held in Rome.

Through television more people were exposed to watching and understanding the Olympic Games. By 1960 people could view the Games in their own living rooms, and watch the skill, grace, strength, and endurance of the many Olympic competitors. Television played an important part in furthering an interest and understanding of competitive sports for both men and women.

Another important development during the post World War II era was the tremendous increase in informal and family-centered sports and fitness-oriented recreation. Increased leisure of workers, more money to spend on recreational activities, and interest in fitness, all from a health and cosmetic point of view, resulted in an emphasis on a variety of different activities. Increased spectator interest in sports, informal participation of women in non-competitive unorganized sports, family recreation togetherness, the popularity of backyard swimming pools, and the beauty or health salon approach to fitness represented important trends bearing on the cultural impact on sports and physical activities for women.

The world-wide symbol of the All-American girl–young, healthy, and beautiful–appeared to be a universal quality associated with women in the United States. American women continued in their efforts to achieve this quality. Television, movies, and magazines appealed to the feministic and vain sense of all women. Many women were evaluating themselves as to slimness, agility, hairstyles, facial appearance, and clothes in relation to television and movie stars, models, or the "top ten" women in the U.S.A..

During the 20-year period from 1940 to 1960, women made definite strides in furthering their role as contributors to local, state, and national affairs, education, the labor force, professional occupations, family living, and society. This general acceptance of women in all walks of life was advanced by the contributions women made during World War H. The growing, more intelligent appreciation of women's potential in our culture

was reflected in both increased numbers of participants and greater variety of recreational and competitive activities acceptable for women.

Conclusion

In the century considered in this historical paper, we have seen complete change in every aspect of the American woman's life. The emancipation of women from 1860 to 1960 was inevitable in light of the rate and nature of the economic growth and the continued striving to fulfill democratic principles. This 100-year period gave rise to the acceptance and recognition of an entirely new role for women in society.

In conjunction with their emancipation, women also found themselves free to participate in a great variety of sports and physical activities. Schools, colleges, and recreational and sports organizations encouraged women to participate fully in physical activities. It was and still is true that the kinds of activities in which women engage are influenced by the standards, values, and attitudes of the contemporary society.

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CHAPTER 13

THE HISTORY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN COLLEGES FOR WOMEN (U.S.A.)

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Editor's Note: Chapter 13 is an essay that was requested from Dr. Dorothy S. Ainsworth, Professor Emeritus and former Director of Physical Education at Smith College. Many years ago Miss Ainsworth's doctoral study was about the history of physical education in colleges for women. Subsequently this material was published by the A. S. Barnes & Company in 1930. Because of her long experience in the field in the United States and all over the world which has brought her both knowledge and wisdom, we were so pleased when Dr. Ainsworth agreed to take time from her still busy schedule to write on this subject.

Early Days of Colleges for Women

Colleges for women in the U.S.A. were first established in *the* second half of the nineteenth century. First was Elmira in 1855, followed by Vassar 1865, Wells 1870, Smith 1875, and Wellesley 1876.1 Prior to this there had been some very excellent seminaries or secondary schools for girls such as Emma Willard in Troy, New York, Mary Lyon in South Hadley, Massachusetts, and a school of Catherine Beecher's in Hartford. All of these ladies for whom the schools were named approved of some form of exercise for their students; so, it was not strange that the next step in the advancement in the education of women to the college level would again make note of the need on the part of the women students for activity. Indeed there was concern and fear that women were entering upon higher education which might be too much for their "delicate constitutions" (then considered a feminine characteristic). Even President Seelye reported at the end of his first year at Smith College that he was happy to say that the young ladies were none the worse for a strenuous year of study and, in fact, he thought that most of them were in better health and spirits than when they arrived.

In a study completed in 1930 (Ainsworth, 1930, p. 30), the growth figures of several colleges for women between 1860 and 1930 were shown, and it is equally interesting to see today the much greater expansion and growth from 1930 to 1960. In the earliest period the person who was in charge of physical education was also the Director of Physical Education, or

Gymnastics, or of the Gymnasium. In some institutions this person was also a Doctor of Medicine, which was natural as the main objective of the Department was the health of the students. The first teachers had been trained by Dio Lewis (1861) or Dr. Sargent (1881 on) for the most part, but Catherine Beecher was equally important because of her book on physiology and exercise. German gymnastics also appeared in the Middle West because of a great many German settlers who came to this country after 1848. They brought with them their *Turnverein* organizations and established branches in many cities and schools in the U.S.A.

Somewhat after this the Swedish system of gymnastics appeared and, after the great meeting in Boston in 1889 which was called by Mrs. August Hemenway where all types of gymnasts were invited to demonstrate their particular work, the Swedish system seemed to have made a great impression and was very thoroughly established in colleges for women. It remained the basic program for the physical education in colleges for women for the next 20 to 30 years.

The Beginnings of the Sport Program in Colleges for Women

At the same time in the "Gay Nineties" sports which were much beloved by the college students began to appear on the campuses. Tennis is mentioned in the early 90s, and the courts consisting of white tapes to mark the lines and, of course, a net stretched across the middle, were to be seen on many campus lawns. No special courts were built at that time. In 1892 Senda Berenson at Smith College heard of the new game of basketball for men invented by Dr. Naismith at Springfield College, and went to see if this could be used by women. She decided that with some modifications it could be and, with Naismith's consent, brought the game to Smith College where it was played amid terrific excitement and with such great success that it quickly spread to other colleges for women. It had been modified to some extent, but it was a very fast game even with the court divided in three parts and nine girls on a team. It was so popular that Miss Berenson had to have the guide of modified rules (that she had prepared) printed to distribute to other colleges for women, and she continued to be the editor of this guide for 20 years (until 1912).

Following this was the introduction of field hockey by Miss Constance Applebee from England, who on a tour of various women's colleges in 1901, established a strong place for this sport on the campuses of the women's colleges. Other sports followed or had been started before this; for example, boating in '76 by Vassar and Wells; baseball and archery at Vassar in '76; tennis at Vassar and Smith in '79; swimming at Goucher in 1889; basketball as mentioned above; bicycling by Wellesley in '94; golf at Wells in '94; fencing at Smith in '95; track at Vassar in '94; lacrosse at Wellesley in 1901; volleyball at Smith in 1907; water polo and cricket at Bryn Mawr in 1907; and in 1919 soccer also at Bryn Mawr. These sports, however, were not as yet included in

the required program, but there was usually some way of reporting that there had been exercise of some form during the week (i.e., there might be so-called exercise cards on which to write the number of hours spent on sports during the week). This was particularly true in the fall and spring. In the winter, gymnastics was required of all, though there were usually three gradations (the advanced group, which the students called "strong gym"; the middle group, designated as the "regular gym"; and corrective gymnastics called "weak gym").

The activities increased greatly from 1890 to 1920. There were as many as eight different activities in the colleges in 1890, while in 1929 there were anywhere from 12 to 25 in the colleges.

The Outing Club movement sprang up in the early 20 s and was a very popular informal activity. A number of colleges actually secured their own outing cabins. The first to have a cabin was Smith in 1922, and this was followed by others at Barnard, Goucher, Mount Holyoke, Wells, and Vassar. These have continued for many years to serve a useful purpose in many colleges throughout the country, although they can no longer rival *the* ski outings.

World War I (1914-1918) affected the program to a certain extent in such ways as having company drills and the winning of efficiency and proficiency points at Radcliffe. Marching was stressed, and there was daily drill for all students at Elmira. Farm and garden work was a part of the Vassar program. But still the serious part, and definitely the required part, was a strong gymnastic program of anywhere from two to three and even four hours a week that was required of all students throughout the winter term from about mid-November to April 1. This was indeed the serious work! The gymnastic meets at the end of the season were very popular, and classes competed against each other to win the highly prized trophy.

During these early years the majority of the teachers of physical education had no academic rank. There were several teachers and a director. This may have been due to the fact that not all members of the department held even a bachelor's degree; they were undoubtedly excellent in their own field of activity, however. Of the ten colleges studied in 1929, it was only after 1928 that all of them required even a bachelor's degree for membership in the college faculty. The directors had the following degrees in 1929: two Ph.Ds; three Master of Arts; four Bachelor of Arts; and two no degrees.

This does not mean that these were not all distinguished women. They were, in fact, leaders in the field of physical education for women, but this listing shows a lack of insistence upon higher degrees for teachers in the field of physical education for women, even in 1929. As for their faculty ranking in the ten colleges, there were two professors, four associate professors, six assistant professors, 24 instructors, and six assistants in the

faculties of the total colleges studied. In the non-academic classification there was one chairman, five directors, one assistant director, and one assistant medical director. To compare this with the years after 1930 (i.e., from 1930–1960), you will find that the great majority of directors or chairmen have the rank of full professor and also a doctoral degree of some sort in education or in some arts or science field. Many in the lower professional ranks also have their doctorate and very few, if any, on the college level are without their master's degree (unless they are in the process of obtaining a higher degree, of course). These instructors not only have the basic scientific theory needed for a teacher of physical education, but often also a specialist's training in the area of the field in which they will teach. The main areas in physical education in which a student will specialize are sports, dance, the study of movement, gymnastics (general or corrective), and perhaps recreation. As each of these divisions in the work of physical education has developed, there has been a tendency for them to branch off into an area of specialty. Even in the sports area there is a tendency to be particularly difficult because there are certain times in the administrative process when all must be brought together and coordinated for the benefit of the administration of the department.

Important Changes Appear in Physical Education Theory and Practice from 1920 on.

The great change in the program of physical education came in the second and third decades of the nineteenth century when the natural program developed. The great center for this was in New York City, where Dr. Jesse Feiring Williams and Dr. Thomas D. Wood sparked the Department of Physical Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and Dr. J. B. Nash was at New York University in the same city. These changes were carried out to many parts of the country by the graduates from these institutions. In both schools a more natural form of exercise was advocated. Williams and Wood rested their theory on the psychology and teaching of G. Stanley Hall, John Dewey, and William Kilpatrick, all great teachers at Columbia in psychology or philosophy of education or sociology of education. Dr. Wood and Dr. Williams applied their ideas to physical education and gradually caused a great change in the program of physical education all over the country. Clark Hetherington was also a great teacher at this time. A book by Rosalind Cassidy and Thomas D. Wood called *The New Physical Education* published in 1927 was extremely interesting and helpful in this new development. This was followed by *Principles of Physical Education* by Dr. Williams in 1927. Both of these volumes and the materials in them made a deep impression on the many students who flocked to New York at this time. Also the works by other great leaders in this new field, J. B. Nash and Hetherington, brought many more people to the belief that physical education should not consist primarily of gymnastics, but of activities which were more natural and useful in everyday life. The new school of thought felt that there were two general objectives:

"(1) the harmonious development of, the interest, capacities and abilities of the individual by means of natural activities during childhood and (2) abundant interest, ideals, and habits for a healthy, useful, and, therefore, happy adult life. The first will lead naturally into the second." (Wood and Cassidy, 1927, p. 65). The new leaders believed that physical education should not aim only at physiological values in a field where the possibility for the development of social, moral, spiritual and intellectual values is unlimited and indispensable (Wood and Cassidy, 1927, p. 30). This same group worked with the same conceptions in the theory of teaching as did others at Columbia Teachers College, and brought physical education much closer to the field of education than it had been before. The general theory was that the command-and-obey theory used in formal gymnastics did not train a child or a person to think, or to contribute anything to his own creativity. These were very exciting days in the early 20s and in the second decade as well, and there were many interesting experiments in teaching. These new ideas gradually caused a great change in physical education programs all over the country.

Changes in Programs at Colleges for Women

At the same time the women's colleges had been developing important programs in sports, but in many cases it was purely the volunteer or elective side of the program for the student. Wellesley and Bryn Mawr began as early as 1906 to 1907 to include sports in the required program, and Barnard later (1918) permitted them as a result of physical efficiency tests initiated by Agnes Wayman (i.e., as a substitute for gymnastics when the physical efficiency tests had been passed). Many other colleges for women accepted this arrangement in the second or third decade of the twentieth century. This change was well established after 1925, though some aspects of gymnastics have remained in the program permanently such as basic motor skills or the study of movement (which has been added as a replacement for the old gymnastics). However, nowhere has a straight exercise program been retained as the one basic part of the program. It is now only a small requirement within a more general one of basic education for sports and technique for the dance. Dr. Gladys Scott of the University of Iowa and others developed scientific tests by means of which students could be classified as to their various skills. These tests permitted exemptions from certain required activities.

Meanwhile the corrective or adapted exercise program was followed in all the colleges for those students who had certain deficiencies or physical handicaps. Through these exercises, the students, where possible, were helped to regain their motor ability and efficiency of movement. Lillian Drew was a pioneer in this area and worked in the Central School of Hygiene and Physical Education at the Y.W. C.A. in New York City which had been founded in 1909 by Miss Helen McKinstry. This school was later moved to Troy, New York and became a part of Russell Sage College. Miss McKinstry

also formed a connection with the Nils Bukh School of Physical Education in Ollerup, Denmark, and was instrumental in sending several groups of teachers from the U.S.A. to this school for some study in Danish gymnastics.

Another form of activity which has interested women in physical education continuously in this country is the study of movement developed earlier in England. This is an adaptation of the Laban method of teaching movement for dance. The principles of Laban were taken by expert teachers of physical education, Ruth Morison of the I. M. Marsh College and Ruth Foster (formerly Her Majesty's Inspector of Physical Education for Girls in England), and very successfully made the adaptation from dance techniques to educational gymnastics. They have helped to spread this new method throughout the colleges for teachers of physical education of England. Miss Morison has also visited very recently in the United States and been most helpful in showing this work to women teachers in this country. Her new book called *A Movement Approach to Educational Gymnastics* (1969) is also most helpful. Dr. Liselott Diem of Cologne, Germany, has also taught her fine work for children to teachers in the the U.S.A. most successfully.

Organizations to Further Physical Education for College Women

As early as 1910, Miss Homans of Wellesley College invited the women directors of physical education in New England to meet at her college. Those directors which came represented Wellesley, Mount Holyoke, Colby, Bates, Smith and Radcliffe. The purpose of the meeting was to discover the status of physical training in New England colleges for women. As a result of this session they formed an organization of directors of physical training in women's colleges of New England. In 1915, they met at Wellesley with 16 directors present and one lady came from as far South as Randolph-Macon College, Lynchburg, Virginia. A stand was taken against sending U.S. women to compete in the Paris Olympics, and in 1930 they voted against intercollegiate athletics for women. They endorsed the women's division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation (NAAF) and adopted a platform for the purpose of developing the play attitude in athletics rather than the highly competitive attitude which makes records its goal. The Eastern Society also discussed affiliation with the mid-Western and Western Societies in 1923 (as they had earlier). However, it was in 1923 that a meeting for the formation of a National Association of Directors of Physical Education for Women in Colleges and Universities was held at Wellesley from April 9-11. There were some complications because of different regulations for membership, but basically the group functioned as a whole. Later the name was changed to the National Association of Physical Education for College Women (NAPECW). The actual vote which changed the name of the Eastern group came in 1944 when the name of Directors Association was dropped and replaced by the Eastern Association of Physical Education for College Women. This move admitted staff members to associate membership. Later it was changed to full membership. The East

was slower in doing this than the mid-West and Western groups who had carried out such a change much earlier and enjoyed the help of many younger persons.

In conclusion the NAPECW has developed tremendously and comes into the picture again in connection with other organizations concerned with women and sports. A survey was made by Paulajean Searcy in June 1962 as her thesis for her master's degree at Smith College. She felt that the reason basketball was accepted as a sport suitable for women was due in a large measure to changes in the social climate. Women were continuing to think differently, to behave differently, and their role in American life was rapidly shifting. There was a great suffrage revolution when women won the right to vote, to hold public office, to speak publicly, to obtain an education equal to that of men, and to enter certain heretofore exclusively male professions (Searcy, 1962, pp. 15, 16).

Undesirable practices in basketball competition soon became obvious, however, and these problems were soon apparent in other sports for women. In 1916 Florence A. Somers wrote "it would be wise or practical to have a national body or committee for the purpose of standardizing and controlling athletics for girls and women." (Searcy, 1962, p. 16). In 1917, William Burdick, President of the American Physical Education Association, later AAHPER, appointed a Committee on Women's Athletics largely for the investigation of a full and varied program of activity for girls and women. Elizabeth Burchenal was the Chairman. This committee promptly named a sub-committee at the request of Senda Berenson to take over the task of compiling basketball guides (rules) that had been previously prepared by Miss Berenson's committee. By 1922 similar committees had been appointed for such other sports as hockey, swimming, track and field, and soccer. More were added later. The women were indeed eager to have their own rules rather than using regulations that had been established for men players. This, said Searcy, complemented advances in the social field and in freedom of the press. In 1920, it was an age of youthful gaiety: women bobbed their hair; wore skirts to the knee; publicly smoked and drank; and held many more jobs. Their woolen gymnasium suits were replaced by middies over pleated bloomers at first; later these were replaced by the more narrow, fitted bloomer.

The Women's Athletic Committee formulated resolutions condemning participation by women in the Olympic Games of 1922 and 1926. The NAPECW also worked on good practices of the conduct of sports. The Olympic question brought out much criticism and pointed up the fact that a more influential committee of women's athletics was needed. In 1920, the Women's Athletic Committee became the Women's Athletic Section. This group took part in convention programs of the A.P.E.A. of 1917 and those of every year between 1922 and 1930, thereby gaining recognition and sympathy for its efforts. They also gained a seat on the Association Council and were

called the "Executive Committee of the Women's Athletic Section." In 1923, the National Amateur Athletic Federation was organized and set up definite standards that prevented a disorganized and unofficial growth of intercollegiate sports for women. The women's committee was now a section of the A.P.E.A. and did not approve of the encouragement of intercollegiate sports. They worked conversely to give opportunity for the less-skilled girl to participate in sports. Out of the Women's Athletic Committee, the Women's National Official Rating Committee was developed in 1920. By 1927, there were eight existing official boards which became the Women's National Official Rating Committee and sub-committees.

There was a complete reorganization of the A.P.E.A. in 19301931, and this change affected the structural pattern of the Section on Women's Athletics (NSWA). Mabel Lee was at this time the first woman president of the A.P.E.A. The new constitution gave formal recognition to the National Section on Women's Athletics (NSWA). The Section promoted a wholesome athletic program for all girls and women stating guiding principles and standards for the administrator, leader, official, and player. Also stressed were the publication of rules, the dissemination of accurate information in publications and program, and the stimulation and valuation of research in the field of women's athletics.

The 1930s brought a depression but relatively little effect on the physical education program. In 1938, the N.A.A.D. became a part of the N.S.W.A. after having performed a very fine and arduous task. In 1936, state representatives were appointed. In 1937, the A.P.E. A. also became a department of the National Education Association, and then in 1938 added an "R"—i.e., "Recreation" to its title. In the 1930-1940 decade, the N.S.W.A. printed *Standards in Athletics for Girls and Women*, a very influential statement.

With World War II there was more freedom for women who were entering another era and an intensification of the fitness program for everyone. The Office of Education published a manual called *Fitness Through Education*. Possibly the best effort of the war years was the encouragement of intercollegiate sports, but they worked together also to give opportunity for the less-skilled girls to participate in sports. This subsequently led to a further development of intramural and intercollegiate sports.

The work of the National Section on Women's Athletics expanded to such an extent that it was made a Division in 1958, and one of its functions was the further development not only of "sports for all," but also of intercollegiate sports. The D.G.W.S. has since become instrumental in the establishment of national tournaments for six different sports. These are to be held in different parts of the country and on alternate years. The program for the Division has become extremely complex, and there have been a

number of important conferences for the development of sports for women. Many college teachers have benefited from these meetings.

The latest statement concerns the scheduling of national tournaments for 1969-1970 and a 1970-1971 (Beauman, Mary, D.*G.W.S. Spring Newsletter*, May 1969, p. 4). This is a new feature of sports for women, and may not affect the fine general program of physical education in the different colleges for women (but it is a possibility!). The girls who would be most affected by this might be those on the Athletic Association Board, who have given their services so long and faithfully for the promotion of physical education for the total college group. It is hoped that the new plans will stimulate their interests and their work in relation to the departments of physical education in colleges for women. Without their services and their great contribution of interest, energy, and enthusiasm, in the past, large general programs for physical education for all girls would have fared much less well than they have done. With their help, the program has been a joy and a great satisfaction to the teachers of physical education in colleges for women. The benefits to sports for women through the work of Florence Somers and Helen Hazelton and the various committees throughout these years cannot be overestimated. They have given their thought and wisdom to the careful development of sports for college women. Rachel Bryant, as Consultant for Women's Sports at AAHPE, should also be given great praise for her careful, intelligent, and continuous work with this Committee.

As sports experiences for women were expanding, interest in dance was developing along new paths and bringing much more emphasis in this area as well. The change in the educational theory in the second and third decades of the twentieth century affected the dance in various parts of the country. In the colleges for women there had been a form of dance and folk dancing for many years. From about 1900 to 1910, this was influenced by the work of Gilbert and also Chalif and other modified ballet techniques. These dance forms were taught at summer schools for teachers and in studios, and this type of dance was known as "Aesthetic Dance." It was definitely modified ballet technique, and was a part of most requirements in physical education in many colleges from the early 1900s on. There was also some work under special rhythmic instructors (e.g., Dalcroze and Delsarte), but from 1910 to 1920 the new philosophy of "teaching the whole child" as proclaimed at Columbia Teachers College and New York University favored the dance as never before and thus it was given a more important place.

At Columbia Teachers College Gertrude Colby worked on natural movement and self-expression. She had worked with Dalcroze and Delsarte, but it was from Isadora Duncan that she found her insight into the development of "Natural Dance." She had also worked with Alys Bentley. In 1915, Marjorie H'Doubler came to New York City and devoted much of her efforts to educational dance. She, too, studied with Alys Bentley who was teaching music through movement. In 1917, Miss H'Doubler returned to the

University of Wisconsin and started her dance program through which she relied on music for motivation. She was concerned in developing the body as an instrument of expression. She developed a basic teaching program that it was possible to understand, use, and thoroughly enjoy. It was adaptable and adapted to different personalities. She trained many teachers of dance at the University of Wisconsin, who were in great demand and spread out through the country.

In 1920 to 1930 the natural movement in physical education advanced rapidly. Sports, swimming, and dance were replacing the former gymnastics. This new educational environment favored the growth of dance, and in 1926 a dance major for the preparation of teachers was introduced both by Miss Colby at Teachers College and Miss H'Doubler at Wisconsin. During the 1920's dance clubs or dance groups sprang up all over the country in colleges for women, and in universities and co-educational colleges as well. The May Day pageant became the climax of the dance year.

Meanwhile the professional dancers such as Martha Graham, Doris Humphrey, and Charles Weidman were revolting against the established professional dance. In 1923, Graham left Denishawn, and in 1928 Humphrey and Weidman also followed. Their purpose was to explore dance as a medium of expression as well as introduce new forms of movement. They began the modern dance. Graham sought to center and integrate movement within the body space of action and used percussive movement for this approach. Weidman invented new forms of dance for men. Thus, they all began to create new forms of dance and evolved principles of movement and techniques. In 1931, Hanya Holm came to the United States. She had worked with Mary Wigman in Germany and, in her "automatically sound technique and sensitive use of space," she was a fourth exponent of modern dance (Hawkins, 1954, p. 12).

In the colleges, Mary O'Donnell of Columbia Teacher College and Martha Hill at New York University were important links between professional dance and educational dance. In 1932 Agnes Wayman of Barnard arranged a dance symposium for the exploration of the new methods. Vassar, Wellesley, Smith, New York City, and Barnard were all represented, and Oscar Becque and Mary Wigman participated.

Between 1934 and 1941, there was a Bennington Summer School of Dance bringing a special program to the teachers of dance in the colleges. Also, in 1935 Humphrey and Weidman took their newly formed dance group to many colleges and universities. The success of these tours was largely due to the college audiences. By 1938 practically every major dance company had completed a continental tour of the United States, and often there were some dance lessons given as well as performances. There were also Christmas classes in New York, summer schools at Mills College, the University of Colorado, and at the Perry Mansfield Camp.

A powerful influence on the dance was the AAHPER Dance Section that sponsored district and national meetings. Leading artists participated in these both as speakers and in performances. There were some pre-convention sessions for this purpose.

Between 1940 and 1950 professional dance had reached a point where they no longer needed to look to education and their students as a major source of true understanding. They were eager to settle down in New York City and concentrate on concert dance. Dance educators had succeeded in establishing modern dance in these colleges and as part of the college program. Up to this point, college teachers in general (after the very early teachers) had thought of dance in terms of professional dance. In the early 1940s, however, they gave thought to dance in relation to general educational goals rather than purely concert work. Several people had written on this subject and brought out the idea that the development of the student as a total personality was of primary importance (Deane, February 1940, *JOHPER*, p. xi, 81). Even H'Doubler in 1945 declared that educational dance is a process not an end in itself, and its aim is indeed the integration of personality (Hawkins, 1954, p. 21). Others expressed this same point of view, but there was disagreement between those with a truly educational view concerning their students and those who thought all that mattered was the teaching of dance.

The general tendency seems to be to have dance develop into a separate part either of the physical education department or the theater or art department, or even to evolve into a completely separate department. All these possibilities are now being explored, and it will take some years before the most effective type of organization and the place of the dance will be found in women's colleges. Dance may move definitely toward the art side of the liberal arts program, or it may continue its very effective work within physical education. In any case, this is a growing and stimulating force in the field of activities, one that offers promise of growth and development.

Conclusions

The place of physical education as a part of the college program for women has not been questioned, but the place of the requirement in physical education has been by both students and faculty. Some colleges have lost their requirement and have had a very satisfactory continuation of volunteer participation in sports, dance, conditioning, and recreational work. Other colleges continue their requirement in physical education with greater freedom of choice of activity and much greater extension of the program as to possibilities of selection. This question of the requirement does not affect the undergraduate major courses nor graduate courses. All work leading to a degree in physical education is credited and leads on to a substructure for advanced degrees in this field. But the general work in the requirement is

another matter. This is a particularly pressing situation, but it is our hope and belief that the "values of," the "training in," and the "interest in" will continue in the programs of today.

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CHAPTER 14

A BRIEF HISTORY OF DANCE IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION

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Editor's Note: A farther "persistent problem" traced historically by the editor is included at this point to lend balance by the inclusion of a discussion of dance as a significant form of human movement dance. This treatment represents a preliminary effort to interest people in the field to the importance of this aspect of the field's professional effort. Young men especially are typically not receiving a movement experience in an activity like dance, and yet not enough is done about it officially(save by the young themselves in the gyrations they have developed informally down through the years. **Sincere appreciation is extended to Professor Esther Pease, The University of Michigan, for her careful and expert criticism of portions of this paper. Any inadequacies in this brief treatment, however, must be attributed to the relative inexperience of the writer in this area.** **(See also *Compilation of Dance Research*, edited by Esther E. Pease, available through the AAHPER in Washington, D. C., 1965.)**

Introduction

The place of dance in physical education and recreation has been a persistent problem throughout history. People have danced for personal pleasure, for religious purposes, for expression of the gamut of emotions, for exercise, for money and for the pleasure of others in all ages. As both an art and a social function, dance will probably always be with us and will reflect the dominant influences of the age in which it is taking place. Consequently, *the* statement that it is possible to distinguish the "pulse beat" of a civilization by an analysis of its dance forms can probably be well substantiated.

As Woody has indicated:

> **There is probably no better example of the survival of primitive practices in modern Life than dancing. What causes this survival, long after certain of the previously assigned reasons for it have ceased to exist? The answer lies in human nature. Insofar as any activity satisfies some original or 'instinctive' demand of man it has, and will continue to have, adequate reason for its existence, though some of its earlier ideological associations and justification may have faded from**

> his mind completely. Such an original satisfier rhythm seems to be. Life is a rhythm; dancing is life, as Havelock Ellis maintains in The Dance of Life . . . (Woody, 1949, pp. 22-23).

In primitive societies, certain types of rhythmic expressions were "instinctive satisfiers" of man. The ancients pleaded to their various spirits and deities through the medium of different types of ritualistic dances. When they fought their enemies, war dances helped them to achieve the necessary frenzy for the battle. If food was needed, other types of dances were employed to guarantee the success of the hunt. If they were victorious in battle, or successful on the hunt, they danced for pleasure and joy. When the vagaries of climate plagued them and their crops were failing, dances they danced in *the* hope that they would bring more rain or more sunshine as the occasion demanded. In addition, when disease and other illness struck, as often happened, they danced to exorcise the "evil spirits" that brought these misfortunes. To these people, therefore, dance was serious in nature and only incidentally served physical fitness, health, and recreation. Thus, we can safely say that the evidence of anthropologists, archaeologists, and historians points strongly to the belief that dance was a strong factor in Paleolithic culture, which was the first recognizable era of human civilization, and carried on its various forms into pre-literate societies.

Early Societies

Egypt. In some of the early societies, there was a tendency to curb the emotions; thus, an element of restraint was often present that gave some forms of dance an aesthetic quality, perhaps for the first time. When an element of drama was introduced, dance rose to the status of an art form and was accorded greater esteem by the more cultured people in that society. In Egypt, for example, dance developed both as an art and as a profession. A religious caste was established which consisted of dancers and singers who were affiliated with particular shrines. Egyptian professional dancing, contrary to popular opinion, was extremely flexible and acrobatic in nature. This class consisted of both men and women who danced for the entertainment of the upper classes at celebrations and other festivities. The lower classes took part in the folk dances of their regions.

Hebrew Society. From the Old Testament we learn that dancing was part of the life of the early Hebrews. It was an important feature of the many religious ceremonies and celebrations, along with singing and various type of instrumental music. Such dancing of an informal nature, along with the more stylized folk dances, continued to play a role in Hebrew Life, but the ear Her emphasis on dancing at religious rites evidently waned in later centuries.

China. In ancient Chinese upper-class families, dancing evidently occupied an important place in the education of youth, and particularly the

boys. Many different kinds of dances were developed for various purposes such as worship, war, and the driving-out of evil spirits. These dances seem to have varied somewhat under the different dynasties, but were usually accompanied by music and the recitation of poetry. This development of a written philosophy of dancing was, of course, a distinct advancement over the dances of the primitives. Kings recognized the power and importance of music, dancing, and formal ceremonies in the lives of the people; it has been said that the worth of rulers was often adjudged by the quality of the dance prevalent during their periods of control. Chinese dance is said to have begun more than two thousand years before Christ. However, it should be mentioned for our purpose here that woman seem to have danced much less extensively than men; that their role in life seems to have revolved around decorative and household purposes; and that the seemingly ridiculous custom of foot-binding limited their physical exercise, including participation in the dance, most severely.

India. Ancient Indian dance was very closely associated with religious practices and was evidently held in high favor. This admiration for the expression of "rhythmic energy" continued up into the sixth and fifth centuries before Christ, and dance and music were included in the education of youth. But for various reasons, including more class-consciousness and the fact that it became professionalized, dance soon became an activity that only lower-class individuals took part in. It was difficult to erase its popular appeal, however, and men and women still enjoyed it on many occasions. There were still many temple dancers, and, as so often seemed to have been the case, professional women dancers and musicians were popular for the entertainment of guests at the homes of the wealthy.

Crete. Dancing was very much in evidence in ancient Cretan civilization—a culture that preceded the Greeks by several thousands of years on and around the Island of Crete. Along with music and sport, it played an important role in the religious life of these people. Women achieved a relatively high status in this society and were prominent in religious ceremonies including dance as a form of worship. There were gay, spontaneous folk dances, religious ceremonial dances of a stately nature, lively dances including outstanding tumbling routines, and war dances for various male purposes.

Sparta. Spartan Greek girls and young women were extremely active in their physical exercise, and it is to be expected that they would be involved in dancing as well. This activity is considered to be as strenuous as that for any girl in any society before or since. Dressed in what even today would be considered rather scanty attire, they danced on certain occasions while the young men watched. Dancing and music were regarded as basic to the education of youth, as both had a basic relationship to religion and war. Their national heritage was very important to the Spartans, and many dances related to the ongoing culture were conducted with great dignity.

There were a number of dances, however, which we today would characterize as gymnastic dancing.

Athens. Athenian girls and women led a much different life than their counterparts in Sparta; they were regarded as inferior, and they stayed that way. They did engage in certain types of dance, however, at different stages of their lives. Certainly children of both sexes took part in a variety of informal dances. Dancing and music were also part of the education of young ladies in the more wealthy homes. Many of the slave girls did acquire great facility in the dance, but this type of activity would not have been proper for the Athenian maiden.

It is very interesting to note the extent to which both Spartan and Athenian men took part in the dance in its many forms. There was theatrical dancing, gymnastic dancing, and folk dancing, not to mention dance that was more specifically religious and that which was related directly to war and peace. If anything, it could be said that the Athenians were more dance-conscious than the Spartans. This was because their whole conception of education was pointed toward the harmonious development of all aspects of man's nature— physical, mental, moral, and aesthetic. When the Hellenic Civilization declined, the quality of the dance retrogressed concurrently with the fading idealism in the culture.

Rome. Dancing served a purpose in Roman civilization, but its status was below that given it by the Greeks. In the early days it was associated with religion and war. Later, during the reign of Nero, it was held in high esteem. Thereafter, dance experienced a decline, as it became a matter of tricks, acrobatics, and feats of juggling often performed by slaves to provide entertainment. When this happened, it was naturally considered an unworthy activity for a true Roman. When this attitude developed, it is little wonder that no further progress was made in the art of dance. It still continued as a popular activity for the lower classes, but then waned in popularity with the advent of Christian asceticism. In general it can be said that the Romans saw some purpose for dance in religious festivals, did not understand the role that it had played in Greek Life, and would not have accepted it anyhow because of its Grecian origin.

The Middle Ages

Early Period. During this period dance had very low status probably due to the corruption of dancing in the Roman era. The Christian Church accepted dance at first as a means of liturgical expression, but subsequently banned this form of dance because of its pagan origins. Folk dance did continue in the Middle Ages; in fact, it appeared to be one of the few opportunities that people had for freedom of expression. Typically, the so-called "Dark Ages" of the Middle Ages were characterized by Christian asceticism, and dancing as a natural activity was considered "of the body"

and, therefore, evil.

Renaissance. The Renaissance Period rediscovered initially the grace and dignity of the earlier Classical Civilization. Because of this early emphasis, the place of dance in the culture began to rise again as it developed as an art form. The traditional folk dances were refined by dancing masters who devised various forms of the dance which became socially acceptable. In this period we see the beginning of dance theory, albeit very elementary. During this time men and women danced together at court activities. There were solo dancing routines, dances for couples, and dances for small groups. So-called European court ballet became fashionable, and then declined toward the end of the sixteenth century. During this time professionals performed what was known as pantomimic dance for the enjoyment of the people. At the end of the sixteenth century, also, a closed couple dance known as the volta came into existence, and it was regarded as highly questionable by many; yet, it did have an influence on future dance composition.

Dance in Modern History

Seventeenth Century. In 1661, the National Academy of Music and Dance opened in France, and dance gradually became a real art. Only men appeared in the ballets and wore masks when feminine roles were depicted (women did not take part until 1881). The minuet started as a dance of the peasants and achieved great popularity as it was gradually refined and became a "dance of courtship" in polite society. During this time the English rounds and "longways" dances were engaged in frequently, although they were really not new developments—the circles and files being merely adaptations of basic forms of many earner societies.

Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries. Changing social conditions appear to have caused a decline in the popularity of the minuet toward the end of the eighteenth century. French leadership in the dance was superseded by the many variations of the German waltz in the so-called "Romantic Period" of European history. The whirling Viennese waltz has remained as the classical dance of the latter half of the eighteenth century and only began to wane about 1830 when numerous variations developed. The polka was really the only popular dance that rivaled the waltz in any way.

With the onset of a radically new, revolutionary attitude toward the rights of individuals, dance could not help but be affected and change accordingly. Transitional changes were taking place in the traditional ballet that started on its way toward becoming a theatre art in its own right. Costume changes became increasingly frequent, and scenes depicting contemporary social developments were displayed often. Further reforms in the ballet were characteristic of the nineteenth century, a time in which the

potential ties of the "natural man" were being realized. The Romantic Period saw the birth of the romantic ballet, and a new role for women was envisioned. The ballerina achieved great esteem as a solo performer, and the male dancer found himself in a supporting role for one of the first times in history. By 1850, however, the "golden age" of ballet had passed— at least for the time being.

The United States. To say that the introduction of dance in its various forms into the physical education curriculum in the United States has been an uphill struggle would be to put it mildly. In pioneer life many forms of recreation were viewed suspiciously. Children's dances and folk dancing brought over from the "old country," however, were impossible to suppress and gradually became increasingly popular. As a type of "society life" developed, the parties became gayer and more sophisticated in the eastern cities, and "polite" dancing was generally accepted. The recreational Life of the westward-moving frontier group developed as well, and social dancing, of a folk- and square-dance nature, was increasingly evident despite the warnings of the religious circuit riders.

The nineteenth century was actually a transitional period in attitudes toward play and recreation. The first use of anything resembling dance in physical education came around 1850, when some of the calisthenics recommended were really elementary dance forms. In one of the handbooks published for young ladies, John Locke and others are quoted as being in favor of dancing instruction for children because of the "graceful motion" and "confidence" which it gave. Girls were not, however, supposed to be "brilliant" in their performance of any of the dance figures. Three names may be mentioned for the part that they played in the development of dancing as an integral part of physical education:

(1) Catherine Beecher, who introduced some elementary dance figures into her system of calisthenics;
(2) Francois Delsarte, who actually developed a "couple dance" without calling it that, and whose Eurhythmies became a world-wide movement of aesthetic, systematized rhythmic training; and
(3) Melvin B. Gilbert, who began the era of the so-called aesthetic dance in physical education in the 1890's. His teaching at the famous Harvard Summer School of Physical Education did much to spread its popularity throughout the country.

The Twentieth Century. The twentieth century witnessed a truly remarkable development in the dance. Many would say that the body has been rediscovered as a means of communication through the dance medium. The great Isadora Duncan, who had made a study of Greek culture, introduced a spirit of individualism and freedom with emphasis on a natural form of expression. This development symbolized a revolt against three centuries of more or less formalized ballet technique. Working from the

premise that emotional states are typically expressed through movement, the early natural dance broke away from tradition and attempted to convey the gamut of emotional experiences through bodily movement. The main purpose of this concept was not to create a spectacle as much as it was a desire to communicate and to put self-expression into the dancer's movements—movement in which the performer was free to respond to various emotional states without necessarily being limited to a particular musical form.

Miss Duncan seemed to enter into the spirit of the twentieth century as an era in which the very tempo of civilization was increasing as many false traditions were being swept aside almost overnight. Her work was ably carried on by such outstanding dance teachers as Gertrude Colby, Margaret H'Doubler, Mary P. O'Donnell, Martha Hill, and Martha Graham, to mention only a few. Gertrude Colby saw natural dance as a dance form indigenous to the American culture–a form in which the body is used correctly and which is also based on established psychological laws. It became an art form which could draw on drama, music, color, design, and pantomime for its full fruition. It paved the way for later "modern" dance and, fortunately, served as a means of unifying various somewhat diverse approaches to the teaching of the dance.

In the early years of this present century, Louis Chalif came to New York from Russia and offered a course in dance for teachers. From a background in ballet and a developing interest in aesthetic dance, he applied a certain amount of this influence to the teaching of folk dance in this country. He was an outstanding teacher himself and also an indefatigable enthusiast as evidenced by the short courses he conducted in many centers across the country. Although some questioned the educational soundness of his type of dance instruction, there is no question but that he was a great influence in the establishment of dance in America.

Elizabeth Burchenal is credited with helping to establish folk dance more soundly within the educational system along with Mary Wood Hinman. Another interesting development was the advent of clog dancing and subsequently tap dancing within physical education programs in the United States. The above-mentioned Mary Wood Hinman recognized the worth of this dance form, and accordingly continued to promote it despite a good deal of early criticism about its worth as a dance form within the educational system. This trend in dance was not to be denied, however, and for a period tap dancing was tremendously popular and became known in other countries as an American contribution to the art of dancing. Marjorie Hillas and Anne Schley Duggan have been prominent in applying this dance form to education.

After 1912 a new era of social dancing had begun in the United States which reflected the social attitudes of a vigorous, thriving country. America

broke away from the traditional, standardized European dance forms that had dominated up until this time. This new wave of interest owed much to the influence of Vernon and Irene Castle who popularized the movement. The beginnings of jazz and ragtime soon resulted in a variety of popular dance steps that were doomed to extinction almost before they started. The Turkey Trot, the Bunny Hug, the Charleston, and innumerable other dance crazes (such as The Twist and The Frug, etc. in the 1960's) have superseded each other in fairly rapid succession since the early years of the century, and each has been typically enjoyed by teenagers and young adults. They have been counteracted to a degree by the efforts of professional ballroom dancing instructors, who have made an effort to offer more refined dance steps for public entertainment such as the Tango, the Hesitation, the Waltz, the Fox Trot, the Lambeth Walk, the Rhumba, and others.

Modern Dance. Modern dance grew from natural dance in the late 1920's and made rapid strides in the following decade. Briefly in the 1930s the influence of Mary Wigman and her German modern dance as a further development of earlier expression gymnastics can be noted, but it was fairly soon absorbed by the rapidly growing and expanding American modern dance. A dance section began in the American Physical Education Association in 1932, and various outstanding summer schools of the dance were inaugurated at Bennington College, New York University, Connecticut College for Women (during World War H), and other institutions. As early as 1926, the first major program in dance had begun at the University of Wisconsin under the leadership of Margaret H'Doubler, and many others have started since that time. In 1951, the Juilliard School of Music in New York City organized a dance department, and recognition by this noteworthy institution tends to indicate its recognition as an art form still further.

Despite the advancement of modern dance and its acceptance in modern education as witnessed by the development of dance teacher education programs across the country, there is still much room for progress. A significant body of research knowledge is lacking, although the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation has a research chairman in its Dance Division and has published bibliographies of research in recent years. The Committee on Research in Dance sponsored a Preliminary Conference on Research in Dance at the Greyston Conference Center, Riverdale, New York, NY from May 26-28, 1967. The Proceedings are entitled "Research in Dance: Problems and Possibilities." CORD— the Committee on Research in Dance—is a group established in 1964 on the basis of ideas expressed by some members of the U. S. Office of Education to some dancers who were members of AAHPER, the National Dance Guild, and the Dance Notation Bureau.

Concluding Statement

A certain amount of curriculum standardization for prospective

teachers seems desirable, and an improvement of the interaction between the dance teacher and the professional performer would add further strength to the development. Articulation within the dance curriculum at the various levels within the school system is needed as well. Further analysis must be made of the reasons why modern dance especially, and many of the other dance forms, seem unacceptable to the majority of male physical education teachers on this Continent. Square dancing and social dancing continue to be popular throughout many parts of the country with the masses, and a certain amount of folk dancing remains. Tap dancing is on the wane, and interest in ballet is limited except in certain areas. Most interesting recent developments are the proposed National Academy of Music, Drama, and Dance in Washington, D. C., and the Lincoln Center in New York City. Such activity indicates a rebirth of interest in the arts including dance.

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CHAPTER 15

THEODORE ROOSEVELT'S ROLE IN THE 1905 FOOTBALL CONTROVERSY

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Editor's Note: We are in Professor Lewis' debt for his willingness to share this scholarly effort with the reader. In this essay he explores what has hitherto been a rather hazy incident in most minds - the extent of President Theodore Roosevelt's involvement in the plight of intercollegiate football at the turn of the twentieth century. This study first appeared in the October, 1969 issue of the *Research Quarterly* of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, and is reprinted here with the kind permission of the author and the AAHPER

Abstract

In 1905, intercollegiate football was tremendously popular, but contests were dull and dangerous affairs in which offensive players rushed the ball through massed defenses. Efforts to improve the sport for spectator and participant met with failure because the Intercollegiate Football Rules Committee refused to adopt reform legislation. Although it represented only a few of the large number of colleges participating in the sport, the influence of the Rules Committee was so great that attempts to establish rival legislative bodies were unsuccessful. In 1905, dissident elements again challenged the authority of the Rules Committee but the movement was in jeopardy until President Theodore Roosevelt used his influence to secure for it the necessary recognition.

Introduction

Many college coaches and administrators had long favored changes in the rules that would reform the game of football, but it was not until 1906 that they were able to secure the adoption of necessary legislation. Earlier sectional or individual efforts to modify the sport had failed largely because the Intercollegiate Football Rules Committee opposed changes in the rules. Events during the 1905 football season provided colleges not represented on the Rules Committee with an opportunity to challenge the authority of the existing legislative body. Although the reform movement enjoyed widespread support, its complete success was not assured until the Rules Committee agreed to sit in joint session with representatives of the new group. President Theodore Roosevelt was involved in the controversy, but

the nature and extent of his participation has not been established by previous investigators.

Review of the Literature

The concluding statements of historians regarding President Roosevelt's role in the controversy range from extreme caution to gross exaggeration. Danzig (5:29), Van Dalen, et al. (26:347), Weyand (28:82), Davis (6:11) and Krout (12:246) wrote that the President did nothing more than call a conference of representatives from Harvard, Yale, and Princeton, and suggest to them the desirability of having the objectionable features removed from the game. Other authors have given President Roosevelt credit for issuing an ultimatum that saved the sport. Brubacher and Rudy wrote that President Roosevelt called a White House conference in response to public outrage after the report of a large number of deaths and injuries attributable to football appeared in the *Chicago Tribune* at the conclusion of the 1905 season. The result of this meeting, the authors decided, was the adoption of reform in intercollegiate athletics throughout the country. (3:129) In his history of higher education, Rudolph informed readers that, after viewing a newspaper photograph of a badly mangled football player, the President threatened to abolish the sport unless the colleges reformed it. (22:376) While the studies contain an element of truth in that the President was concerned about the football question, an accurate reconstruction of his involvement must focus upon the primary issue in the controversy.

Statement of *the* Problem

The controversy was composed of many facets, but the most important one was the confrontation between the Rules Committee and the rival legislative body established by the new national group. Such concerns as the spirit of the rules and the adoption of restrictions to place football in proper perspective were only minor concerns of the reform element. Finally, while there was abolitionist sentiment and some administrators actually banned the sport, the threat of football being outlawed was never a serious one. The central issue was authority to draft the rules. Resolution of the dispute came when rival legislative groups agreed to sit in joint session, a decision influenced by the President of the United States, Theodore Roosevelt.

The Intercollegiate Football Rules Committee

In 1905 the sole rules-making body was the Intercollegiate Football Rules Committee. This was an association, with the exception of Chicago's Amos A. Stagg, of representatives from Eastern institutions. The power to regulate its own membership made it a self-perpetuating group and, therefore, a society which was accountable to no one for its decisions or lack of action. While the Rules Committee could not force outside institutions to

abide by the code it adopted, the very nature of intercollegiate competition, especially intersectional contests, compelled the colleges to adhere to a common set of rules. This action was taken even though various members of the group repeatedly stated that they had no desire to legislate for others. * The Committee's most powerful figure was Walter Camp, who, as secretary, directed its activities and virtually decided its membership. Camp, "the father of American football," had formulated most of *the* game's rules and fostered its development, and, as patriarch, he was willing to entertain suggestions for change but refused to adopt them unless the proposed alterations were in agreement with his concept of the game. In 1905 Camp and his fellow committeemen were satisfied with their game (see immediately below):

> **Note: For example, the desirability of a uniform playing code became perfectly clear to members of the Rules Committee in 1895 and to a Middle West group in 1897. A dispute over momentum plays in 1895 forced a split in the membership of the Rules Committee and they adopted a dual code. The resulting situation was so unsatisfactory that they compromised their differences after one season of play. After repeated unsuccessful attempts to secure rules reform through the Rules Committee, institutions in the Middle West appointed their own rules committee in 1897. The code they drafted was never adopted because one of the schools had games scheduled with important Eastern teams. See, also, the Camp papers, Yale University Library, for expressions of this sentiment.**

Until late in the 1905 season those associated with Camp agreed that devotion to the game rather than self-interest motivated him. Although he was the person most responsible for the unequaled success of Yale teams, no one questioned the position he assumed on various legislative matters. His image was one of a perfect gentleman; a man with such ethical standards that he could negotiate and legislate on matters in which Yale was involved without permitting personal consideration to affect his conduct. This regard for Camp had developed over the years because of the manner in which he had settled numerous disputes between schools, instituted successful promotional plans, and thwarted the abolitionists. (6:88-110)

While order and unity prevailed among members of the Rules Committee, there was outside opposition to the body in general and Camp in particular. Coaches in the Middle West had been attempting to secure changes in the rules that would make contests more exciting: games featuring long runs, spectacular plays, and more touchdowns. These professional coaches derived their livelihood from the sport and felt that the open-game they advocated would attract more spectators. (13,2:2). In 1897, when the Rules Committee refused to adopt their suggestions, the Middle Western coaches threatened to formulate their own code. Although the revolt failed to materialize, they continued to exert pressure upon the Rules

Committee. After years of charges and threats, Camp, in an effort to placate the dissenters, agreed to seat a representative from the Middle West group on the Rules Committee, provided they nominate Amos A. Stagg. (See letter from Walter Camp to Julian W. Curtis, December 5, 1905, Camp Correspondence, Yale University Library).

In 1904, Stagg (a former Yale athlete) assumed the role of spokesman on the Rules Committee for all those outside the select group, but coaches recognized the franchise as token and not something that would provide a solution to their problem.

Roosevelt and Football

In dealing with the football question, President Roosevelt was guided by two values: a belief that football was a valuable educational experience for participants and a desire for Harvard teams to be successful. According to President Roosevelt the qualities most essential to success were morality and virility, and these could not be developed unless boys avoided a life of effeminacy and luxury and engaged in the "rough sports which call for pluck, endurance, and physical address." (21:156). Football, he reasoned, was the most valuable of all team sports because it provided each individual with opportunities to test his courage. Harvard football was a special concern of President Roosevelt's. He participated in the formation of an organization founded for the purpose of securing highly qualified coaches. He also frequently sent the team messages of encouragement. (15:V. 3, 653)

The White House Conference and the President's Position

On October 9, 1905, President Roosevelt conducted a conference at which representatives from Harvard, Yale, and Princeton discussed the importance of the spirit of the rules. He called the meeting in response to a request from the Conference of the Masters of Church Schools of New England and the Middle States. Members of the Conference were concerned because their students had adopted dishonest practices employed by college players. (See Letter from Endicott Peabody to Theodore Roosevelt, September 16, 1905, Roosevelt Collection, Letters Received, Vol. 97, Library of Congress.) Camp made public the resolution adopted by the representatives:

> At a meeting with the President of the United States, it was agreed that we consider an honorable obligation exists to carry out in letter and spirit the rules of the game of football relating to roughness, holding, and foul play, and the active coaches of our universities being present with us pledged themselves to so regard it and to do their utmost to carry out that obligation. (27)

The President was extremely pleased with the attitude of the representatives, especially Camp's. "I can not tell you," he wrote, "how pleased I am at the way you have taken hold. Now that the matter is in your hands I am more than content to abide by whatever you do." (Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to Walter Camp, October 11, 1905, Roosevelt Collection, Vol. 151, Letterbook 28, Library of Congress.)

One college president and a coach from the Middle West, among others, asked President Roosevelt to take an uncompromising stand on the reform issue. Some groups and individuals asked him to endorse statements calling for abolition of the sport. In each case, the President made it clear that he was neither reformer nor abolitionist. (For example: Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to William R. Harper, December 4, 1905, Roosevelt Collection, Vol. 151, *Letter-book 29*, Library of Congress and his letter to Henry L. Williams, December 11, 1905, Vol. 152, Letterbook 30.)

He did not alter his position when reports of the Yale-Harvard freshman game revealed that his son, Theodore, Jr., had been injured in the contest. President Charles Eliot of Harvard declared the injury another example of the win-at-any-cost philosophy. He insisted that the repeated rushes at "Ted's" position were planned to weaken the defense at a strategic point and then take advantage of it. (This opinion was expressed in several exchanges between Roosevelt and Eliot . See the Letterbooks and Letters Received, Roosevelt Collection, Library of Congress.)

President Roosevelt, after receiving assurances from Camp, decided that the repeated attacks were a reflection of the respect the Yale team had for "Ted's" playing ability. (15:V. 5, 81 & 82). Although his son was suffering with a broken nose, cuts, and bruises, the President was still certain that Camp was motivated by higher ideals than Yale victories (15:V. 5, 93 & 94). Favorable reports of the Yale-Harvard varsity contest prompted the observation: "It seems to me that this year Harvard, Yale, and Princeton have played absolutely straight and clean games" (Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to Alexander D. Lambert, November 27, 1905, Roosevelt Collection, Vol. 151, *Letterbook 29*, Library of Congress.)

The National Conference

Chancellor Henry B. McCracken of New York University proposed that Harvard's President Charles Eliot call a meeting of college and university administrators for the purpose of either abolishing or reforming football, after a player received a fatal injury in the Rochester-Union game. President Eliot refused to participate because he did not have the authority to abolish the sport, and it was impossible to reform it. "Deaths and injuries are not the strongest arguments against football," he informed McCracken. "That cheating and brutality are profitable is the main evil." (19)

President Eliot's attitude failed to deter the Chancellor. "I would not," he declared, "entrust the reformation of the game to the present Rules Committee." (1) As an initial step in his plan to form •a body which would be responsible to the university authorities, he invited the presidents of institutions whose teams had opposed those of New York University to send representatives to a meeting in New York City.

On December 8, 1905, with 13 institutions represented, McCracken's conference convened in New York. (7) There was no opposition to the proposals that the group endorse football and initiate a reform movement. Delegates sanctioned the suggestion that colleges without representation on the Rules Committee establish a second such body. In order to gain popular support for the reform movement, they voted to invite all institutions to send representatives to a meeting. (8)

Sixty-two colleges from all sections of the country sent delegates to the national session on December 28. They organized the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States and, following the election of Pierce of West Point as chairman, appointed a rules committee. The remainder of the "stormy" nine-hour session was devoted to the question of the Rules Committee. Some felt that cooperation of Camp's committee was essential to the success of the reform movement; others were certain that the Rules Committee would destroy or impede efforts to change the rules. The delegates finally adopted a resolution that instructed members of the new rules committee "to communicate with . . . the committee that has formerly governed football and propose that the committees be amalgamated into one which shall formulate rules under which football shall be played." (12:2) In the event the amalgamation effort failed, the committee was to adopt a code for colleges represented at the convention.

Note: For accounts of the first meeting consult: Palmer E. Pierce, "The Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States," Intercollegiate Athletic Association, Proceedings, 1907, pp. 27-32; Walter R. Okeson, "E. K. Hall - An Appreciation," National Collegiate Athletic Association, Proceedings, 1930, pp. 132-36; Intercollegiate Athletic Association, Proceedings, 1906, pp. 22-23; Paul Stagg, "The Development of the National Collegiate Athletic Association in Relationship to Intercollegiate Athletics in the United States," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, New York University, 1946), p. 32; "Football Solons Getting Into Tangle of How to Change Game," Philadelphia Inquirer, December 28, 1905; and "Football Convention Wants One Rule Code," New York Times, December 29, 1905.

President Roosevelt Rejects Camp

A few days after the Yale-Harvard game President Roosevelt began to receive reports alleging that Yale had gained the victory by deliberately

injuring Harvard's leading player. One writer accused Camp of destroying the gentlemen concept of sport with an "anything to win philosophy," (11:216-23), and Eliot presented the President with signed affidavits asserting that the Yale player struck the Harvard player with his fist. (Elliot included statements by R. H. Dana and F. J. Stimson in a letter which President Roosevelt sent in its entirety to Paul Dashiell, December 5, 1905, Roosevelt Collection, Vol. 151, Letter-brook 29, Library of Congress.)

After an exchange of letters with the game's official, Dashiell, and Camp, President Roosevelt concluded that the act was a perfect example of profitable brutality because it probably gave Yale the game or "it at least prevented all chance of Harvard winning. " (Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to [Paul] John DashieU, December 21, 1905, Roosevelt Collection, Vol. 152, Letterbook 30, Library of Congress.)

On December 9, the day after McCracken's first meeting, the Rules Committee met in Philadelphia. (9) Delegates adopted reform proposals that included changes in the rules, severe punishment for unnecessary roughness, and the establishment of a board to appoint officials. Camp, without success, solicited President Roosevelt's endorsement of the proposed reforms. He informed Camp and Harvard's coach, Wilfiam Reid, that he was opposed to any plan which would leave the selection and control of game officials with the Rules Committee.

> Note: Letters from Theodore Roosevelt to Walter Camp, December 11, 1905 and William T. Reid, December 11, 1905, Roosevelt Collection, Vol. 152, Letterbook 30, Library of Congress. Roosevelt had decided that Camp was responsible for starting the "crooked ways in football," but he was certain that Harvard and Princeton had also adopted the practices. Letter from Endicott Peabody to Theodore Roosevelt, January 25, 1906, Roosevelt CoUection, Vol. 5, Letter-book 30, Library of Congress.

On December 29, members of the Rules Committee held as informal meeting in Philadelphia to consider their position in Hght of developments brought about by the creation of a new rules committee. (8,10) Although one writer warned that the group "had better amalgamate or be devoured," committee members decided not to act without formal instruction from their schools. (25,20,17,18)

The Harvard-Yale Power Struggle

At the invitation of the Athletic Association, a group of Harvard graduates, "football experts," gathered at Cambridge for a long series of meetings. Although they adopted a number of reform suggestions, the playing code was not their major concern because the changes they proposed differed little from the ones sanctioned earlier by the Rules Committee. The

crucial issue was how to deal effectively with Camp for, as they viewed the situation, Harvard had never received fair treatment from the Camp-dominated Rules Committee. (See: Report of the President and Treasurer of Harvard College, 1905-06, pp. 119-30, "Athletic Sports"; "Athletics-Committee Minutes," Harvard Graduates' Magazine, 14:484-85, March, 1906. Thus, the questions before the Harvard Athletic Association was whether to remain loyal to the Rules Committee—an act that would be tantamount to an endorsement of Camp—or to affiliate with the new Intercollegiate Association—a course which would result in a loss of status unless other members of the Rules Committee joined the revolt. The decision was a difficult one, but Reid, who had been in contact with Roosevelt throughout the controversy, received an assurance from the President that he would exert his influence in behalf of a joint committee.

> **(Note: Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to William Reid, Harvard's coach, January 11, 1906, Roosevelt Collection, Vol. 152, Letter-book 30, Library of Congress.)**

President Roosevelt Supports the National Committee

The President encouraged and supported developments which destroyed the unity of the Rules Committee. This change of condition was the most important factor in bringing about *the* merger of the rules groups. There was no evidence of disagreement among members of the Rules Committee prior to the time President Roosevelt not only refused to endorse the reform proposals adopted on December 9, but also denounced the Rules Committee. Following this, the President held a series of meetings with Coach Reid, and eventually Harvard graduates conducted a conference for the purpose of considering the football question. Although the Harvard graduates felt it advantageous to identify with the committee of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association, they were reluctant to sanction a halt of the Rules Committee without assurances that the Harvard representative would not be the lone dissenter among members of the Rules Committee. President Roosevelt was able to provide this assurance because Navy's representative, Dashiell, due to the roughness incident, was obligated to demonstrate to the President that he genuinely wished to secure impartial officials for contests. President Roosevelt insisted that Dashiell actively support the proposed merger of the committees.

> **Note: Letter from Theodore Roosevelt to Paul J. Dashiell, January 10, 1906, Roosevelt Collection, Vol. 152, Letterbook 30, Library of Congress. Although the letter to Reid wasn't written until the eleventh (one day prior to the meeting) and the one to Dashiell on the tenth, Roosevelt had been in close touch with both men (personally and through correspondence) prior to the two communications.**

The Rules Committee Recognizes the Intercollegiate Athletic Association

On January 12, 1906, the two rules committees held independent sessions at the Hotel Netherland in New York City. Reid, on instructions from his Athletic Association, left the meeting of the Rules Committee and joined the group representing the Intercollegiate Athletic Association. ("Harvard on New Committee," New York Times, January 11, 1906.) An exchange of notes brought the two groups into agreement for a joint session. A member of the Rules Committee served as chairman and Reid assumed the duties of secretary. The move gave Harvard the position in the joint session which Camp had used to exert his influence over the activities of the Rules Committee.

> **(Note: James] Murphey, University of Pennsylvania Athletic Association to Walter Camp, January 24, 1906, Camp Correspondence, Yale University Library. Murphey reconstructed the recent events and reached the conclusion that Reid supported the Association because Camp controlled the Rules Committee.**

That Yale authorities did not approve Harvard's action was revealed by the institution's president, Arthur Hadley." "It looks to me," he wrote Camp, "as though Reid were not playing fair . . . .we treated Harvard courteously in the December meetings, and they have tried to take advantage of it. This ought to be a lesson to us for the future." (Letter from Arthur T. Hadley to Walter Camp, February 2, 1906, Camp Papers, Box 96, Yale University.)

Amalgamation produced a more representative rules group, but it did not bring an immediate end to Eastern control. Although the Intercollegiate Athletic Association succeeded only in gaining representation on the joint committee that was equal to that of the Rules Committee, the new arrangement was far more equitable than the former one. "The closed corporation policy of the old committee," one observer wrote, "has long been like a red rag before the Western universities who bad but one representative on the committee, and until two years ago none at all." (4:17) The rules committee of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association and the Rules Committee continued the policy of a joint session for the purpose of drafting rules until Yale joined the national body in 1915. (24:33,111,112) In 1906, Pierce, in an effort to make affiliation attractive, guaranteed members of the Rules Committee a place on the rules body if their institutions would join the Intercollegiate Athletic Association. Despite the offer, the "old guard" schools were slow to accept membership. Pennsylvania jointed in 1906 but Navy remained outside until 1920. Harvard became a member in 1908. (24:111)

The Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States became a positive force in *the* development of intercollegiate sport. On March 31, 1906, the members adopted a constitution and by-laws and, although the Association possessed neither legislative nor executive functions, its crusade for faculty control of the programs at member institutions "lent force to the rallying-cry that athletics are 'educational'." (23:22) **Four years later the name of the Association was changed to the National Collegiate Athletic Association.** (14:34)

Conclusion

President Roosevelt's role in the 1905 football controversy, probably the single most important event in the history of intercollegiate sport, was a significant but not a crucial one. His action did determine the direction of football, but he did not save the game be cause its existence was never threatened, nor did he bring about reform in either rules or conduct by issuing an ultimatum. In rejecting Camp, he encouraged the discontent that resulted in the destruction of unity among members of the Rules Committee. His major contribution to solution of the controversy came when the new organization was attempting to secure an agreement to negotiate from the Rules Committee. At that point, in *the* interest of securing impartial officials and protecting Harvard's welfare, he used his position in government and his personal power of persuasion to force the Rules Committee to recognize the national organization. The development enhanced the position of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States. Thus, President Theodore Roosevelt should properly be viewed as one of the founding fathers of the National Collegiate Athletic Association.

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CHAPTER 16

A HISTORY OF RELATIONS BETWEEN THE NCAA AND THE AAU, 1905-1968

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Editor's Note: Professor Flath's Ph.D. study, which was published as a monograph as well, traced the history of relations between the National Collegiate Athletic Association and the Amateur Athletic Union from 1905 to 1963. For the purposes of this volume, Dr. Flath has extended the period of discussion down to 1968. No conclusions were drawn from the earlier study because of the extremely controversial nature of the topic. The avoidance of the presentation of conclusions was thought advisable to prevent charges of extreme bias (because of the presence of two prominent NCAA officials on the doctoral committee).

Although many American sports fans have been basking in the reflected honors of American athletes and their outstanding performances in recent Olympic Games and international athletic competition, those close to amateur sports have not been surprised that the controversy between the National Collegiate Athletic Association and *the* Amateur Athletic Union continues to plague those involved in "amateur" sports in the United States.

Many fans, athletes, and athletic administrators know little and care less about the relations between the NCAA and the AAU; yet, there is nothing in sports today that will have as much to do with the quality and kind of representation the United States will have in international competition in the future as does the persistent controversy between the NCAA and the AAU over the administration of amateur sports.

Even though the struggle for control of amateur sports has been a part of the history of sports ever since the AAU was formed in 1888, the AAU has only been seriously challenged to make changes since 1905 when the NCAA was founded. It was at this time that NCAA leaders began to express the need for a more democratic method of selecting athletes for international competition than that existing under AAU control.

Those desiring a greater voice in the control of amateur sports pointed to the fact that, while athletes representing athletic clubs under AAU control were the primary source of athletes for national and international competition prior to the revival of the Olympic Games in 1896, the high schools, colleges, military services, and many social and fraternal groups in the United States soon were producing nearly all the athletes representing

the United States. With those groups affiliated with the AAU producing fewer competitors and yet continuing to play the dominant role in the administration of international competition, it was no wonder that dissatisfaction with AAU control broke out.

The Origin of the AAU

Although a few athletic contests were held in the United States during the period between the Revolutionary War and the Civil War, little progress had been made in the development of competitive athletics, and there was little concern about the amateur status of participants in athletic contests. Most of the development in amateur athletics took place after the Civil War at a rate so rapid that some means of control became necessary. Leaders in developing this control were the athletic clubs, particularly in the East. These clubs, the product of urban development, strove to stimulate amateur athletic competition. The first of these clubs was the San Francisco Club founded in 1860 as a social and gymnasium club, but probably the most influential of these athletic clubs was the New York Athletic Club. Organized in 1866, the New York Athletic Club's form of organization, constitution, and by-laws, patterned after the Amateur and the London Athletic Clubs of England, served as models for many of the hundreds of athletic clubs which soon developed.

The National Association of Amateur Athletes of America, the first organization to attempt the control of amateur athletic clubs, was formed in 1879. The strength of the NAAA was in the New York City area, where the Association conducted athletic competitions for nearly ten years before it was forced out of existence by the development of the AAU.

The AAU was formed in 1888 after a group of fifteen athletic clubs, led by the Athletic Club of the Schuykill Navy and the New York Athletic Club, withdrew from the National Association of Amateur Athletes. Originally, the AAU was a union of athletic clubs, but at the annual meeting in 1890 the need for local autonomy was satisfied when the AAU was changed from a union of individual clubs to a union of district organizations. Pressure was brought to bear on organizations by the AAU's development of sanctioning and jurisdiction policies. All athletic sporting events had to be sanctioned by the AAU, or else athletes competing in an unsanctioned meet would be prohibited from participating in any athletic sporting event sanctioned by the Union. The AAU claimed jurisdiction of twenty-three sports, and athletes competing in those sports, over which the AAU claimed jurisdiction, had to register at a small fee and certify their amateur standing.

Even though the AAU was to change its policies as the result of conflict with colleges and other organizations sponsoring athletic competition, the Amateur Athletic Union's requirements for the sanctioning of games and for the registration of athletes, two of the primary methods of controlling

amateur athletics and raising revenue, were to become the sources of controversy and misunderstanding in the years to come.

The Origin of the NCAA

While athletic clubs and colleges were attempting to raise athletic competition to a higher plane after the Civil War, amateur athletics were not above reproach. To counteract the professionalism and commercialism that threatened to dominate athletics, the Olympic Games were revived in 1896. Under the leadership of Pierre de Coubertin, the revival of the Olympic Games was the result of the desire of many sportsmen to rekindle the Olympic spirit and to develop international competition as a means of promoting peace and friendship between nations.

Even though the Olympic spirit had been "fanned alive" at the Olympic Games in Athens, Paris, and St. Louis, college athletics come under severe criticism, especially during the first few years of the twentieth century. The year 1905 was memorable in the world of college athletics because of the campaign waged against the various college sports. The game of football was under particularly heavy criticism. Public sentiment against football reached such a peak that President Theodore Roosevelt felt it necessary to begin a campaign for the reform of football and for the development of uniform eligibility codes for all American colleges and universities. In 1905 representatives of sixty-eight institutions met to resolve the problems facing intercollegiate athletics. The work of these delegates resulted in the founding of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States—a title that was to be changed to the National Collegiate Athletic Association in 1910. Early in its history, the NCAA was organized as an advisory body with no executive function except through its committees. This principle was followed until 1947, when the NCAA instituted an enforcement program. The NCAA expanded its influence through actions of its various committees, through resolutions at conventions, and through its championship events which began in 1921 with a track and field championship.

With the founding of the NCAA in 1905, there have been several persistent areas of conflict between the Collegiate group and the AAU:

1. The AAU's rules requiring sanctioning of participants and claims of jurisdiction over certain sports;
2. The question of the rights of the colleges to compete internationally without permission of the AAU;
3. Representation in the Olympic organization. (1)

Past Conflicts between the NCAA and the AAU

Following World War I, there was a great revival of interest in

athletics. The NCAA expanded its function and took an interest in athletic programs that had been primarily the interest of the AAU. Most of the conflict revolved around representation in Olympic and international competitive organizations.

An attempt at forming a national association composed of all existing amateur sports organizations, as suggested by Secretary of War John W. Weeks in 1921, was strongly supported by the NCAA and other sports bodies in sympathy with the attempts to broaden the base of support and control beyond that of the AAU and the American Olympic Association. The struggle in the 1920's nearly disrupted American Olympic efforts, and an all-out war between the sports bodies was avoided only through changes in the American Olympic Association's constitution giving a greater voice to the colleges, not to mention the appointment of General Douglas MacArthur as President of the American Olympic Committee in 1927.

With the AAU in control of certain sports which they held to be under their jurisdiction through membership in a number of international federations administering each sport, grievances accumulated steadily over the years. The major point of dissension was in what the NCAA termed "the dictatorial attitude of the AAU with reference to established policy in sports in which it is the international representative. " (2) **Because there did not seem to be any sincere AAU intent to make some correction of these grievances, the NCAA's Council voted at its April, 1960 meeting not to respect suspensions of the AAU unless agreement on rules and procedures could be obtained. The Council went on to authorize the NCAA officers to cancel the Articles of Alliance between the NCAA and the AAU which had been in effect since 1946.**

The impact of the canceling of the Articles of Alliance between the NCAA and the AAU went virtually unnoticed because of the attention given to the 1960 Olympic Games in Rome, but already movements were underway which resulted in the formation of new federations in track and field, baseball, basketball, gymnastics and wrestling. Each of these federations was supported by organizations, including the NCAA, and were composed of colleges, junior colleges, and high schools. Provision was made for the AAU to play an important part in the federations. Realizing that this development would mean a diminishing of their control, the AAU denounced the federations and looked upon them as usurpers of its authority. With this split made known to the sporting public in an article written by Tex Maule in the September 25, 1961 issue of *Sports Illustrated*, the controversy over the administration of amateur sports erupted onto the daily sports pages all over the world. As AAU attempts failed to bring the NCAA and its supporters back into the AAU, and NCAA attempts failed to enlist the AAU in the federation form of control, it became evident that the sports bodies were on a collusion course with neither side willing to temper their demands.

By the fall of 1962, the NCAA-AAU fight had become very serious.

Attorney General Robert Kennedy acknowledged to the press that the federal government was concerned that the dispute would interfere with Olympic preparations for the 1964 Games in Tokyo. A meeting of the warring sports bodies followed, and this resulted in an alliance that would serve as a truce to last until November 1, 1964. With both sides coming out of the meeting with extremely different opinions about how the agreement was to be put into practice, the gulf between the NCAA-sponsored federations and the AAU led to a two-day arbitration session in New York on January 18, 1863 with General MacArthur once again playing a major role in settling a dispute between the two bodies by serving as arbitrator at President Kennedy's request.

At these meetings the federations and the AAU adopted what has come to be known as the MacArthur Plan. The MacArthur Plan served to:

> **(1) reinstate athletes who had been disqualified from Olympic competition for reasons other than those which were purely personal to the individual;**
>
> **(2) required the lifting of a ban by the NCAA on use of college members' facilities and athletes in meets not sanctioned by the federations;**
>
> **(3) called for the formation of an Olympic Eligibility Board that would decide on the American representation to the 1964 Olympics, and**
>
> **(4) recommended to the President of *the* United States that an athletic congress be called following the 1964 Olympics to devise a permanent plan under which all amateur sports bodies might cooperate in providing the United States with its strongest possible representation in international sports competition.**

MacArthur's function as an arbitrator was put to a test on a number of occasions in 1963, and in each instance his decisions were accepted by the NCAA-supported federations and the AAU. All indications pointed to a solution of the problem along the lines outlined in the MacArthur Plan, but with the assassination of President Kennedy on November 22, 1963, and the death of General MacArthur on April 5, 1964, the element of uncertainty in reaching a solution was once again injected into the controversy. Even so, neither side seemed anxious to make any move to upset the existing plans for Olympic Games.

Within days after the conclusion of the 1964 Olympic Games in Tokyo, it became evident that the Kennedy-MacArthur inspired truce had come to an end. The NCAA announced a rule banning NCAA athletes from competing in open meets not sanctioned by the United States Track and Field

Federation after March 1, 1965.

Since the 1965 ban, the NCAA and the AAU have gone through a series of bans, amelioration of differences, and restoration of relations. The 1968 Olympic Games were threatened by the actions of the two organizations, but as in the past the differences between the NCAA and the AAU were resolved long enough to permit the United States to compete in the 1968 Games in Mexico City. In June, 1969, the NCAA again instituted its ban on international competitions in meets not sanctioned by the United States Track and Field Federation.

The Nature of the Differences between the NCAA and the AAU

The differences between the NCAA and the AAU have been the result of differences in administrative philosophy and their understanding of the role of competitive athletics in the American society. The AAU has traditionally held that:

1. Most amateur athletics in the United States should be administered by a central "umbrella" administrative body.

2. The AAU, as a result of its early beginning and the services already rendered in behalf of amateur athletics, should be the organization to control athletics.

3. The AAU is already recognized by international organizations as the official governing body for the majority of amateur athletics in the United States.

4. Administrative structure, policy, and practice is already established and functioning; therefore, no new organization is needed.

5. A system that includes registration and certification of athletes and sporting events is the best way to ensure amateur athletics.

6. The NCAA colleges should join the AAU and make it the national controlling body.

On the other hand, the NCAA has traditionally held that:

1. Amateur athletics should be administered on the basis of specialized and singular sports organizations, i.e., track, basketball, wrestling, etc. rather than the "umbrella" approach. Federations of the separate sports would administer the programs for international competition.

2. The colleges have the highly competent staffs and the expensive facilities necessary for the conduct of athletic programs.

3. The colleges chose to conduct their own programs, rather than to subordinate themselves to representatives who may be college men (but not representatives selected by the colleges).

4. The NCAA questions the right of the AAU to require sanctioning of all open meets.

5. The NCAA does not accept the AAU as the governing body for international athletics. It recommends instead national federations in basketball, track and field, baseball, gymnastics, and wrestling.

6. The NCAA does accept the American Olympic Association as the governing body for the American participation in the Olympic Games. It does feel, however, that this organization, as constituted, is controlled by the AAU and is not representative of the athletic interest of amateur athletics as they are conducted in the United States. (3)

The AAU has been able to capitalize on its advantages in the dispute. They have been accepted as the controlling body for amateur athletics in the United States by the International Federation. This relationship permits the AAU to threaten ineligibility for the Olympic Games and international competition. Without this threat, the AAU would have no control over the colleges. In addition to the long-time, amenable relationship between the AAU and the international sports governing body (IOC), the AAU recognizes the advantage it holds since the conflict operates only during the period between the Olympic Games. Public pressure forces the NCAA to relent in its struggle so that college and university athletes will be permitted to compete in the Games.

The NCAA capitalizes on the power it can exert in that it exercises some control over a large proportion of the coaches, athletes, and athletic facilities of its member institutions. Since many top-class athletes in all sporting events are from NCAA institutions, any ban that withheld them from AAU competition would be a serious blow to the AAU. The AAU needs the coaches, the athletes, and the facilities of the NCAA-related institutions for their programs, but the colleges have developed enough competition to satisfy their needs. The colleges do not need AAU competition to develop high level performances.

Future Relations between the NCAA and the AAU

The nature of past relationships between the NCAA and the AAU would indicate that the positions of the two organizations are becoming polarized, and that only a thorough reorganization of the control of amateur athletics in the United States will ameliorate the existing differences. The possibility of any significant alteration in relationships is most unlikely, unless the International Federation alters its recognition of the AAU as the amateur sports governing body in the United States. The possibility of the International Federation changing its position in this regard is practically non-existent. The NCAA will continue to press for greater representation in Olympic and international competition. The AAU will continue to withstand the pressures, insofar as possible, altering its stand only when compelled to do so. It is very likely that this controversy will continue until one of the organizations succumbs, or until attempts are made to fulfill the part of the MacArthur Plan, which recommends to the President of the United States:

> **That, if desired an athletic congress be called .....t o devise a permanent plan under which all organizations dedicated to amateur athletics and all individual men and women aspiring to represent our country in international games be able to pool their resources so that by a united effort we may be able successfully to meet the challenge from any nation in the field of athletics and sport."** (4)

Notes

1. Paul Stagg, "Background of the Conflict between the NCAA and the AAU," Proceedings of the National College Physical Education Association (Dallas, Texas, Jan. 8-11, 1964), p. 72.

2. Prevalent grievances and points of dissatisfaction that exist regarding the AAU. A photostatic copy of a typewritten document compiled by the National Collegiate Athletic Association, Kansas City, Missouri.

3. Stagg, *op. cit.*, pp. 76-77.

4. The MacArthur Plan. A mimeographed copy dated January 19, 1963 presented to representatives of the federations and the AAU at the outset of the arbitration meeting held on January 18, 1963 in New York City.

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With the exception of the weekly newspaper, *The Spirit of the Times*, and *The New York Times,* the early history of amateur athletics in the United States may be traced through information gathered from sources such as: Robert Korsgaard's, "A History of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States," (unpublished Doctor of Education project, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952); John Allen Krout's, Annals of American Sport,

Volume 15: *The Pageant of America* (New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1929); Howard J. Savage *et. al*., *American College Athletics* (New York: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1929); Victor Paul D. Dauer's, "The Amateur Code in American College Athletics," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, School of Education, The University of Michigan, 1950); and Paul Stagg's, dissertation, "The Development of the National Collegiate Athletic Association in Relationship to Intercollegiate Athletics in the United States," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, New York University, 1946).

From the annual *NCAA Proceedings* beginning in 1905 to the present, much information concerning the relationship between the NCAA and the AAU may be found. The careful reader may find some information in the *Minutes of the Annual Meeting of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States*. More important minutes of both Associations are to be found in the national offices of the AAU in New York City and of the NCAA in Kansas City.

Much recent material in regard to the dispute is to be found in *NCAA–AAU Dispute*, Hearings before the Committee on Commerce of the United States Senate, Eighty-ninth Congress, First Session on the Controversy in Administration of Track and Field Events in the United States, August, 1965 Serial No. 89-40, U. S. Government Printing Office: Washington, D. C , 1965.

CHAPTER 17

THE GROWTH OF THE INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS MOVEMENT IN THE UNITED STATES, 1890-1940

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Editor's Note: Continuing the discussion of sport and athletics, an essay by Professor Montgomery was obtained. His willingness to allow the use of the results of his study about the growth of the interscholastic athletics movement in the United States from 1890 to 1940 is sincerely appreciated. The athletics program at the high school level has influenced the field of physical education profoundly, and it is wise to make every effort to understand the development of the "athletics phenomenon."

A study of the interscholastic athletics movement in the United States should be prefaced with a review of the origin and growth of the high school itself in the United States. Further, the development of interscholastic athletics, such as it was before 1890, should be examined for trends and tendencies which give some indications of the direction taken in the development of the interscholastic athletics movement in the United States.

Growth of the High School in the United States

The high school in the United States may be said to be "the child" of the middle classes. During the early history of the United States, instruction in Latin, Greek, and the Bible was considered sufficient education for most people. But as the country grew, the trades people, merchants, and others demanded a more enriched approach to education than just reading, writing, and arithmetic. A larger number of people eligible to pay taxes, caused by an increase in the number of people in the merchant class, increased the political strength of that group.

The reasons for the establishment of the high school are given legal, political, and social overtones by some historians. Noble indicated that:

> **The establishment of the nonsectarian, free, day high schools, open alike to both sexes, may be termed an 'upward thrust of Jacksonian Democracy,' for the temper of the times demanded the removal of the stamp of class rigidity, sect, and charity from the training of the masses. (Noble, pp. 809, 813)**

The public high school movement at first was largely confined to the major centers of population in the East and in the rapidly growing Middle West. By the beginning of the Civil War, there were 300 or more high schools in the United States, and during the last years of the nineteenth century the expansion in number was enormous. (Butts, p. 489)

The rapid expansion of the high school movement toward the end of the nineteenth century was due to a number of things, not the least of which was a ruling by the Michigan Supreme Court in 1872 establishing a legal precedent that overrode the existing permissive legislation on the maintenance of public high schools. This ruling concerned the legality of spending school tax money for high schools, since high schools were not specifically mentioned in the laws of the state. The court ruled that the high school was a proper part of the public school system. (Knight, p. 386) In so doing, it established the basis for the legal and financial system of support for high schools that exist today.

By the end of the 19th century the aims of the high school had changed greatly. Secular aims had superseded the religious-moral aim; the old classical aims had given way to informational, social-civic, vocational and practical, and individual-development aims. The vocational and practical aims gave impetus to subjects in the curriculum, such as industrial arts, home economics, social studies, and agriculture. The values inherent in individual development stimulated the arts and physical education. (Butts, pp. 506-510)

Knight pointed out in 1929 that since 1890 the rate of increase in public high school enrollment had been twenty times greater than the increase in the population of the country during that period. (Knight, p. 17)

Subject matter and courses had continued to be a problem to the growing high school. The evolvement of the two-track curriculum led to problems in meeting college entrance requirements. To resolve some of these problems, a Committee of Ten (mostly college officials) was set up in 1893 with President Eliot of Harvard as chairman. This committee stated as a principle that subjects studied for the same length of time were educationally equal. (Dixon and others, p. 127)

In the early part of the twentieth century, several factors became evident that led educators to believe a thoroughgoing revision of the secondary school curriculum was needed. (Butts, p. 647). Inglis listed these factors as:

1. **Change in the character of the secondary school clientele,**

2. **Introduction of the new subjects for study,**

3. Reorganization of grades 7-9,

4. Development in the field of educational psychology, such as new light on the laws of learning, the psychology of individual differences, and the nature and measurement of intelligence;

5. The disclosure of prevailing defects (in the curriculum) by means of objective measurement;

6. Changes in our conception of the functions to be performed by the secondary school (Inglis, p. 259).

John Franklin Brown pointed out that it was the function of the school to provide some things for the pupil that were not academic subjects:

> . . . there are certain specific things more or less apart from scholarship that it should do for him. First of all, it should develop his physical powers. . . . The development and maintenance of the highest practical degree of physical health and vigor on the part of the pupil should not be merely an individual but a definitely conscious purpose of the school, and proper provision should be made for realizing it. (Brown, pp. 72-73)

Interscholastic Athletics in the United States Prior to 1890

The origins of school athletics are not completely shrouded in mystery, because we know people have played vigorous games throughout recorded history, especially during the days of the classical western civilization. (Kilzner, Stephenson, and Nordberg, p. 175) However, since most of the earliest settlers in this country came from England, it is only natural that they would introduce English customs and games to the New World instead of pursuing the indigenous games they found as played by natives.

Most of the English games were played in their schools and colleges, and since English schools and colleges were copied in America, the English games were copied, too. The English had long been devotees of sports and "…. it is generally held out that this rich tradition of sport in England has developed the games and athletics of American schools and colleges." (Williams and Hughes, pp. 24-25)

A gradual change in the attitude of many people toward school athletics was evident beginning in the 1870's. There was an increasing interest on the part of the students, also. Elmer Ellsworth Brown, using Central (Philadelphia) High School as an example, said that before the Civil

War there were no organized athletics at the school, though there was a lively playground interest in townball—a forerunner of baseball. A change-over to organized athletics came slowly and had hardly begun until the seventies. (Brown, pp. 434–435)

There is no doubt as to *how* athletics got into the high school program, though some of the reasons *why* are rather obscure. That athletics were introduced into the high school by the students is certain. (Mitchell, xvi). Some feel that athletics were literally forced into the high school program, and primarily because the boys desired physical activity and a method of self expression. Most school administrators did not see athletics as an educational tool for a long time. (Shepard and Jamerson, p. 2)

Some writers feel that athletics developed from community life as an expression of community needs and came into the schools this way, rather than as an expression of educational philosophy. (Scott, p. 49) This feeling, and also the growth of the high school itself, gave impetus to the introduction of athletics into the high school program:

> This development of high schools was of tremendous importance to the growth of competitive sports. Since the high schools were institutions of and for the people, community interests were of necessity reflected in the educational curriculum. Games and sports had come to play a prominent part in the Life of the community and it was inevitable that sooner or later the activities would become part of the curriculum of the school. (Scott, p. 13)

However, because of the enthusiasm of high school youth, athletics grew to such proportions that administrators were forced either to stamp athletics out or to control them. The administrators chose the latter course, and thus set the stage for future developments in interscholastic athletics. (Morland, pp. 1-2) Rice, an historian of physical education, pointed out two other reasons why athletics were brought into the high school. The first was the emphasis put on the values of play in the 1880s. This emphasis on the value created a permissive atmosphere in which athletics developed rapidly. The second reason was that high school boys imitated college teams and sought to bring athletics into the high school just as they had been brought into the colleges. Rice also mentioned that interscholastic athletic teams were an outgrowth of the intramural or playground teams. (Rice, p. 236)

Trends, 1890-1940

During the decade 1880-1890, educators began to realize the value of play and to emphasize it in the schools and on the play grounds. One of the results which accrued from this emphasis was an extension into the lower schools of a highly organized system of competitive athletics that already existed in the colleges and universities. The history of athletics in the

colleges then began to repeat itself in the high schools, going through the same processes of (1) intramural (or playground) athletics which developed into interscholastic athletics; (2) the rise of the student manager; (3) the advent of the professional coach; and finally (4) faculty control of athletics. (Rice, p. 236)

This imitation of college athletics by the high schools led one writer in 1927 to say, "The craze of the day is competitive athletics. Twenty years age the competitive sports were confined to colleges and universities, but now they have spread to the high school. " (Foster, p. 33) To be sure, the same games that were played in the colleges were played in the high school community, because then, as now, youth wanted to imitate what it admired. Needless to say, college boys and college sports were more admired by the youthful mind than were the boys and the sports played in the local community.

The development of athletics in the programs of the high schools of the United States followed a well-defined pattern as follows:

1. **Athletics were first sponsored by the students, with the school administrators and faculty being unsympathetic or hostile.**

2. **The community assisted the students in the form of finances and coaching aid, with school administrators and faculty being either indifferent or intolerant.**

3. **The administrators and faculty recognized the malpractices in athletics and moved toward faculty control and guidance.**

4. **Athletics were accepted by school administrators and faculty as an essential part of the school program. (Shepard and Jamerson, p. 3)**

From 1900 to 1910 the interscholastic athletic movement burst into full bloom. Development, organization, and supervision of high school athletics grew almost overnight into a program that drew much criticism from educators and laymen alike. The chief objection to the new athletics activities was that they neglected the many to train a few to insure victory in interscholastic athletics contests. (Rice, p. 272) This athletics movement during the first ten years of the twentieth century was considered by some experts to be strictly a physical education movement that had gotten out of hand. (Rogers, p. 554)

Perhaps one of the reasons why interscholastic athletics grew so fast was that, at the time, many educators were asking for new activities to be introduced into the high school program. Athletics and collateral activities, as many as could be handled by the students and faculties, were asked to be under faculty control and supervision. (Boynton, pp. 206-214) The educational worth of the formerly extracurricular activities was beginning to be recognized.

Some writers felt that the rapid spread of interscholastic athletics was due to a revolt on the part of the students, and perhaps many of the faculty as well. The school curriculum of the early part of the twentieth century was determined mostly by the faulty philosophy of a curriculum that embodied a rigid program of formal discipline. This rigid discipline the students did not like; so, they brought into the curriculum other activities that satisfied their needs. (Williams and Brownell, pp. 205-206)

The acceptance into education of the methods of science during the first decade of the twentieth century brought about new activity areas of which games and sports were a part. (Scott, p. 164) The development and adoption of John Dewey's ideas on educational philosophy caused physical education student activities to move away from the formal programs toward individual programs and education for leisure activities. (Dixon and others, p. 164)

When the question of why athletics should take place in the high schools was raised, the idea was put forth that competition was firmly embedded in the American way of life and was something to hold as a heritage, to love, and to practice. (Orr, p. 52) By the beginning of the twentieth century, high school athletic associations began to be accepted as having real worth in building higher standards for athletics in the high schools. Nevertheless, the high school administrators' neglect in setting up machinery for controlling interscholastic athletics caused the program to be seriously challenged.

It became apparent that external control of interscholastics depended, in large measure, upon the strength of the athletics control system within the individual school. The tendencies toward evil in interscholastic athletics were found to be in ascending ratio with the increase in complexity of the athletics organization. Organizations alone, it was found, could not control athletics satisfactorily; leadership from and control by the institution were needed also.

The state high school athletics associations were formed to promote clean, wholesome athletics participation between state high schools, to guarantee good faith in matters of rules and eligibility, and to provide a means of redress for violations. The function of the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations were defined as being to protect and

supervise the interstate athletics interests of member schools belonging to the state associations.

By comparing the aims and objectives of interscholastic athletics and physical education during the period from 1890 to 1940, it was found that, while the aims of field of physical education changed with the educational trends of the times, the aims of interscholastic athletics changed more slowly, gradually espousing the aims of education in a moral and social sense.

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CHAPTER 18

A HISTORY OF UNDERGRADUATE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1861-1961

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Editor's Note: The essay in Chapter 17, and the following three chapters, trace from different approaches the history of professional preparation for physical education in the United States at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. This first essay is by the Editor. It grew out of a doctoral study completed at Yale University during the late 1940's. Later, it was abstracted and updated to serve as a background paper for the AAHPER Conference in 1962 (the report of which was entitled Professional Preparation in Health Education, Physical Education, and Recreation Education).

Introduction!

The history of physical education in the United States may be divided into four fairly distinct periods: (1) The Colonial Period (1609-1781); (2) The Provincial Period (1781-1885); (3) The Period of the Waning of European Influence (1885-1918); and (4) The Period of American Physical Education (1918-(Schwendener, 1942, see Table of Contents).

The years from 1830 to 1860 are sometimes called "The Architectural Period" of American public education. It was during these years that the struggle for state-supported schools took place. The problems of getting tax support, of eliminating the pauper-school idea, and of doing away with pro-rated tuitions were all difficult in themselves to solve. The elimination of sectarianism as a controlling factor in the schools and the appointment of public officials to run school affairs were major problems of the period. By 1860 the American education ladder as a one-way system was fairly complete. The first compulsory attendance law was passed in Massachusetts in 1852. With this development of the public school system, it was quite natural that attention turned to the quality and type of teacher hired for so important a task as the education of the coming generation.

In the field of physical education, after the introduction of gymnastics at the Round Hill School in Northampton, Mass. in 1823, Harvard College started the first American college gymnasium in 1826. The year before, in

New York City, physical training had been introduced as one of a number of innovations in the school curriculum. Yale followed Harvard's lead and established ground for gymnastics in 1826, and one year later Amherst, Brown, and Williams made such areas available. Perhaps another dozen schools soon followed the early example of the Round Hill School and Harvard College. Beck, Lieber, and Follen did not continue their active roles in guiding the teaching of gymnastics, however, and because competent instructors were lacking to carry out the aims of this type of physical training, the whole movement quickly waned within a few years after its beginning (Van Dalen et. al_., 1953, pp. 369-370).

Although physical education was not yet generally part of the school's curriculum, interest was developing in recreation and exercise. Many elementary schools were springing up in the newer parts of the country, and the older public schools in the Eastern and Middle States were being greatly improved in both organization and administration. Insofar as hygiene and health instruction were concerned, some early educators showed an interest in the health and the comfort of their students. There were many articles and resolutions in the literature of the time discussing physical education in the sense of personal and school hygiene. This resulted in the publication of a number of textbooks of physiology and manuals of calisthenics.

The Period from 1860 to 1890

Difficult days were in store for the American people after the Civil War conflict which had wrought a tremendous change in the Life of the entire country. The population doubled rapidly. During this period industrial capitalism became concentrated in the hands of a few.

The development of urban society brought about a greater interest in social affairs than heretofore. Polite society became more interested in music and literature. This period must be described as one of literary sterility, however, even though several art galleries and museums were founded. But the majority of the people had little understanding of the aesthetic. The architecture of the period was eclectic. Evolutionary theories and pragmatism left their marks on traditional religious thought.

In education the idea of equality of educational opportunity had made great strides. The educational ladder was gradually extending upward. The number of high schools increased 500 per cent between 1870 and 1890. The state eventually took a position of prime importance in public education. State universities turned their attention to advancing the welfare of their own states with a resultant increase of revenues and attendance. In 1888 President Ellot of Harvard called for educational reform. One of his main points was the need for better training of teachers.

There were evidences of much life and vigor in the colleges and universities in the areas of athletics and gymnastics. Generally speaking, sports became increasingly popular in this era as well. Athletic clubs and associations of all types started with a subsequent increase of newspaper publicity to these activities. Harvard, Yale, and Amherst erected gymnasia in 1860. This example was followed by many other institutions after the close of the War.

In schools the main emphasis in hygiene seemed to center around the environment provided for the students. Cleanliness and ventilation were primary concerns. The matter of communicable disease became a most important consideration. In the area of health instruction a rather dull system of pedagogy, combined with the social taboos of the time, presented a severe handicap to progress. Medical science had not yet achieved the necessary status to overcome these difficulties. For example, the American Public Health Association held its first meeting only in 1872.

In the area of general teacher training, improvement in the status of teachers came slowly in this period. Many state normal schools started at this time and were well distributed over the country as a whole. Although the facilities and courses of these institutions were poor at first, there has been a gradual improvement down through the years. Professional courses of the time were not too effectual, mainly because scientific method bad not yet been applied to educational research.

In addition to the state normal schools, there was quite a rapid growth of city normal schools and classes, which paralleled the enlargement of cities. The college and university normal departments of this period were not very good by our present standards. After 1879, so-called departments of pedagogy began to develop with the aim of training secondary teachers. Quite naturally, the demand for teachers trained in these departments was very slight.

The growth of in-service teacher education began about this time. By 1890 such activities as reading circles, professional teachers' organizations and institutes, and summer schools and extension work were contributing to the gigantic task of raising the levels of preparation of teachers in service.

It has been said that the gymnastic revival of 1860 grew out of the movement to disseminate knowledge of the laws of health (Hartwell, 1903, p. 750). Subsequently the desire grew to have these "laws" included in the program of school instruction. Dio Lewis gave great impetus to this movement when he lectured before the American Institute of Instruction in Boston on August 21, 1860. Lewis' Normal Institute for Physical Education was the first attempt to prepare teachers of physical education in the United States. The first course opened July 5, 1861 and ran for a ten-week period (Lewis, 1861, p. 665). Instruction was provided in anatomy, physiology,

hygiene, and gymnastics. Special work was given explaining Ling's methods for treatment of chronic diseases. It was emphasized that each student would be able to use two hundred different exercises at the end of ten weeks. Another feature was a type of student teaching with each participant having the opportunity to lead a small class. During the seven years of the school's existence, 221 men and women graduated from the course (Eastman, 1891). These people met much of the demand for instructors in the new gymnastics which came first from the New England cities, and later from all over the country.

The Societies of the North American *Turnerbund* passed a resolution at their Pittsburgh Convention in 1856 recommending the inauguration of a teacher training school, but, for several reasons, including the outbreak of the Civil War, the Normal School was not opened until November 22, 1866 in New York City with an enrollment of nineteen men (Metzner, 1924). It was a traveling school and was conducted subsequently in Chicago, Milwaukee, and Indianapolis (Brosius, 1896, pp. 165-168).

The course offered by the *Turnerbund* was designed to include lectures on the history and aims of German *Turnen,* anatomy and aesthetics in their relation to gymnastics, and first aid. Other course work included gymnastic nomenclature, the theory of the different systems, and practical instruction with special regard to the training of boys and girls. By 1885 this curriculum had expanded to include the history and Literature of physical training, a bit of the history of civilization, the essentials of physiology, some of the principles of education, and something about the German and English languages and literature. A little time was spent also in fencing and swimming (Rathmann, 1886, pp. 22-27).

Although the first schools for the training of physical educators started in Boston and New York City respectively, California was the first state in the United States to pass a statewide mandatory physical education provision in 1866. With the adoption of a new constitution in 1879, this provision was abolished; nevertheless, it is evident that the worth of physical education was recognized in the far West as early as the era immediately following the Civil War (Degroot, 1940, pp. 63-65).

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Very little information has been published about the early efforts of the various state normal schools in training teachers of physical education. The beginnings were naturally unimpressive; yet, they are deserving of mention. The Mankato State Teachers College of Minnesota offered a type of teacher training course in physical training in 1868. West Chester State Teachers College in Pennsylvania is said to have had a two-year normal course (minor to a select group) in physical training in 1871. The first gymnasium was not erected at West Chester until the early 1890's with Dr. and Mrs. Ehinger in charge (Bramwell and Hughes, 1894, pp. 130-131).

From 1880 to 1890

The first important decade of American physical education was, from many standpoints, the period from 1880 to 1890. It was especially significant because so many sound teacher training programs were established. A growing conviction had developed that teachers of physical training needed to be carefully and thoroughly prepared for their work. Hartwell spoke of the measure of success attained by a few normal and training schools for the teaching of the principles and practice of physical education (Hartwell, 1899, p. 550). In this connection he mentioned Sargent's Normal School at Cambridge (1881); Anderson's Normal School at Brooklyn (1886); The Physical Department of the International Young Men's Christian Association Training School at Springfield, Mass. (1887?); The Boston Normal School of Gymnastics (1889); and the Posse Normal School of Boston (1890); as well as the *Turnlehrer* Seminar in Milwaukee (discussed previously). Each of these schools, at *the* time of the report, offered a course of theoretical and practical work covering two years. Summer schools were conducted, also. Especially prominent were those of the American Gymnastic Union, The Chautauqua School of Physical Education (1886), The Harvard Summer School of Physical Training (1887-1932), and the summer course of the International Young Men's Christian Association Training School (later Springfield College).

Prior to this decade and to the growth of the public high schools, there was the problem of special certification. The early California school teacher, for example, taught all subjects. In 1881 the California State Board of Education legalized the issuance of the first special subject certificates in city high schools. It was under such provisions that a number of the cities there first employed special teachers of physical education. It wasn't until later that California adopted the policy of accrediting properly qualified institutions to prepare and recommend their own graduates for teaching credentials (Degroot, 1940, pp. 436- 37).

Wayne State University of Detroit, Michigan offered one of the early teacher-training courses in physical education for elementary school teachers. This course began in 1881 when the College of Education started there. Wayne was actually a unification of a number of institutions of higher education located in the area. It operated under the authority of the Detroit Board of Education.

The Corporation of Harvard College had appointed Dudley Allen Sargent (M.D.) an assistant professor of physical training and director of the recently completed Hemenway Gymnasiun in 1879 (Van Dalen, et.al., 1953, p. 392). In 1881 Sargent began to train teachers of physical training. Oddly enough, this did not take place with men or in connection with Harvard. The beginning was in the "Sanatory Gymnasium" opened for the benefit of the young women studying in the "Harvard Annex," which is now called

Radcliffe College. From 1882 until 1904 a total of 261 women completed the regular course in theory and practice.

Miss Delphine Hanna closed out her program of studies at Sargent's Normal School in 1884 and went to teach at Oberlin College. She is reported to have taken with her a deep conviction that the teaching of gymnastics should be founded in science with resultant genuine body-building. This belief resulted in early teacher-training courses in physical education at Oberlin beginning in 1886 (Zeigler, 1950, p. 40). Although Luther Halsey Gulick, later of Springfield College, had known her but a short time, her acquaintance and influence became the determining spark of his Life (Gulick, 1892, pp. 2526). The propagation of her ideas found such fertile ground that Gulick left Oberlin immediately to study under Sargent at Boston.

The developing interest in physical education resulted in the founding of the Association for the Advancement of Physical Education at Adelphi Academy, Brooklyn, New York on November 25, 1885. William G. Anderson (M.D.), later founder of what was to be eventually called Arnold College and also Director of the early Yale Gymnasium, had the inspiration to start the organization that was later designated as The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. Among those present at this first meeting were Anderson, Sargent, Edward Hitchcock of Amherst, William Blaikie (author of *How to Get Strong*). Dio Lewis, R. J. Roberts (later of Springfield College), W. L. Savage (founder of another training school), J. W. Seaver of Yale, and other interested people making a total of sixty (*Proceedings of the AAPE*, 1885, pp. 2-3). The succeeding meetings of this group until 1890 were characterized by reports from various members of the group. The topics of these reports ranged from a discussion of military drill to the use of the sphygmograph (*Proceedings of the AAPE* for 1886-1888).

Carl Betz proposed the introduction of physical education into the Kansas City public schools in 1885. Betz, a graduate of the Normal School of the American Gymnastic Union, directed the work there himself during the next thirteen years (Leonard, 1915, p. 115). In the period from 1886 to 1896 physical training was introduced into the public schools of many cities by graduates from the Normal School of the *Turnerbund*. The *Turnvereine* are reported to have provided classes for 13,161 boys and 3, 888 girls in January of 1886. Ten years later, this figure had almost doubled (Leonard, 1915, p. 115). Pioneer efforts such as this helped to create the early need for physical education teachers.

Another milestone in the history of physical education in this period was the organization of the noteworthy "Conference in the Interest of Physical Training" by Mrs. Hemenway and Miss Homans. Four sessions were held in Boston on November 29-30, 1889 (Barrows, 1889). Several thousand interested persons attended these meetings which were presided

over by William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education. Representatives of the various physical training systems in vogue at the time presented papers. Heinrich Metzner, one of the first instructors in the Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union, discussed the German system of gymnastics. Baron Posse explained the Swedish system's chief characteristics in the second session. Then Edward Hitchcock of Amherst College discussed the essential principles for the direction of a college department of physical education and hygiene. The third session was highlighted by Dudley A. Sargent's presentation of the system of physical training which he used at Harvard's Hemenway Gymnasium. Spirited discussion followed all four addresses.

The Period from 1890 to 1920

Introduction. In the period from 1890 through 1919 the standard of living in the United States was gradually improving. Although twenty per cent of the population was foreign born, the culture was gradually becoming almost completely Americanized. Both religion and education found that it was necessary to change the prevailing interpretation of their *raison d'etre*. Religious groups were considering the validity and impact of Darwin's theory of evolution. Sabbath observance was lessening across the country.

American educators were becoming more critical of the method of instruction as well as the content of the curriculum. John Dewey led the way in socializing the school program more than had been possible heretofore. Inasmuch as all school levels were changing their ways, physical educators rapidly began a search for their field's place in the curriculum. Such leaders as Sargent, Hartwell, and Anderson gave continued impetus to the movement.

Various types of institutions offered preparation for teaching in 1890. There were (1) the normal schools, either state or private (2) certain high schools which maintained classes for teachers, and (3) departments of pedagogy or normal departments in the colleges and universities. The normal school was a well-established part of the American school system by the end of the 19th century. The normal schools admitted students of secondary rank and usually scaled their offerings to the ability of the students. The program aimed to give command of elementary subject matter, academic secondary studies, and professional education work. This latter area included the history and science of education along with courses in methods. The normal school had become the main agency for elementary teachers, and was beginning to enter the field of training teachers for secondary education as well. The length and quality of their training had to be raised before they were accepted as qualified for this latter endeavor. In 1890 it was the rare normal school which extended more than two years past the high school level. The eventual transformation of this institution to full collegiate status has taken place since the beginning of the present century.

In this early period, teacher training in the colleges and universities was in most cases no better than the normal school training. Over a period of time, chairs of pedagogy had been introduced to provide college level instruction for beginning teachers. Unfortunately these programs were almost completely theoretical in nature with no provisions made for practice teaching. The colleges and universities were uncertain about the role in teacher education that they should play. Many of these institutions had traditionally neglected the technical phases of teaching, as this subject was considered unscientific, and consequently unnecessary. This belief still exists to a considerable extent in the minds of many college and university professors.

It was with trepidation, in this decade from 1890 to 1900, that certain colleges and universities authorized departments of physical training to offer teacher education courses. A demand for this service came about because of the tremendous growth in the number of public high schools. At this juncture of time many normal schools devoted solely to the training of "gymnastics teachers" sprang up, but they could not solve the problem for long. It was during this period that the Swedish gymnastics movement started in the United States. Organized camping began at this time, as did the playground movement. Sports and athletics continued their rapid rise to popularity with a consequent lessening of interest in formal gymnastics. Such activities as golf, tennis, and handball were introduced. Football and baseball enjoyed great popularity both as games to be played and as spectator sports. Basketball, invented in 1891, was on its way toward a very high goal—the country's foremost indoor team sport.

Physical education became identified with the movement that included vocational training and household arts in the school curriculum. Because of a surge in interest in gymnastics caused by the Spanish-American War, physical education made definite advances. At the beginning of the twentieth century, this position was strengthened by such leaders as Thomas Dennison Wood, Luther Halsey Gulick, and Clark Hetherington.

<u>Entrance Requirements</u>. Selective admission, guidance, and placement were unheard of in the period from 1861 to 1890. No mention was made of any entrance requirements in the programs of the Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union and Oberlin College, although Springfield College did state that its course was open only to Christian young men, who had "already shown some ability" (*Catalogue of School for Christian Workers, 1886-1887*). At least a fair English education was necessary, and business experience was desirable, but not absolutely essential.

However, from 1890 to 1920 a great change took place in the entrance requirements of the various schools, colleges, and universities offering professional training. They were no longer vague and provincial. By 1910

most institutions specifically required that the applicant be a graduate of an approved high school, or be able to pass a satisfactory examination in the required entrance subjects. Entrance requirements for the University of Wisconsin, which started a professional program in 1911, mentioned also the necessity of sound health, organic vigor, aptitude for a high degree of motor efficiency, and evidence of strong leadership (Catalogue, University of Wisconsin, 1911-1912).

Methods. Important changes were evident in regard to the aims and methods of the various curricula. In the 1890's the aims were evidently only loosely formed, although some leaders predicted great happenings for the future. The general aim seemed to be to provide a normal course in physical training for persons interested in this "new crusade."

In some instances, as in the International Young Men's Christian Association Training School (later Springfield College), a distinct Christian emphasis was evident throughout this entire second period. The University of Wisconsin aimed to train teachers of physical education and directors of playgrounds and/or municipal recreation systems.

The methods of the program continued to vary greatly in this second period, although the influence of the foreign systems upon the United States program was on the wane. Some leaders were asserting that their method was the "eclectic system," while others clung with great pride to that which they knew best.

Length of Program. The first course for training teachers of physical education extended for a period of ten weeks. Upon completion of this program, the student received a diploma. Today the professional student in physical education may be awarded the Doctor of Philosophy degree or the Doctor of Education degree upon successful completion of a program extending over a period of seven years or more. (Note: In some instances the degree is Doctor of Physical Education (either P.E.D. or D.P.E.).

In this period from 1890 to 1920, the length of the different curricula varied greatly. From 1890 to 1900 the programs extended over a two-year period on the average, although certain normal schools of physical training still offered a one-year course. (Note: As this article is going to press, new evidence has just become available regarding early degree courses. Please see note at end of bibliography.) Summer course "wonders" were causing distress in some quarters, because they were obtaining positions on the strength of one or two six-week summer sessions. Springfield College, to cite one example, discontinued its summer course, because many of these inexperienced people were passing themselves off as "Springfield men."

It was in this decade that a few of the first four-year programs leading to baccalaureate degrees began. In the first ten years of the twentieth

century, four-year programs were introduced in all sections of the country. Teachers on the faculties of these institutions began to appear with various degrees, although many possessed only diplomas from one or another of the better-known normal schools of physical training. Perhaps the outstanding innovation of this era was the farsighted program introduced at Wellesley College after the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics had been transplanted to that campus. This program extended over a five-year period with the student receiving the traditional Bachelor of Arts degree at the end of four years, and a certificate bespeaking competence in physical education at the conclusion of the fifth year.

Curriculum. During this second period the subject matter of the curricula continued to expand. The normal courses were seemingly organized excellently from the standpoint of emphasis in the sciences and in the practice and theory of professional physical education. At Oberlin College no formal work whatsoever was given in professional education, but practice teaching was required of all in both the college and local schools. Instruction in the "academic" courses was almost completely lacking before the baccalaureate degree course began. The curriculum at Springfield College included a good amount of religious training over and above the usual courses of the time.

Around the turn of the century, the courses of study began to take on a broader aspect. In the final (second) year at the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics, professional courses in educational psychology and in the history of education were offered. In 1910 after the affiliation with Wellesley, the curriculum included a broad general education. The only professional education course offered in this curriculum was one called "Education and Psychology (for physical education students)." The Oberlin physical education curriculum was extended to four years in 1898, and was quite extensive in scope since the A.B. degree was awarded upon graduation. The student -received a diploma as a result of the physical education specialization, also. No professional education work was included there at this time. Practical work was required throughout the four years of study. The University of Nebraska became the first state university to graduate a woman from a four-year major curriculum in 1900.

The University of Wisconsin gave evidence that it was abreast of the most advanced thinking in the preparation of teachers in general, and physical education teachers in particular. A degree program was offered which extended over a four-year period. The curriculum was well-rounded and included a reasonable distribution over *the* general academic, basic science, professional education, and professional physical education courses. Along with the theoretical work, a sound succession of practice courses was integrated in the curriculum offerings. Both a major unit (forty

credits) and a minor unit (fourteen credits) were available to the students.

Curricula changed within this period from a one-year course of study, in one case, to a quite well-rounded course extending over a five-year period with the student receiving the A.B. degree at the end of the fourth year and a certificate in physical education at the end of the fifth year. The struggle for sound professional training was far from over; yet, it is possible to say that immeasurable progress was made in the area of the professional physical education curriculum during this period.

Teaching personnel grew in number from one in certain teacher education institutions to fifteen or twenty full-time and part-time instructors by 1920. The usual procedure was for an institution to engage one person for the new experimental program. This individual typically hired an assistant to work with members of the opposite sex in gymnastic classes. The private normal schools of physical education and the summer schools followed the practice of employing visiting lecturers who were experts in particular areas of specialization. This lent prestige to the programs, and also saved the expense of hiring such people as regular full-time staff members—which expense they could ill afford.

<u>Faculty</u>. The teachers in this new field received more academic preparation and earned advanced degrees gradually as time went by. It was common practice for the director of the normal school or department to hold the M.D. degree at this time. Toward the end of the second decade of the twentieth century, this practice was questioned seriously.

The director would then gather about him either graduates holding diplomas from his own program or from other well-known normal schools of the time. Gulick, during his fourteen years at Springfield College, practiced "inbreeding" to an extreme with his staff, but with good results seemingly. Sargent, of the Harvard Summer School of Physical Education, invoked a system whereby he made available to his students the best instruction to be found in the entire United States. To cite one other case, Miss Homans, of the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics (later joined with Wellesley College), added six science courses to the curriculum in 1893. These courses were given at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and were taught by regular members of the Institute faculty.

As the various programs grew and developed, it became necessary to add many new faculty members to the different departments and schools. It was increasingly important that these people have better preparation and hold baccalaureate degrees rather than just diplomas from two-year normal courses.

A tremendous growth took place during the period from 1890 to 1920 in the number of institutions offering professional preparation for teachers of

physical education. Whereas seven private normal schools of physical education; several summer schools including the Harvard Summer School of Physical Education and the Chautauqua Summer School of Physical Education; and a small number of state normal schools, colleges, and universities had offered preparation of a professional nature for physical education from 1861 to 1890, this period from 1890 to 1920 witnessed the establishment of training programs of all types in all kinds of educational institutions. This was the period when the colleges and universities began to take notice of the great need for trained teachers in all fields, mainly because of the growth of the American high school. Altogether approximately 175 training programs, ranging from fifteen or twenty six-week summer courses to a five-year program granting an A.B. degree and a certificate in physical education, began within this span of thirty years (Zeigler, 1950, p. 136).

The Period from 1920 to 1961

Introduction. The years from 1920 to 1930 were filled with great changes in the way of Life for many Americans. After a slight period of unemployment and depression in 1921-1922, the years immediately following were very prosperous. Education benefited greatly from this, and building programs were soon in evidence all over the country. The philosophy of Dewey had considerable weight in determining the child-centered aim of progressive education in this decade. In general there was an increasing interest in individual development because of the growing power of the psychology of individual differences. Testing and measuring assumed great importance in education, as efforts were made to classify students in groups according to their abilities. By 1929 some seventy per cent of the cities in the United States followed some form of homogeneous grouping.

A number of new types of schools developed at this time. The Dalton Plan in Massachusetts under Helen Parkhurst, the Country Day School, the Child Center School, the Play School, the Winnetka Plan, and many others appeared. California legislation reduced the number of elementary subjects from twenty-seven to fifteen, with twelve prescribed and three optional. The development of the junior high school was rapid. There were sixteen thousand public high schools established by the year 1925. It is interesting to note that eighty-five per cent of the public school teachers were women. From 1920 on, the Junior College Movement grew rapidly in the western part of the country. Farther up the educational ladder the trend toward teachers' colleges and away from the normal schools became apparent. For those who may or may not have had the benefits of formal education, adult education activities were being increasingly sponsored. In 1926, the American Association for Adult Education was formed.

The trend toward equalization of educational opportunity was given further momentum by restrictions against child labor and a stronger set of laws about compulsory school attendance. Although it was pointed out that

federal aid was necessary for full realization of America's educational ideal, such backing did not come to the extent desired by its proponents. As the depression began to drain college and university endowments, public funds became more significant in the operation of higher education.

A rather strong reaction against the aims of progressive education set in about this time, but industry and technology continued to make many educators think of democracy in social rather than in individual terms. Despite the fact that the progressive schools of the preceding decade began to feel the influence of conservative opinion, educational process appeared to many to be becoming increasingly a social process. Much of the experimental school experience was having certain effects on school practice. The phrase "conservatively progressive" was at times used to describe such innovations as "regard for the whole child." Teachers became more concerned with the development of attitudes and the importance of accompanying emotions. Curricula continued to expand along with greater emphasis on "activity" or laboratory experience. The matter of individual differences had become a concern for many teachers. From the depression onward, the social emphasis of education seemed assured. By way of contrast, Robert M. Hutchins of the University of Chicago was organizing and administering the gradual growth of what has since been termed the "aristocratic wing" of higher education.

<u>Expanding Programs of Physical Education</u>. Physical education, in this period after the first World War and before the Global War, found its scope increasing in many ways. Individual, dual, and team sports had been accepted almost universally during the war period, and the various types of dance had become very popular. A considerable struggle was waged between the proponents of the informal and formal systems of physical education. Due in large measure to the changing American scene, and probably also to the greater functional aspects of the natural program, the more formal systems continued to wane. The apparent possibility of greater learning both direct and concomitant, the opportunities for use of such learning during leisure, and the "cultural background" of the informal program made the battle very unequal.

It was at this time that a new idea appeared in connection with sports participation. The element of competition, long accepted for varsity squads, now became available on a somewhat modified scale for a larger number of students through the intramural athletic program. This additional phase, added to the concept of a total physical education program, grew faster in colleges and universities than it did at the high school level. The idea did find a very favorable reception with both teachers and administrators at all levels of the educational system, but unfortunately staff and facilities have only slowly and incompletely "caught up" with the impetus of the movement. Remedial or corrective physical education (now designated as "therapeutic," "individual," "adapted," or "adaptive" physical education), aquatics and

water safety in general, and health education have been included as basic to the newer program. Still later, safety education (and then driver education) were added to the responsibility of the field of physical education.

A marked change took place in physical education when the financial depression of the 1930's began to be felt in the schools. Many schools discontinued the teaching of this subject, or combined physical education teachers' duties so that other subjects were added to the typical teacher's workload. Few new people were hired, which soon resulted in an oversupply of physical education teachers. Many teacher education institutions revised their curricula and began to select students more carefully. Several states raised their certification requirements during this trying period. It was inevitable that these measures would improve the caliber of teacher preparation.

The need for a broad cultural education became apparent at this time. Although increased emphasis was placed on this phase of the major curriculum in some institutions, the field as a whole had not caught up. In 1934 Peik and Fitzgerald pointed out this deficiency in their analysis of twenty-one universities and six colleges. They stated that: "Physical education majors stood at the bottom of all teaching fields in the range and depth of their academic training" (pp. 18-26). Since then there has been a continuing emphasis on the importance of a sound general education along with a more thorough training in the foundation sciences and professional physical education courses. These emphases seem to have taken place despite the addition of a gradually greater amount of work in professional education. There is still room for improvement in this matter of "cultural heritage" in respect to the preparation of the physical education teacher.

After the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor late in 1941, the entire nation was mobilized. Federal funds were made available through the U. S. Office of Education to train defense workers in schools and colleges. Actually, governmental subsidization brought many schools through the war. An all-out effort was demanded in order to wage war successfully.

Physical training programs with a broader scope were initiated in the armed forces, and there were improved rehabilitation programs for injured service men. Draft statistics again pointed up the need for improved programs of school health, physical education, and recreation. Since the beginning of the "Cold War" in about 1947, there has been an increased emphasis upon health and physical fitness that has been growing in intensity. Health programs appear to be improving steadily, and many leaders and citizens recognize the need for leisure education to meet this society's growing problem of automation.

The current drive for the physical fitness of youth started in 1954 when President Eisenhower heard about a set of "motor fitness" tests that were

given to some American children and compared to test results obtained from administering the same items to a relatively small group of European children. Since he was shocked at the results, he called a meeting in Washington, D. C. that resulted ultimately in a President's Conference on Fitness of American Youth.

The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, with a membership of more than 25,000 teachers in the profession, moved rapidly after Mr. Eisenhower expressed his concern. From September 12-15, 1956 a National Conference on Fitness was held in Washington, D. C. At this meeting the profession mobilized its efforts to meet the challenge and offered all possible assistance. In 1958, after considerable preparation and with *the* help of its Research Council, the Association (AAHPE.R) sponsored a national youth fitness study. Dr. Paul A. Hunsicker, of the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, guided this effort. For the first time a reliable sampling of American youth was obtained, and a set of national norms (not standards!) was established in such tests as pull-ups, sit-ups, and the 600-yard run, to mention just a few. Some foreign comparisons with these United States' norms have been made, and the evidence seems to indicate that American youngsters are deficient in many of these test items.

Immediately after his election in 1960, President John F. Kennedy published an article explaining his belief in the importance of physical fitness for youth. He followed his beliefs with action. The President's Council on Youth Fitness guided itself by these words taken from a "Presidential Message to the Schools on the Physical Fitness of Youth":

> **The strength of our democracy is no greater than the collective well-being of our people. The vigor of our country is no stronger than the vitality and will of all our countrymen. The level of physical, mental, moral, and spiritual fitness of very American citizen must be our constant concern.**
>
> **The need for increased attention to the physical fitness of our youth is clearly established. Although today's young people are fundamentally healthier than the youth of any previous generation, the majority have not developed strong, agile bodies. The softening process of our civilization continues to carry on its persistent erosion.**
>
> **It is of great importance, then, that we take immediate steps to ensure that every American child be given the opportunity to make and keep himself physically fit—fit to learn, fit to understand, to grow in grace and stature, to fully live (Kennedy, 1961, see inside cover).**

"Operation Youth Fitness" (a phrase coined by the A.A.H.P.E. &R.) was begun at this time.

Entrance Requirements. Returning to a consideration of the history of undergraduate professional preparation for physical education (from 1920 to 1961), it can be stated that the actual development of such features as selective admission, guidance, and placement came about during this particular period. By 1920 a "new plan" had been instituted at Wellesley College combining the best elements of the certificate system and of the examination system. Columbia Teachers College had made some changes in its entrance requirements as follows: a student could be admitted by (1) examination of Columbia or the College Entrance Examination Board; (2) certificate from an approved secondary school including the diploma and the principal's statement about the requisite fifteen units and his health, character, and general scholarship; or (3) presenting credentials from the Education Department of the State of New York Hosting the approved entrance units. The need for teachers at this time was so great that the admission procedures could not be too strictly enforced at many institutions.

As the decade (1920-1930) ended, the supply was beginning to catch up with the demand. A need to raise entrance requirements became apparent. Such qualifications as participation in athletics, recommendations, a series of ability and proficiency tests, an intelligence test, a medical examination, and a probationary period of one year were recommended for each prospective student (Neilson, 1930, p. 9). In 1933 the National Survey of the Education of Teachers suggested that teacher-preparing institutions should agree on certain principles. It was evident that a research program was necessary to develop more accurate measuring instruments of teaching success, personal traits, and scholarship attainments. It was recommended further that: "a progressive program of selection, admission, elimination, and final recommendation for teaching should begin with matriculation and carry through to certification" (Rugg, 1933, pp. 29-31).

By 1940, many colleges and universities showed a definite trend toward consolidation of entrance requirements in an effort to standardize the situation across the country. Springfield College, for example, selected 160 men each year who seemingly possessed the greatest promise for success. It was stated that admission officers obtained their evidence regarding the candidates from application forms, school officers, the examining physician, personal and character references, personal interviews, and aptitude tests. Of the fifteen units still required for admission, nine had to be from English (3), history and social studies (2), algebra and plane geometry (2), and science (2), while four of the remaining six elective units could be in non-academic subjects (Catalogue, Springfield College, 1940-42).

There has been a gradual tendency to include student guidance and subsequent placement along with selective admission as one phase of the

total preparation effort (Zeigler, 1950, p. 182). This approach seemed fundamental to the production of superior teachers of physical education. Unfortunately there has been little agreement as to the bases upon which prospective teachers should be admitted because of the difficulty of securing valid criteria.

Very definite pre-admission requirements seem to have given way to a continuous long-range program of selection. At this juncture in the history, administrators were considering such qualities as personal integrity and sincerity, moral influence over pupils, willingness to cooperate with superiors and associates, personal health and vigor, knowledge and understanding of the nature of pupils, initiative, and self-reliance of prime importance in selecting teachers for their schools (Graybeal, 1941, pp. 741-744).

The trend toward generalization of entrance requirements is readily apparent upon examination of college and university announcements from 1950 on. The lack of standardization for entrance into the physical education field appears to be unfortunate. Some progress has been made, but there is still great room for improvement.

Curriculum. The aims, methods, and content of the various curricula underwent many changes in this period from 1920 to 1960. A unique American philosophy of physical education was beginning to exert its influence on the teacher preparation in the field. Sports, athletics, and team games had been greatly implemented by the war experience. The "natural" program of physical education, as so admirably propounded by Wood and Williams, began to make itself felt, but not without a struggle and much misunderstanding.

The results of the army draft medical examinations had come as a distinct shock to the American people. Because of this, legislation appeared for improved health education as well as for physical education. Wood's strong leadership helped to bring the status of a special subject field to the teaching of health. Health education had been previously considered the same as physical education (Williams, 1927, pp. 330-340).

These developments within the field as a whole soon made themselves felt in the various professional curricula. Leaders in the teacher education area of physical education began to envisage the physical educator as a man of more professional stature (Hines, 1920, pp. 52-56).

Approximately seventy-five institutions started four-year degree courses in physical education in the years from 1920 to 1925 alone, although some colleges still held out for a three-year course. As the field continued to broaden in scope, such programs gradually succumbed or supplemented (Zeigler, 1950, p. 227).

In 1926, statistics showed that there was a definite trend away from medical training for college directors. There were two distinct types of physical directors in colleges: (1) those who administered intercollegiate athletics, and (2) those who were concerned with the required physical education program and the teacher preparation program. A tendency toward the centralized department including everything was becoming more evident (Metcalf, 1926, pp. 45-47).

The most prevalent specialized curriculum in physical education for men in 1927 was that of athletic coaching! It was evidently felt that, due to the broadening scope of the field to include coaching of athletic sports and health service, such an opportunity for specialization would help to fulfill the need for qualified men as directors of physical education, athletic coaching, and health education.

The Division of Girl's and Women's Sports of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation has exerted a strong and beneficial influence on professional preparation in physical education for women since its inception as a Standing Committee on Women's Athletics of the American Physical Education Association in 1916. This contribution has ranged from the establishment of high standards for the conduct of girls and women's sports to *the* development of sports guides and other important publications relating to this area. Further opportunities have been provided through the work of this Division for a variety of in-service experiences in the area of girls and women's sports.

As early as 1925 a conference of institutions offering professional training in physical education was arranged by the United States Bureau of Education at which the aims and objectives of professional training and other subjects were discussed. Committees were appointed to consider these topics and report at a future meeting. The second conference of these colleges and universities assembled in Washington, D. C. on March 30, 1927. The problem of the "coach" versus the "physical educator" came in for much discussion at this time. Some felt that one person could not be both an athletic coach and a physical educator at the same time; the majority opinion seemed to favor the idea of selling the concept of a broader physical education training, including aU aspects of *the* field, to the professional schools in existence (U. S. Bureau of Education, 1927, pp. 3841).

At this time leaders urged that a standardized course nomenclature be adopted so that progress might be made toward a standardized curriculum. A committee, with McCurdy of Springfield College as chairman, was appointed to study the terminology and to construct a list of the most suitable generic names for curricular subjects.

Those in attendance at the two successive conferences had requested unanimously that a committee study the existing curricula within the field.

After Bowen's death (W. P. Bowen of Michigan State Normal College in Ypsilanti), McCurdy was asked to take over the responsibility of this committee, as well as the one studying course terminology. The report of this study group was published in 1929. It gave detailed information about the hours required in all courses in each of 139 institutions. The study made clear that the terminology attached to courses often gave no idea of the course content. This committee recommended a definite distribution of courses which totaled 136 semester hours (U. S. Bureau of Education, 1929).

An attempt to bring order into the existing situation originated within the profession itself. At a meeting of the Department of School Health and Physical Education of the National Education Association held in Los Angeles, California in July, 1931, a resolution was passed authorizing the appointment of a national committee for the purpose of establishing standards to be used in evaluating teacher education institutions preparing health and physical education teachers. Neilson of California was appointed chairman. The entire problem was divided, and subcommittees were assigned to recommend the following: (1) basic characteristics of the secondary school program; (2) general standards; (3) standards for the selection of students to be trained; (4) course standards; (5) standards for staff; and (6) standards for facilities.

In 1935 the National Committee Report on Standards was publishing in *the Research Quarterly* of the American Physical Education Association. The standards recommended by Subcommittee A-4 (Course Standards) divided the courses comprising the total curriculum into the four basic areas which have been used to a large extent since that time for the classification of the subject matter considered necessary to prepare a physical education teacher adequately: (1) academic courses required by the institution (other than foundation sciences); (2) foundation sciences required; (3) courses in general education (professional) required; and (4) courses in health and physical education required. A standard four-year curriculum was recommended, but a complete *seven-year* course was listed (Neilson, 1935, pp. 48-68). 1934, a five-year integrated curriculum had been recommended to complete (1) adequate general education, (2) specialization in physical education, (3) a second teaching field, (4) thorough orientation in education and psychology, and (5) training at the elementary school level as a background for teaching.

Scott, then of The Rice Institute, urged the adoption of a unit plan of instruction in 1935 as employed at his school. He recommended that scientific method *only* should determine the nature of the professional curriculum in the future. He suggested that *the* student should be encouraged to start thinking professionally as soon as possible. The nature and importance of the subject matter should determine the length of the unit, not the traditional semester and semester-hour format (1935).

Those physical educators who administered the curricula of the various teacher-training institutions in physical education began to realize that a gradual shift in emphasis had come about in connection with the biological sciences (i.e., zoology and physiology). It seemed logical to teach them as tool subjects rather than as ends in themselves. Other leaders, such as Bovard, advised the revamping of the curriculum in the direction of a greater affiliation with the social sciences (Bovard, 1935).

Length. The various trends evident in connection with the aims and methods of the professional physical education curriculum were not peculiar to the field of health education, physical education, and recreation alone. The teachers colleges generally wished to provide a level of adequate scholarship in the various other fields of the entire teaching profession. Requirements in professional education had been decreased slightly and had been more carefully defined. A trend away from formal academic courses seemed to be developing with increases in functional courses stressing contemporary Life. It seemed that the professional objectives of teaching itself were becoming more clearly defined as a marked increase in the prescription of courses was noticed. Inasmuch as broader majors for specialization purposes had been developed, more time would be necessary for the entire program. When the time elements involved under these different curriculum headings were totaled, it became obvious that teachers colleges were tending toward a five-year program for the realization of adequate and broad preparation of secondary school teachers (Sprague, 1940).

While this move for a five-year curriculum (resulting in either a teaching credential or a master's degree) has been gathering momentum gradually and is seemingly receiving support from the experience of institutions of higher education, there has arisen a minority in physical education that is asking whether the lengthening of the curriculum will provide the answer to the problem. Some have felt that a new type of approach to the problem of the curriculum was needed. This group working within the structure of the College Physical Education Association suggested further experimentation. The suggested plan was first to improve what was being done and then to lengthen the curriculum if necessary (Fredericks, 1938, p. 123).

Raising Standards. The Cooperative Study in Teacher Education, sponsored by the American Council on Education, 1938-1943, devoted considerable time to the matter of procedures and conditions conducive to continuous teacher education. Four basic conclusions of this study were as follows: (1) those schools made most progress where there was a conscious and studied effort by the faculty to be come more democratic in their relationship; (2) by and large, the most successful programs were those that started with problems that the teachers believed important; (3) teachers and administrators work together most effectively when they work on problems on which

they can make progress; and (4) adequate resources in personnel and materials should be available (Troyer, 1945, pp. 542, 582-584).

Although two major attempts to improve the quality of professional education in physical education had been to a certain degree successful, the objective was still not considered hopeless. National standards had not been realized, but further efforts were to be made subsequently. After the Global War was over, the College Physical Education Association revived an earlier Cooperative Study Committee of the AAHPER. that had been curtailed because of the War. The plan was to include representatives from the National Association, The College Physical Education Association, The National Association of Directors of Physical Education for College Women, The City Administrative Directors Society, The Society of State Directors of Health and Physical Education, and others at the discretion of the Committee and the President of the National Association. This group established its purpose at the outset, but decided not to take a definite stand on the question of ideal standards for teacher preparation. It was felt that it would be unwise to try to rate institutions as had been recommended by the earlier National Study in the 1930's. The main objective was to seek out "desirable practices" for teacher education institutions (Scott, 1947, pp. 97-101),

In 1947 the organized teaching profession sent its leadership from all parts of the country to Miami University, Oxford, Ohio for the National Conference for the Improvement of Teaching. In presenting the qualifications of a good teacher, twelve abilities, attributes, and understandings were listed which the excellent teacher should possess. A very high standard was set in regard to specialized professional training as well as in general education and in the personal and social qualities required (The NCTEPS, 1947, p. 51).

The American Association of Teachers Colleges completed an extensive study in 1948. Attention was called to the lack of a well-organized training program for teachers, which once again demonstrated that the criticism which the physical educators leveled against themselves can be made about the teaching profession as a whole. Again the need for a broad background of general education was emphasized. Student teaching possibilities were not being fully used in many institutions. The charge was made that many teacher education programs focus attention on preparing teachers as technicians to the exclusion of developing them as responsible society members. It was suggested that students need the opportunity to share in developing plans for their own guidance. Some students should receive more preparation along certain lines than others. Such factors as intelligence, mental and physical health, social development, and emotion al maturity should be taken into consideration when programs for the individual are planned (The AATC, 1948).

Professional Preparation Conferences. Physical education has continued to make progress toward improvement of the aims and methods of teacher preparation. The Committee of Teacher Education of the College Physical Education Association now the (NCPEAM) cooperated with eighteen organizations in sponsoring and participating in a National Conference on Undergraduate Professional Preparation in Health Education, Physical Education, and Recreation held at Jackson's Mill, Weston, West Virginia, in May, 1948. The Athletic Institute financed this important venture. This group re-emphasized the necessity of a cultural background for successful teaching. It was asserted that many teachers of physical education were entering the field without a "frame of reference" upon which to base their work. It was evident that many institutions were allowing their students to overspecialize. The exact amount of time required to produce a competent teacher and cultured citizen will vary with individuals and with institutions. A general curriculum plan was considered essential, and competency in achieving the objectives of the curriculum should be the criterion for graduation rather than a definite number of years or a certain number of specific courses (The National Conference on Undergraduate Professional Preparation in Physical Education. Health Education & Recreation, 1948).

Those attending the Jackson's Mill Conference placed the burden on the teacher preparation institutions to develop teachers who are masters of many "knowledges" and skills. To accomplish this aim, superior instruction is needed under conditions where facilities and equipment are excellent. An unusually large number of colleges and universities have entered the field recently, but they cannot possibly have adequate staffs and facilities for the task at hand. Many leaders felt that standards for accrediting would come as an aftermath of the Jackson's Mill Report. Some states (e.g., Pennsylvania) have already acted to prevent colleges with inadequate facilities and staffs from offering major programs in this field.

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education served as one of the sponsoring agencies of the Jackson's Mill Conference. This body was formed in 1948 by a merger of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, schools of education in universities, and municipal universities engaged in teacher preparation. Its primary purpose was to improve the quality of teacher education. It "assumed the role of a voluntary accreditation agency, developed Evaluation Schedules for that function and held a series of evaluations of teacher education programs to familiarize college representatives with the schedules ... " (Nordly, 1959, p. 4)

Evaluative criteria for the rating of professional programs in physical education were developed, and a number of institutions expressed their willingness to have their programs rated. These criteria were made available inexpensively by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. Professional leaders called for departments of physical education to undertake self-evaluation of major programs as a first step.

Accreditation. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education relinquished its accreditation functions to the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education in 1954. In 1957 the A. A. H. P. E. & R. held a workshop to revise the evaluative criteria for physical education in light of the changes which were made by the N. C. A. T. E. in the former general criteria developed by the A. A. C.T. E. It seems evident that, "General public respect for our profession and the effectiveness of our unique contribution to education are dependent upon the standards attained through cooperative efforts" (Nordly, 1959, p. 7).

Number of Programs. In the period from 1920 to 1960 the growth in the number of institutions offering professional preparation for physical education has been phenomenal. In the decade after World War I, which conflict exerted a tremendous influence upon the field forcing a flood of state physical education laws, some 137 colleges and universities began to offer teacher preparation in health and physical education. From 1930 through 1939, despite the severe financial depression which affected the entire educational field greatly, approximately ninety-seven more institutions entered the field. As had its predecessor, World War H exerted a great influence. From 1940 to 1950 over 100 colleges and universities decided to offer programs designed to prepare teachers of physical education. An exact figure for this decade immediately past (1950-1960) is not available, but a safe estimate would be that there are now over 635 colleges and universities offering teacher education in physical education (Undergraduate and Graduate Professional Preparation in HEPE&R, 1954).

Brief Summary

In the 100 years since the inception of professional preparation for physical education, very significant changes have taken place. In many instances early schools were owned by the individual or society sponsoring them. Subsequently these normal schools underwent a distinct transformation. Names were changed, curricula were expanded, staffs were increased greatly in number, degrees were offered, and eventually affiliation with colleges and universities took place.

The field has been influenced by a variety of societal forces as the American scene changed. Foreign traditions and customs held away initially, but gradually a fairly distinct American philosophy of physical education emerged. Such occurrences as wars and periods of economic depression and/or prosperity brought about sweeping changes.

In the period from 1900 to 1920, educators began to take the place of physicians as directors of professional programs. Many publicly-supported colleges and universities entered the field. A significant development was the awarding of academic degrees upon the completion of major programs in physical education. Specialized curricula were developed usually within

schools of education. In many instances, the subsequent establishment of separate schools and colleges of physical education within universities has had a notable influence on professional preparation.

Down through the years of the twentieth century many leaders have urged a stronger "cultural" education for prospective physical education teachers. They have expressed former a desire for an improved background in the foundation sciences. Until somewhat more recently there has been a definite trend toward increasing the number of hours required in general professional education courses. A number of studies have indicated a lack of standardization in course terminology within the specialized area of health, physical education, and recreation.

There have been many attempts to improve the quality of professional preparation through studies, surveys, research projects, national conferences, and accreditation plans. A significant text recommending a "competency approach" to the preparation of teachers in this field has been published (Snyder and Scott, 1954). The field seems to be moving toward self-evaluation and self-improvement. The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation has been a great influence in this historical development aided by such affiliated groups as the College Physical Education Association (NCPEAM) and the National Association of Physical Education for College Women.

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(Note: Through the efforts of Professors Walter Kroll and Guy Lewis of the University of Massachusetts at Amherst, we now have evidence indicating that an A.B. degree with a major in physical education became available at Stanford University in 1892-93, and that Walter Wells Davis received this degree in hygiene and organic training in 1897. The program was started under the direction of Dr. Thomas D. Wood.

But even more surprising than the above data is the evidence that "the first academic four-year degree recipient in physical education" was James F. Jones, and that the program was developed at Harvard College by George Wells Fitz. He began a Department of Anatomy, Physiology, and Physical Training in 1891 at Harvard College. Thus, Jones received a B.S. degree with cum laude honors in *Anatomia, Physiologica, et Corporis Cultu* in June, 1893! For further information, please see Kroll, Walter, and Lewis, Guy, "The First Academic Degree in Physical Education." *JOHPER*, June, 1969 under the section entitled "History and Archives."")

CHAPTER 19

A HISTORY OF PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN SELECTED NEGRO COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES TO 1958

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Editor's Note: This historical essay represents the essence of a doctoral study completed in the 1950s at Michigan (Ann Arbor) by Professor Pierro. The historical investigation was carried in a most careful and painstaking manner; it employs a "persistent problems technique" that can be used most effectively by others. The reader will be interested to learn about his findings and conclusions.

Introduction

The Negro athlete has been a formidable contender in the field of college athletics since the latter part of the nineteenth century, and yet there seems to be relatively little in the literature to record the exploits of this minority group. But from time to time new records and instances of Negro participation are revealed or uncovered quite by accident, even though the complete account of his exploits lies buried in the mass of "news-print" materials or otherwise unpublished information which repose in newspaper morgues or library archives. Negro athletes are known to have been involved in college athletics as early as 1860. Even though there have possibly been some unnamed heroes prior to that time, their identities have never reached national notice.

Prior to the turn of the twentieth century the Negro's formal experience in physical education was primarily in intercollegiate athletics. The first director of Harvard University physical education was a man of color (Higginson, 1959, p. 38). Abram Hewlitt was employed as an instructor and director of the first gymnasium in 1859 and held that post until his death in 1871. In 1875 W. G. Higginson, gave the following account and description of Hewlitt:

> **The first teacher of gymnastics at Harvard College was Abram Molineaux Hewlitt. He was a professional teacher of boxing, and had established a gymnasium of his own in Worchester, Massachusetts, where he was highly esteemed. He was a mulatto, of very fine physique, and of respectable and estimable character.... He was moreover a fair gymnast and a**

remarkable good teacher of boxing. In the first years of his term of service there was a good deal of activity in the gymnasium and regular class-exercise went on.

In the final decade of the nineteenth century, names of Negro athletes began to appear on the rosters of college teams in the eastern section of the country. In the early 1890's two Negro athletes, William Tecumseh Sherman Jackson and William H. Lewis, from Virginia appeared on the rosters of Amherst College and Harvard University. Jackson and Lewis went from Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute at Petersburg, Virginia (Henderson, 1939, pp. 5-10) to Amherst where each became a star on athletic teams. Lewis later attended Harvard where his exploits in football were sufficient to cause him to be named to Walter Camp's "All-American" teams in 1892 and 1893 (Menke, 1944, p. 444). In 1904 the *New York Evening World* which published its AU-Time, All-American team gave Lewis the center berth.

By the early 1900's, Negro athletes began to gain recognition, in increasing numbers, in many of the white schools in *the* country. Howard Drew of Southern California who was co-holder of the 100yard dash record in 1914, Eddie Tolan of the University of Michigan, Ralph Metcalfe of Marquette, and Jesse Owens of the Ohio State University were names of Negro athletes which were written into track and field records (Menke, 1944, pp. 927-956) during the first third of the twentieth century.

Early Physical Education in Negro Colleges and Universities

The growth and development of professional preparation for physical education in the Negro schools and colleges did not follow the same evolutionary pattern as in the white colleges and universities. Professional preparation for physical education in Negro institutions of higher learning was added to the curricula in those schools which had teacher-training programs already established. There were no special training schools for Negro physical education teachers such as those established by Dio Lewis, Dudley Sargent, William Anderson and Watson Savage (Van Dalen, 1953, pp. 420-68).

In the Negro colleges no thought was given to physical education as a teaching field until well into the twentieth century. However, just before the turn of the century Hampton Institute offered special training in gymnastics (Hampton Catalog, 1894, p. 29), and students who satisfactorily completed the courses received a certificate recommending them as "fitted to teach gymnastics." Although Negroes attended white colleges and universities in certain parts of the country prior to the turn of the century, there is no evidence available which indicates that any of them were prepared to teach physical education. By 1900, a total of 390 Negroes had graduated from seventy-three white colleges (Dubois, 1903, pp. 28-37); none of these were identified as physical educators. It is also interesting to note that Dubois

does not mention any of the normal schools of physical education in his list of seventy-three schools. It is, however, possible that some Negroes may have attended some of these normal schools. Some few did attend the Harvard Summer School and, when the Harvard Summer School closed its doors (Rice, 1958, p. 307), many Negroes attended Springfield International YMCA College and the Sargent School of Boston University. George Williams College later graduated some Negro males, and Sargent graduated many Negro women.

A search into the beginning of Negro institutions revealed that there was an awareness of the necessity for including physical education in their programs (Thrasher, 1901, pp. 209-10), but it appeared that their concept of physical education was vague and quite provincial. Some schools considered physiology, hygiene, and a general program of calisthenics as satisfying the general physical education requirement (Catalogues and Bulletins, Tuskegee Institute, 1881, p. 10 and Hampton Institute, 1886, pp. 6-9).

Although Howard University is credited with offering the first four-year degree course in physical education in 1924, Hampton Institute also launched a four-year course organized for physical education majors in its school of education that same year (Hampton Catalog, 1924-25).

Howard University had required physical education from the beginning, but it was primarily for the benefit of the individual person. The aims of the program were good physical conditioning, health, and participation in activities which had implications from military science. Teaching, as a profession, was evidently not considered as far as men were concerned, because most of the trained physical education teachers in Negro schools during that time were women. Little was done in the way of physical education for women at Howard before the major program was started in 1924. Except for a bit of calisthenics, gymnastics, and (for men) running around the city reservoir, the entire physical education program was expressed in terms of intercollegiate athletics. It is mainly for this reason that the department was later divided, and separate departments for men and women came into existence.

In 1921, Louis L. Watson, a graduate of Howard University who had gone to Springfield and earned a physical education degree, returned to Howard and was appointed the director of the physical education department and athletic coach. Prior to Watson's coming to Howard, the director of physical education at the University was Edward Morrison, one of the leading dentists in the community. Morrison had been a famous Negro football player at Tufts College in 1914-16. His interest in Howard's program was wrapped up in his fondness for football and athletics. This, therefore, became the major emphasis in physical education at Howard until Watson and Maryrose Allen came on the scene in 1924-25.

Unlike the programs at most other schools, the early program at Hampton was designed for women. Young women were required to take gymnastics for three years. The gymnasium was a room on the fourth floor of the academic building and was equipped with Swedish apparatus. The course included exercises on apparatus, floor work, and gymnastic games. Williams points out the aims of the program during this period:

> **It is the purpose of the gymnastic games to train the swiftness and exactness of both the mind and body, and at the same time afford a pleasant relaxation from military discipline in other parts of the drill. The popular game of basketball has been introduced. Muscular development is not the aim of gymnastics,. We do not strive for athletes, but rather to train the muscular and nervous system together, and strengthen the heart and lungs upon which all other organs of the body depend.**

At Tuskegee Institute, the evolution of the program followed closely the pattern at Hampton. There was very little done in the way of physical education for men except the drills and exercises connected with the military program. When Booker T. Washington became Principal of Tuskegee in 1881, he set out to develop attitudes of industry and honesty in the backward and underdeveloped country youth of Alabama. His aim was to develop specific skills in definite crafts, and to prepare teachers for the public and private schools in the south. Although no details could be found about the recreation, play, or frivolities of the early students, the name of Michael B. Stephens is listed as the Sociology-Gymnastic teacher in 1900 (Thrasher, Appendix, pp. 209-10).

The very first catalog published by Tuskegee listed physiology and hygiene and calisthenics as requirements and the name of Azalia Thomas appears as the first gymnastic teacher (*Catalog* of Tuskegee State Normal School, 1881, p. 10). So it seems that in spite of his "vocational emphasis" Mr. Washington did consider exercise or gymnastics significant, even though the program was provided only for women. Actually, physical education did not flourish at Tuskegee until Robert R. Morton became president in 1916.

Early physical education for men at Tuskegee was primarily an athletic program involving football and baseball. Basketball and track and field were considered minor sports. The first athletic coach was J. B. Washington (1894-1897), who worked in the post office department. From 1897 to 1907 Charles Winter Woods, of the English department, served as coach. Physical education for men came under the ROTC program, while the women had an organized program of calisthenics and exercises which were carried on in the gymnasium (a room set aside in the academic building) under the direction of Amelia Roberts, who had a diploma from Sargent, and came to Tuskegee in 1905 (Tuskegee Bulletin, 1905).

An organized physical education program for men really began in 1923 with the coming of Cleveland L. Abbott, a graduate of South Dakota College with a major in agriculture. He organized the intramural football team within the agriculture department, and his team defeated the varsity football team that year. He became director of physical education and brought in Louise Atkins to bolster the women's staff and to teach tennis. Ross Owens was lated added to the men's staff, and by 1927 Tuskegee was well on the way to developing a physical education program for both men and women (Taped Interviews, Mrs. Cleveland Abbott, April 27, 1960). In 1931 the gymnasium (Logan Hall) was completed, and the program expanded to a professional preparation program in 1933.

As early as the last quarter of the nineteenth century, intercollegiate athletics was beginning to have a definite place in the student Life at Wilberforce University. The athletic association was organized and sanctioned to promote the typical program carried on by the Negro colleges during this period (McGinnis, 1941, p. 173). By 1900 physical education was offered in the university program, and a department of health and physical education had been organized. Between 1900 and 1927 athletics played an important part in the advertising of Wilberforce. Football, basketball, and baseball were given utmost attention (Minutes of Meetings of the General Faculty Reports on Athletics, 1900-1930). In her zeal to achieve recognition in the field of athletics Wilberforce went "all out" for sports. The desire to develop a department of health and physical education was one cause for this over-emphasis, and the desire to develop championship teams was another. There was constant debating among faculty members about this over-emphasis given to athletics (Wilberforce University: Minutes of General Faculty, March 7, 1910).

Although there was a department of physical education as early as 1910, there was no listed physical education instructor until 1915 (*Wilberforce University Bulletin*, 1915, p. 127). The first instructor was Horace Preston, who held a bachelor of science degree in physical education, and in 1917 Charles Blackburn was added to the staff.

By 1923 the physical education department had expanded its offerings, and was bidding strongly to offer professional preparation for physical education. The lack of adequate facilities for conducting a full scale program had been corrected with the construction of Beacon Gymnasium, a structure which was more than adequate for the student enrollment and the program at that time. To strengthen the program, the department employed a woman instructor, Miss Carlynne Payne, a graduate of Sargent School, and also Mr. Dean Mohr from Ohio State University (Wilberforce University Bulletin, 1924-5, p. 97). Among the eight course offerings for men, and six for women, was a course which dealt with teaching physical education in the elementary grades. Instruction was also given in taking measurements and the organization and administration of meets and festivals (Ibid., p. 98).

At Morehouse College, which was founded in 1867, as Atlanta Baptist College, the program was much the same as that followed by Wilberforce. Intercollegiate athletics, which began with baseball in 1891 (*Catalog of Atlanta Baptist College*, 1891-92, p. 12), constituted the physical education program. A. D. Jones, a physician, became the first athletic coach in 1902. Prior to this time the team captain did the coaching. When Jones left the coaching job at Morehouse, this responsibility fell to Samuel Archer, who was a graduate of Colgate and had come to Morehouse to teach mathematics. Archer was destined to become the dean of the College and later the president. When his administrative duties become too heavy, the coaching responsibility was taken over by B. T. Harver, another Colgate graduate, who had come to Morehouse to teach chemistry.

Although Morehouse intercollegiate athletics was continued without interruption from its beginning in 1891, there was no organized physical education at the school until 1932. At this time the Division of Athletic Sports and the Service program were centralized under one title - The Department of Physical Education - and Franklin Forbes, who had graduated from Morehouse in 1928 and attended Springfield for several summers, was placed in charge of the physical education department (Morehouse College Bulletin, 1933, p. 9).

Lincoln University, like Morehouse College, was an institution which trained men only. Located in southern Pennsylvania, Lincoln was one of the two institutions in the north which was founded before the Civil War primarily to train Negro students. Today Lincoln is a non-sectarian four-year senior college, privately controlled and state aided. Its doors are now open to all races and both sexes. Unlike most of the other Negro schools, Lincoln did not require the students to take physical education. Required physical education began when Manuel Rivero, a graduate of Columbia University, became physical director in 1934. Students were encouraged, however, to participate in activities which would contribute to their physical development. In one of the President's annual reports to the board he advised:

> **The health of the students has suffered for the want of proper conveniences for healthful regular exercises. The lot assigned for their use has been a great advantage, but is too rough for safety in rapid running. It ought to be ploughed and leveled and thoroughly rolled. A small appropriation for this purpose is desirable. (*Annual Report of the President*, Lincoln University, 1872, Book I, p. 187).**

Before 1924 most of the Negro colleges in the country either had no physical education requirement or interpreted such activities as physiology, hygiene, and athletics as physical education in order to satisfy the requirements of the few states which required physical education for

certification. After 1917 many Negro land-grant and private colleges included the teacher-training program in their curricula and consequently had to include physical education as a requirement (Cook, Bulletin No. 19, 1927, pp. 280-85). This was usually done with a minimum amount of organizational change. Among more than thirty schools investigated, only three indicated that they had instructors with physical education degrees when their teaching-training program began. One possible explanation for this is that prior to 1924 no Negro institution offered professional preparation for physical education, and the few persons who had received training in this area had attended Harvard Summer School, Springfield, or Sargent.

The need for professional preparation for physical education in the Negro schools became apparent in 1927 when all of the states began to require physical education for teacher certification. There simply were not enough Negro physical education teachers to go around.

Staff Evolution

Since intercollegiate athletics preceded professional preparation for physical education in all of the Negro institutions, the one person who was on the scene when the professional program began was the athletic coach. This meant that he was usually designated as head of the physical education department. Prior to 1930 only two schools began their professional program with trained physical educators appointed to direct the department. In most instances the staffs were composed of persons who were trained in other academic fields and began to qualify in physical education on a piecemeal basis by attending summer school or in-service programs.

Between 1924 and 1958 physical education teaching personnel grew in number from one, in some institutions, to as many as fourteen in others. The usual procedure for developing a physical education staff was to appoint one, two, and sometimes three persons from other departments who were already on the teaching faculty, and then bring in as many new people as was absolutely necessary. As the persons already employed were usually male coaches, one or more women were brought in to handle courses for women.

By the end of 1958 the staffs in all of the Negro schools, Wilberforce excepted, had increased significantly beyond their size prior to World War II, and the quality of academic preparation among physical education teachers had improved. In 1958 more than two-thirds of all persons engaged in the physical education instructional program in Negro colleges and universities had earned master's degrees, and more than half held a rank above that of instructor. It is not so gratifying, however, to note that there were only eleven persons with doctoral degrees, and there were still many schools which had departments in which not a single person had earned this terminal degree.

Physical Facilities

When the major programs in physical education were started in the Negro colleges and universities, the facilities available for conducting the programs were considered to be better than those which other departments had available to them when they began. This was primarily due to the fact that intercollegiate athletics, which had preceded the professional physical education program, had some semblance of facilities for operational purposes which became immediately available for use in the professional programs. It was very soon discovered, however, that these facilities were far too inadequate to serve the minimum necessities of a major program.

By 1939 Hampton Institute provided better facilities and more equipment for physical education than any other Negro college in the United States. Even before *the* turn of the twentieth century, Hampton had a large room located on the fourth floor of the academic building, which was equipped with Swedish apparatus consisting of stall bars, benches, straight and slanting ropes, double boom, balance beams, and vaulting standards. There was enough space for floor work which consisted of twisting, jumping, marching, and running (C. H. Williams, p. 2). There was in addition some space for outdoor courts and activities (Klein, p. 887). By 1928, a gymnasium had been built to serve a wider range of activities than the earlier had provided. Much of the unimproved land space had been developed into modern play courts and fields.

Howard University also provided facilities for carrying on physical education well in advance of the advent of the major program. The situation, however, did not favor Howard as it had Hampton. The entire physical education plant consisted of a compact plot of twenty-five acres, and there was very little land available to allocate as open space where out-of-doors activities could be conducted.

Therefore, prior to 1925, physical education was conducted in the basement of two dormitories on the campus. The outdoor activities for men consisted largely of military exercises and running around the reservoir of the water department of the District of Columbia. The athletic and sports activities were conducted at Griffith's Stadium, a major league baseball park adjacent to the campus, and Banneker Field, a district recreation facility across the street from the university.

In 1925 a new up-to-date gymnasium was erected. This building contained all modern facilities with an overhead running track, showers, swimming pool, gymnastic equipment, and rooms for recitation and military science tactics. By 1926 a new football field was added.

Within the next fifteen years the physical education department had outgrown the facilities and equipment. Both the men and women were

obliged to use the same gymnasium, field, and pool. But after World War H Howard showed a tremendous increase in facilities, staff and program.

The situation at Wilberforce University was quite different from that at Hampton and Howard. Wilberforce was not entirely dependent upon church appropriations, endowments, philanthropy and student fees for income as were Howard and Hampton. More than half of the school's income was derived from appropriations from the state of Ohio to support the Combined Normal and Industrial Department (*Wilberforce University Bulletin*, 1924-25, p. 16). The physical education department was maintained entirely on the state side of the university, where adequate space was available for the development of courts and fields which were necessary to meet the demands of the school's physical education program. Of the 347 acres of land which constituted the physical plant, the state of Ohio owned nearly two-thirds (Klein, *op. cit.*, p. 605). The outdoor activities at Wilberforce during the early part of this period were largely baseball and football. For indoor physical education, Beacon Gymnasium, built in 1922, was modernly equipped. It was a commodious structure which afforded ample space for all of the indoor sports and gymnastics conducted at Wilberforce at this time.

At Tuskegee Institute, the physical education program and training for men was confined to courses in health, hygiene, military drill, and outdoor athletic games. The program for women involved gymnastics, floor work, and calisthenics, all of which were conducted in a basement room of the laundry building. In 1931, Tuskegee completed the erection of Logan Hall. This building, which was an auditorium-gymnasium, was then the largest and most complete gymnasium in all of the Negro schools. The fact that it was large and complete made it an obstacle to the development of the physical education program. Logan Hall was designed large enough not only to accommodate the entire student body at one gathering, but also to provide a meeting place for the entire population of the Negro community at Tuskegee. So occasionally the physical education program had to give way to the "higher priority" farmers' conference, community gathering, general school movie or dance.

In 1939, because of the improved quality and quantity of the staff, and the change in the concept of professional preparation held by "Cleve" Abbott, there began a gradual expansion of the facilities necessary to conduct the professional program as well as athletics. By 1958, tennis courts, game areas, and sports fields had been added or developed, and the gymnasium had become the nerve center of the physical education program.

Early physical education at Virginia State College consisted mainly of intercollegiate athletic sports, some gymnastics, and a fairly good athletic program; the facilities consisted of an athletic field which was used primarily for football and baseball. But there were several tennis courts and a small gymnasium which was a large room in Virginia Hall, a classroom

building built in 1888. In 1927 the college initiated an expansion of the physical education department to include the professional preparation of teachers. This action called for expansion of the physical facilities as well (Virginia State College Gazette, 1883-1934, p. 34).

A new structure was built and well equipped with ample facilities to conduct activities which were demanded of Negro teachers in physical education as well as white teachers during this time. Additional tennis courts were built, and a soccer field for women was constructed on the front of the campus. By 1932 the enrollment had outgrown the facilities made available earlier. A swimming pool was added to the gymnasium, and later several classrooms and administrative offices were added.

Very early in her history, Southern University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, participated in intercollegiate athletics, and except for the facilities necessary to promote intercollegiate athletics she had little in the way of physical education facilities. Until 1938 the lack of physical education facilities was not a serious problem for the administration nor the physical education department, because the physical education requirements of the university, as well as those of the State Board for Certification, could be very easily satisfied without any special equipment other than the playfields and classroom spaces which were a part of the existing physical plant.

By 1938 the professional preparation program was well under way, and some attention was being given to improving and increasing the facilities and the staff as well as course offerings. A modern gymnasium-auditorium was completed in 1939, and a football stadium as well as a quarter-mile running track was added. Three new tennis courts were added to supplement the already existing two, and a new baseball field was constructed. By 1958 Southern had built an additional gymnasium complete with a swimming pool and seven classrooms, in addition to the main auditorium.

Morehouse College and Lincoln University in Pennsylvania were both schools for male students only. Neither was a state-supported school, and, therefore, they were obliged to depend upon their own resources and the supporting churches for procurement of all facilities necessary to carry any program. Morehouse was located in a large urban community, but her physical plant was limited to a small plot of ground, a mere seven acres, and this among other things accounted in part for the limited amount of facilities for physical education. Prior to 1930, the main teaching station was a large playing field on campus which served as the field for intercollegiate football and baseball as well as the service program in physical education. By 1930 a gymnasium for basketball and indoor activities was constructed, and in 1933 two tennis courts were added to the campus. The gymnasium was barely large enough for a regulation-sized basketball court, and its usefulness was further limited by spectator bleachers which were built in as permanent

structures. The gymnasium equipment would have to be classified as very meager. There was some gymnastic equipment such as a side horse, parallel bars, and several tumbling mats. The gym floor afforded sufficient space for volleyball and gymnastics when not being used for basketball.

Since no professional preparation courses were offered during these years, and the student body was small, the greater part of the physical education program included outdoor activities. In 1932 the facilities of the Atlanta University athletic field were made available to Morehouse for use in conducting certain phases of her program. This athletic field was spacious enough to provide a quarter-mile, oval running track with a grassy infield which could be organized for soccer, speedball and softball. There were, in addition, two clay tennis courts and a regulation-sized baseball field far enough removed from the other activities to create a safe atmosphere, and a new health and physical education building was constructed. This structure was complete with a swimming pool, four bowling alleys, a game room and an all-purpose auditorium.

When Morgan College moved to its present site in Baltimore in 1919, a barn already on the property was converted into a gymnasium for indoor gymnastics, stunts and tumbling, calisthenics, and marching (Wilson, loc. cit.). Although these activities were known to have existed on campus, the course offerings were announced for the first time in 1932 (Morgan College Catalog, 1923-24, p. 58).

Unlike the other institutions previously discussed, Morgan did not have facilities for carrying on the intercollegiate athletic program during the early years other existence. She did, however, have an intercollegiate program, and by 1935 a major sequence in physical education was offered (Morgan College Bulletin, 1935-36, pp. 13-15).

The professional preparation courses were conducted at the old Douglas High School. In addition to using the high school gymnasium, an instructor from the public school system served as a teacher. The athletic teams had to use one of two available facilities for practicing: a vacant lot which was located some distance from the campus on the high school athletic field across town. Because of the lack of available facilities, their intercollegiate games had to be played in rented facilities in Baltimore, Maryland.

Although the physical education faculties at Morgan were nonexistent prior to 1935, Mr. Bowman, the supervisor of health and physical education for the public schools of Baltimore, stated:

> **To be educated physically we do not need to have a complete modern plant, although it would be appreciated and used to its fullest extent. It is my feeling that we at Morgan College should**

> **first take advantage of the many opportunities for physical education that the college now offers. A new complete and modern gymnasium will come in time. Let us do our part to bring this to our campus (Morgan College Bulletin, 1935-36, pp. 13-15).**

While Mr. Bowman's prophecy eventually did come to pass, the program had to develop without a new gymnasium for many years. In the meantime, the playing field was a "driveway" between the two buildings on the campus. On inclement days the classes were moved into the chapel where the physical education program was carried on as usual. In 1937 Morgan acquired her own athletic stadium, and in later years a gymnasium was built on the campus. Between 1939, when the Methodist Episcopal Church sold Morgan to the State of Maryland, and 1958 the school continued to show improvement in program and facilities.

Discussion

Negro colleges and universities, like all other institutions of society, reflect the culture of the region in which they exist. With a very few exceptions, all of the predominantly Negro colleges and universities in the United States are in the south, where the Negro's ascribed status as subordinate and inferior has been accepted as inevitable by members of both races. While this concept has been the source of much discontent, until recently it has not created a great amount of conflict. It remains a fact that the Negro schools, public and private, have not measured up to accepted standards for American schools.

In the public colleges and universities the physical education programs have been below standards for several reasons, not the least of which has been *the* lack of sufficient funds and facilities and the lack of properly trained personnel. The failure to allocate funds for schools maintained exclusively for colored people has resulted in an inferior quality of schools at every level from the elementary school to the university.

For many years now the physical education programs in Negro schools have had to content themselves with little or no facilities with which to carry on an indoor program. In most of the schools there has been little equipment available to conduct the most meager activity courses. While there has usually been some space available for outdoor activities, this has commonly been an underdeveloped area, or an improvised section of the campus yard.

In the Negro schools it seems that there has not always been a great concern for the quality of physical education instructors. Certifying boards have sometimes permitted persons to teach without the proper credentials; teachers have sometimes been hired for reasons other than their abilities to teach physical education; and in many instances they are paid on a scale

122which is lower than that of their counterparts in white institutions. This dual system has probably been an important cause of the low status of the Negro schools.

The gymnasium is the most important facility for conducting an indoor program in physical education. In many of the Negro colleges this facility is still non-existent, inadequate, or too poorly equipped to be adapted functionally. In too many instances this facility is still a dual or multi-purpose building which Umits the types and numbers of activities which can be conducted.

In the public-supported Negro institutions the budget usually is not sufficient to provide the necessities for conducting the professional preparation program. There is usually not as much concerted public pressure placed upon schools or the boards of trustees to provide facilities for physical education as that exerted for the so-called "fundamental" subjects such as science, agriculture, and the vocational arts.

In private institutions the situation is, and has been, much the same. Presidents of private colleges have the primary responsibilities to "raise" money for operation. It is logical to presume that this can best be done by favoring the tastes of those persons who have money to give. Unfortunately, people or organizations that are sources of these monies have not been those who have seen the value of physical education as a part of the school program. So the request is made for a building which is first an auditorium or assembly hall and, secondly, a gymnasium.

Finally, those who are engaged in professional preparation in the field of physical education must share some of the responsibilities for the situations in Negro institutions. It appears that the people in physical education, with some exceptions, of course, have not professionalized the field to the extent that it commands the dignity and respect that other disciplines have. There are still too many persons engaged in physical education who barely have the academic qualifications and skills to teach professional courses. There seems to be too little individual initiative to take actions which will lead to professional growth. There are still many Negro colleges and universities which offer professional degree programs without a single staff member with a doctorate degree (even though the staff may be large). It is, however, gratifying to note that increasing numbers are moving up to the master's degree level. But past experience indicates that, for most of them, this will signal the end of their formal education.

The fact that many physical education teachers who are not qualified to conduct professional courses are actively engaged in the profession may be due to the indifferent attitudes of persons in *the* field. Unlike secondary and elementary school teachers, the college teacher is not required by law to meet certification standards. Most Negro colleges do not have rigid policies

which govern the employment of a teacher, and employment becomes a "bargaining activity" between the employer and employee. More often than not the teacher is employed for reasons other than his academic ability.

Since his liberation from slavery the Negro has been waging a fight for more and better educational opportunity. The positive outcome of this struggle seems inevitable. In spite of integration *the* Negro colleges and universities in the south must be prepared to provide the education for the bulk of the Negro high school graduates for some time to come. In view of this probability, it is of utmost importance that serious attention be given the quantity and quality of these institutions, and every effort must be made to bring them up to professional standards.

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CHAPTER 20

A BRIEF DESCRIPTIVE HISTORY OF GRADUATE STUDY IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES TO 1950

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Editor's Note: A third essay prepared by the Editor traces briefly the history of graduate study in physical education in the United States to 1950. This chapter was presented at the International Seminar on the History of Sport, ENSEPS - 92 - Chatenay-Malabry, France, May 17-20, 1972.

Introduction

Graduate study in physical education had its very early beginnings in the United States during the last decade of the nineteenth century and the early years of the present century. Prior to the presentation of a brief narrative presentation of this development, early graduate study - generally speaking - will be reviewed, and a few statements will be made about the beginning of undergraduate professional preparation for physical education as well.

It was toward the middle of the nineteenth century that some formal graduate work was offered to students in the United States for the first time. At the undergraduate level, America had borrowed the English system, but it was the graduate school pattern of Germany that was superimposed on the collegiate structure of the time (Ryan, 1939, pp. 1-8). At the University of Halle (Germany), a basic change in approach had been introduced - an approach which involved a newer philosophy based on significant advances in science and mathematics. Such an interest in research and scholarly endeavor was actually characteristic of early programs in the United States generally, but in 1876 Johns Hopkins University was the first institution to pattern itself directly after the model of the German universities (Ryan, p. 28). The first Ph.D. program had been established sixteen years earlier by Yale University (Rosenberg, 1966, p. 34).

The master's degree, typically the second degree, become available at Harvard College only six years after it was founded in 1636. The student was required to take an additional year of study beyond the bachelor's degree, prepare a thesis or "synopsis" for presentation prior to commencement, and pay the additional fees for that period. These disputations were typically quite theological and unscientific in nature. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries many colleges awarded master's degrees which were

honorary more or less. Truly earned degrees under reorganized academic councils didn't appear until the 1870's (Knight, 1940, pp. 426-432).

Despite this seemingly meager beginning, somehow by the beginning of the twentieth century at least fifty universities were offering the doctoral degree - the earned Ph.D. At that time there was an effort to standardize and accredit these programs, but only twenty or so of the universities seemed to be really concerned with this type of evaluation (Good in Henry, *Graduate Study in Education*, p. 6). In both 1908 and 1916, committees representing associations of universities made recommendations about the maintenance of standards. A similar statement was made concerning the status of the American master's degree in 1932 (Knight, pp. 436-437).

Graduate programs built upon a reasonably sound base developed steadily in these early years. There was an attempt to meet the needs of the time; the quality of faculty and students was quite high; and the administrative leaders of the period were of high caliber. From a most modest number of only 198 graduate students in the entire country in 1871-1872, the figure rose to a total of 47,255 men and women in 1930 (Edwards, 1935, pp. 469-470). Such an expansion could not have taken place without the incidence of a great many problems involving a great number of considerations. One recurrent problem, as repeated time and again in the literature over the years, revolved around the concept of research - as opposed to teacher preparation - as the basic responsibility of the graduate school (Dale, 1930, pp. 198-202).

Social forces within the country between 1920 and 1940 could not not help but influence graduate study significantly. Enrollments were rising sharply, and the character of a considerable percentage of these students was changing. Graduate degree programs were established in a great many professional schools, and thus it became difficult to maintain high standards of scholarship. A change in emphasis with a necessary broadening of the content of graduate programs was considered justifiable by Edwards in the mid-thirties because of the increased demand for teachers and administrators. From another standpoint, it became almost impossible to provide intensified preparation for research specialization when the graduate schools were graduating 3,000 Ph.D.'s and 25,000 master's candidates annually (Edwards, 1935, pp. 469-470).

The master's degree in education was offered initially in the latter part of the nineteenth century. In the year 1900 some thirty-one master's degrees were awarded by a total of twelve leading universities. To give some idea of the growth of graduate study in professional education - for these same institutions alone - some 134 degrees were awarded in 1910; 678 by 1920; and 3,231 in 1930 (John, 1935, p. 450). By 1949-1950, this number had grown six fold to 18,311 master's degrees in education by aU colleges and universities in the country offering such programs (Story, 1950, p. 78). It is generally accepted

that within this divergent group of study patterns there is a "wide diversity of standards relating to entrance and degree requirements ... " (Snyder and Scott, 1954, p. 205). Thus, it becomes somewhat obvious why the Council of Graduate Schools in the United States points out that a master's degree program should be inaugurated by a university only when the "resources and special traditions available" would seem to make such a degree program desirable (Council of Graduate Studies in the U. S., "The Master's Degree," p. 4).

While this development was taking place at the master's level, graduate education generally was completing what Berelson has designated a "growth and diversification" phase from World War I to World War H, and beginning on another period called "revival and reappraisal" since World War II (1960, pp. 24-42). It was during the former of these two periods that the doctoral program was made available in many more fields within the traditional arts and science unit, but also in a great many professional fields including education (p. 27). The persistent problem of "purpose and quality" was considered time and again (p. 28). According to Berelson, the demand for training and the supply of students, the institutions offering graduate work, the body of knowledge to be communicated, the professionalizing of graduate study, the debate over the entire enterprise - all of these familiar trends were back in high gear by 1950 .. . (p. 32).

About this time also, both *general* and *special* professional education, as units related to schools and colleges of education within universities, were confronted with a most serious problem. One might say that young

> **Note: "General" professional education refers to those courses in schools of education which are required typically for state certification. This might include history and philosophy of education, educational psychology, and others. "Special" professional education would be professional preparation for the teaching of physical education, or art education, etc.**

teachers were "damned if they did, and damned if they didn't." If the teacher elected the master's degree in education, there was every likelihood that he would not have enough so–called substantive courses in academic areas in his curriculum. Conversely, if he elected to pursue the M.S. degree program in, say, chemistry, he could well be criticized because of inability to give evidence of "master teacher" qualifications. These two examples were really not extreme cases, and they did represent a serious problem at this juncture of American graduate education.

This dilemma was brought more sharply into focus by the fact that the "body of knowledge" in each subject matter was increasingly so rapidly. Many knowledgeable people were recommending a fifth year of undergraduate preparation, and some states were actually requiring this

extra work for teacher certification. Thus, a concern developed over the articulation of undergraduate programs with professional and graduate schools. Should the program of study in this fifth year be advanced undergraduate work, or should it be what might be called *true* graduate study involving the development of research competency? And more specifically, what is the exact progression of course experiences required to obtain the greatest advantage from this extended undergraduate program of the fifth year (if this were the approach taken) ?

***Undergraduate Professional Preparation for Physical Education*. In order to understand why and how graduate study in physical education got its start, a brief outline of the history of undergraduate professional preparation for physical education should be considered. Such preparation began first in the United States in 1861 when Dio Lewis started the first ten-week diploma course. In the slightly more than one hundred years since that time, some highly significant changes and developments have taken place in the field. A variety of social forces in the changing American scene have influenced it almost unbelievably. Foreign traditions and customs held away initially, but gradually a fairly distinct American philosophy of physical education emerged. This has since been blurred considerably, especially since it has become possible to delineate the various educational philosophical trends (and more recently with a developing interest in critical analysis of a philosophical nature).**

In the period from 1900 to 1920, physical educators - trained as educators and not as physicians - were selected more frequently as directors of professional programs. During these two decades many publicly-supported colleges and universities entered the business of preparing physical educators. It thus carried further the new trend began in the 1890's to award academic degrees upon the completion of major, four-year professional programs in physical education. It was at this time also that some of these curricula were developed within schools of education, whereas others were in arts and science units (or various subdivisions thereof). The subsequent establishment of separate schools and colleges of physical education within universities has had a most notable influence on professional preparation and on the status of the physical education field as a whole.

Down through the years of the twentieth century, many educational leaders - both within and outside of the field - have urged that there should be a stronger "cultural" education for prospective physical education teachers. There has been a further desire expressed for these majors to have an improved background in the foundation sciences. Until recently there has been a definite trend toward increasing the number of hours required in general professional education courses. A number of studies have indicated a lack of standardization of course terminology within the specialized area of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

In the decade after World War I - a conflict which exerted a tremendous influence upon the field forcing a flood of state health and physical education laws - some 137 colleges and universities joined those already offering professional education in health and physical education. As a result school health education and physical education were interwoven in such a way that it became quite complex. Then, too, professional courses in recreation, camping, and outdoor education were introduced as well. In an attempt to improve the professional preparation experience, and also to aid in the establishment of quite separate professional endeavors, separate curricula in school health and safety education and in recreational leadership were gradually developed in a number of the leading colleges and universities functioning in this field. A series of national conferences further helped to bring the various objectives of the separate areas into focus for the professional leaders concerned.

The trend toward specialization of function is now well established, and this development will undoubtedly continue to take the various subdivision schools and colleges of health, physical education, and recreation still further apart. Most recent developments include the addition of curricula in park administration, the establishment of minors in coaching, the removal of dance from the physical education unit to fine arts in some cases, and the addition of public health concerns into the health education department's purview. To a certain extent, possible agreement in philosophy of education within the field will determine the outcome of this most urgent problem. The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, the largest single department of the National Education Association, has held meetings on this subject and has featured the various issues of the unification - separation - affiliation - federation matter within the profession. The Association itself has served as a great unifying force in the total movement. Over the years there have been many attempts within the field to improve the quality of undergraduate professional preparation through studies, surveys, research projects other than normative surveys, national conferences, and accreditation plans (Zeigler, 1962, pp. 116-133).

Early Graduate Study

Very little graduate study of a truly scientific or scholarly nature was conducted prior to the third decade of the twentieth century, although a number of colleges and universities had entered the field or were planning to begin such programs. It wasn't actually until 1935 that a Master's thesis by Clarke was completed as a survey of the requirements for the Master's degree in physical education (Clarke, 1935). Norris and Sweet, in 1937, undertook a survey to determine the status of graduate study in this field.

Springfield College offered the first "graduate" course in the fall of 1891 with a one-year program superimposed on the regular two-year

undergraduate curriculum. The M.P.E. degree was authorized there in 1905 (Doggett, 1943, pp. 104, 129). In 1901 Columbia University is reported to have established *the* first major program in physical education within education leading to the Master's degree. (Note: It is believed that this became possible at this time under the jurisdiction of the educational faculty. Much further investigation is needed in this entire area.) (Clarke stated further that Oberlin followed Columbia closely with its first student receiving the M. A. degree in physical education in 1904 (Clarke, 1934). Other institutions entered the field of graduate study in a chronologically sporadic pattern thereafter (e.g., The Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union in 1907, Wellesley in 1917, the University of Southern California in 1918, and the University of Oregon in 1920) (Zeigler, 1951, pp. 275-276).

A most important step was taken both by Columbia Teachers College and New York University in 1924 with the establishment of programs leading to the Doctor of Philosophy degree with concentration in physical education. Zeigler had reported earlier that the Doctor of Physical Education degree (D.P.E.) had been offered earlier by the Y.M.C.A. Graduate School of Nashville (Zeigler, 1951, (p. 276), but it remained for Welch of the West Virginia Institute of Technology to uncover the fact that four D.P.E. degrees were awarded there between the years of 1925 and 1929 (Welch, 1968, pp. 9-10). Thus, it would appear that the first doctoral degree in physical education was not completed in New York City! The intention of the reporting of Welch's finding is not to detract from the early pioneering effort carried out by both Columbia Teachers College and New York University. It is worthy of note that Ethel J. Saxman received the first Ph.D. degree from Columbia Teachers College in 1926, while in this same year James G. Bliss completed his work for a similar degree at New York University. In 1927, David K. Brace, Ruth Elliott, and G. B. Johnson received doctorates in physical education from Columbia, and they were followed by Clifford L. Brownell in 1928.

Clark Hetherington of New York University, spoke about the professional training problem in a talk to The Society of Directors of Physical Education in Colleges in December of 1924. Believing that this problem was of the greatest importance and urgency, he expressed his fear that many institutions would merely list their undergraduate courses as graduate ones in the transition to the offering of graduate study in physical education. He realized that the four-year period of preparation was not sufficient for the task, and stressed that the essentials could barely be covered in a program of that length. It was in the graduate curriculum that a prospective teacher could be prepared to perform the full functions of his work with some opportunity for specialization, he asserted, but only if the undergraduate curriculum was well-planned, integrated, and articulated from year to year (Hetherington, 1925).

Between 1926 and 1949, some fifty-four colleges and universities began Master's degree programs in physical education with a rather equal distribution between Master of Arts and Master of Science nomenclature. Since 1940, however, the large majority of institutions reporting entrance into graduate study in physical education offered the Master of Science degree (Zeigler, unpublished survey, 1948-49). Viewed somewhat differently, Hewitt, in his assessment of graduate study, reported that in 1942 that "56 institutions offer major work in physical education" (Hewitt, 1942, p. 255).

The basic differences between undergraduate and graduate courses seemed to revolve around greater emphasis on problems courses, the concept of seminar, the addition of a thesis based on research, and the inclusion of a methods of research course (Norris and Sweet, 1937, pp. 3-10). In 1938, Lloyd reaffirmed the need for increased effort along the lines of research (Lloyd, 1938, pp. 33-37). The literature on the subject of graduate study in physical education was most certainly sparse, but there were some studies employing descriptive analysis of existent programs carried out as doctoral projects at this time. Frederick developed principles which might be used as guidelines for the reformulation of requirements for the Master's degree (1938). Her study related to programs for women, and then it was followed by Shaw's similar study that applied to men's programs (1939).

In addition to his detailed listing of institutions offering all types of graduate degrees in physical education, Hewitt raised some extremely interesting questions about the graduate program itself. (In fact, many of the questions he posed may still be asked with good reason a quarter of a century later.) He inquired whether physical education at the graduate level was becoming more closely associated with schools of education because it truly belongs there as an integral phase of professional education. Then, as a corollary question, he wonders whether physical education must continue to combine itself with professional education schools because it was "such a new and growing profession" and because it lacked "the respect of an old, established profession." He asked further whether the pattern being established would hinder physical education's future growth and might prevent it from "becoming an upstanding body comparable to other established professions" (Hewitt, 1942, pp. 252-256).

In an article published in 1945, Hewitt turned his attention specifically to the various requirements for the master's degree in physical education. In forty-five of the fifty-six institutions studied, it was recommended that an undergraduate major in physical education was needed as an entrance requirement for graduate study in the field. Thirty-six of these institutions required no skill competence test for admission to the graduate level. This would seem to indicate that these universities viewed graduate study as being more theoretical and research-laboratory oriented. Presumably it could be postulated further that those in charge of the remaining twenty programs (out of a total of fifty-six) may have felt that the demonstration of

such physical skill was a necessary prerequisite for the second professional degree. Interestingly enough, at that time admission to the graduate school was not typically the same as admission to candidacy for the Master's degree.

Five years was the maximum time allowed on the average for completion of the degree requirements. Forty of the fifty-six schools studied required some sort of a final comprehensive examination. There was a sharp division of opinion expressed as to whether a thesis should be required. Generally speaking, the thesis, if required, did not have to be a contribution to knowledge. Along the line of research orientation, the main purpose at this level was that of testing the individual's ability to use the tools of research (Hewitt, 1945).

In a second study on this subject published in 1945, this one of the status of the graduate faculty in physical education, Hewitt learned that the majority of the universities offering graduate study in this field did not specify any prerequisites for the teaching faculty. Seven of the fifty-six higher institutions studied required graduate instructors to have at least the rank of assistant professor. Eight insisted that a person should hold a master's degree to teach at this level, and eight others required the possession of a doctoral degree. Hewitt concluded that, if the possession of a higher degree - or working for an advanced degree - is an indication of proper background for graduate instruction, graduate staffs in physical education were, or soon would be, well prepared for the task. Basically, however, the existing standards for graduate faculty in effect at most of the schools surveyed feU below those recommended by the national professional associations and various accrediting agencies (a situation probably not peculiar to physical education at that time) (Hewitt, 1945, October).

A further contribution had been made to our knowledge about this level of education by Hewitt in 1946 in an article in which he presented the results of an investigation of the status of *the* doctoral program. At that time some twenty institutions offered a major in physical education for a doctoral degree. Proceeding alphabetically by state, they were California (Stanford and the University of Southern California); Indiana (Indiana University); Iowa (State University of Iowa); Kentucky (University of Kentucky); Louisiana (Louisiana State University); Massachusetts (Boston University); Michigan (University of Michigan); Missouri (University of Missouri); New York (Columbia Teachers College, New York University, Syracuse University); Ohio (Cincinnati University and Ohio State University); Oregon (University of Oregon); Pennsylvania (Pennsylvania State College and University of Pittsburgh); Tennessee (George Peabody College for Teachers); Texas (University of Texas); and Wyoming (University of Wyoming) (Hewitt, 1946).

There were three types of doctoral degrees available with specialization in physical education in these twenty universities. They were (1) the Ph.D. degree in physical education; (2) the Ph.D. degree in education; and (3) the Ed.D. degree in education. Hewitt felt that the standards recommended for advanced degrees by professional associations were being quite well met by the twenty institutions surveyed. For example, the programs were quite uniform in that one year in residence was required and three years beyond the bachelor's degree were necessary. All of the universities required a qualifying examination of some sort to determine the candidate's ability to proceed forward into actual candidacy for the degree. Generally speaking, the doctor of philosophy degree program was one which emphasized research in an area of specialization, while the doctor of education degree program stressed development of professional competence and scholarship.

A reading knowledge of two foreign languages was required in almost all instances for the Ph.D. program, whereas standards concerning language background for the Ed.D. degree were not uniform. A comprehensive test on measurement in education was required in almost all cases. In all institutions the candidate had to defend his thesis or project before a faculty committee. Interestingly enough, Hewitt was anxious to see the doctoral programs in physical education sever their connections with schools of education. He believed that the profession of physical education would become well established and recognized only if such separation occurred.

In 1947 at the Teacher Education Section Meeting of the College Physical Education Association, papers addressed to the graduate program in physical education gave some insight on the developments of the time. The late Dr. William Meredith of the University of Pennsylvania discussed the five-year program for the preparation of physical education teachers begun there in 1933. (This program was dropped subsequently–a most unfortunate development.) Harry Scott of Columbia Teachers College also chaired a panel discussion in that meeting in which it was decided that there were at least eight characteristics of graduate level instruction (as over against undergraduate level study) which were as follows:

(1) the development of the ability to do critical thinking; (
(2) a broader field of preparation emphasizing expansion of one's knowledge both horizontally and vertically;
(3) development of research tools for independent investigation;
(4) the ability to do independent thinking;
(5) specialization;
(6) an opportunity to sense and apply relationships between the various areas of knowledge and human experience;
(7) a greater amount of individualized instruction; and
(8) a period of at least one academic year beyond the bachelor's degree should be required for the Master's degree (Nordly, 1947, pp. 58-61).

At this same meeting, former discussion was held as to the possible unique characteristics of the doctoral program over and above the program for the Master's degree. There was agreement that the student was both "broadened" and "sharpened" with this further preparation, and that maturation was important to the candidate for the doctoral program. (It should perhaps be considered that the people on the panel held both Ph.D. and Ed.D. degrees themselves.) Still further, it has never been completely decided that a Ph.D. degree program concentrates on "sharpening" only, as opposed to "broadening" - and indeed that exactly the opposite is the case for the Ed.D. program.) Generally speaking, the program leading to the doctorate was thought to be more leisurely than an intensive thirty-week master's program (that is, in those institutions where courses could be substituted for the thesis project, and the summer was therefore not needed to complete *the* write-up of the project.) Because of this "more leisurely approach" in the doctoral program, presumably a greater opportunity existed for individual investigation and independent study.

At this same point, 1948, Jones reported on the results of a study to determine practices relative to minors taken in other fields by graduate majors in physical education, and also minors in physical education taken by other graduate students outside of physical education on the Master's level. It was quite evident, according to his findings, that there was no uniformity among the various universities surveyed in the administration of such programs. Only sixty per cent of the institutions reported that a minor in physical education was, in fact, offered, and a large percentage of the individuals electing such a program were officially registered in departments of education. Interestingly enough, only four institutions required that graduate students in physical education take a minor in another field. Education, sociology, and biology were reported most frequently as the minors selected by student in those four universities (Jones, 1948, pp. 18-21).

As the end of the time period that this present paper covers (1950), the first steps were taken to hold graduate study meetings in physical education. The first of these meetings was called in 1946 by Dr. Seward C. Staley of the University of Illinois "to discuss ways and means of upgrading graduate study in physical education" (Nat. Conf. on Graduate Study, 1950, p. 5). This initial session was followed by similar, but larger, meetings in 1947 and 1948. At the third session, standards were considered for the accreditation of institutions offering graduate work in the field. These included such subdivisions as (1) minimum standards; (2) history and accreditation of parent institution and physical education unit; (3) financial status of university; (4) faculty qualifications; (5) admission requirements; (6) course offerings; (7) scholarship standards; (8) degree requirements; (9) library facilities; and (10) laboratory facilities (Staley, 1948).

As a result of these early meetings, it became apparent that a larger and more nationally representative conference was needed to begin to provide some answers for the many and involved problems facing those professors concerned with graduate work in physical education in the United States. The final result was that the Athletic Institute was asked to finance a meeting of the Organizing Committee in Chicago on January 15-16, 1949 in Chicago. Thus, as this short, narrative history of graduate work in physical education in the United States is brought to a close, a national conference on graduate study was planned for January, 1950, at Pere Marquette State Park in Illinois. This is probably a fitting place to stop this brief historical statement. It began with Springfield College offering a one-year course superimposed on the regular two-year undergraduate curriculum. It ends with the announcement of a national conference on graduate study in physical education with representation from people at all levels of the profession. At this point, some 91 colleges and universities offer graduate programs leading to a variety of degrees and culminating with the doctor of philosophy degree. This development represented a great deal of change and very definite progress. The end was not in sight, but no one can deny but that a reasonably good beginning had taken place.

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CHAPTER 21

A HISTORY OF THE BIG TEN BODY-OF-KNOWLEDGE PROJECT IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Note: The last of the four essays treating professional preparation, including the recent disciplinary emphasis , presents briefly the history of the Body-of-Knowledge Project in Physical Education in the Big Ten. This paper was prepared by Professor McCristal and the editor. Because of Professor McCristal's active involvement with this project since its inception, he had hesitated to undertake the article. Editor Eyler and E. F. Zeigler felt that it should be reported, however. The basic material was obtained from Professor McCristal and the statement was written.

In 1930 the first meeting of the Big Ten (Western Conference) Physical Education Directors was called by Seward C. Staley of the University of Illinois. 1 This male group, now composed of deans, directors, and department heads—three official representatives from each institution—has met annually ever since for. the past thirty-six years. The organization has no official status nor constitution, dues, or officers. Responsibility for calling the meetings is simply rotated alphabetically among the universities starting with Illinois and continuing through Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Michigan State, Minnesota, Northwestern, Ohio State, Purdue, and Wisconsin.

The 1964 Western Conference Physical Education Meetings

The program for the annual meetings is in the hands of a different chairman each year—usually the chief administrative officer of the institution whose turn it is to organize the meetings. Typically the members have gathered to discuss common problems, assess trends, and compare techniques for furthering the advancement of physical education in all of its aspects within the Western Conference.

In 1964 the sessions were held on the Urbana campus of the University of Illinois. King J. McCristal, as dean of the College of Physical Education at the host institution, was, therefore, responsible for the planning of the program and discussed the matter at length with Arthur S. Daniels (now deceased), who was dean at Indiana University. The body-of-knowledge"

topic had received some attention at the two previous annual meetings, and it was obvious to both of them that the theme held great interest for professors from the Big Ten institutions. The fact that the American Academy of Physical Education had also conducted sessions on this topic presented additional evidence of the importance of this topic to everyone in the profession.

Thus, as a result of a meeting between McCristal and Daniels in Champaign in July of 1964, the program was outlined for the December meeting. The conference theme was "The Body-of-Knowledge in Physical Education." The following people were selected to make presentations at the second, third, and fourth general sessions, respectively:

Arthur Daniels (Indiana) - "Recent Efforts at Definitions and Boundary Lines: Current Status of the Profession."
Earle Zeigler (Illinois) - "History of Physical Education and Sport."
T. K. Cureton (IUinois) - "Exercise Physiology."
John Lawther (Penn State) - "Motor Learning."
Coleman Griffith (Illinois) - "Sport and the Culture (or Cultural Anthropology)."
Lawrence Rarick (Wisconsin) - "Human Growth and Development."
James Counsilman (Indiana) - "Biomechanics of Human Movement."
Arthur Daniels (Indiana) - "Implications These Reports Hold for Undergraduate Professional Preparation."

In his opening remarks at the Second General Session, Professor Daniels said:

> **If we are to gain greater recognition in the academic world, we must follow pathways similar to that traversed by other disciplines. This means a greatly expanded program of scholarly research and development in which the body of knowledge in physical education is defined as nearly as possible in terms of its fundamental nature, and in its relationships with other disciplines.**

The Fifth General Session of the 1964 Meetings, chaired by Professor McCristal, was devoted to "Future Planning." The delegates agreed to appoint a steering committee to insure the continuity of program planning. Arthur Daniels, as the administrative head of physical education at Indiana University (the next institution in alphabetical order after Illinois), was named Chairman, and other committee members were Louis Alley (Iowa), Wellman France (Purdue), and King McCristal (Illinois). The plan was that each year a representative from the next host institution would be added to the Steering Committee, and thus would become responsible for the arrangements for the next annual meeting. The following year the

pattern was changed. The representative of the host institution was still to be placed on the Steering Committee, but it was felt that the original nucleus of members should continue to function in order to keep the project aligned with the original plan.

In January of 1965 the first of a number of "on-call" meetings was held during the Annual Meetings of the National College Physical Education Association for Men in Minneapolis. A second meeting was held in July in Chicago at which time plans for the 1965 meetings in Iowa City were completed. Dr. Stanley Salwak, Director of the Committee on Institutional Cooperation, was invited to attend this meeting to learn about the development. He agreed to provide a seeding grant of fifteen hundred dollars so that the developmental plans for the Body-of-Knowledge Project might be continued. (Note: The Committee on Institutional Cooperation was formed in 1958 to encourage voluntary cooperation within a variety of programs in midwestern universities composed of Big Ten institutions and the University of Chicago.)

The 1965 Western Conference Physical Education Meetings

In 1965 the Western Conference Physical Education meetings at Iowa City, chaired by Louis Alley, followed a similar format but with certain changes in regard to the subject matters or sub-areas under consideration. Initially Arthur Daniels (Indiana) presented a "Progress Report on Developing a Blueprint for an Academic Discipline in Physical Education." Then King McCristal (Illinois) spoke to the subject "On Becoming an Academic Discipline." He explained that many established academic disciplines had rather modest origins, and he pointed out that,

> **.. . it wasn't easy for the 'old guard' to achieve the coveted positions they now hold in the academic community. The road to unquestioned status as a discipline is far from being all down hill with a tail wind. The present interest of Physical Education in disciplinary status closely parallels the historical controversy which accompanied admission of other areas to the charmed circle of academic disciplines.**

After these two presentations which oriented the members present to the task at hand, five papers were presented which explained the status of the "body-of-knowledge" in additional sub-areas:

Louis Alley (Iowa) - "Biomechanics."
Bruno Balke (Wisconsin) - "Exercise Physiology."
Leon Smith (Iowa) - "Psychology and Motor Learning. "
Earle Zeigler (Hlinois) - "Philosophical Research in Physical Education and Sport."
Arthur Daniels (Indiana) - "Sport and the Culture."

Upon the conclusion of presentation, Stanley Salwak, Director of the Committee on Institutional Cooperation, spoke on the topic "The C.I.C. and Developmental Plans for Physical Education."

Papers and both formal and informal discussions at both the 1964 and 1965 meetings tended to substantiate the belief that there is a body of knowledge—and a potential body-of-knowledge—that may well comprise the academic discipline of physical education, sport, human movement, kinesiology, human motor performance, or what have you? Portions of this body-of-knowledge are in related disciplines, and portions of it are unquestionably, uniquely, "physical education" in character. We are not completely certain what is pure and what is applied.

Delegates at Urbana in 1964 and Iowa City in 1965 agreed to retain the "body-of-knowledge" format for future meetings. No time limit was specified, and it was presumed that such a declaration meant a period of at least five years to insure continuity. In fact, there is no reason why a portion of the time allotment at future annual meetings cannot be allotted to a continuation of the project indefinitely.

Following the untimely death of Arthur Daniels in July of 1966, the Steering Committee decided that the C.I.C. seed grant funds should be transferred to the University of Illinois. King McCristal, then the senior member of the committee, was to administer them as the project developed. The 1966 meetings were planned in late August during a two-day meeting in Chicago. The University of Michigan, through Paul Hunsicker, was the host institution, but the actual meetings were held through the cooperation of Sheldon Fordham at the Chicago Circle Campus of the University of Illinois. At the August meeting of the Committee, it was decided to organize the academic content—at least initially—into six specific areas of specialization as follows:

(1) Exercise Physiology;
(2) Biomechanics;
(3) Motor Learning and Sports Psychology;
(4) Sociology of Sport Education;
(5) History, Philosophy, and Comparative Physical Education and Sport; and
(5) Administrative Theory.

There has been considerable debate as to what these areas are—or should be. For example, it can well be argued that Administrative Theory as a topic is not basic to the discipline—if it is indeed a discipline and whatever it may be named. Conversely, it can be stated that the managing of organizations within the field is becoming so complex that pure and applied research in this developing social science may be warranted.

The 1966 Western Conference Physical Education Meetings

At the August 1966 meeting it was decided to bring together work groups of two or three Big Ten faculty members in each of the six areas of specialization designated. Instructions were prepared and distributed to the chairmen and members of each of these groups and each group was asked to be responsible for the presentation of a paper by one member, the leading of a discussion by a second member, and the third member would be expected to serve as recorder. More specifically, each group was to undertake the following specific assignments:

1. **Identify the related disciplines in its work area.**
2. **List in topical form the primary concepts in each related discipline (those that comprise what might be regarded as the body-of-knowledge for physical education in this area).**
3. **Supplement the primary concepts from the related disciplines with any additional primary concepts that seem unique to physical education.**
4. **State the prerequisites to the study of these concepts.**

Hence, from a long-term standpoint, the intention was that any such concepts would be integrated where deemed necessary and desirable into all levels of our curricula (basic instruction, undergraduate professional, and graduate programs). During October and November of 1966 the work groups met in Chicago and elsewhere at their convenience and distributed the work load in what seemed to be the best manner in relation to the specific sub-area concerned. For example, inasmuch as Professor Zeigler had presented earlier papers (in. 1964 and 1965) on history and philosophy, respectively, it was decided that Professors Bruce Bennett (Ohio State), Harold VanderZwaag (Illinois - now Massachusetts), and William Johnson (Illinois) would present aspects of history, philosophy, and comparative physical education in that order.

At the December annual meeting the first presentation was a progress report on the C.I. C. project by King McCristal (Illinois). The committee reports were then presented, and the presentation of each paper by the respective chairman elicited animated discussion. The titles of the topics presented and the names of those who made presentations, chaired the ensuing discussion periods, and served as recorders are as follows:

1. **Sociology of Sport and Physical Education**
   (G. Kenyon, Chairman - Wisconsin; G. Lueschen - Illinois; H. Webb - Michigan State)
2. **Administrative Theory**
   (K. McCristal, Chairman - Illinois; R. Donnelly Minnesota; W. Helms - Michigan)

3. **History, Philosophy, and Comparative Physical Education and Sport**
   (E. Zeigler, Chairman - Illinois; B. Bennett - Ohio State; H. VanderZwaag - Illinois; W. Johnson - IUinois)
4. **Exercise Physiology**
   (J. Faulkner, Chairman - Michigan; F. Nagle - Wisconsin; G. Tipton - Iowa)
5. **Biomechanics**
   (L. Alley, Chairman - Iowa; J. Cooper - Indiana; J. Counsilman - Indiana)
6. **Motor Learning and Sports Psychology**
   (L. Smith, Chairman - Iowa; R. Herron - Hlinois; A. Slater-Hammel - Indiana)

Present Status and Future Plans

Immediately following the Big Ten meetings in Chicago, the augmented Steering Committee—now consisting of the chairmen of all six areas—met to lay plans for further development of the Project. On January 28, 1967, the Committee assembled in Iowa City, and after a two-day series of sessions a "symposium project" was outlined. The purpose of this proposed project was to develop and clarify still further the basic philosophic and scientific concepts of Physical Education. Still further, the Committee felt that it would be desirable to enrich the quality of the present Physical Education graduate programs in C.I.C. institutions (except Chicago) by providing selected faculty members with opportunities to exchange ideas about our developing discipline with recognized authorities from related disciplines. This continuing project seemed to be absolutely necessary, because the three-year effort had carried the Steering Committee's original plans about as far as they could progress–without *active* involvement–in the process of attempting to discover avenues and approaches that might lead to the creation of new knowledge.

All members of the Steering Committee now believe that the success of the Symposium Project will hinge on the ability of the group to secure a sizeable monetary grant from a foundation or public agency. King McCristal, as Chairman of the Steering Committee, has explored many sources of grants. The dean of the College of Education at Illinois feels that the greatest opportunity for support of the proposal seems to rest with the United States Office of Education. Changes are now being made in the research proposal to conform to the usual specifications of the U. S. Office of Education. A telephone conference was held on September 27, 1967 to discuss the final format of the research proposal. This material has now been forwarded to Dr. Salwak at the office of the Committee on Institutional Cooperation in Lafayette, Indiana. He may be willing to co-sponsor the project with the members of the Steering Committee, and an approach will be made shortly to prospective sponsoring agencies.

The Steering Committee does not believe that the Western Conference Physical Education Directors are "trespassing upon territory" that ought to be the particular province of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation or the American Academy of Physical Education. There would be some overlapping of personnel; this is granted. The Big Ten Body-of-Knowledge Project, which has been underway for more than three years already, would seem to be a "natural" by virtue of the long-standing association the institutions concerned, as well as the means for mutual cooperation that is provided through the structure of the Committee on Institutional Cooperation. It is quite possible that multiple approaches to this matter of a body-of-knowledge and a possible discipline are desirable. Obviously, too great proliferation of such ventures would dissipate readily available "strengths." At present a certain amount of consensus has been reached—a level of agreement which might not be possible at the national level—and the present Symposium Project is distinctly an effort to provide high level opportunities for our graduate professors to improve their understandings and sharpen their research techniques in relation to the developing body of knowledge.

CHAPTER 22

A HISTORY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE Y.M.C.A.

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Editor's Note: Although the Editor must admit to some bias, primarily because of an association over a forty-two year period with the Y. M. C. A. in a variety of capacities, this essay by Dr. Johnson can be fully justified on the basis of the contribution that the Y.M. C. A. has made to the field of physical education. This article was solicited from Professor Johnson, and we are grateful for his willingness to abstract this report from a much longer study on the topic. It represents a fine contribution that catches the true spirit of the Y.M.C.A. movement.

Introduction

Physical education in the Y. M. C. A. when viewed in its proper historical perspective is marked as the most influential variant in the history of the American Y.M.C.A. Probably no other feature so largely affected its public image, expectancy, and its relationship with youth. The Y.M. C. A., because of its interest and concern for the health needs of young men, has contributed greatly to the development of the ideals, principles, and practices which under gird modern programs in health education and physical education.

Part I: The Formative Years (1844-1880)

The Early Beginnings. The Y.M. C. A., a voluntary non-sectarian lay organization, was founded in 1844 in London, where a group of young men banded together for a prayer meeting under the direction of its founder, George Williams, a young wholesale dry-goods clerk. The Y.M.C.A. movement soon spread into Canada and the United States. The first North American Y. M. C. A. 's were established in the late fall of 1851 at Montreal, Canada, and at Boston - the latter through the efforts of Thomas V. Sullivan, a retired sea captain.

First Gymnasiums.. It was not until after 1869 that serious attempts to do physical work –a term considered synonymous with physical education– were successful when "well appointed" gymnasiums were completed at Washington, D. C., San Francisco, and New York, respectively.

First Gymnasium Superintendent. **William E. Wood, an Englishman born in December 1819, was called upon to superintend the new equipment and program in the New York Association Building on Twenty-third Street, where he remained for two decades (1869-1889). Wood bears the distinction of being the first Y.M. C. A. Physical Director, and was one of the first to speak out against heavyweight lifting and fancy acrobatics which characterized the post-Civil War period. His Manual of Physical Exercises published in 1867 was one of the first American textbooks of its kind. The first crude attempts of the Y.M.C.A. to do physical work were aptly described as the "circus period" since the program involved weight lifting, acrobatics, and trapeze work.**

First Christian Physical Director. **The first Y.M.C.A. Physical Director (gymnasium superintendent) to leave his permanent mark upon Y.M.C.A. physical education methods was Robert J. Roberts (1849-1920), who was employed in 1875 by The Boston Association to direct the old Tremont Gymnasium located at Tremont and Eliot Street which had been under Association control since 1872 (Whiteside, 1951, pp. 38-39). Roberts had been a member of the Tremont Gymnasium since 1864 when it was operated as a private gymnasium. Roberts' program consisted mainly of light exercises and dumbbell drills readily adapted to the needs of the unskilled masses. Roberts was a Christian man, an expert gymnast, and a staunch advocate for obedience to all the laws of health. His reference to gymnasiums as "Halls of Health" reflected this purpose (Watchman, 1883, p. 258).**

Roberts' Contributions. **Roberts' early efforts at introducing dumbbell drills in the old Tremont Gymnasium in the Boston Association were heartily ridiculed by some of its members. Yet Roberts was a stimulating and determined teacher, and his ideas eventually took hold as "Y" memberships increased from 49 to 680 during his first four years of service. (*Association Men*, 1897, p. 1349).**

Roberts is credited with developing the first indoor track which he had installed in the new building in 1883 upon its completion at the corner of Berkeley and Boylston Street. He also devised the first "ring shower bath" and introduced the indoor shot, jumping weights, medicine ball, barbell, and vaulting bar into Y.M.C.A. physical work methods (*American Gymnasia*, 1905, p. 248).

Roberts was active in leadership recruitment by training some 25-30 young men for careers in physical education during a three-year period (1885-1887). Among this group were such men as Dr. William G. Anderson, founder of the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education (AAHPER) and Dr. Henry Kallenberg of the George Williams College faculty. Roberts' enthusiastic, common sense approach under girded a distinctive style of physical education which was exceedingly simple, adapted well to large classes, and could be taught by men of average ability.

Part II: Establishing Foundational Principles 1880-

Looking Ahead. **The last two decades of the nineteenth century was a remarkable era for the American Y.M. C. A. This was a period of innovations and creativity. New games were invented and hundreds of gymnasiums and swimming pools were built. A philosophy and methodology of physical education emerged and new principles were established. Practically all phases of Y.M.C.A. physical education which had lasting value originated during this period. Though foreign systems left their mark on Y.M.C.A. physical education methods, a distinctive Y.M. C. A. program had emerged by 1900 through a process of accretion, synthesis, and modification.**

The Need for Trained Leadership **The most urgent problem which faced the American Y. M. C. A. during this period was the need for trained leadership. The Yearbook of 1880 reported that fifty-one gymnasiums were in operation. By 1887 this number had increased to 168; yet, only fifty-three physical directors were actively engaged in Y.M.C.A. physical work. This need was in part met by the founding of the secretarial training schools at Springfield where a program of instruction started in the summer of 1887 under Luther Halsey Gulick (1865-1918) with twenty-four instructors enrolled, comprising almost one-half of all men engaged in Association Work.**

Gulick's Impact on Y.M.C.A. Methods. **The coming of Luther Halsey Gulick (1865-1918) marked a change in Y.M. C. A. philosophy and methodology. He was an aggressive, volatile, and restless man filled with ideas well in advance of his time - the avant garde of his profession. Born of missionary parents in Honolulu on December 4, 1865, he attended Oberlin College and Dr. Dudley Sargent's School of Physical Training at Cambridge, Massachusetts, after which time he served briefly as the gymnasium superintendent at Jackson, Michigan (spring and summer of 1886).**

Springfield College Founded. **In the fall of 1886, Gulick left Jackson to study medicine at New York University. In 1887 he was employed, along with Robert J. Roberts, as a regular faculty member at the Springfield Training School, which opened a two-year training period in September of that year. Gulick envisioned a department that would embrace the theoretical and the practical. Gulick chose to teach the former which included courses in philosophy of exercise, psychology of play, physical diagnosis, and hygiene. Roberts, on the other hand, was by inclination and training best suited to teach the practical floor work consisting of gymnastics, marching, and dumbbell drills.**

Gulick received a medical degree in 1889. Meanwhile, he had assumed additional part-time duties of International Secretary for Physical Work with the International Committee (1887-1903). He served in this dual capacity up

until 1900 when he resigned to become the principal of the Pratt Institute High School in Brooklyn.

Gulick's Contribution to "Y" Work. **Gulick, during his brief but active career at Springfield, was instrumental in developing a system of measurement for the Y.M.C.A. He standardized physical work methods, and was one of the outstanding spokesmen for clean sports and a rational program of competitive athletics consistent with Y.M.C.A. principles and ideals. Gulick was a prolific writer. Some of his published works include the Gulick Hygiene Series consisting of no less than eight books on such topics as measurement, philosophy, physiology of exercise, and the medical inspection of schools.**

Gulick served as secretary for the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education 1892-'93 and as its president from 1903-'06. He was a member of the committee which organized the Boy Scouts of America. In 1906 he was elected the first president of the Playground Association of America; and, in 1911, working in conjunction with his wife, Charlotte, he was active in the founding of the Campfire Girls. Gulick's life was characterized by unusual vision, daring, and imagination. He remains as one of the most unique figures to leave his mark upon American Physical Education in the twentieth century.

George Williams College Founded. **In the summer of 1890, The Young Men's Christian Association's Training School (now George Williams College) was established at Chicago. A two-year secretarial training course was initiated in September in rooms provided by the Central Y.M.C.A. on Madison Street with Dr. E. L. Hayford as "principal of the physical department." George W. Ehler served as principal from 1892-1897; John W. Shaw from 1897-1900; and Dr. Winfield S. Hall, 1900-1903. Henry F. Kallenberg, M.D., who had been with the Training School since 1896 serving as assistant principal, took over the duties as director of physical training in 1903, where he remained until 1917 when Martin I. Foss succeeded him.**

First Swimming Pools **The first Y.M. C. A. swimming pool (forty-five feet by fourteen feet and five feet deep) was part of the magnificent new building completed at the Brooklyn Central Association in 1885 (Watchman, 1885, pp. 44-45).**

The Montreal Association completed one of the most elaborate and ornate pools of this era some five years later in 1891. By 1895 seventeen Y.M.C.A. pools were reported in operation (Brown, I. E., 1895).

The first pools, known as "swimming baths," were crude in design and lacked the sophisticated systems of heating, filtration, and germicidal control - typical of modern swimming pools.

Origin of Leaders' Corps. **During this period the first official Leaders' Corps Training Program was initiated by Dr. J. Gardner Smith of The Young Men's Institute Branch of the New York Association. He assembled a group of volunteers in *the* winter of 1885-'86, each of whom he instructed in methods of teaching various groups in his heavy apparatus class (Smith, 1899, p. 305). Smith's pioneer program marked the real beginning of lay leadership involvement, and this became one of the major approaches in physical education methodology throughout the history of the movement. The first Canadian Leaders' Corps was organized in 1892 at the Montreal Association under the direction of William H. Ball, a young graduate fresh from the new training school at Springfield (Quebec Report, 1894, p. 19).**

Early Health Education Programs. **The Y.M.C.A. also embarked on a program of health education mainly through its involvement and the support of the White Cross Movement, which had as its prime target the elimination of sensuality in all its forms. Its major efforts were directed toward the removal of brothels and curbing the sale of obscene Literature at city newsstands. A Handbook for Young Men written by Dr. Charles Scudder for the White Cross Committee (1892) served as a guide on sex and morality for the youth of that period and was widely distributed in Y.M.C.A. circles. Luther Gulick, writing for Association Outlook, began a series in the faU of 1897 which attempted to enlighten young men by interpreting sex in relation to anthropology, psychology, sociology, and medicine. First aid classes, then known as "surgical lectures," were taught by volunteer physicians. Dr. Frank Seeley, who later became the dean of the International Training School at Springfield, gave talks in behalf of the Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis to various Y.M.C.A. and church groups in the New York area. With these approaches the Y.M.C.A. achieved its Christian emphasis through a broader service to the whole man. Such service eventually became the base for a more extensive program of health education after 1900 when boys' work was pursued with greater enthusiasm.**

The Invention of Basketball. **Probably no other event brought more recognition to the Y. M. C. A. than the invention of basketball. The first game was played informally at the Springfield Training School in early December 1891 under the direction of Dr. James Naismith, the game's originator, who had upon the suggestion of Gulick been urged to devise a game which would be interesting, easy to learn, and adapted to indoor playing conditions under artificial lights.**

The first game was played with a soccer ball with nine men on a side. During the following month (January, 1892) when the first formal game was played, teams had been reduced to seven players. Peach baskets attached to the overhead running track served as basketball goals.

The game was accepted throughout the country very quickly. The Providence, Rhode Island Association was the first to adopt it outside of

Springfield. (*Association Seminar*, 1904, p. 52). Geneva College of Beaver Falls, Pennsylvania and the University of Iowa were the first colleges to play basketball in 1892. Duncan Patton, who played on Naismith's original team, brought the game to India in 1902; Emil Thies introduced it to France in 1895; and C. Herek carried it to Persia in 1901.

The Origin of Volleyball. **Volleyball followed a similar pattern of development. This game was invented in 1895 by William G. Morgan, the physical director at the Holyoke, Massachusetts' Y.M.C.A., and was envisioned as a game "not so rough as basketball and yet one in which the same degree of activity was required" (*Physical Education*, 1896, p. 50). During the first two decades following its invention, the game spread rapidly into other countries. Franklin H. Brown introduced the game to Japan; Elwood S. Brown to the Philippines; Robert E. Thompson and Jesse T. Hopkins to South America; J. Howard Crocker (a Canadian) to China; and Dr. John H. Gray to India.**

***The Red Triangle*. The Y.M.C.A. red triangle, an emblem symbolizing the threefold nature of man - mind, body, and spirit - originated during this period. Luther Gulick's first proposal for its adoption was voted down at the International Convention in Philadelphia in 1889, and was rejected again at a similar gathering at Kansas City some two years later (Dorgan, 1934, p. 47). In fact, the triangle did not receive the official approval of the International Committee; the delegates at the International Convention at Springfield in 1895 authorized the preparation of an official Y.M.C.A. badge in that form (*Young Men's Era*, 1895, p. 330).**

Formation of the Athletic League. **The formation of the Athletic League of the Young Men's Christian Associations of North America was also approved at the International Convention at Springfield in 1895. Competitive athletics, at this stage in history, was in a state of flux and turmoil. The Y.M.C.A. had since 1888 given some thought to the establishment of a central controlling athletic body. Playing rules were not well defined nor clearly interpreted; officiating was lax, and eligibility requirements were not always enforced. Professionalism in sports was a concern of Luther Gulick who pushed for the formation of The League which became a reality in 1895. Thereafter, *the* League formulated rules, arranged for championship meets, arbitrated protests, and upheld the amateur code.**

A League Handbook was authorized in April 1896. In June, that same year, By-Laws were adopted, and on October 3, 1896 the Articles of Affiliation with the A. A.U. were signed. The following January (1897) the A.A.U. adopted the Y.M.C.A. basketball rules as the Official Rules, and League memberships had now increased to 151 associations (Barnes, 1907, pp. 5-13).

The Y.M.C.A. Pentathlon. **One of the events, which had earlier been developed by Luther Gulick and Dr. James H. McCurdy of the Twenty-third Street Branch of the New York Association and promoted by the Athletic League, was the Y.M.C.A. 's "Pentathlon Test" consisting of the one-hundred yard dash, twelve-pound hammer throw, the running high jump, the pole vault, and the one-mile run (Young Men's Era, 1890, p. 378). An indoor version of the Pentathlon was approved in 1893, making it possible to promote athletics on a year-round basis (Association Seminar, 1904, p. 62).**

As this report came to a close, a philosophical orientation of physical education methods into the work of the Movement as a whole had been achieved. The physical directorship was now coming of age. The tools for doing Movement work had now been created, and the word was "forward" in all areas of defined service.

Part III: Standardization and Expansion 1900-1920

The Y. M. C. A. at the turn of the century stood amidst a setting still influenced by the events of the Spanish-American War. The United States was rapidly moving into a position of world power. In the Y.M. C. A. the prevailing mood was expansion into all phases of program including foreign work.

Physical Directors' Society Formed. **The formation of the Physical Directors' Society was actualized at a conference at Lakewood, New York, in 1903. George W. Ehler of the Chicago Central Association was elected its first president (*Physical Training*, 1903, p. 275). Physical Training, with Luther Gulick as editor, came out with its first issue in November, 1901. These two developments had the effect of standardizing physical education in the Movement. In 1913 the Society initiated a plan of "Titles and Qualifications," which essentially attempted to upgrade the qualifications of men in the physical directorship (*Physical Training*, 1913, p. 246).**

In 1903, Gulick resigned from his position at Pratt Institute in Brooklyn to become Director of Physical Training in the New York Public Schools; meanwhile, Dr. George J. Fisher assumed the position of International Physical Work Secretary as replacement for Gulick. Fisher's main thrust was in extension work where Y.M.C.A. expertise was brought into community playgrounds, public schools, churches, and rural areas. Industrial work, consisting mainly of health talks, became a defined field of service after 1910. Sunday school athletic leagues, under lay direction, promoted competition in baseball, basketball, gymnastics, and track and field. The most famous was The Brooklyn Sunday School League which was formed in 1904 with a charter membership of sixty *(Association Men*, 1910, p. 224).

Various schemes of athletic promotion continued in vogue. The Cook County Amateur Athletic Federation was formed in 1908 in the Chicago area under the direction of Dr. Henry F. Kallenberg of the Association College (now George Williams).

Learn-to-Swim Campaigns. **In September 1910, William H. Ball, the former physical director of the Detroit Association, was employed by the International Committee to promote a "Learn-to-Swim Campaign" for the Y.M.C.A. Ball enlisted the services of George Corsan, "The Billy Sunday of Y.M.C.A. Swimming," to launch the program. Using land drills, Ayvad water wings, and his "mass assembly line" method of teaching, Corsan was immediately successful. Thereafter, the number of persons taught to swim in the Y.M.C.A. rose steadily from 15,778 in 1909 to 63,438 in 1920.**

Growth of Summer Schools. **The most prolific period in the development of Association summer schools occurred between 1903 and 1915 when no less than seven were established. The Lake Geneva Wisconsin Summer School had already been operating since 1890. The Silver Bay, New York, School opened in 1903. The Southern School at Blue Ridge, North Carolina got underway in 1912.**

Foreign Work. **Daring this period great advances were made in extending physical education into foreign fields. Max J. Exner arrived in Shanghai, China, in November 1908 to establish a training course for physical directors. He was followed by Dr. J. Howard Crocker (Canada) (1911); Dr. Charles H. McCloy (1913); Dr. David K. Brace (1916); and Dr. John H. Gray (1920), who had previously served in India (1908-20). Franklin H. Brown arrived in Japan in 1913, where he introduced volleyball and Y.M.C.A. physical education methods. Elwood S. Brown served in the Philippines for a period of eight years (1910-1918). Foreign work in South America was initiated by Maurice C. Salassa in Rio De Janeiro in 1911 and Harry J. Sims, who succeeded Salassa in 1912. In 1912 Jesse T. Hopkins began his work at Montevideo where a decade later (1922) the Institute) Tecnico (Technical Institute) was established through the joint efforts of Hopkins, James S. Summers, an Australian, and Phillip Conrad, the general secretary.**

Service Overseas World War I. **During World War I, Y.M. C. A. physical directors worked under the National War Work Council to provide an extensive program of recreation and athletics for men in the armed services. During the first year (1917-18), 1300 recreational centers were established with George Meylan, a Y.M.C.A. physical director, in charge. Among the most notable who saw wartime overseas service were Elmer Berry, Fred B. Messing, Dr. George J. Fisher, Elwood S. Brown, Dr. Luther Gulick, Amos Alonzo Stagg, Dr. James Naismith, and Dr. James H. McCurdy. The organizational genius of Y.M.C.A. physical directors reached its finest hour during the Inter-Allied Games which were held in Paris in the summer of 1919 under the direction of Elwood S. Brown, a Y.M.C.A. physical director.**

Part IV: Searching for New Bases

Following World War I the Y.M.C.A. was faced with the task of regrouping and assimilating its widely dispersed professional staff which included literally hundreds of "Y" secretaries and physical directors deployed at home and abroad. Such men as George E. Goss, Fred B. Messing, and Louis C. Schroeder, among others, remained on in the European theater to assist in post-war reconstruction.

National Physical Education Committee Formed **.The Y.M.C.A.'s international outreach continued as new relationships were established with international sports federations and groups. Coed activities began to appear, and a program of internal reorganization made the "Y" more democratic. The Athletic League was dissolved in 1925, and its functions were placed in the hands of the National Physical Education Committee chaired by John H. Brooks (1872-1945), a layman. A nationalist volleyball championship, the first of its kind, was held in April, 1922 at the Brooklyn Central Y.M.C.A. This was the period when the "industrial physical director," best typified by the work of Dr. Robert A. Allen, who reactivated the Cook County Amateur Athletic Federation after the war, came into prominence (1919-1925).**

Impact of the New Psychology. **The impact of the new psychology, which tended to break down the rigid approaches in physical education methodology caused some internal conflicts between the old guard and the new breed of younger physical directors. Concomitant learnings and carry-over values were emphasized equally with the acquisition of primary sport skills. Physical education was now charged with providing beyond the "physical welfare" principle.**

Y.M.C.A. Aquatic Program Upgraded. **Summer school attendance declined during the decade following World War I. By the summer of 1929 enrollments at Lake Geneva, Wisconsin, had dwindled to fifty-one students. The first World Physical Education Consultation was held in 1936 at the Berlin Olympics. Despite the Depression, Y.M.C.A. aquatics flourished. Dr. John Brown, Jr., National Secretary, reported that in 1932 "more than a million swimmers" had been taught in the Y.M.C.A. (Brown, J., Jr., 1932, pp. 16-17). In 1938 *The New Aquatic Program, Volume I*, was published under the leadership of Dr. Thomas K. Cureton, then a faculty member at Springfield College, who has for a period of over three decades made the greatest contribution to Y.M.C.A. aquatics in the history of the Movement.**

Effects of the Depression. **The period of the mid-1930's were trying years for the Y. Y.M.C.A. Budgetary curtailments led to reductions in staffs and program. Many Y.M.C. A. 's opened their doors to the unemployed and provided free memberships. Softball, "a child of Depression," became popular in Y.M.C.A. industrial leagues as more free tax-supported recreational facilities built by W.P. A. funds competed for the attention of the**

youth. In 1938 *The New Physical Education in the Young Men's Christian Association*, the results of a three-year study under the chairmanship of John R. McCurdy, was published. Throughout this period, national leadership was dominated by Dr. John Brown, Jr., who served as the National Secretary for Physical Education (1919-1939).

Part V: The Modern Era: 1940-1969

The 1930s had been one of the gloomiest decades in modern history and was characterized by unemployment, federal relief programs, and bitter labor struggles. The Depression years had been a sobering experience. As economic conditions improved, Americans shrugged off their "Depression Blues" and looked forward with a new sense of confidence despite a sense of uneasiness caused by Hitler's invasion of Poland.

Wartime Physical Fitness Program. **The Y.M. C. A. 's of the United States and Canada were quickly drawn into their traditional historic roles by becoming active participants in the United Service Organization (USO). Y.M.C.A.'s opened their facilities to men in uniforms, which included the free use of swimming pools, shower rooms, and gymnasiums for informal workouts. A National Wartime Physical Fitness Program which emphasized pre-conditioning of young men and a broadened program of health and physical education was implemented in the summer of 1942.**

Harold Friermood, Senior Secretary, Arrives. **In May 1943, Dr. Harold T. Friermood of the Dayton Association was obtained to fill the position of Senior Secretary for Physical Education, a post left vacant since 1939. Through his leadership the Wartime Program was intensified, and volunteers were trained to replace Y.M. C. A. staffs (forty per cent of whom had moved into war-related services).**

Wartime Adaptations. **A "back to body" movement which emphasized calisthenics, obstacle course running, combatives, and survival swimming tactics was popular. Sports and recreational programs in some Y.M.C.A.'s were scheduled on a "round the clock" basis in order to accommodate the "swing shift." Wartime Y.M.C.A. Fitness and Warfare Aquatic Conferences were held at Lake Geneva during the summers of 1943 and 1944. In 1946 the International Volleyball Federation was formed in Paris with the U. S. A. as one of the charter members.**

A Period of Self-Examination. **The 1950s was a period of self-examination for the American Leaders. Assembled at the North American Centennial Conference at Cleveland in the summer of 1951, they eulogized the past and raised some questions as to the future role and direction of physical education. In 1955 the National Board authorized a nation-wide study "to examine and make a critical evaluation of the 's program in health education, physical education, sports and recreation. . ." The results of this**

survey came out in *A New Look at Y. M. C. A. Physical Education* authored by Robert E. Hamlin, the study director, in 1959.

The 1950s was truly a dynamic decade for the Y.M. C. A. Women and girls were welcomed into a fellowship that had been traditionally male. Memberships increased from 13. 5 per cent in 1950 to 22.7 per cent in 1960. Dramatic changes occurred particularly in the age group for girls under twelve, which increased 265.3 per cent, while boys in the same age group increased only 88.2 per cent. Aquatic activities and gymnasium classes appeared to be most popular for women and girls. The family was seen as a prime unit for character education. The annual report of 1959 indicated 220,005 members enrolled in 430 associations under family membership plans. The number of Leaders' clubs increased 43.2 per cent, and a marked advance in the quality and number of training institutes for volunteers in physical education was evident.

The Last Decade. **During the 1960s the Y.M.C.A. continued its emphasis upon aquatics, physical fitness development, and testing for all ages and both sexes. Skin and scuba diving instruction and certification became a defined field of service. Gymnasiums were redesigned to accommodate new testing equipment and a dramatic resurgence of "jogging" programs occurred.**

Friermood Retires. **This remarkable period of productivity and advances in health and physical education draws to a close with the retirement of Dr. Harold T. Friermood after forty-three years of outstanding service in the Y.M.C.A. This included twenty-fives years as Senior Director for Physical Education for the National Council (U.S.A.). Friermood, a tireless worker, catalyst, researcher, and prolific writer that he is, takes his rightful place in the honored company of Dr. Luther Halsey GuHck, Dr. George J. Fisher, and Dr. John Brown, Jr., all professional leaders who have faithfully guided the growth and development of the Y.M.C.A. health education and physical education program for a period of over eighty years. In 1943, when Friermood assumed the position of Senior Director, there were 1,244 Y.M.C.A. 's with 674 of them reporting over twenty-three million physical education "participation." By 1967 there were 1,718 Y.M.C. A. *s with 1,286 reporting over fifty-two million such activity units. Friermood's influence was international in scope, and he possessed rare ability in working with national and international sports bodies. Among these were the Amateur Athletic Union, The Olympic Committee, The United States Volleyball Association, The Council for the National Cooperation in Aquatics, The Athletic Institute, The International Council of Sport and Physical Education, and The American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation. Within the scope and framework of Y.M.C.A. physical education, Friermood had been active in nearly all major publications, surveys, conferences, and other developments which have occurred in Y.M.C.A. physical education in the past quarter of a century.**

Friermood is one of the outstanding physical educators of the twentieth century.

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CHAPTER 23

AMERICAN OBJECTIVES OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION FROM 1900 THROUGH 1957

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Editor's Note: It can be argued that philosophy results as a flowering process after a considerable amount of data collection, historical analysis, and historical interpretation have taken place. Or it could be - and the Editor leans heavily to this view - that philosophy is a "root-like" activity which assists us to analyze people's words and actions more effectively. Whatever the reader's position on this issue is, and it may be that both approaches have merit, the remaining three chapters, prior to the Epilogue, are historical-philosophical in nature. They treat (and trace) the questions that arise perennially in regard to values and objectives and how they influence physical education and sport. The first essay in Chapter 23 was requested from Professor Hess. It represents an abstracted presentation of an earlier investigation by him that traces the objectives of American physical education from 1900 through 1957 in a helpful and perceptive manner.

Introduction

This discussion of the objectives of American physical education from 1900 through 1967 has been taken from the author's unpublished doctoral dissertation (New York University, 1959) in which the objectives were assessed in light of the major events in American history covering the same fifty-eight year period. The account which follows is written in summary style and includes but a few of the key references. Accordingly, a brief explanation is in order to make a meaningful transition from a four hundred and thirty-two page dissertation to a twenty-page review of same.

First, the objectives are not delineated but rather are discussed in context with the major events in the history of the United States during the fifty-eight year period. Secondly, a recapitulation of two questions, the answers to which formed *the* basis for the assessment of the objectives to meet the demands of the times as reflected in the significant events of the period, is presented at this point. The questions follow: (1) Were those objectives demonstrated to have been shaped by significant events in American history adequate to meet the demands of the times? (2) Were those objectives demonstrated to have been shaped by forces other than significant events in American history adequate to meet the demands of the times ?

The final paragraphs of this introduction present an overview of the significant events in the 1900-1957 period. Included in this overview are brief references to recurring objectives of physical education.

The 1900-1919 period witnessed such social and economic changes as a marked increase in population, economic expansion, and the beginnings of the labor problems. The United States became actively engaged in World War I. Prior to 1900 there was a marked European influence on American physical education, particularly Swedish and German. Some of this influence may be traced to the fact that the crest of both Swedish and German immigration occurred within the middle and late 1800's. (Saveth, 1954, pp. 480-481).

The 1920-1928 period has been described by some historians as "The Decade of Prosperity." Such a title attests to the role of economic advances as outstanding among the events of the decade. As might be expected, the period saw increased offerings in physical education, including new facilities and similar material gains.

In direct contrast to the preceding period, 1929 through 1938 was marked by the title "The Great Depression." Toward the close of the period World War H was fast becoming a reality. Domestic events included the varied types of New Deal social and economic policies. Physical education was among the many education functions to feel the effects of the economic crisis that marked the period. This was manifested by the curtailed budgets which had the effect of reducing the various offerings but had come to be recognized as an important part of physical education.

World War H dominated the 1939-1945 period. The years between the outbreak of the war in Europe and America's entry in 1941, along with *the* actual war years, witnessed an increased emphasis upon the physical fitness objective of physical education.

Post-war problems of every description occupied the early years of the 1946-1957 period. This has probably been true following every major war in which the United States participated. The last few years, however, were marked by the Korean Conflict, the "Cold War," industrial expansion, the development of atomic energy for peace time use, and medical advances too new to evaluate their full impact historically. During this period there was a return to the peace time objectives of physical education, and a de-emphasis upon the physical fitness objective that had characterized the war period. A recent trend has been noted, motivated almost exclusively by the *Kraus-Hirschland Muscular Fitness Report* (Kraus and Hirschland, December, 1953, p. 17), toward what is being termed "total fitness" as an objective of physical education.

Objectives and Events, 1900-1919

Throughout the greater part of the 1900-1919 period, the hygienic or health objective, along with the remedial, recreative, and educative, were acknowledged by leading physical educators as the prevailing purposes of American physical education. However, the health objective was considered singularly important, as attested to by Sargent in his statement that "it would be difficult to conceive how any system could be truly educative, recreative, or remedial which was not also hygienic." (Sargent, 1906, p. 69).

These objectives were shaped largely by two forces, namely, the prevailing medical knowledge of the period, and the purposes of certain European systems of physical education (especially Swedish and German).

During this 1900-1919 period America's leading physical educators acknowledged the population shift from farm to city that was underway, and directed *the* profession's attention to the effect which the crowded living conditions associated with city living imposed upon the health of children and youth in particular.

In addition to acknowledging the demographic forces of the period, these early leaders performed a similar service to their profession in respect to the demands of the times as reflected in advances in technology. They called attention to what they believed such technological advances were doing to the health of America's labor force in limiting the opportunity for daily large muscle activity which the hand labor of the past had provided.

While American physical education leaders were stressing the need for objectives to direct the practices of the profession to meet the demands of the times reflected in changing demographic conditions and the advances in technology, American medicine was on its way to establishing unprecedented records in human conservation through the application of the modern principle of preventive medicine. Although medicine was credited with such advances that saw a striking decline in infant mortality and an increase in the adult life span, other disciplines made noteworthy contribution to these significant successes in human conservation. Chemistry and bacteriology made direct contributions through the immunization programs getting underway during this period. Public health, through federal and stage legislation, and health education, as a struggling service of public health, made contributions to human conservation.

While it is outside the scope of this review to account for the several disciplines contributing to the successes in human health and welfare, it is pertinent to disclose at this point what America's leading physical educators had to say about the contribution of their profession. For example, did they believe physical education could contribute to human conservation by emphasizing the singular importance of the health or hygienic objective ?

The answer to this query is a qualified "yes" insofar as the professional leadership of the late nineteenth century and perhaps as late as the first fifteen years of the twentieth century are concerned. (Sargent, 1906, p. 69).

Objectives and Events, 1920-1928

In the preceding period, the five objectives were identified singularly as well as in relation to one another, with the health or hygienic (objective) emerging as the underlying purpose of physical education. By the close of the first decade of the twentieth century, a trend in the objectives was well underway that was destined to charge *the* status noted above. This trend was a shift in emphasis away from the objectives of the 1900-1919 period, based as they were upon the prevailing medical knowledge and Swedish and German systems, toward a type of educational objective that was based upon a body of knowledge gained from researches in the fields of psychology and the social sciences. This trend was readily identified by the end of the first world war, and was destined to become the prevailing force in directing the practices of American physical education during the 1920-1928 period.

Paralleling the shift in emphasis in the physical education objectives, marked changes were also taking place in the philosophy of the purpose of American education, changes that were based largely on the same advances in psychology and the broad social developments responsible for the shift in emphasis in the physical education objectives. These changes, related to the same forces and developing separately throughout the first two decades of the twentieth century, were formally linked when state laws forced physical education into the public school curriculum in the years immediately following the close of World War I. Physical educators hailed this formal union with education. Educators, however, were faced with a problem similar to that which they were up against when vocational education was forced into the public school curriculum; namely, they had little choice but to accept what the public demanded. As Snedden stated in 1920, "No educator of modern outlook dare now confess himself indifferent either to physical or vocational education." (Snedden, p. 240). The problem was somewhat eased for the educators when they were convinced that physical education leaders were, with a few exceptions, pledged to the same socially centered objectives as they, the educators were. Accordingly, this new union of education and physical education tended to reinforce the educational and social type objective that earlier physical education leaders had promoted on the basis of its relationship to advances in psychology.

Toward the end of the 1920-1928 period, this identity and definition of the physical education objectives in context with broad educational and social movements had progressed to a point where some of America's leading physical educators even denied that health was the underlying purpose of physical education. (Williams, 1930, p. 60). The school administrators who were responsible for providing a place for physical

education in the public school curriculums during this period encountered some difficulty in understanding just what, if not health, physical education did contribute to education that other school subjects did not. The schoolmen of this period, whether right or wrong, had been led to believe that physical education was brought into the public school curriculums because of its unique contribution to health—that American citizens, in their respective states, had enacted legislation to force physical education into the curriculums in the sincere belief that the physical unfitness of American youth, as disclosed in the draft findings of World War I, would not plague the nation again should war break out.

War did not break out in the next ten years. With the exception of the Panic of 1921 the nation enjoyed the most prosperous years of its history between 1920 and 1928. The population shift from farm to city continued at an accelerated pace during this period that saw America's expanding economy geared to advances in technology. The eight-hour day became a reality. Most everyone had more leisure than they had ever enjoyed before.

In spite of the unprecedented prosperity and leisure of the period, there were certain undesirable factors connected with the population shift from farm to city and industrial expansion that was geared to the advances in technology. These were noted in the foregoing discussion of the 1900-1919 period, namely, the effect which crowded living in cities had upon the health of children and youth, and the decreasing opportunities for large muscle activity in man's daily labor which the new technology brought with it. However, these undesirable factors were somewhat offset by the positive contribution to health made by the expanding services of the public health movement that achieved prominence during this 1920-1928 period. Similarly, the advances in preventive medicine continued to establish new re cords in human conservation.

However, leading physical educators of this 1920-1928 period believed the profession had a more significant role to play in America's development than its unique contribution to the nation's health status through large muscle activity. These leaders pointed out that physical education was an integral part of education; that it had the same objectives as education, and, in stressing the educational and social objectives, such as worthy use of leisure time, physical education made a direct contribution to one of the cardinal objectives of all education. In a similar manner these same leaders emphasized that physical education shared with other school subjects the responsibility and opportunity to contribute to the solution of the complex social problems associated with the period. This shared function with other school subjects to help solve the complex social problems of the period emerged as the most emphasized objective of physical education. The unique contribution which physical education made to health, through large muscle activity, emerged as a secondary objective during this period of prosperity. Even the highly emphasized objective, worthy use of leisure, was

conceived in reference to social and educational values. The idea of engaging in physical activity during one's leisure for health was even ridiculed by one leading American physical educator at the close of this period. (Williams, 1930, p. 370).

Objectives and Events, 1929-1938

This new status of the physical education objectives, with its emphasis clearly on an educational objective based on social and psychological principles, had less than a decade in which to become established before the impact of the Depression made itself felt upon all phases of education.

Between 1929 and 1938 the nation faced up to the most severe economic depression in its history. Every phase of the American economy was put to the test of determining the bare essentials. Educators had to justify every subject in a curriculum that a decade of prosperity had broadened considerably over any previous public school offerings. Essentials as opposed to fads and frills were to remain in the public school curriculums. The professional leadership in physical education was quick to point out, in the face of searching inquiries by taxpaying groups of citizens to weed cut the "fads and frills," that for the past decade physical education's objectives had been squarely aligned with those of education. These leaders believed, and were generally assured, that their programs would be maintained as essential phases of the total education of America's children and youth during this period of scarce money and widespread unemployment. The central theme of most of the writings published by physical educators during this period of economic stress emphasized that physical education shared with other school subjects the responsibility and opportunity for helping to solve the social problems connected with the times. According to this line of reasoning, physical education could not be viewed as a fad or a friU since it allegedly contributed to the same general objectives as aU other school subjects. The success of this reasoning was attested to in part by the fact that less than five per cent of the schools in cities of 10,000 population and over eliminated physical education from their school curriculums during the depression years. Further evidence of the success of this reasoning is to be found in the fact that the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation became a department within the National Education Association in 1938.

Although the Depression was the most significant occurrence of the 1929-1938 period, it was not the only event to which Americans gave thought during this period. Developments abroad, not directly "under the lens" of the Depression, moved along with little opposition during the period when most Americans were understandably concerned with the Depression. Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931; Mussolini undertook his conquest of Ethiopia in 1935; and Hitler remilitarized the Rhineland in 1936. These developments we now know were singularly important links in a series of international events

that took place during their period, and which eventually led to the outbreak of World War H in Europe in 1939.

While America's leading physical educators during this 19291938 period were vigorously justifying physical education as an integral part of general education on the grounds that its objectives were socially centered and educationally conceived, Japan and Italy were intensifying their physical education programs and justifying them on the grounds that they contributed to health and physical efficiency. As such they were indispensable to their political preservation. Similarly, England, France, and some of the smaller nations, whose borders were adjacent to Germany in particular, intensified their physical education programs during this period, and justified them on the grounds that they contributed to health and physical efficiency and, as such, were indispensable to their defense. Except for a few American physical educators who called the profession's attention to these developments abroad and identified them as threats to America's own security, it was the general consensus of the professional membership of this 1929-1938 period that the objectives of physical education should reflect and, in turn, emphasize the prevailing socially centered educational philosophy rather than the nation's health needs. It is noted here that Steinhaus, Rogers, and McCloy took some exception to these socially centered objectives of this period. They based their objections upon what they termed an undue emphasis on these objectives, and not upon the importance of the objectives per se. (Steinhaus, 1937, p. 345; Rogers, 137, p. 140; McCloy, 1938, p. 298).

Objectives and Events, 1939-1945

The first test of the adequacy of the socio-educational objectives to provide American physical education with the direction demanded by the times was foreshadowed by the outbreak of World War H in Europe in September of 1939. Within a brief span of two years (i. e., brief by comparison with the more than thirty years over which the change in status noted above took place), the professional leadership acknowledged, albeit reluctantly, that the health and physical objectives had been needlessly neglected and now demand, in a time of national peril, that physical education programs be immediately directed toward developing physical fitness, an objective deemed necessary in light of America's leadership position in world affairs. (Mitchell, 1940, p. 412; Cassidy, 1940, p. 409; Oberteuffer, 1941, p. 569; Hellebrandt, 1942, p. 119).

The enactment of the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 by Congress marked the first time in the history of the United States that the nation was forced to adopt conscription in peace time. Among other things, this first peace-time draft law found America's political leaders officiaUy linking the nation's security with *ihe* health status of its youth in particular. Physical education, historically associated with miHtary preparation

because of its unique contribution to health, was forced to shift its prevailing emphasis from practices that were directed by educational and social objectives towards solving complex social problems, to practices that were directed by health and physical objectives toward upgrading the physical fitness of all American youth. This emphasis continued throughout the war years and enabled physical education to make a specific contribution to the nation's civilian as well as military efforts to win the war.

Objectives and Events, 1946-1957

The years immediately following the close of World War H found America facing a wide variety of problems, ranging from the individual readjustment of the returning serviceman to the overall problem of reconverting a wartime industrial economy to a civilian industry economy. In the midst of these strictly national problems, the United Nations was struggling not only with its own organizational problems, but also with the more delicate problem of how best to function as a world agency to maintain world peace through the promotion of international understanding. Educational institutions throughout the United States responded to the ideals encompassed in the charter of the United Nations. (AAHPER, 1951, ix).

In June of 1950 President Truman ordered American armed forces into the Korean conflict. This was six months after he had declared a state of national emergency to exist. In March of 1951 the AAHPER published its Report of the National Conference for the Mobilization of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (1951, p. 21) in which it was categorically stated that the objectives of physical education for youth were the same in the emergency as they had been in peace time. The broadened educational and social objectives were to prevail. The unique contributions of physical education to health and in turn to national security, at a time when a third world war was imminent, were subservient to the broadened social and educational contributions which physical education now allegedly shared with countless other organizations devoted to the same broad purposes. Physical education had lost its singular identity. (Oberteuffer, 1951, P. 53).

The war in Korea ended in 1952. By 1954 the profession was beset with still another challenge. (Kraus and Hirschland, 1953, p. 17). Only this time the challenge, instead of coming from war or the threat of war, was based upon America's advances in technology. This "new" challenge was described as automation. Automation, according to reports, limited the opportunity for large muscle activity for all Americans. Although the term automation was new, the challenge it posed to the profession was really an old one that had been expressed at least as early as 1908 in the physical education literature in connection with elevators, motor cars, carriages, and messenger services. The profession rose to meet *the* challenge of automation by proclaiming that the objective of American physical education was total fitness and, as such, encompassed social, health, and physical, emotional, and mental objectives.

This new emphasis on total fitness was especially directed toward America's youth, and the term "youth fitness" became synonymous with total fitness as an objective of physical education. Total fitness (or youth fitness) succeeded in merging the two classes of objectives that had vied with each other, through their respective proponents, to provide the directing force for physical education's practices throughout the fifty-eight year period. While this merger was a compromise, it did apparently bring the two classes of objectives (i.e.,) the educational and social and the health and physical into a more stable relationship. Its ultimate success, however, will have to be judged by the demands of the times it served.

Conclusion

The author invites the reader to critically examine the current happenings at home and abroad and juxtapose such happenings with the prevailing purposes of physical education. The reader may then observe the relationship, if any, and, further, inquire if this relationship is serving as a positive force in shaping the objectives and in motivating the practitioners and consumers of physical education programs.

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CHAPTER 24

THE IDEAS AND INFLUENCE OF McCLOY, NASH, AND WILLIAMS

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Editor's Note: The second essay in this final group was prepared through the courtesy of Professor Gerber. Dr. Gerber explains the particular interpretations given to physical education's role in education by three great leaders of the twentieth century: Charles H. McCloy, Jay B. Nash, and Jesse F. Williams. There seems to be little doubt, even though true perspective is difficult at this point, but that the greatness of their contributions will stand up over the years.

In order to provide a proper setting for me to discuss the ideas and influence of Charles Harold McCloy, Jay Bryan Nash, and Jesse Feiring Williams, it seems appropriate to explain the philosophical framework from which my research was conceived and executed and the specific impetus to be involved in this particular study. Individualism, and the attendant historical view exemplified by Carlyle's dictum that "the history of the world is the biography of great men," went out of favor soon after the start of the twentieth century. Historians of this century have primarily espoused the social theory of history, accepting the view that great social forces have structured the events of man. Their view of man as a somewhat helpless figure, haplessly moved by the surrounding currents, is, I think, beginning to change. Man is flexing his muscles and finding ways to choose his own directions despite the social tides. As someone whose philosophical position is grounded in existentialism, I, of course, am imbued with a deep-seated belief in the power of the individual to frame his own directions on the basis of intellectual commitments. I accept the fact that major social forces such as the industrial revolution, the depression, and most recently the Vietnam War, have been almost overpowering factors in directing the course of human events. However, I also accept as an equally powerful force the influence of such major thinkers as John Maynard Keynes, John Dewey, and even John F. Kennedy. (Perhaps there is some transcendental magic in the name John!) Thus I cling to the perhaps "refashionable" theory that the study of the intellectual ideas, as promulgated by various influential figures, is a valid–and necessary–approach to the study of historical events.

It is an interesting feature of this particular study that in the biographical data of the men whose ideas were examined, evidence was provided to support my approach to history. By coincidence, all three men were born in the exact same year, 1886, in the same state, Ohio. Each

received his baccalaureate degree from an Ohio institution, Nash and Williams from Oberlin and McCloy from Marietta College. All attended Columbia University, though only Williams and McCloy earned their terminal degrees there; Nash attended New York University, in the same city, for his degree. Although Williams earned an M.D., both McCloy and Nash were among the early physical educators to earn the Ph.D.

Their life parallels do not end there. As teachers, each served a single institution for more than twenty years, two of which were located in New York City. Within these universities each held primary responsibility for framing and developing that institution's first doctoral program in physical education. Each was an influential teacher and doctoral advisor, responsible for the work of numerous students who helped to extend his professional influence.

All three were prolific writers. McCloy's published works included twenty books, fourteen of which were in Chinese. He wrote twenty-seven articles for the *Research Quarterly*, twenty-four for the *Journal of Health and Physical Education,* as well as articles for other periodicals. Nash wrote nine books, edited a five-volume series, wrote seventeen articles for *JOHPER* and some for other publications. Williams' output can only be characterized as enormous. Between 1916 and 1964 forty-one different titles were published under his name, eight alone and thirty-three in co-authorship. Seven books were eventually published in multiple editions. He contributed eleven articles to the *Journal*, and two for the *Quarterly*, and wrote even more voluminously for other publications such as the *Teachers College Record* and *School and Society*.

Furthermore, they were all dedicated to the idea of professional service in various organizations. Each held the highest elective office, the presidency, of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, as well as in the relevant district association. Each was, in turn, awarded every major honor established by the profession.

And lastly, as I shall show in more detail later in this paper. Nash, McCloy, and Williams were in general agreement about the nature of man, holding fundamental assumptions congruent to the ideas of contemporary thinkers.

Given the fact that they functioned in the same point in time and their life circumstances were so remarkably similar, one might, if one were committed only to a social explanation of history, expect to find a uniformity of viewpoint about professional matters. But, in fact, this was not the case. These men were three individuals who operated within the same professional framework, shared similar modus operandi, experienced the same social forces, but responded differently to them. Each framed, as I intend to illustrate, a professional philosophy which was permeated by a

strong central theme. (Note: I have taken McCloy's viewpoints to be those expressed from approximately the late thirties. Prior to that time his writings did not exhibit a clarified or specific approach and some of his earlier statements were later contradicted.) **They made different interpretations of their common beliefs, held a different hierarchy of values, placed emphases on different ideas, developed different concepts of programs, and, in sum, constructed different philosophies of physical education. Curiously enough, American physical educators did not choose among their contending viewpoints. As I intend to demonstrate in the final section of this paper, all three radically different viewpoints were accepted without any attempt to reconcile the contradictions.**

My interest in these three men stemmed originally from an absorption with physical education in the period between 1930 and 1960. Atara Sherman, a doctoral candidate at the University of Southern California, had done a dissertation entitled "Theoretical Foundations of Physical Education in the United States: 1886-1930. " In her study she examined the writings of professional leaders in an attempt to trace the significant concepts held by physical educators up to 1930, a time she characterized as the beginning of a new era in physical education. Other historians of the profession, including Mabel Lee and Bruce Bennett concurred with that judgment. The date 1960 also had significance in that it marked the seventy-fifth anniversary of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, an occasion used by the profession to make a general survey and summary of its accomplishments and directions. Furthermore, 1960 will, I believe, ultimately emerge as the end of an era in American thinking. The long period of intellectual stability and unity which this country had known since the depression, came, I think, to an end about this time, symbolically marked by the election of John F. Kennedy and his claim that "the torch has been passed to a new generation. "

A cursory examination of the physical education literature of this period revealed three main themes. These were clearly paralleled by the writings of McCloy, Nash, and Williams which, by dint of sheer quantity, dominated the literature. Furthermore, it was apparent that the profession itself had recognized the particular influence of these three men. They had been elected to office, given the highest awards, and were singled out in the few brief historical analyses of the period in which they worked.

Therefore, it seemed appropriate for me to study physical education for the period 1930-1960, to approach it via a study of the intellectual commitments held by physical educators, and to select for analysis the ideas of Charles Harold McCloy, Jay Bryan Nash, and Jesse Feiring Williams on the assumption that they were the most influential leaders of the period.

Part I

A philosophy of physical education, i. e., a systematic, coherent set of

consciously held theories about physical education, is contingent upon relevant and underlying conceptions about the nature and needs of man. McCloy, Williams, and Nash, in tune with their times, frequently cited the works of G. Stanley Hall, John Mason Tyler, and Edward L. Thorndike to amplify and support their beliefs about the physiology and psychology of man. Superficially their ideas were similar, but an analysis of the manner in which they interpreted their theories, as evidenced by applications to physical education, shows clear divergence.

The Organic Unity of Man

Each man firmly believed in the organic unity of man; Cartesian dualism was emphatically rejected. Nevertheless, McCloy stated that "our organism is more body than mind, " (McCloy, 1936, p. 302, italics deleted) and, therefore, urged physical education to "re-think the whole problem of our more purely physical objectives, and... emphasize them more. " (McCloy, 1936, p. 303) Williams viewed "man as a unity of mind and body, with spirit or soul as an essential element of the whole" (Williams, 1922, p. 16), but, in direct contrast to McCloy, warned physical education that "too great a reliance on physiologic principles with resulting neglect of the social, moral, and spiritual elements in life produces the 'crude, vulgar, self-seeking individual' so obnoxious in human relationships and so dangerous to the state and nation. " (Williams, 1922, p. 16) Nash was the only one of the three to refuse to fragmentize the whole man by placing a higher value on one particular aspect In fact, his attempt to avoid the trap of speaking dualistically, while proclaiming unity, led him to develop special terminology. Noting that "the very words 'physical' and 'mental' confuse thinking, " he stated that "therefore... the word 'organic' will be used in place of the word 'physical' and the words 'interpretive development' or 'thinking' will be used instead of 'mental. ' " (Nash, 1948, pp. 94-95)

The Instinctive Drives of Man

Darwin's theory of evolution was published in 1859. Seventy years later, in the 1930s, the so-called instinctive drives of man were a subject of study and speculation. "Ontogeny recapitulates phytogeny," a doctrine specified by Haeckel as early as 1868, and later popularized by G. Stanley Hall, was earnestly subscribed to by physical educators among others.

McCloy, Nash, and Williams all believed that the ancient need to hunt and engage in physical combat had instilled behavioral drives still present in contemporary man. But each used this so-called "fact" in a different way to support his theory about the role of physical activity.

McCloy reasoned that since physical activity was so primary in the human being, physical education should focus upon the physical as its first and fundamental concern. Thus he stated:

> **But there is another type of expression that is found in physical competition; the desire for mastery, for self-assertion, the desire to cooperate loyally with others of one's own group, to express one's ego in leading others, in adventuring, in sheer physical striving, in feeling physically adequate, and in the joy-out perfection of movement. One sees this in the carefree dancing of the self-forgetful girl, in the joy of achievement of making a perfect smash in tennis, the making of a tackle in football, or the execution of a graceful dive... .These physical cravings are deeply rooted in human nature and are more closely connected with those age-old urges which made for survival than are those of the more cultivated aesthetics.** (McCloy, 1933, pp. 5-6)

Furthermore he saw hunting and fighting activities as a form of competition and, therefore, believed that competition *per se* was a *natural* human activity. This broad view of the ancient activities enabled him to state that sports were a natural outgrowth of man's biological inheritance—they were satisfying in themselves because they related to the inherited emotional drivers of the individual. In a rather poetic passage he established the cultural basis of sport competition and connected it to genetic inheritance:

> **In spite of the tendency of the modern cultural dilettante to belittle the physical side of life and to talk vaguely of the values of packing his intellectual attic foil of "cultural" second ands–artistic and otherwise, only a hundredth of which he will ever use except as something to brag about—we are primarily the descendants of a race of higher apes and prehistoric men whose functions were 90 per cent physical. Even our instincts, our fundamental interests, and our passions originate from these pre–human strata... .Hence it seems to me that the first fundamental of physical education is that we should not get too far away from *the* physical itself.** (McCloy, 1940, p. 96)

Williams, in recognizing these same sorts of drives, thought the activities they engendered inappropriate to modern man. Unlike McCloy, who thought that because of inherited tendencies modern man could find competitive physical activities satisfying, Williams urged that society's duty was to provide equivalent forms of activity which could better serve its own purpose. Thus Williams said that "necessity of providing an equivalent has been recognized... .and physical education exists as a great constructive social force to guarantee to youth the fulfillment of these early adaptations." (Williams, 1942, p. 211) **The expressions of underlying predispositions may, "under proper guidance…be made to serve high causes and noble ends."** (Willams, 1927, p. 77)

Nash was closer to McCloy in accepting the urge to activity as a meaningful part of man's inheritance. "With this biological heredity as a base," he said, "we can mold these age-old activities into a social inheritance which can be passed on from generation to generation. As a means in this transportation *'the* game's the thing.'" (Nash, 1928, p. 48) He also used this construct to help build the theory of "felt needs" (which will be discussed later in this paper), noting that:

> The basic drives of survival and belonging are so much a part of the subject matter of physical education that the natural motivation to participate in these activities is high.... The right activity for the right age groups is enough incentive to participate. (Nash, 1951, p. 205)

Ideal of the Healthy Man

Consistent with their separate interpretations of a unified man impelled by certain primordial drives, they each delineated an ideal of the healthy man. As can be expected, McCloy's use of the term health was primarily in physical terms. He recalled that "from the earliest days of the profession, the physical educator has been interested in the health of the individual under his care," (McCloy, 1934, p. 51) and in urging his contemporaries to do likewise, detailed methods for appraising the physical health of the child.

Nash's view of the healthy man was consistent with his concept of the integrated man. He sought "a well adjusted, wholesome, self-directed individual meeting his responsibilities in the society in which he lives." (Nash, 1948, p. 225) Because of his broader view of health, he believed that:

> Physical education has no monopoly on contributions to the health of the human organism.. .The very name, Department of Health and Physical Education carries some unfortunate connotations. One of them is that health and physical education are synonymous or, even worse, that physical education departments should take over the responsibility for the health of the school-age child. (Nash, 1948, p. 225)

Through a medical doctor and the author of numerous health books, Williams' view was closer to Nash's, with greater and more primary emphasis on the use to which good health was put, rather than on its achievement. In fact, he defined health as "that quality of life that enables the individual to live most and to serve best." (Williams, 1951, p. 6) He thought that "the emphasis upon health in education carries with it a fine idealism, a disciplining of self, a training of one's powers, a regimen of preparation for worthwhile causes." (Williams, 1933, p. 5)

Definition of Physical Education

In light of Williams', McCloy's and Nash's interpretations of the nature of man, it is interesting to observe how their definitions of physical education reflect their differing emphases. McCloy harks back to the inherited tendencies, which, you will remember, he characterized as deriving from fonctions which were 90 per cent physical. To him "physical education is an educational activity characterized by the doing of things of interest to individuals, most of which are based upon the individual's original tendencies and inherited types of emotions." (McCloy, 1940, p. 120) Nash, unable to separate physical and mental man, could not fragment man's daily life either. He asked:

> How can a line be drawn between class time and the time spent in activity at noon, after school, or even during the long summer vacation? These are all times for physical education ... . Physical education, as defined by time, is all the experiences children have in neuromuscular activities which are directed to the desired outcome. (Nash, 1951, p. 223)

Williams, in his definition, as usual placed primary emphasis on the educational outcomes of the activity, rather than the activity itself. To him

> …physical education is the sum of man's physical activities selected as to kind, and conducted as to outcomes. Since physical education is to be considered as a means of education through physical activities rather than an education of the physical—how absurd the latter—the phrases selected as to kind and conducted as to outcomes assume considerable importance. (Williams, 1951, p. 10)

Objectives of Physical Education

In accordance with a definite and deliberate commitment to physical education as an educational endeavor with aims congruent to those of general education, each agreed in general terms that the broad, overall objectives of physical education related to organic power, mastery of skills, recreation or leisure-time participation, personality development, and democratic concepts. However, there were decided differences in the significance which they placed on each of these objectives. Each established a definite hierarchy of values which reflected his interpretation of the nature of man and the emphasis in his definition of physical education. The varying degrees of concern held for each objective can easily be demonstrated.

At the top of McCloy's hierarchy were the objectives relating to organic power. He pointed out that "we (man) can do something for our organs... that the clothier cannot do. We can improve them to a certain degree after having received them from our parental germ plasm." (McCloy, 1937, p. 459)

Therefore, he believed that the fundamental purpose of physical education was to assist the individual to develop his body, a position he stated in clear, certain terms:

> We need better-developed muscular systems that the current literature in our profession is demanding... .Therefore, I should like to propose that as a profession we re-think the whole problem of our more purely physical objectives, and that we emphasize them more. I yield to no one in our profession in my belief in the educational importance of physical education when adequately organized and taught…But the basis of all physical education—developmental, educational, corrective, or any other aspect of our field—is the adequate training and development of the body itself. (McCloy, 1936, p. 303)

Furthermore, he regarded the development of the physical self to be an end in itself, a worthy objective for an individual or a profession because of its very naturalness to mankind. He said:

> Most men want to be well developed. Down in their hearts they would like to be strong and healthy. Those who do not react to such a developmental program either have it badly presented to them or feel that they would not succeed. (McCloy, 1934, p. 53)

McCloy thought that strenuous muscular exercise had energy-recharging effects which helped to alleviate the stresses of modern life, that it had an important effect on body tissues, including their rejuvenation and prolongation of physiological youth, and that increased strength and flexibility could and should be developed.

Close to physical development on McCloy's hierarchy, was the development of skilled performance in physical activity. As with the objective of organic power, McCloy basically conceived of the mastery of skills as being satisfying in and for itself, stating that a skilled performance was cultural in the motor field in the same sense that any learning which occurs in other disciplines may be cultural. "I believe," he said, "that any worthwhile activity executed skillfully enough to give the doer exquisite sensory pleasure is cultural. " (McCloy, 1938, p. 480, italics deleted) But he reminded his readers that "skills must be mastered to the point where in these and subsequent situations the pupil may perform with such joy and satisfaction as to get from the activity its maximum educational effect." (McCloy, 1933, p. 4) He also acknowledged that mastery of skills, besides being an end in itself, was useful for future participation in sport (McCloy, 1927, p. 46), a position very close to Nash's. But McCloy did not stress the recreational objective as being of great importance, and, in fact, tended to see recreation as a means for exercising. He thought that "while education and recreation are important, organic health is notably more so. " (McCloy,

1940, p. 293) In his earlier writing he underscored the possibilities inherent in physical education for developing character traits, provided that the leadership worked toward that end (McCloy), and he developed a conception of the interrelationship of the individual and the group in a democratic society (McCloy, 1940, pp. 122-24); but in later years he rarely mentioned either facet. Articles entitled "How About Some Muscle?" and "The Forgotten Objectives of Physical Education" made clear that his chief concern was man's physical development.

No man could take a more opposite position to McCloy than Jesse Feiring Williams. His interest in the organic objectives of physical education resided in his belief that health was a duty of good citizenship. In fact, he objected to the concept of physical fitness both in principle, because of its dualistic connotations, and as an objective of physical education. In the fourth edition of "*The Principles",* he swiped at McCloy in a section entitled "The Fallacy of the Back-to-the-Body Aim" and in a later edition he asserted that

> Physical education is brought forward as a great corrective, palliative, remedial agency, removing waste products, strengthening foot arches and abdominal muscles, enlarging chest capacity, and increasing strength of grip…These values, however, should come as by-products of motor activity designed to serve more vital needs. (Willams, 1964, p. 190)

The idea of the development of the physical being as a worthy end in itself was particularly repugnant to Williams. In a strong comment he asked the question:

> What then, is to be said of the efforts of certain persons to develop large and bulging muscles or to pursue certain odd skills that have no useful function in life ? The satisfactions derived from such exercises serve only whimsical values such as exhibitionism; at times they are outlets for maladjusted personalities. For example, the yoga devotee may finally acquire unilateral control over the rectus abdominus, but the evidence is lacking that this has in any way deepened spirituality. (Williams, 1964, pp. 186-87)

Williams supported the recreational objective of physical education by advocating the development of skills for future leisure-time pursuits, and for utilitarian use in the activities of daily living. (Williams, 1942, pp. 234-40) But, as he saw it, the primary objective of physical education related to character development. He believed that physical education activities were experiences through which children could learn the standards of conduct suitable to their democratic society. This is the basis of his famous statement that "physical education is education through the physical."

(Williams) He declared that "physical education should identify at every opportunity the close relationship between the moral and the physical" (Williams, 1964, p. 151); that "physical education should gain increasing competence and expertness in guiding personality development" (Williams, 1964, p. 154); and that "physical education should help to establish the American Way of Life as a worthy ideal for all peoples." (Williams, 1964, p. 129) In the latter regard he stated that:

> Education must…show him (the citizen) how to apply in his whole life those moral principles of democracy that underlie the concept of government by free men.... Some of these concepts will arise and must be taught in physical education. Four of these, equality of opportunity, personal worth, individual responsibility, and self-achievement, relate directly to physical education. (Williams, 1964, p. 57)

In contrast to Williams' position that the goal of physical education was to teach the individual to serve society. Nash's constant theme was that concern should be evidenced for the whole individual's own well-being and happiness. Thus in his hierarchy of objectives, the concept that assumes governing importance was the development of the integrated being, meaning "the bringing together of all the traits and powers of an individual into one personality which responds as a whole to lofty group ideals...." (Nash, 1948, p. 265) Beliefs that "integration and normality are achieved through meaningful recreational activity" (Nash, 1953, p. 200) and that "games.…offer great opportunities for emotional development" (Nash, 1948, p. 191) led him to advocate that physical educators could help to secure this state-of-being by preparing the child for a life of active participation in recreational activity.

Nash proceeded from the point of view that man's life could roughly be divided into two categories, play and work, or time devoted to earning a living and time devoted to leisure. He maintained that it was within the province of the school to train children for life, and, therefore, that "education has a responsibility to prepare youth for the enjoyment of leisure." (Nash, 1953, p. 204)

Sports skills were an important element of physical education because "skills in youth are basic to the recreation patterns of later life." (Nash, 1953, p. 187) "The development of a rhythmic pattern of movement of grace and symmetry and the ability to judge objects in the environment—both physical and human—are the responsibility of physical education." (Nash, 1948, p. 184)

Nash did not stress the objective of organic power as being or primary importance, but he did include it as one of the few responsibilities of education to be achieved primarily in physical education. (Nash, 1948, p. 245)

He argued for a concept of fitness that extended to all aspects of the person, rather than merely considering the physical. (Nash, 1942, p. 380) He agreed with Williams' position that the physical education program was a natural laboratory for democracy and specifically called attention to the fact that this also included play and recreation. He noted that "the practice of choice in play and recreation [should] become the great rehearsal for choice in a democracy." (Nash, 1953, p. 47)

It would be fair to say that all the previously cited objectives of physical education were embraced by Nash, inasmuch as they contributed to the ultimate well-being and happiness of *the* individual. He did not attempt to isolate any single one as having greatest importance to either the individual or the goals of education. However, he believed that preparation for the good use of leisure-time was the essential necessary to achieve well-being.

View of History

All three men reached back into history to find justification for their points of view. Their differing interpretations of history highlight their conceptions of physical education and serve as an adequate summary of their positions. It also serves to remind us of the many sided truths of history and that our biases influence our interpretations.

McCloy said:

> From about 500 B.C. until about A.D. 1900 the objectives were reasonably simple, and the practice, while differing in detail, was fairly uniform as to the goals sought. These goals had to do largely with the development of strength, of an adequate physical development, and of appropriate skills. The literature of physical education of those days sang the praises of the physically competent, and individuals sought to emulate the harmonious bodily proportions of the classic Greek statues. (McCloy, 1937, p. 458)

Nash said:

> Training, or "discipline of living," has been acknowledged throughout *the* ages as being beneficial. The Greeks depended upon a system of gymnastics for the development of strength, agility, rhythm of movement and beauty. Greek leaders considered training as a definite basis for the worthy use of leisure. With training, leisure-time could be utilized for not only physical but also mental betterment. (Nash, 1948, p. 94)

Williams said:

> The achievements of the ancient Greeks in physical education lead us to inquire into the thinking of the Greek philosophers about this and related problems of physical education…It is apparent that in Plato's conception of education, body and mind are not simple opposites. For both Plato and Aristotle the sum of physical education was not the education of the physical alone but rather the development of personality qualities through the physical. (Williams, 1964, p. 147)

Part II

As McCloy, Nash and Williams attempted to translate their views of the objectives of physical education into guidelines for educational programs, each dealt with the concepts of curriculum, method, and evaluation in his own way and with varying emphasis. There were several broad points of agreement among them, including the belief that activities should be selected with regard to objectives; that teaching methods should effectively bring about the fulfillment of these objectives; and that measurement was a tool that potentially could be used in evaluating the progress of the individual student.

Concepts of Program

McCloy revealed his deep-rooted bias toward a curriculum in which the development of organic power was foremost in the following comment about program organization:

> I have seen too many times project types of organizations which, while possibly educational, certainly wasted a lot of valuable time. I have repeatedly timed many pupils in gymnasium programs who in the twenty-five or thirty minutes of so-called activity, engaged in no more than three or four minutes of vigorous muscular work. Biologically, at least, this is certainly a minor. Until we obtain more time that we have now, I think we should compromise with "education" and obtain a little more for biology. (McCloy, 1937, p. 512)

Also illuminating, is his comment that "personally, I believe that a P.F.I. (physical-fitness index) of 120 would, at the present stage of physical education and recreation in our country, be of more value to more people than would be the skill to shoot eighteen holes of golf in 72." (McCloy, 1937, p. 512)

Nevertheless, he urged the development of a curriculum based upon a carefully graded program of skills suitable for each age group. He believed

that "fundamental activities [such as running and throwing as found in track and field] should be stressed out of all apparent proportion to their direct values" (McCloy, 1927, p. 49) because they correlated with success in more complex sports. His main point though was that "a choice [should] be made of a few standard games and athletic sports.. .[and] these games [should] be thoroughly taught." (McCloy, 1940, p. 124)

Consistent with this approach was his stress on teaching the skills as efficiently as possible, particularly through use of the drill method. He reminded the profession that

> Good teachers concern themselves with the mastery of subject matter.... Stressing only the freedom of the child to develop tends to produce a large group of individuals who are badly educated and who possess Little systemized knowledge.... (McCloy, 1940, p. 100)

The emphasis in McCloy's life work was certainly in measurement and evaluation; this was fundamental to all he advocated in terms of physical education programs and teaching. He believed that in order to promote the development of skill and strength, the educator had to know exactly what an individual child could and should be able to do. McCloy claimed that tests, properly administered, would yield information about the innate motor capacity and present motor ability of students, which in turn would aid in classification, grading, motivation, diagnosis of difficulties, and program evaluation. To further this work he developed an Athletic Quotient, Athletic Strength Index, and a General Strength Index, and he calculated formulas that yielded General Motor Capacity Scores and General Motor Achievement Scores. From these he derived a Motor Quotient which he claimed was "the motor analogue of the Intelligence Quotient in the mental field." (McCloy, 1939, p. 126) His naive hope was that each teacher would become a practical researcher, using tests and measurements to effectively increase teaching performance. As a result of these tests, students would be grouped homogeneously, exercised to certain levels of strength, **flexibility**, and endurance, and drilled in fundamental skills and a selected number of more complex skills which could be used in activities performed during their adult life.

Nash's concept of curriculum also included a belief in the development of power and the learning of skills for later life. However, his emphasis, unlike McCloy's, was really not on skill per se, but on the activity as a whole. Nash stated that "the student is not taught about a skill; rather he is taught to do the activity." (Nash, 1948, p. 55) He did a study which showed that "over 85 per cent of the recreational interests could be traced to

below the age of twelve," (Nash, 1953, p. 187) and he urged that "future leisure-time needs should be a guide to curricular construction in our public school." (Nash, 1932, p. 125) "Sufficient opportunity for experience in a number of individual and dual sports is equally important at the secondary level. This is particularly true in the later senior high grades because of the recreational, coeducational and carry-over values." (Nash, 1928, p. 291)

Essential to a physical education program which was meant to insure effective participation throughout life was the child's interests or "felt needs":

> The real issue is neither that which the child needs nor that which he can do. Rather is it some felt need, some want "half-formed in the dawning of his consciousness" that is the basis of attitudes which, in turn, become the aU-determining factor. (Nash, 1928, p. 195)

The "felt needs" served both as motivators to learning and as guides to the kind of activities the child would later enjoy. Carrying this one step further, he said. "It becomes unnecessary to teach all children all of the traditional progression in the learning of motor skills, as many of these will have been acquired already because of a child's inherent interest in learning." (Nash, 1951, p. 204)

Nash did not share McCloy's enthusiasm for testing because:

> All types of testing encroach upon the too-limited time which is scheduled for activities. Few teachers at present have the educational background to conduct tests and to evaluate the results. To base conclusions about the whole physical education of an individual upon tests of one small aspect of physical efficiency is dangerous. (Nash, 1951, p. 181)

Throughout Nash's writings was an emphasis on the curricular relationship between physical education, recreation, and play. He envisioned a program largely determined by the child's interests or "felt needs," consisting of whole activities which would be suitable for carry-over into lifelong leisure-time participation.

Williams' suggestions for the physical education curriculum are centered in a rejection of formal gymnastic drills as being inimical to the fulfillment of the objectives of a democratic society, and in the endorsement of a program of natural activities. In this respect he was beating a dead horse since even his earlier works were written long after Thomas Wood and Clark Hetherington laid the ghosts of European gymnastics to rest. In general,

Williams advocated a wide variety of activities in sports, games, dance, camping, fundamental skills, equitation, and aquatics. However, his obsession that "the focus of the individual should be in society, and not in his muscles," (Williams, 1964, p. 363, boldface deleted) led him to recommend that "it is important to eliminate from the program all purely muscle-centered activities in favor of a program of functional activities." (Williams, 1964, p. 352) He also stressed choosing activities that contributed to the personality development of the participant. For example, "athletic sports and games furnish very desirable material because of the instinctive appeal in such plays and the opportunities they present for the development of moral and social values." (Williams, 1922, p. 61)

In the area of teaching methodology McCloy and Willams frequently seemed to be directly criticizing each other's viewpoint. Williams advocated the project method as most suitable for precisely the reason that McCloy came to reject it: because it was more suitable for developing individual character traits than for presenting subject matter. For instance, Williams favored an increase of discussion time, stating "the time is past when a physical education period is adjudged good or bad depending upon the amount of physical activity obtained during the period." (Williams, 1932, p. 81) While McCloy found the drill method the most efficient means of teaching, Williams countered that:

> **The notion that formal drill was a good "discipline" for youth is correct if regimented persons who implicitly obey the order of the State are desired. But in a democracy, where initiative, self-discipline, and ability to take charge of oneself are educational goals, then formal drill for the general development of the citizen is a mistake and a waste of time. (Willams, 1964, pp. 62-63)**

This paragraph was added in the last edition of *The Principles*, though even there he conceded that drill was a requisite for learning complex skills.

Like Nash, Williams was dubious about the use of testing. First, because "in the field of health, physical education, and recreation, there are a number of objectives.. .which do not lend themselves to the statistical approach" (Williams, 1964, p. 474), and, of course, this included the objectives in which he was most interested. Secondly, he noted that:

> **In the face of devoted efforts to secure measurable outcomes, such as speed in running or height in jumping, there is the tendency to neglect the social justifications for running and jumping.... Statistical averages or percentages may completely obscure standards of educational worth based on ideals. (Willams, 1942, p. 345)**

However, he was willing to support a limited use of tests, especially for purposes of classification.

Williams' conception of a physical education program was one in which activities were selected which could best be used as tools through which the child might learn the socially approved values of his society, and to adjust his individual personality and desires to the group welfare. The physical educator's responsibility was to teach for optimal fulfillment of these goals by means of discussions or other methods.

Part III

McCloy, Nash, and Williams, in delineating fully developed and integrated concepts of physical education, influenced and guided members of the profession in their attempts to implement programs in accordance with newly stabilized professional goals. In 1938, with the addition of the term "recreation," the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation assumed its present name. A year earlier the American Physical Education Association had become a department of the National Education Association and had added the term "health" to the title. Thus, by 1938 the major interests and objectives of the profession had symbolically been consolidated in the association's name and affiliation with the country's major educational organization. Though the origin of this state-of being harked back to the work of men like Thomas Wood and Clark Hetherington, the work of McCloy, Nash, and Williams was essential in spelling out professional direction. They detailed a concept of the role of physical education within education. They provided physical educators with clear, logical arguments, bolstered by evidence from contemporary intellectual thought, to support the validity of their beliefs about the objectives of physical education. Furthermore, they constructed explicit curriculums, methodologies, and evaluative techniques in relation to the emphases in their objectives.

But a problem was created because the ideas of these men, as I set them forth in the preceding pages, were in some ways diametrically opposed. This point is very crucial when considering programs in relation to the time allotment for physical education. Each man's primary objective demanded a total program commitment to achieve its fulfillment. Sixty to ninety minutes a week is hardly enough time to increase muscular strength, cardio-vascular endurance, and flexibility as well as develop high level skilled performance in some activities. Any athlete or coach will testify to the need for at least two hours of work a day to develop excellent skills and peak physical condition. Sixty to ninety minutes a week is hardly enough time to be introduced to a significant number of activities and to learn them well enough to provide a basis for carry-over into adult leisure-time. Every semi-serious golfer, tennis player, fisherman, skier, surfer, or bowler can testify to the need for prolonged and concentrated practice before a sport becomes

pleasurable enough to be considered recreation. Sixty to ninety minutes a week is hardly enough time to effect changes in attitudes, inculcate social values and standards, and learn to subjugate one's desires for the welfare of the group, all while performing physical activities. Any psychologist or social worker will testify to the need for continuous and intensive counseling before an individual is willing and able to make basic changes in his beliefs and personality. Yet, physical educators have believed that in the duration of their programs, each of these aims could simultaneously be accomplished.

Nash, Williams, and McCloy knew better. By developing a hierarchy of objectives, each focused on a single belief that, in the words of Ortega, was "fundamental, decisive, sustaining and breathing life into all the others." (Ortega y Gasset, 1962, p. 168) Pointing out that programs had to be developed in keeping with objectives, they each advocated different programs. McCloy would have had students exercising, drilling on fundamental skills; Nash would have had students learning individual or carry-over sports according to their individual interests; Williams would have had students primarily playing team games and having group discussions. For the objectives to have even a remote chance of accomplishment, a student's entire school career in physical education would have had to be along a single program line.

But physical educators adopted all three modes and believed they could effectively conduct all three types of program simultaneously. Although there were vague ideas advanced which suggested that in the lowest grades body development and fundamental skills should be the basis of curriculum, followed in the middle school years by games and team sports, and culminating in individual activities, in actual practice a Little of everything was done at almost every level. As the fifties drew to a close, generally even the colleges still required that each student take some courses in fundamental activities or body development, plus one team sport, one individual sport, and perhaps a class in dance or aquatics.

Admittedly, during the course of this time period there were subtle practical variations. During times of national stress, such as that occasioned by World War H, or the findings of Kraus-Weber which, according to their standards, suggested that American children were physically inferior to others around the world, the profession veered toward placing greater emphasis on physical development. In later years, with a push from commercial sporting interests, always present in abundance at conventions, and with sufficient national wealth to allow many school systems larger investments in facilities and equipment, greater emphasis was directed toward lifetime sports. But through all this the socializing objective was never diluted in intent.

It is my belief that physical educators attempted the analytically and existentially impossible task of achieving aU three aims in any single

program. As a result, physical education projected itself into the anomalous situation of holding classes in accord with McCloy's suggestions, of advocating the activities urged by Nash, and of committing itself to accomplishing the social goals delineated by Williams. McCloy, Nash, and Williams deliberately attempted to influence the direction of physical education in their time. It must be assumed that each hoped his "truth" would prevail. But an analysis of the period from 1930-1960 shows that what prevailed was an amalgamation of their three, somewhat incongruent theories.

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CHAPTER 25

PERSISTENT HISTORICAL PROBLEMS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT

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Editor's Note: As the last chapter (25), the Editor has included a paper prepared for presentation originally at the First International Seminar on the History of Physical Education and Sport at the Wingate Institute in Israel in 1968. It represents an approach which he has been developing and expanding over several decades - a persistent problems approach to the history, philosophy, and international aspects of physical education and sport. It may be helpful, because it does serve as a summarizing effort (as do the other two essays presented in Chapters 23 and 24).

Introduction!

The presence of serious-minded men and women at this First International Seminar on the History of Physical Education and Sport–professional people assembled from so many different countries in the world–attests to the significance of such a meeting as this seminar. Despite the fact that all of us considered it important to be here, it is probably true that there would be as many different interpretations of this field's function as there are delegates present here at the Wingate Institute in Israel. This should not concern us unduly, however, as there are undoubtedly some common denominators upon which we can agree (even if there is considerable concern by some as to what constitutes an acceptable name for what it is that we are.

Note: No apology will be offered for calling the field "physical, health, and recreation education (including sport)" at this moment. From one standpoint it could be explained that such a title reflects the philosophically progressivistic bias of the author. It does intimate that we are concerned with many aspects of *the* total education of man throughout life. If we grant the seemingly widely accepted unity of the human organism, then it follows that there is no such thing as physical education.

What are some of these common denominators in physical, health, and recreation education (including sport) ? One stands out more clearly than any other—the belief of the large majority that regular physical education

periods should be required for all school children through sixteen years of age (approximately). A second point of agreement is that a child should develop certain attitudes toward his own health in particular and toward community hygiene in general. Thus, certain basic health knowledge should be taught in the school curriculum. We can find agreement also on the worthy use of leisure.

Still further, professionals within the field would argue to a man that physical vigor is important. Beyond this we cannot go, however, since there would be no general agreement among the men, or between men and women, about what constitutes physical vigor or fitness. There are no world standards for physical fitness, only national norms in some cases which give us present status—nothing more.

Even the role of competitive sports for boys and girls is an area in which there is some agreement. We feel generally that boys and girls at some stage of their development should have an experience of this type. But we can find no general agreement at all beyond this rather meaningless statement; there is quite a difference between a ten-year old playing marbles competitively and a fifty-four year old man wrestling competitively at the national level.

The matter of remedial exercise for physical defects that can be corrected in this way offers us another opportunity for a bit of agreement, but we can't decide who should attend to this, or when or where. Lastly, we agree that the area of character and/or personality development is important, but substantive evidence as to the effect of physical education and sport on such development is relatively negligible. The time is long overdue when this field should be able to present to the public far greater agreement on what it is that physical educators accomplish for the education of youth! (Zeigler, 1964, pp. 287-88)

The Body of Knowledge Project

The world is on the threshold of an exciting, if also a highly frightening, time. But even though man may be looking both hopefully and fearfully ahead, there is an ever-present need to become increasingly aware of the past. It was to this point that Rene Maheu addressed himself in the foreword to the *History of Mankind,* the first global history of mankind, planned and written from an international standpoint by experts of world-wide reputation, and produced under the auspices of UNESCO:

At a time when man is preparing to launch out from this planet into space, it is well that History should hold him in contemplation of his trajectory through the ages. Never before, indeed, has he shown so searching a curiosity about his past or such jealous care to preserve its vestiges. . . Be that as it may, never more than now, when man finds himself hurtling at

vertiginous speed towards a wondrous future, has there been a great need for the function of memory to ensure for mankind the appropriation of its creative actuality. . . To evoke this retrospective awareness is the first thing that this work which we now have the honour of introducing to the public sets out to do; it is an attempt to sum up the heritage of civilization to which we owe our present elan. (Hawkes and Wooley, 1963, xi)

These statements about man "hurtling towards a wondrous future," "launching out from this planet into space," and yet "contemplating his trajectory through the ages" may well be applied to the situation of the field of physical education and sport at the present time. The effort to define the field as a discipline, so that a body of knowledge may be developed upon which the profession may practice and build its theory, may well assist man quite substantially to realize a "wondrous future" both on this planet and in space. Thus, the kinesiologists, exercise physiologists, psychologists, and sociologists within our field, for example, should be able to help us discover how man moves, and what happens to him when he moves. But it will be largely up to those interested in the historical, philosophical, and comparative aspects of physical education and sport to assist the profession to "contemplate the trajectory" of physical education, sport, human movement, kinesiology, or human motor performance through the ages. Some of you may be unwilling to accept responsibility for the inclusion of history, philosophy, and comparative (or international) education as applied to physical education and sport within your sphere of operation as a professional person. Naturally, this must be your own choice. The point beind made, however, is that it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to consider history, or philosophy, or comparative education without automatically encountering knowledge from one or both of the other two disciplines.

***A Need to Specialize*. This dilemma should not frighten professional physical educators who by necessity have been perennial "jacks of all trades" from the very beginning. It does not mean that quasi-historians, for example, are going to be forced to master the disciplines of philosophy and comparative education as well. It does mean, however, that a sport and physical education historian will need to maintain a continual awareness about what is taking place in the other two fields—and especially in regard to the points where the disciplines may impinge on one another.**

At the same time there is a great need for vastly increased specialization within history, or philosophy, or comparative and international education as applied to this field. If it is maintained that physical education and sport represent an important phase of man's culture, it is absolutely imperative that competent historians record faithfully and analyze carefully what has transpired in this area. As Woody has stated, those who have written about education and history seem to have slighted "physical culture" through bias:

> **Despite the fact that lip-service has been paid increasingly to the dictum 'a sound mind in a sound body, * even since western Europe began to revive *the* educational concepts of the Graeco-Roman world, there is still a lack of balance between physical and mental culture, both in school programs and among those who write of education. This is evident in many quarters, even where a certain universality of outlook ought to reign. Turn where one will, it is impossible to find physical culture adequately presented in books dealing with the general history of education. Written in keeping with a dominant rational ism, these books have been concerned chiefly with intellectual movements and institutions for mental improvement. (Woody, 1949, vii)**

If this assessment is even reasonably substantially true, the field of physical education truly has its work cutout for it.

And lest the occurrence of this First International Seminar should tend to make those present even the least little bit self-satisfied about progress in this direction, several perhaps embarrassing questions should be asked: (1) What percentage of those present at this Seminar spend even one-quarter (25%) of their working time each week adding to the body of knowledge about the history of physical education and sport?; and (2) How many others throughout the world, not present here, could answer this question affirmatively? Still fur-there, are educational historians now assisting physical education and sport historians—consciously or unconsciously? Or for that matter, what help is coming from historians? And beyond this, can the field continue to rely on those laymen, perhaps sportsmen of one type or another, who have an inclination to write sports history of varying quality?

The Cause Is Not Yet Lost. **That there should be serious concern about the present need for a greater amount of historical investigation in this area is self-evident, and this concern grows somewhat greater when it is understood that there doesn't appear to be anywhere nearly foil awareness of the need. There can be encouragement, nevertheless, from the knowledge that "as late as 1880 there were only eleven professors of history in American colleges," and as Muller also pointed out that:**

> **Our age is nevertheless more historically minded that any previous age, and has a much longer, wider, clearer view of the past. Its contribution to historical knowledge over the last hundred years, are among its most honorable achievements. (Muller, 1952, pp. 33-34)**

Persistent Historical Problems in Physical Education

More careful description and delineation of some of the persistent

historical problems of physical education and sport is perhaps the most important professional goal of this author. He would like to be able to say that the idea for this approach came to him in a brilliant flash of insight while standing on a high mountain top, but, alas, the derivation of the idea occurred in a much more prosaic manner. Although it is true that many of the ideas for the specific problems listed below did originate with him and some of his colleagues and graduate students, and that some adaptations have been made, the credit for this unique approach in educational history and philosophy must go to John S. Brubacher, long-time professor of the history and philosophy of education at Yale, and more recently at The University of Michigan in Higher Education. Thus, it is the adaptation of the approach, the selection of certain of the persistent problems, and the delineation of the implications for this specialized field that may possibly be considered as new contributions.

> **Note: For further information the reader is referred to the following books: J. S. Brubacher, *A History of the Problems of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966; and E. F. Zeigler, *Persistent Problems in the History and Philosophy of Physical Education and Sport*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968.**

Such an approach as this does not really represent a radically different approach to history. The typical major processes are involved in applying historical method to investigation in the field:

(1) the data are collected from primary and secondary sources;

(2) the collected data are criticized; and

(3) an integrated narrative is presented which is based on critical inquiry for the entire truth.

This approach does differ markedly, however, when the organization of the collected data is considered: it is based completely on the problem areas of the present and an effort to illuminate them for the student of physical education and sport. Thus, a conscious effort is made to keep the reader from thinking that the subject is of antiquarian interest only. The student moves back and forth from early times to the present as different aspects of the subject are considered, say, in the chapters of a book–a "longitudinal" approach as opposed to a strictly chronological one. These persistent problems, then, are ones that recur again and again down through the ages, and they will in all probability continue to occur in the future. A problem used in this sense (from its Greek derivation) would be "something thrown forward" for man to understand or resolve. The following are persistent historical problems of physical, health, and recreation education (including sport) as seen by the author and his associates at the present time:

1. Values (Aims and Objectives) - throughout history there have been innumerable statements of educational aims, and almost invariably there was a direct relationship with a hierarchy of educational values present in the society under consideration. In general educational philosophy, values have been either subjective or objective (i.e., do values exist in the world whether man happens to be present to realize them or not?). Physical education and sport has been viewed as curricular, co-curricular, or extra-curricular.

2. The Influence of Politics - the kind and amount of education has varied throughout history depending upon whether a particular country was a monarchy, an aristocratic oligarchy, or a type of democracy. Experimentalism (pragmatic naturalism) in education, and this applies to physical, health, and recreation education as well, can flourish only in a type of democratic society. Educational essentialism, and this includes its implications for physical education and sport, may be promoted successfully in all three types of society.

3. The Influence of Nationalism - the influence of nationalism on this field throughout history is obvious. If a strong state is desired, the need for a strong, healthy people is paramount. There have been many examples of this type of influence as far back as the Medes and the Spartans, and as recently as some twentieth century European and Asian powers. In a democratic society, however, it is extremely difficult for a government in power to promote nationalism except by indirect and less effective means. During wartime, for example, the basic educational objectives are threatened when the government of a democracy attempts to dictate that physical education and sport be employed to promote physical fitness and national loyalty.

4. The Influence of Economics - in past times education has prospered when there was a surplus economy and declined when the economic structure weakened. Furthermore, educational aims have tended to vary depending on how people made their money and created such surplus economies. One of the problems of advancing industrial civilization has been the uneven distribution of wealth bringing educational advantages of a superior quality to some. Education "of the physical" can be promoted under any economic system. In largely agrarian societies, much physical fitness can be gained through manual labor, whereas in industrial societies some means has to be developed whereby all will maintain a minimum level of physical fitness. The more individual freedom is encouraged in a society, the more difficult a government will find it to demand that all citizens be physically fit.

5. The Influence of Religion - the church has had a strong influence on education throughout history, but there is evidence that the power of the church over the individual is continuing to decline in the twentieth century.

The Christian religion can be recognized for the promulgation of principles in which man was considered valuable as an individual. A society must decide to what extent it can, or should, inculcate moral and/or religious values in the public schools. In keeping with a trend toward separation of church and state, the question remains whether the church has the flexibility to become that unique social institution needed to effect necessary changes in the social environment. Physical, health, and recreation education (including sport) have not been supported significantly by religious organizations in the past. In fact, with the promotion of a mind-body dualism, the opposite has often been the case. Fortunately, this attitude seems to be changing to a degree.

6. The Healthy Body - a study of past civilizations indicates that the states of war or peace, as social influences, have had a direct bearing on the emphases placed on personal and/or community health. Freedom from disqualifying defects, strength, and endurance are important to men who want to win wars. When a particular war has ended, a society may then be able again to focus greater attention toward a more healthful environment at home. It is profoundly disturbing that so many people in the world are not able to profit from the outstanding progress that has been made in public health science. There is still disagreement as to a definition of health and as to the place of health instruction in the school curriculum. Which agency, the home, school, or community agency, should play the greatest role in this area ?

7. The Use of Leisure - this persistent problem has a relationship to the influence of economics on a society - both education and recreation prospered in times past when there was a surplus economy. In most of the world's twenty-one civilizations the average man has had to work very hard to earn a meager living. Certain classes, rulers, priests, and nobles, were the first to enjoy anything like extended leisure. Even in the Middle Ages life still held many inequalities for the masses, although recreation did begin to take on a broader significance. Wars, the fact that times change slowly, and the power of the Church prevented the concepts of political democracy and socialism from taking hold. Then, too, the natural sciences had to be advanced enough so that advanced technology could lead men into an industrial revolution, which has lowered man's working hours so markedly. Now we hear about cybernation and automation, and education for leisure would seem to warrant serious consideration. The extent to which such preparation is included in the school's curriculum depends quite largely on prevailing educational philosophy.

8. Amateurism, Semi-professionalism, and Professionalism in Sport - the motivation behind participation in games and sports through the ages has been so complex that there is really no general agreement on the matter. Man has taken part for fun, for recreation, for self-expression, for health, for exercise, for competition, for money, and probably for other reasons not

readily discernible. There was even an early relationship of sport to religious observances. Even in the earlier days the aspect of over-specialization because of the desire to win (and perhaps the material rewards) has tended to "tarnish the luster" of the amateur ideal. There are so many different definitions of an amateur extant in the world today that it is impossible to keep up with them. It may well be that we will have to re-evaluate some of our treasured, basic assumptions about the amateur code in sport, which views the matter on the basis of polarities. There is need for a semi-professional category in which the athlete will not be viewed as something "dirty and degraded. " There is a need further for professional sportsmen who will be taught to devote his life to a social ideal—to serve his fellow man through his contributions to the many phases of a sport's development. Under the right auspices all types of sport can hold value for the individual. Sport can be a "socially useful servant."

9. The Role of Administration - Social organizations, of one type or another, are inextricably related to man's history as a human and social animal. Superior-subordinate relationships evolved according to the very nature of things, as man produced goods, fought wars, organized his society politically, formed his churches, and developed a great variety of formal and informal associations. A central theme seems to have been that of change—change that was made to strengthen the organization administratively. It was only recently that "administrative thought emerged as a differentiated field of sustained writing, conscious observation, abstract theory, and specialized terminology." (Gross, 1964, p. 91) Education has become a vast public and private enterprise demanding wise management based upon sound administrative theory. The "organizational revolution" has meant that educational administrators have been forced to create a greater amount of bureaucracy. Educational essentialists tend to believe that there are valid theoretical principles of administration that should not be violated. Educational progressivists, conversely, tend to view administration as a developing social science—a science that is gradually providing man with a body of knowledge about human relations and the decision-making process. Administrators of physical education and sport organizations need to understand this development thoroughly.

10. Professional Preparation - the idea of professions (with accompanying preparation for this type of service) has its origins in antiquity in the very early societies. Professional preparation of teachers to any considerable extent is a fairly recent innovation. In early times the most important qualification for the position of teacher was a sound knowledge of the subject. In the Middle Ages there was no such thing as professional education to be a teacher, at least in the sense that certification is needed today to teach in the publicly-supported institutions at certain levels in particular countries. It was in Prussia where the most headway was made in improving teacher education in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. This system was copied extensively elsewhere. Significant

advances in the theory of pedagogy occurred through the influence of Pestalozzi. In America, for example, the normal school became a well-established part of the educational system. In the twentieth century this organization has progressed to college and/or university status. Professional education eventually achieved status at the university level, but it is required for public school teachers only—not at the college or university level. Generally speaking throughout the world, professional preparation for physical education is included at the normal and/or technical school level. University recognition has been achieved at some institutions in England, Japan, and the United States, for example, but there is much progress to be made.

11. Methods of Instruction - The educational curriculum has been influenced strongly by a variety of political, economic, philosophical, religious, and scientific factors. In curriculum construction, therefore, a primary task is to determine which subjects should be included because of the recurring interest that has been shown among educators and laymen for their inclusion at some educational level. Primitive and pre-literate man undoubtedly learned through imitation and through trial and error. When writing was invented in the early civilizations, memorization played a large part in the educational process. Tradition and custom were highly regarded, and the importance of precept and proper example were significant aspects of both physical and mental culture. In the Near East Jesus was evidently a very fine teacher, but Christian religious leaders who followed him presumably employed less exciting teaching methods with an emphasis on formality and dogmatism. Toward *the* end of the Middle Ages, educational methodology is said to have improved considerably. With the onset of the Renaissance, there was greater recognition of individual differences, and the whole spirit of this period was much more humanistic. Physical educators need to understand that the concept of a mind-body dualism has prevailed in many quarters down to the present day. A physical educator should determine for himself what influence that content has on method; do they go hand in hand ? Shall physical education and sport (or whatever part of it is included in the curriculum) be taught formally, semi-formally, or informally. The persistent problem remains: how can the student be motivated so that learning will occur most easily, and so that it will be remembered?

12. Physical Education and Recreation for Women - throughout history women's physical education has been hampered not only by the concept of the place of physical education in a particular society, but also by the place that women themselves held in most societies—and by the ideas that men and women have had about the limitations of women because of their anatomical structure and their role in the reproductive process of the human race. Aristotle, for example, felt that they were generally speaking weaker, less courageous, and incomplete, and that they had been fitted by nature for subjection to the male. Plato held a different view; he believed that women should have aU types of education similar to the pattern he prescribed for

men (including the highest type of liberal education, and even preparation for warfare). Throughout history, with notable exceptions in the cases of Crete, Sparta, later Rome, and certain individual instances, practically all women were considered inferior. In the twentieth century, certainly one of the significant social trends has been woman's "emancipation." Many women are now conceived of as having as intellectual function depending in many cases upon her individual qualifications. More democratic theories of state have fostered equalitarianism. Many people feel that men's physical education and women's programs should more nearly approximate each other. The norm projected by society for women tends to be retrogressive; and it has been modified by what many consider to be unfortunate societal influences. For example, most women are quite concerned about the their appearance, but it is often maintained by artificial devices, and they are rarely physically fit. If our total field has advantages to offer to women, educators should see to it that they receive these opportunities.

13. Dance in Physical Education and Recreation - in all ages people have danced for personal pleasure, for religious purposes, for expression of the gamut of emotions, and for the pleasure of others. An analysis of the dance forms of a civilization can tell a qualified observer much about the total life therein. In primitive societies types of rhythmic expressions were "instinctive satisfiers" of man. Dance was most often serious in nature and only incidentally served physical fitness, health, and recreation. It served a purpose in Roman civilization, but its status was below that given it by the Greeks. During the Middle Ages dance had very low status probably due to its corruption in the later Roman era. The place of dance began to rise again during the Renaissance; different types and forms have waxed and waned over the centuries. The twentieth century has witnessed a truly remarkable development in the dance, as the body is gradually being rediscovered as a means of communication through the dance medium. There is still much room for progress. For example, a significant body of research knowledge is lacking. Still further, an improvement of the interaction between the dance teacher and the professional performer would add further strength to the development. Articulation within the dance curriculum among the various educational levels is needed. On the North American continent modern dance especially seems unacceptable to the majority of male physical education teachers (and hence to the boys and young men in their classes as well). As both an art and as a social function, dance will probably always be with us and will reflect the dominant influences of the age in which it is taking place.

14. The Concept of Progress - any study of history inevitably forces a person to conjecture about man's progress. Certainly there has been progression, but can this be called "progress ?" To ascertain if change may be called progress, it is necessary to measure whether advancement has been made from worse to better. For example), a criterion must be recommended by which progress may be judged. It is true that man has

made progress in adaptability and can cope with a variety of environments. It is safe to assume that man on the whole is the pinnacle of evolutionary progress on this earth. Throughout the course of history until the Golden Age of Greece, a good education had been based on the transmission of the cultural heritage. During the Roman Empire and the Middle Ages such an educational pattern continued, despite the fact that from time to time certain educational theorists offered proposals of greater or lesser radical quality. Thus, when a society declined, those involved in the educational system had relatively few useful ideas about social rejuvenation. Despite the forces of the Renaissance and accompanying humanism, followed by the gradual introduction of science into the curriculum, *the* same traditional educational pattern kept the school from becoming an agent of social reconstructionism. In physical education and sport, it is vitally important to search for consensus among the conflicting philosophies of physical, health, and recreation education (including sport). The field had been proceeding "amoeba-like" far too long considering the body-of-knowledge that is amassing. Fortunately, there is more agreement in practice than in theory.

Conclusion

And so this discussion has proceeded foil circle through brief summaries of some fourteen persistent historical problems back to the common denominators that were presented at the outset of this paper. Having stated these common denominators, it would appear that the time is long overdue when the field should be able to present fairly concrete evidence of far greater agreement to the public in relation to what it is that we do. The goal should be the discovery of what contributions physical education and sport can make to the development of man. Then, based upon its system of values, a particular society will accept or reject this evidence and promote that type of a program which the people will support. Based upon the scientific evidence from the discipline, and the enlightened support of intelligent laymen, the professional's task is to administer the program of physical education and sport so that maximum benefits will accrue to the greatest number of people possible. This task belongs to us alone.

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EPILOGUE

THE IDEA OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN MODERN TIMES

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Editor's Note: Finally, in the Epilogue the reader will discover an essay largely philosophical in nature, but one that concludes with an historical allegory explaining the "basic nature" of sport, dance, exercise, and play over the centuries. In conclusion, the editor reiterate how truly thankful he is to so many of his professional colleagues who have made this volume possible. This is one of the first books of its type in the field of physical education and sport, and it probably would not have been possible to produce it before this decade. To the younger authors included in this book, and to those who are standing in the wings as future physical education and sport historians, keep up the good work. All of us are proud of recent developments, but we know that by working together *and* individually we can do ever so much better.

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Introduction

To express the "idea of physical education in modern times" is an exciting assignment, but one that seemed much simpler when first considered. In *the* first place, it would be ridiculous to define the term in such a way that it might not apply for the entire world. Obviously, physical education "means many things to many people," and it may well be said that we are presenting a "blurred image to a bewildered public."

Thinking about this particular topic–the idea of physical education in modern times–"idea" will be taken to mean "the conception of or "the nature of." "physical education" will be accepted as a program which is offered by certain departments in schools and colleges throughout the world, as well as the activity carried on both formally and informally by parents, community leaders, and an individual himself. It can and does include health education, physical education, recreation, safety education, dance, sport and competitive athletics, and other types of activities. AU of this leads one to think that perhaps "physical education" has become a highly unsatisfactory name - everything considered. And lastly, considering this paper's topic, "modern times," which may have begun about 1500 A.D.

(McNeill, 1963, xii), will be defined as the twentieth century for the purposes of this presentation.

One last introductory statement should probably be made. With a topic like this it is difficult to determine where history leaves off and philosophy begins. Although the writer has a sincere interest in both aspects of the field, his preference is to place greater emphasis on the philosophical aspects of the topic. This will be done in the first half of this paper, but a historical summary in the form of an allegory will be included at the end. The assumption is that the major points to be emphasized will be made more forcefully that way.

Philosophical Analysis

The philosopher approaches his task typically in at least one of three ways: (1) speculatively, (2) normatively, or (3) analytically (Frankena, Philosophy of Education, 1965, p. 10). He may speculate about what we know and believe about the universe and our own sphere of human affairs within this framework. He may approach these questions normatively and evolve a systematic and coherent plan whereby a human may live. Lastly, and it should be stressed that there are a number of different methods and techniques within each of these three approaches, he may seek to analyze other philosophical approaches critically and to make comparisons. In this latter approach he will probably attempt to clarify concepts and to present evidence that seems to bear out one philosophical position or another. Finally, he may go so far with critical analysis that he will decide that language analysis and a type of semantics should be his primary task (Zeigler and VanderZwaag, 1966, p. 78).

Five Meanings of Physical Education

No matter which of the three approaches is employed primarily by a philosopher of physical education and sport, he should at least recognize the ambiguity of the term "physical education," and the fact that it may mean any one of five things:

(1) the activity of physically educating carried on by teachers, schools, and parents (or by oneself),

(2) the process of being physically educated (or learning) which goes on in the pupil or child (or person of any age),

(3) the result, actual or Intended, of (1) and (2),

(4) the discipline or field of enquiry that studies or reflects on (1), (2), and (3) and is taught in departments, schools, and colleges of physical education,

(5) the profession whose members practice (1) above, try to observe (2) taking place, attempt to measure and/or evaluate whether (3) has occurred, and base their professional practice on the body-of-knowledge developed by those undertaking scholarly and research effort in the discipline (4). (Adapted from Frankena, *Three Historical Philosophies of Education*, 1965, p. 6, with some modifications).

Thus, without even considering "the idea of physical education" in relation to its objectives, the professional physical educator can readily see how important it is that he communicate more effectively with his fellow professionals to the greatest extent possible. Where this problem in language leaves the layman trying to understand what the field is all about is immediately obvious.

A Plethora of Objectives

That this field, whatever it is called by anyone, has had a plethora of objectives espoused by its leaders must be considered one of the "understatements of the year." Because of the field's "defensive posture" occasioned by many attacks against its gradual "intrusion" into the curriculum, leaders in physical education have claimed that an adequate physical education can cure everything from "soiled characters to chilblains. " Notable among these leaders who have defined certain objectives, starting in the early 1920s, have been Hetherington (1922), Bowen and Mitchell (1923), Wood and Cassidy (1927), Williams (1927), Hughes (with Williams in 1930), Nash (1931), Sharman (1937), Wayman (1938), Esslinger (1938), Staley (1939), McCloy (1940), Clark (1943), Cobb (1943), Lynn (1944), and Brownell and Hagman,; Scott; Bucher; and Oberteuffer (all in 1951). There have been many other statements since that time, but 1951, the mid-century seems like a good year to stop.

One could categorize and then enumerate the various objectives proposed for the field, and the list would be really impressive. Fortunately, for this present paper, Hess assessed these objectives of American physical education from 1900 to 1957 in the light of certain historical events. The major objectives in the sequence in which they appeared (according to Hess, 1959) were:

(1) the hygiene or health objectives (1900-1919);

(2) the socio-educational objectives, including worthy use of leisure (1920-1928);

(3) the objectives of physical fitness and health (1939-1945);

(4) the objectives were broadened to include the ideals of international

understanding and the improvement of human relations, including an emphasis on coeducational activities (1950-1957); and,

(5) the broadened educational and social objectives, encompassing the social, health, physical, emotional, and mental aspects of total fitness (1950-1957).

The Need for Consensus

It seems quite obvious that the profession should take positive steps to plan and then work for consensus among the conflicting philosophies of physical education extant in the Western world. This is especially true, because our field now seems to be redoubling its efforts to relate to other countries in all parts of the world. One might well ask about the wisdom of attempting to export the present "mass confusion" on the matter of objectives. Not many people will be fooled for very long with such an approach. Delineation of one's own personal philosophy on the part of each physical educator will help, but the employment of optimum methods for the achievement of greater agreement with our colleagues at home and abroad must be carried out for the best possible outcome. Still further, the East and the West should meet—and just as soon as possible. (Burtt, pp. 272–273)

The Need for Verification of Objectives

Most recently, physical educators have realized the need for the development of a "body-of-knowledge" through a greatly expanded program of scholarly and research endeavor in a variety of sub disciplines (Zeigler and McCristal, 1967). Some of our scientists had realized this earlier, especially in the physiological area and certain aspects of psychology. But now relationships are gradually being strengthened with such disciplines and sub-disciplines as anatomy, sociology, history, philosophy, comparative and international education, anthropology, and administrative theory (within the behavioral sciences and educational administration) as well (Zeigler, 1967).

As the "body-of-knowledge" increases, and inventories of scientific findings from the various sub-disciplines to which the field is relating improve in both quantity and quality, it will become increasingly possible to verify whether a planned program of physical education does actually result in the achievement of the many objectives which have been stated. Maybe then the field will be able to achieve consensus on certain "common denominators" in the "education of an amphibian" (Huxley, 1964) or a "naked ape" (Morris, 1967). What seems to be really important in regard to the classification of a "relatively hairless ape," in addition to the obviously still prevailing legacy from ancestors, is that man has now become "almost non-apelike" and that there remains ample opportunity for all sorts of

differential development in the eons which lie ahead. (Simpson, 1968) Physical education has a significant role to play in this development, no matter what the field decides to call itself. The following allegory will perhaps explain the "basic nature" of physical education from both a historical and philosophical standpoint.

The Basic Nature of Physical Education (An Allegory)

Blank, sometimes designated as _____, but who really should be called tnemevom (which is quite difficult to pronounce), has had both a glorious and a shameful existence. He is a part of the very nature of the universe, a fact which is incontrovertible. He is involved with both the animate and inanimate aspects of the cosmos. His is a basic part of the fundamental pattern of firing of every creature of any type that has ever lived on earth. Early man knew he was important, but he was often not appreciated until he was gone, or almost gone. Civilized man used him extensively in the early societies, as did the Greeks and the Romans and aU others. Some used him vigorously, but others used him carefully and methodically. He was used gracefully by some, ecstatically by others, rigorously by many when the need was urgent, and regularly by most who wanted to get the job done. He was called many things in various tongues. But strangely enough, he was never folly understood.

The time came when he was considered less important in life, although people still admired him on innumerable occasions. Some seemed to understand him instinctively, while others had great difficulty in employing him well. He was eventually degraded to such an extent that well-educated people often did not think that he had an important place in their background and preparation for life. Many gave lip service to the need for him, but then would not give him his due. Others appreciated his worth, but felt that he was less important than many aspects of education. But he persisted despite the onset of an advanced technological age. Some called his calisthenics. Others called him physical training. A determined group called him gymnastics. A few called him physical culture, but they turned out to be men of "ill repute." Others felt that he had been neglected in the preparation of man for life; so, they did him a favor and called him *physical education*.

***The Aftermath of a New Name*. He prospered to a considerable degree with this name, although it caused him considerable embarrassment because it classified him as a second-class citizen. But he struggled on. Then a strange thing happened. As a result of this modicum of prosperity, he developed offshoots. (Two of these offshoots - his brothers - had, of course, been with him for thousands of years. They were known as dance and athletics.) These were two new offshoots. One soon became known as recreation, and the other was called health and safety education. Our hero helped to develop them quite a bit and, of course, they in their gratitude helped him, too (while maintaining the dependency of youth).**

Then one day after some great wars and other strong social for forces had their influence on society, physical education, who was still a second-class citizen among educators, discovered that his offshoots (recreation and health and safety education) had grown large and important in the world. They were anxious to become first-class citizens, and they made loud noises on occasion to inform all men that they deserved priority in life—and men, at least a goodly portion of them at any rate, recognized that they were right. But times change slowly, and the education of men was not yet greatly affected by this recognition.

During roughly the same period of time, two other phenomena occurred which held great import for physical education. His brothers, athletics and dance, had been performing so well that they had over a period of time grown strong and powerful as well. Athletics (or sport, as it seems to be called on continents other than North America) looked at him and said, "What a dull clod art thou!" What athletics meant was that physical education, or blank, or _____, or tnemevom (which is quite difficult to pronounce) wasn't very exciting, as he usually involved repetitive exercises and endurance activities which promoted muscular strength, flexibility and cardiovascular efficiency. Sadly enough, dance (his other brother) seemed to feel the same way. He realized that he had a responsibility to teach young people about himself in schools, but it was so much more thrilling to perform for the cognoscenti, and even the multitudes. Thus, he proclaimed that he was an art, and he wanted to join his brother arts in performing centers which were springing up in communities and on college and university campuses.

***The Unhappy Plight of Physical Education*. Physical education, or blank, or , or tnemevom felt very sad, and he became worried. He looked back at his long heritage, and he recounted to himself the tale that has just been told to you. He felt important— at least to himself. He figured that he had been misjudged, since his motives were pure. He wondered if he had been stupid, because people still needed him (hadn't a great president been shocked by his absence ?), but his very name—physical education (both words thereof, in fact)—made many seemingly intelligent people's lips curl. Thinking about the proverbial rose, he wondered if he would "smell as badly" with another name. After all, the U. S. Tire and Rubber Company was now known as Uniroyal, and people didn't look down on it. What should he do?**

***Time for Reflection*. And then he began to think deeply, as deeply as he, a second-class citizen, could think. His identical twin sister, that lowly female creature who was really part of him (but who often made different noises as she went her own way), had been telling him for some time that he couldn't see the forest for the trees. She said, "Physical education; blank; sometimes designated as _____; but who should really be called tnemevom (which is quite difficult to pronounce), we have really been fools, and we merit our plight. We have been so stupid that we haven't been able to spell what we**

really should have been called—tnemevom it is, to be sure, but we have had it completely reversed!

Crestfallen, but with a rising sense of elation, tnemevom came to life all at once. He saw the light as explained to him by his identical twin sister. He took a deep breath, tensed his muscles, and executed a back somersault with a half twist. He assumed new dignity almost immediately, as he realized that he now had a new name (that was quite simple to pronounce), and it was MOVEMENT! From that day forward, he vowed that he would carry out his function more purposefully than ever before. He recognized that he could still relate effectively to his brothers and/or offshoots, as well as to his own identical twin sister (the person known formerly as a woman physical educator). But, more importantly, he realized that there was more to him than push-ups and jogging, as truly important as these parts of him might be. He sensed that he had physiological aspects, anatomical aspects, historical aspects, philosophical aspects, sociological aspects, psychological aspects, and so many other aspects that he couldn't count them on the fingers of his two hands.

The Hard Road Ahead

This was an important realization for MOVEMENT (formerly spelled tnemevom), but he didn't rush off blindly to proclaim his glory to the world. He had learned his lesson. This time he would spell his name correctly, and he would rest his case for recognition on a sound scientific base. He defined himself to the best of Ms ability and decided that "the interaction of man and his movements" (Paddick, 1967, p. 70) described his function quite well. Thus, a disciplinary body-of-knowledge could conceivably come from the "human movement sciences" (Kenyon, 1968, p. 16), or perhaps the human movement arts and sciences. Having reasoned so deeply, our hero looked around for his twin sister (that lovely female creature who was really part of him, but who was fidgeting rather impatiently at the moment) and said, "It's a hard road that lies ahead, and we may be unfit for the task. But if it is to be traversed, we must do it together. If we deserve to reach the goal we have dreamed of, we may get there some day. But let's not debate the issue to long, since the sun is already quite high in the sky."

APPENDIX

THE HISTORICAL ROLE OF SPORT IN SELECTED SOCIETIES: AN APPROACH TO DESCRIPTION, EXPLANATION, AND EVALUATION

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Introduction

The description, explanation, and evaluation of the historical role of sport in selected societies could readily consume a lifetime of endeavor for a considerable number of qualified scholars. It is for this reason that the writer wishes to quickly dispel any thought that he may be unwarrantedly pre sumptuous in implying that this preliminary paper will be definitive in regard to findings and conclusions. Its aim is to show some progress, and also to alert fellow historians about some possible opportunities for enlightenment through cooperation with scholars in related disciplines - and, of course, through the employment of some of their research techniques and/or findings.

This paper is, therefore, a follow-up of a proposal made at the International Relations Meeting of the National College Physical Education Association for Men Meeting at Portland, Oregon, December 28, 1970. The plan was for the establishment of a long-term comparative analysis of educational values in selected countries with their implications for sport and physical education. 31 The basic assumption is that the need is most urgent to make our earth sort of a "global village" in which the level of personal communication among people of all countries will be increased tremendously. The achievement of such status would be more than a mere "opportunity to promote international relations and goodwill"; it would, rather, be mandatory if civilization as we know it is to survive. As Asimov has predicted, mankind is fast reaching the point where "signs of breakdown are everywhere, for the problems introduced by our contemporary level of technology seem insuperable." His dire prediction is that we are as a result faced with a race "between the coming of the true fourth revolution [in man's ability to communicate with his fellow man everywhere!] and the death of civilization that will inevitably occur through growth past the limits of the third." The message here is simply that all men on earth must learn to communicate more efficiently and effectively very soon!^

Why, therefore, should anyone be concerned with the historical role of sport in society? The answer would appear to be obvious and straightforward - "history is actually a bridge connecting the past with with the present, and pointing - the road to the future." History, thus conceived, is "a lantern carried by the side of man, moving forward with every step taken. . ."24 And we simply cannot forget the importance of the rays from the lantern that shine to the rear, to our side, and on the road ahead!

How may such a comparative analysis and interpretation of the historical role of sport in society be made in the best possible way ? What knowledge is needed before any assessment can be made even tentatively? The remainder of this paper will consist of certain steps recommended by one fallible person who has been working at the subject. It will soon be obvious that much assistance and collaboration is indicated. To approach the task at hand, the following topics will be considered:

(1) **the disciplines through which men have gained knowledge about the individual and group values held by past societies;**

(2) **the research methods and techniques available for investigation, and which have special relevance for this problem;**

(3) **the chronology of civilizations considered in this delimited paper;**

(4) **the discipline of history, and the persistent problems approach adopted by this investigator;**

(5) **the discipline of sociology, and the relevance of one broad theory to historical investigation;**

(6) **the discipline of anthropology, and how some of the theories of cultural anthropology shed light on the topic at hand;**

(7) **the discipline of psychology, and how social psychology may explain how man has made certain emotional and social adaptation to his environment through sport and physical activity;**

(8) **the discipline of philosophy, and how a type of language analysis may assist with the understanding of the meaning of sport terms both in the past and present;**

(9) **the theories of sport and play propounded by scholars from a variety of disciplines;**

(10) a persistent historical problems approach based on the analysis of the social institutions of a society and the influence of values and norms on education, including sport and physical education; and (11) and a brief summary including some tentative findings and conclusions based on the relatively limited perspective of this preliminary analysis and interpretation.

Related Disciplines

Men have employed a variety of psychological or learning processes to gain knowledge about the present and the past, notably (1) thinking (rationalism), (2) feeling (intuitionism), (3) sensing (empiricism), and (4) believing (authoritarianism).(28) As the discipline has become more scientific, and has, therefore, placed increased emphasis on research techniques involving a more empirical approach, there has been a marked tendency to turn to a variety of related disciplines for assistance. The late Allan Nevins, writing in 1968, reaffirmed the idea that the discipline of history was employing "many powerful new forces . . . and few men understand half of them."(25) He was referring to such aspects as new studies from archeology; advancements in epigraphy; development of the carbon-dating process; comparative ancient literature, etc. (25) with the present topic, however, the need is to turn to those disciplines through which men have gained knowledge about the individual and group values held by past societies. Thus, in addition to history, brief reference will be made to direction and knowledge that may be gained from sociology, cultural anthropology, social psychology, and philosophy.

Research Methods and Techniques

There have been many types of historical investigation embodying both critical and constructive intellectual processes. Basically, the historian is confronted initially with a mass of data which he must organize, analyze, interpret, evaluate, and synthesize in such a way that his efforts enable him to write history that reflects man's past as accurately as possible. As Kahler tells us, "there is no history without meaning. "(16) And if the meaning is "teased out" of the data, there is no doubt but that the question of values will arise.

Historians are now confronted with a need to understand the research methods and techniques of the related disciplines described above. The other two broad methods are typically designated as descriptive and experimental group method, each offering a multitude of techniques and variations for the eager researcher to employ in his effort to investigate his problem in the most adequate fashion. "Philosophical method" has often been considered a fourth broad method of research, but it is difficult to claim that much of the earlier philosophical endeavor produced new knowledge in

a scientific sense; yet much of present philosophical investigation is highly scientific in nature and approach. This brings the discussion full circle back to the employment of descriptive techniques, mathematical logic, or experimental investigations in which a control group is employed.(11)

History–Chronology of Selected Societies

It is to history that the investigator turns for the main subdivisions of this preliminary analysis. The analysis and interpretation will be limited to: (1) Primitive and Early Societies; (2) Greece and Rome; (3) The Middle Ages; (4) The Enlightenment and Nineteenth Century Europe; and (5) North America.(32) It is granted immediately that such a presentation is definitely provincial (Western world) when it arrives at the modern period especially. This deficiency must be remedied just as soon as possible by the combined efforts of many of us, and there is no doubt but that this will be done soon. As we work together for further understanding, the maxim - "neither a borrower nor a lender be" - most certainly should not apply to the matter at hand.

It is literally frightening today if one reflects deeply in the area of historical interpretation, and the investigator must keep in mind further that historical theories of interpretation are almost inescapably attached to the needs that people have and the values that they hold at the time that the history of any era is being written. 3? For example, the writer does not subscribe to the cyclical rise and fall of civilizations, nor does he believe that there are certain systematic rules or principles which describe historical change in a way applicable to all societies. Nor is he convinced that history is ever completely objective or subjective. He is pragmatic and pluralistic in his approach, and accepts always the idea of multiplicity of causation. An ad hoc theory may well offer a very sound reason for a particular historical development. Thus, because it is not possible to repeat historical events, historians will probably never be able to attain complete objectivity. They should remain open-minded in a world characterized by evolutionary humanistic change. (12)

As this topic is approached, it will be possible to obtain considerable help from the earlier work of Marvin H. Eyler entitled "Origins of Some Modern Sports. "(8) From a methodological standpoint, the writer has, over a period of several decades, been identifying and collecting data about some fifteen persistent historical problems that have had a relation to sport and physical education. (39) The first six of these so-called problems have been identified as *social forces* which have influenced sport and physical education significantly in the societies being considered. These forces or influences are:

(1) values and norms;
(2) type of political state;
(3) nationalism;

(4) economics;
(5) religion; and most recently
(6) ecology, or man's use of his environment.

The remaining nine of these problems may be considered as *professional problems* for the person who practices in the field of physical education and sport, although most certainly each one of these problems is of somewhat greater or lesser concern to the general public in all of our societies. These "persistent problems" are:

(1) professional preparation, including curriculum;
(2) methods of instruction;
(3) the role of administration;
(4) the concept of health;
(5) the use of leisure;
(6) amateurism, semi-professionalism, and professionalism in sport;
(7) dance in physical education and recreation;
(8) physical education and sport for women; and
(9) the concept of progress. (32)

The investigator has adapted an approach to educational problems which is employed also by John S. Brubacher in his historical and philosophical investigations. (4,5) (Note: Professor Brubacher was recently selected as one of eleven leaders in American education in the twentieth century.) (23)

Sociology - Parsons' Theory of Action

The discipline of sociology can be extremely helpful to the sport and physical education historian, and especially so when the concern is for an analysis and interpretation of the values and norms of various social systems. Parsons' theory of action, a structural-functional theory, has been described by Johnson as "a type of empirical system. "(14) Four levels of social structure are postulated as (1) values; (2) norms; (3) the structure of collectivities; and (4) the structure of roles. These proceed from highest to lowest, with the higher levels being more general than the lower ones. Values, for example, are categorized, and values in sport would, of necessity, reinforce the important societal values and shared sanctioned norms of a particular social system.

To get at the historical role of sport in a society, there would appear to be a prior need to achieve an acceptable synthesis of the history of the social system being considered. The functional interchanges between and among the subsystems of the social system should be understood (e.g., how its economy serves as an effective adaptive subsystem), as should the means whereby a social system maintains its equilibrium (e.g., the social processes whereby a society maintains a given structure or changes it). (15) If, as is

typically postulated, sport, games, and physical activity exert significant social force within a society (and vice versa), a knowledge of these factors will offer increased "explanatory power." Just recently, Lueschen has reported that there is a "strong relationship" between sport and society, and he cited for evidence analyses of American football, the running races of Hopi Indians, three Illinois frontier subcultures, and the log races of the Timbira tribe in Brazil. (20) it can only be hoped that in the future an increasingly greater number of sociologists will concern themselves with sport as an important social institution. Thus, the function it fulfills in the total system of social integration would be gradually much better understood.

Anthropology - a "Giant" of a Discipline

The fields of anthropology include the study of the physical, cultural, and social development and the behavior of men and women since they appeared in the evolutionary development of the planet that has been designated as Earth. For this reason anthropology can readily be called a "giant" of a discipline! The human animal has a culture or a social heritage, and this subdivision of the total field has been named cultural or social anthropology. As man's various social units are traced, the interrelationship of cultural values and human behavior is a perennial concern for the members of a particular society.

Cultural anthropology has only recently been recognized as a science, and anthropological theories about sport and games as dynamic processes of social life have not been given the attention that perhaps ought to have been the case. Of course, the work of the cultural anthropologist would often not even be sufficiently exact to warrant the employment of complex statistical procedures - and may never be when one is studying the processes that occasion the development or change of cultural patterns. This is not to say, however, that games and sporting patterns of early cultures cannot or should not be described with care or that ad hoc theories may not be . applied to them wherever possible. It seems reasonable to assume that certain types of games and sports will appear as identifiable cultural elements in the culture complex of a society (e.g., the idea of sportsmanship and fair play in the games of a democratic society). (13)

An example of a recent effort to relate game theory to cultural complexes is an investigation completed by Glassford in 1970. He traced sporadic attempts to prove that an interrelationship exists between a culture and its game forms. He postulated that the nature of sport and games would undergo changes depending upon the possible changes in values and norms of a culture undergoing transition. Based on a theory of games and economic behavior outlined by Von Neumann and Morgenstern (30), Glassford developed a game classification model which he then tested on a culture (Eskimo) which was undergoing a marked transition. Basically, he

hypothesized that "the orientation of the traditional generation toward the values of reciprocity and sharing would be reflected in their game preferences," and that "the new era generation would express a stronger preference for competitive games." The findings enabled Glassford to verify his postulations (at least tentatively), and also confirmed the hypotheses that the traditional generation seems to prefer self-testing games more, and also preferred a game strategy which afforded "tolerable satisfactions" with minimum risk. (10)

Social Psychology - Emotional and Social Adaptation to the Environment

There is no doubt but that the historian will need to keep the investigation of social psychologists increasingly in mind in the future as he hypothesizes about the historical role of sport and games in various civilizations. Fundamentally, the present concern is with "the development of the social phases of personality, attitudes, and values by means of" these activities. (6) The challenge of explaining how personality is developed and maintained in a culture is such that folly adequate explanations may not be available for some time to come. The many variables involved complicate the possibility of investigation greatly. And yet society readily accepts the hypothesis that physical activity in competitive sport situations does lead to social development. It seems true former that social behavior and **personality** growth can be influenced positively or negatively according to a society's values and depending upon the quality of the leadership and the opportunities for participation afforded. Thus, the profession of sport and physical education has a responsibility to provide practitioners exhibiting the finest type of leadership consonant with the highest values of the social system.

An inventory of findings about human behavior is available(3), which serves as a foundation "layer" of knowledge for investigators in sport and physical education. The 1960 project of the Research Council of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, entitled The Contributions of Physical Activity to Human Well-Being. includes the late Charles Cowell's "The Contributions of Physical Activity to Social Development." This particular section is to be up-dated as soon as possible. One cannot help but feel, however, that this highly important aspect of the disciplinary approach to sport and physical education is not receiving sufficient support and encouragement from the many people who have made such strong but unsupported claims for the social values of sport and games in the past. (Can it be that they fear the results of such investigations because they suspect that current leadership is of such a caliber that positive benefits may be at a low level?) At any rate, *the* classification of games based on socio-psychological phenomena should go on (e.g., 27 and 18), as should the "people experiments" discussed by Martens (21) and broadened in his plea for "a social psychology of physical activity. "(22)

Philosophy - Definitions and Value Theories

The field of philosophy offers a storehouse of data to the sport and physical education historian; the difficulty is how and on what basis the historian can or should approach all of this information. Philosophy has traditionally been subdivided into four subdivisions with *axiology* (system of values) as the end result of philosophical endeavor. Thus, fundamental beliefs about values - whether in life generally, or in education, or in sport - would tend to be as consistent as possible with a person's beliefs in regard to the other three subdivisions of the total discipline or subject matter. *Metaphysics* (questions about the nature of reality) is combined with axiology to form what has been called speculative philosophy. *Epistemology* (acquisition of knowledge) and *logic* (exact relating of ideas) are designated typically as critical philosophy.

How a particular historian employs philosophy to serve his purposes as a historian depends almost completely on his background and experience within the culture in which he is living. Pragmatists would tend to be concerned about learning theory prior to questions about the nature of reality. Another philosopher might wish to study the many histories of philosophy in which certain theories about the various branches would be presented chronologically. (Some of these treatments might be in the form of biographies of great philosophers of the past.) A third approach might be to read progressively from the actual works of the philosophers themselves (often through the location of the best translations available). Another method would be useful - the determination of the major recurring issues or problems with which philosophers have concerned themselves over the centuries. It was this approach that Brubacher used with the departmental philosophy of education, and was also employed by this investigator because of its seemingly effective application to sport and physical education (33) through the application of a structural analysis research technique (9).

Strangely enough, just at the time that people all over the world seem to have become more "value conscious," so to speak, the professional field of philosophy - in the English speaking world at least seems to have "cast the common man adrift in waters that are anything but calm and peaceful." The main reason why many philosophers seem to be devoting less time to the "service" aspects of the general education of students is undoubtedly that they have taken more of a "disciplinary approach" by the adoption of research techniques which are more effective in the achievement of the goals of the philosophical analysis movement. As Kaplan has indicated in describing this twentieth-century movement, "philosophy is a kind of logico–linguistic analysis, not a set of super-scientific truths about man and nature, nor a sustained exhortation to live one's life in a particular way. (17) He clarifies this explanation further by intimating that the professional activity of the philosopher is a type of "linguistic therapy" directed toward restoring both ordinary language and scientific propositions to a state of

"semantic well-being" through a "rational reconstruction of the language of science." For example, the philosopher would be asking, "what makes sense, and what is nonsense?" He does not determine whether a theoretical proposition is true or false - that is the scientist's realm - but he does try to see to it that they are expressed clearly, precisely, and logically.

Returning to the task of the historian, it is possible to conclude with some confidence that a philosopher may approach his work speculatively, normatively, or analytically - or through some combination of these approaches with the employment of several techniques. The historian may, therefore, look to the language analyst for a more careful delineation of the terms "sport," "play," and "athletics," for example, or he may be guided by the normative philosophizing of some outstanding person who evolves a systematic, coherent plan of a society and explains how sport and the culture displayed greater or lesser interdependence. (40)

One last suggestion may be made in the delineation of possible approaches to the task accepted for this present paper. It is a type of normative and analytic philosophizing applied to comparative and international education, which may be adapted to the social institution of sport. Lauwerys recommends that an investigator should make an effort to understand the dominant philosophy and philosophy of education in a culture undergoing study. The assumption is that such an assessment will provide true insight concerning the reasons why a definitive pattern of education is carried out by those responsible for policy formulation and execution in the educational system of a culture. (19)

Theories of Play, Sport, Athletics - from Various Disciplines

As soon as one attempts a reasonably careful analysis of the literature on play theory, he realizes that there are in existence of plethora of theories emanating from a variety of disciplines. In the past most people have tended to use the words "play," "sport," and "athletics" with the blithe assurance that they would not be seriously challenged. Because this statement could typically applied to scholars as well as laymen, the situation is now such that an unabridged dictionary includes the word "sport" thirteen different ways as a noun, two ways as an adjective, six as an intransitive verb, and five ways as a transitive verb. "Play" is employed in 74 different ways, and the terms "game" and "athletics" are used in 23 and three ways, respectively. 26 For the purpose of this paper, the appropriate definition of sport can be "an athletic activity requiring skill or physical prowess, usually of a competitive nature" (e.g., wrestling, racing, tennis, rugby, etc.). But does this definition apply to *the* past?

Most recently, Ellis at Illinois' Motor Performance and Play Research Laboratory has accomplished some fine analytical and integrative theorizing

about play theory.[7] After a precise recapitulation of the so-called "classical" theories of play, he continues with an analysis, interpretation, and evaluation of the more recent theories that have been presented since the end of World War U - theories typically postulating homeostatic behavior patterns. Accepting the basic premise that man is the most neophilic (novelty-liking) of all animals, EU is takes a stand that man's non-utilitarian behavior (play) is largely arousal-seeking in nature. Thus, he is saying that man plays competitive sport because he as an individual (and probably as a social animal) has a need "to generate interactions with the environment or self that elevate arousal towards the optimal for the individual. "

It seems obvious to this investigator that the historian needs to keep the above-mentioned definitions of terms in mind as he approaches his work. Further, he should have as comprehensive an understanding of play theory as is needed to help him comprehend as best possible the true role of sport in the society which he is analyzing.

> Note: Because of space limitations, economics as a pivotal social institution with highly significant impUcations for sport and physical education was not included, nor was the developing sub-discipline of comparative education.

Persistent Historical Problems Approach – Comparison and Interpretation

The persistent or perennial historical problems approach employed by this investigator has been explained earlier in this paper and, as was indicated, values in sport and physical education has been selected as first in a list of some fifteen problem areas. Further, the matter of amateurism, semi-professionalism, and professionalism in sport was considered important enough to warrant inclusion in this tabulation of historical problems. (It is admitted readily, of course, that this organization of problems is contemporary, and that it must necessarily have an "American bias" to a degree.)33

The following, then, is a recommended step-by-step approach for the description, explanation, and evaluation of the historical role of sport in selected societies. It is an approach that is multidisciplinary in nature and which also rests upon findings that are available - and which will become increasingly available - from all research methods and techniques known to man. The steps are:

1. Review the best evidence available concerning the social foundations of the society, culture, or social system being considered (e.g., values, norms, type of political structure, economic system, leading Religions, etc.).

2. Assess the available evidence in regard to the educational foundations of the society (e.g., educational values in some hierarchical order; the curriculum and the process of education; and the relationship among the school, society and the individual).

3. Describe, interpret, and assess tentatively - based on tentative hypotheses - the sport and physical education practices of the society available through historical sources of both a primary and secondary nature. Categorize according to (a) aims and objectives, (b) methods of instruction, and (c) possible strengths and weaknesses.

4. Based on the Literature of sociology, and available sociological analyses of the society being investigated, attempt to discover whether the functionally necessary processes of the social system (e.g., according to Parsons' theory of action) are operating in such a fashion that a hierarchy of control and conditioning is present that enables functional interchanges to take place in order to maintain equilibrium or to promote change. (The aim here, of course, is to learn whether an acceptable synthesis of the social system under investigation has been determined; whether there has been a realization to at least a certain extent of the society's value system; and the extent to which the social institution of sport and physical education has facilitated the achievement of the society's values.) (15)

5. Based on the literature of anthropology, and available anthropological theories of the culture being examined, attempt to discover to what extent games and sporting patterns have been assessed as dynamic processes within that specific culture. A careful ethnographical descriptions have been carried out, it is possible that an ad hoc theory such as Glassford's (10) may be applied, and at least compared with the evidence from sociological analysis available.

6. Based on the Literature of social psychology and closely related aspects of the other behavioral sciences, attempt to learn if currently tenable theories about social behavior and personality growth may have been applicable in the social system being investigated. And, further, is it possible that such behavior and growth were influenced markedly by the society's value system as leaders sought to employ sport and physical activity to develop the desired individual and social values?

7. Based on the literature of the history of philosophy, it should be possible for the historian to correlate still further his earlier findings relative to the values considered important in the social system involved, and to relate the concerns ("persistent problems!") of the philosophers of a particular society to "value determinations" that have been postulated in the findings from other disciplines. In this way a type of "normative philosophizing" might be carried out in which the dominant philosophy *and* philosophy of education could be postulated and substantiated (perhaps)

through "verification" by means of knowledge available from the related disciplines. Further, philosophical language analysis techniques may be providing means of determining inadequacies in the language of the people within the system.

8. At this point - and there is no doubt but that former evidence will become available from sub-disciplines not yet "invented" - the sport historian and philosopher should be able to "proclaim the 'validity and reliability' " of his earlier tentative hypotheses about the historical role of sport in a particular social system at a much higher "level of confidence" than previously.

9. At least one more possibility is available for cross-cultural comparison of the role of sport and physical education in society. This is the comparative method as developed by Bereday as a type of descriptive investigation. (2) Here the stages or steps are (1) description, in which descriptive data will be obtained about the plan of sport and physical education in each of the countries being studied; (2) explanation, in which an attempt will be made to explain the theory and practice in sport and physical education based upon the prevailing educational philosophy in each of the countries; (3) juxtaposition, in which the patterns of sport and physical education in the countries being compared cross-culturally will be related on the basis of the implications for sport and physical activity from the hierarchy of educational values existing in each of the countries; and (4) comparison, in which the findings and some reasonable conclusions will be presented based on the similarities and differences –with the final comparison taking into consideration the economic and educational status of the countries being considered.

Conclusions and a Final Word

In essence the writer hopes that the reader will conclude that it has now become possible for the sport historian to become ever so much more sophisticated in his work. The historian is being urged to become increasingly aware of the literature and evidence that is being provided steadily by sociology, cultural anthropology, social psychology, philosophy, and comparative education. Still former, the sport historian should consider the advisability of adopting at least certain of the research techniques available through the other disciplines. Much sport history has been written on the basis of common sense and simple description, which are, of course, necessary steps in the early development of a discipline. The time has come, however, for the sport historian to make apparent his underlying theory of history. He may wish further to apply his own ad hoc theory to his evaluation of the history of sport. It is only in this way that the field can look forward to the future development of "theories of the middle range" and ultimately far more complex theories about sport in the history of man. (39)

Lastly, it seems important at this particular moment to mention that scholars have been identifying "recurrent elements in the various world philosophies. (17) Kaplan asserts that there are four themes displaying a strong "family resemblance" in the firing philosophies of the world today. The first is a theme of rationality displaying either casual or historical systematic unity. Secondly, there is a theme of activism which implies that understanding is a guide to positive action. Thirdly, he has detected a theme of humanism, a pervading belief that there is a continuity of man and nature in both the East and the West. Lastly, there is a preoccupation with values - a view that the life of man should be strongly related to values, and that his highest aspiration is to fulfill moral and spiritual values in his life.(38)

The sport historian, by identifying the historical role of sport in all societies and cultures, can help to make internationalism in sport and physical education one of the highest professional goals.

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EARLE F. ZEIGLER

This anthology of American sport and physical education history was published first in 1975. It contained historical chapters tracing various aspects of the history of sport and physical education written by 20 different scholars. Nine additional chapters and essays were written by Professor Zeigler, the editor/author.

This informative, interesting book is being reissued in 2009 because physical education and (educational) sport is being challenged as never before in its history. By 1920 in the United States, the program of physical education had become increasingly informal with emphasis placed on the learning of sport skills. ". . . .American cultural practices, including sport have been forged by environmental forces, rather than by Anglo-Saxon tradition (Hill, 1965). Unfortunately, as it has developed, this conclusion still holds today because it is often difficult to distinguish between work ethics and sport ethics. In the process, physical and health education for all suffers...

Dr. Zeigler, as editor/author, believes that American cultural values have created a situation in which the large majority of normal and special-needs youth and adults are being deprived of a fine program of physical activity education with related health information. As this is happening, competitive sport in being commercialized and over-emphasized at all levels. The accompanying "spectatoritis" bodes no good for humankind...

Hence, the task for professional educators is to help people of all ages and conditions understand how important it is for them to be fully involved in a type of developmental physical activity that will enable them to live life more fully based on their choice of "life values." If they choose correctly, and we in the field help them to acquire the needed knowledge and skills to do so, research evidence now points to both a richer life and a longer life for those who choose wisely...

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