UNIVERSAL
LIBRARY

OU_150494

UNIVERSAL
LIBRARY

OSMANIA UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

Call No. 613.7 *R49B Accession No. 15366

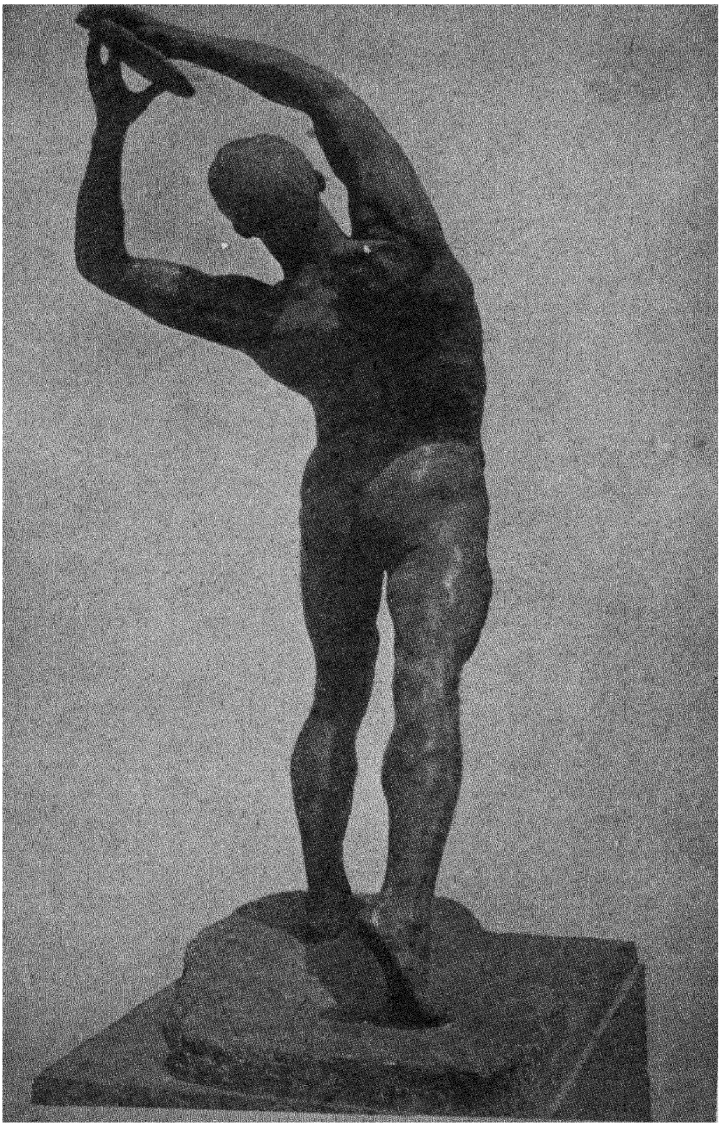
Author Rice, E.A.

Title Brief History of Physical Education

This book should be returned on or before the date last marked below

2 NOV 1962

A BRIEF HISTORY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION



© *By Underwood and Underwood.*

THE DISCUS THROWER. By Costas Dimitiriadis.

Presented to the City of New York by Mr. and Mrs. Ery Kehaya, May, 1926. Gennadios, the Metropolitan of Salonika, who spoke at the unveiling, said, "Renan has predicted that the wonder of the Age of Pericles will never be reproduced, but I say it will be equaled in America, and the time has come for America to impose its culture on the world of today." This statue won the grand prize in the Olympic Art Contest of 1924.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

By

EMMETT A. RICE, A.M.

Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union



REVISED AND ENLARGED EDITION

NEW YORK

A. S. BARNES AND COMPANY

1930

COPYRIGHT, 1926 AND 1929, BY
A. S. BARNES AND COMPANY

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

To

THE MEMORY OF

FRED EUGENE LEONARD, A.M., M.D.

HISTORIAN, BIOGRAPHER, EDUCATOR.

PREFACE

Only the conviction that there is a need in the normal schools of physical education for a text of this kind induced the author to undertake its preparation.

The subject matter and its arrangement has been selected with regard to the following considerations. First, the history of physical education can be presented, most truthfully, as a great movement with many undercurrents, co-existent with civilization itself and as a part of general education. Second, those facts which explain the existence of a modern problem or add to the appreciation of a modern movement are of greater historical value than the details of the life of a leader. Third, teachers of physical education should know the history of the theory and of the literature of the subject as well as the history of the practice. Fourth, the time given to the study of the history of physical education in the normal schools does not warrant the use of a more comprehensive text. Fifth, the selection of the subject matter best suited to the purpose is also the result of several years of class-room experience. Sixth, the book is written for the student, not as a source of lectures for the instructor.

For the assistance which was so gladly given, the author is indebted to the officials of the Indianapolis Young Men's Christian Association, the Indianapolis Young Women's Christian Association, the National Board of the Y.W.C.A., the Playground and Recreation Association of America, the National Physical Education Service, to Mr. Emil Rath, Dean of the Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union, to Dr. William Ocker, Director of Physical Education and Hygiene in the Indianapolis Public Schools, to Mrs. Lillian G. Rice, Physical Education Department of Shortridge High School,

Indianapolis, to Dr. James H. McCurdy of the Young Men's Christian Association College, Springfield, Mass., to Miss Helen McKinstry of the Central School of Hygiene and Physical Education, New York City, and to Mr. Harry Nissen of the Posse-Nissen School of Physical Education, Boston, Mass.

Special acknowledgment is made to The Metropolitan Museum of Art for permission to use the museum photographs, reproductions of which are found in Chapter III.

EMMETT A. RICE.

AUTHOR'S NOTE TO REVISED AND ENLARGED EDITION

In this edition the supplementary readings have been revised and elaborated for the purpose of setting before the student, more effectively, the literature and the sources of the history of physical education.

Because of the rapid progress which has been made in physical education during the last decade, the author has deemed it advisable to add another chapter which calls the student's attention to the more recent movements.

EMMETT A. RICE.

JUNE, 1929.

CONTENTS

PAGE

FOREWORD BY ELMER D. MITCHELL xxi
INTRODUCTION xxiii
1. Why Study the History of Physical Education. . . . xxiii
2. The Scope of This Text xxiii

PART I—IN EUROPE AND THE ORIENT

CHAPTER I

STATUS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN PRIMITIVE SOCIETY 3
Character of Primitive Society 3
Factors Making for Physical Perfection 3
Civilization Brings Need for Organized Physical Education. 6

CHAPTER II

THE STATUS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE ANCIENT ORIENTAL NATIONS 7
China 7
India 9
Egyptians, Assyrians, Babylonians and Hebrews 9
Persia 10
Persian Physical Education 11
Physical Education Without General Education 12

CHAPTER III

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN GREECE 14
I. EARLY PERIOD AND THE HOMERIC AGE 14
Greek Civilization 14
The Ægean Age 14
The Homeric Age 15
Physical Education in the Homeric Age 16
Dancing in the Homeric Age 19
II. PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN SPARTA 19
The Brilliant Age of Greek History 19

PAGE

Sparta 20
Spartan Physical and Moral Training 20
Dancing in Sparta 23
III. Physical Education in Athens 23
At Home and at School 23
The Gymnasia 27
The Athenian Women 29
IV. The Pan-Hellenic Games 30
The Olympian Games 30
Events 31
Rewards 34
The Training of the Contestants. 35
Other Pan-Hellenic Festivals 35
Decline of the Games. 36
Dancing and Ball Games 37
V. Theories of Prominent Men 38
Opinions of Doctors and Philosophers 38
Summary 39

CHAPTER IV

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AMONG THE ROMANS . 42
I. The Early Period 42
Physical and Moral Education 42
The Campus Martius 44
II. The Period of Expansion 44
The Effects of the Conquests on Roman Civilization . 44
The Circus 45
Gladiatorial Combats 46
The Thermæ 47
The Græco-Roman Gymnastics 48
Dancing and Ball Games 48

CHAPTER V

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE DARK AGES . . 50
I. Physical Contribution of the Teutonic Barbarians 50
The Decline of Rome 50
The Significance of the Invasions 51

PAGE

II. STATUS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE EARLY CHRISTIAN SOCIETY 52
Early Christian Ideals 52
Asceticism and Physical Education 53
III. EDUCATION WITHOUT PHYSICAL EDUCATION. . . . 54
In the Monasteries 54
In the Medieval University 55

CHAPTER VI

PHYSICAL TRAINING IN THE AGE OF CHIVALRY 57
Feudal Society 57
Training for Knighthood 58
Aim of Physical Education in the Age of Chivalry . . . 61
The Tournaments and Jousts 62
Relation of Physical Education to Methods of Warfare . . 64

CHAPTER VII

PHYSICAL EDUCATION DURING THE RENAISSANCE 66
Meaning of the Renaissance 66
What the Renaissance Meant to Physical Education . . 67
Thoughts of Humanist Educators on Physical Education. . 67
Vittorino Da Feltre 67
Pietro Vergerio 68
Pius II 70
Roger Asham 72
Hieronymus Mercurialis 72
Opinions of the Reformers Concerning Physical Education . 72
The Decline of Liberal Education 73

CHAPTER VIII

OPINIONS OF REALIST EDUCATORS ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION 75
Meaning of Realism 75
Relation of Realism to Physical Education 75
The Humanist-Realists 76

PAGE
François Rabelais 76
John Milton 76
Summary of Humanist-Realists' Views 77
The Social-Realists of the Sixteenth Century 78
Michael De Montaigne 78
John Locke 79
Summary of Social-Realists' Views 80
The Sense-Realists 81
Richard Mulcaster 81
John Comenius 83
Summary of Sense-Realists' Views 83

CHAPTER IX

EDUCATIONAL NATURALISM AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION 85
Eighteenth Century Society 85
The Educational Theories of Rousseau 85
Rousseau's Theories of Physical Education 87
The Influence of Naturalism on the Practice of Physical Education 88
Basedow's Naturalistic School; the Philanthropinum . . 88
GutsMuth's Contributions to Physical Education . . . 90

CHAPTER X

THE OPINIONS OF PROMINENT MEN OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY IN REGARD TO PHYSICAL EDUCATION 94
Physicians and Philosophers 94
The Founders of the Science of Education 96
Pestalozzi 96
Pestalozzi's Contribution to Physical Education 96
Froebel's Education Through Play 98

CHAPTER XI

GERMANY SINCE 1800 99
I. German Gymnastic Societies 99

PAGE

How the Turnvereine (German Gymnastic Societies) Originated 99
Jahn in Theory and Practice 101
The Spread of Turnen 103
The Reaction Against Turnen 103
Revival of Turnen 104
Modern Turnen 104
II. Physical Education in the German Schools . . 106
Origin of School Gymnastics 106
Spiess's Contribution to Physical Education . . . 107
Physical Education in German Schools Since Spiess . 110
The Effect of the War 112

CHAPTER XII

SCANDINAVIA SINCE 1800 114
I. Physical Education in Denmark 114
The Contributions of Franz Nachtegall 114
The Revival of the Sixties 115
Demilitarization of School Gymnastics 116
The Play Movement 117
Primitive Gymnastics of Niels Bukh 117
II. Physical Education in Sweden 118
Relationship Between Denmark and Sweden . . . 118
Contribution of Per Henrik Ling 118
Physical Education in the Schools 120
Training of Teachers of Physical Education . . . 122
The Gymnastic Societies 122
Physical Education in the Universities 123

CHAPTER XIII

GREAT BRITAIN SINCE 1800 124
I. The Outdoor Sports 124
Origin of British Sport 124
History of British Sports 124
II. Gymnastics in Great Britain 128
Early History 128
Contributions of Maclaren 128

PAGE
Period of Investigation 131
Introduction of the Swedish System 131
Health Movement 132

CHAPTER XIV

OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES SINCE 1800 . . . 134
Switzerland. 134
France 134
Belgium 136
Czecho-Slovak Republic 136
Holland. 137
General Movements in Europe 137
Modern Olympic Games 139

PART II—IN AMERICA

CHAPTER XV

THE COLONIAL PERIOD TO 1790 145
Colonial Outdoor Games 145
The School and Physical Education 147

CHAPTER XVI

NATIONAL PERIOD TO THE CIVIL WAR . . . 149
I. Physical Education in the Academies 149
Origin of the Academies 149
Status of Physical Education in the Academies . . . 149
Physical Education in the Military Academies . . 151
II. How German Gymnastics Came to America . . . 152
Charles Beck at the Round Hill School. 152
Charles Follen at Harvard and in Boston 154
Francis Lieber 155
The Spread of Gymnastics 156
The Decline 156
III. Calisthenics for Women. 157
Contribution of Catherine Beecher 157
IV. Physical Education Through Manual Labor . . 158
Origin of the Movement. 158
History of the Manual Labor Schools 158

PAGE

V. Some American Opinions and Physical Education in the Eighteen-Hundred and Fifties . . . 159
American Opinions 159
Physical Education in 1850 to 1860. 161
VI. The Turnverein Movement Before the Civil War 161
Origin of the Turnvereine in America 161
The American Turnerbund 162
VII. Organized Sports Before the Civil War 164
Origin of Baseball 164

CHAPTER XVII

THE TURNVEREINE SINCE THE CIVIL WAR . . . 166
The Expanding Field of Physical Education 166
The Turners in the Civil War 166
The Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union. . 167
Relation of the Turnvereine to American Society Before 1880 168
The Influence of the Turnvereine on American Education. 169
Influence in the Sports 171
Other Contributions of the Turners 173

CHAPTER XVIII

GYMNASTIC MOVEMENTS AND THEIR LEADERS 175
Progress of the Sixties. 175
The Strength Seekers 176
Dr. Dio Lewis. 176
Theories of Dr. Lewis. 177
The Practice of the New Gymnastics. 179
The Swedish Movement Cure. 180
The Delsarte System 181

CHAPTER XIX

THE AMERICAN SPORTS 184
The Effect of the Civil War 184
The History of American Sports 184
Amateur Athletic Associations 187

CHAPTER XX

PAGE

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION 191
Origin and Early History of the Y. M. C. A. 191
Origin of the Physical Department 192
Contributions of Robert J. Roberts 191
The Training School at Springfield, Mass. 194
Dr. Luther H. Gulick. 194
Recent Developments 196
The Y. M. C. A. in Foreign Countries 197

CHAPTER XXI

THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION 200
Early Associations 200
Gymnastics in Y. W. C. A. 201
Aims and Methods. 201
Training Physical Directors 203
Y. W. C. A. in Foreign Lands 205

CHAPTER XXII

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES 206
I. Gymnastics 206
The Revival in the Fifties 206
Amherst Department of Physical Education . . . 207
Contributions of Edward Hitchcock 207
At Other Colleges 209
Dr. Sargent at Harvard 210
Dr. Sargent's Methods 211
The Character of the Gymnasia. 213
The Departments of Physical Education 213
Recent History 215
II. Athletic Sports in the Colleges 216
Early History. 216
Intercollegiate Athletics 217
Rowing. 218
Baseball 218
Track and Field Events 218

PAGE
Football 219
Control of Athletics 220
Athetics for All 222

CHAPTER XXIII

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOLS 224
The Importance 224
Early Developments 224
Dio Lewis and the Schools 225
Effect of the War 226
Revival in the Eighties 227
The American Physical Education Association 227
The Turners and the Schools 228
How Swedish School Gymnastics Came to America . . . 228
Principles of the Swedish System 230
The Physical Training Conference 230
The Situation in 1892 231
American School Gymnastics and Athletics 233
State Legislation for Physical Education 237
Nature of the Legislation. 237
The Immediate Result of the Legislation 238
National Physical Education Service. 243

CHAPTER XXIV

HEALTH EDUCATION 245
Importance 245
School Hygiene. 245
Personal Hygiene 247
Medical Inspection. 247
Teaching Health Habits 249
Open Air Classes: Nutrition Classes 250
Aims and Results of Health Education 252

CHAPTER XXV

THE PLAYGROUND MOVEMENT 254
I. In Europe 254

PAGE

Germany 254
Other Nations 255
II. In America 256
Origin and Early Development 1885-1900 256
Municipal Playgrounds 258
Arguments for Playgrounds 259
The Playground and Recreation Association of America 260
The Playground Supervisors 260
Statistics for 1915 and 1924 261
Scouting 261

CHAPTER XXVI

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS 264
The Early Normal Schools 264
Training in Colleges, Universities and State Normals. . 266
The Course of Study 267

CHAPTER XXVII

RECENT TRENDS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION . . 270
Retrospection 270
The Natural Movement in Physical Education 272
The Natural Dancing Movement 275
Fundamental Danish Gymnastics 276
Expressive Gymnastics 276
The Natural Movement in France 277
Objectives and Tests 278

INDEX 283

ILLUSTRATIONS

The Discus Thrower . . . . . *Frontispiece*

PAGE

A Boat Race Among the Chippewa Indians 4

Eskimo Football 5

Cong Fu Medical Gymnastics Among the Ancient Chinese . 8

Wrestling in Ancient Egypt 10

Wrestling 17

Greek Sprinters 24

Long Distance Runners 24

Scenes from the Greek Pentathlon, 500 B.C. 26

A Sketch of a Greek Youth Using the Strigil 27

A Greek Gymnasium 29

View of Olympia 30

Boxing 34

The Pankration 36

The Greek Hockey Game 37

Roman Children Playing Ball 43

Romans Playing with Inflated Balls 48

Boys Playing Tournament with a Quintain 58

Knights and Squires Practicing with the Quintain 60

The Preliminaries and the End of a Combat 63

Some Contests of the Fifteenth Century 66

Outdoor Sports of the Renaissance 69

Climbing Exercises 71

Boy's Games in the Seventeenth Century 79

PAGE

Vaulting and Fencing Exercises in a School of Arms of the Seventeenth Century 81

A Naturalistic School in the Time of Basedow 89

Jumping and Climbing Exercises as Illustrated in GutsMuths's "Gymnastics for the Young" 91

A Contemporary Drawing of Jahn Addressing a Group at the Hasenheide 103

An Illustration of the Basel Turnplatz 109

Class in Primitive Gymnastics 117

Westminster School Gymnasium before the Swedish System was Introduced 130

The Stadium at Athens 138

A Gymnasium Exhibition at the 1920 Olympics 139

The 10,000 Meter Cross-Country Run of 1920 Olympics . . 140

A Class at the Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union in 1906 168

Mass Exercises of the Turnerbund Turnfest at Philadelphia, 1900 172

Gymnastic Costumes Recommended by Dio Lewis in 1862. . . 177

A Delsartean Exercise 182

Chinese Playground in the Philippines in 1913 under Y. M. C. A. Supervision 198

The Gymnasium of Amherst College in 1860 209

The Hemenway Gymnasium in 1885 211

Gymnasium of Vassar College in 1866 214

One Kind of Class Room Gymnasium in 1903 235

Open Air School in Cincinnati in 1912 251

Douglass Park Outdoor Gymnasium and Natatorium at Chicago, 1896 258

Expressive Gymnastics 277

FOREWORD

There has long been a need for the kind of material that Mr. Rice has brought together and organized in this book. Students of Physical Education will welcome this History. The researches of Hartwell, Leonard, and Boykin have not been easily accessible to them. Unfortunately, too, much of the European literature on this subject either remains untranslated or, in the case of such English writers as Welpton and MacLaren, is brief and incidental.

This dearth of material has been further aggravated by the fact that such writings as were available for topical assignments were, for the most part, produced prior to the revolutionizing process that has taken place in Physical Education in recent years. The new Child Health movement, the Playground and Recreation movement, the Athletic movement, the Scouting movement, the Camping movement, etc., had none of them as yet gained sufficient momentum to receive more than passing notice. Athletics, when accorded a hearing, were considered as a thing apart from Physical Education and were shunned as unscientific by the orthodox Physical Educator of the time. To-day, these movements have all had their part in making big encroachments on the old Physical Education program and are now being combined into a new educational and recreational force which, in magnitude, breadth of aims, spirit and interest, popular appeal and support, dwarfs the old-time program into insignificance. The problem of unifying these many movements, so vital to-day, is one that the older school did not have to face.

A treatment of the newer trends is found in this brief, interesting, and authentic book by Mr. Rice. It utilizes the valuable contributions of the earlier historical pioneers, evalu-

ates them, and builds on them to bring the study of Physical Education up-to-date.

The author in his preface also shows himself in sympathy with the modern treatment of History. He states that he is going to treat the History of Physical Education—"first, as a movement coexistent with civilization itself; and, second, with stress on those facts which explain a modern problem or add to the appreciation of a modern movement." These are laudable purposes. Physical Education, as one phase of Education, needs to understand its present status by reference to the social forces that have shaped it. Mr. Rice has succeeded so well that the reader will find the past explaining the present and also helping to illuminate the future. Furthermore, no reader can finish this book without having gained a wholesome appreciation of the vision and faith of the earlier leaders, and their struggles in gaining for Physical Education a respected place in the curriculum.

The student now has a popular-priced textbook within his reach; one that gives an impartial treatment of the different systems, one that has the modern historical method of stressing movements and causal relationships rather than dates and personal histories, and one that is both scientific and readable.

ELMER D. MITCHELL,
Associate Professor of Physical Education,
University of Michigan.

ANN ARBOR,
August, 1926.

INTRODUCTION

Why Study the History of Physical Education.—The history of any subject may be taken as a means of measuring progress. The history of physical education provides data from which one may compare not only the method and result but also the importance and influence of physical education in the past with that of the present. It constitutes a record of experiments and achievements on which one may draw for valuable information and inspiration. It demonstrates the close relationship existing between certain elements in civilization and the status of physical education in that civilization. For example: one religious belief promotes development of physical powers while another stifles it; again certain political conditions make for a vigorous physical training while others exert a negative influence. The position physical education has occupied in civilized society from earliest times is known only through a study of its history. In no way can a broader and more appreciative view of the subject be obtained.

The Scope of This Text.—Primarily the aim of this book is to tell the story of physical education from the earliest times to the modern. By physical education is meant instruction or participation in those activities that serve as a means of attaining or maintaining physical welfare. Biographies of the leaders and pioneers, although interesting and valuable to read, will be related only in so far as they are necessary for the proper development of the history. The political, social, and religious conditions which determine the presence or absence or the character of physical education in a given society are discussed at length. The theories and methods of the leaders and of the various movements are given considerable attention. The relationship, which physical education has borne to gen-

eral education throughout its history, is singled out for special study.

So extensive has become the field of physical education in the United States that it now includes not only the practice of gymnastics and athletic sports but local and national recreation programs, playground activities, medical inspection, health examination, hygiene instruction, nutrition classes, and school clinics. The author considers the history of this movement of sufficient importance to warrant devoting one-half of the text to the history of physical education in America.

PART I

IN EUROPE AND THE ORIENT

A BRIEF HISTORY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

CHAPTER I

STATUS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN PRIMITIVE SOCIETY

Character of Primitive Society.—The social, political, and educational institutions of our most remote human ancestors may be safely taken as similar to those of the contemporary savage. To begin at the beginning in the history of physical education is to examine the modern primitive society. Among uncivilized peoples there is very little organized purposive instruction of any kind; nearly all education is a by-product of the daily activities and experiences and of the religious and social ceremonies. Physical perfection is the only feature in primitive life that is comparable or superior to that of civilized man.

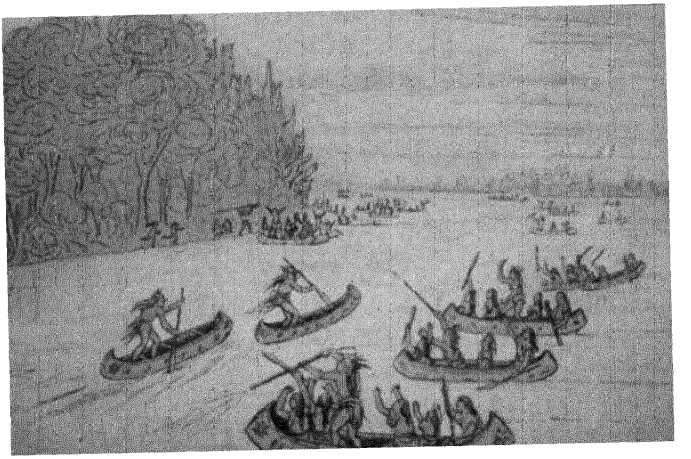
Factors Making for Physical Perfection.—The activities making for superior bodies among savages are; the mild labor, the search for food, the dancing, and the games.

The labor of the savage consists in the manufacture of bows, arrows, spears, knives, utensils, the chipping of flints and stones, the carrying of burdens, the building of huts, and the construction of boats. The work is done by hand with very crude tools. A strong body in all its parts, an accurate eye, and a steady hand is developed.

Almost daily the primitive goes in search of food. He climbs the trees for fruits and nuts and hunts in the forest for roots and berries. For meat he seeks the bed of rivers or

the sea, or stands on the shore with upraised spear waiting for his prey; or else he stalks his game in the forest or on the plain matching his wits, strength, and endurance with that of the animals. His methods of acquiring food tend to develop a body of superior qualities.

Dancing has a more important place in primitive society than in any other. The original and main purpose of the



A BOAT RACE AMONG THE CHIPPEWA INDIANS

dance was to evoke the good will and help of deities and demons. Dancing is considered, among the savages, a serious and usually a religious activity. The leading forms of the primitive dance are the pantomime, the war dance, the exorcising of spirits, and the initiation dance.

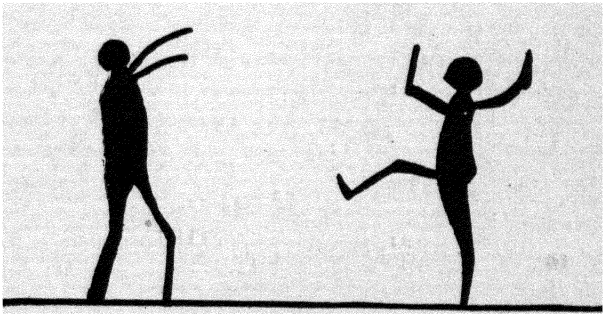
In times of the scarcity of game, the skins of wild animals are stuffed and then "killed" in the pantomime dance of the hunt. A pantomime dance based on the events the savages wish to happen is regarded as a means of evoking the deity to bring those events to pass.

The war dances engaged in by the armed braves of the tribe before a battle are supposed to bring to their side helpful

spirits and provoke, at the same time, a frenzy of considerable use in battle. Women of some tribes have been known to continue the dancing during the battle as a means of conjuring victory. If successful a dance of celebration and thanksgiving follows the battle.

Dancing is regarded as the most efficacious method of exorcising evil spirits. The medicine man, or wizard, dances alone to heal the sick. The occasion of the initiatory ceremonies for boys and girls offers another opportunity for the dance.

The rules governing the time, place, methods, and participants in the dances are as varied and as numerous as the tribes



ESKIMO FOOTBALL

Reproduced from an Eskimo drawing.

themselves. Nearly every ceremony has its appropriate dance. The steps are usually taken from nature: the walk of the bear, the leap of the deer, the swaying of the palm, and the writhing of the snake are imitated.

The instinct and the opportunity to play has been more pronounced among primitive people than among those of civilized nations. Foot racing as a competitive sport is as widespread as the human family. Wrestling and boxing are hardly less so. Throwing at a target with weapons or stones is found among nearly all peoples. With some it takes the form of bowling, with others hurling the spear, and with the Canadian Indians sliding the spear over the ice. Swimming is engaged

in by nearly all. Ball playing with a bat or racket is less common, but was well known among the American Indians. Lacrosse was invented by them. Fencing with sticks or spears, too, is widespread.

Civilization Brings Need for Organized Physical Education.—The labor, the search for food, the dancing, the games, the outdoor life, and the scant clothing of the primitive man are all conducive to the development of sound bodies. Civilization took from some the body building labor of the primitive man and gave to others far too great a burden. The machine, requiring little skill, accuracy, or strength, has supplanted the crude tool of the savage. The search for food passed long ago; to-day it is delivered to the home. Until recent times, for the great majority, games were put aside with childhood. The primitive hut gave way to the air-tight house and the outdoor life, to indoor life. Many evils known to all have followed in the wake of these changes and have given rise to the necessity for conscious purposive physical education.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Bilby, Julian W. "Among Unknown Eskimo." Chap. XVII deals with sport and hunting. Philadelphia. 1923.

Bogeng and others. "Die Geschichte des Sports Aller Völker und Zeiten." Puplished by Seemann at Leipzig 1925.

Bureau of American Ethnology. 21st Annual Report 1899–1900, pp. 20–33 and 56–65. Illustrate the frequency of the dance in Indian ceremonies.

Same. 24th Annual Report 1902–03. Entire volume devoted to games of the Indians.

Cornplanter, Jesse. "Iroquois Indian Games and Dances." Contains pictures only. 1903.

Ellis, William. "Polynesian Researches." Vol. I. Chap. VIII–IX. Lengthy articles on sports. London. 1859.

Grace and others. "History of Dancing." The Badminton Library. Chap. III. The Dances of the Savages.

O'Brien, Frederick. "Mystic Isles of the South Seas." pp. 475–480. New York. 1921.

Vuillier, Gaston. "History of Dancing From Earliest Ages to Our Own Times." Chap. I. New York. 1897.

Wollaston, A. F. R. "Pigmies and Papuans." pp. 116–123. New York. 1912.

CHAPTER II

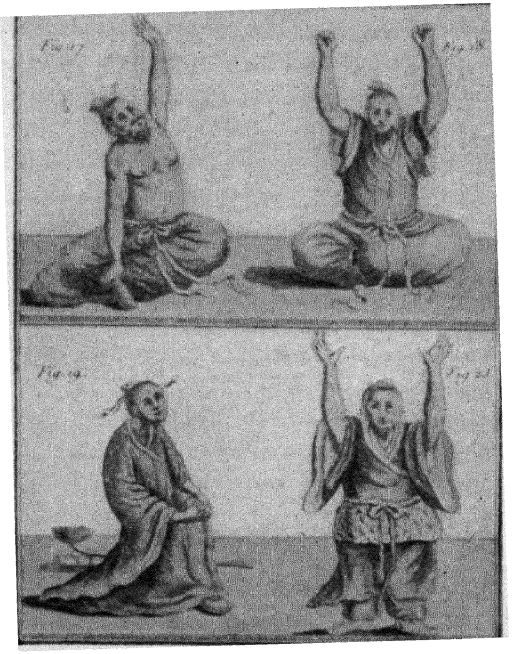
THE STATUS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE ANCIENT ORIENTAL NATIONS

China.—The Chinese civilization is one of the oldest in the world. The people have been industrious, frugal, docile, and peaceful throughout their long history. Very early they adopted a policy of isolation and when the Himalaya Mountains were not a sufficient barrier, the great wall was built and when that failed, laws were passed forbidding the foreigners to enter China. This non-intercourse with other nations tended to crystallize the social order and prevent change. The Chinese have had great reverence for their ancestors and the teachings of the past; these ideals are also partly responsible for the static society. The difficulty of writing or reading the Chinese language made universal education almost impossible.

The schools of China were private; the boys of the upper class paid tuition; the girls were not educated. The aim of the school was to teach the pupils the sacred books of Confucius in such a way that they could repeat them or write them from memory. In the higher schools the style and content of the books were studied until the pupils could imitate the ancient sacred literature. Officers for the nation were chosen by competitive examinations among the students of the highest schools. Nothing was taught to develop individual capacity; on the other hand, everything was done to obliterate the personality and individuality of the student and make him fit into the static social order.

Physical education had no place in the lives of the Chinese masses. First of all the nation had no fear of foreign invasion and no ambition to conquer neighbors, so the military motive was absent. Secondly, repression of individuality is exactly opposed to physical education.

In the fifth century after Christ a priest made note of a series of medical exercises called Cong Fu which had been practiced in China since 2600 B.C. Diseases were thought to result from organic inactivity. Certain bodily movements, combined with breathing exercises were intended to keep the organs



CONG FU MEDICAL GYMNASTICS AMONG THE ANCIENT CHINESE

functioning and to prolong life and insure immortality of the soul. The Swedish system of medical gymnastics has no connection with this, but arose quite independently.

The Chinese soldiers received military training which, due to the method of combat, was to a great extent physical. There were no national athletic sports in which the millions engaged; the nearest approach to it was the kite-flying.

India.—The civilization of India is not less ancient than that of China. The dominant race is the Indo-European Hindu. The warm climate has made the inhabitants an indolent, dreamy, and speculative people. India is a land of religions and mystic philosophies. The dominant teaching is the Hinduism. This theory reduces the multiplicity of things in the universe to unity. That unity is Brahma. The aim of religion is to unite with Brahma. Meantime man's soul migrates from body to body through thousands of reincarnations. Ambition, desires, and individuality are curses which increase the reincarnations and postpone the time of self-extinction and absorption in Brahma. The surest way to attain that is to refrain from activity and the enjoyments of this life. The holy man in India is the ascetic.

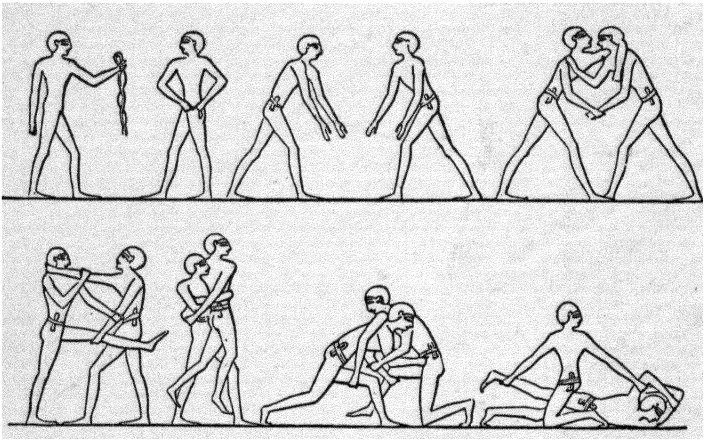
The native school system is similar to that of China. Brahmins alone are the teachers, and the sons of Brahmins are the pupils. The sacred books are the texts, and memorization followed by a study of content and meaning is the learning process. Hinduism is inimical to progress, individuality, sanitation, and physical education. The Hindu society was only slightly less stationary than that of the Chinese. Although India was attacked many times by enemies, the stable society and the deleterious philosophy was undisturbed until recent times.

It is not to be presumed that the children of China and India did not play games of their own invention and in imitation of the elders; but as nations of adults their history is sterile so far as athletic sports and systems of physical education are concerned; and the instructive information is the character of the influences that affect physical education.

Egyptians, Assyrians, Babylonians and Hebrews.—These nations were unhampered by mystic philosophy and ancestor worship and caught the spirit of progress, achievement and national expansion. This spirit was conducive to an active life on the part of the inhabitants; time was given either to labor or to sports, little to meditation. The monuments of these people are inscribed with pictures of wrestlers, swim-

mers, hunters, acrobats, ball players, and dancers. However, judging from the fact that the Greek travelers say nothing of a nation-wide participation in games and physical education we may assume that Greece and even Persia were far in the lead in that respect.

Persia.—In the seventh century before the Christian era the Persians and their kinsmen the Medes formed the greatest nation of the Indo-European branch of the White race. At



WRESTLING IN ANCIENT EGYPT
Taken from drawings in Egyptian tombs.

the dawn of history these people were living in a tribal and nomadic state, tending their sheep on the hillsides and the valleys of Iran. They were a rugged, industrious, serious, religious, and progressive people. From early times the Medes and Persians were noted as intrepid hunters, expert horsemen, and brave warriors.

The Persian Empire began its separate independent existence when King Cyrus the Great revolted from Media in 558 B.C. and in turn subjected the Medes to his power. With the wealth of his conquered kinsmen and the valor of his own victorious army, Cyrus incorporated nation after nation into his rapidly expanding empire; the Bactrians, then the Lydi-

ans, the Asia Minor Greeks, tribes along the Caspian Sea, and finally the powerful state of Babylonia. At the end of the reign of Cyrus, 529 B.C., Persia extended from the Indus River to the Ægean Sea. The astonishing success of these conquests was due, in a large measure, to the education of the Persian boy and young man.

Persian education was primarily moral and physical. Trade, commerce and handicrafts were shunned and despised by all self-respecting Persians. Intellectual training was not thought useful and was therefore neglected. The boys were taught to shoot with the bow, to ride, and to speak the truth. Education began in infancy in the home. The mother demanded obedience and truth from her sons and instructed them in the teachings of Zoroaster. According to that religion Ahuramazda, the god of light, truth, beauty, and goodness, is in constant conflict with Ahriman, the leader of the forces of evil, darkness, disease, and sorrow. All good Persians, should take their stand with Ahuramazda and the evils of the world will be eradicated. The truthfulness of the Persians was referred to frequently by the Greeks; their abhorrence of falsehood partly accounts for their reluctance to engage in trade.

Persian Physical Education.—At about the age of six the boys were taken over by the state for the physical and military training. The Persian lad was expected to rise before dawn and appear at a designated field where he exercised with other boys in running, slinging, shooting the bow, and throwing the javelins. In about one year his instruction in riding began. In addition to the ordinary horsemanship, he practiced jumping on and off while in full gallop and shooting and throwing with accuracy while the mount was at top speed. After gaining some skill in these sports, the boy was allowed to participate in the hunt, which was also conducted by state officials. While on the hunt the boys were made to endure the extremes of heat and cold, to make forced marches day after day, to cross streams without wetting their weapons, to eat very little food, perhaps one meal in two days, to support themselves by

foraging, and to stalk and kill the wild animals, such as the lion, the leopard, the wild boar, and the antelope.

When not on the hunt the boys continued the regular training in archery, riding, and athletic sports. Some time was passed in the manufacture of weapons, shields, and traps and in the pursuits of agriculture. From the age of five to twenty this kind of training continued although from fifteen to fifty the individual was subject to active military service. The educational system of the Persians produced the finest army in Asia. Nearly every able bodied man must have remained in the service until the age of fifty, for the Persians not only protected their own native land but garrisoned and patroled the conquered neighbors as well.

Physical Education Without General Education.—The character of the Persian education was determined by what the rulers might have called the "manifest destiny," namely, to conquer and hold in subjection the alien races about them. In order to accomplish that aim, physical, military, and moral training was thought necessary. Intellectual, cultural, and industrial training and pursuits were neglected. The Egyptians, Phœnicians, Babylonians, and other subject nations surpassed the Persians in those activities and furnished the enormous empire with the products of labor. When the high tide of Persian conquests had been reached, a period of stagnation ensued. Wealth, tyranny, vice, and corruption, foes which the Persians were unable to withstand, so weakened the army and destroyed the stamina of the nation that when the great Alexander invaded Persia in 334 B.C. he found it to be like a hollow shell. The Persians failed to take into account the values of intellectual, industrial, and scientific training, and general education of the masses as a means of building and preserving a mighty empire.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Bogeng and others. "Die Geschichte Des Sports Aller Völker und Zeiten." Published by Seemann at Leipzig, 1925.

Butterworth, Horace. "Physical Training of the Japanese." Mind and Body, Aug., 1904, pp. 153–157. "The Japanese National Sport." Mind and Body, Oct., 1904, pp. 196–200.

Graves, Frank P. "History of Education Before the Middle Ages." New York. 1909.

Herodotus. Book I. Article 136–138. Loeb Classical Library. New York. 1914.

Laurie, Simon. "Historical Survey of Pre-Christian Education." New York. 1900.

Monroe, Paul. "A Text-book in The History of Education." New York. 1905.

Rawlinson, George. "Five Great Monarchies." Vol. III. Persia. New York. 1870.

Xenophon. "Cycropaedia." Book I, Article 2. Book II, Articles 20–30. "Anabasis." I–ix–6. Both references are on Persia.

CHAPTER III

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN GREECE

I. Early Period and the Homeric Age

Greek Civilization.—The Greeks were the first people in Europe to attain a high degree of civilization. So advanced did they become that the modern world has received a rich heritage in literature, government, art, and architecture from them. Physical education held a more important place among the Greeks than in any society since that time.

The mountains of Greece served to divide the inhabitants into independent political groups called city-states which were a great part of the time more or less hostile to each other. The rugged coast line and the proximity of the sea lured the Greeks to maritime enterprise and colonization. The mild climate, the beautiful mountain ranges, the quiet sea, and the blue sky kindled the inherent sense of beauty, proportion, delicacy, and refinement so abundant in Athenian achievement.

The Ægean Age.—The excavations at Mycenæ and Tiryns, by Schliemann, have revealed that as early as 2500 B.C. the mainland of Greece and the adjacent islands were inhabited by a short dark people who were well along in civilization. Knossus and other sites in Crete, laid bare by Sir Arthur Evans, gave up the remains of a splendid civilization and mighty government. Judging from the excavations, the Ægeans kept written records, had enormous palaces, powerful governments, well drained and plumbed houses, wall paintings, and great varieties of art, and a thriving commerce with foreign nations. Popular gymnastics, such as the Greeks later practiced, seems to be lacking. In the Knossus palace was found a painting of three acrobats and a bull. One performer hangs on the bull's horns, another leaps over his back, and another stands behind

the animal to catch his partner who is in mid-air. There is some evidence that boxing was participated in by a few and enjoyed by many. Judging by the available remains it seems that the early Cretans delighted in witnessing the nimble and daring men in the bull ring and enthusiastically applauded the boxing matches but did not as a nation take to athletic and gymnastic sports. Later Cretans were almost Spartan in their training for war.

The Homeric Age.—During the century preceding 1000 B.C. great numbers of tall fair-haired immigrants came into the peninsula of Greece from the north. These invaders mingled with the comparatively few native Ægeans and formed the Greeks of the Homeric Age and of later times. Migrations continued until the islands of the Ægean Sea and the coast of Asia Minor were occupied. The Homeric Age continued from the migrations until about 750 B.C. and is a distinct period of Greek history though the origins of later institutions can be recognized at this time.

The great epics, the Iliad and Odyssey, said to have been written by the blind bard Homer, give a complete and accurate account of the life of this period, when the reader distinguishes between myth and fact, which is not difficult to do. The Homerics lived a very simple and rustic life; wealth consisted in flocks and herds. Labor, even among the nobility, was not despised. Gold, silver, iron, tin, lead, and copper were known and used in a crude way in the manufacture of weapons and tools. Very few laws existed, a crime was avenged by the injured one or by his kinsmen; piracy was common and was not considered as dishonorable. Women were honored; the men were brave and were hospitable to strangers. Each small community had its king and nobility. The religion of the Greeks had its origin in this period.

Zeus was the supreme god of all things, Apollo the god of light and truth, Ares of war, Hermes a messenger and the god of commerce, Poseidon the god of the sea, and Hephæstus of fire. Hera was the wife of Zeus, Athena the goddess of wisdom, Artemis of the chase, Aphrodite of love and beauty,

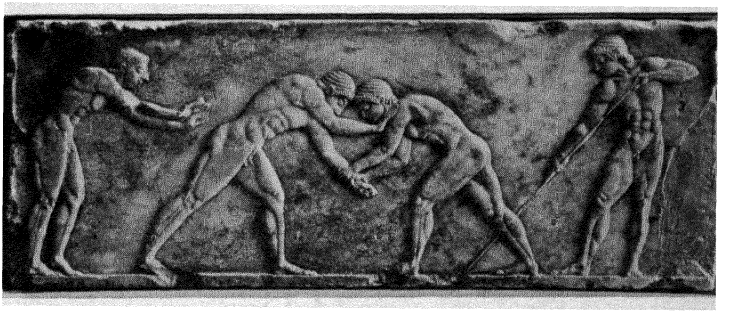
Demeter of the harvest, Hestia of the hearth. These twelve maior deities formed the Olympic Council and resided on or near Mt. Olympus, from whence they guided the destinies of the Hellenic individual and political groups. Besides these there were scores of minor spirits inhabiting the earth, sky, and sea. The gods had all the faults and passions of humans but they were immortal and endowed with miraculous powers. The Greek approached his deities with a friendly human understanding, seeking help for which he made proper sacrifice and offering. In their honor temples were erected and festivals were celebrated.

Physical Education in the Homeric Age.—The Iliad and the Odyssey reveal the prominent place which athletic sports held in Homeric society. Sacrifices to the gods, funerals, entertainments for guests, and even less formal occasions called for chariot races and tests in manly strength and skill. The Iliad is the story of war of the Homeric Greeks against the Trojans. Agamemnon, the commander of the Greeks, quarrels with his great warrior Achilles. The latter sulks in his tent and will not fight, consequently the Trojans are victorious and the Greeks sustain severe losses. Finally Hector, a Trojan prince, kills Patroclus, the friend of Achilles. The latter then seeks revenge and by his hand Hector is slain.

The funeral of Patroclus related in the twenty-third book should attract our attention. After much lamenting and mourning and after many oxen and prisoners have been slain and sacrificed, the funeral games, presided over by Achilles, begin. First comes the chariot race. There being no race course, they are to drive over the rough plain to a designated spot and return; Phœnix is placed at that turn "that he may note the running and tell the truth thereof." The first prize consists of a "woman skilled in fine handiwork" and a tripod; second place receives a six-year-old mare; third prize is a large bright caldron; fourth place gets two talents of gold and fifth, a two-handled urn. Five nobles enter their teams and cast lots for the starting positions. The race is on; the gods interfere, helping some drivers and hindering others; the spec-

tators argue on who leads the race; finally Diomedes wins first, closely followed by the other four. All of the entrants received prizes.

Next came the boxing match; a sturdy mule for the winner and a two-handled cup for the loser. Epeios, a famous boxer, arose and said, "The mule I say none other of the Achaians shall take for victory with his fists, for I claim to be the best man here." Euryalos answered the challenge. Friends girded them with belts and bound their hands in thongs and then they fell to. Euryalos was so completely knocked out that



WRESTLING

One wrestler has the "flying mare" grip; the other tries to break it. (From a statue base, National Museum, Athens.)

some of his comrades "led him through the ring with trailing feet . . . drooping his head awry, and they set him down in a swoon . . . and themselves went forth and fetched the two-handled cup."

For the wrestling match two prizes were offered; a tripod valued at twelve oxen and a woman, skilled in all kinds of work, valued at four oxen. The contestants were Aias, of great strength, and Odysseus, "of many wiles." Upright wrestling was used, in which one must throw the other down. Two attempts were made and they were starting the third, when Achilles stopped the affair and awarded them equal prizes. They seemed to be too well matched.

Three prizes were offered for the foot race. A rare and

beautiful silver mixing-bowl, an ox, and a half talent of gold. Aias, the son of Oileus, Odysseus, and Antilochos were the entrants. It was a close race but the goddess Athena caused Aias to slip in the blood where the oxen had been killed and Odysseus won the race. Aias was second and Antilochos came in third. The races closed the games and the assembly broke up.

The Odyssey is the story of the adventures of Odysseus in his wanderings from Troy to his home in Ithaca. During his long absence Penelope, his faithful wife, is beset with numerous unwelcome suitors, who frequently amuse themselves before the palace in "casting weights and spears on a leveled place" (Bk. IV) These trials are the predecessors of the discus and javelin throws.

During his wanderings Odysseus comes to the land of the Phæacians who entertain him with feasting and minstrelsy. After the banquet the king Alcinous says, "Let us go forth anon and make trial of divers games, that the stranger may tell his friends when he home returneth how greatly we excell all men in boxing and wrestling and leaping and speed of foot." Odysseus is challenged to participate in any sport, but he, being sorrowful and longing for home, does not wish to compete with them. One of the boldest begins to chide and mock him, whereupon he catches up a weight much heavier than those that were being thrown and casts it far beyond their farthest mark, and then challenges them to boxing, wrestling, or a foot race, "for I am no weakling in all sports." No competitor is found and so the Phæacians boast of their skill in dancing and give an exhibition with which Odysseus is pleased. (Bk. VIII.)

When Odysseus returns home dressed as a beggar and unknown to all, he is provoked to quarrel with another vagabond before his own palace gates. The suitors, joyed at the prospect of a fight, urge them on offering choice dishes of food to the winner. Their rags are girded up and when the thighs and arms of Odysseus are seen the outcome of the match is known to all, even to Irus, the opposing beggar. The common

fist fights of this time were raised to the dignity of a boxing match by the sportsmanship of the bystanders.

A company of Homeric Greeks were ever ready to test their strength and skill in the sports and martial activities of the time; it was their recreation and amusement. We have no record of a gymnasium or even a permanent athletic field in this period. The place of meeting was determined by convenience, the contests were impromptu and were not preceded by special training. In the funeral games of the Homerics, the athletic sports took on a religious aspect and gave rise to the custom of celebrating the great festivals by means of gymnastic competitions.

Dancing in the Homeric Age.—Dancing was an activity participated in by all Greeks from earliest times. Homer, in the first book of the Odyssey, in speaking of the suitors of Penelope, says, "Now the wooers turned them to the dance and delightsome song and made merry and waited until evening should come on." When Odysseus was being entertained by the Phæacians, the king, Alcinous, ordered the dancers, "the best in the land," to make sport. "So they leveled the place for the dance and made a fair ring and a wide. And the henchmen drew near bearing the loud lyre to Demodocus who gat him into the midst, and round him stood boys in their first bloom, skilled in the dance and they smote the good floor with their feet. And Odysseus gazed at the twinkling of the feet and marveled in spirit." From this evidence it appears that dancing was cultivated and enjoyed but that the exhibitions were frequently as impromptu as the athletic contests.

II. Physical Education in Sparta

The Brilliant Age of Greek History.—With the growth of wealth, and the increase in population and intercourse with Oriental civilizations, and the natural progress and achievements, the primitive, simple, and rustic age of Homer passed into the brilliant and productive period of Greek history, the fifth and fourth centuries before Christ. By the fifth century

B.C. the city-states had democratic governments, public education, considerable wealth and prosperity; their orators, sculptors, architects, legislators, and dramatists were equal to those of any subsequent period of the world's history. These political groups varied in many respects but in one they were very similar, namely, their attitude toward physical and military training. The Greeks excelled all people in the extent of the national participation in gymnastics, in the importance attached to physical education, and in honors conferred on the victors. The words gymnastic, athletic, agonistic, antagonist, hippodrome, and stadium are of Greek origin as well as the activities to which they refer. In this work space will permit only of a study of the two leading city-states, Sparta and Athens.

Sparta.—The Spartans were, from the beginning of their history, a very patriotic and warlike people. The victorious armies reduced almost every city-state in southern Greece to submission. This warlike spirit and the successful hegemony over the neighbors shaped her social and educational institutions, her military policy, and her philosophy. Every free-born Spartan gave his life to the state.

At birth the child was examined by state authorities and if found to be physically deficient it was exposed in some remote place to die; if strong and healthy the parents were permitted to rear it. The mother cared for the training and rearing of the children from birth to the age of seven. Her aim was to give the child a well disciplined character and a hardy, rugged constitution. The Spartan child had to learn obedience, respect for elders, bravery, resourcefulness, self-restraint, and the endurance of pain and discomfort. The stories he heard and the songs he sang and the life about him were conducive to that end. The hardiness of body was attained through the simple and scanty food, little or no clothing regardless of weather or season, rough and dangerous games, and fatiguing sports.

Spartan Physical and Moral Training.—In Sparta moral and physical training had the same end in view and differed only slightly in methods. At the age of seven the boys left

the roof of their mother and entered the public barrack. which became their school and home. There they were grouped into companies and the boys who showed the most native leadership were made the captains. The training was supervised by elders. Each company had its own quarters and mess table. The barracks offered the rudest accommodation; the boys slept on the ground or on their own improvised pallets. One garment sufficed the year round. The daily activities consisted in free play, throwing the javelin and weights, jumping, wrestling, running, making long hikes, and swimming.

At about the age of twelve the companies were reorganized and a closer supervision of training was begun. The elders attended the place of exercise daily and instruction, encouragement and chastisement were never lacking. A youth about twenty years of age took command of the company. In addition to a more intensive and varied training the boys were now compelled to secure some of the food for the mess; usually it had to be obtained by theft from the peasants or the market or the dwellings. Thieving was not a crime, but if the thief were detected he was severely punished. The aim was to teach craftiness and courage and Plutarch says that the scanty food made them grow tall. The story of the boy who stole the fox and concealed it under his shirt and, rather than be detected, permitted it to gnaw his entrails until he fell dead, may or may not be true, but it reveals the ideal Spartan character. During the festival of Artemis boys were lashed before the altar of that goddess that they might learn to withstand pain; some are said to have died without uttering a cry.

The moral training in citizenship was also of great importance. Everything was done to teach by example and precept that the state of Sparta was all important and that the individual and his likes and dislikes were nothing. Self was to be totally subordinated and Sparta exalted. The captain frequently tested his company on moral questions. The question "Who is a good citizen?" is asked. The boy is to give an accurate but very short answer; the Spartans always aimed at laconic and pointed speech. All that needed to be said on

whether Sparta should be fortified was "that city is well fortified which has a wall of men instead of brick." The whole of Spartan philosophy was couched in terse maxims and proverbs which were learned by all. These tests of morality and speech were attended by the elders and if the captain did not give rewards and punishments justly he himself was chastised when the boys were gone.

At the age of twenty the youth was a trained soldier and ready for war. War was welcomed as a relief from the strenuous discipline of peace. At the age of thirty he was compelled to marry to produce children for the state. He still continued in the army, however, only seeing his wife when he visited her clandestinely. The men remained in the service of the city until sixty years of age and even longer if the government had need of them.

The information concerning Spartan women and girls is not so abundant, however, we know that they were not secluded and that they held a very honorable and important place in society. The girls were given physical training somewhat comparable to that of the boys under the supervision of women. They exercised publicly in running, jumping, throwing the weights and the javelin, and in wrestling. The aim was to develop robust healthy mothers of sturdy children. The Athenian women recognized the superiority of the Spartans in beauty and strength and social position.

Labor and commerce and handicrafts were despised by all Spartans; Lycurgus, who is said to have originated all the important Spartan institutions, is supposed to have made the coins of great pieces of iron to purposely hamper commerce. The necessary labor was done by the Helots, who were conquered neighbors reduced to serfdom; certain other subjugated cities paid tribute to the Spartans.

The Spartan system of physical and military training obtained the desired results; the army was the best in the world. For this preëminent military position they sacrificed personal liberty, individualism, home life, and the achievements of peace. It is not to Sparta that we look for the great dramas,

the immortal verses, the models of architecture, and the inimitable sculpture, but rather to her more cultured neighbor, Athens.

Dancing in Sparta.—In Sparta dancing was a more serious affair than in most lands and was usually one of three kinds, gymnastic, festive, or military. The Bibasis, engaged in by both men and women, consisted in springing from the ground and striking the feet behind. Prizes were given to those who could do it the greatest number of times. Another dance was participated in by youths and maidens together. The youth led with steps and gestures of a military nature followed by the maiden who approximately imitated him but gave a feminine interpretation. The most widespread military dance was the Pyrrhic, supposed to have been originated in Sparta. It was danced by naked youths armed with sword and shield; the steps and gestures imitated the charge, the retreat, and the thrust and the parry of real battle, and all in rhythm to the music of the flute.

III. Physical Education in Athens

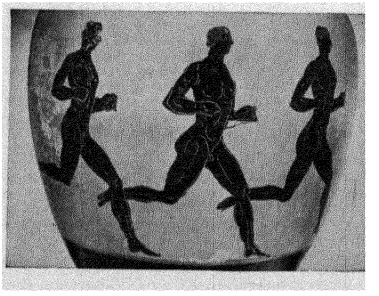
At Home and at School.—On the birth of a child in Athens, the father decided whether his offspring was to be reared or exposed. The children, boys and girls, spent the first seven years under the charge and instruction of the mother and nurses. They learned to obey and respect the elders, and became acquainted with the stories of the heroes and gods. The life of the children of Athens was not far different from that of America; they had balls, hoops, swings, carts, and jackstones and played hide-and-seek, blind-man's-buff, and hopping games.

At the age of seven the boy began a more serious education but the girl remained in the home. The aim of Athenian education was to fit the boy for social, political, military, and religious life in Athens; this demanded a training of mind, morals, and body to their highest capacities. Three main studies were pursued; gymnastics, grammar, and music. The



(From an amphora, Metropolitan Museum of Art.)

pedagogue, a man slave, accompanied the boys to and from school daily, protecting him from harm and giving instruction concerning interesting things about the city.



LONG-DISTANCE RUNNERS
(From an amphora, British Museum.)

The school of gymnastics was called the palestra, which originally and literally meant a wrestling ground. The palestræ, of which there were many in Athens, were usually located

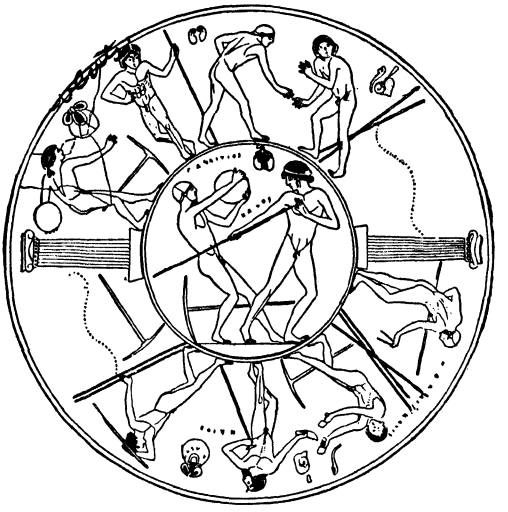
on the banks of a stream where facilities for bathing and swimming might be had. As the importance of these institutions increased, more and more conveniences and accommodations were secured. First of all a room for dressing and undressing was erected because all of the exercises were performed without clothing; then a room where the body could be properly oiled was provided, then a sand room, with conveniences for sprinkling sand on the body; need was also found for quarters equipped with bathing facilities. Last of all, rooms for recreation, with punching bags and balls of varying weights and sizes, were added. The entire structure formed a hollow square, in the middle of which was a court open to the sky, where jumping, boxing and wrestling might be practiced. The running and the throwing of the discus and javelin usually took place in the open field outside the building if the interior court was too small.

Nearly all the palestræ, which were open to boys, were owned by private individuals who conducted them for profit; but like all other Athenian schools they were regulated by the government officials. Expert teachers in all the varieties of wrestling, boxing, running, jumping, and the discus and javelin throw were employed. These sports were so universally taught in Athens that it was easy to arrange a track meet among boys at any time. The festival of Hermes was largely an exhibition of boys' gymnastic accomplishments. Many boys trained in the palestra for the great national games. At the age of eighteen the youth deserted the palestra and found recreation and amusement in the gymnasium.

Along with the physical education the boy attended the grammar school (didascaleum) where he very early learned to read and write and to calculate simple arithmetic problems. In the latter part of his schooling he studied and memorized the Iliad and Odyssey and other selections of the national literature, practiced public speaking and oratory. In addition to these studies, moral lessons and instruction for citizenship were not lacking; the father and the pedagogue were constantly guiding and correcting his manners and conduct.

At about ten years of age the musical education began; it was presumed that every educated man could play the lyre and sing the songs of Greece.

When eighteen years of age the youth became a man and was enrolled as a cadet or ephebus and with the other young men he took the famous Athenian oath. "I will never disgrace



SCENES FROM THE GREEK PENTATHLON, 500 B.C.

Upper: Discus, Javelin, and Wrestling Events.
Center: Discus and Javelin Events.
Lower: A Javelin Thrower, a Jumper, an Athlete, and a Javelin Thrower. Note the Picks, Disci, Strigils, Halteres, and Javelin Thongs.

these sacred arms or desert my companions in the ranks. I will fight for temples and public property, both alone and with many. I will transmit my fatherland, not only not less, but greater and better than it was transmitted to me. I will obey the magistrates who may at any time be in power. I will observe both the existing laws and those which the people may unanimously hereafter make, and if any person seek to annul the law or to set them at nought, I will do my best to prevent him, and will defend them both alone and with many. I will

honor the religion of my fathers. And I call to witness Agraulos, Enyalious, Ares, Zeus, Thallo, Auxo, and Hegemone."

Then began an intensive military training lasting for two years. The first year was spent in guard duty in and about Athens, while at the same time practicing warlike exercises and sham-battles. At the end of the year a great exhibition in athletic and military sports was held. The second year was spent in more training and actual military service in some outlying province. If no war was in progress the young man was freed at the end of his training and might become a philosopher, poet, dramatist, historian, sculptor, merchant, politician, or any one of the many callings to which the cosmopolitan life of Athens invited one. But whether he specialized in any one activity or not he remained always a gymnast; for gymnastics meant pleasure, sport, health, a handsome body, amusement, social intercourse, moral training and complete development, and even honor and fame.



A STATUE OF A GREEK YOUTH USING THE STRIGIL

The Gymnasia.—To serve the men of Athens the three great gymnasia, the Academy, the Lyceum, and the Cynasargus were established and maintained by the state. The earliest gymnasium was merely an athletic field usually located near a stream. When buildings were needed the architectural form resembled that of the palestra and the hollow square building in a gymnasium is frequently called a palestra. The information concerning the arrangements of these Athenian gymnasia is very scanty; there is just an allusion to them here and there in the literature. The excavations at Delphi and Olympia tell more about the gymnasia of those cities.

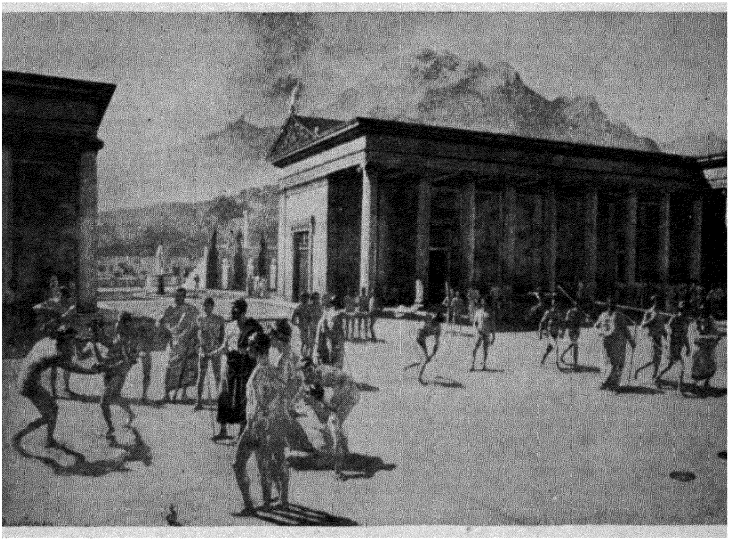
The Lyceum building consisted of the great hollow-squared palestra. Near the entrance was the large undressing room (apodyterion). Seats and benches were around the room and

hooks on the walls for the convenience of hanging up the clothing. Also some of the gymnasium equipment was kept in this room; perhaps, strigils, halteres, and a discus. Around the inside of the entire structure was a colonnade connecting the different rooms. From the apodyterion the athlete might go to the oil room where he or the attendants oiled the body thoroughly. The youth was then ready for exercises or contests. Along one side of the colonnade was a covered running track (zystos) suitable for short sprints or running in bad weather. If he chose to wrestle or jump or hurl the discus, opponents could be found out in the open court. If he preferred to exercise alone he might go to the punching bag room where bags of various sizes and weights were suspended. Outside the palestra young men engaged in the long runs and received lessons in riding.

After the youth had finished his exercises he went to the bath room, which, in the gymnasia of the fifth century was very simple. In order to remove the oil, perspiration, and perhaps dust, he used a scraper called a strigil. Large tubs and troughs of water were provided from which the athlete washed himself. Some gymnasia seem to have had cold plunge baths. All three of the Athenian gymnasia were on small streams where plenty of water was available. After dressing, the youth had as further recreation, walks along the river, or conversations with poets, authors, sculptors in or about the gymnasium. The Lyceum was a place of recreation and amusement for the idle youth, a place of training for the gymnast who wished to enter the Pan-Hellenic games, and a place of exercise for the elderly gentlemen who gave thought to their physical welfare.

During the fourth and third centuries before Christ the Greek gymnasia became much more elaborate and magnificent, due to the increase in wealth and luxury and later because of the Roman influence. Particularly there were added more attendants, beautiful interiors, several bathing pools of various temperatures, rooms for a game similar to hand ball and other games of recreation, commodious lounging quarters for poets,

philosophers, and musicians. Aristotle conducted his philosophic teachings at the Lyceum, Plato at the Academy; so famous became these gymnasia as intellectual centers that both names have come to refer to places of mental rather than physical culture. The Cynasargus became the home of the Cynic philosophers.



A GREEK GYMNASIUM

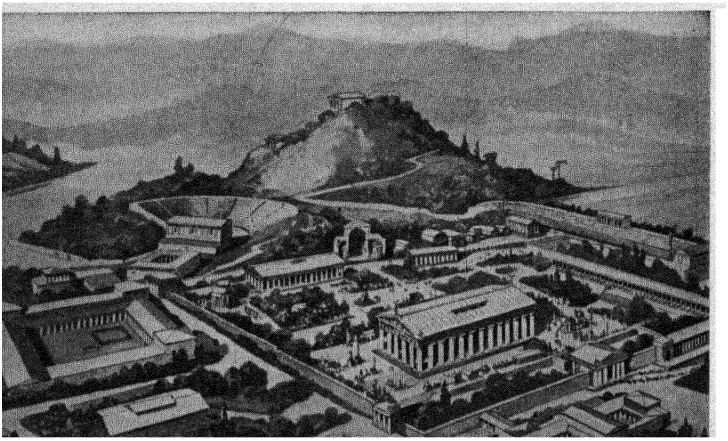
Note Hollow Square Building and Colonnades. Left; Wrestling, Youth with Strigil, Youth Oiling the Body. Center; Discus Throwing. Right; Javelin Throwers and Jumpers.

The Athenian Women.—The social position of women in Athens was similar to that in the Oriental nations, one of semi-seclusion. Consequently no provision was made for their education. The girl was reared by her mother and nurses in the duties of the house wife. She was taught to spin and weave, sew, and cook and care for the home. If she learned to read or write it was only through her mother's teachings. No provision was made for physical education other than the simple games of childhood. The Athenians were superior to their

warlike neighbors the Spartans in all the arts of peace except in the education and the social position of women.

IV. The Pan-Hellenic Games

The Olympian Games.—The individual city-states of Greece celebrated the festivals of the deities in dances, songs, and games. Among these were the Panathenæa, the Dionysia,



VIEW OF OLYMPIA (Restoration)

Note the large Temple of Zeus in the main inclosure; the stadium in the right rear; the gymnasium on the left. (Reprinted from Webster's Early European History and Ancient History by special permission of D. C. Heath and Company. All rights reserved.)

and the Eleusinia in honor of Athena, Dionysus, and Demeter respectively. More important than these, however, were the four great Pan-Hellenic festivals, the Olympian, Pythian, Nemean, and the Isthmian.

Olympia, in Ellis on the River Alpheus, was a sacred spot where religious ceremonies and athletic contests were given long before the Olympian Games were organized. The first recorded Pan-Hellenic celebration at Olympia was held in 776 B.C. and thereafter every fourth year in late summer until

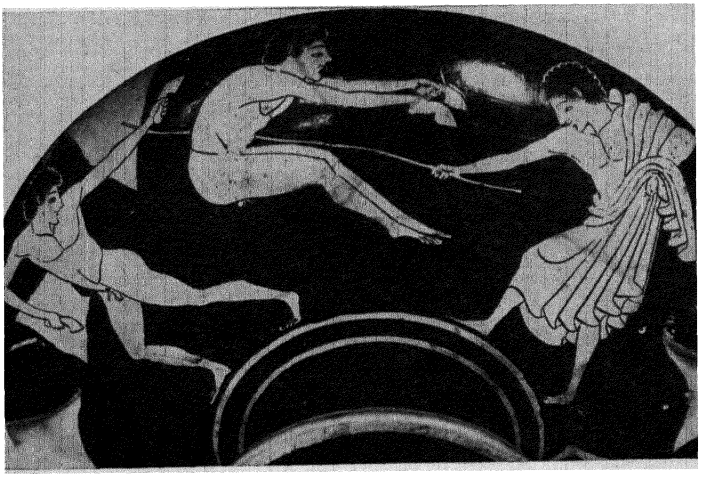
abolished by the Roman Emperor Theodosius in 394 A.D. As the games became more and more varied and attracted more visitors and competitors, the site of Olympia became adorned with many magnificent buildings; the Temple of Zeus, the great stadium, and the palestra. Their remains and the descriptions left to us afford means of locating them with accuracy.

Before the festival, heralds journeyed through Greece announcing a sacred truce among all the people, that visitors and contestants might go to and from Olympia unmolested. Zeus, who was being so honored, would punish the one who failed to heed the warning. The entire management was in control of ten magistrates who lived in Ellis. All entrants for the games had to undergo examination; they must be of Greek blood, must never have committed crime, must take an oath to compete fairly, must have been in training for ten months before the games, and the last month must have been spent at Olympia. Ritual and ceremony marked the opening and every important stage of the games. Women were not permitted to be present.

Events.—The foot-races were among the oldest and most-honored events. The actual distances depended on the length of the stadium. A stade race, one length of the stadium, was about 200 yards, the diaulos was double the distance, and the dolichos was any number of stades, perhaps as high as 24. Boys were not expected to run quite so far; Plato says they should run only one-half the distance of the men. Contestants for short runs were divided into heats of about four men each by drawing lots, then the winners of the heats ran to determine the final victor. Races in armor, but without weapons, was introduced in the sixth century and, after the Persian wars, they became very popular.

The pentathlon consisted of competition in five events—running, jumping, throwing the javelin and the discus, and wrestling—to determine the best all-round gymnast. Jumping, and throwing the javelin and the discus were very much practiced in the palestra and gymnasium, and were popular

sports throughout Greece, but at Olympia and other national games they were only a part of the pentathlon. The broad jump and the hop-step-and-jump were the only forms of jumping contested and the latter only rarely. All competitors jumped from the same take-off into soft, loose ground; the distance was measured with a rod. The jumpers generally used weights of stone or metal called halteres; several of them have been found.



Left; Using the halteres as dumbbells.
Middle; Jumping.
Right; Ready to measure the jump.
(From a kylix, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.)

Throwing the javelin was one of the most popular and practical sports in Greece. The art was necessary in war and in the hunt and every boy learned it in the palestra. The javelins used for competition were eight to ten feet long, of varying weights and had dull points. Thongs were wrapped near the middle, leaving a loop for the fingers, this method trebled the distance that the javelin might be thrown and imparted a rotary motion to it.

In the original weight-throwing contests stones and rough

pieces of metal were used, then later the object took on the form of the modern discus. The many disci that have been found differ in weight and size, due to the fact that some are for boys and also that different regulations were in force at different times. The discus was hurled without the complete turning of the body, which characterizes one of the modern methods. Music from the flute frequently accompanied the discus and javelin throwing and the jumping.

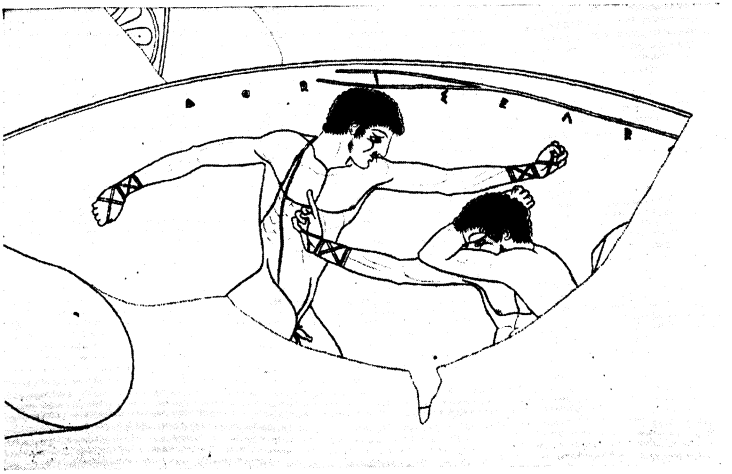
Wrestling was one of the most popular sports and was considered the most effective exercise for all-round development. It occurred as a separate event and as a part of the pentathlon. Of the two forms of wrestling, the "up-right" and the "ground," the former was the more common. The aim was to throw the opponent to the ground without falling with him; it took three falls to make a victory. There were no binding rules on holds, but those that caused torture or permanent injury were not looked upon as fair or sportsmanlike. The Greeks preferred speed, skill, and science to brute strength or foul play. When there were several competitors the modern method of matching by lot and elimination was used. In the palestra and gymnasium "ground" wrestling was frequent; the aim was to throw the opponent to the ground and then continue the struggle until he admitted he was beaten.

In the boxing events the men were matched as in wrestling. In the place of the modern gloves the Greeks securely wrapped the fingers, knuckles, wrists, and forearms with thongs of rawhide, rather as a means of protecting the hands than softening the blow. The blows and parries were very similar to those of to-day. No ring was provided except insofar as the spectators formed one; there were no bouts, the fight went on until one was knocked out or until they rested by mutual consent. Boxers were not ranked or matched according to weights.

In the seventh century a combination of boxing and wrestling called the pankration was added to the events at Olympia. It was a free fight with hands unbound and all the tricks of both sports permitted; hitting, kicking, twisting of limbs and

strangling. Biting and gouging alone were forbidden. The fight continued until one contestant admitted he was defeated. Toward the period of the decline of Greek athletics, the pankration for boys was introduced.

Horse racing, both with chariots and with jockeys, found place in the Olympian Games in the seventh century, and, although they were very exciting, they did not harmonize with the aim and purpose of gymnastics and national games and



BOXING

One boxer gives the other the sign of defeat. (From a kylix, Altes Museum, Berlin.)

were not permitted to overshadow the importance or detract from the honor of winning in the more athletic events. Contests for heralds and trumpeters were also held at Olympia. Originally all the contests were finished in one day, but as the number of events and contestants increased five days were found necessary.

Rewards.—The victor in any event at Olympia received a crown of wild olive branches which had been cut from a sacred grove; also a palm branch as a token of victory. He was honored in the celebrations and banqueting at Olympia and his

journey home was a triumphal procession. Frequently a city whose son had been victorious made a breach in the walls, so that he might not have to enter by the common path. His fame spread throughout Greece; sculptors carved his figure in stone and poets wrote odes commemorating his achievements. The Greeks could name the victors of the various events for several years previous; it was common practice to recall an event to another by saying it was so many years after so and so won the pankration or the diaulos.

The Training of the Contestants.—In the earliest times scientific training for athletics was not known and the Spartans, because of their severe military training, won most of the prizes; but when the contestants from other parts of Greece began practicing under scientific trainers, the Spartans, who continued to hold to military rather than athletic training, fell behind. The Athenian boy learned all the events and the proper forms of executing them in the palestra. If he excelled there he continued his training in the gymnasia under skilled and scientific tutors, many of whom had been victors in the games. Exercises, such as punching the bag, shadow boxing, and dancing were considered good training methods for the boxers; digging in the ground with a pick and jumping was recommended for wrestlers, using the halteres as dumbbells was encouraged for both boxers and wrestlers; the runners practiced in deep sand. Some thought was given to dieting.

Other Pan-Hellenic Festivals.—The Pythian Games were given in honor of Apollo near his shrine at Delphi, in the third year after every Olympian meet. In addition to the usual athletic sports and chariot races, competitions in the flute and lyre and in musical composition were held. The highest reward was a crown of bay leaves plucked from a sacred valley.

The Nemean Games were held in Argolis in honor of Zeus in the early part of every second summer. The events were almost the same as those at Olympia. A crown of fresh parsley was the reward.

The Isthmian Games, in honor of Poseidon, were given on the Isthmus of Corinth in the spring of every second year,

wreaths of dry parsley leaves were given the winners. These four Pan-Hellenic gatherings never coincided but frequently came very close together.

Decline of the Games.—During the second century before Christ a marked decline in Greek physical education is noticeable. The conquering Romans did not enjoy or have much

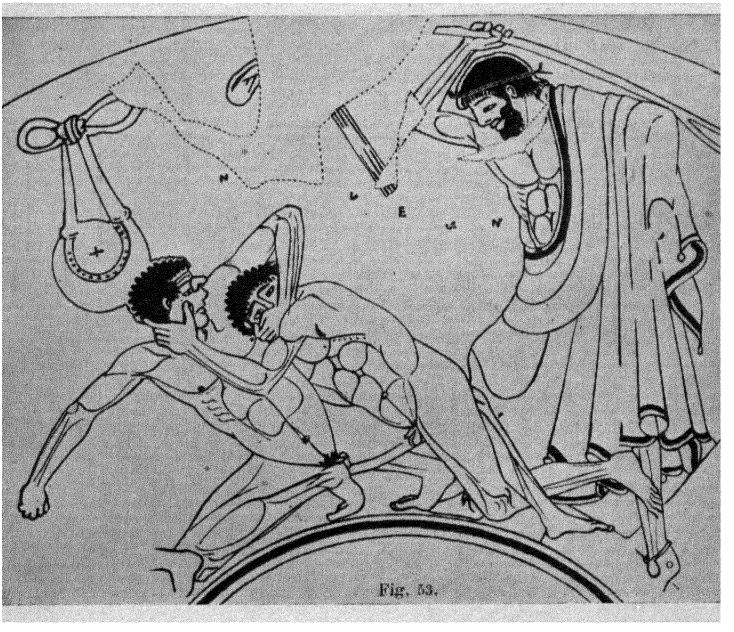


Fig. 53.

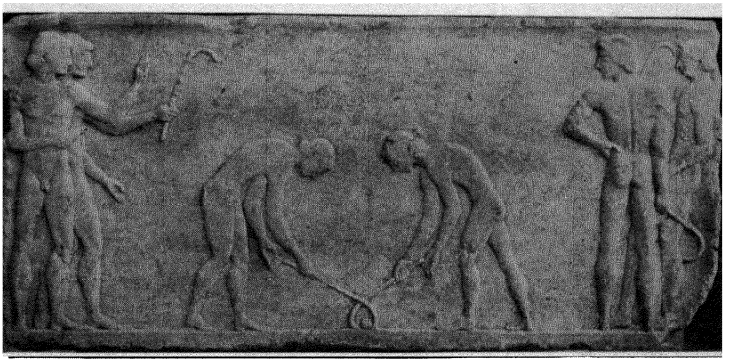
THE PANKRATION

One attempts to gouge the other's eye and receives a beating from the trainer. (From a kylix, British Museum.)

respect for strictly athletic or gymnastic contests and the Greeks were unable to maintain a national enthusiasm for them. The old gymnastics which aimed at complete development, exemplified in the pentathlon winners, gave way to athletics which implied prize-winning professionals, who trained for one event only. The more exciting and the more brutal events, the chariot races, the boxing and the pankration,

became the most popular. The boxers fastened lead and iron pieces to the thongs which were wrapped about their fists and science gave way to brute strength. The best people of Greece did not enter the games. Corruption and bribery was common. The officials at Olympia held out determinedly against this destructive influence, but could not remain entirely free from it.

Dancing and Ball Games.—The Athenians esteemed the dance almost wholly for its esthetic values and religious expression. In earliest times the gods were worshiped by very



THE GREEK HOCKEY GAME
(A statue base, National Museum, Athens.)

large groups of dancers, including men of noble rank. The dances were very simple, but from them evolved the more complicated Dionysaic or Bacchic, which required a trained chorus. Nearly every dramatic production demanded the presence of a chorus of singers and dancers who, in the absence of scenery, gave the setting the proper atmosphere. The Pyrrhic was also danced in Athens by the Ephebi. Frequently professional dancers, girls and men, entertained the guests at the symposium or drinking bout.

The games that served as a means of physical education and recreation were all played with balls. They played a game very much like hockey. Another game, called episkuros, in

which a large ball was kicked about, accounts for the statement that the Greeks played football.

V. Theories of Prominent Men

Opinions of Doctors and Philosophers.—Any activity as popular as was gymnastics would be sure to draw from the greatest minds opinions concerning its aims, values and theories. Socrates is reported by Xenophon as saying, "No citizen has a right to be an amateur in the matter of physical training; it is a part of his profession as a citizen to keep himself in good condition, ready to serve his state at a moment's notice. Finally what a disgrace it is for a man to grow old without ever seeing the beauty and strength of which his body is capable. . . . And in all the uses of the body it is of great importance to be in as high a state of physical efficiency as possible. Why even in the process of thinking, in which the use of the body seems to be reduced to a minimum, it is a matter of common knowledge that grave mistakes may often be traced to bad health" (*Memorablia* III–12).

Plato is said to have been nicknamed by his wrestling teacher because of his very broad shoulders. He, in all his writings, advocates physical training for its educational and military values, but deplores every tendency toward professionalism and competitions for the purpose of amusing an audience. In his *Protagoras,* speaking of children, "Then they send them to the master of Gymnastic, in order that the bodies may better minister to the virtuous mind, and that they may not be compelled through bodily weakness to play the coward in war or on any other occasion." In Book III of his famous *Republic* are found the following ideas: "Gymnastic as well as music should receive careful attention in childhood and continue through life. . . . Now my belief is not that the good body improves the soul but that the good soul improves the body. . . . Gymnastics will incline him to have as little as possible to do with medicine. . . . I believe

that the teachers of both [music and gymnastics] have in view chiefly the improvement of the soul."

Plutarch, the biographer and historian, in his *Morals* says, "In the next place the exercise of the body must not be neglected; but children must be sent to schools of gymnastics. This will conduce partly to a more handsome carriage and partly to the improvement of their strength. For the foundation of a vigorous old age is a good constitution of the body in childhood."

Euripides, although not entirely opposed to gymnastics, rebukes the nation for worshiping the athletes because of their victories. "Of all the countless evils through Hellas, there is none worse than the race of Athletes. . . . Whoever helped his fatherland by winning a crown for wrestling or for speed of foot, or hurling the discus or striking a good blow on the jaw? Will they fight the foe with disci in their hands or driving their fists through the foemen's shields?" (Fragment of the play, *Autolycus.*)

Aristotle thought that "the education of the body must precede that of the intellect, it clearly follows that we must surrender our children in the first instance to gymnastic and the art of the trainer. . . . Up to the age of puberty gymnastic exercises of a comparatively light kind should be applied, with a prohibition of hard diet and compulsory exercises, so that there may be no impediment to the growth."

Hippocrates and Galen wrote on the values of physical training and advised their patients to take exercises in the gymnasia as a means of recovering from ills and weaknesses. Galen said, "He is the best physician who is the best teacher of gymnastics." Medical gymnastics and massage were known to both Greeks and Romans. Hippocrates asserted that "Friction [may] be so violent that the body is made hard; so light that it is relaxed; so long-continued that it is decreased; so moderate that it is rounded."

Summary.—The Greek military, educational and religious system promoted and strove for the physical perfection of

its people. This ideal influenced every form of art and achievement. The finest odes left to us from Pindar and Bacchylides are inspired by the victors of the games. A part of Pindar's *Seventh Olympian Ode* in honor of Diagoras of Rhodes, who won the boxing match at Olympia in 404 B.C., translated into prose, runs as follows: "Of garlands from these games hath Diagoras twice won him crowns, and four times he had good luck at famous Isthmus, and twice following at Nemea and twice at rocky Athens and at Argos the bronze shield knoweth him and the deeds of Arcadia, and of Thebes and the yearly games Bœotian and Pellene and Aigina where six times he won; and the pillar of stone at Megara hath the same tale to tell."

The gods alone rival the athletes as subjects for the Greek sculptors. The naked contestants offered the carver of stone an opportunity to study the nearly perfect human forms in action; the result was that we have from their chisels the unexceled if not unequaled statuary of all time. For a great part of our knowledge concerning Greek athletics we are indebted to the vase painter, who so universally used the scenes of the palestra and gymnasium and of the games as a means of decoration. In the coin designs the athletes frequently displaced the statesmen and the gods. The true Greek gymnastics, exemplified especially in Athens, discouraged professionalism, brutality, and excitement, and encouraged complete development of the individual, fair play and nation-wide physical education for esthetic as well as utilitarian reasons. High ideals and noble objectives characterized the golden age of Greek gymnastics.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Alexander, Christine. "Greek Athletics." Excellent for pictures. Metropolitan Museum of Art. New York. 1925.

Aristotle. "Politics." Book VII, Sec. 17. Book VIII, Sec. 4–5.

Botsford, G. W. and Sihler, E. G. "Hellenic Civilization." See index on Education. New York. 1915.

Cubberley, Ellwood P. "The History of Education." Chap. I–II. Boston, 1920.

Depping, Guillaume. "Wunder der Körperkraft und Geschicklichkeit des Menschen." Historical for all periods and many sports. Very interesting. Berlin. 1870.

Die Leibesübungen. Heft 16. August, 1925. Pp. 377–382. Excellent article on swimming among the Greeks and Romans.

Diehl, Charles. "Excursions in Greece." Chap. VII. New York. 1893.
Encyclopedia Britannica and Americana. See Olympia and Olympian Games.
Euler, Karl. "Die Geschichte des Turnunterrichtes." 1881.
Forbes, Clarence A. "Greek Physical Education." New York. 1929.
Gardiner, E. N. "Greek Athletic Sports and Festivals." Best in English. London. 1910.
Graves, Frank P. "History of Education Before the Middle Ages." New York. 1909.
Grote, George. "History of Greece." Vol. IV. Chap. XXVIII. New York. 1899.
Gulick, Charles B. "The Life of the Ancient Greeks." Chaps. VI, VII, VIII and XIII. New York. 1902.
Hall, Jennie. "Buried Cities." See Olympia. New York. 1922.
Harper's "Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities." See Palaestra, Gymnasium, Olympia. New York. 1896. Any other classical dictionary contains similar descriptions.
Hirth, Georg. "Das Gesamte Turnwesen." Band I, pp. 5–230. On Greek and Roman gymnastics; includes "Die Wissenschaft der Gymnastik," by Flavius Philostratus. Leipzig. 1893.
Homer. "Illiad," 23rd Book. "Odyssey." Both in the Loeb Classical Library. New York. 1925.
Hyde, Walter Woodburn. "Olympic Victor Monuments and Greek Athletic Art." Best on athletic art in the English language. Washington, D. C. 1921.
Hyde, Walter Woodburn. "Athletic Reliefs from the Themistoclean Wall at Athens." Art and Archeology, Jan.–Dec., 1923, pp. 117–124.
Krause, Johann H. "Die Gymnastik und Agonistik der Hellenen." Leipzig. 1841.
Krause, Johann H. "Theagenes; Oder Wissenschaftliche Darstellung der Gymnastik, Agonistik und Festspiele der Hellenen." Halle. 1835.
Lucian. "Anacharsis or Athletics." Very interesting dialogue on Greek Athletics. Loeb Classical Library; Lucian Vol. IV. New York. 1925.
McClees, Helen. "The Daily Life of the Greeks and Romans as Illustrated in the Classical Collections of the Metropolitan Museum of Art." Chaps. VII to XI. New York. 1925.
Monroe, Paul. "Source Book in the History of Education for the Greek and Roman Period." New York. 1901.
Pausanias. "Description of Greece." Bk. V. Account of visit to Olympia.
Pindar. "Odes of Pindar." Loeb Classical Library. New York. 1925.
Plummer, Edward M. "Athletics and Games of the ancient Greeks." Cambridge, Mass. 1898.
Plummer, Edward M. "Toys and Games for Children Among Ancient Hellenes." Mind and Body, Aug., 1900, pp. 124–132.
Plutarch. "Lives." See Lycurgus. Sec. XII to XVII on Sparta. Loeb Classical Library. New York. 1914.
Robinson, Cyril E. "Days of Alcibiades." Chap. XI. London. 1916.
St. John, James A. "The History of the Manners and Customs of Ancient Greece." Vol. I, Bk. II, Chap. I, III, IV, V, VIII, and Bk. III, Chap. II. London. 1842.
Sargent, Rachel L. "The Story of Greek Athletics As Told by the Greek and Roman Writers of More than Twelve Centuries. Champaign, Ill. 1927.
Stobart, John Clark. "The Glory That Was Greece." Pp. 74 ff. London. 1915.
Tucker, Thomas George. "Life in Ancient Athens." Pp. 177 ff. New York, 1906.
Van Hook, La Rue. "Greek Life and Thought." Chap. VII to XI. New York. 1924.
Whibley, Leonard. "A Companion to Greek Studies." See Exercises, Games, Baths, Medicine and similar topics. Cambridge (England). 1916.

CHAPTER IV

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AMONG THE ROMANS

I. The Early Period

Physical and Moral Education.—Near the end of the Homeric Age of Greek History a small settlement of sturdy shepherds and shrewd traders gathered near the famous seven hills on the banks of the Tiber. They were industrious, frugal, and earnest; they were practical in their view of life, stern in dealing with their fellowmen, reverential in relation to their gods, and patriotic to their state, and determined to transmit these ideals to their children. The Roman father had undisputed control over his children and his wife. Disrespect might be punished severely and disobedience with slavery or death, but such measures were seldom necessary. The Roman matron was charged with the rearing of the children; she was honored and respected and given more freedom than were the Greek women, excepting the Spartans. These people seem to have come to the idea very early that some day their city would rule the world. The first duty of the family was to serve the nation and to that end rear robust children with true Roman ideals. Since there were no schools the homes were expected to give both moral and physical training and no homes ever discharged their duties more faithfully or more successfully. The parents in their daily and hourly contact with their children instilled in them pride of race, obedience, honesty, courage, industry, loyalty to the state, and reverence for the gods and the ancestors.

The Roman child, like the modern, had his cart, tops, hoop, stilts, balls, and pets. The people were warlike and ambitious and physical training was regarded as necessary to every

Roman. The father, who was usually a soldier, was charged with the duty of training his son. His aim of physical training was to produce strength, agility, endurance, hardiness, and skill in the use of sword, spear, shield, javelin, and in horsemanship. The Greek idea of gymnastics for grace, beauty, carriage, symmetry, or complete development of man could not have been understood by these early Romans. Virgil says (*Æneid* IX–603), "We carry our children to the icy streams and harden them in the bitter icy water; as boys they spend wake-



ROMAN CHILDREN PLAYING BALL

(From Johnston's "Private Life of the Romans." Scott, Foresman and Company.)

ful nights over the chase, and tire out the whirlwind, but in manhood, unwearied by toil and trained to poverty, they subdue the soil with their mattocks, or shake towns in war." In their play the boys competed with each other in swimming, wrestling, boxing, running and jumping, although there was no palestra as the Athenian boys had. The early Roman society more nearly resembled that of Sparta than of Athens.

The Twelve Tables, written in 450 B.C., summed up the social, political, and religious customs and ideals of Rome and made them the laws of the land. From that time on, in the home and in the schools which were later organized, the tables became the most important basis for literary and moral instruction; all children memorized them.

Between the fourteenth and seventeenth year the boy laid aside the toga prætexta and other insignia of childhood and with ceremony and rejoicing he dressed in the toga virilis

and his name was inscribed as a citizen of Rome. He was then subject to call to the army.

The Campus Martius.—This field, dedicated to the god of war Mars, lay outside the Servian walls. It was, first of all, a military parade ground and a training camp for soldiers. Male citizens, between the ages seventeen and forty-seven, might be drafted into the army when needed and discharged when the war was over. The military training was very severe and the discipline was strict. There were exercises in running, jumping, wrestling, riding, swimming, both naked and in armor, and sham battles. Wooden horses were used to train the recruit in leaping on and off the horse. They practiced long marches with very heavy equipment, including intrenching tools, shield, helmet, sword, spear, breast-plate, stakes for palisade, and food for seventeen days.

The Campus Martius was also a resort for young men who were not in the service of the country. Here on any afternoon they might be seen competing with each other in the ordinary athletics, swimming and games. Since boxing, running, jumping, and wrestling were not ends in themselves with the Romans they never attained such skill and technique as did the Greeks.

II. The Period of Expansion

The Effects of the Conquests on Roman Civilization.—Rome owed her success in war to the moral and physical training of the youth. By 264 B.C. almost all Italy had submitted to Roman power. At the end of the next century, Carthage, Spain, the Mediterranean Islands, a part of Gaul, Greece, and Asia Minor lay prostrate before the conquering armies. By 31 B.C., which marks the end of the Republic, the whole of the Mediterranean world was governed by Rome and for Rome. These conquests had an important and a very marked influence on Roman civilization. Contact with other nations, many of which were older and more advanced than Rome, gave the conquerors greater breadth of mind and opened the way for alteration if not destruction of the old Roman ideals.

Wealth displaced poverty; luxurious habits took the place of simple living; thousands of slaves, sent back by the armies, degraded free labor; cheap grain from Sicily and Africa compelled the Italian peasant to give up his farm and move to the capital, where he and others of his kind formed the idle and dangerous mob. The prolonged campaigns tended to develop a professional standing army rather than a citizen army.

As Rome became a world power and came in contact with the nations of superior intellectual attainments, a need arose for schools that might produce statesmen and orators; so the homes surrendered to these institutions and to the slave pedagogue the duty of training the youth. The elementary school taught reading, writing, and calculation; the grammar school taught the literature of Rome and later of Greece and also the Greek language; the school of Rhetoric gave instruction in oratory, composition, law, and other higher subjects. Although the organization and the methods and even the teachers and pedagogues were Greek, the Romans failed to accept the Greek idea that gymnastics and music were essential to a complete system of education. The Roman was too practical to see any value in music; and as for gymnastics, its real value was thought to be military. An ability to swim, however, was considered essential to every Roman. Complete ignorance was often expressed by the adage, "He has neither learned to read nor to swim."

The growth of luxury, the demands for intellectual training, and the establishment of the professional army tended to destroy the slight favor which the Roman masses had shown for physical training. At the same time there were arising national sports which were of no value to the physical development of the nation, but were of great danger to the life and limb of the participants and of debasing influence on the audience, the games of the circus and of the amphitheater.

The Circus.—The Circus Maximus was about 2,000 feet long and 600 feet wide and accommodated approximately 200,000 spectators. In the arena was a low wall called the

spina, around which the charioteers raced. There were, as a rule, four horses to each chariot and eight chariots to the heat. The entrants lined up about 400 feet from the end of the spina in an arc so that all were exactly equidistant from the end. At a given signal all dashed for the end of the spina in order to secure the inside position. The race was not fast, so far as time is concerned, but very dangerous and exciting. The sharp turns at the ends of the spina afforded the collisions and overturned chariots which the audience came to witness. These hazards required of the drivers caution, daring, and skill. Seven laps completed the race and varied from two to four miles. There were no fouls; driving against another chariot, tripping the horses and all kinds of trickery were encouraged. There were few races without casualties or deaths. The audience wagered large stakes on the success of their favorite driver or teams.

Gladiatorial Combats.—Even more debasing and destructive of true sportsmanship were the gladiatorial exhibitions in the amphitheaters. Here slaves and ruffians, trained for the purpose, fought their opponents, either man or beast, until death decided the issue. The emperors were ever in search for new methods of fighting, strange combats, and new varieties of wild animals, for the populace soon tired of the ordinary struggle between two soldiers. Men by the tens and hundreds were pitted against each other; authentic accounts state that the arena was often flooded and naval battles were staged, in which hundreds lost their lives. Training schools for gladiators have been found at Capua and Pompeii, consisting of a square field enclosed by buildings which contained trainers' quarters, kitchen, mess hall, property room, sleeping room, and guard house. The field was used for the exercises and combats.

The gladiator and the race driver (auriga) were the idols of the populace and, in the decadent period of Rome, were honored by all classes. If they were slaves they finally gained their freedom; if free they received substantial rewards in

money. Diocles, a Spaniard, entered 4,257 races, was victorious in 1,462 and won $1,800,000 in twenty-four years.

The Thermæ.—In early times the Romans were content with the sponge bath, usually cold, or a plunge in the Tiber for hygienic and disciplinary purposes. With the increase of wealth and luxury the government built the most magnificent public baths ever erected. At one time there were about 700 government baths. Some were much larger and finer than others and had arrangements for recreation and for social intercourse, these are usually called thermæ. The Therma of Diocletian accommodated about 1,600 bathers at once and that of Caracalla about 3,200. These institutions are similar to the late Greek gymnasia except that more space was given to bathing and less to gymnastic facilities and they were more luxurious. Bathing privileges were usually free to all, but at times an admittance fee of less than one cent was charged. One of the best preserved thermæ is in the city of Pompeii.

There were separate apartments provided for men and women. Near the entrance was the apodyterium or undressing room; pegs were in the wall on which to hang the clothing or slaves were present to care for it. A palestra with a field open to sky was incorporated in the therma. Here exercises and competitions of a light nature were engaged in to heighten the enjoyment of the bath and the evening meal. A sphæristerium was provided where balls of various sizes and weights were tossed about for recreation and amusement. At least one therma has remains of what appears to be a bowling alley. The unctorium was the room where the body might be oiled before the exercises and anointed after the bath. In the frigidarium was the cold bath with pool and basins. The tepidarium was a very warm room, sometimes without any water, where perspiration might be induced and where one might accustom himself to the heat before entering the still warmer caldarium. The caldarium was the hottest room in most of the baths, but some had the sudatorium in which the water was almost to the boiling point. After the hot bath the bather returned to the tepidarium and cooled slowly, using

the strigil and towels to remove the perspiration. Then to the unctorium for ointment and perfumes. He might then dress and stroll about the corridors or gardens with friends or he might seek the company of a poet, musician, philosopher, or a politician.

The Græco Roman Gymnastics.—It has been stated before that the conquest of Greece by the Romans had a bad influence on the Pan-Hellenic games. Unable to value gymnastics as a means of attaining beauty, symmetry of body, grace, complete development and harmony of body and soul, the conquerors hastened the decay, which had already begun under the later Greeks. Professionalism was encouraged, the more brutal and exciting sports came to be the most popular, money was given as prizes and that led to corruption and bribery. The games ceased to have any connection with general education; the moral values to be derived from friendly competitions were lost.



ROMANS PLAYING WITH INFLATED BALLS

(Johnston's, "Private Life of the Romans." By permission of Scott, Foresman and Company.)

Livy speaks of the first exhibition of Greek athletics in Rome in 186 B.C., but they did not prove popular and had no influence there. In the first century of the Christian era, Nero built a gymnasium and instituted the Neronia Games in which athletics had a part. Domitian, a few decades after that, built a magnificent stadium in the Campus Martius for athletics. All the writings about these institutions are in the Greek language, and the athletes and trainers were Greek. The Romans were the spectators, many of whom attended the games merely from curiosity to see the foreigners engage in their exhibitions.

Dancing and Ball Games.—In ancient times the sons of the proudest families of Rome practiced religious and military dances in public. But in the time of the republic it came to be a disgrace for a man to dance on any occasion. In the times

of the Empire some of the emperors introduced, for the amusement of the Roman populace, the Pyrrhic dance, usually executed by Greeks or by children. At the sumptuous Roman banquets the guests were entertained by professional and slave dancers, usually girls. In the theaters the pantomimic dancing which interpreted the love stories of the gods were enjoyed by all.

The Romans, like the Greeks, had a game resembling hockey and another similar to soccer called harpastum. Another game of throwing two balls at once to an opponent who was supposed to catch both of them was popular. Many private homes and the thermæ were provided with handball courts; the game was played similar to modern rules.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Cubberley, Ellwood P. "The History of Education." Chap. III. Boston. 1920.

Fowler, Wm. Warde. "Social Life at Rome in the Age of Cicero." Chap. X. New York. 1924.

Gibbon, Edward. "History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire." Vol. I, p. 646 ff. New York. 1845.

Graves, Frank P. "History of Education Before the Middle Ages." New York. 1909.

Hall, Jennie. "Buried Cities." See Pompeii. New York. 1922.

Harper's "Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities." See Balneae, Circus, Gladiators, Theatrum, Amphitheatrum, Thermae, Ludus, Campus Martius, Folles. New York. 1896.

Hirth, Georg. "Das Gesamte Turnwesen." Band I, pp. 5–230. On Greek and Roman gymnastics. Leipzig. 1893.

Johnston, Harold W. "Private Life of the Romans." pp. 215–310. Chicago. 1903.

Monroe, Paul. "Source Book of the History of Education for the Greek and Roman Period." Part II. New York. 1901.

Sandys, Sir John E. "A Companion to Latin Studies." Articles on Education, Public Games, and Medicine. Cambridge (Eng.). 1921.

Schrader, Carl L. "The Baths of Old." Deals with Greek and Roman Baths. Mind and Body, May, 1916, pp. 97–103.

Suetonius. Book VI, Article 12. On Nero's Games.

Tacitus. "Annals." Article XIV, Section 20–21. Contains note on the introduction of Greek games to Rome.

Thomas, Émile. "Roman Life Under the Caesars." Chap. IV. New York. 1899.

Virgil. "Æneid." Book V. Account of funeral games.

CHAPTER V

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE DARK AGES

I. Physical Contribution of the Teutonic Barbarians

The Decline of Rome.—Every phase of Roman society experienced a decay during the fourth and fifth centuries after Christ until the fall of the Roman Empire in the West in 476 A.D.

Among the many causes of the fall of Rome was depopulation. The numerous divorces, the few marriages, the low birthrate, the loss of man power through incessant civil wars and gladiatorial games, as well as, through suicide and homicide, tended to produce race suicide. A no less important cause was economic ruin. The decreasing number from whom taxes might be collected, the extravagance of the rich, the habit of giving grain to the populace, which not only wasted the public funds but encouraged pauperism, the slave system which exterminated free labor, all contributed to the ruin of Rome's financial and industrial stability.

Finally the moral and physical decay of the Roman stock is to be taken as a contributing factor in the ultimate overthrow of Rome as an empire. The last decades of Roman History offer unequaled scenes of private and public extravagance and debauchery. From the emperor's court to the rabble, sensual excess seemed to be the aim of existence. The cry of the mob was, "Bread and games," both of which were freely given. The period is memorable for its political corruption and dishonesty, and embezzlement of public funds. As one writer of the times said, "Virtue is the sentence of death." In the early times the Romans had believed that virtue was the greatest and most valued thing in life. Since that time the moral and

physical condition of the Roman had changed. The long wars had tended to exterminate the vigorous, hardy, self-reliant young men who had characterized the early armies; and those who were spared from the hostile swords frequently fell victim to luxurious living and effeminate manners. As the Empire approached its final collapse the young men, who should have borne arms in defense of the country, were enervated by luxury, wrecked physically by excesses and were frequently self-mutilated, so that they might escape the rigorous discipline and the dangers of war.

Into this decaying Empire there migrated whole nations of Teutonic barbarians from Northern Europe. Through several centuries the Romans had met them in occasional wars and were always able to retain the Rhine and the Danube as the northern frontier, but had never succeeded in conquering all Germany. In 376 A.D. the Visigoths began their successful invasion and the date 476 A.D. is usually taken as marking the end of the Roman Empire in the West. During that century the Visigoths occupied Spain, the Vandals seized Northern Africa, the Franks and Burgundians captured and settled in Gaul, the Angles and Saxons took Britain, and the Ostrogoths occupied Italy itself.

The Significance of the Invasions.—The immediate result of the introduction of millions of victorious barbarians into a weakened though highly civilized nation was to produce the "Dark Ages." Literature and learning ceased to advance and, indeed, was only preserved in Europe to future generations by taking refuge in a few obscure libraries and in the newly organized monasteries. Bridges, roads, harbors, and even public buildings were neglected. Centralized government was destroyed; all the great achievements of the ancients were endangered. Civilization had never before, nor has it since, experienced such a lapse.

Subsequent history has demonstrated that the barbarian invasion of the Roman Empire was a fortunate thing for the world. What then is their contribution to the world's progress? Simply their own bodies. Mentally they were bar-

barians, capable of assimilating a part of the civilization of the conquered Romans and ultimately of progressing far beyond that civilization. Physically they were a young, vigorous, and stalwart race; the large families of sturdy children reveal their virility. Their simple but active life had produced a race of giants, in comparison to the Romans. The barbarian family, held together by almost unbreakable marriage bonds, lived in a rude log hut with thatched roof. The skins of animals and crudely woven cloth served as garments and provided the only protection against the disagreeable mists and cold winds of the forest. The herding of cattle and sheep and the primitive farming constituted the principal occupation. Following the chase and competing in warlike sports offered recreation and, incidentally, training in warfare. Hospitable to strangers, but cruel to his enemies, loyal to his comrades, reckless in battle, he was a true barbarian unbridled and free.

The world needed a young stock of humanity to replace that of the Romans. Although it took centuries of Dark Ages and Middle Ages for the Teuton to rise even to the level of the culture of the Roman and Greek, the newly reconstructed society rested on firm foundations; namely, that of strong, virile physiques, the broad shoulders and strong constitutions of the Teutonic invaders. The greatest civilized nations of the world to-day are partly or entirely their descendants.

II. Status of Physical Education in the Early Christian Society

Early Christian Ideals.—In the midst of the dissolute and immoral society of the declining years of pagan Rome was molded the theology and the organization of the new religion of Christianity. Converts to the faith had to refrain from the worship of the gods of Rome and from the adoration of the emperor; they must not attend the games of the circus and the amphitheater or enjoy the luxuries of the bath; they should not fight in the army. On the other hand, they must, if need be, die for their leader Jesus Christ. Because the new sect

tended to set itself off from the Roman society, its members were misunderstood by many and despised by many and were soon marked for persecution.

The revolting social evils and the persecutions, combined with a firm belief in the immediate return of Christ, gave rise to the doctrine that the worldly and material things were not of God. The great emphasis which Christianity placed on the reward of eternal happiness, which was to be received hereafter, minimized the importance of achievements of pleasure or social position in this worldly existence. The joy with which the martyrs died revealed that fact. If life for its own sake was not worth living, but was to be regarded as merely a time to prepare for the next world, the conclusion was, that all human culture is folly and that one's life should be spent in prayer and penance and meditation. The pagan Greeks and Romans promoted art, architecture, literature and philosophy, and sought the development and perfection of both mental and physical powers, but a Christian might endanger his soul in such worthless and foolish pastimes. What is the status of physical education in a society with these doctrines and ideals? God deals with souls, not with bodies. The degenerate Romans cater to their bodies, they wash them, they ornament them, their every thought is of the sensual pleasure they derive from them; but bodies are mortal, the soul, however, is immortal. The early Christian was concerned about his soul, not his body. The Greek theory that body and soul harmonize into almost unity was challenged by the Christian theory that the body was of Satan and the soul of God and that they were antagonistic.

Theodosius, one of the early Christian emperors, abolished the Olympian games in 394 A.D. because they were pagan in their influence. As Christianity triumphed, the chariot races and other debasing sports of the Romans came to an end.

Asceticism and Physical Education.—When the East, especially Syria and Egypt, accepted Christianity, the idea that all worldly pursuits which gave pleasure were evil fastened itself to the religion and became the basis of asceticism.

Asceticism was the highest ideal of medieval Christianity. The word originally referred to the discipline and training which an athlete pursues in preparation for a contest. But in religion and modern usage it refers to a subjugation of the flesh with its passions and worldly desires so that the soul may rise unhampered to great spiritual heights. Nearly all Oriental religions have an ascetic phase and the holiest adherents of the faith are the ascetics.

When it was found difficult to subdue the flesh it was regarded as insubordinate and should be tortured. It follows, then, that asceticism and physical education in their treatment of the physical man are diametrically opposed. The earliest Christian ascetics were the hermits of Egypt and the Near East, of whom St. Anthony was one of the most famous. In caves and in the desert, these holy men sought refuge from the evils of the world and spent their lives praying and fasting and meditating on the hereafter. The more fanatical beat themselves until exhausted, or burdened themselves down with heavy weights or chains, or lay constantly on beds of thorns or sought out extraordinary forms of torment, for example, St. Simon, who lived on the tall pillar for twenty years. Hair shirts, which constantly pricked the flesh, were worn by monks in more recent times. In those days uncleanliness was next to Godliness and the ascetics were frequently infested with vermin and often diseased, all of which added to their discomfort. Such treatment of the body, accompanied by incessant brooding and meditation, must surely have deranged minds and opened the way for halucinations and visions similar to those which many ascetics are reported to have had.

III. Education Without Physical Education

In the Monasteries.—In about 529 St. Benedict organized the monasteries in Europe, where men who wished to lead a holy life might retire from the world with others who were so inclined. Monastic life was regarded as the ideal Christian life in the Middle Ages. The conduct of the monks was regu-

lated by detailed rules and enforced by strict discipline. Seven hours each day were devoted to manual labor and two hours to reading and study; the time was specified for prayer and meals and sleep. Manual labor was regarded as a means of subduing the flesh and escaping the evils of idleness and gave rise to the maxim "To Labor is to Pray." The site for a new monastery was frequently chosen in a swamp or on mountainous ground so that greater labor would be required to construct it and so that the results of the labors might be made more manifest.

With the overthrow of classical civilization by the barbarians, the monastery and the church and a few libraries became the sole depositories of learning. The monks rendered great service to the subsequent centuries by preserving some of the classical learning and by keeping records of the events of the time and by reproducing the works of many authors which might otherwise have been lost to modern times. The monastery schools and those of the cathedrals, which were usually taught by monks, were the only institutions of learning in the Middle Ages, with a very few exceptions, until the time of the universities. In these schools reading and writing and a meager knowledge of calculation was taught, all of which had a religious aim. In no school of the Middle Ages could physical education have found a place; for education, in its aim, method, and content, was dominated by aceticism.

In the Medieval University.—In the twelfth century there arose, partly from the cathedral schools and partly spontaneously, a large number of universities. Among the most famous were the universities of Paris, Bologna, and Salerno. These institutions were quite free from civil and ecclesiastical control. The students numbered into the thousands and were of all ages. Many of them begged for a living, others did any work they could find to do, still others, who preferred not to stay at one university, wandered about from one to another. The subjects, grammar, rhetoric, logic, astronomy, mathematics, law, medicine, and theology, were taught by means of lectures of the professor and debates by the students.

All subjects were taught in accordance with and supplementary to the theological doctrines of the time.

No place was given for athletic sports or physical education, consequently the leisure time of the students was taken up in boisterous pranks, drinking, gambling and carousals, and riots in the town, which frequently ended in serious fights between "town and gown." So frequent became these fights that the method and place of trial of the students came to be specified in the charter of the university. One of the arguments, frequently given for the promotion of modern college and high school athletics, is that they tend to prevent just the things that happened in the medieval university.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Adams, George B. "Civilization During the Middle Ages." New York. 1913.

Bintz, Julius. "Die Leibesübungen des Mittelalters." Gütersloh. 1880.

Encyclopedias, Britannica, Americana, New International. See Monastery, University, Asceticism.

Graves, Frank P. "History of Education During the Middle Ages and the Transition to Modern Times." New York. 1910.

Kingsley, Charles. "The Roman and the Teuton." London. 1901.

Monroe, Paul. "A Text-Book in the History of Education." New York. 1905.

Munro, Dana C. "The Middle Ages." Chap. III. New York. 1926.

Munro, Dana C. and Whitcomb M. "The Middle Ages and Modern Europe." Chaps. XII and XV. New York. 1903.

Tacitus. "Germania." Treats of the lives of the early Germans. Loeb Classical Library. London. 1920.

Thatcher, O. J. and McNeal, E. H. "Source Book for Medieval History." Chap. VIII deals with Monasticism. New York. 1907.

Workman, Herbert B. "Evolution of the Monastic Ideal From the Earliest Times Down to the Coming of the Friars." London. 1913.

CHAPTER VI

PHYSICAL TRAINING IN THE AGE OF CHIVALRY

Feudal Society.—With the invasions of the Teutonic barbarians, centralized government in Europe became impossible. In its place arose feudalism, which provided a social, economic, military, and political system for society. The system grew out of the lawlessness and barbarism of the time. The weak sought the protection of the strong and added strength to the already powerful. The great landed noble became the lord and those who sought his protection the vassals. In spite of the teaching of chivalry and the prohibitions of the Church, the mailed fist generally ruled Europe. The lord who had a great following of vassals, sworn to serve him as trained knights, defied the king himself and usurped royal prerogatives in the immediate locality with impunity. The great mass of landless people sank to the position of serfdom and, in order that they might have land to till, they pledged to surrender to the lord a part of the product of their labor, and to pay certain other dues and penalties. Their lot was to toil, that of the clergy to pray, and that of the nobility was to fight, to govern, and to engage in sports. A feudal army consisted of a lord or several lords, their vassals and their vassals' vassals, and so on down the scale to the serfs, but not including them. Private warfare was so prevalent that the nobles came to build fortified dwellings, the castles with moats, massive walls and battlements.

The Middle Ages offered only two fields of endeavor to the young nobleman, namely, the church and chivalry. The former required a literary and religious education pursued in the quiet atmosphere of a monastery or a cathedral; the latter

demanded a physical and military education and a training in social conduct, pursued in the active, gay, and pleasurable life of the castles of the high nobles. Needless to say, the great majority chose the training for knighthood.

Training for Knighthood.—At the age of seven the noble's son left his father's home to take up residence and begin training as a page in the castle of his father's lord. Here, in company with other boys, he played ball, marbles, seesaw, chess, and, in the later period, tennis; he imitated the active life about him and learned by observation many rudiments of chivalry. The purposive conscious training was in the



BOYS PLAYING TOURNAMENT WITH A QUINTAIN

(From Graves, "A Student's History of Education," by permission of The Macmillian Company.)

hands of a lady who took upon herself the responsibilities of training a page; and in return for her attention the page devoted himself to her and served her at all times and in all capacities. Under her direction the page learned to sing and to compose songs, to play the harp and dance, to dress properly, to be polite and respectful, when and how to speak in social gatherings, to be tactful, how to conduct himself at the various important ceremonies and occasions. He was given religious instruction, taught to say prayers and to reverence the Church and its officials.

The page learned his lessons in actual service about the castle. It was his duty to wait on the table; to carry in the food and dishes, to bring water and towels for the guests, to carve the meat and pour the wine. He was always the errand

boy and frequently the messenger of important news. Although the food and bed of the page was rarely different from that of the remainder of the household, it seems, in some localities, there prevailed a Spartan attitude toward the page; and, no doubt, in main the lot of the varlet was no easy one.

Toward the close of the seven years as page he helped the court in their sports of falconry, by scaring up the birds to be chased and carrying extra falcons. He had to learn to ride, for it might be necessary to send him with messages to the neighboring castles. With the other pages he practiced swimming, running, jumping, fencing, boxing, and also climbing around the walls of the castle.

At about fourteen the boy passed into the status of a squire. He was still attached to his mistress and continued to serve at the table, but more and more emphasis was placed on training for the most important activity of knighthood, fighting. He also attached himself to some knight and accepted as his task the polishing and repairing of the armor and weapons, the care of the horses and other general service. In time of war he accompanied his lord, prepared him for battle and watched him through the fight. If the knight's horse was killed, the squire brought another; if the lance or sword broke, he replaced it; if the knight was captured, the squire attempted a rescue; if he was set upon by more than one opponent at once the squire would join in the fight; if prisoners were taken, the squire guarded them. These responsibilities demanded intensive training.

The spare moments of the squires were spent in running long races on foot as a means of procurihg endurance; in constructing ladders of crude material and practicing the scaling of walls with them; in scaling walls without ladders; in swimming with and without armor. Practice in fencing and swordsmanship was engaged in. The most important training was for horsemanship and for mounted combat. To mount and dismount gracefully, both at a stand and at full gallop, was practiced. To manage the horse and to carry the shield and use the various weapons effectively at the same time re-

quired years of training. The lance was a long sturdy spear with a thick shaft and an iron point, which, when fixed for action, projected six or seven feet in front of the horse's head. It took strength of arm and accuracy of aim to ride at full speed and deliver the lance head against an opponent who was also moving. The squires constructed various targets for tilting; the most common was some form of the quintain. It might be a cross with a sandbag on one arm, and when the squires struck the target on the other arm the cross turned



KNIGHTS AND SQUIRES PRACTICING WITH THE QUINTAIN
(From West's "Modern Progress." By permission of Allyn and Bacon.)

on a pivot and dealt the attacker a blow with the bag of sand unless he was quick enough to escape it. Other quintains struck back only when they were not hit squarely. Training for accuracy was also secured by thrusting at the ring. In this exercise an iron ring was suspended in the air and the squires charged at full speed endeavoring to place the lance point through the ring and carry it free from its support. Along with the training in the use of the lance came the exercises with the sword and mace and battle-ax, in sham combat with an opponent and with a dummy. It was also understood

that the squire should discipline himself to withstand heat, cold, fatigue, and loss of sleep.

If, at the age of twenty-one, the squire had mastered the arts of chivalry, the ceremonies which were to create him a knight were arranged. First he cut off a lock of hair, then took a bath of purification and dressed in pure white. The night preceding the event was spent in prayer, meditation, and fasting before the altar of the chapel, with the new armor and weapons near. At dawn he made confession and took the sacrament. At the appointed time the court assembled to witness the ceremonies. The squire knelt before the lord to receive the accolade which was bestowed with appropriate words charging him to be a true knight. Then the new knight was assisted into his armor and, last of all, the sword, blest by the priest, was buckled on; then came the exhibition in the courtyard, where he demonstrated how worthy he was to be so honored.

Aim of Physical Educaton in the Age of Chivalry.—The knight did not practice physical exercise in order to attain complete development, nor to establish harmony between body and soul, nor was he directed by any other lofty Greek ideal. He had nothing in common with the national patriotism of the Roman; rather he was seeking an ability that was to be highly utilitarian and very individualistic. The law of the fist necessitated a vigorous training for self-protection and self-preservation; society and religion approved of the brave and skillful fighting man; the leisure of the nobility made possible the long period of training and the profession of knight; the sports served as another incentive to attain a high degree of skill in horsemanship and the use of the weapons.

During the feudal period physical education was completely divorced from intellectual education; they had nothing in common, neither aims nor methods. Intellectual education was for the scholar and clergyman, and physical education was for the knight. Hygiene and sanitation was never practiced in the castle or in the hut, consequently the death rate

was extremely high, disease was always prevalent and epidemics, which decimated a district, were frequent.

The Tournaments and Jousts.—The medieval tournaments served both as a training for war and as an amusement. The joust was the engagement of two knights, tilting with lances; it might be occasioned by a chance meeting or the result of a wager or it might be held in the lists under the regulations of the sport. A tournament was a contest arranged by a king or high noble for the participation of many knights in order to exhibit and reward chivalric skill and bravery and to afford sociability and amusement.

The place of combat, known as the lists, was an oval-shaped field with seats arranged on each side. At the ends the contestants were stationed. The gay court of ladies, noblemen, and clergy assembled in splendid medieval pomp and pageantry; the knights wore a gift-token from their lady-love and fought for her favor as well as for his own honor and fame. The contending knights were prepared for the contest by their squires; the lances were tested; the man and horse were clad in armor. The heralds read the rules of the joust and tournament. No pointed weapons were used. The lance head was blunted, only the broad sword without point was permitted and the mace and battle-ax might be barred.

If the event was a joust the contending knights placed themselves at opposite ends of the lists; set the lance firmly in position and at the blast of the trumpet, mingled with the cries of their admirers, they dashed forward at full speed, bent low in the saddle, aiming the hard spearhead at the helmet or breast-plate of the opposing knight. If both failed to strike their mark the horses were wheeled about and another charge followed. If A rammed B with sufficient force to unhorse him, A was declared the winner. If during several charges, square hits were made with such force as to break the shafts but neither was unhorsed, the one who broke the greater number of shafts was judged the winner. Sometimes the rule was that when one was unhorsed, the other dismounted

and continued the combat on foot; since both were incased in armor and no pointed weapons were permitted, the fight continued for a long time without much result unless one had been wounded in the fall or soon became exhausted.

In a tournament proper a group of knights galloped from each end of the lists to the middle and quickly chose an op-



THE PRELIMINARIES AND THE END OF A COMBAT

(From Grave's, "A Student's History of Education." By permission of The Macmillan Company.)

ponent, then turned back to the position to await the signal for the charge. Then all dashed forward to defeat their opponent with one blow; the unhorsed were trampled under foot; those with broken lances drew their swords; those with lances charged again into the mêlée; furious and unregulated fighting took the field, which resulted in many serious wounds and considerable loss of life. When a great tournament ended in more deaths than usual the Church endeavored to end the

sport, but always failed. Dancing, feasting, and awarding of prizes in the castle ended the day of tournament and joust.

In the sixteenth century the tournament became little more than a grand pageant and served as a pretext to show fine horses and beautiful armor and to hold a social gathering. The rules of the game were altered so that it became a safe pastime. The change came partly as a result of the new methods of warfare. From the eleventh to the fifteenth century the cavalry of knights was the best fighting force; but with the increase in the use of missile weapons and the invention of the musket, a serf, so equipped, proved to be a better soldier than a knight. For many reasons the age of serfs, nobles, and castles, in short, feudalism, was past.

Relation of Physical Education to Methods of Warfare.—The common methods of warfare from the earliest times to the decline of the feudal period demanded a training in bodily strength, endurance, skill and accuracy in thrusting, striking, parrying, and hurling and necessitated the accompanying characteristics of courage and self-reliance. The conflicts were man to man and hand to hand; the better won and the weaker met death. With the invention of missiles and the machinery of war, hand-to-hand combat came to be of minor importance; the enemy was now defeated at a distance; victory was dependent on the numbers of men and the accuracy of shooting and the amount of effective machinery of war in action. Death on the battlefield came as a matter of chance rather than as the result of physical weakness. The progress in warfare has led to an increasing divergence in the aims and methods of military training and those of physical training. This divergence has also been augmented because the one draws its objectives from the possibility of war and the other from peaceful society.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Adams, George B. "Civilization During the Middle Ages." New York. 1913.

Bintz, Julius. "Die Leibesübungen des Mittelalters." This work includes all popular sports. Güterloh. 1880.

Cornish, F. Warre. "Chivalry." New York. 1901.

Doran, John. "Knights and Their Days," pp. 1–50. New York. 1856.

Encyclopedias, Britannica, Americana and New International. See Joust, Tournament, Armor, Page.

Monroe, Paul. "A Text-Book in the History of Education." New York. 1905.

Munro, Dana C. "The Middle Ages." Chap. XII and pp. 313–316. New York. 1926.

Munro, D. C. and Whitcomb, M. "The Middle Ages and Modern Europe." Chap. XIII and XIV. New York. 1903.

Strutt, Joseph. "The Sports and Pastimes of the People of England." A very old and interesting work. Reprinted. London. 1898.

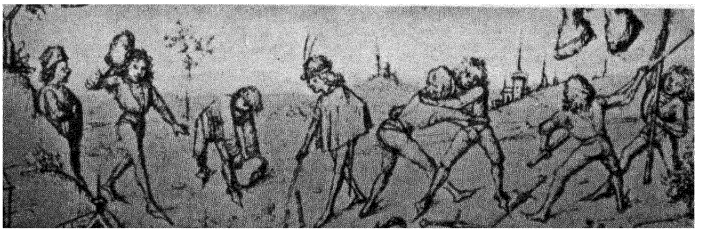
Tappan, Eva March. "When Knights Were Bold." Elementary. New York. 1911.

Thatcher, O. J. and McNeal, E. H. "Source Book for Medieval History." Chap. VI deals with Feudalism. New York. 1907.

CHAPTER VII

PHYSICAL EDUCATION DURING THE RENAISSANCE

Meaning of the Renaissance.—The name Renaissance is given to the transitional period in European History which closes the Middle Ages and ushers in the modern times. During the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, feudalism gave way to monarchy, private warfare to comparative peace, provincialism to nationalism, barter to commerce, ignorance of geography to discovery and exploration, institutionalism to individualism, superstition to investigation, faith



SOME CONTESTS OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY
(From a contemporary drawing.)

to reason, asceticism to esthetics, preparation for the hereafter to enjoyment of the present, other-worldliness to worldliness and, finally, handwritten manuscripts to printed books. At the same time came a widespread interest in the civilization of Greece and Rome, because of the fact that those countries had a society similar to that which Europe was entering upon. All who were touched with the Renaissance spirit found satisfaction in the study of classic philosophy, literature, and art. This emphasis upon things human rather

than divine is called Humanism. The Humanists endeavored to revive and then imitate the literature of the classics both as to content and style.

Some of the great leaders of the Renaissance were Petrarch, Boccaccio, Erasmus, Michelangelo, Raffael, Da Vinci, Diaz, De Gama, Columbus, Galileo and Harvey. The great humanist educators will be discussed later.

What the Renaissance Meant to Physical Education.—In any society that promotes individualism and recognizes the worth of this life, the care and development of the body assume a place of importance. When the Humanists discovered the civilization of Greece and Rome they were, of course, struck with the important consideration given to the physical man in those societies; consequently nearly all Humanist educators wrote on the necessity of physical education.

The Renaissance gave to Europe a system of secondary education and the names of the institutions were taken from the Greeks, for example, the German gymnasium, the French lycée, and the English academy; however, they resembled the original Greek gymnasia only in name.

Compayré says, "The education of the Middle Ages, over rigid and repressive, which condemned the body to a régime too severe and the mind to a discipline too narrow, is to be succeeded, at least in theory, by an education broader and more liberal; which will give due attention to hygiene and physical exercises . . . which will seek to develop the whole man, mind and body, taste and knowledge, heart and will."

Thoughts of Humanist Educators on Physical Education. The earliest teachers with Humanist views taught in the court schools of northern Italy during the fifteenth century.

Vittorino Da Feltre was called from the University of Padua to the court of the Prince of Mantua to teach the children of the nobility. Da Feltre's methods and subject-matter were in great contrast to those of the monastic and cathedral schools. The institution lived up to its name, "The Pleasant House," and enrolled forty bright and happy children, eager to learn and anxious to please their schoolmaster

who, instead of ruling them with fear, lured them to their lessons with kindness and understanding. Da Feltre, first, because he was a Humanist and, secondly, because he was instructing some boys who would one day be expected to bear arms, had great regard for health and physical exercise. The children were guarded in their diet, and discouraged in the use of artificial heat. Daily exercises regardless of weather conditions were compulsory. In addition to playing the games of childhood, the children, were taught riding, fencing, archery, and ball playing. Competitions were held and proficiency was encouraged in wrestling, running, leaping, and swimming. The teachers frequently took the school on long hikes through the country, both for the physical and for the educational benefits to be derived from them. Da Feltre's aims in physical education were to discipline the body so that health might ever be present, that the rigors of war might be endured, and that weapons might be handled with good results. However, Da Feltre understood that the hours spent in play and in games served as a rest and recreation and tended to promote the learning of other lessons. He was one of the first schoolmasters to discover that ability to learn is partially dependent on physical condition; and, excepting for the Greeks, he was also the first to devise special exercises for invalid children.

Pietro Vergerio, of Padua and Florence, wrote an educational treatise, "De ingenius moribus," in which he discussed first, education for character; second, liberal studies; and third, "Bodily Exercises and Training in the Art of War," and finally, "Recreation." A few quotations from his work follow: "But where an active frame is conjoined to a vigorous intellect a true education will aim at the efficient training of both—the Reason that it may wisely control, the Body that it may properly obey. So that if we be involved in arms we may be found ready to defend our right or to strike a blow for honor or power. . . . Now war involves physical endurance as well as military skill." He then says that the boy must "be gradually inured to privations and grave exertion, to enable him to bear strain and hardship when he reaches



OUTDOOR SPORTS OF THE RENAISSANCE

(Note the weight throwing, running, wrestling, and fencing contests.)

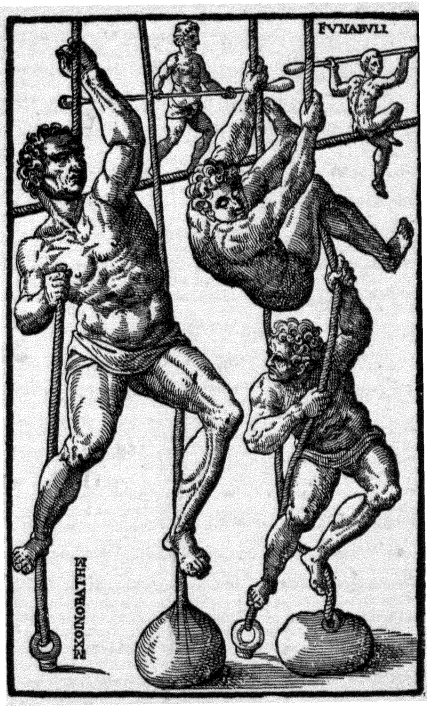
manhood." Further, the boy should be "exercised in activity and courage by feats of strength or dangers of the field; in endurance by bearing heat and cold, hunger and thirst. For as luxury enervates mind and body alike, so exertion fortifies both. . . . In choice of bodily exercises those should be

adopted which serve to maintain the body in good health and to strengthen the limbs; and thus it will be necessary to consider to some extent the case of each individual boy. . . . In childhood much care must be taken lest the growth be hindered, or the nerves of the body be strained by severe exertion; but, as youth develops, this may be slowly increased. The order perhaps to be observed is this; in childhood, learning first; in youth, morals, with physical exercises, varying in degree, for all." Then followed advice on the specific training for war. Finally, "But as we are not so constituted that we are able to bestow ourselves all day long upon our ordered tasks, I will now set forth the true place of recreation." Vergerio then denounces "debasing games or such as cannot develop bodily gifts or powers of will." He favors "the sharp exertion of ball-play, the best refreshment alike for jaded spirits and for bodily fatigue."

Pius II, a pope of very marked humanist ideas, wrote to a young prince concerning education as follows: "As regards a boy's physical training, we must bear in mind that we aim at implanting habits which will prove beneficial through life. So let him cultivate a certain hardness which reflects excess of sleep and idleness in all its forms. . . . A boy should be taught to hold his head erect, to look straight and fearlessly before him, and to bear himself with dignity whether walking, standing, or sitting. . . . For such physical training not only cultivates grace of attitude but secures the healthy play of our bodily organs and establishes the constitution. . . . Games, too, should be encouraged for young children—the ball, the hoop—but these must not be rough and coarse but have in them an element of skill. Such relaxations should form an integral part of each day's occupations if learning is not to be an object of disgust. . . . In respect of eating and drinking the rule of moderation consists in rejecting everything which needlessly taxes the digestion and impairs mental activity. . . . What but disease and decay can result from appetite habitually over-indulged? Such concessions to the flesh stands condemned by all the great spirits of the past."

Three outstanding leaders of the sixteenth century were Sir Thomas Elyot, Roger Asham and Hieronymus Mercurialis.

Sir Thomas Elyot was an English Humanist who wrote "The Governor," a treatise on education. After discussing



CLIMBING EXERCISES AS ILLUSTRATED IN "DE ARTE GYMNASTICA," BY MERCURIALIS,' 1672

intellectual and moral education he discourses on recreation. Elyot agreed with all Humanists that the mind and body need recreation and that long hours of study should be broken by play and exercise. He was also aware of the physical benefit to be derived from games and exercises, for example, tennis, fencing, dancing, archery, wrestling, running, riding, swimming, and dumbbells.

Roger Asham, an English Humanist and a professor at Cambridge, wrote "The Schoolmaster." He advocated a study of the Latin and Greek authors as a means of obtaining a liberal education, and recognized the importance of physical education. Asham urged that young men "engage in all courtly exercises and gentlemanly pastimes. . . . All pastimes joined with labor, used in open place and in daylight, containing either some fit exercise for war or some pleasant pastime for peace, be not only comely and decent but also very necessary for a courtly gentleman to use." Asham also appreciated the value of exercises as a means of resting the mind that it may be sharper at a later time. . . . "The best wits to learning must need have much recreation and ceasing from their books, or else they mar themselves, when base and dumpish wits can never be hurt by continual study."

Hieronymus Mercurialis, a famous Italian physician, wrote a treatise, "De arte gymnastica," in which he called the attention of his contemporaries to the gymnastics of the ancients. His work was historical and descriptive and he recommended the revival of the practice of gymnastics for the sake of health and individual welfare.

Opinions of the Reformers Concerning Physical Education.—When the Humanistic spirit crossed the Alps the tendency to enjoy life became a desire to seek into the meaning of life; education for self-realization became education for social uplift; the study of the classics for pleasure and culture gave way to their examination for the light they might throw on the meaning of the Scriptures; training for good manners and courage became training for piety and character; literary education was replaced by religious education, especially in those countries that experienced a Protestant reformation. In the lands of Luther, Calvin, Zwingli, Knox, and other reformers the emphasis was again on the salvation of the soul rather than on the joy of living and preparation for life, but they did not preach salvation through asceticism or even through the Church alone. The reformers taught that the Holy Bible was the only source of religious truth and that

one's salvation depended on his understanding of and his faith in its teaching. The Protestant sects were therefore logically compelled to organize schools for boys and girls where at least reading and writing and religion could be taught and so the Reformation may be regarded as the cradle of the elementary school system of Europe.

Luther was determined that schools should be established in every Lutheran parish. In his famous "Letter to the Mayors and Aldermen of the Cities of Germany" he outlined the course of study and methods to be used in these schools. He believed in gymnastic exercises because they were good for both the body and the soul. He said, "It was well considered and arranged by the ancients that the people should practice gymnastics that they might not fall into reveling, unchastity, gluttony, intemperance, and gaming. Therefore, these two exercises and pastimes please me best, namely, music and gymnastics, of which, the first drives away all care and melancholy from the heart, and the latter produces elasticity of the body and preserves the health. But the great reason for these pastimes is that the people may not fall into gluttony, licentiousness, and gambling as is the case, alas! at courts and in cities. Thus it goes when such honorable and manly exercises are neglected."

Johannes Bugenhagen and Philip Melanchthon, the great organizers of the Lutheran Reformation, became the founders of the Volksschule and the Gymnasium respectively. They arranged no place in the course of study for physical education but encouraged games and athletic competitions when time permitted outside of school hours.

The Decline of Liberal Education.—Following the models of Melanchthon, Sturm organized and named the first German Gymnasium in Strassburg. His school organization remained almost unchanged until modern times. When John Colet organized the humanistic school of St. Paul in England he formed the model for the English and American grammar schools. All these institutions very rapidly lost their original aim, and the main course of study came to be the languages

of Greece and Rome, not the literature or civilization; and instead of giving a liberal education and a preparation for life work they came to prepare only for institutions of higher learning. It naturally followed that training of the body was neglected and was not considered of sufficient importance to receive attention in the schools.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Ascham, Roger. "The Scholemaster." Edited by Edward Arber. Heath's Pedagogical Library. Vol. XXXII, pp. 134–135. Boston. 1898.

Bogeng and others. "Die Geschichte des Sports Aller Völker und Zeiten." Lieferung 3. Published by Seemann at Leipzig, 1925.

Compayré, Jules Gabriel. "The History of Pedagogy." Chap. V. Boston. 1885.

Elyot, Sir Thomas. "The Boke Named the Gouernour." Book I, Sections 16–20, on Exercise and Dancing. Book III, Section 22, on Diet. Everyman's Library.

Euler, Karl. "Die Geschichte des Turnunterrichtes." 1881.

Graves, Frank P. "History of Education During the Middle Ages and the Transition to Modern Times." New York. 1910.

Laurie, Simon S. "Studies in the History of Educational Opinion From the Renaissance." Cambridge (Eng.). 1903.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. VIII. Good bibliography. Philadelphia. 1923.

Quick, R. H. "Essays on Educational Reformers." Chap. I–II. New York. 1912.

Woodward, W. H. "Da Feltre and Other Humanist Educators." Cambridge (Eng.). 1897.

CHAPTER VIII

OPINIONS OF REALIST EDUCATORS ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Meaning of Realism.—The name realist is given to those educators of the later Renaissance period who revolted against the formal drill on Latin and Greek grammar, which characterized the secondary schools of Europe after the true spirit of Humanism began to wane. They advocated, instead of the narrow study of Latin and Greek words, a study of the real things of life. The Humanist-Realist agreed that art, architecture, medicine, law, mathematics, and agriculture could best be studied through the classic authors; but the classics must be read and studied for their content and not for their style. The Social-Realists believed that the aim of education should be to prepare one for a life career. They held that there were many good things in the classics but that not all of the valuable knowledge was contained there; further that knowledge was not the end of education, but rather the training of the mind, judgment, and character should be regarded as the true aim. The Sense-Realists were influenced by the new discoveries in science and emphasized the fact that nearly all the knowledge worth having could best be obtained through the senses; from objects, not words about objects; from observation and experience.

Relation of Realism to Physical Education.—As long as the schools were narrow in their curriculum and the emphasis was placed on the mastery of classic language and Ciceronian style, and as long as the institution was regarded as a means of preparation for the university or at most a scholarly vocation rather than a preparation for participation in society, little place is to be expected for physical education. But the Realists, who advocated the training of the individual to meet

the conditions of society, could not fail to restore physical training to an important position.

The Humanist-Realists.—François Rabelais, one of the greatest of the French educational theorists of the sixteenth century, wrote a satire on the contemporary education and published his own views in a famous book called, "The Life of Gargantua." The hero Gargantua was first subjected to the methods and subject matter of the usual Latin grammar school and after several years of such training he "did profit nothing; but, which is worse, grew thereby a fool, a sot, a dolt, and a blockhead." Then an ideal tutor, Ponocrates, was secured, and after Gargantua was given a pill to make him forget all that he had learned, his education began again. Needless to say he studied the content of the classic authors and due care was taken for his physical welfare. Gargantua practiced difficult feats of horsemanship, the wielding of arms, the lance and the battle-ax, throwing the spear, exercises in swordsmanship and the pastime of hunting. "He played at the great ball and made it bound in the air both with fist and foot. He wrestled, ran, and jumped. . . . He did swim in deep waters on his face, on his back, sidewise, with all his body, with his feet only, and with one hand in the air." He practiced diving "into pits and gulfs. . . . He did cast the dart, throw the bar, put the stone, practice the javelin, the boar-spear or partizan, and the halbert." In addition to this he shot at targets with the strongest bows and cross-bows; climbed ropes and trees and scaled the walls. When weather did not permit these outdoor activities, manual labor was to be provided indoors.

John Milton, the great English poet of the seventeenth century, wrote a "Tractate of Education" in which he set forth the ideas of the Humanist-Realists. His famous definition of education, "I call therefore a complete and generous education that which fits man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war," reveals his realism. Milton first found fault with the contemporary education and then set up his

own imaginary Academy for "gentlemen's sons" between the ages of twelve and twenty-one. The boys "should divide their day's work into three parts as it lies orderly;—their Studies, their Exercises, and their Diet." In regard to the exercises, "Therefore about an hour and a half, ere they eat at noon, should be allowed them for exercise and due rest afterwards. . . . The exercise which I commend first is the exact use of their weapon, to guard and to strike safely with edge or point; this will keep them healthy, nimble, strong, and well in breath, is also the likeliest means to make them grow large and tall and to inspire them with a gallant and fearless courage. They must be also practiced in all the locks and grips of wrestling, wherein Englishmen were wont to excel, as need may often be in fight, to tug or grapple and to close." Then while they are "unsweating themselves" he recommends recreation "both with profit and delight" in either playing or listening to the "solemn and divine harmonies of music"; he also advocates such recreation after meals.

At the giving of an alarm all are called out to military exercises, either on foot or on horse, and are daily trained in the "rudiments of soldiership in all the skill of embattling, marching, encamping, fortifying, besieging, and battering, with all the helps of ancient and modern stratagems, tactics and warlike maxims."

Summary of Humanist-Realists' Views.— Like many other educators, Rabelais and Milton have in mind training of gentlemen's sons only and the former thinks only of the tutor method, consequently the physical training must be for gentlemanly sports, pastimes, and duties. The days of chivalry had not past so long ago but that the gentleman was recognized as the fighting man and the leader in war; he should have knightly bearing and be ready to preserve his honor in duels if necessary. Milton wrote his tractate in the midst of the civil war between the Royalists and the Parliamentarians; he was a partisan to the latter group and it is likely that the conditions of the time are responsible for the militaristic tinge of his ideas on physical education. Even wres-

tling is to be taught, because fighting sometimes demands close quarters. The Humanist-Realists failed to value play and games as a means of recreation, pleasure, and social training, but thought of them as training in skill, alertness, courage, and similar attainments. Every hour of the day should be given up to some exercise or study of utilitarian value and its use must be obvious. The poetic and esthetic nature of Milton is revealed in the advocacy of the music hour; he said that the divine harmonies "have a great power over dispositions and manners, to smooth and make them gentle." But not even the poet was able to see the beautiful in the human figure and its motions as the Greeks had done.

The Social-Realists of the Sixteenth Century.—Michael De Montaigne, the great French essayist, wrote "The Education of Children." Space in this text will not permit an adequate exposition of the excellent educational theories of this writer, suffice it to say that the modern nations have scarcely yet reached the high level of his ideals, although many of his theories have materialized in recent times. According to Montaigne, boys should be taught to do and to be that which a man ought to do and to be. His education would include training for character, right habits, manners, morals, and he agrees with Cicero that the best of all arts is that of living well. In regard to physical education he regrets that parents so frequently spoil their children because "it would grieve them to see their children come home from manly exercise, sweaty and dusty, to drink cold water when they are hot, to mount an unruly horse, or to take a foil in hand against a skillful fencer. . . . It is not enough to fortify his soul; you must also make his muscles strong. The mind will be oppressed if not assisted by the body. . . . Now to be inured to labor is to be able to bear pain. . . . Our very exercises and recreations, running, wrestling, dancing, hunting, riding, and fencing will be a part of his study. I would have his manners, behavior, and bearing cultivated at the same time with his mind. It is not the mind, it is not the body

we are training; it is the man and we must not divide him into two parts. Plato says we should not fashion one without the other, but make them draw together like two horses harnessed to a coach. By this saying would it not indicate that he would rather give more care to the body, believing that the mind is benefited at the same time? . . . Accustom him to heat and cold, to wind and sun, and to dangers that he ought to despise. Wean him from all effeminacy in eating and drinking, clothes and lodging, that he may not be a gay fellow, a dude, but a hardy, sinewy, and vigorous young man. I have been of this opinion all my life and still hold to it."



BOYS' GAMES IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

(Reprinted from Webster's Early European and Ancient History by special permission of D. C. Heath and Company. All rights reserved.)

Montaigne commends Plato for providing recreation for the youths of his city and encouraging them in races, sports, leaping, songs and dances, and "a thousand exercises for both mind and body."

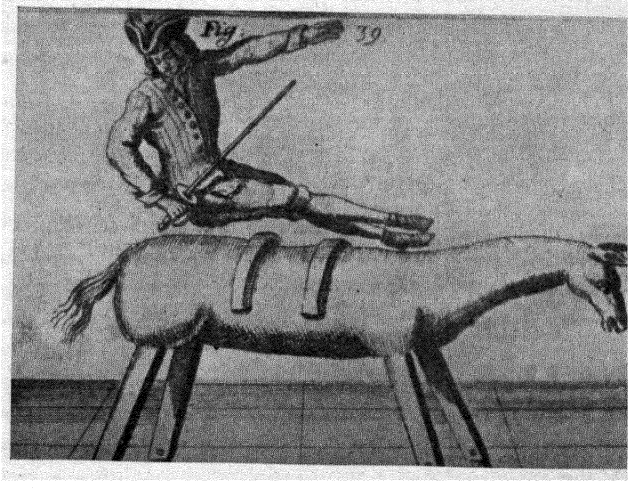
John Locke, the famous physician and educator of the seventeenth century, wrote the treatise, "Some Thoughts Concerning Education." In this work Locke gave as the aim of education: first, vigor of body; second, virtue in soul; third, knowledge or mental acquisitions. His first concern is for the body, and the opening paragraph of his book is, "A sound mind in a sound body, is a short but full description of a happy state in this world; he that has these two has little

more to wish for." Then farther on, "How necessary health is to our business and happiness, and how requisite a strong constitution, able to endure hardships and fatigue, is to one that will make any figure in the world, is too obvious to need any proof. . . . The consideration I shall have here of health, shall be not what a physician ought to do but what the parents should do for the preservation and improvement of a healthy, or at least not sickly constitution in their children." About one-third of the book is made up of health rules, each supported by some argument or explanation. Locke advises that children be not too warmly clad, either in winter or summer, they should wear thin shoes and wash their feet in cold water daily, must learn to swim, must be in open air as much as possible and become accustomed to heat and cold, sun and rain, and refrain from the use of tight clothing. Locke cautions against permitting children who are very warm from hard play to sit or lie on the cold ground and to drink cold liquids. Then follows a long discourse on diet and eating habits, the values and dangers of various foods, value of thorough mastication, and the conclusion that simple foods are the best.

From what has been said it is plain that Locke's road to health and physical welfare is through a hardening and disciplining process; he has much to say about hygiene but little about the value of play. The remainder of his book emphasizes the importance of moral training but he fails to see that physical education could be made an important item in that training. Locke seems to be only lukewarm in his attitude toward the training in the knightly sports. Horsemanship is of value in so far as it conduces to health and to giving one a firm and graceful seat on the horse. "As to fencing, it seems to me a good exercise for health but dangerous to the life," meaning that it tends to make duels more frequent. In speaking so against the arts of gallantry he recognizes that he is not in harmony with the traditional view.

Summary of Social-Realists' Views.—Montaigne and Locke had in mind the training of the higher class, largely

through tutors. All Social-Realists took into account the necessity of health and physical training, and realized the tendency of all families of the upper class to pamper and spoil their children. The earlier educators, for example Montaigne, believed in the knightly sports; the later ones, such as Locke, discouraged them. All believed in rigorous discipline of the body. They, like the Humanist-Realists, failed to understand the esthetic and social values of exercise and sports; of course as long as the child is to be isolated from



VAULTING AND FENCING EXERCISES IN A SCHOOL OF ARMS OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

others by the tutorial system, group competitions and games would be impossible. For the most part the Social-Realists had very little immediate influence on the schools of the time, however the Ritterakademieen of Germany and academies in France did provide education for the nobles' sons along the lines advocated. In England instruction was left to the tutors followed by a finishing education in a school of arms on the continent.

The Sense-Realists.—The modern nations in the last few decades have materialized some of the theories and followed

some of the practices of the Sense-Realists. A few of their beliefs were: all people, both sexes, rich and poor, should receive an education; the true end of education is to develop the faculties of both mind and body; teaching is best done through the senses of seeing and hearing, in short, experiencing rather than reading; to learn the mother tongue is more important than the Latin; the teaching process should be adapted to the learner and have a natural procedure; teachers should be trained for the work of teaching.

The Sense-Realist's school was filled with specimens, maps, charts, diagrams, pictures, and attractive text-books. Because of their many new and radical ideas and methods, the Sense-Realists were sometimes called Innovators.

Richard Mulcaster, the famous English schoolmaster of the sixteenth century, was for twenty-six years the head of the Merchant-Taylors school of London. He wrote one of the finest educational treatises of the English language called "Positions wherein those circumstances be examined, which are necessary for the training up of children either for skill in their booke, or for health in their bodie." He is among the first to call attention of the educators from the thing to be learned to the learner, thus laying the foundation for the science of education. There are forty-five so-called positions and more than half of them deal with physical and moral training through games and exercises. Some of the chapter headings are:—"Of exercises and training of the body. How necessary a thing exercise is. What health is and how it is maintained. What a part exercise playeth in the maintenance of health. Of exercise in general and what it is. And that it is athletic for games, martial for field, and physical for health. Of the particular exercises. Why I do appoint so many and how to judge of them or devise the like. Of dancing. Of wrestling. Of walking. Of running. Of leaping. Of swimming. Of riding. Of hunting. Of shooting. Of the ball. Of the nature and quality of exercise. Of the bodies which are to be exercised. Of exercising places. Of exercising time. Of the manner of exercise. Why the train-

ing of the mind and exercising the body should be assigned to the same teacher."

No writer on education in this period insisted on the importance of physical education more than Richard Mulcaster.

John Comenius, the great Bohemian educational reformer and schoolmaster of the sixteenth century, is better known today than he was one or two hundred years ago, because only in recent times have his theories and methods been understood and generally accepted. His school attempted to carry out the entire realistic program, giving the pupil an encyclopedic knowledge in an entertaining and natural way. Comenius wrote several texts to be used in the schools; the most famous of his books was the "Great Didactic" which dealt with both the methods and subject matter of instruction.

As for physical education Comenius says, gymnastics and games, running, jumping, wrestling, ball playing, and ninepins are to be encouraged. The teacher is to take the pupils on long hikes both for recreation and study. He, like Locke and others, believes in physical discipline and simple food. He suggests that the day be divided into three parts, eight hours for sleep, eight for work, and eight for nourishment, recreation, and physical development.

Summary of Sense-Realists' Views.—Nearly all Sense-Realists, except Mulcaster, believed in universal education, and he too would carry it further than many of his contemporaries. Therefore to advocate knightly sports as a means of physical development or even recreation would be ridiculous, for the common people could not ape the nobles. The schools of the type of Comenius's could not hire fencing masters, dancing and riding masters, and did not care to do so. Youths who wanted that kind of training would not want to attend schools where the common and the poor might come. Mulcaster's program is not entirely free from knightly education, but Comenius's and Ratick's and later Realists' entirely so.

The theory of the Sense-Realist was, that exercise is a means of obtaining and maintaining health; that properly directed play and exercise produces what is modernly called physical

fitness; they agree with the Humanists also that exercise serves as a rest from study and ultimately furthers the learning process.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Boykin, James C. "Physical Training." Report of Commissioner of Education, 1891–92. Vol. I, pp. 451–481. Deals with the Physical Education of the periods of Greece, Rome, Middle Ages and Renaissance. The entire article, pp. 451–600, should be read by all students of the History of Physical Education.

Compayré, Jules Gabriel. "The History of Pedagogy." Chap. VI. Boston. 1885.

Graves, Frank P. "A Student's History of Education." Chap. XIV and XV. New York. 1915.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. IX. Philadelphia. 1923.

Locke, John. "Some Thoughts Concerning Education." Harvard Classics. Vol. 37. New York. 1910.

Milton, John. "Tractate on Education." Harvard Classics. Vol. 13. New York. 1910.

Montaigne, Michel de. "The Education of Children." Harvard Classics. Vol. 32. New York. 1910.

Quick, R. H. "Essays on Educational Reformers." Chap. V, VI, VIII, X. New York. 1912.

Watson, Foster. "On Mulcaster." Report of U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1904. Vol. I, pp. 647–660.

CHAPTER IX

EDUCATIONAL NATURALISM AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Eighteenth Century Society.—The eighteenth century was a period of transition to modern political, social, religious, and educational ideals. This transition is perhaps more easily traced in France than in any other country. During the early decades of the century France was governed by an autocratic king surrounded by arrogant and proud but worthless nobles; the masses were in a condition of abject poverty and oppression; a corrupt but powerful religious system executed heretics and allied itself to the monarchical government. The schoolroom practices were unscientific and actually cruel to the children. The society about the court was artificial, in that etiquette governed conduct, and hypocritical, in that punctilious religious observances served to veneer the gross immorality. Before the century was over the teachings of Voltaire, who attacked the Church and State, and Rousseau, who denounced the society and education of the time, had been heeded, and, combined with other forces, had caused the upheaval known as the French Revolution which wrecked the entire social structure of Europe beyond repair and led to its rebuilding in the nineteenth century.

The Educational Theories of Rousseau.—The emotional Rousseau was touched with the social inequality of man and the inhumanity of the upper toward the lower classes. He revolted against the artificiality and hypocrisy of life. He preceded Thomas Jefferson in the idea that all men are created free and equal. He believed that civilization was the cause of all the unhappiness in the world; "Civilized man is born, lives, and dies in a state of slavery." He advocated a

return to nature and natural things. The essence of his teaching is, "All is good as it comes from the hand of the Creator; all degenerates under the hands of man."

Rousseau's "Émile" has had greater influence than any other educational treatise ever written; parliaments condemned it, the Church burned it and ordered its author arrested, philosophers praised it, and educators overlooked its exaggerations and adopted its sound principles. The author condemned the contemporary practices of treating the children as adults; dressing them as adults, with long, tight clothing, and powder, paint, and wigs and compelling them to act as adults; he denounced the school for trying to teach them as though they were grown people and for flogging them when they failed to learn. "Nature wills that they should be children before they are men." Rousseau gives the imaginary boy Émile that which he considers to be an ideal education.

First of all the boy is isolated from the contaminating influence of civilization, by residing in the country. From birth to five years of age the only concern for Emile is his growth and physical welfare. Accordingly he is placed under simple and healthful conditions; nature working in and through the boy is to have its way, unhampered by man. He is to be taught absolutely nothing. The second part of the book deals with the education or perhaps we should say natural growth of the boy from the age of five to twelve years. Still no teaching of any kind is to be done, for Émile's nature demands that he continue to exercise his arms and limbs without interference. But at this age he becomes curious and desires to know things, to smell the flowers, to handle the rocks, to study the heavens and he "naturally" learns. "In order to learn to think, we must then exercise our limbs, our senses, and our organs which are the instruments of our intelligence." Émile wears very short, loose, scanty clothing, eats simple foods, accustoms himself to heat and cold; he swims, jumps, leaps over walls, and scales cliffs, and grows into a healthy sturdy boy as naturally as he learns about his environment. After the age of twelve the natural demands for physical activity have somewhat

abated and Émile is about ready to learn his moral and industrial lessons.

Rousseau's Theories of Physical Education.—No educational theorist had conceived of education of mind and body as being so nearly the same thing as had Rousseau. Others were inclined to split the education of an individual longitudinally into two or more divisions, physical education, intellectual education, and moral education, but Rosseau had the idea of the continual growth of an indivisible entity, from birth until death. This growth might be cut into sections horizontally as nature has decreed. Physical and intellectual education are so intimately bound together that Rousseau found difficulty in determining when an activity ceased to be of physical value and became intellectual.

The following are some quotations from Rousseau's "Émile" which reveal his views on physical education. "The body must needs be vigorous in order to obey the soul; a good servant ought to be robust. The weaker the body the more it commands; the stronger it is the better it obeys. . . . A debilitated body enfeebles the soul. . . . If you would cultivate the intelligence of your pupil, cultivate the power which it is to govern. Give his body continual exercise; make him robust and sound in order to make him wise and reasonable; let him work and move about and run and shout and be continually in motion. . . . It is a very deplorable error to imagine that the exercise of the body is injurious to the operations of the mind; as if these two activities were not to proceed in concert, and the second were not always to direct the first." Rousseau seems to believe that a sound body makes a sound mind. "To spring from one end of the hall to the other, to estimate the bound of a ball still in the air, and to send it back with a strong steady hand, such sports do not befit a man but they serve to train a youth."

Rousseau understood the comparative educational values of different sports. He had little use for doctors, except when death was imminent, for then they could do no harm. "The only useful part of medicine is hygiene; and hygiene is less a

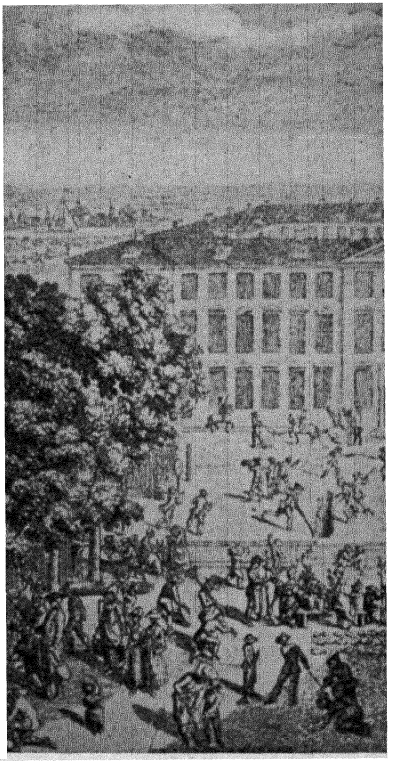
science than a virtue." He resembles Locke in his ideas concerning clothing, food, and sleep and the general hardening process. Rousseau commends the writings of Locke and Montaigne on physical education and reflects that the vigor of mind and body of the ancients may be attributed to gymnastic exercises. He recommends games and outdoor activity for girls so that natural growth may produce healthy robust mothers.

The Influence of Naturalism on the Practice of Physical Education.—During the last quarter of the eighteenth century many of the theories and doctrines of the early decades were materialized and put into practice. This was particularly true of physical education; the theorists, Humanists, Realists, and Naturalists had said enough, it was now time for action and practical reform. Since Rousseau's ideas were outlawed in France, until after the Revolution, they received the more immediate acceptance in Germany.

Basedow's Naturalistic School; the Philanthropinum.—Johann Basedow (1723-1790), had been a teacher in a Ritterakademie in Denmark, where he saw the students trained in the knightly sports and came to have some ideas of his own on the importance of physical activity. He was planning an educational reform when "Émile" appeared; he then determined to organize a naturalistic school along the lines of Rousseau incorporating his own ideas. With the aid of the Duke of Anhalt he opened the Philanthropinum in 1774 at Dessau. So far as Modern Europe was concerned this was the first school, admitting all classes of people, to give gymnastics a place on the daily program.

Johann Simon was the first teacher of physical education. During one hour of the morning and two hours of the afternoon the entire school engaged in a great variety of games, gymnastic exercises, sports, recreation, and manual labor. Some practiced the knightly sports of dancing, riding, and fencing; others running, jumping, wrestling, and throwing; ditches were dug of varying widths to leap across, high-jump standards were constructed; there were also exercises in bal-

ancing; the pupils walked across a ditch on a narrow beam; the children also played games, for example, shuttle-cock and tennis, under the supervision of the teacher: the hoops and



A NATURALISTIC SCHOOL IN THE TIME OF BASEDOW

(Note lesson in horsemanship, fencing throwing, shooting, gardening, and other activities.)

the seesaw were assigned to the younger ones. Later on exercises on the ladders, and swimming, skating, and archery were added. The manual labor of turning, cabinet making and gardening was engaged in. The Philanthropinum won the favorable comment of the greatest men of the time and

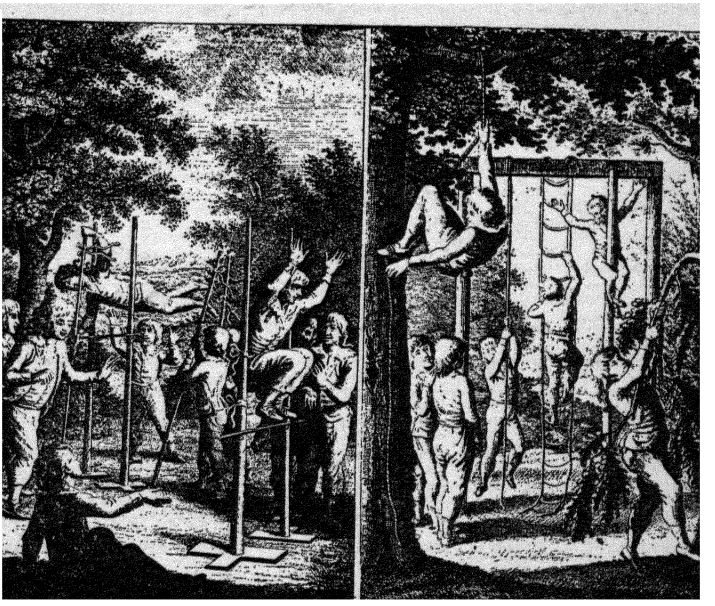
became the model for many similar schools. Basedow, its founder, is to be regarded and honored as the first modern educator to place physical education in an important position in the school.

Basedow's idea of physical education was similar to that of Rousseau. Nature and natural growth demand that the child be given time for play and bodily exercise; he believed that normal physical growth is more important in early years than mental training and that there are intellectual and moral values to be derived from the playing of games. These ideas were put into practice by Simon and his successors at the Philanthropinum.

GutsMuths's Contributions to Physical Education.—The Schnepfenthal Educational Institute, organized by Christian Salzmann in 1785, was modeled on the plan of the Philanthropinum. Rousseau himself could not have found a more ideal location for a naturalistic school than the Schnepfenthal estate near Gotha. A small court among the trees was prepared for the daily lessons in gymnastics and Christian André was chosen to direct the exercises. Nearly all of the exercises that Salzmann had seen at Dessau were reproduced at Schnepfenthal and, in addition to them, throwing at a target, racing up and down hill, and pole-vaulting were practiced. In bad weather there were indoor exercises for correct posture and good carriage, which might be taken as the origin of free exercises. Sunday afternoons were spent in games and gymnastic sports.

Johann Friedrich GutsMuths (1759-1839), succeeded André as teacher of physical education after one year and he remained at this school for fifty years. Because of his long service and his valuable literary contributions he is regarded as one of the founders of modern physical education and the "grandfather" of German gymnastics. Whenever weather permitted, the activities were held outdoors in a field designated as a place for exercise. All of the exercises used by André were continued and climbing of rope ladders, swinging, climbing ropes, climbing masts, balancing rods on

the fingers, going through exercises while standing on one foot, and a great variety of "stunts," perhaps to retain an interest in the work, were added. Swimming was taught and became one of the most valued exercises. GutsMuths kept an accurate record of the work done by the individual pupils in order to ascertain progress. The students at Schnepfenthal also received a course in manual training and gardening.



JUMPING AND CLIMBING EXERCISES AS ILLUSTRATED IN GUTSMUTHS'S "GYMNASTICS FOR THE YOUNG"

Long hikes were taken with the entire school, Salzmann and GutsMuths leading the way; frequently their excursions lasted as many as four days. The school sought to promote the health of the pupils by providing light and airy rooms, and wholesome but simple food.

GutsMuths's wide influence rests on his two best-known books, "Gymnastics for the Young" and "Games." These are not only the first manuals published by a practical physical

educator but are also of a high quality. From the writings we learn that GutsMuths realized that the theory and practice of gymnastics should be based on a knowledge of physiology and medicine; that games and swimming have a place in a system of gymnastics; that some educational institutions are not aware of the value of gymnastics, and others are not deriving the maximum benefits from the physical exercises; that contemporary educators can learn much from the Greeks and Romans on the subject of complete education; that the nation should promote the physical well-being of its people; that if the buildings are not suitable for gymnastics, use may be made of the school yards and neighboring fields; that serviceable apparatus may be made by hand; that the exercises in practice should be pleasant and enjoyable and have for their aim a strengthening and harmonizing of body and soul, the development of a complete person; physical perfection produces self-reliance and courage, which every citizen should have; nature demands that the growth and development of the body must come first, in childhood and boyhood; girls and women should engage in light gymnastics and games, but not the heavy work of the men. To look for the means of producing strong healthy girls and women in the doctor's medicine case is ridiculous. He agrees with Rousseau that to be refined and pleasing one need not be weak and sickly.

In addition to these views GutsMuths classifies the various exercises and describes them in detail and gives his ideas concerning the time for their practice. No one since the Greeks had handled the subject of physical education more intelligently either in practice or in theory.

GutsMuths's influence was immediate and far reaching; prominent families urged the tutors to instruct their children in gymnastics; the schools of many localities began to take an unprecedented interest in the work; swimming schools were organized; universities began to consider the value of gymnastics; not only did this movement occur in the German states but in Denmark and Sweden. GutsMuths's "Gymnastics for the Young" was printed in Philadelphia in 1802.

Jahn and Spiess and scores of other prominent men visited his school.

Had a period of political unrest and war not interfered, GutsMuths might have secured a prominent place for school gymnastics in general education, long before Spiess accomplished it.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Barnard, Henry. "Memoirs of Eminent Teachers and Educators in Germany." See article on Basedow. Hartford, Conn. 1878.

Davidson, Thomas. "Rousseau and Education According to Nature." Chap. IV to VII. New York. 1898.

Euler, Karl. "Die Geschichte des Turnunterrichtes." Excellent article on GutsMuths. 1881.

GutsMuths's works, especially later reprints, are to be found in many libraries.

Hirth, Georg. "Das Gesamte Turnwesen." Band I, pp. 330–362 and 519–523. GutsMuths's writings on Games, Swimming and Gymnastics. Band III, pp. 534–545, on Gymnastics for National Defence. Leipzig. 1893.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. X. Excellent bibliography for German and Scandinavian languages. Philadelphia. 1923.

Leonard, Fred E. "Johann C. F. GutsMuths." Mind and Body, Jan., 1911, pp. 321–326.

Quick, R. H. "Essays on Educational Reformers." Chap. XIV–XV. New York. 1912.

Rousseau, J. J. Émile; or, Treatise on Education." Translated by W. H. Payne. New York. 1911.

Siebert, Albert. "The Development in Physical Education in Germany." Brief historical survey to 1909. Mind and Body, Nov., 1909, pp. 249–253.

CHAPTER X

THE OPINIONS OF PROMINENT MEN OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY IN REGARD TO PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Physicians and Philosophers.—While educators were coming to realize that physical education ought to be incorporated in the process of general education and that the need for physical welfare is no less important than the need for intellectual attainment, many physicians and writers were helping to mold public opinion in the same direction.

In England appeared the "Medicina Gymnastica" by Francis Fuller in 1705. The book dealt with the relation of exercise to disease, and when translated into German, had considerable influence in Germany as well as England.

In Germany, Friedrich Hoffmann, Professor of Medicine at the university of Halle, published a series of articles between 1700 and 1720. Among them were "On Motion, the Best Medicine for the Body" and "The Incomparable Advantages of Motion and of Bodily Exercises, and How They are to be Employed for the Preservation of the Health." These articles influenced GutsMuths some years later.

Johann Peter Frank, in his famous work, "A System for a Complete Medical Police," by which he means national policy, condemns the contemporary education for girls because of its seclusiveness and its lack of physical activity and he objects to the styles which tend to hamper bodily movements. He is of the opinion that the youth of Germany do not equal in vigor the youth of ancient Greece and therefore he recommends gymnastics along the Greek lines. Frank does not want the exercises to be too strenuous or too dangerous and he also objects to producing "athleten" or rope jumpers or jugglers. He demands that open air places for

gymnastics be provided, first of all for the school children. For the times of inclement weather a building should be ready for occupancy. Physical education is a national problem and should be solved by the state.

As the eighteenth century closed Gerhard Vieth, an expert gymnast and teacher of mathematics at the Haupte Schule in Dessau, was writing his third volume of the "Encyklopadie der Leibesübungen." The first volume deals with the history of physical education and the second with his own views. He says, that physical exercises promote health, strengthen muscles, increase suppleness of the body, improve the carriage and physical beauty, stimulate courage and alertness, and "check a too rapid development and misuse of the sexual instinct." He laments that so few schools and universities promote gymnastics among the students but rather seem to care only for the intellectual attainments.

Simon André Tissot (1728-1797), a French physician, wrote "An Essay on Diseases Incident to Literary and Sedentary Persons." He asserts that the life of the scholar entails much mental but very little bodily activity; consequently there is no deep breathing and the lungs always contain foul air. Very little attention is paid to food or drink and, further, the sedentary life tends to seclude one from active and joyful companions. He recommends several exercises which will bring into play all of the parts of the body. In regard to children, the forcing of them into hard study without regard for the physical welfare and growth "is the grave of their capacity and health." He believes that girls should receive some kind of gymnastics also.

Clement Joseph Tissot (1750-1826), another French physician, exerted considerable influence in the cause of gymnastics through his work, "Medical and Surgical Gymnastics." He complains that the gymnastics of his time have degenerated into mere games and pastimes and that the Greek sports are scarcely any longer practiced. Tissot discusses the effect of activity on the body and classifies the exercises according to the result produced from a medical point of view.

Immanuel Kant (1724-1804), wrote at length on physical education in his "Pedagogy." He emphasized the disciplinary value of physical education; a strong, sturdy body, and a keen, alert, and fearless mind were to result from its practice. Running, jumping, lifting, carrying, throwing at a target, and wrestling are all good exercises in his belief. Many games are to be recommended but they must have a definite aim. The purpose of it all is to develop a body and mind that will be fit to lead in society. Many of Kant's ideas and statements show that he was influenced by Rousseau and by the visits which he paid to the Philanthropinum.

The Founders of the Science of Education.—Pestalozzi.—At the beginning of the nineteenth century the great Swiss educator, Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746-1827), laid the foundation for modern pedagogy. Although influenced by the negative doctrines of Rousseau, he reformed and improved them along positive lines; as he said, he tried to "psychologize" education. This necessitated a study of the child through actual contact and especially a study of the child mind; the resulting knowledge to be used as the basis for educational procedure. Pestalozzi compared the child to an unfolding plant and held that the end of education was to assist in the natural, harmonious, and symmetrical development of the mental, moral, and physical powers of the child. The child's part in education was observation, sense perception, and self-activity; the teacher's part was intelligent and sympathetic direction. Pestalozzi began his educational efforts among the orphans at Stanz; then he established a model school at Burgdorf and, finally, the institution at Yverdun, which attracted the attention of Europe and America. His school at Burgdorf was provided with separate teachers of singing, geography, history, language, arithmetic, gymnastics, and gardening, and manual training.

Pestalozzi's Contribution to Physical Education.—Pestalozzi's aim and theories demanded that he promote games and physical exercises, under the supervision of an instructor, in all of his schools. In observing his own child in 1774 he

noted that, after playing in the open air for a time, the boy could then sit and concentrate on his studies for an unusually long period. In addition to this recreational value he believed that to give vent to the play and competitive instinct was a means of accomplishing the harmonious development of mind, heart, and body. The following ideas, also, are found in Pestalozzi's writings. The strength, skill, endurance, and hardihood, and command of the body in general, which is to be derived from physical exercise, is desirable and warrants giving physical education an important place in general education. But physical education should not be separate from education in general, either in aims or methods, for the child is a unity. Nature uses the physical and mental faculties alternately for the development of each other; for example, instinct urges the child to motion, but the exercise may sharpen wits, produce skill and a desire for fair play. To be able to jump is not the only end in the practice of jumping; nor to swim, in the practice of swimming. The school should not neglect this vital principle.

In Pestalozzi's school, at Yverdun in 1807, one hour per day was given up to prisoners'-base, ball, and other games, and to mountain climbing, skating, jumping, wrestling, and similar activities. Informal play and sport, however, was not sufficient for Pestalozzi; he sought to develop a system of bodily movements arranged according to their difficulty and according to their effect on the body; these were to be practiced under the direction of a teacher. In this work Pestalozzi anticipated the free exercises of Spiess; he had already preceded him in his advocacy of the close relationship that should exist between physical and mental education. Pestalozzi was not an imitator of GutsMuths or Basedow.

Pestalozzi's educational theories are explained in his "Leonard and Gertrude" and "How Gertrude Teaches her Children" but his specific views on physical education are found in his article, "Concerning Physical Education," published in 1807 and now incorporated in Hirth's "Das Gesammte Turnwesen."

Fellenberg appropriated the theories of Pestalozzi and developed the industrial phase of education. In his schools the students engaged in shop work, gardening, and various kinds of manual labor. The history of the manual labor school movement which was so popular in America in 1830, traces its origin to these institutions. Fellenberg did not intend that manual labor should be regarded as a substitute for gymnastics; in all his writings he made it clear that systematic physical exercise and games were indispensable as a means of securing a complete education.

Froebel's Education Through Play.—Friedrick Froebel (1782-1852), ranks with Pestalozzi as a founder of modern pedagogy. His educational experiences at Keilhau and Burgdorf resulted in the theory that education is most efficiently acquired through activity, self-expression, and social participation. Young children, he found, gave vent to self-expression most readily in their play. The kindergarten grew out of these theories and Froebel presented the first well-organized program of education through play. Frobel's ideas and methods have been elaborated and accepted by the educational world. During the last few decades volumes of literature on the subject of the educational values of play have appeared; and the world has, in a measure, ratified the theories of Froebel by the adoption of the play movement.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Bennett, Charles A. "History of Manual and Industrial Education up to 1870." Contains excellent chapters on Fellenberg's school. Peoria, Ill. 1926.

De Guimps, Roger. "Pestalozzi; His Life and Work." Pp. 254, 391, 407, 409, 416. New York. 1906.

Euler, Karl. "Die Geschichte des Turnunterrichtes." Excellent article on Pestalozzi. 1881.

Froebel's works have been reprinted many times and are easily found.

Hinsdale, B. A. "Notes on the History of Foreign Influence Upon Education in the United States." Gives an account of John Griscom's visit to Pestalozzi's school; mentions the exercises of his pupils. Commissioner of Education Report for 1898, pp. 618–620.

Pestalozzi, Heinrich. "Ueber Körperbildung." Printed in Hirth's "Das Gesamte Turnwessen." Band I, pp. 376–414. Leipzig. 1893.

Pestalozzi's works, with the exception of the above article, have been translated and reprinted many times and are easily found.

Quick, R. H. "Essays on Educational Reformers." Chap. XVI–XVII. New York. 1912.

CHAPTER XI

GERMANY SINCE 1800

I. German Gymnastic Societies

How the Turnvereine (German Gymnastic Societies) Originated.—The turnvereine originated in the period of turmoil through which Germany passed in the first decade of the nineteenth century and are to a great extent the result of the labors of the patriot Friedrich Ludwig Jahn (1778-1852). Jahn, though a Prussian by birth, felt that all Germany was his fatherland, and throughout his life he wrote, spoke, and fought for the political unity of the independent German states. When the citizen army of Napoleon swept away the feeble resistance offered by the inefficient and unpatriotic professional troops of Prussia at the humiliating battle of Jena, 1806, Jahn learned that radical reforms were necessary before his fatherland could be freed from the invincible French conqueror. He possessed no political or social influence but was endowed with a rugged constitution, a fighting spirit, and a vision, and set to the task of arousing his countrymen to a realization of the disgrace of tolerating the foreign despot and to preparing them to escape it when the time was ripe. His first important publication, "German Nationality," called attention to the excellence of German achievements and asserted that the Germans should unite in order to protect them and prevent them from being corrupted by foreign invaders.

In the spring of 1810 Jahn was teaching in Plamann's Boys School and also in the Grauen Kloster in Berlin. Occasional expeditions into the surrounding country by teachers and pupils was the custom before Jahn came to the Plamann school; he, however, became the most active promoter of these affairs.

He met the boys regularly outside the city and went with them to a neighboring hilly and wooded stretch of ground called the Hasenheide. Here they competed in running, jumping, wrestling, and played the games popular at the time. Jahn's enthusiasm, his personality, and his stories increased the popularity of the trips. Crude apparatus was improvised; jumping standards and horizontal bars were constructed. Sometimes the company did not stop for the games but took a long hike through the country singing the folk songs and enjoying the stories of Jahn. That winter the outdoor games and trips were discontinued but Jahn gave some of the boys instruction in cross-bow shooting and in fencing.

In the spring of 1811 balance beams, vertical ropes, ladders, more horizontal bars erected between trees, and more standards for high jumping and pole vaulting, a jumping ditch and a running track were added to the Hasenheide. The games and exercises now took place four afternoons per week and frequently as many as two hundred boys and young men were present. Schools, other than those with which Jahn was connected, were permitting the boys to attend. Jahn adopted a gymnastic costume of long trousers and short linen jacket which caused no little jesting from the idle and unwelcome onlookers.

There was no program for the day, freedom of action and individual effort was the rule; a boy invented a feat and bantered the others to do it; the boys determined the games to be played. Jahn thought that the great values to be derived from this activity, were physical power and harmonious cooperation. With these rugged constitutions and just and patriotic minds the fatherland might be freed, then united and made worthy of democratic institutions. When the opportunity arose Jahn let his charges know of his hopes for Germany's future. In the winter his most enthusiastic pupils continued the exercises indoors and studied the works of GutsMuths.

The year of 1812 was one of still greater success. A more spacious exercising ground (turnplatz) was secured and more

apparatus was added; including vaulting bucks and crude parallel bars, which were originally used for exercises preparatory to vaulting. Jahn became a little more systematic and noted down the various exercises, named them and described the methods of performance. The number of participants reached five hundred at times; on Sundays and specially appointed days adults were welcomed at the turnplatz. Jahn, unable to oversee and direct the entire group, appointed several leaders, called vorturner, who were to assist him.

The great War of Liberation for Prussia was declared March 17, 1813. Jahn was among the first to volunteer to help free his land from France. During his absence Eiselin managed the turnplatz which was now financed by the government. The battle of Leipzig ended the French power in Prussia and Waterloo ended Napoleon's career in Europe. Soon after his return from war, Jahn published his famous book, "Die Deutche Turnkunst." This book became the turners' guide throughout Germany.

Jahn in Theory and Practice.—Jahn began by encouraging schoolboys in the gymnastic exercises and athletic sports. However, his ideas were adopted by those who were past school age, and the turner clubs, which came into existence, were made up of youths and men. Volksturnen (peoples' gymnastics) came to be more widely practiced in Germany than anywhere else. Jahn never lost sight of the fact that the turnplatz and turnhalle (indoor gymnasium) should have an important place near a school or a group of schools and that it is the duty of every city to provide them. Here, on every national holiday, games should be played and gymnastic sports engaged in and prizes awarded. Only very severe weather should prevent the exercises from taking place outdoors.

Jahn's faith and work in physical education originated from patriotic motives. He believed that the hope of German freedom lay in the development of strong, sturdy, and fearless youths and that the continuance of Germany's greatness rested on the vigorous minds of the next generation. A nation with such people, he thought, would not rest until they had secured

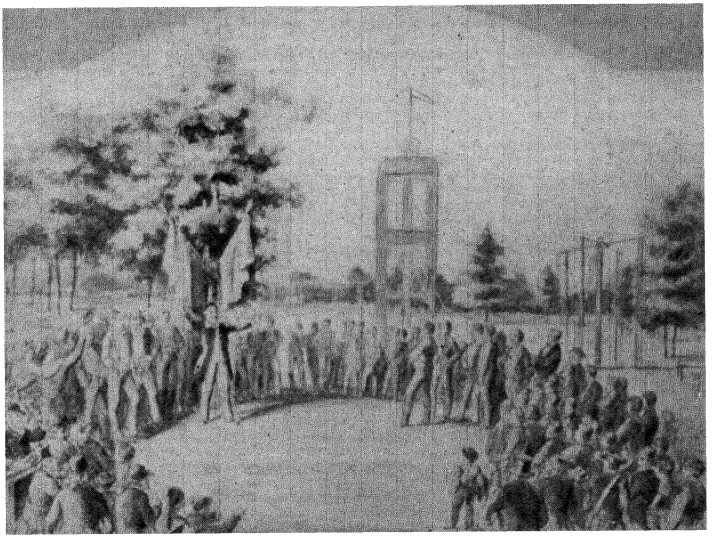
unity and constitutional government. He was aware of the great power of games and sports to break down class distinctions and generate social democracy. Jahn differed from Locke on the matter of discipline through physical education; he held that exercise should be regarded as a means of growth and development of powers rather than as a hardening process; and Locke in no wise arose to Jahn's ideas of the mental and moral training to be received from the turnplatz. Jahn held that the turners should have only simple food, should refrain from over-indulgence and intemperance; tobacco and sweetmeats were forbidden near the turnplatz. It is learned from his writing that he was aware of the individual differences and did not expect all participants to do all exercises equally well. Jahn's methods were not based on the science of the human body but rather on a faith in physical education as a means of national regeneration. The sciences of anatomy and physiology were not fully understood, therefore no application of them could be made to physical education.

In practice, Jahn says the teacher should always be an example to the class, should not permit bad conduct about the exercising place, should not be snobbish but sociable and courteous to all, should always be on time and be careful to observe all the rules, be enthusiastic about the work, must learn the students' characteristics and become their friend and adviser. When the exercises were to take up an entire afternoon the participants chose their own activity for the first part, then, after a rest, came the orderly exercises in which all of certain age participated.

"Die Deutsche Turnkunst" contains a wealth of material on how to choose a location and how to lay out a turnplatz and what apparatus to make; it describes many exercises, discusses the value and the methods of playing several games, and describes the general management of a turnverein. A large part of the German terminology of physical education originated with Jahn, for example, the word turnen (to practice gymnastics) and all of its derivatives and combinations.

Many of the contemporaries of Jahn, for example, Guts-

Muths, thought that his ideas of physical education were somewhat narrow, in that they were saturated with the patriotic motive; others, that his system was too heavy and difficult for children, and that it was defective in that it had little or no free exercises, and no provision was made for the physical education of women. Spiess, of course, objected to Jahn's work on these grounds.



A CONTEMPORARY DRAWING OF JAHN ADDRESSING A GROUP AT THE HASENHEIDE

The Spread of Turnen.—Jahn's gymnastics met with a ready acceptance throughout Germany and, in nearly all of the large cities, young men formed turnvereine using the "Turnkunst" as a guide. Massmann, Dürre, and others who had been associated with Jahn assisted in the organization of these societies. The student clubs, Burschenschaften, whose aims were to unite Germany and secure a free government for the people, promoted the spread of turnen and usually became turners.

The Reaction Against Turnen.—Because of the fact that turnvereine arose in times of political stress, they had for their aims certain political achievements as well as the promotion of physical education. To free the German states of the French was an aim welcomed by kings, nobility, and commons; the idea of German unity was met by the kings with hostility, and by the nobility with suspicion; to advocate constitutional freedom, and government by the people was to tread on dangerous ground. But Jahn believed that all three were necessary to Germany's greatness and turners in general were known to hold these ideas.

After Germany was freed and peace was restored, the statesmen of Europe inaugurated a policy of repression and reaction to meet the spread of liberal political doctrines. At a conference of ministers in the fall of 1818 Metternich, the minister of Austria, declared and all agreed, that the Burchenschaften and the turner organizations were hotbeds of revolution. In March 1819, Karl Sand, a turner, assassinated Kotzebue, a famous writer in the employ of monarchy. Jahn, although innocent of any connection with the crime, was accused of a conspiracy and arrested in July, 1819. Immediately turnen was forbidden in Prussia.

Jahn was held in prison or under close guard during a long period of litigation and was not acquitted until 1825. Even then he was forbidden to live in Berlin, or near a university or a boy's school. He took up residence in Freyburg and, although he was relieved of police restrictions and decorated with the iron cross by the new King Frederick William IV in 1840, he took no active part in turnen and died in 1852.

Some of the German states followed the lead of Prussia and abolished turnen, others did not, but the years of 1820 to 1840 are barren of progress in physical education, though much was written concerning the subject.

Revival of Turnen.—Frederick William IV, who came to the Prussian throne in 1840, soon removed the ban on turnvereine and issued the order of 1842 that gymnastics are "formally recognized as a necessary and indispensable part

of male education and received into the circle of means for popular education." The tendency that immediately followed, to provide facilities for physical education in the schools, encouraged the turnvereine to become more adapted to adult gymnastics and sociability and to become independent of school organizations. There was a rapid increase both in membership and number of societies. The various organizations found need of a national organization of societies, the Turnerschaft, conventions and gymnastic meets (turnfeste), and the newspaper (turnzeitung) as a means of maintaining comradeship and coöperation.

The years of 1848 and 1849 were again years of European revolutions in which the people sought more liberal government and the turnvereine were suppressed because of their liberal political ideals. About 1860 signs of revival appeared and turnen was encouraged by the government and has had no relapse since that time. In 1870, the year German unity was practically achieved, the turner societies numbered 1,500; in 1880, 2,200; in 1890, 4,400; in 1900, 7,200; in 1910, 9,100; in 1920, 10,000. Since 1915 the societies have contained a membership of over 1,000,000 and in 1926 the numbers had reached more than 2,000,000.

Modern Turnen.—The German freedom and unity for which Jahn worked was accomplished in less than two decades after his death. The turners have been slow to depart from the original ideals of the "Turnvater." The modern turners believe, as did Jahn, that German gymnastics promote physical and moral vigor and form a stable foundation on which a great nation and a great civilization may be based.

In some communities, where Jahn and Massmann and other revered leaders worked, the old theories and methods of the Hasenheide persist and the turnplatz for outdoor exercises is considered as necessary as the indoor gymnasium. In other localities, influenced by the theories of Spiess, the indoor free exercises and apparatus work predominates. The turnen societies of the greater part of Germany, however, have cautiously and gradually accepted the games and sports which

they thought to be of physical benefit or whose popularity could not be resisted. Soccer, hockey, Germanized basketball and volley-ball have received great favor. The turner organizations are now promoting these games and also swimming, boxing, wrestling, and hiking in addition to the track and field events and the apparatus work. The women's section of the turnen societies practice dancing, apparatus work, and athletics. Several new systems of rhythmic gymnastics have found wide acceptance in these sections.

The Arbeiter-Turnerschaft (Union of Workers' Turnvereine) promotes physical education on the same lines, but for a smaller membership than the Deutsche Turnerschaft. In addition to these organizations, the physical education departments of the churches and schools and the athletic clubs and municipal playgrounds maintain an interest in gymnastics and outdoor sports.

Proficiency in gymnastics is encouraged through the national and local turnfeste. National turnfeste for all Germany have been held every four or five years since 1860. The last turnfest previous to the World War was held in Leipzig in 1913. The exhibition lasted for five days; 60,000 turners competed before an audience of 250,000 people. The turnvereine of Germany have been the models for similar organizations in Norway, Switzerland, Bohemia, Austria and several other European countries. They have been transplanted into German communities in North and South America.

II. Physical Education in the German Schools

Origin of School Gymnastics.—The development of public schools for the masses belongs to the nineteenth century. The German turnvereine did not immediately alter the school practices or introduce gymnastics into the educational institutions. They tended to supplement the work of the school rather than to secure a place for physical education in it.

Germany is indebted to Adolph Spiess (1810-1858) for the successful development and organization of school gym-

nastics. When a boy, Spiess attended a Pestalozzian school, where he came in contact with GutsMuths's gymnastics. As a university student he became very proficient in gymnastic activities, especially fencing. He was acquainted with Jahn, GutsMuths, Eiselin, and other leaders of the time. After a few years of teaching in Hesse he went to Switzerland and remained from 1833 to 1848. During these years he organized his system of school gymnastics in the cities of Burgdorf and Basel. When, in 1842, Prussia's interest in physical education began to revive, Spiess went to Berlin in order to get his ideas before the authorities, but failed to make a favorable impression and returned to Switzerland. Incidentally, Massmann, a leading turner, was chosen to devise a plan of physical education for all the Prussian schools.

While in Switzerland Spiess wrote his "System of Gymnastics" and began his manual, "Turnbuch für Schulen" (manual of gymnastics for schools). In 1848 he accepted the task of introducing his system into the school of the Grand Duchy of Hesse and began work in Darmstadt. He took personal charge of the teaching of physical education in the gymnasium, the realschule, and a mädchenschule (girls' school). An outdoor and an indoor gymnasium were provided and equipped with vertical poles, bars, ladders, giant stride, and bucks. Classes for boys and girls were organized.

Spiess's Contribution to Physical Education.—Spiess's aim and achievement was that of securing the adoption of physical exercise as a vital part of the child's education and of developing a system suitable to the schools. To that end he advocated the following ideas: an exercising hall and a turnplatz should be established as a part of, or very near, every school; one period per day should be set aside for gymnastic work; pupils should be given marks according to their proficiency in the work; gymnastic material should be graded according to its suitability for different ages and sexes; a special system of gymnastics for girls should be arranged; in short, gymnastics should be recognized and treated with the same degree of importance as any other school subject. His motive

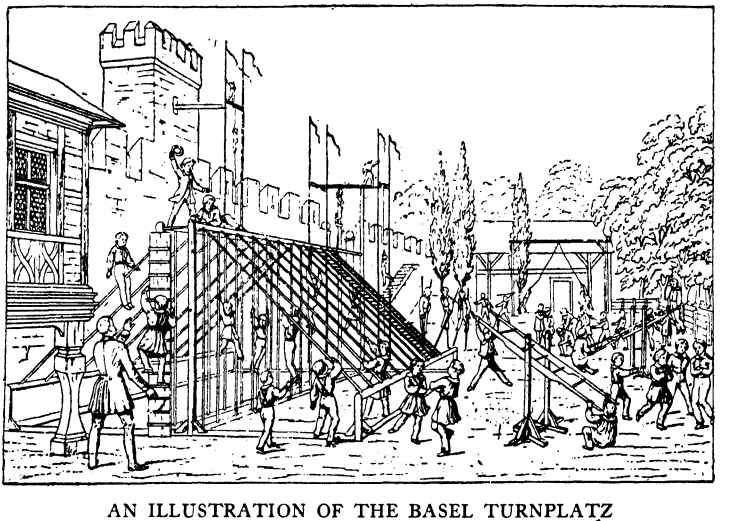
was similar to that of the Athenians; physical education was to produce bodily perfection, beauty and grace, and weld body and soul into a perfectly harmonious entity capable of ideal social participation. He said: "The end of education is undivided, embracing the whole nature of the pupil, it is the school that divides the work and taking different courses aims in the same direction. . . . The intellect and physique constitute but one being." Strength or hardihood or skill with weapons was not the aim. Spiess was also aware of the pedagogical value of physical exercise, its use as a rest and recreation and also its moral and social lessons. The exercises and institutions of the turners were not considered as satisfactory for the new theories of school gymnastics, especially for girls.

The material and classification of exercises used by the followers of Jahn did not seem satisfactory for children, and especially for girls of school age. Spiess's alterations and additions are explained in his books. In order to adapt gymnastics to the school methods, classes of pupils of approximately the same age were organized and directed by one teacher. Exercises suited to that age were engaged in for a specified period of time each day. In the interest of efficiency the gymnastic class accepted the usual school formalism. Since this program had to be carried out in inclement weather and in winter, an indoor gymnasium became necessary.

Spiess introduced the marching exercises into the German system and called attention to their value. Through their use the teacher was enabled to control a large group and to secure a desired position for the entire class, without confusion and waste of time. For the pupil these exercises served as a training in discipline and erect carriage. Spiess also singled out free exercises for special elaboration and emphasis; he is frequently called the founder of that branch of physical education. His aim in this was to give to the entire class, in an orderly manner and in the short time available, a series of exercises which were designed to bring into play all those parts of the body whose activity was necessary to the ultimate complete development. Formalism was not practiced in

Spiess's schools to the exclusion of games or sports or dancing; the moral, recreational, and esthetic values of the latter were highly appreciated. He also called attention to the use of music; the rhythmical motions of marching and free exercise drills, indoors, offered an opportunity for the use of musical accompaniment.

Considerable stress was placed on gymnastic exhibitions; they were regarded as a means of holding the interest of the pupils and also of securing favorable public opinion. Spiess



AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE BASEL TURNPLATZ
(Taken from "Turnbuch fur Schulen," by Spiess 1846.)

found that the excursions into the country, which were so enjoyed by turners, were also suitable for the school classes when time permitted.

Spiess was opposed to the Jahn system of teaching by vorturners (class leaders) and advocated the employment of a sufficient number of teachers who had training and experience equal to that of the teachers of other school subjects. To that end he established normal classes in Darmstadt in 1849.

Pestalozzi, GutsMuths, and Basedow had antedated Spiess

in the matter of fostering gymnastics in their schools, but he perfected the idea, stressed its importance and attracted the attention of the authorities at an opportune time and is usually considered the founder of the system of German school gymnastics and of gymnastics for girls. His classes were visited by officials of nearly every state in Germany and his methods were adopted so widely that his system became a part of the German system.

Physical Education in German Schools since Spiess.—To carry out the Order of 1842 which advocated gymnastics for the schools, Massmann, a turner of the Jahn type, was chosen to plan a system for all Prussia. Much to the disappointment of Spiess and most of the school authorities, Massman clung to the old idea of a municipal turnplatz, distinct and separate from the school and the school management, and very little advance was made in physical education in the schools. Massmann retired in 1850.

This period of stagnation was followed by one of strife. Hugo Rothstein, as director of the Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics (Königliche Zentral-Turnanstalt) in Berlin, attempted to introduce the Ling Swedish system to the exclusion of some vital principles of the German. Opposition was too great and he withdrew in unpopularity in 1863. After several changes of name and location the Royal Central Institute became the present Landesturnanstalt at Spandau, where thorough courses in gymnastics are given to prospective teachers of physical education.

From 1860 to the present time Germany has been a leader in school gymnastics and has attached more and more importance to that subject. In that year all schools for boys, from the elementary to the universities, were ordered to secure teachers of gymnastics and give more time and attention to physical education. Two years later a manual for instruction in gymnastics in the elementary schools was published and attendance at the exercises made compulsory. In spite of the frequent revision of the manual and of official encouragement, the school authorities neglected to carry out the program

through the 80's and 90's. This was due to a tendency to crowd the curriculum and to the ever-increasing number of women teachers in the faculties.

Since 1904 Germany has awakened to the seriousness of this neglect and has done much to combat it, partly through the playground movement and by insisting that women teachers prepare to teach the subjects of physical education. Since that date the time given to physical activities has been increased to three hours per week and one play afternoon each week in nearly all schools. Some schools devote ten-minute periods to deep breathing and correct posture exercises on alternate days. The boys' and girls' athletic clubs for the promotion of certain sports and games, supervised by teachers, supplement the regular school work. In 1894 gymnastics for girls was added to the curriculum in the higher schools. Since that time more and more time has been given to it and in 1913 a special manual of exercises for girls was published.

In addition to the Landesturnanstalt the leading states of Germany have established normal schools for teachers of physical education. Each state manages its educational system independently of the rest; therefore each has its own individual history so far as dates, leaders, and events are concerned. But their methods and objectives in physical education are very similar. This is partly due to the national organizations promoting physical education throughout Germany, for example, the Turnerschaft and the German Society of Teachers of Gymnastics. The latter organization, through its conventions and publications, tends to make uniform the best methods and aims in physical education.

Since the adoption of the theories of Spiess the German educators have recognized that general education and physical education were inseparable, but the application of this idea has been confined largely to the elementary and secondary institutions. The German universities have no department of physical education comparable to those of the universities of the United States; neither do athletics occupy so important a place in college life.

The Effect of the War.—The great nerve strain and the food famine had a very detrimental effect on the physical welfare of the German children. The rehabilitation movement has influenced the physical education program; more emphasis has been placed on games and athletic sports and more attention has been given to health education. Both of these phases of physical education were flourishing before the conflict and now they are regarded as means of restoring the mental and physical health of the nation. The spirit of play has manifested itself in the organization of athletic and recreation clubs for old and young, in playgrounds, summer camps, new courses on play in the normal schools, greater emphasis on dancing and rhythmic gymnastics and in the publication of books and magazines concerning sports. The health education movement has resulted in the employment of school doctors and nurses, vacation camps, open air schools, nutrition classes, school clinics, and sex education. A movement to establish physical education departments in the universities, similar to those in the United States, has made considerable progress.

The popularity which turnen has received throughout Germany, the great success in school gymnastics, the early recognition of the educational value of play, and the abundant literature on physical education have placed Germany in a front position in the field of physical education during the past century. Her greatest rivals in Europe were Denmark and Sweden.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Ayres, L. P. "Open Air Schools." Chap. I–II. New York. 1915.
Boykin, James C. "Physical Training." Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1891–92. Vol. I. Pages 481–494 deal with Germany.
Euler, Karl. "Die Geschichte des Turnsunterrichtes." Contains complete account of German physical education to 1880. 1881.
Gardiner, Rolf. "Rhythmic Gymnastics in Germany." Mind and Body, Dec., 1925, pp. 776–780.
Gasch, Rudolph. "Geschichte der Turnkunst." Leipzig. 1910.

Gasch, Rudolph. "Handbuch des Gesamten Turnwesens und des Verwandten Leibesübungen." Contains 918 pages; very excellent work. Leipzig. 1920.

Hartwell, Edward M. "Physical Training in American Colleges and Universities." Pages 157–185 deal with Germany. Bureau of Education; Circular of Information, No. 5. 1885.

Hartwell, Edward M. "On Physical Training." Pages 523–539 deal with Germany. Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1898, Vol. I.

Hirth, Georg. "Das Gesamte Turnwesen." Contains writings of Jahn and Spiess and their contemporaries. Leipzig. 1893.

Jahn, Friedrich L. "Die Deutsche Turnkunst." Berlin. 1847.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. XI, XII, XIII. Philadelphia. 1923.

Leonard, Fred. "Pioneers of Modern Physical Training." Chap. I, IV, VII. New York. 1922.

McKenzie, R. Tait. "Exercise in Education and Medicine." Chap. VII. Philadelphia. 1923.

Metzner, Henry. "A Brief History of the American Turnerbund." Pittsburgh. 1924.

Pröhle, Heinrich. "Friedrich Ludwig Jahn's Leben." Berlin. 1872.

Rath, Emil. "Physical Education in Germany." A brief report of a visit to German institutions. Mind and Body, Feb., 1923, pp. 389–394.

Roman, Frederick W. "The New Education in Europe." Pp. 233–237 and 242–243. For article on Wander Birds (Die Wandervögel) see pages 220–223.

Rühl, Hugo. "Entwicklungsgeschichte des Turnens." Very excellent work. Leipzig. 1912.

Spiess, Adolph. "Turnbuch für Schulen." Basel. 1847.

Zwarg, Leopold. "The Play and Sport Movement in Germany." Mind and Body, Feb., 1915, pp. 485–488.

CHAPTER XII

SCANDINAVIA SINCE 1800

I. Physical Education in Denmark

The Contributions of Franz Nachtegall.—The progressive nation of Denmark has occupied an important position in the field of physical education during the last century. Danish interest and achievements in gymnastics began in the stormy Napoleonic period, when Denmark suffered humiliation at the hands of the great powers. The evident need for strong national defenders, combined with the Danish love for sports and athletic competition, made Denmark a fertile soil for the growth of the institutions of physical education. The most outstanding leader in the history of physical education in Denmark is Franz Nachtegall (1777-1847).

Nachtegall, when a university student, was a gymnast of first rank. This proficiency and the reading of GutsMuths's works started him on the career of physical educator. He secured the position of teacher of gymnastics in a club of university students and later in a naturalistic school similar to that of Basedow. In 1799 he was director of his own private gymnasium in Copenhagan, which proved to be very popular. In 1804 Denmark turned its attention to the needs of a larger and a better trained army and navy. The authorities recognized that the practice of gymnastics should be an essential part of that training and founded the Military Gymnastic Institute, the first gymnastic normal school of modern times. Nachtegall was made the first director. On his recommendation the government decided to extend the benefits of gymnastics to the schools and to encourage the participation of adults outside the military branches; to that end civilians were permitted to attend the school.

In 1809 the schools of the secondary grade were requested to give instruction in physical exercise. Five years later, 1814, the elementary schools were ordered to provide instructors and to secure grounds and equipment suitable for the practice of gymnastics. This is the first school ordinance establishing physical education as a part of general education in any European nation.

That a large number of teachers might be prepared for the work, courses in gymnastics were established in the various teachers' colleges in addition to the instruction given in the gymnastic institute. Nachtegall was chosen to fill the office of Director of Gymnastics for all Denmark. During the third and fourth decades of the century progress was slow but worthy of notice. The Military Gymnastic Institute secured the permission to establish practice classes for the student teachers among the school children. A manual of gymnastics was published at national expense and distributed to the teachers of physical education in the various schools. Gymnastics for girls became an accepted thing and classes for women teachers of physical education were established in the Military Institute. Some localities far exceeded others in the practice of gymnastics; success or failure depended upon the attitude of the educators in a given community.

The Revival of the Sixties.—On the death of Nachtegall new and less able leaders took charge and at times school gymnastics was threatened with extinction. The disastrous war of 1864 aroused a renewed interest in gymnastics, especially as a means of augmenting national defense. The Danish Rifle Clubs, modeled after those of England, date from this period. Soon after they were organized these clubs took on the features of gymnastic societies; participating in and encouraging others to engage in gymnastics and games, holding track meets and offering their building to classes of school children when no other was available.

Through the entire early period GutsMuths's system, as altered by Nachtegall, and the Jahn-Eiselin system of the German turners prevailed in Denmark. During the 80's

the Ling system of Sweden began its invasion. The resulting controversies, concerning the values of the Ling system, increased the popularity of gymnastics in general and tended to revive school gymnastics, which had been neglected. A committee, appointed for the purpose, arranged a system thought to be suitable for Denmark and published a manual of exercises. This new Handbook of Gymnastics contained many innovations from Sweden but retained much of the material already current in Denmark.

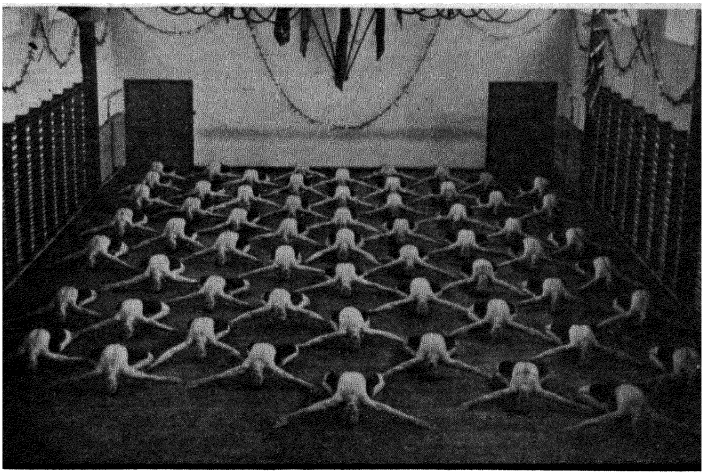
Since 1900 the most noticeable movements have been the demilitarization of educational gymnastics, extension of teacher training facilities, national financial aids in the promotion of physical education, a recognition of the value of sports and games, and the contributions of Niels Bukh.

Demilitarization of School Gymnastics.—For nearly a century the leaders in gymnastics were military men, from highest directors and inspectors to the class teachers. This condition was, of course, a survival of the originally dominant military aim in physical education. The disadvantages were that the aims and methods and theories were not suitable to the school conditions and that the exercises did not become a part of the school but rather remained supplementary to it.

In 1904 school gymnastics was divorced from military gymnastics in every way. To provide civilian teachers the normal colleges and universities established both complete and brief courses in physical education and an independent Central Institute of Gymnastics was opened in Copenhagen. By this means the opportunities for securing training as a teacher of physical education have been increased and made inexpensive. Consequently great numbers of well-trained teachers have gone from these institutions into the schools of Denmark and other countries.

To meet the handicap which many localities experienced in not having sufficient funds to equip a gymnasium and employ an instructor, the national parliament voted to pay one-half the cost.

The Play Movement.—The comparatively recent world-wide recognition of the value of play and playgrounds is noted in Denmark in 1896. Earlier than this, however, many private schools had emphasized group games and outdoor sports and the Copenhagen Playground Association had been established. Under the leadership of this organization the national government appropriated funds to be used by a committee for the purpose of promoting group games among school



CLASS IN PRIMITIVE GYMNASTICS
Ollerup Gymnasium. (Used by permission of Niels Bukh.)

children. Hundreds of schools accepted the plan and were aided and financed by this committee. Teachers' courses have been altered to give time to the theory and management of games popular in Denmark and suitable for physical education, such as Danish ball, cricket, football, and hockey.

Primitive Gymnastics of Niels Bukh.—In 1921 Niels Bukh, the Director of Gymnastics in the People's School at Ollerup, Denmark, developed a new interpretation of the Ling gymnastics. Bukh recognized the many defects of the untrained body, the stiff round back, the forward projecting

neck, the sets of over-developed muscles and undeveloped muscles, and so forth. His aim was to produce the perfect normal physique. To that end all the bad postural habits and occupational deformities and other defects must be eliminated first. Strength, suppleness, and coördination of the entire body must be obtained. The exercises for this purpose are called "Primitif Gymnastike." They differ from the ordinary exercises in that there are no "held" positions and no cessation of movement. In practice the work resembles a long memorized drill of big muscle exercises executed rapidly and with rhythm.

The ideas and methods of Primitive Gymnastics have influenced not only Denmark, but Europe and America. Bukh and a class of Danish gymnasts toured the United States and demonstrated their work in October and November of 1923.

Denmark's leading position in the field of physical education during the last century has not been due to the few innovations and discoveries but rather to her persistent faith in the value of physical education and the almost universal participation by her people.

II. Physical Education in Sweden

Relationship Between Denmark and Sweden.—The history of physical education in Sweden runs parallel to that in Denmark. Although each exerted an influence upon the other, Sweden was more outstanding in her development of new methods and new objectives and in her international influence. Like Denmark, Sweden began with the military motive for national participation in gymnastics, and, when the immediate dangers of foreign attacks were past, continued physical education as a means of increasing national welfare and prosperity.

Contribution of Per Henrik Ling.—The Swedish emphasis on the curative and corrective value of gymnastics, commonly known as medical gymnastics, has given the Swedish system adherents through the world. This movement was due largely to the work of Per Henrik Ling (1776-1839), the founder of the Swedish system. As a university student Ling showed

great aptitude for the foreign languages and literature. After attending the Swedish universities he went to Copenhagen, and remained from 1799 to 1804. While there he studied the old Norse literature and the Danish and German languages and took a course in fencing. He also visted Nachtegall's private gymnasium and very probably read GuthsMuths's "Gymnastics for the Young" which was popular in Denmark at that time. Apparently these events induced Ling to take up the work of physical education. His fencing exercises seemed to improve an arm affliction and he came to believe in the curative possibilities of gymnastics.

In 1804 Ling accepted the position of fencing master at the University of Lund, in Sweden. He required his students to supplement their fencing with riding and vaulting and other gymnastic exercises. At the same time he pursued the study of anatomy and physiology, because he believed that a thorough knowledge of the human body and nature's laws was a minimum for an intelligent understanding of physical education. As Ling became more and more acquainted with the science of the human body he came to believe that the medical value of gymnastics had been too little emphasized and that gymnastics for the weak were as important as gymnastics for the strong; that exercise must be prescribed for the individual rather than for a group; that a system of gymnastics must be based on an accurate knowledge of the effect of the various exercises on the human organism; that teachers and instructors must know the purpose and effect of every exercise and that the aim must be physical harmony and perfection, "The oneness of the human organism; the harmony between the mind and the body."

During these formative years of Ling's work, Sweden was defeated by the French and Russians and, deserted by England, she lost the states of Pomerania and Finland. Like Jahn in Germany and Nachtegall in Denmark, Ling saw that the only hope for national honor lay in a brave and sturdy citizenry, and set out to accomplish that through physical education. These political disasters also called from his pen patri-

otic verses and articles which rank high in Swedish literature.

When Ling became fencing master in the Royal Military School, he proposed that a national institute of physical education be established where teachers might be trained for the ultimate purpose of the physical upbuilding of the Swedish people. The idea met the approval of the authorities and the Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics was opened in Stockholm in 1814. Its most important work immediately was along the line of military gymnastics looking toward national defense. Ling and other instructors taught the soldiers in the Institute and in the neighboring barracks. Ling's system of bayonet fighting and his supplementary exercises and Handbook of Gymnastics was used in the courses. The Institute became the center of this phase of military preparedness.

Per Henrik Ling laid the foundation both in the theory and practice of the Swedish system; his successors have added to and elaborated but never radically altered his original ideas. His "Gymnastikens allmänna Grunder" remains the cornerstone of the structure. In 1913, the centennial of Ling's proposal to establish the Central Institute, Sweden held a national celebration, including addresses, parades, gymnastic meets, and the decoration of Ling's grave.

On the death of Ling in 1839, Lars Gabriel Branting became the director of the Central Institute. The period of wars having passed, the military motive for gymnastics became less important and Branting expanded the field of medical gymnastics. He pointed out that the greatest benefit of many exercises did not accrue to the muscular system but rather to the nervous and circulatory systems and to the viscera.

The medical gymnastic theories caused much controversy among medical men but, in spite of the opposition, they were accepted in Sweden and had great influence in the leading countries of the world.

Physical Education in the Schools.—The spread of gymnastics in the Swedish schools came more slowly than in the Danish. The earliest legislation on the subject was a law requiring a course in physical education for the secondary schools

for boys in 1820. The gradual adoption of a physical education program in all the public schools has not been the result of compulsory legislation but rather a genuine belief that physical exercise is an indispensable part of general education.

During the eighteen-hundred-and-sixties the Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics was reorganized and three separate departments resulted, the pedagogical, the military, and the medical. Hjalmar Ling, the son of Per Ling, became the head of the pedagogical department. The adaption of the Swedish theories to the school room is largely his contribution. This adaptation necessitated the construction of suitable apparatus, the arrangement of group exercises, grading and progression of the work, and a classification of movements for young boys and girls. Through the work of H. Ling the rational "days order" of the Swedish system was evolved.

A very healthy and gradual growth characterizes the history of physical education in the Swedish schools during the last half century. The amount of time to be given to the exercises has been increased until at present a daily period for physical education is required. This requirement applies to all state-supported elementary and high schools.

In the practice of physical education the exercises of the Swedish system, supplemented by games, form the basis of the work. In Sweden the Ling system has always been regarded as superior to all others in its corrective possibilities, its efficiency, its orderliness, and its adaptability to school methods. In some of the schools that have no gymnasia, stall bars and other wall apparatus are arranged in the class room; exercises that will permit of the use of school furniture as apparatus are also given. In the higher schools usually well-equipped gymnasia are found. The spirit of play and athletic competition have invaded Sweden as well as all other countries, and games have become a part of the physical and moral education program. Provision for outdoor games is now made at nearly every school.

The authors of the Swedish system have done much to enrich the field of physical education both in theory and practice.

Their insistence on a complete study of the human organism, including anatomy, physiology, and kinesiology, as a training for the position of teacher of physical education, and on an arrangement of exercises based on that knowledge, places their work in the field of science. The corrective phase of physical exercise has increased in importance in every modern country in recent times. Although apparatus is not regarded as essential to the Swedish system, among the contributions in that field are the stall bars, the inclined rope and the Swedish horizontal bar.

Training of Teachers of Physical Education.—The Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics has been the leading normal school since its origin in 1814. When the school was reorganized into the three departments the prescribed course was lengthened to two years. At present three and four year courses are given. The curriculum includes the theory and practice of the Swedish system, applied orthopedy, and games. The graduates from the pedagogical department become instructors in the high schools and universities and physical directors of city systems. The pupils from the Stockholm schools provide practice classes in educational gymnastics; the free clinics and free treatments offer the students an opportunity to study medical gymnastics, and the military academies serve as the experimenting fields in military gymnastics. There is a general feeling at present, that the institution is not keeping abreast of the times and a general reorganization has been under discussion for several years.

In addition to the Central Institute, normal courses in physical education are given in all the institutions whose purpose is the preparation of teachers. Most of the elementary teachers receive their training there.

The Gymnastic Societies.—The Swedish gymnastic societies have never been so important in Sweden as the Turners have in Germany. The number of organizations and the membership have scarcely equalled that of Norway. Their aim is the promotion of amateur sport rather than gymnastics. The track and field events, swimming, football, skating, skiing, and

many other sports are under their patronage. The entrants in the Olympian Games gain their training and support in these organizations.

Physical Education in the Universities.—More attention is paid to the physical welfare of the university students in Sweden than in Germany but perhaps no more than in the United States. The universities differ greatly in the facilities offered for gymnastics and sports. The University of Upsala has a large gymnasium, a swimming pool, shower baths, and an athletic field. Nowhere is the practice of gymnastics made compulsory in the universities, and, where no facilities are offered, the students who care to take exercise join a private gymnasium or a gymnastic society in the neighborhood.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Bukh, Niels. "Fundamental Gymnastics." Translated by Emily Andrews and Karen Vesterdal. New York. 1928.

Euler, Karl. "Die Geschichte des Turnunterrichtes." 1881.

Hartwell, Edward M. "The Principal Types of Physical Training Compared." Historical pamphlet. Boston. 1892.

Hartwell, Edward M. "On Physical Training." Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1898. Vol. I. Pages 539–548 deal with the Swedish system.

Knudsen, K. A. "A Textbook of Gymnastics." Pages 1–23 give a brief history of gymnastics. Translated by Ruth Herbert and H. G. Junker. Philadelphia. 1923.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chaps. XV, XVI, XVII, XVIII. Philadelphia. 1923.

Leonard, Fred E. "Pioneers in Modern Physical Training." Chaps. II, III, and VIII. New York. 1922.

McDowell, Hilda. "Ollerup Gymnastik Folkhojskole." Mind and Body, July, 1921, pp. 668–670.

McKenzie, R. Tait. "Exercise in Education and Medicine." Chap. VIII deals with Swedish system. Philadelphia. 1923.

Posse, Baron Nils. "Handbook of School Gymnastics of the Swedish System." Boston. 1902.

Stecher, W. A. "Niels Bukh and His Danish Team." Mind and Body. Dec., 1923, pp. 303–304

Sumption, Dorothy. "Fundamental Danish Gymnastics." A. S. Barnes and Co., New York, 1927.

CHAPTER XIII

GREAT BRITAIN SINCE 1800

I. The Outdoor Sports

Origin of British Sport.—While the continental countries created systems of gymnastics and developed the science of physical education, the British people continued their participation in outdoor sports. Britain's isolated position and her powerful navy shielded her from dangerous foreign invasions and, consequently, made unnecessary the strict disciplining and training to which the nations of the Continent subjected themselves for national defense. The conditions which prompted Jahn to advocate the physical development of his people never existed in England. Britain's free institutions, personal liberty and individualism tended to give free rein to the play and sporting instincts of her people. Her large manufacturing and trading population found leisure time and inclination to imitate the nobles in their outdoor sports. The temperate climate was always inviting to outdoor activity. The English nature had a bent for competitive sport, but, on the other hand, was repelled by formal drill excepting for purposes of military training.

History of British Sports.—Every nation of people, savage or civilized, engages in some kind of sport and it goes without saying that English sport is as old as the English people. As early as the year 1200, writers were expressing opinions on the value of games in general and comparing the benefits to be derived from the different sports. A proclamation of Henry VII (C. 1500) reads, "it ever hath bene of old antiquite used in this realme for all lustye gentlemen to pass the delectable season of summer after divers manner and sundry fashions of disport," and establishes a series of

athletic contests, the victors of which are to be rewarded. This national enthusiasm for play led to the invention of many games and to the adoption and alteration of several that were introduced from other lands.

In feudal England the joust and tournament and other knightly sports predominated. With the overthrow of that régime and the rise to importance of the bowmen, archery became the most practiced sport and the one most encouraged by the royal authorities, both for nobles and commons. It was valued as a preparation for war and not at all as a means of physical education. Archery continued to have the royal favor and protection until the invention and common use of the musket lessened the importance of the bow as a weapon.

Golf probably originated in Holland, but when the game was introduced to the Scotch and English, it received such a welcome and added development that it is more commonly identified with Britain than with its native land. During the fifteenth century laws forbidding the playing of golf were passed because it threatened to destroy the popularity of archery. This opposition did not long exist, for in the next century the nobles and the king himself accepted the game. Then golfing clubs were formed by the wealthy people of England, but it was not until the nineteenth century that this game was played by great numbers of commons. Since 1880 it has had a remarkable increase in popularity in England and also in Europe and America.

Hockey was played by the Greeks and Romans and has been a sport of the nations of Europe since that time. The modern name seems to have come from the hooked sticks with which it is played. In Scotland the game was called shinty and in Ireland, hurley. Its recent popularity dates from 1875, when the English Hockey Association was established. Hockey clubs were then organized throughout the British Isles. Games between the teams representing England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales were frequent. Since 1900 matches between England and France and other Continental countries have been common.

Cricket originated in England about the thirteenth century and evolved in the direction of the modern game during the fourteenth century. In spite of the hostile legislation and the scorn of the nobility the game became popular. In the sixteenth century the higher classes took up the sport and, slowly but gradually, it took the position of the national game.

Bowling originated in the Netherlands and Germany, but was soon carried over the world by the Dutch traders. The English and Scotch "naturalized" the alien pastime but never accepted it with the popularity that golf received.

Pitching the quoits became the pastime of the lower classes near the Scotch and English border in the fifteenth century. Neither the laws against it nor Asham's statement that "quoits be too vile for scholars" were sufficient to prevent its encroachments on archery. The rustics found that horseshoes were a good substitute for the regulation quoits.

Tennis seems to have had its origin in France and was played by kings and nobles of both France and England as early as 1300. It was forbidden to the peasant in both countries but, with the winning of political freedom, came freedom in matters of sport and it was taken up by commons. Only in the last century, however, has tennis received its great popularity.

Games resembling football were played by the Greeks and Romans and were probably introduced by the Roman legions into northern Europe and Britain. In the twelfth century the young men of London were in the habit of going to the country green to play football. Henry VIII and Elizabeth outlawed the sport and Sir Thomas Elyot spoke against it in 1537. He said, "Foot Ball wherein is nothynge but beastlye furie and exstreme violence, whereof proceedeth hurte; and consequently malice and rancour do remain with them that be wounded; where of it is to be putt in perpetuall silence." Another writer expressed his opinion. "For as concerning football playing I protest unto you that it may rather be called a friendlie kinde of fyghte than a play or recreation—a bloody

and murthering practice than a fellowly sport or pastime." In Ireland, on the other hand, a law of the sixteenth century forbade all sports except archery and football. Because of its crude "rough and tumble" features it became a game of the commons. Shrove Tuesday was regarded as a special day for playing.

During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries some of the larger schools of England accepted the game as suitable for boys and devised their own local rules for playing. Rugby purchased its first athletic field in 1749 and played football there. It seems to have been a kicking game rather than one of carrying the ball. An honorary tablet at Rugby explains how the game came to be changed. "This stone commemorates the exploit of Wm. Webb Ellis who with a fine disregard for the rules of football as played in his time, first took the ball in his arms and ran with it, thus originating the distinctive feature of the Rugby game A.D. 1823." The Rugby school rules predominated and laid the foundation for the modern football game.

Hammer throwing competition is of Celtic origin and very early became popular in Scotland and Ireland. A common sledge hammer was used and the trials were made for distance only. This was one of the few sports favored by the governing authorities. Changes in the rules of the game and the style of the hammer have altered the fundamentals of the competition very little.

Pole vaulting originated from the method of jumping canals and drain ditches in England; every homestead kept a pole for that purpose. It soon became a form of sport and was engaged in at the fairs and holiday gatherings. Pole vaulting found its way into Germany and was advocated by Jahn and GutsMuths as a valuable exercise.

In addition to these sports might be mentioned curling, which was originated in the Netherlands, skittles, wrestling, boxing, fencing, pitching the bar, prisoners'-base, slinging, skating, rowing, and many more, all of which according to the

British idea kept the nation physically fit. A greater number of people, men, women, and children, engage in these sports than ever before. Wherever the British go their games go with them, whether it be Australia, India, or America. Britain's position in this field has made her a center from which ideas and inspirations have beeen drawn in the international playground and recreation movements. Germany, the Scandinavian countries, and America have felt her influence.

II. Gymnastics in Great Britain

Early History.—Britain did not remain free from the theories and achievements of physical education in the Continental countries. First of all an urgent need was felt in the army for a system of physical training that would combine the benefits derived from formal drill with those derived from competitive sports. In 1822 the government obtained the services of the Swiss army officer and director of gymnastics, Phokion Clias. He was given charge of all physical training in the military and naval schools and was also employed to teach in the Charter House Public School. His theories and methods were largely those of GutsMuths and other Germans. Because of an accident he left England in 1825.

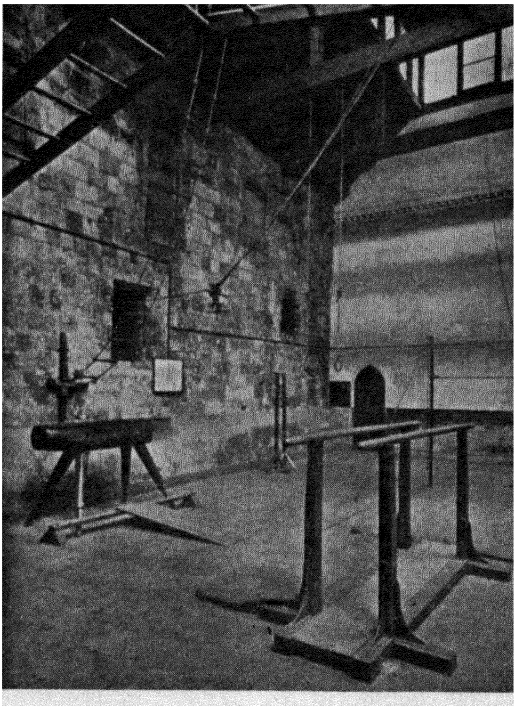
Gymnastics for the army and navy was continued but no very important leader appeared until the coming of the Swedes, Ehrenhoff and, later, Carl Georgii, about 1850. Both were graduates of the Royal Central Institute and both opened private institutions in London. These leaders claimed so much for their system that the British people were brought face to face with the question as to whether their sports were sufficient on whether the Continental systems had anything better to offer.

Contributions of Maclaren.—Archibald Maclaren, (1820-1884), a Scot by birth, was on the Continent at that time giving considerable study to the whole question of physical education. On returning to England in 1858 he established a private gymnasium in Oxford. A few years later the govern-

ment decided to reorganize and regenerate the system of military gymnastics and Maclaren was placed in charge of the work. His ideas were incorporated in a manual "A Military Svstem of Gymnastic Exercises" which was to be used as a text. There was sent to his gymnasium a group of officers who were to be instructed in the theory and practice of gymnastics, and then were to return to the military center at Aldershot, where a normal school for other officers was to be established. The entire plan was carried out and Maclaren's system came to be used in the military and naval schools to supplement the games and sports as a means of increasing the physical fitness of the soldiers and sailors.

Maclaren was not satisfied with that; he believed that educational gymnastics was the direct and more important means of improving the physical standard of the British. His book "A System of Physical Education" printed in 1867 and again in 1885 and again, by his son, in 1895, reveals the following theories: That physical training should accompany the growing period of life; that physical training and mental training should go hand in hand and each should be of benefit to the other; that the much-practiced games in England will not produce a well-balanced organism, but, on the other hand, they will tend to develop a one sidedness; that only trained instructors should be employed; that health rather than strength and skill should be the aim; that "mind and body should be viewed as two well-fitting halves of a perfect whole, designed in true accord mutually to sustain and support each other and each worthy of our unwearied care and unstinted attention"; that school games, sports, and pastimes are recreational, while systematized exercise is educational; that exercises should be regulated by individual fitness; that systematic exercise is not only good for children and soldiers, but for the men of the shops and factories; that exercises must be progressive and organized in a rational manner; that gymnastics must not interfere with the playtime in the school but rather it should become a part of the regular educational program; that gymnastics

"mean a gradual progressive system of physical exercise, so conceived, so arranged, and so administered, that it will naturally and uniformly call forth and cultivate the latent powers and capacities of the body, even as the mental faculties are developed and strengthened by mental culture and exercise."



WESTMINSTER SCHOOL GYMNASIUM BEFORE THE SWEDISH SYSTEM WAS INTRODUCED

Maclaren found fault with the Swedish system because he thought it was too much limited by the medical and corrective aims, and he objected to the German system because of its music and rhythm and its efforts to attain precision in group exercises. However, he invented very little that was new, either in theory or practice, but rather culled from all sys-

tems those theories and practices that suited him. Maclaren was a pioneer in the study of anthropometry, and kept records of measurements and weights of his pupils for the purpose of studying the results of exercise.

Period of Investigation.—In spite of the excellent ideas and valuable contributions of Maclaren, his system did not prove a great success, and was soon displaced by another. Nearly all of the teachers of the Maclaren gymnastics were from the army and consequently, in practice, the school exercises were very much like military drill. Many of the smaller communities objected to the added expense which the introduction of the drill would necessitate. Frequently the school authorities were sceptical about the values to be derived from that kind of instruction.

During the decade 1890-1900 many feeble efforts were made to reform the physical education methods in the interest of recreation and health but nothing of importance was accomplished until the next few years. From 1901 to 1903 there were numerous investigations of the status of physical education, many recommendations for improvement, and schemes for the promotion of both games and formal exercise.

In 1904 the investigating Committee on Physical Deterioration made a long report from which the following statement is taken, "It is desirable that more attention should be given, with the assistance, where possible, of voluntary agencies, to organized games for school children, and for that purpose much greater use should be made both of school and public playgrounds than at present. But the Committee are of the opinion that no scheme of games alone can ever be made general enough to supply the place of methodical physical training. . . ."

Introduction of the Swedish System.—Meanwhile the Swedish system had been brought to England by a number of Danish and Swedish teachers and it was receiving an enthusiastic welcome, especially among women and girls. In 1878 a course in Swedish pedagogical gymnastics was given for the benefit of the women teachers of London; then classes were

established in other parts of the kingdom and Britain came to be well acquainted with that system of gymnastics.

In 1903 the Education Department of Scotland recommended to the school officials a new course which was based on the Swedish system. The next year the English Board of Education published a Syllabus of Physical Exercises which was also founded on the Swedish practice. Since that time Britain has drawn heavily on Denmark and Sweden, not only for material, both in theory and practice, but also for leadership. Knudsen, Langkilde, and Madame Osterberg are a few of the leaders from the Scandinavian countries.

The syllabus was revised in 1909 and again in 1919. During these years many educational laws favoring the spread of school gymnastics were passed; and several training schools for teachers of physical education were established, for example, the Physical Training College at Chelsea and the Dunfermline College of Hygiene and Physical Education.

Health Movement.—England and Scotland have also promoted the health and hygiene movement. Before the close of the last century medical inspection of the school plants and health examination of the pupils was considered as indispensable. In recent times the laws have provided for school doctors and nurses, free school clinics, nutrition classes and open-air classes. The Departments of Education seek to promote a close coöperation between the gymnasium work, including recreation activities, and the general health movement, which is represented by the doctors and nurses. In many localities, for example, Manchester, this is being accomplished with remarkable success.

The emphasis on the systematic formal school gymnastics and the health movement has not detracted from the general participation in outdoor sports and athletic competitions. In the English schools all the children play the popular games; there are interclass, interfraternity, interschool, and intergroups of every kind. No expert is employed to "coach up" a few of the best players.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Ayres, L. P. "Open Air Schools." Chap. III. New York. 1923.
Blaine, Delabere P. "An Encyclopaedia of Rural Sports." Pp. 131–149. London. 1858.
Bradby, Henry C. "Rugby." Contains an account of games and sports. London. 1900.
Brown, H. A. "French National Gymnastic Festival, Bordeaux." Mind and Body, Aug., 1905, pp. 178–179.
Brown, H. A. "Physical Training in English Schools." Shows participation in sports rather than gymnastics in 1900. Mind and Body, Oct., 1900, pp. 176–179.
Colgan, Katherine. "Open Air Schools in London." Gives origin of movement in London. Mind and Body, Sept., 1909, pp. 179–181.
Corbett, B. O. "Annals of the Corinthian Football Club." An English team. London. 1906.
Corbin, John. "School Boy Life in England." Games at Eton and Rugby. New York. 1898.
Curtis, Henry S. "Play in the English Schools." Mind and Body, May, 1911, pp. 127–130.
Curtis, Henry S. "Education Through Play." Chap. VI. New York. 1915.
Encyclopedias, Britannica, Americana, New International. See the various sports.
Griffen, H. H. "Athletics." Chap. I is historical. London. 1898.
"Investigations Relating to Physical Training and Physical Deterioration in Great Britain." Report of U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1904. Vol. II, pp. 828–832.
Jacob, A. Gertrude. "Health Work in London." Mind and Body, Sept.–Oct., 1926, pp. 204–212.
Knudsen, K. A. "A Text Book of Gymnastics." Pp. 1–23. Translated by Ruth Herbert and H. G. Junker. Philadelphia. 1923.
Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. XIX. Philadelphia. 1923.
Maclaren, Archibald. "A System of Physical Education." Oxford. 1885.
Peck, Hedley and Aflalo. "The Encyclopaedia of Sport." Two large volumes; discusses many sports. New York. 1898.
Roman, Frederick W. "The New Education in Europe." Pages 225–231 and 238–240. New York. 1923.
Rouse, William H. D. "A History of Rugby School." Origin of football and the games played at Rugby. Pp. 218 and 321–347. 1898.
Savage, Howard J. "Games and Sports in British Schools and Universities." A very complete survey; published by the Carnegie Foundation For Advancement of Teaching. New York. 1927.
Strutt, Joseph. "The Sports and Pastimes of the People of England." London. 1898.
Walsh, John H. "Rural Sports." London. 1882.
Whitney, Caspar. "Sporting Pilgrimage." Chapters on Golf, Rowing, Football, Club and University Athletics, and the English Sporting Spirit. New York. 1895.

CHAPTER XIV

OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES SINCE 1800

Switzerland.—The nations of Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and Great Britain have led the world in their achievements in physical education; they have given distinctive theories and methods of practice, but many other European countries have kept abreast of the times and occupy an important place in this movement.

Switzerland has been an experimenting field during the last hundred years; Pestalozzi organized his famous schools, and developed his important theories there; Dalcroze originated his system of eurythmics there, but perfected it in Germany; Spiess obtained his experience and formulated his ideas of school gymnastics there; Phokion Clias began his career in the Swiss army and carried the results of his experience to England and to France. This country was the refuge of the German turners when they were driven from the fatherland because of their belief in free and democratic government. The Swiss gymnastic societies took the Jahn turner system as their model but in recent times have given more and more attention to sports and recreation. For several decades Switzerland has led all other countries in membership in gymnastic societies in comparison to the total population. The Spiess system of school gymnastics was adopted for the schools.

France.—The French, having originated no system, have been ready to accept every European theory and practice. Their earliest leaders in physical education were the Swiss, Phokion Clias, and the Spaniard, Francis Amoros (1769-1848).

Colonel Amoros came to France in 1814 and, in a few years, was recognized as the leading advocate of physical education

for the army and the schools. The government appointed him national director of gymnastics in 1831. At first he confined his attention to military gymnastics and founded a central school at Grenelle, which was later moved to Joinville. In 1838 he published his "Manuel d'éducation physique, gymnastique et morale." A methodical progression was followed in the exercises. First came the exercises for suppling the body; all were without apparatus and some were accompanied by singing. Then marching, leaping, balancing exercises on fixed and moving beam, dumbbell exercises, work on the trapeze, wrestling, climbing walls, climbing rope ladders and knotted ropes, and vaulting on the wooden horse and so on.

In the absence of a rational basis for the science of physical education the French gymnastics came to incorporate a great variety of movements regardless of their benefits to the body. Maclaren characterized the so-called French system as a "system of bodily exercise but not a system of bodily training."

Phokion Clias, with the experience gained in Switzerland and England, came to France in 1841. He began teaching in the barracks and schools in the vicinity of Besançon. In 1844 he was made director of physical education for the school of Paris. The Revolution of 1848 terminated the activities of Clias, marked the death of Amoros, and inaugurated a period of stagnation in physical education which lasted until 1871. The disastrous war with Prussia in 1870-1871 left France prostrate and brought about a renaissance in physical education as a means of national regeneration.

During the years of turner prosperity in Germany, France had imitated the system, but by 1870 she had only about fifteen gymnastic societies in the entire country. The numbers began to increase at once and in 1873 the National Union of Gymnastic Societies was formed. In 1876 there were 189 societies and in ten more years 870. This revival is also shown in the reorganization of school gymnastics in the large cities. In 1872 and in 1880 the laws which made gymnastic exercises compulsory in boys' schools were passed. Seven

years later the system was extended to the elementary schools for girls. These laws did not reach all of the children until 1905, because they did not apply to the ecclesiastical schools.

Physical education, in the school and on the athletic field, has been subject to the ebb and tide of popular favor. During the early eighteen nineties France's backwardness in formal gymnastics and gymnastic societies, when compared to Germany or Sweden, and her inability to match up to England in the outdoor sports, led Coubertin to propose the revival of the old Olympian Games. The poor showing made by the French at the games in 1896 added impetus to the already growing agitation for greater attention to bodily development. Since 1900 the schools have been more adequately provided with gymnasia and apparatus and more time has been allowed for physical training. A system based on the Swedish has been gaining in popularity. Soon after the World War the Department of Education created the Subdepartment of Physical Education whose duty is to enforce and improve the laws on that subject.

Belgium.—Belgium, like France, has welcomed the systems of both Germany and Sweden and also the sports of England. In 1887 the Belgian gymnastic societies numbered sixty-nine and in 1910 there were one hundred and twenty-five with very large increase in membership. During this period school gymnastics secured a firm hold on the education of the youth. One of Belgium's most noted physical educators was Johann Happel. He was one of the founders of the Antwerp Gymnastic Society in 1857 and of the Fédération des Sociétés Belges de Gymnastique. Happel was an authority on physical education and a director of a normal school of gymnastics.

Czecho-Slovak Republic.—Bohemia, like Germany, sought national preservation and freedom in the promotion of physical education. The first national gymnastic society, known as the Sokol (falcon), was originated by Dr. Tyrs in Prague. These organizations came to be a patriotic as well as a gymnastic movement and rapidly spread throughout Bohemia. The emigrants carried the institution with them and now

they are found in nearly all Bohemian communities. The German system of gymnastics, with slight alterations, was adopted. The great gymnastic festivals at Prague usually attract world-wide attention. In 1912 the representatives from the Sokols of every country came to compete in the games; about 12,000 participated at the same time in the free exercise drills. One thousand members of the American Sokols attended the celebration. These societies, and the school gymnastics as well, are thriving under the new government of Czecho-Slovakia.

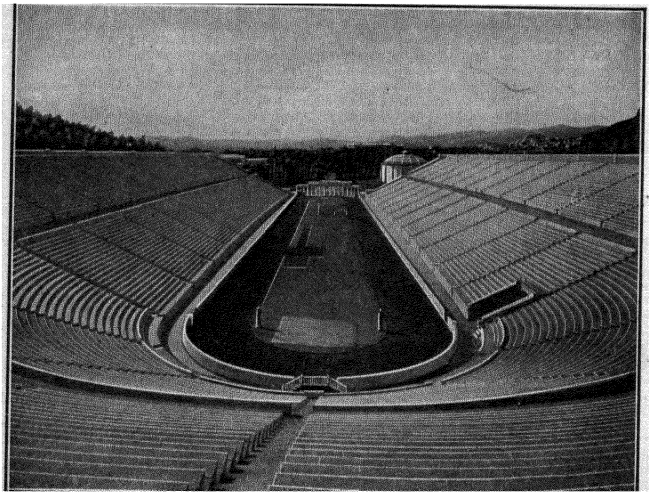
Holland.—Holland, the home of many outdoor games, has welcomed various systems of gymnastics and promotes recreation through play. She too has her gymnastic societies. The same can be said of Norway, Italy, Austria, and Finland.

General Movements in Europe.—Nearly all the countries of Europe hold national gymnastic festivals in which not only individual athletic competitions are held but also contests in the precision and skill of performance of group exercises and drills. Such meets have been annual affairs in nearly all the nations for thirty to fifty years. For many years previous to the great war the European Federation of Gymnastic Societies held their international games.

Nearly every Continental country was originally led to the fostering of physical education through the military motive; the idea was that gymnastic societies and gymnastics in the schools produced good soldiers. Physical education for girls awaited new theories and aims. The many years of peace that followed the Napoleonic era required new motives for a widespread system of physical education.

The general advance in physiology, bacteriology, hygiene, and medicine formed a basis for new theories. The recognition of the value of good health, from the individual and humanitarian point of view, tended to place physical education on a level with mental and moral education. These ideas broadened the field of physical education to include hygiene dietetics, ventilation, sanitation, municipal and school playgrounds, and linked it closely with medical inspection and

school nursing. Nearly every country in Europe has adopted medical inspection in the schools and has required health and physical examination of the pupils as a logical preliminary to physical education. All accept personal hygiene as a study for the schools and community. The playground movement has invaded every nation and has influenced the school gymnastics



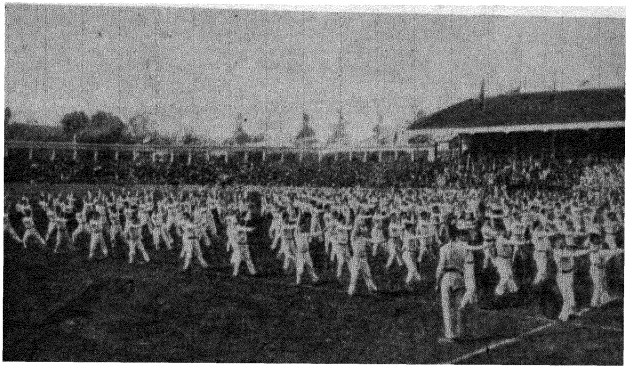
THE STADIUM AT ATHENS

First built in 330 B.C.; rebuilt of marble 143 A.D.; restored 1896. Scene of the first modern olympic games. (By courtesy of American Book Company.)

in the direction of group games. The love for games and the instinct to play, bolstered up by the argument that supervised play is an agency of moral training and character building, has threatened to produce a decline of formal gymnastics in many countries.

The World War has induced every nation to take stock of its man power and to look to the future. Everywhere sports, gymnastics and general physical development are regarded as the best if not the sole agency of national regeneration.

Modern Olympic Games.—About 1884, Baron Pierre de Coubertin made a study of English education as a means of securing ideas for the improvement of the French educational system. He came to the conclusion that the universal participation in games was one of the main factors making for the excellent training of the British youth. He immediately set about to popularize sports and games in France. He was largely responsible for the organization of the Sociétés des Sports Athletiques in 1892. As a means of spurring his nation



A GYMNASTIC EXHIBITION AT THE 1920 OLYMPICS

on to achievements in the field of athletics, he promoted international matches in football and in boat racing and other activities.

Coubertin began to agitate the revival of the old Olympic Games and invitations were sent to the leading gymnastic federations of different countries to attend a conference in which the proposed games were to be discussed. The German Turnerschaft ignored it, Belgium was hostile, Britain was skeptical, and French opinion was divided. Spain, Italy, Greece and Sweden supported the movement. The meeting was held in 1894 in Paris and the seventy-five delegates who came voted to revive the games, and decided to hold the first

one at Athens in 1896. The Greek royal family took the games under their patronage; a wealthy merchant restored the ancient stadium, and other personal contributions insured the financial support of the undertaking.

Paris received the Olympic Games in 1900, St. Louis in 1904, London in 1908, Stockholm in 1912, they were planned for Berlin in 1916, they were held in Antwerp in 1920 and in Paris in 1924. Every meet has shown a great increase in the



THE 10,000 METER CROSS-COUNTRY RUN OF 1920 OLYMPICS
Nurmi of Finland Won.

number of entrants and in the variety of games and competitions, and in the time necessary for the preparation and for the completion of the events. With the inclusion of the winter sports the games now extend over a period of several months. Forty-four nations competed in the 1924 games at Paris. The United States won the greatest number of points and Finland took second place. The original aim, that the Olympic Games should arouse a world-wide interest in athletic sports and games for amateurs, has been accomplished.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Bonnamaux, Charles. "The Contributions of Baron Pierre de Coubertin to Physical Education." American Physical Education Review, Feb., 1918, pp. 91–98.

Cermak, Joseph. "Bohemian Gymnastic Associations." Historical account of the Sokols. Mind and Body, Feb., 1897, pp. 232–234, and Mar., 1897, pp. 1–2.

De Courbertin, Baron Pierre. "The Redemption of Athletics." Coubertin gives reasons for reviving the Olympic Games. Mind and Body, Sept., 1898, pp. 167–168.

Demeny and Marey. "Travaux de La Commission de Gymnastique." Paris. 1889.

Gasch, Rudolph. "Die Geschichte der Turnkunst." Leipzig. 1910.

Jicinsky, J. R. "The Festivities of the Slavic Sokols in Prague." Mind and Body, Dec., 1912, pp. 331–334.

Jicinsky, J. R. "National Gymnastic Festivals of the Bohemians." Deals with the Sokols of America. Mind and Body, June, 1909, p. 142.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. XX. Philadelphia. 1923.

Leonard, Fred E. Pioneers of Modern Physical Training." See Chap. V and VI. New York. 1922.

McKenzie, R. Tait. "Exercise in Education and Medicine." Chap. IX on The War of the Systems in France. Philadelphia. 1923.

Olympic Games. Consult the Reports of the American Olympic Committee for the various years.

Roman, Frederick W. "New Education in Europe." Pages 129–130 and 231–232 and 240–242. New York. 1923.

Sargent, D. A. "Olympic Games and Gymnastic Festivals." A comparison. Mind and Body, Feb., 1909, pp. 361–367.

Schrader, Carl L. "Extracts from European Journals on Physical Training." Gives statistics of gymnastic societies for countries of Europe. Mind and Body, Nov., 1900, p. 200.

PART II
IN AMERICA

CHAPTER XV

THE COLONIAL PERIOD TO 1790

Colonial Outdoor Games.—The colonists brought to the new land the civilization of the countries from which they came. None, however, brought a system of physical education, for none had as yet been organized in Europe. Neither were conditions in the new land conducive to an immediate development of that feature of education. The population of America was 95 per cent. rural throughout this period; the conquest of the forest, the agricultural life, and little leisure time left no need for organized gymnastics. The towns were far apart, and were so busily occupied with matters of graver importance that athletic rivalry among them failed to make an appearance.

These conditions could not destroy the play instinct of the colonists and they engaged in the sports of the mother country as frequently as the new conditions permitted. The only sections without games were those occupied by the Puritans of the New England colonies. The Puritan religion and social teachings made life a very serious affair. The common belief was that it was neither wise, nor righteous nor profitable to waste time in such idleness. Games that appeared to be innocent and harmless might lead to greater folly and waywardness.

On Christmas Day, 1621, Governor Bradford ordered the men of Plymouth out to their daily work. New comers who had recently arrived on the *Fortune* excused themselves saying it was against their conscience to work on Christmas Day. "So he led away ye rest and left them: but when they came home at noone from their worke he found them in ye streete at play, openly: some pitching ye barr & some at stoole-ball and shuch like sports. So he went to them and took away their implements and tould them it was against his conscience that

they should play & others work. If they made ye keeping of it a mater of devotion let them kepe their houses, but ther should be no gameing or revelling in ye streets. Since which time nothing hath been attempted that way, at least openly."

The Dutch in New York formed a great contrast; there the games and sports were enjoyed by all. The most popular outdoor sport was bowling. It was played on the level greens of the commons; Bowling Green in New York City marks the place of these activities. Later, hard clay alleys were made. Originally nine pins were used but, because of excessive betting, the game was outlawed and legend has it that a tenth pin was added to evade the law. America accepted the bowling game more readily and more universally than any other country where it was introduced. Skating and coasting proved to be the most popular winter sports; Dutch skates and sleds were used. Hunting and fishing yielded much pleasure and no little profit. Backgammon and trock and hiking afforded amusement and recreation for many.

In Virginia nearly all the British sports flourished. Muster day, when all men were to report for military instruction, was an occasion for athletic competitions and games; foot races, jumping, boxing, wrestling, cockfights, and horseracing were the main attractions at these gatherings and at the fairs and picnics. The winners received prizes and considerable notoriety. Such meets were crude but enjoyable and were engaged in without training. Fox hunting was the universal sport of the Virginia gentlemen.

Toward the latter part of the period the boys and young men of all the English settlements played football, cricket, fives, rounders, and many other games. The village commons, or green, served as the first municipal playground in America. According to legend, the British soldiers quartered in Boston just before the Revolutionary War, interfered with the boys' games on the public commons, but when complaint was made to the British officer, General Haldimand, he ordered that the boys be unmolested. In towns where public grounds were not available the streets were used for play, much to the disapproval of the Puritans. The children of the colonies and of

England had a much greater variety of games than are being played at the present time. Hoops, hopscotch, marbles and tops were enjoyed then as now.

The School and Physical Education.—The elementary education of boys and girls was cared for through private tutors, district schools, and public schools for paupers. The teachers were quite unprepared for their task; books were few, the school hours were long, and discipline was severe. Reading, writing, ciphering, and spelling comprised the curriculum. No place was given for play or recreation, to say nothing of scientific bodily training. The teachers were hired to "keep school;" they did not understand the children and did not know their needs or their interests. Pestalozzi and Basedow had had no influence on America; there was no science of education in these schools. Play and its significance and its possibilities in education were not understood.

Secondary education was provided by the grammar schools. These institutions were located in every large town and were supported by tuition and by subsidy from the local government. They were to teach "the scholars Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, and fit them for college." Only the sons of the professional classes attended them. The aim of the grammar school was not to fit the pupils for immediate participation in society. Its subject matter was very foreign to the society of that time, but it led to the career of doctor, lawyer or minister. The educational method and spirit and aim were hostile to the idea of physical education or even play. The "scholar," preparing for college, should be above the rowdy boisterous games of other boys; such activity did not make for dignity and scholarly bearing. Furthermore, the boys of these institutions were too young to stimulate athletic rivalry between schools.

There was one notable exception to the usual type of grammar school, namely, the Dummer Grammar School at Byfield, Massachusetts, managed by the famous master Samuel Moody. Moody encouraged the boys in their sports and participated in them also. He had modern ideas on the necessity and the value of play and recreation. He, however, belongs to the period of the academies and his school was

incorporated as an academy in 1782. The influence of this school led to the establishment of the Phillips and Leicester Academies. Although the spirit of most of the grammar schools was against play and the school hours were long, yet the boys had their sports of swimming, skating, coasting, shinny, football, rounders, and similar games.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Brown, Elmer E. "The Making of Our Middle Schools." Pages 138, 139, 180, 245, 396, 433 and 450. New York. 1905.

Earle, Alice M. "Child Life in Colonial Days." Chap. XVII. New York. 1922.

Fiske, John. "Old Virginia and Her Neighbors." Vol. II, pp. 218–228. Boston. 1900.

Graves, Frank P. "History of Education in Modern Times." Chap. IV. New York. 1913.

Hart, Albert B. "Source-book of American History." Pages 122–123 concerning life of a colonial schoolboy. New York. 1917.

Lodge, Henry C. "A Short History of the English Colonies in America." Pages 83 to 86 and 129, 156, 251 and 330. New York. 1881.

Wertenbaker, Thomas J. "A History of American Life." Vol. II. "The First Americans." Chap. XI. New York. 1927.

CHAPTER XVI

NATIONAL PERIOD TO THE CIVIL WAR

I. Physical Education in the Academies

Origin of the Academies.—The history of the American academies begins with the national history of the United States. These institutions rapidly became the most popular secondary schools in the country and in time displaced the colonial grammar schools. Their aim was the preparation of pupils for life and for social participation rather than for college. Their broad curriculum of subjects of a practical nature appealed to the middle class. This academic movement was a manifestation of a general reformation in the theory and practice of American educational procedure. The academies usually owed their origin to a working over of the old grammar schools or were founded by a philanthropist or an educator. During this period of reform it was possible to introduce many innovations and try various experiments.

Status of Physical Education in the Academies.—Among the new movements introduced by the academies was a greater emphasis on the physical welfare of the students and the desirability if not the necessity of physical exercise. Among the earliest supporters of that phase of education was Benjamin Franklin. In 1743 appeared his "Proposals Relating to the Education of the Youth in Pennsylvania." He recommended that academies be organized whose aim was to prepare the youth for society. The school must have a "healthful situation," with garden, orchard, meadow and fields. Provision must be made for the students to engage in games, running, leaping, wrestling, and swimming. Some years later a school was organized in Philadelphia along these lines.

About 1755 the Moravian settlement at Nazareth Hall, Pennsylvania, organized a secondary school providing for

manual labor and play, in addition to the intellectual training. There was some instruction given in hygiene and care of the health. This institution was regarded as progressive if not actually ahead of its time.

The Dummer school, mentioned before, was one of the first to accept the idea that exercise and games are necessary to a proper growth of the youth and that the school is responsible for the physical education as well as the intellectual. The success of these early institutions insured the spread of the academy type of school. The Phillips Andover and Exeter Academies and the Leicester Academy were incorporated before 1790. By 1830 when the movement reached its zenith there were about eight hundred throughout the United States.

There are several reasons why the academies fostered hygiene and physical education. First of all, since their purpose was to prepare for life, a reasoning as to what was necessary in life would follow. It was obvious that good health was a requisite for efficient participation in any kind of society. Again one should be able to take part in the sports of the time. The students of the academies were older than those of the old grammar schools and the sports and athletic competitions were more interesting. The school hours were not so long and therefore more time was available for games and recreation, especially after school. The theories of Pestalozzi, Froebel and Fellenberg which were penetrating America assigned an educational value to play and to manual labor.

Usually no time was set aside for exercise as a regular part of the school work, but after school the entire student body was encouraged to participate in the group games and athletic sports. The institutions were so located that sufficient space was at hand. At Phillips-Exeter Academy, in New Hampshire, the entire school engaged in a sort of soccer as early as 1800.

Gideon F. Thayer was one of the outstanding leaders in the academy movement and was especially interested in the promotion of the physical welfare of the students. In 1820 he was a teacher in a private school in Boston where he provided some crude apparatus for the physical exercises. At recess period

his custom was to take the boys to the Boston Commons where games were played. In 1828 he organized the Chauncy Hall School in Boston and made provision for exercises and games. The Salem, Massachusetts, Latin School in 1821 encouraged play for its educational and recreational value and may have had some simple apparatus.

None of the academy faculties, however, had an accurate idea of the real scope and significance of the science of physical education; few leaders took seriously the idea that trained teachers should be employed to teach hygiene and bodily development. The popular conception was that the place for games and physical exercise was after school hours, and that teachers were unnecessary, and that the play instinct was a sufficient urge and guide. Consequently, the school athletics were managed by the students without the control of the authorities.

Physical Education in the Military Academies.—During the first few decades of our national history many prominent statesmen and soldiers proposed and urged the introduction of military training into the schools of the nation. In 1802 the West Point National Military Academy was created by law but was not adequately provided for until after the War of 1812. Since that time physical education and military drill have formed an important part of its curriculum.

Captain Alden Partridge, one of its earliest superintendents, resigned from the service in 1818 and began an agitation for the reform of the higher educational institutions of the nation. He maintained that, "Another defect in the present system is the entire neglect, in all our principal seminaries, of physical education. The great importance and even the absolute necessity of a regular and systematic course of exercise for the preservation of health, and confirming and rendering vigorous the constitution, must be evident to the most superficial observer. It is for want of this that so many of our most promising youths lose their health by the time they are prepared to enter on the grand theater of active and useful life."

In 1820 Captain Partridge opened his American Literary

Scientific Academy at Norwich, Vermont. He claimed great success in "connecting mental improvement with a regular course of bodily exercises and the full development of physical powers, the whole conducted under a military system of discipline." He organized six schools on these principles. The Connecticut Legislature refused to charter his Middletown Academy as a college, because of its deficiency in intellectual instruction. There was a rapid spread of military academies, especially throughout the South, where the states frequently subsidized them. A very large number of the officers of the Confederate armies were graduates of these schools.

The leading educators either ignored the military discipline movement or else opposed it on the grounds that it was not in harmony with American educational ideals. Nevertheless these institutions gave more time and effort to physical training than any other educational institutions in America.

During this period of educational unrest and experiment many European theories found ready trial and acceptance.

II. How German Gymnastics Came to America

Charles Beck at the Round Hill School.—George Bancroft and Joseph G. Cogswell organized an academy, the Round Hill School, at Northampton, Massachusetts, in 1823. These men had become acquainted with some French and German theories of education and they wished to establish the best of them in America, and the Round Hill School was to embody these theories. In addition to the regular academic subjects, the school offered industrial training and gave unusual attention to play, recreation, gymnastic exercises, and care of the health. The founders said, "We are deeply impressed with the necessity of uniting physical with moral education and are particularly favored in executing our plan of uniting them by the assistance of a pupil and friend of Jahn, the greatest modern advocate of gymnastics."

This "pupil and friend of Jahn" was Dr. Charles Beck. He

and Charles Follen, both prominent turners and skillful gymnasts, had been compelled to leave Germany when Jahn was arrested and the ban was placed on turnen. They first sought refuge in Switzerland, then France and finally America. They landed in New York harbor in the latter part of December, 1824.

Two months later Beck was given a position at the Round Hill School as teacher of Latin and gymnastics. The connection of this gymnast with that American school constitutes the beginning of German gymnastics in the United States. It is also of importance as the first instance, in the United States, of a strictly literary or industrial school requiring gymnastic exercises, providing an experienced teacher and an outdoor gymnasium, and giving the subject a place on the daily program. A student of the school said, "Dr. Beck was the teacher of gymnastics. A large piece of ground was devoted to the purpose and furnished with all the apparatus used in the German gymnasia. The whole school was divided into classes and each class had an hour three times a week for instruction by Dr. Beck. . . . Baseball, hockey, and football were the games. . . . Developing the bodily powers and strengthening the constitution were there first recognized as of great importance in the education for boys."

Beck published an English translation of Jahn's "Deutsche Turnkunst" in 1828. The preface, which Beck wrote, indicates that he failed to note a very great difference between the social and political conditions of America and those of Germany. He wrote of the great advantages to be "derived by a republic from gymnastic exercises, uniting in one occupation all the different classes of people and thus forming a new tie for those who, for the most part, are widely separated by their different education and pursuits of life." He was voicing an aim of the gymnastic societies of Germany, but the people of America did not and could not have realized any connection between the practice of gymnastics and social or political development.

The Round Hill School also incorporated the idea of Fellen-

berg in that it had gardens where the boys were taught to raise vegetables. These innovations made the institution one of the most discussed and the most influential of that time. It served as an inspiration and a model for many other institutions. One of its pupils founded St. Paul's at Concord, New Hampshire, where "gymnastics and manly exercises adapted to preserve health and strengthen the physical condition," were practiced, according to its founder.

Dr. Beck left the school in 1830 to assist in establishing the Phillipstown Academy, New York. Two years later he became professor of Latin in Harvard University and gradually his literary and classical studies took the place of the career as physical educator. The Round Hill School was closed in 1834 because of financial difficulties.

Charles Follen at Harvard and in Boston.—While Beck was at the Round Hill School his companion refugee secured the position of teacher of the German language in Harvard University. The next spring, 1826, with the approval of the university officials, he introduced the Jahn gymnastics to the students and established the first college gymnasium in America. On a piece of ground called the Delta, the students, directed by Follen, constructed some crude apparatus consisting of bars, ladders, wooden horses, and suspended ropes, and laid out places for running and jumping. It was a German turnplatz transplanted to America. Wednesdays and Fridays from 12 to 1 o'clock and after school hours were the appointed times for gymnastics. The authorities also appropriated one of the vacant halls for indoor work. Gymnastics was not made compulsory, but the student body showed great enthusiasm and Follen had large numbers on the Delta and on the hikes and the cross-country runs.

The prominent citizens of Boston began agitation for a public gymnasium. Dr. John C. Warren, Professor of Anatomy and Physiology at Harvard, was a leader in the movement. The Board of Aldermen granted a request for a piece of ground for the purpose of establishing a school of gymnastic instruction and exercise. Money was raised by

public subscription to guarantee a salary to Dr. Follen and to provide apparatus. By September, 1826, the first public gymnasium, or turnplatz, was ready. Men and boys of all ages came and practiced the exercises with great zest and enthusiasm, the newspapers and periodicals gave the institution much publicity, stories were told of added strength and renewed vigor obtained through the exercises. Follen seems to have known even in the midst of this apparent success that gymnastics was not resting on solid foundations in America and that it would soon prove to be only a fad. He resigned from the Boston Gymnasium in June, 1827, and the next year he had no connection with the Harvard Gymnasium. He remained at the university as Instructor of German, Ethics and History until 1835.

Francis Lieber.—Dr. Warren made efforts to induce Jahn himself to come to America and take charge of the Boston Gymnasium but was unsuccessful. He then secured the services of a third refugee, Francis Lieber. Lieber was prominent in the turner movement in Germany and, soon after Jahn's arrest, he was seized and held in prison for four months. Later he became a swimming teacher in Berlin, but knowing that he was continually suspected by the government, he went to England and finally to America. He landed June, 1827, and went at once to take up his duties in the Boston Gymnasium and to open a swimming school. The latter institution proved very popular and enrolled students as late as 1832. But even the expert gymnast could not keep the Boston Gymnasium alive; the novelty was wearing off; the participants became the target for the humorist and caricaturist. The effort to transplant the alien system of gymnastics without radical alteration failed completely. About twenty years later the turner system was introduced again, but this time in the German settlements. As for the native Americans, it was clear they would have to test and analyze and alter and acclimate the foreign ideas, and add something of their own, before a system of physical education, suitable to the new nation, could be found.

The Spread of Gymnastics.—The gymnastic methods at the Round Hill School, Harvard University, and in the Boston Gymnasium became the models for similar undertakings elsewhere. During that period about fifteen secondary schools and the universities of Yale, Amherst, Williams, Brown, Charlestown, and Bowdoin organized outdoor gymnasia. In many cases the faculty and students worked together to clear the ground and construct apparatus. Instructors were employed, and classes were held from two to five times per week. In addition to the outdoor gymnasium a room was usually provided for indoor work. The apparatus consisted of parallel and horizontal bars, ladders, ropes, masts, and wooden horses. Running and hiking were encouraged. In some institutions fencing and boxing were taught.

The Decline.—The practice of gymnastics proved to be of only passing interest and by 1830 scarcely any educational institutions, excepting the military schools, were giving any attention to physical education. Beck, Follen and Lieber left the field of gymnastics and took up work of a very different nature, in which all won distinction and honor.

In 1830 Dr. Warren, who had promoted physical education and health instruction in every possible way, delivered an address before the prominent educators who had met in Boston to form the American Institute of Instruction. He spoke at length and in a scholarly manner on the effects of poor ventilation, unsanitary school buildings, improper seating and on the universal necessity for intelligently directed physical education and concerning the relation of physical exercise to the problems of general education. But he also said, concerning the gymnastic fad, which had just passed, "The establishment of gymnasia throughout the country promised, at one period, the opening of a new era in physical education. The exercises were pursued with ardor so long as their novelty lasted; but . . . they have gradually been neglected and forgotten at least in our vicinity. The diversions of the gymnasium should constitute a regular part of the duties of all our colleges and seminaries of learning."

The practice of gymnastics in the literary schools of the nation ceased, but the conviction that something should be done for bodily development remained in the minds of leading doctors and educators until the actual revival of gymnastics in the eighteen-hundred-and-fifties and sixties.

III. Calisthenics for Women

Contribution of Catherine Beecher.—In 1828 Catherine E. Beecher founded the Hartford Female Seminary in Connecticut. The school soon became the most famous institution of higher learning for women and girls in the United States, and its founder, the foremost leader in the movement of education for women. Miss Beecher's idea was that physical and moral education were equal in importance to the intellectual, and, further, that girls should be given instruction in the management of a household. She was the first to teach domestic science and dietetics and to write a text on that subject. She also emphasized the necessity of health preservation and the teaching of hygiene. In 1832 her family moved to Cincinnati, Ohio, where she opened another seminary and supervised it for two years.

In these two schools Miss Beecher developed a system of calisthenics for girls. The exercises were made up of simple movements to be accompanied by music. She preferred that they be practiced in a hall arranged for the purpose, but, where that was not convenient, the ordinary schoolroom would suffice. The aims were to produce grace of motion, good carriage, and sound health. A few schools adopted Miss Beecher's system of calisthenics, but almost none continued it throughout the eighteen-hundred-and-forties. Miss Beecher left the school work in 1834, but continued the agitation for higher education for women through a national organization.

When interest in physical education revived in the fifties Miss Beecher wrote her book, "Physiology and Calisthenics," which advocated the teaching of these subjects in the schools. Some years later she said: "When physical education takes the

proper place in our schools, young girls will be trained in the classrooms to move head, hands and arms gracefully; to sit, stand and walk properly and to pursue calisthenic exercises for physical development as a regular school duty as much as their studies; and these exercises set to music, will be sought as the most agreeable of school duties." Miss Beecher did nothing revolutionary in physical education, but she made a distinct contribution by insisting that no program of education for women was complete until it gave a place to physical development.

IV. Physical Education Through Manual Labor

Origin of the Movement.—About 1790 Dr. Benjamin Rush of Philadelphia advocated the combining of industrial training with intellectual education. The plan seemed well suited to the growing spirit of democracy in education, because the students, without financial means, could defray a part of their educational expenses with the products of their labor. It was not until the theories of Pestalozzi and Fellenberg came to America that these ideas were put into practice. At the same time came the wave of popularity for German gymnastics, which, though having little permanent influence in American educational practice, gave the advocates of the manual labor schools a valuable argument. They said that labor in the shops and gardens was as beneficial to health as exercise in a gymnasium, and that it had the added advantage of teaching the pupils a trade, encouraging habits of industry, and affording a pecuniary profit. Fellenberg himself, however, had never advocated manual labor as a substitute for gymnastic exercises and games.

History of the Manual Labor Schools.—In nearly every state "labor schools wherein the students shall be required to labor a portion of the day" were organized. The system especially appealed to the schools of the religious denominations. For example, in Indiana, the Presbyterians organized Wabash Manual Labor College in 1833 and Hanover in 1834,

the Baptists founded the Indiana Baptist Manual Labor School in 1835, the Methodists, Asbury University in 1837 and the Friends, Earlham College in 1842. All these institutions have long ago dispensed with the manual labor phase of education and now exist as Wabash, Hanover, Franklin, Depauw and Earlham Colleges or Universities. Cokesbury College, a Methodist school at Abingdon, Maryland, forebade play and substituted work as the preferable outlet for excess energy.

In 1831 the manual labor leaders met at New York and organized the Society for Promoting Manual Labor in Literary Institutions. Theodore Weld toured the country lecturing in favor of the movement. One of his reports stated that the ordinary educational system was detrimental to health, tended to make an effeminate mind and was perilous to morals; that it failed to stimulate effort and that it destroyed habits of industry and was anti-democratic. That manual labor, on the other hand, was the best form of exercise and conserved the time which gymnastics would waste. Military training should not be permitted in the schools "until fighting becomes the appropriate vocation of man, and human butchery the ordinary business of life."

During the forties the manual labor phase of education proved to be impracticable. To-day the essence of the idea is revived in the vocational subjects, but no one regards the shop and garden work as a substitute for gymnastics and recreation. With the passing of the manual labor the students turned to athletics and games, either with or without the encouragement of the faculty.

V. Some American Opinions and Physical Education in the Eighteen-Hundred-and-Fifties

American Opinions.—Nearly all the American educators and statesmen who wrote on education were aware of the fact that the body as well as the mind needed attention. Noah Webster, in his Address to Young Gentlemen in 1790, said

that it should be "the buzziness of yung persons to assist nature and strengthen the growing frame by athletic exercises. When it is not the lot of a yung person to labor in Agriculture or Mekanic arts, some laborious amusement should daily be pursued az a substitute, and none iz preferable to fencing. A fencing skool iz, perhaps, az necessary an institution az a professorship in Mathematics." He was also favorable to running, playing quoits and dancing as an exercise.

Thomas Jefferson in all his educational writings expressed his belief of the necessity of physical exercise as a part of general education. The essence of his theory was expressed by, "The sympathy between the mind and body during their rise, progress and decline, is too strict and obvious to endanger our being misled."

At the meeting of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers in Cincinnati, October, 1837, Dr. William Wood voiced the opinion that the effects of a system of physical exercise practiced in youth are noticeable in later life; that diet and clothing are subjects worthy of the school's attention. "If the student wishes to retain energy of both mind and body, he must resort to it [exercise] daily. It will add beauty and proportion to his body, strength and activity to his mind, ease and grace to all his movements."

During the eighth annual meeting of the same organization in 1838, a committee reported on the "Introduction of Gymnastic Exercises into the American System of Education." The committee favored the German system and in the arguments stated that gymnastics was feared by monarchs, that gymnastic societies made for freedom and equality, and that the exercises had a great military value. These objectives were imported from Europe. They also stated other theories that had a greater appeal to the American educators; that the present system of education neglects the body, and that physical education would promote mental education, that the time spent in exercise would constitute a valuable period for rest from mental exertion, and that the inattention in the schoolroom is proof of the need for recreation.

Horace Mann and Henry Barnard and many other educators of less note kept before the educational world the fact that education for health, by means of regular exercise and instruction in hygiene and physiology, was necessary for complete education. During this period the entire educational system was taking on its present form, and the problems, regarded at that time of greater importance, pressed for immediate attention, and the theories of physical education were not put into practice.

Physical Education in 1850 to 1860.—In the fifties came the revival. There was an increase in the amount of literature on the subject. Herbert Spencer, the English educator, called attention to the great importance of physical education. His work was widely read in America. Other publications, such as Walker's "Manly Exercises," Fitzgerald's "Exhibition Speaker," Root's "School Amusements," Forrest's "A Handbook of Gymnastics," Beecher's "Physiology and Calisthenics," and many magazine articles were widely read. Dr. Windship, the apostle of great strength, demonstrated and lectured to thousands. The students of Princeton and of the University of Virginia formed gymnastic and athletic clubs. Harvard built her first gymnasium and began the history of intercollegiate sports. The Swedish Movement Cure was beginning its invasion of America. Private gymnasia were organized in the large cities. The Tom Brown books both revealed and encouraged the trend toward school athletics. The German-American Turners were organizing their gymnastic societies and giving public exhibitions. The history of American organized sports began in this period.

VI. The Turnverein Movement Before the Civil War

Origin of the Turnvereine in America.—During the latter part of the period covered in this chapter the German system of gymnastics again arose to a position of importance in this

country. In 1848 revolutionary movements swept over Europe, and in Germany the government used a policy of reaction and suppression to meet the demands for a liberal government. The result was the migration of thousands of the best German citizens to the United States. They generally located in the northern half of the country. The German gymnastic societies, Turnvereine, soon made their appearance where sufficient numbers settled. The Cincinnati Turngemeinde was the first one organized in the new country, but was closely followed by the New York Turngemeinde; both were founded in the latter part of 1848. By 1852 twenty-two societies had been organized throughout the North.

The aims of the Turnvereine were to promote physical education, intellectual enlightenment and sociability among the members. The Turnverein building was always provided with a gymnasium where classes in the German system of exercises were conducted for men, women, and children. The teachers in the early period were men who had had experience in Germany. Outdoor games and gymnastic meets and exhibitions were frequent. Education and enlightenment on social problems, political issues and American life in general was accomplished through the library, through lectures, debates and the schools. An atmosphere of brotherhood and friendship pervaded all the activities of the society.

The turners took an active part in the political life of the country and by vote and resolution encouraged constructive legislation, for example, the abolition of slavery and popular election of Senators. The Know-Nothing Party, which was against all foreigners, took every opportunity to oppose the turners and even to jeer and ridicule them at the turnfeste (the outdoor gymnastic meets).

The American Turnerbund.—A national organization of the societies, the United Turnvereine of North America now called the American Turnerbund, was perfected in 1850; the first national turnfest was held in Philadelphia, 1851, and the official publication, the *Turnzeitung,* appeared the same year.

When the Civil War began the Turnerbund comprised about 150 societies and 10,000 members. Though more and more attention was given to the great issues leading to the war, the institutions maintained their work in physical education. Public exhibitions and prizes helped to maintain class attendance. Manuals, suitable to American conditions, were published, but they differed little from those of Germany. The individual societies sent representatives to the National Turnfeste, where they engaged in individual and group contests. Prizes were awarded and much honor was shown the victors.

At the Pittsburgh convention in 1856 it was proposed that a normal school be established as a means of filling the demands for trained instructors. No funds were available until the Rochester Convention of 1860, when a per capita tax was levied on the members for the maintenance of such an institution. In the early part of 1861 the school was opened at Rochester, but its career was cut short by the war. This was the first attempt to establish a normal school of gymnastics in the United States.

The Turnvereine stood alone as institutions practicing gymnastics on an intensive and extensive scale during the fifties. They also advocated that physical and intellectual education go hand in hand in the public schools. There is no way of measuring exactly how great their influence on American thought and society was, or to what extent they were responsible for the revival of gymnastics in the fifties. In the literature on the subject frequent mention was made of the turners and their work.

When the call came for volunteers for the Union Army the turners joined in such numbers that many societies ceased to exist, the newly founded normal school dispersed, the Executive Committee of the Turnerbund ceased to function. The followers of Jahn who had failed to secure freedom and liberty in Germany fought for the freedom of the slaves in America.

VII. Organized Sports Before the Civil War

Previous to 1840 the American games were without organization and without universally recognized rules. After school hours, holidays, and fairs offered opportunity for impromptu games. The most popular group game was called by several names, town ball, rounders or scrub; a kind of soccer was also played, frequently, as well as prisoners'-base, shinny and many more.

Origin of Baseball.—In 1839 Abner Doubleday of Cooperstown, N. Y., first conceived of the diamond-shaped field for ball playing. Because of the number of bases in the game it was called baseball.

The first baseball club was the Knickerbocker Club of New York City, organized in 1845. In a few months another club, the New York Nine, was established and it challenged the Knickerbockers to a game, the loser was to buy a dinner for the winner. During the fifties the number of clubs increased rapidly and by 1858 there were twenty-five teams playing in and about New York City. That year the National Association of Baseball Players was founded. Through the National Association the players agreed on the rules of the game, and specified that the ball was to weigh six and one-half ounces and was to be ten and one-half inches in circumference. The bat might be any length but must not be more than two and one-half inches in diameter. The pitcher who pitched, rather than threw, the ball, might stand anywhere on a line twelve feet long placed forty-five feet from the home plate. Only amateurs who had been members of the club for thirty days were permitted to play in the regular games. The games usually ended with high scores; frequently fifty to seventy-five runs were made on one side.

During the Civil War the clubs charged for admission to see the games and the players received a share of the money; this was the beginning of professional baseball history. The game also became one of the most popular college sports (see Chap. XXII). The origin and development of most of the

American sports occurred after the war period (see Chap. XIX).

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Bennett, Charles A. "History of Manual and Industrial Education Up To 1870." Pages 182–209 give account of the Manual Labor Movement. Peoria, Ill. 1926.

Boykin, James C. "Physical Training." Report of U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1891–92. Vol. I. Pp. 451–600.

Brown, Elmer E. "The Making of Our Middle Schools." See index on Sports. New York. 1905.

Cloyd, D. E. "Benjamin Franklin and Education." Pages 40–41. Boston. 1902.

Franklin, Benjamin. "Benjamin Franklin and The Gout." A dialogue between Franklin and Madam Gout, setting forth the author's belief in the necessity of physical exercise. Mind and Body, March, 1909, pp. 13–17.

Franklin, Benjamin. "Memoirs." In Vol. I, p. 20, he explains why he contemplated setting up a swimming school in London. In Vol. III, pp. 381–383, is his essay "On The Art Of Swimming," wherein he says that if he had boys to educate he would send them to a school where swimming was taught. Philadelphia. 1834.

Franklin's "Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania" may be found in Report of U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1902, Vol. I, pp. 182–185.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. XXI. Philadelphia. 1923.

Leonard Fred E. "Pioneers in Modern Physical Training." See Chapters on Follen, Beck and Lieber. New York. 1922.

Leonard, Fred E. "The Introduction of Manual Labor as a System of Exercise in Educational Institutions." Mind and Body, May, June, July, 1906, pp. 65–71 and 97–103 and 129–135. See also "Chapters from the Early History of Physical Training in America." Mind and Body, Nov., Dec., 1906, pp. 257–265 and 289–296. These pages deal with the physical training in military academies and with the work of Catherine Beecher.

Metzner, Henry. "A Brief History of The American Turnerbund." Translated by Theodore Stempfel, Jr. Pittsburgh. 1924.

Salomon, J. C. F. "Report on the Introduction of Gymnastic Exercises into the American System of Education." Advocates the gymnastics of the turners. The Transactions of the Eighth Annual Meeting of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers. Cincinnati. 1839.

Spalding, Albert G. "America's National Game; Baseball." A complete history of the subject. New York. 1911.

Van Doren, J. L. "Calisthenics: A Report on the Physical Education of Females." Transactions of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers. Pp. 303–311. Cincinnati. 1835.

Warren, John C. "The Importance of Physical Education." Discourses and Lectures Delivered in Boston Before the Convention of Teachers and Other Friends of Education Assembled to Form the American Institute of Instruction, Aug., 1830. Lecture I. Published in Boston, 1831.

Winship, George. "Autobiographical Sketches of a Strength-Seeker." Atlantic Monthly, Jan., 1862, pp. 102–115.

Wood, William. "Researches on the Preservation of Health Among the Inmates of Schools and Colleges." See pages 153–156 and 221–223 and 354–358. Western Academician and Journal of Education and Science. Cincinnati. 1837–38.

Wood, William. "Effects of Education upon the Physical Development of Man." Discourses and Lectures Delivered in Boston Before the Convention of Teachers and other Friends of Education Assembled to Form the American Institute of Instruction. Pp. 555–570. Boston. 1831.

CHAPTER XVII

THE TURNVEREINE SINCE THE CIVIL WAR

The Expanding Field of Physical Education.—Since the Civil War the growth of physical education has manifested itself in the ever-increasing practice of gymnastics in the Turnvereine, in the athletic clubs, in the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, in the founding of amateur athletic organizations, in the increasing popularity of outdoor sports, in the introduction of compulsory physical training into the educational institutions, and in the organization of playgrounds. The field of the physical education has expanded to include anthropometry, hygiene, sanitation, medical inspection, nutrition classes, open-air schools, and first-aid instruction. All these organizations and movements have contributed to that mass of theory and procedure which we might call the American system. These are the organizations and movements with which the remainder of this text deals.

The Turners in the Civil War.—No organization supported the Union more loyally during the War of the Rebellion than the Turnvereine and their national union, the Turnerbund. Many societies were closed and the Bund ceased to function, because their energies were diverted into the task of winning the war.

Just as the conflict was ending, delegates from fifty-eight societies met at Washington, April 3-5, 1865, and revived the national union and named it the Nordamerikanischer Turnerbund (North American Gymnastic Union). It was again affirmed that the prime purpose of the turner organizations was the promotion of the physical welfare of men, women and children, according to the methods of Jahn and Spiess. During the war, and immediately after the close, large numbers of

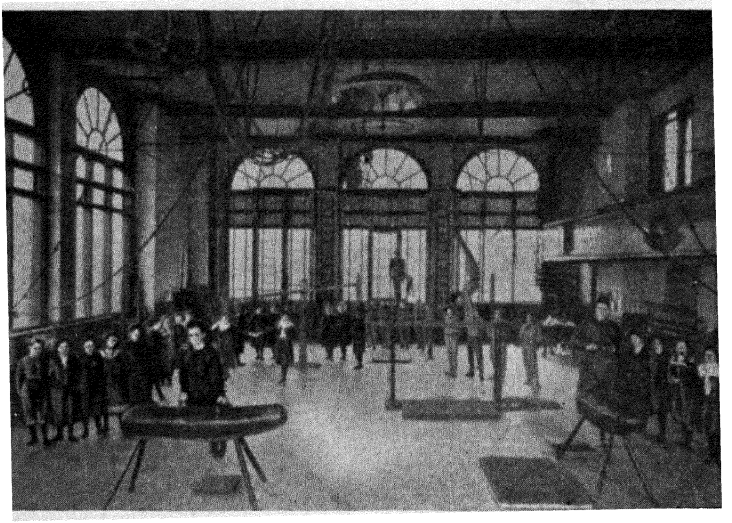
German immigrants arrived in the United States and augmented, both in number and enthusiasm, the turner movement. In 1866 there were 96 societies in the Bund, a total membership of 6,320. There were enrolled in gymnasium classes 3,240 men, 3,317 boys and 120 girls. In 1872 the number had increased to 187 societies, with a total membership of 9,920 and enrolled in gymnasium classes were 4,500 men, 4,770 boys and 394 girls.

The Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union.—At the Cincinnati Turnfest of 1865 resolutions were passed to reëstablish the normal school of the Turnerbund and at the St. Louis Convention of 1866 it was decided to organize the institution at New York City. Nineteen men enrolled in November of that year and were instructed by the best teachers available. The curriculum included the history and theory of the various systems, anatomy, first aid, gymnastic nomenclature, and practice. At the end of the four months' course nine men remained and five of them received diplomas. The second course was given from January to July, 1869. The school was then moved to Chicago, where the third course was opened in January, 1871. George Brosius, one of the most outstanding leaders in the turner movement for fifty years, was one of the teachers.

On account of the great fire the fourth course was held in New York in 1872-73. The next ten sessions were given in Milwaukee, 1875-88, under the direction of Brosius. During these years the course had been lengthened to require ten months of study and it included the history and literature of physical education, anthropology, anatomy, physiology, hygiene, first aid, principles of education, the German and English language and literature, fencing, swimming, observation, and practice teaching. During 1889-1891 the normal school occupied temporary quarters in Indianapolis, where, under the direction of William Fleck, thirty-two men and one woman were graduated. The institution then returned to Milwaukee and there it remained until 1907, when it was

removed to Indianapolis, where it has remained to the present time.

The Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union, as it is now called, was originally established as a training school for teachers of gymnastics, who were to return to the Turnvereine as physical directors. Throughout its long history it has been a successful institution; holding to the funda-



A CLASS AT THE NORMAL COLLEGE OF THE AMERICAN GYMNASTIC UNION IN 1906

Note the costumes.

mental theories of the German system, but ready to progress and to accept innovations when their value was once proven.

Relation of the Turnvereine to American Society Before 1880.—The scientific training of the Turnvereine instructors, combined with the enthusiasm of the members, placed the Turnvereine far above all other organizations in this country in the advocacy and practice of physical education for thirty years after the Civil War. They were developing a theory and practice which could readily be transferred to the Amer-

ican schools and to the native American gymnastic institutions when they were ready to accept it.

The work of the Turnvereine was little known outside of the German-American circles before the eighties; the membership of the societies and the participation in the turnfests was confined to those of German origin. The German language was used, to a great extent, in all the activities and no effort was made to interest the native Americans in the educational or social or gymnastic work. Throughout their history the Turnvereine had met with vigorous hostility in some communities and frequently had to defend themselves with force against anti-foreign attacks. This attitude tended to weld the German-American community into a closer organ ization and to exclude it from native American society.

The Influence of the Turnvereine on American Education. —At the convention held in Indianapolis in 1880 one of the speakers said, "We have gained that personal liberty the German turners once dreamed of—we have done our duty in that direction. That part of our program is fulfilled, and it remains for us to find a new field for our energies. How would it be if we should work with all our might to introduce physical training into the public schools of this country? We could not conceive a more beautiful gift than this to bestow upon the American people." During the decade 1880-90 the number of societies increased from 186 to 277, total membership from 13,387 to 35,912, enrollment in gymnasium classes for men from 4,199 to 7,337, for boys from 8,337 to 17,145, for girls from 2,388 to 7,735.

The turners began an agitation for physical education in the public schools and contributed moral and financial support, material, publications and leadership to that end. The normal college demanded that its graduates be able to give instruction in the English language, that they might be prepared to enter the schools.

The second annual meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education was held in Boston

in November, 1886. Several leading turners, among them Dr. Carl Betz, had an important place on the program and took the opportunity to explain the work of the Turnvereine; an exhibition of German gymnastics was given by turnverein classes from New York. From that time on the Turnerbund sent representatives to every meeting of the association. Leading physical educators who were not turners, for example, Drs. Hitchcock, Hartwell and Sargent, were invited to the national and district turnfests as a means of acquainting the native Americans and the educational institutions with the work.

The German system of gymnastics from the time of GutsMuths had given an important place to exercises and games suitable for children and had recognized that physical education, like mental education, should begin in childhood. In the eighties the students at the normal college were given more specific instruction and practice in the conduct of children's classes.

When the leading cities began the movement of introducing systematic exercise and games into the school program no organization was found so helpful as the Turnvereine, with their long experience in this field and their well-trained leaders. Between 1885 and 1890 Kansas City, Chicago, Davenport, Cleveland, St. Louis, and Sandusky accepted physical education as a part of the regular school activity and secured the services of Carl Betz, Henry Suder, William Reuter, Karl Zapp, George Wittich, and Hans Ballin, respectively. All these men were prominent turners and graduates of the normal college.

In nearly every city, where Turnvereine were located, the turners were the leading agitators for physical education in the schools. Frequently apparatus was purchased by the society and placed in the schoolyard; turners served as teachers free of charge, to convince reluctant school boards of the value of the work. Parochial and private schools were also induced to give attention to the physical welfare of the pupils. At the World's Fair at Chicago, 1893, the turners gave daily

exhibitions of their work and distributed thousands of pamphlets.

The monthly periodical, *Mind and Body,* issued its first number in March, 1894, under the direction of Hans Ballin. Its purpose was, first of all, to acquaint the educational leaders of the nation with the importance of physical education, and show how it might be introduced into the schools. Secondly, the journal was to state the claims of the German methods, for there was some rivalry among the advocates of the German, the Swedish, and the Delsartean systems in the early nineties. William A. Stecher, Director of Physical Education in the Philadelphia Public Schools, has been the editor of *Mind and Body* since 1907. Nearly all the manuals of physical exercises for schools in this period came from the pens of the turners.

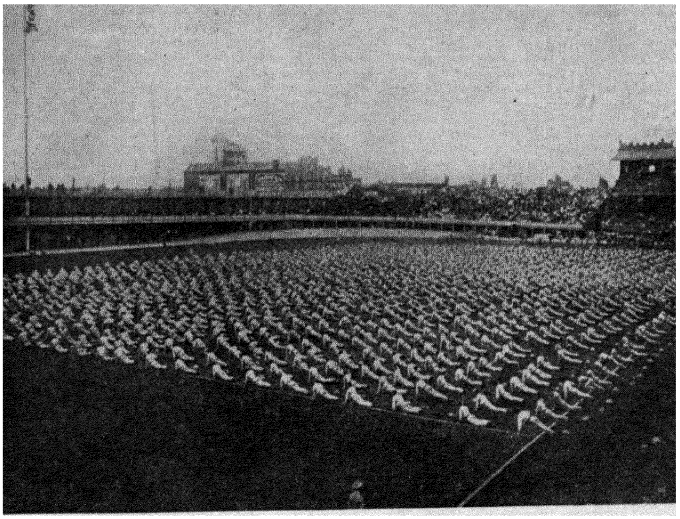
The Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union has been sending an ever-increasing number of graduates into the public schools and colleges of the nation. In 1925, of the total number of graduates who were gainfully employed, 386 were engaged in public school work, 71 in Turnvereine, 27 in private schools and colleges, 24 were physicians and dentists, 13 in athletic clubs, 6 in other occupations. The instructors for the Turnvereine are being trained in their own classes rather than at the Normal College.

Influence in the Sports.—In the field of sport the turners have always opposed the participation in highly specialized and strenuous games for the purpose of winning victories or for advertising an institution; they opposed the tendency toward professionalism and the training of athletes for one event. They have held that games are to be played to satisfy the play instinct, to promote physical welfare through exercise, and to secure social and moral training; they have also insisted that the intensive training for one form of athletics does not produce the all-round physical development which is the aim of German gymnastics.

Through the district and national turnfests interest in gym-

nastic competitions has been maintained and friendly rivalry in physical development engendered. Since 1881 the national turnfests have been held every four or five years. From 1,200 to 3,400 turners usually enter the competitions.

At the turnfest at St. Louis in 1897 the school children were invited to participate; since then, their mass drills have been one of the most interesting features of these gatherings. In 1904 Henry Suder, Director of Physical Training in



MASS EXERCISES OF THE TURNERBUND TURNFEST AT PHILADELPHIA, 1900

Chicago Public Schools, took a class of eight men, as representatives of the Turnerbund, to the great German turnfest at Nuremberg. In 1908 a similar excursion, arranged and led by George Brosius, went to Frankfort-on-the-Main, where their work received great applause and praise. In 1905 a group of nine of the best turners from Germany participated in the American turnfest at Indianapolis and exhibited some very superior work. The turnfest in 1921 was held at Chicago and in 1926 at Louisville.

The turners have also been active in their support of American athletic associations. The Bund was one of the first societies to join the Amateur Athletic Union, and is also a member of the National Amateur Athletic Federation.

Other Contributions of the Turners.—The proposals to introduce military training into the schools as a substitute for physical training has always been opposed by the Turnvereine.

The modern playground movement, which has had such a widespread success in the last two decades, found the turners among its strongest supporters. From GutsMuths to modern times the German system has been favorable to play, when properly supervised and directed. In many communities playgrounds were not established until the turners demanded them, and until playground instructors were made available through their efforts.

Beside the influence exerted on American society, the Turnverein gave to its own membership and their families excellent opportunities for physical and intellectual development. Since children have had gymnasium classes in the schools, the enrollment in the turnvereine classes has been reduced.

When the United States entered the World War about 5,000 members of the turner organization joined the military service. Only about 7 per cent. of them were rejected because of physical unfitness, whereas about one-third of the first draft was rejected. During the war the turners experienced a decrease in membership and a decline in activities, but since 1920 there has been a gradual recovery. On January 1, 1925, the American Turnerbund was made up of 169 societies, comprising a total membership of 31,932. There were enrolled in gymnasium classes 6,497 men, 2,201 juniors, 8,588 women, 5,991 boys and 6,857 girls. There were 237 in fencing classes, 1,268 in singing sections, 481 in dramatic sections and 6,605 in women's auxiliaries.

The American Turnerbund is the oldest national gymnastic organization in the United States, and during its long history has made valuable contributions to the development of physical education in this country.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Faust, A. B. "Commencement Address." Mind and Body, Jan., 1913, pp. 358–365. Resume of the History of Physical Education.

Jahrbücher der Deutsch-Amerikanischen Turnerei. Edited by Heinrich Metzner. Vol. I, II, III.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. XXIV. Philadelphia. 1923.

Leonard, Fred E. "Pioneers of Modern Physical Training." Chapters on Betz and Brosius. New York. 1922.

Metzner, Henry. "A Brief History of the American Turnerbund." Translated by Theodore Stempfel, Jr. Pittsburgh. 1924.

Stecher, William. "The Denver Turnfest." Report of the national turnfest in 1913. Mind and Body, Sept., 1913, pp. 169–176.

CHAPTER XVIII

GYMNASTIC MOVEMENTS AND THEIR LEADERS

Progress of the Sixties.—That there was an active interest in gymnastics among native Americans, as well as among the turners during the early sixties, is revealed by the many magazine articles appearing on the subject. In an article by Thomas Wentworth Higginson, which was published in the *Atlantic Monthly* for 1861, the following views are expressed: "It is one good evidence of the increasing interest in these exercises that the American gymnasia built during the past year or two have far surpassed all their predecessors in size and completeness, and have probably no superiors in the world. The Seventh Regiment Gymnasium in New York, just opened by Mr. Abner S. Brady, is 180 by 52 feet in its main hall and 35 feet in height, with nearly 1,000 pupils. The beautiful hall of the Metropolitan Gymnasium in Chicago, measures 108 by 80 feet and is 20 feet high at the sides, with a dome in the center 40 feet high and the same in diameter. Next to these probably rank the new gymnasium at Cincinnati, the Tremont Gymnasium at Boston, and the Bunker Hill Gymnasium at Charlestown, all recently opened. Of college institutions the most complete are probably those at Cambridge and New Haven. The arrangements for instruction are rather more systematic at Harvard. Gymnastic exercises are as yet but sparingly introduced into our seminaries, private or professional, though a great change is already beginning. Until lately all our educational plans have assumed man to be merely a sedentary being; we have employed teachers of music and drawing to go from school to school to teach those elegant arts, but have had none to teach the art of health. . . . It is something to have got beyond the period when active

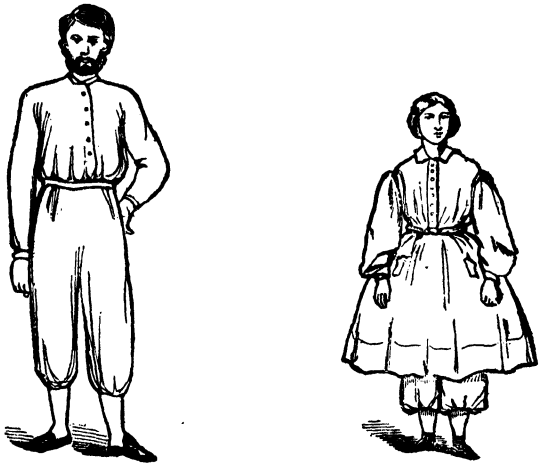
sports were actually prohibited. It would be unpardonable in this connection not to speak a good word for the favorite hobby of the day—Dr. Lewis and his system of gymnastics; or more properly of calisthenics. . . . Dr. Winship had done all that was needed in apostleship of severe exercises, and there was wanting some man with a milder hobby, perfectly safe for a lady to drive. . . . It will especially render service to female pupils so far as they practice it; for the accustomed gymnastic exercises seem never yet to have been rendered attractive to them on any large scale and with any permanency."

The Strength Seekers.—The Dr. George Barker Winship, mentioned in the article, was a graduate of Harvard and became famous throughout the United States as the advocate of heavy gymnastics. His ideas appealed to all young men who sought to have bulging muscles and great strength. From 1859 to the early seventies he toured the United States and Canada, lecturing on gymnastics and giving weight-lifting exhibitions. The Winship Gymnasium in Boston became the most famous school for "strength seekers" in the country. Dr. Winship's exhibitions tended to confirm the popular idea that the gymnasium was a place for "strong men," prize-fighters and wrestlers, and that great strength was the aim of gymnastic training and was synonymous with health and well-being.

Dr. Dio Lewis.—Before 1860 the Dr. Dio Lewis, mentioned in the above article, had been a school teacher, a doctor of medicine, an editor of the *Homopathist,* a member of the Sons of Temperance, a national lecturer on the subject of temperance, public lecturer on physiology and the laws of hygiene and health. While so engaged he came to the conclusion that his life-work should be the physical improvement of the American people through a new system of gymnastics. He was not concerned with the healthy and the strong and those who were engaging in baseball and other athletic sports. Rather the "fat men, the feeble men, young boys and females of all ages—the classes most needing physical training" were the ones for whom his system was intended. No leader and

no system had adequately met the problem of this group outside of the Turnvereine.

In regard to the aims and methods of his system Dr. Lewis said, "Dispensing with the cumbrous apparatus of the ordinary gymnasium, its implements are all calculated not only to impart strength of muscle, but to give flexibleness, agility, and grace of movement. None of the apparatus (with one or two slight exceptions) is fixed. Each and every piece is held in the hand, so that any hall or other room may be used



GYMNASTIC COSTUMES RECOMMENDED BY DIO LEWIS IN 1862

for the exercises." The term calisthenics is more frequently applied to his system than the term gymnastics.

Theories of Dr. Lewis.—Dr. Lewis attacked vigorously the popular idea that great strength was the mark of well-being and that gymnasia were primarily for gymnasts. In his writings he strove to prove that light wooden dumbbells were better suited to the real practice of gymnastics than those of iron. He took pains to destroy the common belief that free, unsupervised play of children was sufficient to develop sound and properly formed bodies. He held that a gymnastic teacher was as essential to the proper development of the body

as the ordinary school teacher was to the development of the mind. Those who advocated military training for the schools, of whom there were many, found the promoter of the New Gymnastics against them. He believed that military training not only failed to develop the upper half of the body, but was conducive to rigidity and to strained positions. Athletic sports, as a means of physical education, fell far short of organized gymnastics because of their over-exertion of certain parts of the body and neglect of other parts. According to Lewis the aim of gymnastic exercise is to develop flexibility, grace, agility, good carriage, and improve general health.

The exercises should be accompanied by music, or if that is inconvenient, then a drum can be used to mark the rhythm. Dr. Lewis saw no reason why men and women should not be in the same class of calisthenics; it added to the sociability and pleasure of the gymnasium work. Gymnasia should be light and airy; care should be taken that no dust arises from the floor during the class work. The exercises should be taken at such rapidity that the rate of heart beat and respiration are increased.

A great variety of exercises are desirable for many reasons. Precision and grace are necessary in the execution of the exercises if the best results are to be obtained. If properly done, exercise invigorates the abdominal viscera and the nervous system. The "mania for monstrous arms and shoulders" has misled the gymnasts on the real purpose of gymnastics. Deformed and weak people "should be treated in consonance with the philosophy of the Swedish Movement Cure, in which the movements are slow and limited."

Dr. Lewis originated the idea of tossing bean-bags as an exercise. He preferred the bean-bags to balls because they were more easily grasped with one hand. The gymnastic crown, weighing from three to one hundred pounds, was one of his contrivances. It was worn to secure erect spine and good carriage. Many of his exercises were with wands, dumbbells, clubs, and hand-rings.

The Practice of the New Gymnastics.—Dr. Lewis decided that Boston was a favorable place to inaugurate the practice of the new system and he began teaching there in 1860. Evening classes were organized in different communities in and about the city and an effort was made to attract the attention of the school authorities. A public gymnasium was opened in the city and classes for men of various occupations and for women were started.

That same year the American Institute of Instruction met in Boston and Dr. Lewis was invited to explain the New Gymnastics. He spoke convincingly in several sessions, with the result that he and his system became widely known throughout the United States. He followed up these lectures with articles in educational journals and came to be regarded as the leading advocate of both school and popular gymnastics.

It soon became obvious that if the new system was to be widespread, teachers would have to be trained in the work. In 1861 Lewis founded the Normal Institute of Physical Education in Boston; this was the first normal school of gymnastics in the United States to graduate a class. Very prominent men served on the board of directors and leading physicians became members of the faculty. The curriculum consisted of anatomy, physiology, hygiene, gymnastics and elocution. The latter subject was thought to have a close connection with calisthenics. There were two ten-week courses per year. The second course added instruction in the Swedish Movement Cure, treatment of curvature of the spine and a general study of Ling's system. Each student was given a physical examination and, if defects were found, special exercises were recommended as a corrective. In practice every student had an opportunity to conduct a small class. By 1868 about 250 teachers had been graduated and had carried the theories and practice of the Lewis system throughout the United States.

During these years Dr. Lewis's book, "New Gymnastics for Men, Women and Children," which had been published

in 1862, was being widely read. In addition to the Normal Institute, Dr. Lewis opened a school in Lexington, Massachusetts, for girls of delicate health. The usual intellectual pursuits were diminished and more time was given to sleep, systematic exercise, and the cultivation of habits conducive to health. According to the measurements and health records of the pupils, the course was very beneficial in every case. The school was closed in 1868. This year marked the end of Dio Lewis's active career in physical education; however, until his death in 1886, he frequently lectured on his two favorite subjects, Physical Education and Temperance.

Dr. Lewis, though he was unscientific in his methods and was given to exaggeration in his claims, did more to popularize gymnastics in all circles than any other one man in America. He was the first to really drive home the idea that gymnasia are erected for the weak, not the strong. Through his influence gymnastics was lifted to a more respectable level, and the public was convinced that it was not only fit but beneficial for women. Many educators were led to advocate and to adopt a physical education program for the public schools through his influence. (See Chap. XXIII.) The fact that no institution and no system originating with him still survives, reveals how truly the New Gymnastics rested on the personality and enthusiasm of Dr. Dio Lewis.

The Swedish Movement Cure.—The American public first became acquainted with the medical gymnastics of Sweden in the fifties through the writings of English authors. During the sixties the first American writers of note, George H. Taylor and his brother, Charles F. Taylor, published, respectively, "An Exposition on the Swedish Movement Cure" and "The Theory and Practice of the Movement Cure." This system came to be known throughout the United States as the best, if not the only, remedy for certain afflictions through physical exercise. Corrective and medical gymnastics have always had an important place in the history of physical education. However it has never been the subject of great

popularity or nation-wide organization, but rather a thing to be practiced in the home and in a few institutions whose purpose is the cure of physical defects and in special classes.

The most noted practitioner of the Swedish Movement and Massage in America was Hartvig Nissen, a native of Norway, who came to America in 1883. He settled in Washington, D. C., and began to acquaint the physicians with the value of medical gymnastics and massage and opened the famous Swedish Health Institute. Among his patients were President Benjamin Harrison, General Grant, General Logan, and scores of other historic personages.

While managing the Health Institute, Mr. Nissen published his "Swedish Movements and Massage," operated a private gymnasium and introduced the Swedish pedagogical gymnastics into several local schools. (See Chap. XXIII.)

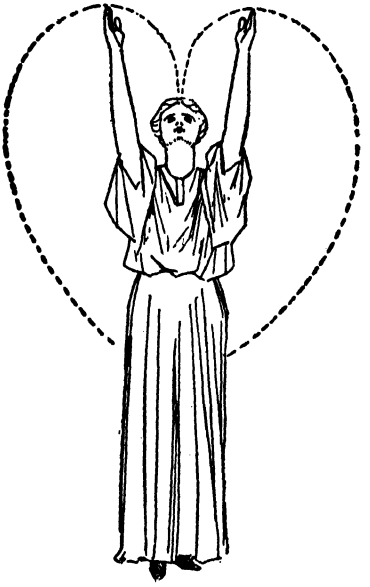
The many Movement Cure and Massage institutions which were established throughout the nation, and the publications concerning the treatments, acquainted the public with the general principles and aims of the Swedish system.

The Swedish school gymnastics, which has had a greater and more important following in the United States, has also carried with it the theories of medical and corrective gymnastics. During the last two decades this type of physical education has increased in importance, largely as a result of the tendency to regard individual needs.

The Delsarte System.—During the early nineties the so-called Delsarte System of Physical Culture received much notoriety, and great numbers, especially women, were converted to its theories. François Delsarte, a French vocal and dramatic teacher, found that the ideal poses and gestures necessary to effective dramatics and singing could best be taught through certain physical exercises. However, he did not have in mind the founding of a new system of gymnastics. In America many teachers of the art of elocution accepted his methods and with the addition of their own ideas there was evolved a system of exercises which claimed to produce poise, grace, beauty of face and figure, and health. These claims

gave the Delsarte system a universal appeal entirely aside from its connection with the vocal and dramatic arts.

In 1891 "Physical Culture Founded on the Delsartean Principles," was published by Carrica Le Favre, who was the first president of the American Delsarte Association. Genevieve Stebbins and Emily Bishop were also prolific writers



A DELSARTEAN EXERCISE
The costume and movements reveal the character of the system.

on the subject. These authors spoke of the exercises as the "gymnastics of expression" and "esthetic gymnastics" and as one said, "Psycho-physical culture, then, is the perfect unison of harmonic gymnastics and dynamic breathing, during the formulation of noble ideals in the mind." Only those movements that might be used to express some emotion or attitude of mind, and those that produced a graceful poise and attractive posture were considered of value. The exercises

were also classified as relaxing, energizing, and deep breathing; they were slow and, of course, without apparatus.

Genevieve Stebbins, who wrote "Society Gymnastics," introduced the Delsarte principles into the "fashionable" schools of New York City. She also gave matinée exhibitions in Madison Square Garden. Emily Bishop, author of "Americanized Delsarte Culture," taught in the Delsarte Department of the School of Physical Education at the Chautauqua Assembly, Chautauqua, N. Y. A daughter of Delsarte toured the United States in 1892 and left in her trail dozens of teachers of the system, some of whom had learned it in five lessons. The fad of Delsarteanism barely outlived the nineties. It left almost no trace in either art or education; however, through its influence a great number, who could have been reached in no other way, became interested in their physical well-being and in the cause of physical education in general. That physical exercise is still subject to fads is demonstrated by the popularity of "daily dozens" and broadcasts by radio.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Bishop, Emily. "Self-Expression and Health; Americanized Delsarte Culture." Chautauqua. 1901.

Durivage, F. A. "A Visit to Francois Delsarte." Atlantic Monthly, 27:613, 1871.

Eastman, Mary F. "The Biography of Dio Lewis." New York. 1890.

Encyclopedias and Biographical Dictionaries on Delsarte.

Le Favre, Carrica. "Physical Culture Founded on the Delsartean Principles." New York. 1891.

Leiter, Frances. "W. C. T. U. Physical Education Department." Shows how this organization promoted physical education. Mind and Body, Oct., 1904, pp. 204–205.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. XXII. Philadelphia. 1923.

Leonard, Fred E. "Pioneers of Modern Physical Training." See Chapter on Dio Lewis. New York. 1922.

Lewis, Dio. "The New Gymnastics for Men, Women and Children." Boston. 1862.

Lewis, Dio. "The New Gymnastics." Excellent article. Atlantic Monthly, Aug., 1862, pp. 129–148.

Nissen, Hartvig. "Autobiography." 1921.

Stebbins, Genevieve. "Delsarte System of Expression." New York. 1901.

Stebbins, Genevieve. "Dynamic Breathing and Harmonic Gymnastics: A Complete System of Psychical, Aesthetic and Physical Culture." New York. 1892.

CHAPTER XIX

THE AMERICAN SPORTS

The Effect of the Civil War.—The war revealed a genuine need for physical training, either of a gymnastic or a military character, and added force to the popular athletic and gymnastic movement which had started in the fifties. During the conflict military training was advocated by leading soldiers and statesmen, who succeeded in securing its adoption by many secondary schools, especially in the East. Congress passed the Morrill Act of 1862, creating the famous land-grant colleges, of which Cornell, Purdue, and Illinois are examples. In order to secure the land as an endowment they were compelled to teach military tactics as a part of the regular course and during the regular hours. Scores of colleges and universities adopted military training.

The war called attention to the deficient man power of the nation and many observers came to the conclusion that the young men were of a very low physical standard. These beliefs gave impetus to the rise of sports and gave arguments for physical education in the schools and colleges. Leagues of amateur and professional athletes, athletic clubs, Young Men's Christian Associations and similar organizations contributed to the wave of enthusiasm and promoted athletic games and contests.

The History of American Sports.—Baseball had a continuous history through the war. It was played by the Northern soldiers and emerged more popular and more widespread than before and it rapidly became the national game. In 1866 the ball was made smaller, the pitchers began to throw curves, and the distance and force of the batting and throwing increased to such an extent that padded gloves became neces-

sary. Yale, Harvard, Princeton, Amherst, Bowdoin, Dartmouth, and other colleges organized baseball clubs and held intercollegiate games.

The first professional salaried team was the Cincinnati Red Stockings, who toured the country defeating all their opponents in 1869. Two years later there were a sufficient number of professional teams to organize the National Association of Professional Baseball Players. Some of the clubs were Philadelphia, Boston, Chicago, Troy, and Cleveland. So much gambling, drinking, and corruption came to be attached to the games that professional baseball was threatened with extinction in 1875. Under the leadership of Wm. A. Hulbert and A. G. Spalding an effort was made to lift the game to a respectable position and the National League of Professional Baseball Clubs was organized in 1876. Many other leagues were soon founded, for example, the American Association in 1882 and the American League in 1900. The amateur players were very early overshadowed by the professional clubs; that tendency has continued until the so-called national game is played largely by professionals and enjoyed by the "fans." The National Amateur Baseball Association is at present making an effort to revive and encourage the small-town teams and to restore the rural baseball diamond to its one time popularity.

Tennis came to America in 1874 and found a welcome among those who had seen the game in Europe and among English immigrants. The Staten Island Cricket and Baseball Club was the first organization to give the sport any attention. The game was ridiculed as being fit only for frail girls and women. Nevertheless a tournament was held in Philadelphia in 1880 and the next year the United States Lawn Tennis Association was organized. The association revised the rules and prescribed the regulation for holding matches and tournaments. The Boston Athletic Club and the New York Racquet and Tennis Club were among the earliest promoters of the game. Tennis has had a steady and unopposed progress in popularity and constitutes one of the favor-

ite and widely played sports of the United States. Nearly every town, city, and college has private or public courts.

Golf made its appearance in this country in the late eighties. The St. Andrew Golf Club of New York was the first one organized; it began its career in 1888. In 1894 a sufficient number of clubs had been formed to warrant the founding of the United States Golf Association which became the central governing body of the sport. In ten more years America became a formidable rival of Great Britain in the international championship matches. In the early years the game was confined largely to the members of the wealthy and exclusive clubs, due to the cost of the links. During the first decade of the present century, national, state, and municipal authorities began to promote recreation and play. This movement resulted in securing necessary land, laying out the golf course, and placing it at the disposal of the general public. At the present time every large city numbers thousands of golf enthusiasts who find valuable recreation in the game. An estimate places the number of golf links in United States at more than two thousand.

Though bowling did not originate in the United States it has attained its greatest popularity here. The history of the game in America extends as far back as the history of the United States. It did not assume the characteristics of a well-regulated sport, however, until the eighteen-hundred-and-sixties. Beginning then, bowling clubs were organized in great numbers and in 1875 the National Bowling League was founded. The popularity of the game was hampered by the expensive apparatus necessary for playing. In 1895 a national reorganization was accomplished which resulted in the formation of the American Bowling Congress. This association revised the rules, standardized the apparatus, and became the governing body of the sport. Under its direction district and national championship meets are held at the present time.

Swimming has been the least organized sport of all. The institutions that have promoted athletic and gymnastic activities have always favored swimming when the facilities were

available. Athletic clubs, Y.M.C.A.'s and Y.W.C.A.'s, Turnvereine, educational institutions, national associations for boys and girls, the American Red Cross, and numerous other agencies have advocated and promoted swimming as a recreation, as a competitive sport, and as a means of saving life.

Basket-ball has the most unique origin of any American sport. James Naismith, a student at the Y.M.C.A. Training School at Springfield, Massachusetts, invented the game in 1891. Teams were organized and the game proved to have possibilities of great development as an indoor and outdoor sport and for both sexes. Educational and athletic institutions adopted the game in such numbers that it has become a national indoor sport. At the present time not only schools and colleges of every size and grade, but factories, stores, churches, and Sunday schools are being represented by basket-ball teams.

Among the minor sports should be mentioned wrestling, boxing, hockey, volley-ball, curling, fencing, skating, skiing, lacrosse, pitching horseshoes, cricket, archery, and soccer, every one of which are popular in certain localities and some of which have national organizations. The United States Football Association which governs soccer was organized in 1913, and, in 1923, had a membership of one hundred and thirty-two clubs. During the nineties, cycling was regarded as a valuable recreation and exercise. Bicycle clubs were formed all over the United States and the League of American Wheelmen became the national union. American football is discussed in the section on college athletics. (Chap. XXII).

Amateur Athletic Associations.—By 1879, the athletic movement had become so important that the National Association of Amateur Athletes of America was organized. Its aims were to check the evils of professionalism, to keep athletics on a respectable level, to promote legitimate sports, define rules, and to conduct competitions in an orderly and fair manner. From this organization developed the Amateur Athletic Union, which held its first meeting in 1888 in Detroit. In 1891 the A. A. U. underwent a reorganization; at that

time about 125 athletic clubs were counted as members. It then became a union of amateur athletic associations, rather than an organization of individual clubs.

The Union has steadfastly held to the following aims throughout its history. 1. The encouragement of systematic physical exercise and education in the United States. 2. The improvement and promotion of athletic sports among amateurs.

The following organizations are allied with the Amateur Athletic Union. American Gymnastic Union (Turnerbund), Intercollegiate Association of Amateur Athletes of America, Military Athletic League, National Cycling Association, Amateur Fencers' League of America, National Association of Scientific Angling Clubs, National Ski Association, National Horseshoe Pitchers' Association, Pennsylvania Railroad System Athletic Association, National Amateur Casting Association, Union des Sociétés Françaises de Sports Athletiques, Union Internationale des Sociétés Sportive Egyptiennes, International Skating Union of America, U. S. Football Association, Amateur Athletic Union of Canada, Canadian Amateur Swimming Association, Catholic Young Men's National Union, U. S. Amateur Hockey Association.

The A. A. U. claims jurisdiction over basket-ball, boxing, gymnastics, hand-ball, running, jumping, walking, weight putting, hurdles, pole vault, swimming, tug-of-war, wrestling, weight lifting, and volley-ball. District and national championship meets and tournaments are held under its rules and management.

In 1922 several representatives of athletic and recreation associations met in Washington, D. C., and founded the National Amateur Athletic Federation. Its stated aim was "to create and maintain in the United States a permanent organization representative of amateur athletics and organizations devoted thereto; to establish and maintain the highest ideals of amateur sport; to promote the development of physical education; to encourage the standardization of rules of all

amateur athletic games and competitions, and to encourage the participation of this country in the International Olympic Games." The Men's Division of the Federation is made up of the American Physical Education Association, the American Turnerbund, Young Men's Christian Association, National Collegiate Athletic Association, National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations, the United States Army, the Navy and Marine Corps, the American Legion, Playground and Recreation Association of America, United States Lawn Tennis Association, Society of Directors of Physical Education in Colleges, Jewish Welfare Board, National Rifle Association, Boy Scouts of America, and the Boys' Club Federation. Each of these institutions has its own field of service, but mutual benefit is derived from national coöperation. A Women's Division of the Federation has been established and is in process of development.

The Athletic Research Society is an organization whose members are interested in physical education, recreation and athletics. During the two decades of its existence, the society has carried on valuable investigations of the major problems in this field and has made excellent recommendations concerning the solution of those problems. For example, the question of what constitutes professionalism in athletics was a subject for research in 1910; more recently, the status of intramural athletics in educational institutions has been a problem for investigation and recommendation.

America's half century of participation in sport has placed her in a leading position so far as the winning of international championships and the Olympic events are concerned. Interest in sports has become so keen that more publicity is given to them in the daily papers than is given to any other single activity. The national game, however, does not claim many players but millions of "fans." An increased interest in sports has not always meant a corresponding increase in participation in games but rather an increase in the number of "rooters." Some physical educators believe that the "determination to win" spirit which has pervaded our athletic system and given

rise to professionally coached teams is defeating the true aim of athletics, namely, the physical and moral training for all.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

"An Athletic Federation for the United States." Mind and Body, July, 1922, pp. 169–171. Origin, first officers and part of the constitution of the N. A. A. F.

Ehler, George W. "The History of Basket Ball." Mind and Body, Mar., 1905, pp. 22–23.

Encyclopedias, Britannica, Americana and New International on the different sports.

Fisher, George J. "The Old Versus the New Point of View in Athletic Administration." Gives origin and purpose of the National Amateur Athletic Federation. Mind and Body, Feb., 1923, pp. 418–420.

Hadden, G. "Stadium Design." An excellent article. American Physical Education Review, Sept., Oct., Nov., 1926, pp. 934–943 and 1004–1018 and 1069–1073.

Maccabe, Joseph B. "Address Before the Annual Meeting of the A. A. U." Sets forth achievements to that time. Mind and Body, April and May, 1906, pp. 59–62 and 78–79.

"National Amateur Athletic Federation." The Athletic Journal, August, 1925.

Sears, J. H. "The First Baseball Game of Long Ago." Mind and Body, Dec., 1906, pp. 318–319, and Jan., 1907, pp. 334–336.

Sherrill, Charles H. "Veteran Athlete Compares Track Athletics of Today and Thirty Years Ago." Mind and Body, April, 1924, pp. 12–17.

Spalding, Albert G. "America's National Game: Baseball." A complete history of the subject. New York. 1911.

"The Athletic Research Society." Report of the meeting of 1910; concerned with the study of amateurism. Mind and Body, Feb., 1911, pp. 361–370.

Weaver, A. A. "Cricket in and About Philadelphia." Mind and Body, Feb., 1901, pp. 285–286.

Whitney, Caspar; Camp, Walter, and many others. "Amateur Sport." A column published weekly in Harper's Weekly during the nineties.

CHAPTER XX

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

Origin and Early History of the Y. M. C. A.—The attitude of the modern Christianity toward physical welfare and physical education is very different from that of the early ascetic period. This fact is manifested in the work of the Christian Associations, who believe that through properly directed physical activity Christian character and right living may be promoted, and that physical welfare and wholesome recreation are conducive to moral welfare.

The Y.M.C.A. traces its history to the work of George Williams, a London dry-goods clerk. Williams, hoping to lead the young men with whom he came in contact into a more moral and upright life, began holding meetings for prayer and Bible reading in 1841. Permanent and commodious quarters were secured for the meetings and in 1844 the young men formed a religious club which soon took the name of Young Men's Christian Association. The object was declared to be "to improve the spiritual condition of the young men engaged in the drapery and other trades." This London association became the model for many others which were organized in every civilized nation.

Toward the close of 1851 the first Association in the United States was organized at Boston. The Christian people in every large city felt the need of such an association which might be expected to lend religious encouragement to the ever-increasing number of young men and boys who were leaving home influences and coming to the cities. Within ten years over two hundred associations were formed in the United States and the National Federation of Associations was founded. During these years the work of the societies was

confined largely to moral and mental uplift. The Y.M.C.A. quarters were usually composed of a reading room, a library of religious books, and a meeting hall. The activities consisted of prayer meetings, evangelistic services, Bible classes and Bible readings, and the management of missions.

Origin of the Physical Department.—A few of the association leaders were influenced by the wave of athletics and gymnastics which swept over the country in the fifties. In 1856 it was proposed in the national convention that the associations establish gymnasia and baths in connection with the buildings. The motion received insufficient support. By 1860 the movement had gained such headway that the convention favored the promotion of gymnastics and athletics as "a safeguard against the allurement of objectionable places of resort."

When the war came, the association men did excellent work in ministering to the material as well as to the spiritual needs of the soldiers. The great variety of war work tended to expand the field of activity, and to prove that the associations might attain their aims more readily if they continued to promote physical and educational welfare of young men in times of peace. In 1866 the New York City Association wrote into its constitution, "the object of this association shall be the improvement of the spiritual, mental, social, and physical condition of young men." This aim came to be adopted by all the associations.

The first Y.M.C.A. buildings, equipped with gymnasia and baths, were erected at San Francisco, New York and Washington, D. C., in 1869. The practice of gymnastics spread rapidly, in view of the difficulty involved in erecting and equipping gymnasia and in securing instructors. The most serious danger to the success of the physical department, as it was called, was the difficulty of obtaining suitable physical directors. The Association demanded that its leaders be men of the highest moral character, men whose Christianity was manifested in their daily life. Men of this type were rarely found among the ranks of professional gymnasts in those days. The Dio Lewis system was not regarded as adequate and he was not

training teachers after 1870; the turners were not sufficiently concerned with organizations outside the Turnerbund to influence the Y.M.C.A. at this early period. Some of the Associations had no Christian leadership, others were fortunate in finding suitable directors who in turn trained young men for that kind of work.

Contributions of Robert J. Roberts.—The most outstanding Y.M.C.A. physical director of this period was Robert J. Roberts. At the age of fifteen he was a patron of the Tremont, Union, and the Winship Gymnasia in Boston. Through strenuous exercises he became an excellent gymnast, a weight-lifter, and a track and field athlete. The Tremont Gymnasium was purchased by the Y.M.C.A. in 1874 and five years later Roberts was made superintendent of the institution. For the next ten years he was the leading authority on physical education for the Y.M.C.A. and he fully measured up to the requirements of Christian leadership. He was lacking in the technical and medical knowledge underlying the science of physical education, but through observation and experience he was able to formulate a program suitable for the Y.M.C.A. at that time.

Due to the influence of Winship and others, Roberts originally favored the development of strength and endurance through difficult feats. Observation, however, taught him that that kind of gymnastics did not appeal to the young men who came to his classes. On the other hand, he thought that the Dio Lewis system was too easy to interest or to benefit the men. He therefore took a middle course and formulated the much-quoted expression that the exercises should be "short, safe, easy, pleasing, and beneficial."

Roberts emphasized trunk exercises as a means of promoting the activity and correcting the defects of the abdominal and thoracic organs and of developing correct posture and carriage. He tried to make the exercises progressive and of such a nature as to arouse an interest in the work. He emphasized the hygienic value of frequent bathing. A dumbbell drill devised by Roberts was used extensively in the Y.M.C.A. gymnasia.

In 1880 he organized special classes for business men and other classes for students. Classes for leaders who were to become physical directors in other associations were formed.

Through the work of Roberts and his pupils the gymnasia gradually came to be recognized, not merely as a means of attracting young men to the Y buildings, or as a "safeguard against the allurement of objectionable places of resort," but as a place where Christian manhood and character might be as effectively taught as anywhere else. This attitude is reflected in the Philadelphia Association report of 1885: "The relation between the gymnasium and the other parts of the Association has grown much more intimate; the false sentiment that godliness is inconsistent with bodily exercise is giving way as men of muscle and no less of mind and heart are coming to the front in all the various activities of the Association."

The Training School at Springfield.—In 1885 the International Training School of the Y.M.C.A. was founded at Springfield, Mass., for the purpose of furnishing the associations with trained leadership. Two years later a department of physical education was added. At that time there were about 170 Y.M.C.A. gymnasia and about 50 paid directors.

Robert J. Roberts was secured as an instructor in the department but resigned after two years and in 1890 was back in the Boston Association, where he remained for thirty years. Luther Halsey Gulick, who had completed the physical education course at Harvard and begun the study of medicine, was also chosen as an instructor. The International Committee, which then governed the association, created an International Department of Physical Training and made Gulick its secretary, which position he held until 1903. After Roberts left, Gulick was made head of the physical department of the training school, where he remained until 1900.

Dr. Luther H. Gulick.—Dr. Gulick made the physical program of the association a little more scientific in its theories and practice. This was made possible through his position at the training school. The field of the physical director in the Y.M.C.A. was expanded to include medical examinations, pro-

motion of health, lecturing on hygiene, and study in anthropometry, and research. The Handbook of the Y.M.C.A. published in 1892 gives a description of the theories and methods of that time. The following are some of the propositions found in it. Modern life demands a better body than was ever demanded before. The aim of the department is to provide physical education, health, and recreation. By physical education is meant the cultivation of symmetry, muscular strength, endurance, agility, grace, muscular control, physical judgment, courage, self possession and expression. The Delsarte system is regarded as the best for the development of the last-named quality. Gymnasium classes should be formed only when there is a real demand for them. Physical examination and measurement should precede exercises. If serious defects are found corrective work should be prescribed. The exercises should stimulate breathing, agitate the abdominal organs, and induce perspiration. Exercise should be frequent and regular, and should be followed with a shower bath. The gymnasium should not be in the basement. It should be equipped with an artificial ventilating system, with showers and plunge baths, with running track and visitors gallery. Gymnastic exhibitions should be held; athletics, outdoor games and hiking are to be encouraged. The Handbook also outlines a course of study for class leaders. The Y.M.C.A. took little interest in the controversies of the German, Swedish, and Delsartean advocates; they worked out an eclectic system suitable to their own conditions.

During the nineties when the American youth was becoming devoted to all kinds of sports the Y.M.C.A. did its share in promoting the movement and in holding the activities to a high moral and ethical level. The Athletic League which was organized in 1895, fostered amateurism and standardized athletics for the associations. This organization was a member of the Amateur Athletic Union until 1911.

In addition to the Training School at Springfield a similar one was opened at Chicago in 1890 and another at Nashville, Tennessee. Besides these training schools, summer courses for

physical directors are held in nine localities scattered throughout the United States and Canada. These institutions are providing the Association with men of the type and training they desire. The recommended course of study for the position of physical director covers a period of four years. A very large number of graduates become physical instructors in the schools and colleges.

In 1900 Dr. Gulick resigned from the Springfield school and became principal of the Pratt Institute High School, then, Director of Physical Training for the New York City Public Schools, also President of the Camp Fire Girls and a prominent leader in the American Physical Education Association and the Playground Association.

Dr. James Huff McCurdy has been head of the physical education department since that time. The first number of the Y.M.C.A. publication, *Physical Training,* appeared in 1901. In 1903 the Physical Directors Society of the Y.M.C.A. was organized. Its aim is to promote and standardize physical exercises and encourage research. Local and national meetings are held annually.

Recent Developments.—The object of the physical department of the Y.M.C.A. as stated in recent times, "is to promote by means of exercise, recreation and education, the highest physical, mental and moral efficiency of men and boys essential to the development of the best type of virile Christian manhood." The immediate aims are health, control of the neuro-muscular apparatus, self-control, respect for the rights of others, clean living, and morality.

The tendency toward the expansion of the field of physical education has made rapid progress and nearly all organizations that are working for physical welfare, experience Y.M.C.A. support or participation. However, nothing has been permitted to interfere with or to detract from the gymnasium class program. That is regarded as the most important work done by the physical department for men and boys.

The class program, or "day's order," is a gradual beginning, an increasing intensity, an increasing complexity, a maxi-

mum intensity, a gradually decreasing intensity, recreational games, and a bath and rub-down. Special classes of various kinds are organized. It is the duty of the physical director to teach personal hygiene, sex hygiene, community hygiene, first aid, and swimming. Outside organizations are encouraged to use the building facilities, the basket-ball floor, the bowling alleys, and the swimming pool. The work is not confined to the building, but includes the organization of athletic teams among industrial and commercial groups, the promotion of health and clean-up campaigns, instruction in life saving and first aid, support of playground movements, the management of summer camps for boys, where physical welfare is given first thought, and the introduction of Y.M.C.A. ideals into rural communities.

The Physical Department of the Young Men's Christian Association has had a steady growth in the last forty years. The Year Book for 1925 recorded a total of 1,688 associations with a membership of 968,929, of whom 454,936 were actives. There were 808 gymnasia, 246 athletic fields and 547 swimming pools. The numbers enrolled in regular gymnasium classes were 202,743 men and 206,814 boys, a total of 409,557. There were enrolled in swimming and life-saving classes 162,703. A total of 820 physical directors were employed. No other organization in the United States, outside the school system, equals this extensive work in physical education.

The Y. M. C. A. in Foreign Countries.—During the World War the Y.M.C.A. rendered a great service in the maintenance of morale among the soldiers in France and in America. One of the many methods used to accomplish this was the promotion of athletic sports and games among the men. So valuable did this work appear to be, especially in the rest camps, that the French staff secured the services of Y.M.C.A. instructors for their soldiers, and soon the French were playing the American games. The recreation program was particularly beneficial in the crowded prison camps.

The Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A. have been foremost in

introducing the American spirit of play and athletic competition among the backward nations. In 1908 the Y.M.C.A. sent the first trained physical educator into China. Under his leadership a gymnasium was established in Shanghai, which came to be the center in which playground movements, athletic associations, and health programs originated. Public exhibitions demonstrated to the Chinese leaders the values of physical education and interested the masses in athletic prowess



CHINESE PLAYGROUND IN THE PHILIPPINES IN 1913 UNDER Y. M. C. A. SUPERVISION

and competitions. The various localities met in the track and field sports and in the ball games throughout the Province of Nanking.

Elwood S. Brown was sent to the Philippines in 1911. After gaining the support of the educational and political authorities, he inaugurated the municipal recreation program and the "playground for every school" movement. Before long, volley-ball, baseball and other American sports were a part of Philippine life. Mr. Brown was one of the prime movers in the organization of the Far Eastern Olympic Games, which were held at Manila in 1913 and more recently at Shanghai and Tokio. These games have been an important factor in

awakening the Oriental nations to a realization of the value of play, recreation, gymnastics, and athletics, both from the physical and moral point of view.

In India the British government has given the physical educators free rein and has appropriated money for carrying out their programs. The universities and schools are centers of the physical education work, due, to a great extent, to the Y.M.C.A. leaders. A training school for native teachers of physical education has been established.

South America and Mexico have been fertile fields for the planting of American sports, which are now competing with bullfighting for popularity.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Brown, Elwood S. "The Second Far Eastern Championship Games." Mind and Body, April, 1916, pp. 59–68.

Carpenter, Percy. "Latest News From Y. M. C. A. Physical Work in France." American Physical Education Review, Oct., 1919, pp. 380–385.

Committee of Physical Directors' Society. "Physical Education in The Young Men's Christian Associations of North America." New York. 1914. Revised and war work included in 1920.

Editorial Board. "Service With Fighting Men." Vol. I, Chap. XVIII. New York. 1924.

Fisher, G. J. and Foss, M. I. "Physical Work: Management and Methods." New York. 1913.

Fisher, G. J. "History of Athletics in the Brooklyn Y. M. C. A." Mind and Body, March, 1905, pp. 12–15.

Fisher, G. J. "Physical Training in the Army." American Physical Education Review, Feb., 1918, pp. 65–76.

Gray, J. H. "Physical Education in India." American Physical Education Review, Oct., 1919, pp. 373–379.

Gulick, Luther H. "Physical Fitness in the Fighting Armies." American Physical Education Review, June, 1918, pp. 341–354.

Hartwell, Edward M. "Physical Training in American Colleges." Bureau of Education Circular of Information, No. 5, 1885, pp. 88–89. Descriptions and plans of early Y. M. C. A. gymnasia.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. XXV. Philadelphia. 1923.

Leonard, Fred E. "Pioneers in Modern Physical Training." See chapters on Roberts and Gulick. New York. 1922.

McKenzie, R. Tait. "Exercise in Education and Medicine." Chap. XI. Philadelphia. 1923.

Morse, Richard C. "The History of the North American Young Men's Christian Association." Pages 165–172 and 267–268. New York. 1918.

Ninde, Bowne and Uhl. "A Hand-book of the History and Organization of the Young Men's Christian Association." 1892.

Year Books contain very valuable source material. The Year Book for 1886, pp. 20–26, gives testimonies concerning the values of gymnastics. The Year Book of 1889 contains a report of Luther H. Gulick concerning the early work in the Springfield School, pp. 38–40.

CHAPTER XXI

THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

Early Associations.—The Young Women's Christian Association movement originated in England. It was the outgrowth of a religious and social service work conducted by philanthropists for the uplift and protection of girls and young women. In 1861 there were four centers, or homes, as they were called, engaged in this work, and they took the name of Young Women's Christian Association Prayer Unions. The need for similar organizations was felt in America, and in 1866 the first Y.W.C.A. was established in Boston under the leadership of Mrs. Henry Durant. The object was declared to be "the temporal, moral, religious welfare of young women who are dependent on their own exertions for support."

This program led first to the establishment of clubrooms where religious meetings, Bible study, and social gatherings might be held; then to the acquiring of a home where board and lodging might be secured by those who wished to take advantage of it. In a very few years a need was felt for opportunities in education, and courses were offered in astronomy, botany, physiology, penmanship, and bookkeeping. The Boston Association became the model for the many organizations which came into existence throughout the nation. Within ten years more than twenty associations were organized; among them were New York, Providence, Hartford, Cincinnati, St. Louis, and Newark. Hartford was the first to erect a building for the purpose; it was completed in 1872.

The various local associations were organized and managed with marked independence of each other. The character of the association work depended on the conditions in the locality, the class of girls ministered to, the ideas of the leaders, and the facilities at hand.

Gymnastics in Y. W. C. A.—The first recorded instance of the practice of gymnastics in a Y.W.C.A. was the organization of a class in calisthenics by one of the boarders at the Warrenton Street Home in Boston in 1877. Soon the possibilities of this kind of activity were recognized and the only hindrance to its immediate adoption in all associations was the expense. In 1882 games and athletic contests were practiced by the young women of the Boston Association in a public park; a few of Sargent's developing appliances were set up in corridors and vacant places in the Warrenton Street Home; also a class of girls accepted free instruction in Miss Allen's gymnasium. The required gymnasium costumes were made by the members of the class.

Two years later the new building for the Boston Association was ready for occupancy. It contained rooms for the educational department, employment bureau, assembly hall, office, parlors, reading room, sleeping quarters for 156 residents, and the fifth floor was occupied by the Durant Gymnasium, the first to be built into a Y.W.C.A. building. Miss Anna Wood, from the Wellesley College faculty, was secured to direct the physical exercises. The Boston Association rapidly broadened its scope of activity and it became a pioneer in the fourfold aim which was finally accepted everywhere, namely, "to elevate women physically, mentally, morally, and spiritually."

In 1887 Philadelphia, Poughkeepsie and New York had regular class instruction in calisthenics accompanied by the piano. The next year Coldwater, Mich., and Newburgh, N. Y., organized classes. The Scranton, Pa., Association fitted up a room and equipped it with rings, Indian clubs, dumbbells, wands, and weights. Worcester held weekly classes in "Physical culture, including voice culture." By 1890 physical education work was closely identified with the Y.W.C.A. and nearly every new building either contained a gymnasium or provided for one when funds were available.

Aims and Methods.—The Association leaders accepted the exercises and games of the gymnasium first, because they con-

stituted a drawing-card for the organization, and, secondly, they were considered to be very beneficial for the participants. When the girls were attired in the uniform gymnasium suit, playing and exercising together, democracy and sociability prevailed and all became enthusiastic supporters for the Y.W.C.A. A gymnasium was thought to be more effective than a library as a means of attracting the kind of girls that needed the Association. The gymnasium also served to protect the girls from objectionable forms of amusement. During the early eighties physical education was a much-lauded subject everywhere and was securing a firm hold on educational institutions both for men and for women. The Y.M.C.A. was claiming much for it and, consequently, the Young Women's Christian Association entered completely into the work of building healthy bodies and sound moral character through this method.

In practice, it was customary to organize classes which met regularly under the supervision of a teacher. The character of the gymnasium work depended on the instructor and on the equipment. The earliest methods were those advocated by Dio Lewis; later came the ideas and the appliances of Dr. Sargent, then in the early nineties the Delsarte system was popular among the young women and later the Swedish influence was felt. But with the change of systems and the varied practice in the different localities, games were played everywhere. Basket-ball and volley-ball have been the most-favored games.

There were no swimming pools until the Buffalo and Montgomery, Ala., Associations succeeded to the Y.M.C.A. buildings in 1905. Soon it was customary to erect no new buildings without swimming pools and swimming instruction was then provided.

In 1909 there were 791 associations and 93 gymnasia; 21,487 women participated in exercises or recreation. So few gymnasia in comparison to the number of associations is accounted for by the lack of funds necessary to provide and equip a gymnasium, and by the fact that many of the asso-

ciations were student organizations using the college gymnasia.

At the world conference held in Germany in 1910 the American visitors were impressed by the excellent gymnastic and singing exhibition given by the German women. The next year at the biennial convention in Indianapolis 175 members of the gymnasium classes of the Cleveland Association gave an exhibition, which met with great applause and approval.

In 1926 there were over 1,100 associations and about 1,000 branch organizations. Nearly all of the associations now have some facilities for physical education work. The city organizations have their own gymnasia and swimming pools, those of the towns and rural communities use the facilities offered by the local schools, churches or clubs, and the student organizations receive the instruction given in the educational institution.

The total registration for the physical education and health work in the New York Central Branch alone was about 11,500 and in the Los Angeles Association about 10,000 in 1926. There are approximately 600 regularly employed physical directors in the Association in the United States. The physical education and health work of the Y.W.C.A. is thoroughly advertised by means of attractive posters, newspaper articles and pamphlets.

Training Physical Directors.—The securing of leaders for the associations, and especially physical directors, proved to be a difficult problem. For many years the workers were trained in the local associations and in the short summer courses; but this method proved inadequate as a means of training the gymnasium instructors. Most of them had to be obtained from the various schools of physical education.

In 1903 the American Committee secured quarters in a partly furnished house in Chicago for the purpose of establishing a permanent institute where young women might be trained for Y.W.C.A. work. The theological seminaries provided professors and instructors, and the Chicago School of Physical Education, which was just being organized, opened

its classes to the students of the institute. The training school was reasonably successful, the number of students increased and larger quarters had to be found. However, in 1908, a new plan was adopted. There were to be established numerous training centers to give the practical instruction and elementary work, and one graduate or advanced school to complete the course under the direct supervision of the National Board. This method had the advantage of making possible a longer course at less expense and of keeping the students nearer their homes for the first part of the training. The Chicago Institute was abolished and the National Training School was established in New York City.

Very little was done at the National Training School in the line of physical education until 1911, when a study was made as to the requisites of a teacher of that subject in the Y.W.C.A. A six weeks' course was then provided in Teachers College, Columbia University. Abby Shaw Mayhew, who had had experience in the Minneapolis Association, was added to the faculty.

A few years later the Central School of Hygiene and Physical Education was established at the Central Branch of the Y.W.C.A. in New York City. This institution now prepares teachers of physical education not only for the Y.W.C.A. but for schools, playgrounds, athletic clubs, churches, and social settlements. Only about one-fourth of the graduates enter Y.W.C.A. work. The school is managed by the Central Branch of the Association at New York and is under the direction of Miss Helen McKinstry.

The directors and instructors in the departments of physical education and hygiene of the associations are secured from a great number of institutions; for example, in a conference of thirty instructors there were graduates of twenty-three different schools.

Health and physical education conferences, extending over a period of ten days, are held in different parts of the country every summer. There were 150 associations represented in these sessions during the summer of 1925.

Y. W. C. A. in Foreign Lands.—The Young Women's Christian Association is the only American organization sending trained physical instructors to the women of foreign lands. Nowhere in the world do the women have greater need of the mental, physical, and spiritual freedom, which participation in exercise and games will give, than in India and China. Nowhere is there a greater need for the teaching of hygiene, sanitation and health habits than there. The British government has given the Y.W.C.A. organizations of Bombay and Calcutta encouragement in the forming of physical education classes for women and children.

The work has been more successful in China. In 1912 Abby Shaw Mayhew, who was at that time Director of Physical Education for Women in the University of Wisconsin, went to China and, with the help of others, organized the gymnastic work in many associations. In 1915 their labors were crowned with the establishment of a Physical Training School for Chinese Women at Shanghai. The students of this school are prepared to teach classes in the Chinese schools and in the Y.W.C.A. centers and in every way to promote the physical welfare of women. May Day celebrations are occasions for gymnastic and athletic exhibitions and games; May-pole dances, club swinging, dumbbell drills, and games are the most attractive features of the gatherings. In Tienstin progress has been made in promoting and popularizing instructive games.

The Japanese government has established a well-developed system of physical education for the schools; but there is a great field for recreative games among children and older girls. The South American people are also coming in contact with the physical education work of the Y.W.C.A.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Bellows, Jane. "Individual Exercises." New York. 1923.
Gates, Edith M. "Carrying Recreation to Foreign Lands." The Woman's Press, Feb., 1929, pp. 106–108.
Handbook of the Young Women's Christian Association Movement, New York, 1914. Pages 32–39 and 78–89.
McKenzie, R. Tait. "Exercise in Education and Medicine." Chap. XI. Philadelphia. 1923.
Mayhew, Abby Shaw. "A Normal School of Physical Education and Hygiene for Chinese Women." American Physical Education Review. Nov., 1918.

CHAPTER XXII

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

I. Gymnastics

The Revival in the Fifties.—The nation-wide interest in physical development which manifested itself in the eighteen-hundred-and-fifties had an influence in the institutions of higher learning. The University of Virginia was foremost in the practice of gymnastics and in the erection of an adequate gymnasium. Mr. J. E. D'Alfonce was the instructor, and seems to have had marked success in interesting the students in the work as early as 1852.

President W. A. Stearns of Amherst College reported to the trustees in 1855, "No one thing has demanded more of my anxious attention than the health of the students. The waning of the physical energies in the midway of the college course is almost the rule rather than the exception among us, and cases of complete breaking down are painfully numerous." Again in 1859 he urged, "By the time Junior year is reached many students have broken down in health, and every year some lives are sacrificed. Physical training is not the only means of preventing this result, but it is among the most prominent of them. If it could be regularly conducted, if a moderate amount of exercise could be secured as a general thing to every student daily, I have a deep conviction, founded on close observation and experience, that not only would lives and health be preserved, but animation and cheerfulness and a higher order of efficient study and intellectual life would be secured." That same year the construction of a gymnasium for Amherst College was begun and in 1860 was completed. It was a two-story granite structure about 72 feet by 50 feet.

It contained an office, a dressing room and bowling alley on the first floor and the main gymnasium on the second.

Amherst Department of Physical Education.—The trustees then voted to establish a "department of physical culture." They defined the duties of the professor in charge; to give instruction to the students in gymnastics; to give lectures on hygiene and other topics pertaining to the laws of health and life, including a general knowledge of anatomy and physiology; and to watch closely over the general health of the students.

It was specified that the professor be a thoroughly educated physician, that he be given a seat in the college faculty and be entitled Professor of Hygiene and Physical Education. The main policy of the department was to be guided by the following principles; the object of the gymnastics was not to learn to perform difficult feats but to keep the entire body in health; students are to be required to attend exercises for one-half hour, four days per week; the instructor must make sure that the exercises are suited to all who engage in them and must guard them against overwork; that, even though no marks for proficiency are given, the instructor should note the irregularities and misconduct; some time must be allowed for volunteer exercises and games; the gymnasium must always be closed before dark and no light permitted in it; no smoking was to be allowed in the building.

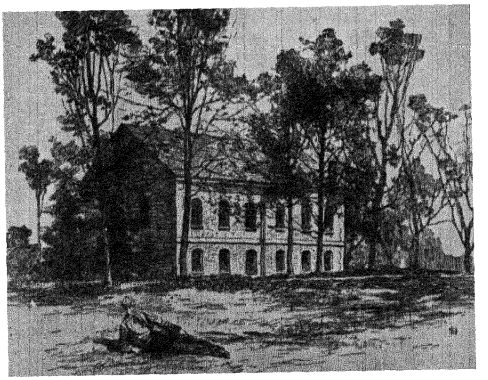
Contributions of Edward Hitchcock.—Dr. Edward Hitchcock, who was preceded by Dr. J. W. Hooker and Colonel Lyman, took charge of the Department of Physical Education at Amherst in August 1861 and remained for fifty years, until his death in 1911. This department was not only the first of the modern type to be organized in a college, but remained unequalled in its efficiency and completeness for twenty years. At first some heavy gymnastics was required, but soon Dr. Hitchcock came to the conclusion that light exercises, when executed rapidly, were more beneficial, so the latter, plus the tactics characterized the Amherst program. A part of Dr. Hichcock's report to the trustees in 1881 says, "Physical

culture as expressed to Amherst College students by the experience of the past twenty years, means something besides, something in addition to muscular exercise. It includes cleanliness of skin, attention to stomach and bowels, relaxation from daily mental work, freedom from certain kinds of petty discipline, but with so much requirement and restraint as will give coherence, respect and stability to the methods of maintaining health and the men employing them. The way in which students here are called upon to secure health, and its correct and normal maintenance for college requirements, is to be sure of some active, lively, vigorous muscular exercise at some stated periods; not requiring a rigid military or hardening drill of certain portions of the body, but offering them such exercises, as shall, while regularly engaged in, be vigorous, pleasant, recreative, and at the same time, be calling into exercise their powers in active, vigorous, easy, and graceful movements. Light wooden dumbbells weighing about one pound each are placed in the hands and then a series of movements are directed and timed by music, occupying in all from 20 to 30 minutes each day, and are simultaneously performed by a whole class under the head of the captain."

From the first year at Amherst, Dr. Hitchcock compiled statistics of measurements of the students and thus became one of the American pioneers in the science of anthropometry and its connection with physical education. The measurements were made soon after the student came to the college and again at the close of every school year. The records were kept so that the student might know how he compared with others and how he changed from year to year and also that it might be known what the data of the typical man and especially of the college man really was. The observations included age, weight, height, chest girth, fore-arm girth, body lift, capacity of lungs, finger reach, chest expansion, and comparative strength of two hands. Records were also kept of amount and kind of sickness, time lost by students because of illness, and number of students leaving school because of ill health.

The department gave lectures on health and hygiene to

freshmen and conducted courses in physiology and anatomy. Intramural athletic games were favored but "hot and violent contests with professional gamesters" were denounced, and the games with other colleges met only a lukewarm acquiescence. Corrective exercises were given when needed. Prizes were awarded to those students who carried out the directions of the department most faithfully and to those who attained a high degree of proficiency in the exercises.



THE GYMNASIUM OF AMHERST COLLEGE IN 1860

(From Leonard's, "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Lea & Febiger.)

At Other Colleges.—Harvard and Yale also completed gymnasia buildings in 1859 and 1860 but neither was fortunate in securing adequate support for a physical education department nor in finding a suitable physical director. For almost twenty years the gymnasia of these universities served principally as a congregating place for athletes and those who played the college games. Those who cared to enter the gymnastic classes paid for the privilege and at Yale a fee was charged to use the baths. The Harvard gymnasium had no bath.

Those institutions, in which the physical education work was not considered of sufficient importance to warrant the employment of a physician, usually secured either graduates of

Dio Lewis's Institute or expert gymnasts, for the position of instructor.

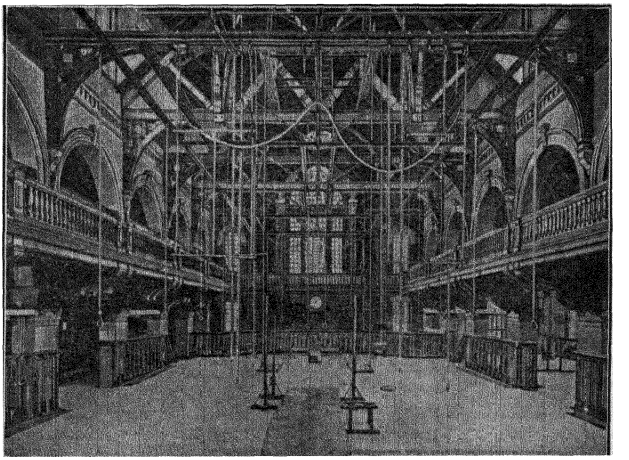
In 1869 Princeton College built a gymnasium, which for ten years remained the finest in United States. Under the direction of Mr. George Goldie a department of physical education was formed. The work was limited to giving exercises in the gymnasium and had nothing to do with health supervision. For a few years the exercises were compulsory, then the classes outgrew the gymnasium and they were made optional.

Many other colleges either erected inexpensive gymnasia or fitted up a vacant room during the sixties. Among them were Bowdoin, Oberlin, Wesleyan, Williams, and Dartmouth. Dio Lewis had made his system of calisthenics popular at this time and the women's schools, Mt. Holyoke Seminary and Vassar College, equipped gymnasia and introduced his methods. In many cases funds were not available for the work and the students took the initiative and did all that was possible to promote physical education.

The seventies constitute a period of the extension of the achievements of the pioneer colleges to other institutions. The amount of funds available usually determined whether or not the college should erect a gymnasium, also its size and equipment. The attitude of the faculty and the trustees and the opinions of the employed instructors determined the character of the course in physical education. Among those erecting gymnasia in that period were Beloit College, the University of Wisconsin, University of California, Smith College, and Vanderbilt University. Harvard built her second, the Hemenway Gymnasium.

Sargent at Harvard.—Mr. Augustus Hemenway gave $110,000 for the erection of the new structure and it was ready for occupancy in 1879. Dr. Dudley Allen Sargent was appointed to take charge of the physical education work with the title of Assistant Professor of Physical Training and Director of the Hemenway Gymnasium. Up to this time Harvard had failed to make the most of the possibilities of

a course in physical education; but for the next twenty years that institution held a leading position in physical education work and became the model for the universities of the Middle West. Dr. Sargent had had experience in college athletics as a student, had taught classes in gymnastics in Bowdoin College and in Yale, and had graduated from the Yale medical school in 1878. At the time of his election to the Harvard



THE HEMENWAY GYMNASIUM IN 1885

Notice the Sargent Machines. (From Leonard's, "A Guide to the History of Physical Education," Lea & Febiger.)

position he was conducting a private gymnasium in New York City.

Dr. Sargent's Methods.—He was charged with the task of equipping the new building, determining the policy of the department and arranging the work. Dr. Sargent stressed the individualistic side of physical education. He believed that the difference in the physical make up and physical needs of the students was too great to allow uniformity of exercise to be beneficial to the entire group. Consequently compulsory physical exercise in classes could not be consistently advocated. The aims and methods of the physical director are reported

by Dr. Sargent in 1884 as follows; "To attain a perfect structure, harmony in development, and a well balanced organism, is our principal aim. In order to go about our work intelligently, we first take a number of bodily measurements, which are compared with a standard for the given age. We then test the strength of the various parts, examine the heart, lungs etc., and solicit as much of the student's history as will throw light on his inherited tendencies. From the data thus obtained a course of exercise is prescribed which is in every way designed to meet the demands of his particular case." After the exercises were prescribed and the student was shown how to use the machines and apparatus, the entire problem was left with him.

Sargent did not believe that the usual gymnastic apparatus was adequate, because the ordinary man found the exercises on it too difficult, and, also, none of the pieces were designed to correct specific weaknesses. While at Harvard he brought to completion the many mechanical contrivances on which he had been working for some years. The Hemenway Gymnasium was equipped with the following machines; one foot machine; one ankle machine; two wrist machines; one foot rotating machine; one pronator machine; one supinator machine; one back and loins machine; one leg machine; two finger machines; one lifting machine; two extensor leg machines; one abdominal machine; one head balancing machine; one rowing machine (weight attachment); 18 rowing machines (hydraulic); one paddling machine; two sets inclined parallels; one adjustable ladder; one folding table; one peg pole; four chest expanders; two chest developers; thirty pairs of chest weights; ten pairs of chest weights (swivel pulley); six pairs of back and side pulleys; five pairs of high pulleys; two single one arm pulleys; two quarter circles; two traveling horizontal bars; one pair rack bars; one long inclined plane for chest and arms; two short inclined planes for lower extremities; two pairs treadles (weight attachment); two pairs stirrups and two bridles; and, in addition to these developing appliances, German apparatus and some Swedish.

Dr. Sargent also developed a more detailed system of measurements than was being used at Amherst. His studies on that line added greatly to anthropometric knowledge.

The eighties proved to be an unequalled era for gymnasium building, not only in colleges but in the Y.M.C.A. and athletic clubs. Nearly all the gymnasia of this period were equipped with either few or many of Dr. Sargent's appliances. Educators frequently spoke of the Sargent system and distinguished it from the German and the Swedish. The demand for teachers who were acquainted with these methods induced Sargent to establish a course in Cambridge in 1881 for the purpose of training women teachers. The Sargent school has been maintained ever since that time (See Chap. XXVI).

The Character of the Gymnasia.—During the early eighties Lehigh University, Cornell University, Tufts College, University of Wooster, Johns Hopkins University, Amherst College, Dickinson, Lafayette College, the University of Minnesota, and Bryn Mawr erected excellent gymnasia. They were usually the donation of wealthy alumni and ranged in cost from ten to forty thousand dollars. All contained a spacious exercising floor, offices, examining rooms, baths, either tubs or showers, a running track, a small visitors' gallery, dressing rooms, and lockers. Some included bowling alleys and billiard rooms, a long corridor for pitching and batting a ball, and a sparring and fencing room. The indoor swimming pool was very rare.

The gymnasia in the women's colleges were not so numerous but very similar to those of the men. The gymnasia at Vassar, Wellesley and Smith were not the equal of Bryn Mawr. The Association of Collegiate Alumnæ promoted a campaign among parents, among governing bodies of the women's colleges and among the students, urging the erection of more adequate buildings and the giving more attention to the health and more time to the physical exercise of the students.

The Departments of Physical Education.—It came to be customary, whenever funds were available, to employ a physician as the head of the department of physical education. This

was due to the fact that a man was wanted who had had training equal to that of the ordinary college professor, and at that time no normal school of physical education was offering so long a period of instruction.

The policy of the department depended on the facilities of the gymnasia and the opinions of the men in charge. Some



GYMNASIUM OF VASSAR COLLEGE IN 1866

Notice the floor markings for positions. (From Leonard's, "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Lea & Febiger.)

schools required all of the students to attend the gymnasium classes but varied in the number of days per week; Amherst and Princeton, four days; Vassar and Wellesley, daily; many others only two periods per week. Harvard offered its gymnasium courses as elective; when the Princeton gymnasium became overcrowded it was then made elective. In the institutions where the exercises were compulsory it became the practice to excuse those who were playing on the athletic teams and, of course, those who were not physically able to engage in the regular class work. For the latter special exercises were often provided.

The Society of Directors of Physical Education in Colleges was organized in 1897. Its purpose has been to promote the

physical welfare of the students in the institutions of higher learning, to make surveys and conduct research and to promote a professional spirit among its members. The Society has been one of the strongest institutions of physical educators in America. The Association of Directors of Physical Education for Women was established in 1910.

Recent History.—The last forty years has not been marked with any radical change or innovation in aims or procedure in physical education work in colleges, unless the emphasis placed on games could be so considered. The period has been one, rather, in which all higher institutions have risen to the standard set by the early schools. It has been a period of gymnasium building and rebuilding; the increasing enrollment in the colleges have necessitated larger structures and the available funds have provided finer buildings. The growing popularity of indoor intercollegiate athletic sports increased the seating capacity and magnificence of the structure. In the place of the small visitors' gallery the modern gymnasium seats thousands. A large and fine swimming pool is now regarded as indispensable to the college gymnasium.

An investigation which was made in 1915, revealed that of 252 schools of higher learning, more than 95 per cent. had gymnasia and departments of physical education and gave instruction in gymnastics and promoted athletics. In more than 90 per cent. the head of the department of physical education had a seat in the faculty; medical examinations were required of the students and were regularly repeated; and intercollegiate athletics were engaged in. In more than 80 per cent. compulsory courses were given to freshmen or sophomores or both; the departments claimed to exercise care over the health of the entire student body; and instruction was given in hygiene. A survey of 1920 showed a slightly higher per cent. in these activities and at the present time nearly all colleges have all of these items in their physical education program.

In 1919 an investigation of the status of physical education in 145 leading normal schools showed that 124 required physical exercise of all students. Games were taught in 102, gym-

nastics in 100, dancing in 55, and athletics in 47. Practice teaching in games was required by 91, in calisthenics by 74, in gymnastics by 68, in dancing by 63, in athletics by 40. There was a total of 110 gymnasia and 23 swimming pools; a total of 53 male instructors of physical training and 111 female. The character of the work in the normal schools is determined by the nature of the instruction in the elementary schools.

The majority of the colleges have been influenced by the popularity of games and athletics. Provision is usually made so that the student may secure his regular exercise through indoor or outdoor games or the events of the track and field, if he prefers that to the regular gymnasium work. This movement tends to increase the number and popularity of intramural games and carries out the "Athletics for all" slogan.

The physical efficiency tests, of which there are many varieties, have been applied in recent years to the students of universities. These tests tend to detract from the play-to-win spirit and emphasize the value of exercise from the point of view of personal physical welfare; incidentally they reveal the value of both gymnastics and athletics as a means of attaining physical efficiency. The best departments of physical education provide opportunities for corrective exercises for those who are in need of them.

Attention has been called to the gymnastic events by means of the intercollegiate contests of the gymnastic teams, in which competition on the parallel and horizontal bars, on the rings and in tumbling and other events are held.

The American Students Health Association was organized in 1920 for the purpose of coöperating with university authorities in the promotion of the physical welfare of the students. This organization has now been established in many of the large universities.

II. ATHLETIC SPORTS IN THE COLLEGES

Early History.—The games of college students in America are as old as the colleges. In 1761 the Trustees of Princeton

issued the following order, "The Trustees, having on their own view been sensible of the Damage done to the President's House by the Students playing at Ball against it, do hereby strictly forbid all and any of the Sd Students, the Officers and all other Persons belonging to the College, playing at Ball against Sd President's House, under the penalty of Five Shillings, for every offense, to be levied on each Person who shall offend in the Premises."

Evidently the spirit of athletic competition was equally as strong and perhaps as troublesome to the college authorities in the next generation, for in 1787 the Princeton faculty objected to a game which was played with "balls and sticks in the back common of the College." They said it "is in itself low and unbecoming gentlemen Students and in as much as it is an exercising attended with great danger to the health by sudden and alternate heats and colds and as it tends to accidents, almost unavoidable in that play, to disfiguring and maiming those who are engaged in it . . . the faculty think it incumbent on them to prohibit both the Students and Grammar Scholars from using the play aforesaid." The game to which they referred was field hockey or shinny, as it was then called. The diaries of the students of later years testify that the faculty prohibition was of no avail and that shinny was for many years the main college game.

The common attitude of the colleges toward the student athletic sports was that they were a necessary evil, which had to be tolerated and at times restricted. It was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that the authorities were compelled to either take charge of the athletics and promote them or to abolish them. This came about largely as a result of the intercollegiate contests.

Intercollegiate Athletics.—Intercollegiate athletics resulted from the desire of the students of one institution to match their physical prowess and playing ability with those of another. These sports began to assume a minor place in college life in the fifties and a very important place in the eighties. Until the advent of basket-ball the major contests were rowing,

baseball, track, and football. These sports are very indirectly connected with the practice of gymnastics or the erection of gymnasia; rather, they are related to the growth of the athletic field and the stadium. No activity in college life has weathered so many storms of denunciation or has been the subject of such loyal support of student bodies and alumni as the intercollegiate athletic contests.

Rowing.—The earliest intercollegiate meet was a boat race between Harvard and Yale in 1852. Other races, held at irregular intervals, constituted the only engagements for nearly a decade. This sport first gave rise to the question of professionalism; it was obviously unfair to permit the experienced seaman to compete with the untrained amateur oarsman. Amateurs and professionals were defined and distinguished. Because of the nature of the contest, rowing has been free of the taint of professionalism since that time. Though one of the oldest of college sports, it is largely confined to the East and extreme West.

Baseball.—During the latter part of the fifties a few colleges began to play baseball. The first recorded game was at Pittsfield, Massachusetts, in July, 1859 when Williams played Amherst. Amherst won with a score of 66 to 32. In the sixties the game became a leading sport. Yale, Harvard, Princeton, Amherst, Bowdoin, and Dartmouth organized baseball clubs and played with each other. There was no baseball association or league of colleges, however. The professional teams which were organized in all the leading cities overshadowed the importance of the college games very early. The professionals made the rules and evolved the modern game; the college teams adopted them.

Track and Field Events.—The fundamentals of the track and field events, namely, running, jumping, and hurling, are coexistent with the history of the colleges. Only since the seventies, however, have they been elevated through organization and strict rules to the position of a major sport. From 1870 to 1873 the Eastern colleges held frequent intramural track

meets. The first great intercollegiate gathering was held at Saratoga in 1874, where representative teams from Columbia, Cornell, Harvard, Princeton, Yale, and other colleges met. This event came to be an annual affair and gave rise to the first intercollegiate athletic associations. Within a decade the larger colleges of the United States organized track teams and the sport has had an uneventful history since that time, excepting for the addition of a few competitions, the slight changes of the rules, and the employment of expert coaches.

Football.—During the fifties the Yale freshmen played an annual game with the sophomores in which an inflated ball was used. They called it football, but the contest was so rough and so void of rules that the "class rush" was substituted. The first intercollegiate game of football seems to have been played by Rutgers and Princeton in November 1869. The game more nearly resembled the association football than the present style of playing; running with the ball and throwing it was not permitted, and there were twenty-five players on each team.

There is no authentic account of a college team playing football according to Rugby or modern rules previous to 1870. That year a Rugby student at Yale introduced the game among his classmates. About the same time other institutions were experimenting with the game and altering the rules. Columbia played Yale in 1872 and had twenty men on each side. The next year a convention was held in New York city by representatives of Columbia, Princeton, Rutgers and Yale for the purpose of making rules and regulations for the game of football. Other teams came in contact with the English method of playing; for example, Harvard played a Canadian team. Thus the American game slowly evolved from the Rugby rules and although many changes have been made since that time it is unmistakably the same game.

Since 1873 football has been the most popular sport connected with college life and it has been the most opposed and condemned; it has caused more college conferences and agreements than all other games combined. Harvard's attempts

to control and to regulate the game is typical of the efforts of other colleges. In 1874 the president of Harvard reported that, although the authorities were in favor of manly sports, they felt it a duty to discourage the students from playing with professionals and to "dissuade students from making athletic sports the main business, instead of one of the incidental pleasures, of their college lives" and to prohibit the taking of money for admission to the games. During this early period the faculty tried to limit and restrict rather than to direct and manage the athletics. The management was left in the hands of the students, with the results that professionals were frequently hired to play on the teams; that a very objectionable element of gamblers appeared to witness the games; and, because the rules of playing were not enforced, the contests became dangerous. On the other hand there were schools that encouraged intramural athletic teams and contests, in which the players played for the love of the sport and the benefits of the exercise.

Control of Athletics.—The origin of the present collegiate athletic practices dates from the eighties. Previous to that time there were no highly paid coaches, no training tables, no very large amount of money involved and little faculty support. In 1884 a committee representing twenty-two of the leading institutions attempted to secure the agreement of the college authorities to the following propositions: That athletic and gymnastic instructors shall be appointed by the faculty and not by the students; that college teams must be confined to games with college teams; that a standing committee of college representatives shall pass on the rules and regulations for conducting the contests; that no student may play on a team more than four years and that games shall be held on college grounds only. These principles were not generally accepted.

President Eliot of Harvard reported in 1885 that his investigating committee were "convinced that the game of football as at present played by college teams is demoralizing to player and spectators and extremely dangerous." The game

was immediately abolished at that institution and more attention was given to track and field events.

Football was soon restored to favor and grew in popularity in spite of conferences and restrictions to control it. In the latter part of the eighties the colleges of the Middle West began to assume some importance in the athletic circles and they, too, made football their most popular game. Nearly every college had problems similar to those of Harvard, but they also had the results of her experience and, from the beginning, the authorities determined on amateurism or nothing. Nevertheless, soon after 1900, football was threatened everywhere. Doctors, educators, and ministers spoke and wrote against it; an unusually large number of injuries and deaths resulted from the game. Leland Stanford University abolished the professional coach; Columbia University abolished football. The arguments were that it had become a profession, not a sport, that it took too much time and interest from the studies, that its possible value was for only a few, that it was an "academic nuisance," and that the large gate receipts made it a commercial enterprise.

In the midst of this hostility a convention of delegates from the leading colleges met in 1905 to reform the game. The major result of the meeting was the forming of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States, which was empowered to make rules and regulations for all major sports played by the colleges. The organization later took its present name, The National Collegiate Athletic Association. Football rules were revised so that the plays became more open, and penalties for the violation of the regulations were provided. With this new lease on life the game has increased rapidly in importance in college life but decreased in importance as a means of physical education for the student body. In 1926 many games were attended by over 50,000 people. The great crowds have necessitated the building of huge stadia, some of which cost more than $1,000,000. The financial profits from the football season are sufficient to cover the losses sustained in the other athletic activities.

The National Collegiate Athletic Association has enrolled about 175 leading colleges and universities. It determines the rules for football, basket-ball, track and field, swimming, boxing, and wrestling. The association also controls the eligibility of the participants and endeavors to maintain athletics "on an ethical plane in keeping with the dignity and high purpose of education." The colleges are organized into about twenty-five conferences for the purpose of securing games and determining championships of local districts. In the case of some competitions the national association holds a national meet for the winners of the conferences.

Basket-ball has steadily increased in popularity until it is the favorite indoor intercollegiate game. It has been responsible to a great extent for the erection of the gymnasia with a seating capacity of thousands. The character of the game makes it very suitable for intramural contests.

Athletics for All.—Besides these major sports there have always been many minor games participated in by an equal number of students with perhaps better results from the point of view of physical education. Among these is lacrosse, volley-ball, tennis, golf, polo, swimming, hockey, soccer, and cricket. Nearly all the collegiate organizations whose aim is to promote physical exercise have adopted the "athletics for all" slogan. The institutions that make an effort to secure the participation of all the students in games get the results such as Amherst obtained. In the fall term of 1921, 462 men out of an enrollment of 510, or 92 per cent, engaged in some form of outdoor athletics.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Blanchard, John A. "The H Book of Harvard Athletics, 1852–1922." Excellent history of rowing, baseball, football, track, hockey, tennis and golf in Harvard. 1922.

Collins, Varnum L. "Princeton." Pages 207–211. New York. 1914.

Crowther and Ruhl. "Rowing and Track Athletics." New York. 1905.

Davis, P. H. "Football; The American Intercollegiate Game." New York. 1911.

Foster, Alice B. "Report on Physical Training in Bryn Mawr College, 1895–

1896." Characterizes the problems in a woman's college at that time. Mind and Body, Feb., 1898, pp. 269–276.

Halsey, Elizabeth. "The College Curriculum in Physical Education for Women." American Physical Education Review, Nov., 1925, pp. 490–500.

Hartwell, Edward M. "Physical Training in American Colleges." Bureau of Education Circular of Information No. 5. 1885.

Lee, Mabel. "The Case For and Against Intercollegiate Athletics for Women and the Situation as it Stands Today." Mind and Body, Nov., 1923, pp. 245–256.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. XXIII. Philadelphia. 1923.

Leonard, Fred E. "Pioneers of Modern Physical Training." Chapters on Hitchcock, Sargent, and Hartwell. New York. 1922.

McCurdy, Mrs. J. H. "The History of Physical Training at Mt. Holyoke College." American Physical Education Review, Mar., 1909.

McKenzie, R. Tait. "Physical Education at Girard College." Historical. Mind and Body, Sept., 1923, pp. 197–203.

News Editorial. "New Football Game: How it is Going to Work." Sets forth the reforms of 1906. Mind and Body, Nov., 1906, pp. 265–269.

Nichols, H. M. and Smith, H. B. "The Physical Aspect of American Football." The frequency and character of the injuries are used as argument against the game. Mind and Body, June and July, 1906, pp. 127–128 and 157.

Ready, Marie M. "Physical Education in American Colleges and Universities." A study of the status of physical education, military training, and hygiene in 182 institutions of learning. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 14, 1927.

Reid, W. T. and Nichols, E. H. "Football." Gives educational points of view for 1906. Educational Review, 1906, pp. 451–469.

Report (unsigned). "Society of College Gymnasium Directors." An account of the founding of the society. Mind and Body, Jan., 1898, pp. 263–264.

Sargent, Dudley A. "History of the Administration of Intercollegiate Athletics in the United States." Dept. of Child Hygiene, Russell Sage Foundation, No. 69.

Sargent, Dudley A. "Autobiography." Philadelphia. 1927.

Society of Directors of Physical Education in Colleges. "Status of Physical Education in Colleges and Universities." These surveys were reported in the American Physical Education Review, Feb., 1912; March, 1916; and Nov., 1921.

Spalding, Albert G. "America's National Game; Baseball." New York. 1911.

CHAPTER XXIII

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOLS

The Importance.—In those nations which do not have a system of compulsory military training, the schools offer the best, if not the only, opportunity for the study and the improvement of national physical welfare on an extensive scale. The enormous enrollment in the educational institutions enhances their importance as an agency of general physical education.

The high school, the most important institution of secondary education, is of recent development. The enrollment during the last forty years was approximately 160,000 in 1885, 350,000 in 1895, 680,000 in 1905, 1,300,000 in 1915 and 2,000,000 in 1925. When the time was ripe for the permanent introduction of physical training into the educational system the movement included both the elementary and the high schools.

Early Developments.—The work of Superintendent Nathan Bishop to secure a place for physical exercise on the daily program of the schools of Boston constitutes one of the earliest efforts made by school administrators. In 1852 he reported: "In addition to the exercise allowed at the time of recess each half day, all the younger children need provision for some gentle exercise as often as once in every half hour, such as riding, walking, marching accompanied with such motions of the arms as would tend to give fullness and erectness to the chest." The next year a rule that "every scholar should have daily some kind of physical or gymnastic exercise" was passed, but scarcely enforced. John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of Boston Schools, says in his report for 1858: "While the intelligence is in training, the conscience and the body must not

be neglected. Liberal playgrounds ought to be provided for every school at whatever cost, and they should be used." There was scarcely any school practicing physical exercise in Boston, however, until 1860.

The history of physical training in the schools of St. Louis also begins in the fifties. John H. Tice, Superintendent of Schools, reported in 1855 that many school yards had been equipped with play apparatus and were being used at recess. In some schools "manual exercises" were practiced. The superintendent said: "It is pleasant to see two hundred children, all in perfect order, go through with these changes and evolutions and to witness in their faces the pleasure and happiness they derive from the exercises. All admit that these occasional relaxations from study and recreation are both healthful and profitable." In 1859 Captain Hartnett Hammersley became the first special physical training instructor for the elementary and high schools of St. Louis. After a year he resigned and the physical training work was neglected for about a decade.

In Cincinnati Superintendent A. J. Rickoff reported in 1857 that there were a few parallel bars, horizontal ladders, and circular swings in four schoolyards. He proposed that "provision be made at once for instructing all the teachers now employed in the schools in such a system of gymnastics as shall be adapted to the several grades of the schools from the sixth to the first." Two years later the class teachers were requested to give calisthenics for five-minute periods at the end of every recitation in the lower grades.

Several other cities made efforts to organize a system of physical training for the public schools in the fifties, but none were able to entirely overcome either the obstacles of lack of funds, facilities, and trained leaders, or the general skepticism regarding the value of the work. The time was ripe, however, for the enthusiasm and confidence of Dio Lewis.

Dio Lewis and the Schools.—When Superintendent Philbrick of Boston became acquainted with Lewis's methods and theories he said: "The old system of gymnastics with its bars

and swings and ladders was quite impossible in a great system of public schools, but when I saw that these exercises of the new system might be performed even in a schoolroom, in the midst of the desks and chairs without difficulty or danger, I felt the problem was solved. We shall have them in all our schools. It is only a question of time." Another educator said: "The way so badly desired has been pointed out."

The Lewis system of calisthenics was first established in a private school in West Newton, Mass., in 1860. Superintendent Philbrick then secured instruction for his teachers, and the system was generally introduced into the Boston schools. The teachers were to give not more than one-half nor less than one-quarter of an hour to the exercises once during every school session. In 1862 there were seventy teachers who had had training and were giving the work to Boston pupils. Many cities which were about to fail in their physical education program renewed their efforts. Cincinnati employed its first special teacher of physical exercise, Mr. Louis Graeser, who remained in that position until 1873, when, in order to cut down school costs, he was dismissed. Had the Civil War not come in the midst of this period of achievement it is highly probable that physical education would have become, much sooner, a part of the educational program.

Effect of the War.—When the conflict came the promotion of new and expensive educational movements ceased, and physical education was neglected. The military leaders of the Union took note of the excellent training and discipline of the Southern troops and ascribed it to the numerous military academies of the South. This resulted in an irresistible movement to introduce military training in the schools of the North. In practice this activity usually displaced physical education for boys and tended to minimize its importance for girls. The momentum of the Lewis movement spent itself, and military training remained in favor long after the war. During the seventies there were only a few instances of physical training being incorporated in the educational program, for example, Swedish gymnastics was introduced in the Girls'

High School of Boston in 1874 and one year later George Brosius was employed to instruct the teachers of Milwaukee in light exercises that they might conduct the work in their schoolrooms.

Revival in the Eighties.—The eighties constitute one of the most outstanding decades in the history of physical education in America. The Christian Associations recognized that a great value was to be obtained from that kind of work and practiced it more intensively; a large number of colleges and universities erected gymnasia and employed trained physical educators; the turners doubled their efforts and their success in the spread of the German system of physical education; a large number of cities employed directors of physical education for the public schools and placed the subject permanently on the daily program; local gatherings and national conventions of physical educators were held to promote the movement and improve the methods; the Swedish system of school gymnastics secured an important place in American education.

The American Physical Education Association.—The American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education was founded in Brooklyn in 1885. It was strictly a native American movement, little influenced by German or Swedish leaders. The first officers were: Edward Hitchcock, President; Dudley A. Sargent, Edward P. Thwing and Miss H. C. Putnam, Vice-Presidents; W. G. Anderson, Secretary; J. D. Andrews, Treasurer. W. G. Anderson was largely responsible for the organization of the association and was a teacher of physical education in Brooklyn at that time. Later he was prominent in the normal school work, the founder of the New Haven Normal School of Gymnastics. The association is now called the American Physical Education Association and states as its aims: "To awaken a wide and intelligent interest in physical education; to acquire and disseminate knowledge concerning it; to promote such universal physical education as will provide well-trained teachers, and secure adequate programs for the nation." With the wide

expansion of the physical education movement, special sections of the main organization have been established. The first was the Society of Directors of Physical Education in Colleges in 1897; the Public School Section followed in 1904 and the Therapeutic Section in 1905. Since that time the following branches have been established: The Y.M.C.A. Section; American Gymnastic Union Section; the Playground Section and the Women's College Directors' Section.

The official journal of the association is the *American Physical Education Review,* edited by Dr. James Huff McCurdy.

The Turners and the Schools.—The turners exerted their efforts to secure a place for gymnastics in the public schools of their communities. The events at Kansas City, Mo., are typical of the history in other cities. Carl Betz was appointed instructor in the Socialer Turnverein in Kansas City, Mo., in 1885. That same year he accepted the opportunity to demonstrate a class of girls in wand and club drills before the teachers' institute. His work was well received and all agreed that something of that kind should be a part of school work. A little pamphlet was published by the turners explaining how it could be accomplished. Betz offered to direct the exercises for a few months without pay in order to demonstrate their practicability. The board accepted, and before the end of 1885 he was employed as director of physical education of all the schools of Kansas City, where he remained until his death in 1898.

These events were almost duplicated at Chicago, Davenport, Cleveland, Omaha, St. Joseph, Canton, Holyoke, and Lowell, where the German system was introduced before 1890. Washington, D. C., and Denver accepted the physical training program for the schools during the same period, but they used an eclectic system of exercises.

How Swedish School Gymnastics Came to America.—Hartvig Nissen was the first to promote successfully the Swedish pedagogical gymnastics in the United States. Mr. Nissen introduced the system in the Franklin School of Wash-

ington, D. C., and among the students of Johns Hopkins University in 1883 and 1885, respectively. The first public exhibition of Swedish pedagogical gymnastics and folk dances was held by the Nissen classes in Washington in 1884. During the next few years many educational institutions in and about Washington and Baltimore introduced the Swedish system; teachers were usually trained in Mr. Nissen's classes.

The U. S. Commissioner of Education, John Eaton, appointed Mr. Nissen to take charge of the physical education department of the New Orleans Industrial Exposition in 1884-1885. He fitted up a gymnasium with Swedish and German apparatus and some of Dr. Sargent's appliances and personally conducted the demonstration during December.

With Nissen's preparation the movement received its greatest impetus through the efforts of Baron Nils Posse, a native of Sweden and a graduate of the Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics of Stockholm. On his arrival in America in 1885, he settled in Boston and immediately began a campaign to acquaint the medical circles with the principles of medical gymnastics and massage. Hartvig Nissen has been mentioned (Chap. XVIII) as a successful practitioner at that time.

However, a wider field of service presented itself; Boston was ready to do more intensive and extensive work in physical education in its public schools. Mrs. Mary Hemenway, whose son had donated the Harvard gymnasium of 1879, desired to finance the inauguration of the Swedish system in the Boston schools. Baron Posse was considered the logical person for the executive position. Mrs. Hemenway proposed to provide free instruction for one hundred teachers, for one year, with the understanding that they were to use the exercises in the schools, and the Boston School Committee was then to determine whether the work was worth while. All agreed to the plan and in 1889 the classes for teachers were organized and taught by Baron Posse. This was the origin of the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics. Posse also conducted classes in the city normal school and held sessions for masters and

submasters in the theories and aims of the Swedish system.

In 1890 the superintendent of schools reported that over 400 teachers were prepared to give instruction in the Swedish system. That year the Boston Committee ordered "that the Ling or Swedish system of educational gymnastics be introduced into all the public schools of this city." Dr. Edward Mussey Hartwell, formerly of Johns Hopkins University, was elected to the position of Director of Physical Training and began his duties in 1891. Hartvig Nissen became assistant director. Posse left the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics in 1890 and devoted his energies to the founding and management of the Posse Normal School until his untimely death in 1895.

Principles of the Swedish System.—The Swedish system of formal gymnastics differed in no essential manner from that in Sweden. From the time of Ling the movements have been based on physiological considerations; for example, those exercises which constrict the chest, interfere with normal breathing, or produce sustained pressure on an important nerve or vascular trunk, or in any other way prevent or tend to prevent a normal functioning and growth are barred. On the other hand the exercises that tend to increase chest capacity and promote regular and correct breathing and so forth are accepted.

The Swedes also worked out a high degree of coördination and progression, not only in regard to the exercises in a single "day's order," but in regard to the movements of to-day and those of to-morrow and from week to week and month to month. The system has never favored squad leaders, rather one teacher may direct an entire class of two or three hundred pupils. The exercises are executed at the word of command; there are no memorized drills or musical accompaniments. In addition to the formal gymnastics the Swedish leaders recognize the values of games, folk dances, fencing, and athletic sports, and are pioneers in corrective gymnastics.

The Physical Training Conference.—One of the most notable events growing out of the activities of the Boston

leaders was the Conference in the Interest of Physical Training held in Boston in 1889. The conference was presided over by U. S. Commissioner of Education William T. Harris and was addressed by a very large number of leading educators. Its object was "to place before educators different systems of gymnastics and to secure discussion of the same, with a view to clearly ascertaining the needs of the schools and determining how they may best be met." The meeting was a great success from point of view of numbers and prominence of those who participated and the thoroughness of the discussions. Dr. Hartwell and others who advocated the Swedish system were particularly successful in impressing educators with its value and practicability in the schools. The spread of physical education in the American schools was rapid from that time on.

The Situation in 1892.—A friendly rivalry sprang up between the advocates of the German system and the advocates of the Swedish. The Germans held that the Swedish method was too formal, uninteresting, failed to obtain recreational values, and was very weak in social and moral training. The Swedish supporters claimed that the German system lacked scientific foundation, that too much music and rhythm accompanied the exercises and thereby prevented the maximum physical benefit from being derived, that too much emphasis was given to the recreational and not enough to the educational results, and that the system was unable to cope with problems of individual and specific weaknesses.

The *Posse Gymnasium Journal* upheld the cause of the Swedish system; *Mind and Body* and the turner publications supported the German. The Delsartean system had its advocates and publications. The followers of Sargent called his the Sargent system; great numbers of educators, however, took what they thought was the best from all systems and formed an eclectic method.

The schools of Massachusetts followed the lead of Boston and secured teachers of Swedish gymnastics. Nissen's "A B C of Swedish Educational Gymnastics," published in 1891, and

Posse's "Handbook of School Gymnastics of the Swedish System," published in 1892, became the accepted texts. The schools of the Central West usually secured teachers of the German system. St. Louis, Sandusky, Columbus, Cincinnati, Milwaukee, Dayton and many others obtained their directors of physical education from the ranks of turners and from the graduates of the Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union. Several manuals for the teaching of gymnastics in the schools were published by the German leaders, among them Ballin, of Sandusky; Betz, of Kansas City, Mo.; Leibold, of Columbus, and Rasmussen, of Milwaukee.

In 1892 an investigation was made of the status of physical training in the schools of 272 leading cities of the United States. Eighty-three cities had a special director of physical education for the entire school system; 81 had no director but required the teachers to give exercises; in 108 cities the teachers practiced the exercises at their own discretion. Of the cities that reported on the date of the establishment of the physical education program, 10 per cent. were before 1887, 7 per cent. during 1887-88, 29 per cent. during 1889-90 and 54 per cent. during 1891 and 1892. Of those reporting on the character of exercises given in the schools, 41 per cent. had German, 29 per cent. Swedish, 18 per cent. eclectic and 12 per cent. Delsartean. Only 11 cities reported equipped gymnasia, of which there was a total of 31.

The high schools of the nineties were regarded as merely higher grades and frequently occupied the same buildings as the lower grades. The large cities, where the numbers enrolled in the high school required it, were erecting separate buildings, but rarely with a gymnasium.

The program of the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education for the year 1892 gives a good idea of the problems of that time. The President's address, "The Condition and Prospects of Physical Education in the United States," Edward Mussey Hartwell; "Influence of Methodical Gymnastics in Increasing Chest Capacity" by M. Georges Demery; "Indirect Effects of Physi-

cal Exercise" by Wm. T. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education; "Influence of Physical Exercise on the Length of Life," J. Madison Taylor, M. D.; "Delsarte and His Work," F. H. Sargent; "Americanized Delsarte Culture," Emily M. Bishop; "Regulation and Management of Athletic Sports," Dudley A. Sargent; "Influence of Habitual Posture on the Symmetry and Health of the Body," Eliza M. Mosher, M.D.; "The Best System of Gymnastics for use in the American Schools," Miss Gulli Oberg; "The German System of Physical Education," William A. Stecher; "Reports on Physical Culture in Washington, D. C., Chicago, Sacramento, Cal., and New York by the Directors of Physical Education in the Respective Cities;" "The Normal School of the Gymnastic Union," William A. Stecher; "Physical Culture in Normal Schools," Dr. C. E. Ehringer; "Some Measurable Results of Swedish Pedagogical Gymnastics," by C. J. Enebuske.

Three years after this meeting, in 1895, a few teachers who attended the National Education Association in Denver, met and organized the Physical Education Department of the N.E.A. The first president of the section stated that, "The aim of the department is not only to establish a closer relation between those who are actively engaged in physical training, but to give dignity and scope to the work by enlisting the interest of prominent educators and by bringing it more effectively to the attention of the regular teachers with whom the hope of the future lies." This department has held its meetings with the N.E.A. Convention since that time.

The most important factors in the history of physical education in the schools since 1892 are (1) the development of a system whose aims and practices are in harmony with the scheme of general education, and the widespread adoption of that system, (2) state legislation, which gave physical education a position equal in importance to any other educational pursuit, and (3) health education. These items are discussed in the order given.

American School Gymnastics and Athletics.—The aims of school gymnastics, in the eighties and early nineties, were

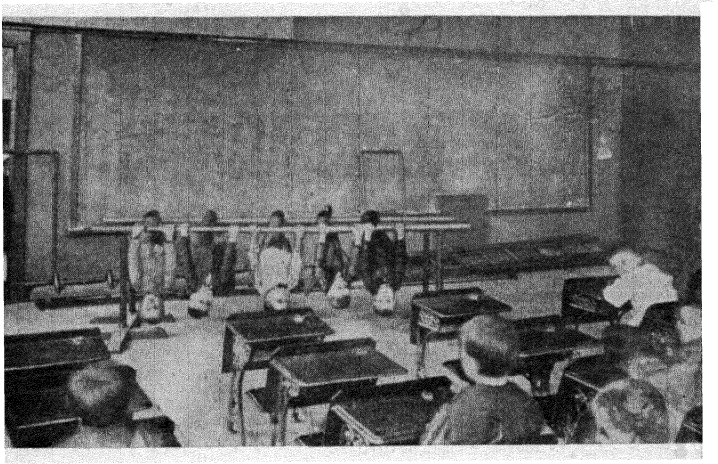
to counteract the physical deterioration which the school life apparently induced, and to develop, into physically sound men and women, the children who were below normal when they entered the school. The child's play was not regarded as sufficient means.

In practice the "exercise lesson" resembled all the other lessons. It was most frequently done in the class room with the regular teacher; it was very formal; a given number of exercises must be executed in the proper way; it was work, not play; education, not recreation. This was generally true whether the Swedish, German, Delsartean, or an eclectic system was in use.

During the nineties the schools came to be recognized as the cornerstone of the democracy; more money was appropriated, better buildings and equipment were provided, and more highly trained teachers were available. The result was that the best theories of educational procedure could now become educational practices. One of these, the Froebelian theory of play, had been known in America for many decades, but the educators were inclined to neglect its possibilities and to permit the children to play their own games in their own way. The educators now came to the conclusion that the play instinct should be made use of in the educational program and it seemed to come within the jurisdiction of the physical educator. Great claims were made for group games, folk dances, and, finally, athletic contests. Beside the physical benefits, which many asserted were equal to those of formal gymnastics, there was a mental and moral training to be derived, in honesty, unselfishness, loyalty, coöperation, imagination, alertness, helpfulness, and resourcefulness. Educators agreed that play was conducive to wholesome mindedness, and opposed to morbid tendencies, and was necessary to the normal mental and physical growth of the child.

The question was, how were these ideas to be put into practice? Should play displace the formal exercise, or should one supplement the other? The German school of physical educators from the beginning were aware of the values of play.

GutsMuths wrote his book on "Games"; Jahn said, "Play is a school for righteous thinking and acting; a school for self-control, good fellowship, and self-government; in it are joined work and joy, merriment and earnestness. Play is the school that makes citizens." *Mind and Body* published the rules of numerous games suitable for school use. The German school of physical educators, however, did not believe that games could take the place of formal exercise, because the aims of the



ONE KIND OF CLASS ROOM GYMNASIUM IN 1903

two methods and the benefits to be derived from them were entirely different. The Swedish school did not find the games an adequate substitute for the formal work.

The crowding of the curriculum has made it almost impossible to find time for a period of formal exercise and another for supervised play. The old controversies that used to exist between the advocates of the Swedish and the advocates of the German systems are now found between those who hold to any kind of formal work and those who claim the great superiority of games. At one extreme are those who believe that formal exercise is of far greater educational value than games, but that the latter are excellent for the maintenance of inter-

est in the work; at the other extreme are those who hold that the greatest value is to be derived from supervised play, but when facilities are not at hand for playing or when outdoor work is not possible then formal gymnastics will serve as a temporary substitute. Nearly all of the American cities take a middle course. In a recent survey of 78 cities which reported regular work in physical education, 75 gave attention to both formal exercises and games.

The logical result of the emphasis on the value of play was the extension to the elementary and secondary schools of the highly organized athletic system, which originated in the universities. Some private and public secondary schools were playing football as early as the eighties; occasionally interscholastic, usually intramural. During the nineties several city and county athletic associations were formed; for example, the Cook County High School Association of high schools in and about Chicago. Since that time the history of athletics in the college has been repeated in the schools. The question of eligibility of players was settled by applying the college rules, with the exception of the item of age; interscholastic contests soon overshadowed the intramural; greater importance was attached to winning the game than to the effect on the players; the winning team required such intensive training that fewer and fewer participated as players and more and more became spectators; football was outlawed here and there, only to be restored at a later date; expert coaches of football, basket-ball, and track were employed largely for the purpose of turning out winning teams.

City athletic associations gave way to district and state associations. Indiana founded a highly organized high school athletic association in 1903. In 1911 Indiana University conducted a basket-ball tournament of elimination contests throughout the state, as a means of determining the state high-school championship. Since that time these annual tournaments have been held under the management of the Indiana High School Athletic Association. In 1926 there were 808 high schools in the state, 760 were members of the I.H.S.A.A.,

719 teams played in the sectional, regional, and final games of the basket-ball tournament. There was a total of 5,752 boys on these teams, including the substitutes. Many of the games were witnessed by more than ten thousand people.

The fact that every community has taken an interest in developing a successful team has made possible the erection of large gymnasia often separate from the main school buildings. In Indiana they are frequently built by the business men and donated to the school or by a holding company who intend to recover their money through admission charges. The gymnasium is, however, frequently nothing more than a basket-ball floor surrounded by seats for thousands of spectators. The I.H.S.A.A. determines the rules and regulations for all other high school athletic contests in Indiana and conducts the state track and field and wrestling tournaments.

All the states except three have some sort of state-wide organization for high school athletics. In 1923 the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations was established to care for problems arising from interstate contests and to promote the national basket-ball, and track and field tournament.

Since 1900 the competitive spirit has reached the elementary schools. In 1903 the Public Schools Athletic League of New York City was organized. Its purpose was to encourage and manage athletic contests among the grade schools, and to direct the competitive spirit in a way most beneficial to the pupils. The Playground Association and the Y.M.C.A. gave support and encouragement to the movement and the large cities throughout the nation adopted it. By 1915 these leagues were organized in 177 cities. The Public Schools Athletic Leagues favor the track and field events, swimming, baseball, basket-ball, football, and a few minor games.

The long-delayed gymnasia in the elementary schools are now being constructed. For example, of the 64 buildings in Cincinnati, 3 have 2 gymnasia, 29 have 1, 59 have play rooms, 2 have swimming pools. The buildings without these facilities

are of the old type, but not sufficiently old to warrant abandonment.

In 1922 a joint committee of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association published the facts of an extensive investigation concerning the physical and health education in the leading city schools. Reports were returned from 341 cities. Of this number 104 reported that some of their elementary school buildings had gymnasia; in 84, less than one-half of the buildings were so equipped, and in 20, more than one-half had gymnasia. In 90.3 per cent. of all the cities physical exercise was required in the elementary schools. In 83.1 per cent. of these cities the exercise was given by the regular grade teacher. The most-favored games for boys were basket-ball, baseball, football, soccer, track, volley-ball, hockey, tennis, dodge-ball; for girls, basket-ball, track, baseball, dodge-ball, and tennis.

In regard to physical education in the high school, Dr. Carl Ziegler made an investigation in 1905. Of the 14 large cities which reported, 86 per cent. required physical exercise in the gymnasium of both boys and girls; 70 per cent. gave 40 to 45 minutes two times per week to the exercises; 30 per cent. devoted 1 to 3 periods; 57 per cent. gave school credits in gymnasium work. It should be said that these were the leading cities in physical education at that time.

The investigation of 1922, mentioned above, showed that 77.1 per cent. of the cities had physical training classes in the high schools; 22.9 per cent. did not. Thirty-one per cent. devoted two periods of from 40 to 45 minutes per week to the instruction; 16 per cent devoted from 30 to 45 minutes, five times per week; the remaining cities differed widely. Of those cities reporting on the number of high school gymnasia, 54.3 per cent. stated that all of the buildings have them; 33 per cent. reported that none of the buildings have gymnasia; the remainder reported some. Only 7.9 per cent. of the buildings have swimming pools. Of all cities 94.7 per cent. permit interscholastic athletic contests for boys but only 70.5 per cent. permit girls to engage in them. In 90 per cent. of the cities the

high school boys engage in basket-ball, 73 per cent. football, 61 per cent. baseball, 37 per cent. track events, 8 per cent. tennis, 4 per cent. swimming, and 3 per cent. soccer. In 95 per cent. of the cities the girls play basket-ball, 16.7 per cent. volley-ball, 15 per cent. tennis, 9 per cent. track, 4 per cent. baseball, 4 per cent. hockey, 6.7 per cent. engage in swimming.

Since 1918 great numbers of the elementary and secondary schools have accepted the physical efficiency tests, as a means of establishing achievement goals and increasing an interest in individual physical welfare.

State Legislation for Physical Education.—As a result of the turner agitation, Ohio passed the first state law prescribing physical training for the public schools in 1892. The statute read, "Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio; That Physical Culture, shall be included in the branches to be regularly taught in the common schools in the cities of the first and second class, and in all educational institutions supported wholly or in part by money received from the state, and it shall be the duty of the boards of education of the cities of the first and second class, and boards of such educational institutions, to make provisions in the schools and institutions under their jurisdiction for the teaching of physical culture and calisthenics, and to adopt such methods as shall adapt the same to the capacity of the pupils in the various grades therein."

Pennsylvania tried to secure similar legislation in 1890 and again in 1895, but the bills were vetoed. In all of the states the agitation came from the turners, from the branch societies of the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education, and from the teachers' associations. In 1895 the South Illinois Teachers' Association resolved, "To endorse a system of physical training in the public schools of the state and request the next general assembly to make such legislation as to insure its compulsory introduction into all public institutions, supported by the state." Similar efforts were made in nearly all of the states of the Middle West.

North Dakota was successful in its legislation in 1899. Ohio extended its legislation to the schools of the entire state in 1904. Idaho passed a law in 1913.

The greatest amount of legislation, however, came during the war and the post-war period. During the years 1915 to 1918 eight states passed laws requiring some sort of physical training for the schools. They were Illinois, New York, California, Nevada, New Jersey, Rhode Island, Delaware, Maryland. In most of this legislation the military aim and military training were dominant, but, in practice, physical education came to be considered as more suitable to the school system and more effective in securing the results which the laws anticipated. During the years 1919 to 1925, 22 more states legislated in favor of the subject, making a total of 33. They were Alabama, Indiana, Maine, Michigan, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Utah, Washington, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, Virginia, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Missouri, North Carolina, West Virginia, Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota, South Carolina, Tennessee.

Nature of the Legislation.—In nearly all of these states the teaching of physical training is mandatory, but in a few it is permissive. Fifteen states have directors of physical training for the entire state under the department of public instruction. Nearly all of the state legislation contemplates a very broad program under the name physical education. In Rhode Island, "Physical education may be defined as including healthful, sanitary environment; medical inspection; instruction in physiology and hygiene; and exercises in the form of such motor activities as marching, gymnastics, dancing, supervised play, and athletics. The general aim of physical education is social efficiency, which includes such specific aims as organic health and vigor, normal physical development, freedom from physical defects, efficient motor control, grace, agility, endurance, and general physical fitness; alertness, courage, judgment, initiative, imagination, obedience, honesty, unselfishness, cooperation, and loyalty."

In New York the laws include, (1) medical inspection, which

includes individual health examination and health advice, (2) recitations in hygiene, (3) physical exercise as a health habit, including gymnastics, marching, organized and supervised play, recreation, and athletics. A state inspector and a corps of assistants see to the administration of this program.

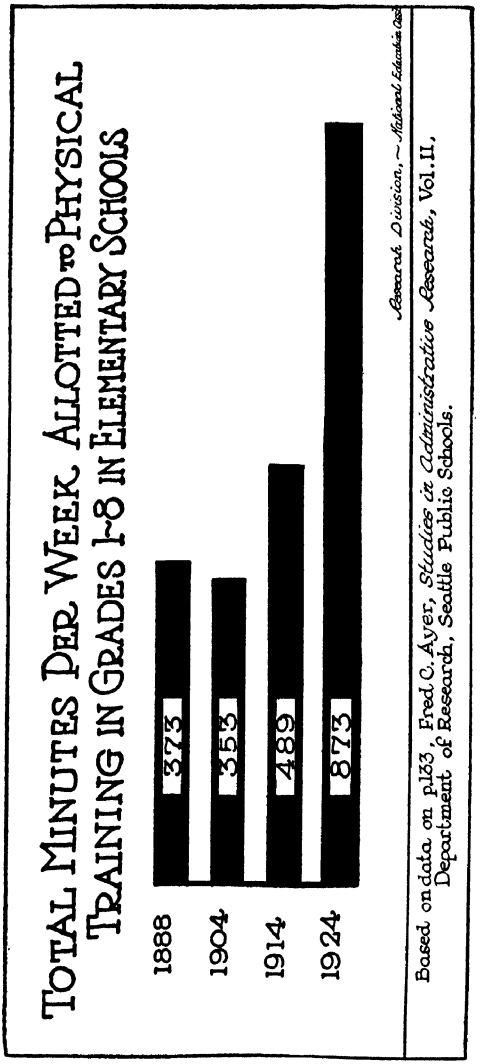
The legislation applies to both the elementary and high schools, except in Nevada, where it refers to the high schools only. Most of the laws require approximately twenty minutes per day in the elementary and two periods per week in the high schools.

The Immediate Result of the Legislation.—This legislation, plus the theories from which it grew, has placed physical education in a very important position in the elementary school curriculum. The accompanying chart shows the increase in the amount of time devoted to physical education from 1888 to 1924. No other school subject increased its time allotment so much from 1914 to 1924 as did physical education.

When the eleven most important elementary school subjects are arranged in the order of the time devoted to them in 1888, the ranking is; reading, arithmetic, language, penmanship, spelling, drawing, geography, music, physical training, history, science. In 1904 the order was; reading, arithmetic, language, geography, drawing, music, penmanship, spelling, history, science, physical training. In 1914; reading, arithmetic, language, geography, spelling, drawing, history, music, penmanship, physical training, industrial arts. In 1924 the order was; reading, arithmetic, language, physical training, geography, history, drawing, spelling, music, penmanship, industrial arts.

In the years of 1888, 1904, and 1914 physical training occupied ninth, eleventh, and tenth positions respectively; but with the agitation and legislation of the next decade it moved to fourth position. (From Ayer, Studies in Administrative Research Vol. II).

Nearly all of the educators who are promoting a reform in the curriculum are agreed that physical education for physical efficiency, health, and moral training should occupy a promi-


TOTAL MINUTES PER WEEK ALLOTTED TO PHYSICAL TRAINING IN GRADES 1-8 IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
1888
373
1904
353
1914
489
1924
873
Research Division, — National Education Association
Based on data on p133, Fred C. Ayer, Studies in Administrative Research, Vol. II, Department of Research, Seattle Public Schools.

nent place in the educational program (see Supplementary Reading).

National Physical Education Service.—The National Physical Education Service, which was established in 1918 by the Playground and Recreation Association of America, has been of very great service in securing state legislation since that time. In every state where a physical education law was being considered, the Service furnished copies of laws, information concerning them, material for publicity and frequently sent special representatives to assist in securing the adoption. The organization also assists in making a complete and efficient program after the law has been passed and in securing a favorable public opinion concerning it. The N.P.E.S. has also been working for a federal law, such as the Feso-Capper Bill, which will give financial aid to states and communities where funds are not available for physical education work. The argument for Federal aid is that the national health and physical welfare is a national problem and not a local one.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Bailey, William A. "Physical Education in the American High School." Shows status of physical education in high schools for 1910, before the legislation period. Second Year Book of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Pages 31–41. 1918.

Betz, Carl. "Swedish Versus German Gymnastics." Illustrates the rivalry of the nineties. Mind and Body, March, 1894, pp. 10–13.

Boykin, James C. "Physical Training." Excellent article on the history of physical education. Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1891–92, Vol. I, pp. 494–600.

Degroot, Edward B. "Physical Education Versus Military Training in Secondary Schools." Scores of similar articles were written in 1917 by physical educators. American Physical Education Review, May, 1917, pp. 302–4.

Doerflinger, Charles H. "Physical Education in the United States; Retrospect, Systems and Aims." Illustrates the situation in 1897. Mind and Body, July, 1897, pp. 101–4 and Aug., 1897, pp. 127–132.

Fisher, G. J.; Mosher, Eliza; Anderson, W. G.; McKenzie, R. Tait; Sargent, D. A.; "Addresses Given at the A. P. E. A. Convention,. April, 1920." All the addresses were historical, reminiscent and very interesting. American Physical Education Review, Oct., Nov., 1920, pp. 311–316 and 363–365.

Hartung, Henry. "Report Concerning Physical Culture in the Public Schools of Chicago." Gives statistics for year 1888–1901. Mind and Body, Dec., 1901, pp. 217–221.

Hartwell, Edward M. "On Physical Training." Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1898, Vol. I, pp. 556–563. The entire article (pages 487–570) should be read by the student of physical education.

Kindervater, A. G. "Early History of Physical Education in the Public Schools of America." Mind and Body, June, 1926, pp. 97–103.
Legislation, "Ohio Law of 1892 on Physical Education." Printed in full in Mind and Body, March, 1900, pp. 12–15.
LeGarde, Ellen. "Report of the Director of Physical Training to the School Committee of the City of Providence, R. I." Historical. Mind and Body, Dec., 1902, pp. 229–233.
Leiter, Frances. "Physical Culture." Shows interest of the W. C. T. U. in promoting physical education and in securing legislation for schools. Mind and Body, Aug., 1899, pp. 135–137.
Leonard, Fred E. "Pioneers of Modern Physical Training." See chapters on Betz, Hartwell, and Posse. New York. 1922.
Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. XXIV and XXVI. Philadelphia. 1923.
McKenzie, R. Tait. "Exercise in Education and Medicine." Chap. X to XIII. Philadelphia. 1923.
Nissen, Hartvig. "Autobiography." 1921.
Posse, Nils. "Handbook of School Gymnastics of the Swedish System." Contains historical Preface. Boston. 1902.
Reprint (unsigned). "Why is Physical Education Legislation Needed?" Sets forth early arguments for legislation. Mind and Body, Sept., 1902, pp. 157–158.
Storey, Small, and Salisbury. "Recent State Legislation for Physical Education." Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 1. 1922.
Wood, T. D. and Brownell, C. L. "Source Book in Health and Physical Education." Chapter I. New York. 1925.
Ziegler, Carl. "Some Interesting Facts Concerning Physical Training in High Schools." Gives result of an early questionnaire. Mind and Body, Feb., 1906, pp. 359–361.

The following is a brief list of books arranged according to the date of publication. These manuals were very popular in their time.

Roth, Dr. M. "Movements or Exercises According to Ling's System for the Due Development and Strengthening of the Human Body in Childhood and Youth." London. 1852.
Root, N. W. T. "School Amusements." New York. 1857.
Trall, R. T. "The Illustrated Family Gymnasium." New York. 1857.
Mason, Samuel. "Manual of Gymnastic Exercises for Schools and Families." Boston. 1863.
Barlow, E. H. "A Manual of Gymnastic Exercises Arranged on Hygienic Principles and Adapted to Music." Amherst. 1863.
Smart, James H. "Manual of Free Gymnastics and Dumbbell Exercises for the School Room and the Parlor." Cincinnati. 1864.
Watson, J. Madison. "A Handbook of Calisthenics and Gymnastics: A Complete Drill Book for Schools, Families and Gymnasiums With Music to Accompany the Exercises." Contains: Part I, Vocal Gymnastics; Part II, Calisthenics; Part III, Gymnastics. New York. 1864 and 1882.
Ravenstein and Hulley. "A Handbook of Gymnastics and Athletics." London. 1867.
Wood, William. "Manual of Physical Exercises: Comprising Gymnastics Calisthenics, Rowing, Sailing, Skating, Swimming, Fencing, Sparring, Cricket, Baseball. Together with Rules for Training and Sanitary Suggestions." New York. 1867.
Blaikie, William. "How to Get Strong and How to Stay So." New York. 1879.
Blaikie, William. "Sound Bodies for Our Boys and Girls." New York. 1888.
Leibold, Anton. "Manual of Physical Culture for Schools, Gymnasia and Private Use." One of the first adaptations of the German System to American schools. Louisville. 1888.

CHAPTER XXIV

HEALTH EDUCATION

Importance.—Educators have always asserted that the health of the nation is of first-rate importance. In view of the fact that about one-third of the entire population of the United States is of school age, an adequate health program in the schools may be regarded as an important means of maintaining the physical welfare of the nation. The leading aim of all systems of physical education has been the maintenance of physical health, using that term in its broadest sense. Until the nineteenth century there was no distinction between health education and physical education.

During the last century the sciences of physiology, anatomy, biology, bacteriology, chemistry, dentistry, dietetics, and others pertaining to the human body became widely understood. This resulted in an ever-increasing knowledge concerning the cause, cure, and prevention of ill health and disease. The limitations of physical exercise as a means of maintaining health were then recognized. The density of population enhanced the dangers of communicable diseases and gave rise to conditions on which exercise had little or no influence. To meet this situation, city, county, and state health boards were organized and empowered by law to enforce rules of sanitation, vaccination, and quarantine.

School Hygiene.—The history of school hygiene in America begins about one hundred years ago. Its influence is especially noticeable in school architecture. The first type of building, aside from the log cabin school, was modeled on the church plan. It had the vestibule, the spire, the tall narrow windows, and the raised platform for the teacher. Arrangements for proper lighting, adequate ventilation, and

uniform heating were disregarded, and no effort was made to fit the seats to the pupils, for adjustable desks were not used.

During the thirties and forties the teachers' associations were frequently addressed by physicians on the subject of school hygiene but very little improvement was accomplished until recent times, because the teachers and physicians had nothing to do with the construction of schoolhouses. Buildings, erected within the last twenty-five years, incorporate the hygienic principles through sanitary toilets, adequate heating plant, artificial ventilation, proper lighting, and adjustable, individual seats. This reform came about as a part of the general health movement in the schools, not only in America but in the entire civilized world.

The first annual congress of the School Hygiene Association of America met in Washington, D. C., in 1907. Some of the subjects discussed were: Physiological Ages; Medical Examination of Pupils; Medical Inspection of School Furniture. The following resolutions were passed by the congress; "That in every city and town adequate provision should be made both for sanitary inspection of schools and medical inspection, the latter to include not only inspection for contagious diseases, but also of eyes, ears, teeth, throat and nose, and general physical condition. That all schools having courses for the training of teachers should give instruction in personal and school hygiene, and the principles and practice of physical training, and that each of these subjects should be given as much time as the major subjects in the course." Dr. Luther Gulick, at that time Director of Physical Training of New York City Schools, took a leading part in the congress. The next year he resigned the school position and became the Director of the Department of Child Hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation.

In addition to the American congresses on the subject, the International Congresses of School Hygiene have been valuable as a means of learning what has been done in other countries for the hygiene of the school.

Personal Hygiene.—For nearly a century educators have known that some instruction concerning the human body should be given in the schools. In the thirties and forties physicians advocated the teaching of physiology. After many decades of agitation and resolutions the most elementary facts of physiology were combined in a text called the Human Body, or Physiology, or Scientific Temperance or almost any other name the author chose, and the subject was taught in the schools. The structure and functions of the different parts of the body, and abundant warning against injurious habits of living constituted the subject matter of the text. The instruction was seldom regarded as interesting either by the teacher or the pupils and it seemed scarcely applicable to the child's life.

When the sciences of the body and the causes of disease were better known, personal hygiene came to be regarded as the greatest single factor in the prevention of illness. The extremists formed societies of drugless healers and published popular magazines and many books on the subject. To the more conservative, personal hygiene offered a solution to several problems. First of all, it was a means of preventing a great deal of unnecessary human suffering. Second, it was a means of preventing pauperism, due to long periods of illness. Third, it was a means of increasing the earning power of the entire nation; statisticians had figured the great losses sustained through sickness. Fourth, it would reduce to a great extent the absence from school, which complicated the truancy problem and was the cause of retardation of many pupils. Fifth, it would tend to prevent the spread of communicable diseases.

Medical Inspection.—All the leading European countries, except England, preceded the United States in the adoption of medical inspection in the schools. The first medical public school officer in the United States was appointed in 1892 by the city of New York. The number of schools were so great that nothing of value was accomplished until five years later, when 134 physicians were employed to visit the schools daily.

During that time Boston and Chicago appointed medical inspectors for the same work in those cities. The first duty of the early inspectors was to discover children with contagious diseases; incidentally they were to inspect the school plant and offer recommendations for its improvement.

The first state law on the subject of medical inspection was passed by Connecticut in 1899. In addition to the customary inspection, this legislation required the examination of the eyes with the understanding that the parents of children were to be informed when defective vision was found. Before 1907 New Jersey, Vermont, and Massachusetts passed laws providing for more complete and more frequent examination of school children. Vermont required an annual examination of eyes, ears, and throat. By 1911 a total of 17 states had legislated on the subject, and by 1922 the number had increased to 39.

Since 1911 the authorities have not been content with merely discovering physical defects and informing the parents concerning them, but rather a well-defined aggressive program of prevention and remedy has been developed. It was learned that many cases of retardation in school were not due to mental or psychological conditions but were caused by removable physical handicaps. This movement resulted in the appointment of school nurses and the establishment of free clinics. New York City established a clinic in 1912 for the purpose of treating adenoids and tonsils, but it was abandoned in a few years because of parental objection. Dental clinics have aroused the least opposition, and are now found in nearly all of the large cities.

The city of Los Angeles has been conspicuous in the development of this phase of school work. The Corrective Physical Education Section of the Health and Corrective Physical Education Department consists of 1 director, 4 deputy directors, 19 physicians, 9 dentists, 1 chief nurse, 1 assistant chief nurse, 50 nurses, 54 corrective physical education teachers, 7 nutrition teachers, 1 matron, 1 secretary, 16 clerks, 39 volunteer physicians, and 35 consultants.

A survey of twelve Northern cities having a pupil enrollment of about 30,000 each, showed that there was an average of about 2,400 pupils to each nurse and 3,600 to each physician. In many communities the medical inspector, the school physician, the school nurse, the physical educator, and the nutrition director have all merged their services to contribute to the health education movement.

Teaching Health Habits.—No educational activity has received so much support from the general public and from nation-wide organizations as the health movement in the elementary schools. During the last ten years more books, journals, and magazine articles have been published on health education than on any other school subject. No subject has been taught with more unique and appealing methods. In addition to the textbook and recitation procedure, health teaching is accomplished through stories, games, pageants, plays, contests, pictures, and motion pictures.

The Child Health Organization of America, founded in 1918, has been foremost in the promotion of this work in the public schools. Due to its close coöperation with the U. S. Bureau of Education, its recommendations have been given close attention and wide acceptance. The motto of the organization is "Health in Education—Education in Health"; its program, "A scale in every school—Time allowed every day for the teaching of health—Hot school lunches—Teachers trained in all normal schools to teach health habits—Every child's weight to be taken and the record sent home each month." Their recommendations for putting the program in practice make the work as attractive to the pupil as possible. The society is now known as the American Child Health Association.

The Modern Health Crusade is a national program of health instruction in the schools, sponsored by the National Tuberculosis Association. The children are the crusaders fighting disease and ill health. They are encouraged to do a certain number of "health chores" per day. Badges and

prizes are awarded and titles of honor are bestowed on those who successfully carry out the work. Since 1918 the plan has been widely introduced into the city schools. The Physical Education Section of the National Education Association approved this plan of teaching health habits in 1919.

In addition to these organizations there are more than 55 societies, whose objects are wholly or in part to promote national health, especially among the children. A few of them are the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, the Camp Fire Girls, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the Y.M.C.A., American Medical Association, the Junior Red Cross, the Playground and Recreation Association, American Public Health Association, and the American Red Cross.

According to the investigation of the committee of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association of 1922 (see Supplementary Reading), 78 per cent. of the city school systems gave health examinations to the pupils either once or twice each year; in 73.1 per cent. health was taught in all of the grades.

The high schools have failed to establish as thorough a program of health teaching as the elementary schools; perhaps it is not so necessary if the grade schools do the work well. Sex hygiene has acquired some prominence in the secondary schools; 25.6 per cent. of the school systems of the above survey gave instruction in that subject to a large number of the pupils; in 37 per cent. of the systems offering sex hygiene, the physical instructor served as the teacher; in the remaining systems either the school nurse or doctor taught the subject.

Open Air Classes: Nutrition Classes.—The fresh air schools and open air classes are a part of the general movement to prevent disease and promote health. About 1910 the possibilities of the fresh air schools began to attract attention, and by 1914 approximately 130 cities had organized classes of children, whom, it was thought, the fresh air would benefit.

Physical and health examinations of pupils revealed great

numbers of cases of malnutrition. Some general surveys have shown as high as 30 per cent. of the children of a school system to be under-nourished. In 1908 New York City took up the problem of furnishing food for the under-fed children in the schools. Very soon, however, it was discovered that the leading difficulty was not with the under-fed but the ill-fed children. About 1909 Dr. Emerson of Boston began his experiments in classes of under-nourished children; his theories and methods have met with wide acceptance. The war gave



OPEN AIR SCHOOL IN CINCINNATI IN 1912
(By courtesy of Mind and Body.)

marked impetus to the movement and nearly all the large cities provided school lunches for the children, although the cases of malnutrition, frequently, were not segregated. In other systems the nutrition work was regarded as only a part of the health program; the children were weighed, given a rest period if needed, the parents were advised concerning the food the child should eat, and the efforts were followed up by the nurse. State legislation has made it possible to use school funds for this purpose. In New York and Pennsylvania the state department of public instruction employs a nutrition supervisor.

Aims and Results of Health Education.—The Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association with the Coöperation of the Technical Committee of Twenty-Seven (see Supplementary Reading), reported in 1925 that the aims of health education, briefly stated, were; (1) To instruct children and youth so that they may conserve and improve their own health. (2) To establish in them the habits and principles of living which throughout their school life, and in later years, will assure that abundant vigor and vitality which provide the basis for the greatest possible happiness and service in personal, family, and community life. (3) To influence parents and other adults, through the health education program for children, to better habits and attitudes, so that the school may become an effective agency for the promotion of the social aspects of health education in the family and community as well as in the school itself. (4) To improve the individual and community life of the future; to insure a better second generation, and still a better third generation; a healthier and fitter nation and race.

These aims are to be accomplished through the broad subject of personal hygiene, sex hygiene, mental hygiene, school hygiene, accident prevention, nutrition classes, systematic physical exercise, and through an extension of the knowledge of the value of these things to the home.

The reason for the declining death rate in the United States has been ascribed largely to the dissemination of knowledge of preventive medicine and hygiene. The number of deaths per thousand population in 1900 was 17.6; in 1910, 15.0; in 1920 it had decreased to 13.1; and in 1924, to about 11.

That all phases of health education have the support of the entire educational world is indicated by the resolution adopted by the National Education Association Convention, held in Indianapolis, June 28, 1925, "Civilization has advanced to the place where health for all is essential to the realization of the best in life. Adequate programs of health and physical education should be established in all parts of our nation in

order that our children may be equipped with sound bodies and alert minds." At the Edinburg meeting of the World Federation of National Education Associations, July 25, 1925, the organization adopted a resolution affirming its belief that "health education is the fundamental basis of all successful education."

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Averill, L. A. "Physical Preparedness and the Administration of School Medical Inspection in the United States." Shows the influence of the war. Mind and Body, Dec., 1919, pp. 298–309.

Ayres, L. P. "Open Air Schools." Chap. I and IV. New York. 1915.

Ayres, Williams, and Wood. "Healthful Schools." Boston. 1918.

Barnard, Henry. "School Architecture." Shows relation between school architecture and school hygiene for that early period. New York. 1848.

Collins, S. D., and Clark, T. "A Synopsis of the Child Hygiene Laws of the Several States." Public Health Bulletin No. 10 of the U. S. Public Health Service. 1921.

Dresslar, F. B. "Typical Health Teaching Agencies of the United States." Gives an idea of the number engaged in the work before 1912. Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1912, Vol. I, pp. 299–358.

Gulick, Luther H. "Health of School Children." Gives health problems and methods of 1906. Mind and Body, Dec., 1906, pp. 297–302, and Jan., 1907, pp. 342–346; Mar., 1907, pp. 9–13.

Gulick and Ayres. "Medical Inspection of Schools." Chap. II. New York. 1917.

Joint Committee of N. E. A. and A. M. A. "Health Service in City School." 1922.

Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the N. E. A. and the A. M. A. with the Cooperation of the Technical Committee of Twenty-seven. "Health Education; A Program for Public Schools and Teacher Training Institutions." 1925.

Kinmont, Alexander. "Report on Anatomy and Physiology as a Branch of Study in Schools." Adovates these subjects as needed in education. Transactions of the Fifth Annual Meeting of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers. Cincinnati. 1836.

Newmayer, S. W. "Medical and Sanitary Inspection of Schools." Philadelphia. 1924.

Payne, Schroeder and Withers. "Health and Safety in the New Curriculum." New York. 1925.

Ravenel, M. P. (Editor). "A Half Century of Public Health." New York. 1921.

Research Division of the American Child Health Association. "A Health Survey of Eighty-six Cities." See Chapter on Hygiene of the School Child. 1925.

Sedgewick, W. T. and Hough, T. "What Training in Physiology and Hygiene May We Reasonably Expect From the Public Schools?" Interesting article from the point of view of what we now expect of the public schools. Mind and Body, Feb., 1904, pp. 313–321.

Wood, Thomas D. "The Scope of School Hygiene in Modern Education." Shows point of view for 1905. Mind and Body, Oct. and Nov., 1905, pp. 226–229 and 259–263.

Wood, Thomas D. and Rowell, H. G. "Health Supervision and Medical Inspection of Schools." Philadelphia, 1927.

CHAPTER XXV

THE PLAYGROUND MOVEMENT

I. In Europe

Germany.—Outside of England, where participation in games has been considered a necessary part of education for a century, the educators of Germany were the first to place a sufficient value on play as to warrant appointing school time and demanding facilities for recreation and games. From the time of Spiess the German school gymnastics had emphasized formal exercises almost to the exclusion of highly organized group games. During the eighteen-hundred-and-eighties some of the educators, partly influenced by English examples and partly by experience, concluded that the formal exercises of the school alone were inadequate as a complete system of physical education. They believed that the short time given to physical exercise in the school was insufficient; that the children and youth of the land should be taught and encouraged to play; that recreation was a necessary factor in education as well as in normal growth; that directed play was an important agency in moral training; and that if all Germany could be inoculated with the play spirit, physical, mental, and moral benefits would accrue to the entire nation.

Through the seventies Konrad Koch and August Hermann began an agitation which aroused all Germans to the importance of national participation in games. Their work consisted largely in directing the pupils, of the schools with which they were connected, in football, cricket, and similar games; in giving play exhibitions and in writing and speaking on the subject.

Emil Hartwich further popularized the outdoor game movement by means of publications and the forming of the first

playground societies in the early eighties. The Prussian Ministry of Education supported the movement and in 1882 publicly authorized the educational leaders to promote the open-air activities in every way. Berlin, Düsseldorf, Bremen, and a few other cities made provision for playgrounds immediately.

The success of Von Schenckendorff in Gorlitz had a great influence on this movement, and demonstrated that the theories of the playground agitators could be carried out in practice. With the assistance of interested citizens and the municipal government, he secured playgrounds for all the children and youths of the city; good supervisors were provided, and he acquainted Germany with the benefits and results of the plan, as well as the methods of carrying it out. He opened the first normal school to teach play supervisors in Germany in 1890; manuals concerning playground activities were published and served as guides in other communities. Von Schenckendorff was instrumental in organizing the Central Committee for the Promotion of Games in Germany in 1891. The organization aided communities in securing places for games and recreation, published pamphlets and journals on the subject, held national congresses in the interest of play, and secured the adoption of teachers' courses in games in the normal schools.

The organization was very successful; cities provided playgrounds; students and other young people formed their athletic and recreation clubs in far greater numbers than ever before. The Turnerschaft was slow in giving its support to the movement, because it was opposed to the introduction into Germany of the highly organized competitive games, which tended to become spectacular and to detract from the popularity of gymnastics.

The general effect of the World War was to create a universal interest in competitive sport and athletic contests of all kinds, as well as play for the children.

Other Nations.—Mention has already been made of the acceptance of open-air games in 1896 by the Danish school

system. During the nineties nearly every country in Europe was more or less affected by the movement, and since that time every one has increased the facilities for play and recreation for its people. In Switzerland the Swiss Society for Games and Excursions promoted the movement, and in France, the Comité des écoles de garde of Paris.

II. In America

Origin and Early Development, 1885-1900.—The history of unsupervised play in the school yards and vacant lots of the towns and the cities is co-existent with the history of the nation. The history of supervised games and gymnastics in connection with schools and colleges began in the eighteen-hundred-and-twenties, but was not widely practiced until the eighties. The public playground movement, beginning as it does in the eighties, may be taken as another manifestation of that humanitarian spirit and the belief in the value of play and physical exercise which was noticeable in other lines of activity throughout that period.

Previous to the eighties a few communities had established vacation schools and children's gardens, in which a large amount of time was given to play and to the raising of flowers and vegetables. In a few cities philanthropic organizations had secured vacant lots and open places, in which children might play, but they failed to provide a supervisor.

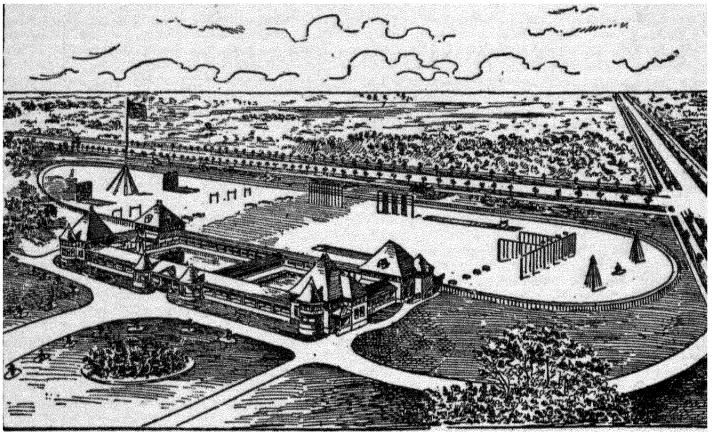
The first events, which resulted in the origin of the modern playground movement, took place in Boston in 1885. Dr. Marie Zakerzewska, who had noticed sand bins in the parks of Berlin for children's play, suggested to a philanthropic society that they should be placed in the Parmenter Street Mission. It was done and the first sand garden was opened. The next year, 1886, three missions had sand gardens with kindergarten teachers in charge, these were the first playgrounds. The following year several tenement courts and one schoolyard were provided with sand bins and supervisors were placed in charge. They were for the very young chil-

dren only, but it soon became evident to all observers that there was an unlimited field of service in providing and managing playgrounds for the older boys and girls. Such an undertaking would require more space and more equipment and perhaps more supervision than the sand gardens had. In 1888, however, seven school yards were designated as playgrounds and children of all ages were invited to come. They were provided with balls, tops, skipping-ropes, bean-bags, building-blocks, and the usual sand piles and shovels. The next year eleven playgrounds were available. The Boston Board of Park Commissioners also established the recreation center at Charles Bank, where outdoor gymnasia and buildings were equipped for men, women and children and several of Sargent's gymnasium appliances were installed. The Park Commissioners soon adopted the policy of purchasing and equipping playgrounds and recreation centers as rapidly as funds were available.

New York passed the first state legislation on the subject in 1888; the law provided for the foundation of societies whose object was the securing and equipping of open places for children's play. The Brooklyn Society for Parks and Playgrounds received donations of land and equipped three playgrounds. The New York Society opened a playground in 1891; in addition to the usual implements for play, it was provided with swings and see-saws. The Outdoor Recreation League secured from the municipal government an appropriation of about $30,000 with which twenty schoolyards were operated as play centers. The popular agitation and the success of these private organizations aroused the city government to take the lead in providing recreation and play facilities for the children and the citizens. The result was that the city began the purchase and equipping of tracts of land at a very great cost, for example, Seward Park which cost $2,500,000. Jacob A. Riis, Secretary of the Committee on Small Parks, did more than any one person to secure adequate space for play in New York City and was identified with the playground movement throughout his life.

The playground system of Chicago began as a vacant lot play center managed by the Hull House organization in 1893. The place was equipped with see-saws, giant strides, and sand bins. Three years later, in answer to the turners' petitions and agitations, the city provided an outdoor gymnasium and two swimming pools for Douglass Park.

Before 1900 the cities of Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Baltimore, Hartford, New Haven, San Francisco, and Albany had



DOUGLASS PARK OUTDOOR GYMNASIUM AND NATATORIUM AT CHICAGO, 1896

(From Mind and Body, Nov., 1896.)

also made a start in providing playgrounds for their young citizens. Nevertheless, the period 1886 to 1900 was one of slow growth, experiment and groping, when compared to subsequent years. In nearly all the cities the work was begun by philanthropic and humanitarian organizations; in some cases the city gave financial support and in some it gave no encouragement whatever. The playground movement was identified with the anti-slum and the social service movement.

Municipal Playgrounds.—During the decade 1900-1910 the city governments came to recognize that their obligations to Young America included the providing of facilities for play

in the summer, as well as educational opportunities in the winter. The city of Chicago appropriated $10,000 for the equipment of playgrounds in densely populated districts in 1900. Congress began the annual appropriations for playground work for the city of Washington in 1905. The Cleveland Board of Education took over the management of the entire system of playgrounds in 1903. By 1910 Chicago was operating about 65 public playgrounds and bathing beaches; the South Park system was regarded as the finest in the world. Boston, Philadelphia, and New York were almost equally well provided. In all, more than 150 cities reported playgrounds before 1910.

Arguments for Playgrounds.—The need for playgrounds in the large cities was scarcely debatable, and the general public permitted the expenditure of enormous sums for thar purpose without protest. The societies which were concerned with the problem of crime, especially juvenile crime, and the juvenile courts saw in the playground movement a means of lessening youthful delinquency. Judge Ben B. Lindsey telegraphed to the first meeting of the Playground Association in 1907: "Playgrounds are greater preventives of delinquency than courts."

The use of streets for play has always been objectionable from every point of view, and dangerous to the children, and the city officials saw a solution to that problem in the municipal playground. The parents supported the movement because it offered moral and physical safety to the children and furthered their education. School officials believed in the movement because they saw the possibility of teaching nature study, art, and crafts in connection with the play. The national organizations, such as American Physical Education Association, the Turnerbund, the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., and nearly all societies interested in recreation, games, athletics, and physical education supported the movement. The Public School Athletic Leagues of the various cities were being organized and constituted another argument for playgrounds, where their track and field events and games might be held.

The Playground and Recreation Association of America.—In 1906 a group of men and women met at Washington and established the Playground and Recreation Association of America. The aim of the organization has been to induce both municipal and rural communities to establish well-directed playgrounds and recreation centers. The official journal, *The Playground,* has had continuous monthly publication since that year. The first annual meeting of the association was held in Chicago in 1907. The following officers were elected: Honorary President, Theodore Roosevelt; Honorary Vice-President, Jacob Riis; President, Luther H. Gulick; Vice-Presidents, Commissioner Henry B. F. Macfarland, Miss Jane Addams, Mr. Joseph Lee; Treasurer, Charles L. Hutchinson; Secretary, Dr. Henry S. Curtis.

Dr. Gulick remained president of the association until 1910 and was followed by Mr. Joseph Lee. Under the leadership of these men, and supported by scores of able workers, the association has made remarkable achievements; not only in increasing the number of playgrounds, but insisting on well-trained supervisors, expansion of playground activities, extension of the system to rural communities and encouraging the cities to adopt year-round programs.

The Playground Supervisors.—The original sand gardens were supervised usually by kindergarten teachers. When the older children came to play, a grade school teacher or a physical training teacher, or both, were frequently employed. They were usually assisted by a school janitor. The Playground and Recreation Association very early found that this plan was only a makeshift at best, and that the best results could be obtained only when leaders were specially trained and were willing to give year-round service to the work. Many communities were teaching sewing, cooking, nature study, gardening, art, handicraft of various kinds and providing time for music, dramatics, and story-telling, as a part of the play program. Some were encouraging winter sports in the parks and playgrounds. These new developments obviously demanded a person of special training.

At the 1907 meeting in Chicago, mentioned above, Mr. Clark W. Hetherington was appointed chairman of a committee whose duty it was to draw up a course of study in play which might be introduced into the normal schools of the country. In a few years a course was completed and was being taught in all schools of physical education and in normal schools where there was a demand for it. In 1925 the course was revised under the direction of Joseph Lee and published in book form, entitled "A Normal Course in Play." In 1913 Cleveland began the training of her own playground supervisors and at present many cities have their own recreation schools.

Statistics for 1915 and 1925.—In 1915, 432 cities maintained a total of 3,294 playgrounds. These playgrounds were managed by 2,883 men and 4,624 women, exclusive of 1,929 caretakers. An average daily attendance during July and August of 814,108 was reported by a total of 389 cities. Classes for recreation workers were maintained in 70 cities.

In 1925, a total of 748 cities reported 8,608 play areas. These centers were under the management of 7,178 men and 9,999 women, who were employed as instructors and supervisors. The total average daily attendance during July and August in 549 cities was 906,088. Nearly 200 cities maintained classes for recreation workers.

Scouting.—The Scouting and Campfire organizations have been important agencies of physical education and moral training during their brief history.

The idea of scouting for boys originated with Sir Robert Baden-Powell, of England, as early as 1902, but an organization was not perfected and chartered until 1910. The movement then spread rapidly to nearly every European nation.

In the United States the scouting movement first manifested itself in such organizations as the "Sons of Daniel Boone." In 1910 the Boy Scouts of America was incorporated as an interdenominational, non-military association whose aim was to promote the moral and physical welfare of the youth. The

organization is controlled by the National Council, through the Executive Board.

In practice, the boys are grouped into patrols, several of which form a troop, in the charge of a scout-master. The scouts take the oath: "On my honor I will do my best, (1) to do my duty to God and my country and to obey the scout laws; (2) to help other people at all times; (3) to keep myself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight." The aim of the organization is to develop character, instill a spirit of service, prepare for a career, and promote health. The scouts are rewarded for merit and proficiency by means of badges and ranks. *Boy Life* and *Scouting* are the official periodicals.

From 1910 to 1926 approximately 3,000,000 boys became scouts. In 1916 there were about 174,000 registered in the Boy Scouts of America, and in 1926 approximately 500,000.

The Girl Scouts, Incorporated, founded in 1912, were modeled after the British Girl Guides. The girls are organized into patrols and troops and are graded according to merit. The aim of the organization is to instil an appreciation of the duty to God and country and a respect for the laws of honor, loyalty, helpfulness, friendliness, courtesy, humanity, obedience, cheerfulness, thrift, and cleanliness. Instruction is given in cooking, sewing, nursing, and child care. Other activities are hiking, camping, games, and social gatherings. The official periodical is the *American Girl.* The active membership of the organization grew from 10,000 in 1917 to 110,000 in 1926.

The Camp Fire Girls organization was founded in 1912 by Mr. and Mrs. Luther H. Gulick. The aim is to promote health, normal development, and moral welfare through outdoor life. Camping is regarded as the leading activity. The unit of the organization is the Campfire, which is composed of from six to twenty girls, in the charge of a guardian. The official periodicals are the *Guardian* and *Every Girl's.* There were about 160,000 girls enrolled in the Campfires in 1926.

National scouting and outdoor associations for the youth are now organized throughout the world. In the United

States most of the universities and normal schools offer courses in the directing of these activities. During 1925 there were 4,619 enrolled in 165 courses giving instruction in Campfire work.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

American, Sadie. "The Movement for Small Playgrounds." American Journal of Sociology, Sept., 1898.

Barclay, Lorne W. "The Significance of the Boy Scout Movement to Physical Education." American Physical Education Review, Jan., 1919, pp. 10–16.

Chicago Principals' Association. "Play in Education." A discussion which showed an increasing interest in the subject. Mind and Body, Oct., Nov., 1898, pp. 172–175 and 199–202.

Cole, William. "Free Municipal Baths in Boston." Historical account of Boston's progress to 1900. Mind and Body, Jan. and Feb., 1900, pp. 241–246 and 265–273.

Coop, W. L. "A Model Playground with Its Fieldhouse." Maps and pictures. Mind and Body, March, 1907, pp. 18–24.

Curtis, Henry S. "The Playground." 1907.

Curtis, Henry S. "The Play Movement and its Significance." New York. 1917.

Curtis, Henry S. "Vacation Schools, Playgrounds and Settlements." Gives problems of 1903. Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1903, Vol. I, p. 1 ff.

Johnson, George E. "Physical Education from the Recreative View Point." Mind and Body, Feb., 1918, pp. 447–453.

Jones, Katherine A. "Vacation Schools in the United States." Survey of the work of that time. Review of Reviews, June, 1898, pp. 710–716.

Lee, Joseph. "Constructive and Preventive Philanthropy." New York. 1910.

Lee, Joseph. "Play in Education." New York. 1917.

Lee, Joseph. "The Normal Course in Play." New York. 1925.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. XIV and XXVII. Philadelphia. 1923.

McKenzie, R. Tait. "Exercise in Education and Medicine." Chap. XII. Philadelphia. 1923.

Mero, Everett. "American Playgrounds." 1908.

Mero, Everett. "Report of the Committee on a Normal Course in Play of the Playground Association of America." Mind and Body, Oct., 1909, pp. 242–246.

Rainwater, C. E. "The Play Movement in the United States." Historical. Chicago. 1922.

Rath, Emil. "Past and Present Social Aspects of Physical Education." Mind and Body, Oct., 1916, pp. 241–246.

Riis, Jacob A. "Small Parks and Public School Playgrounds." Map of New York showing proposed parks at that time. Harper's Weekly, Sept. 11, 1897, p. 903.

Woelfer, Robert F. "The Public Playgrounds of Chicago; Their Origin." Mind and Body, Sept., 1908, pp. 190–194.

CHAPTER XXVI

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

The Early Normal Schools.—The first normal school of physical education to graduate a class of teachers was established by Dr. Dio Lewis in Boston in 1861. The first course was of nine weeks' duration and trained fourteen teachers. During the eight years of its existence the Institute for Physical Education was the only normal school preparing physical instructors for the schools.

The Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union (Turnerbund) began its first complete course in 1866. A brief history of the school is given in Chapter XVII. When the institution was moved to Indianapolis in 1907 it was authorized by law to confer degrees and titles. Karl Kroh was the dean of the school from 1907 to 1909; since that time Emil Rath has held that position. Two-, three- and four-year courses are given at the present time; the vast majority of graduates enter school and university work.

One of Dr. Sargent's greatest contributions to the field of physical education was his training of hundreds of teachers during his long career as physical educator. He began with a class in 1881, and, at the end of the one-year course, graduated one pupil. The course of study was soon extended to require two years, and in 1902 it was lengthened to three. From its origin to the present time the Sargent school has offered instruction to women almost exclusively.

In addition to the management of the normal school Dr. Sargent directed the Harvard University Summer Courses in physical education from 1887 to 1919.

The New Haven Normal School of Gymnastics of New Haven, Conn., began as the Brooklyn Normal School for

Physical Education at Brooklyn, N. Y., in 1886. The founder, William G. Anderson, was the physical director at the Adelphi Academy in Brooklyn and was instrumental in the organization of the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education. The students of the Brooklyn Normal School received approximately ten months' instruction in the theory and practice of gymnastics. When Dr. Anderson became Associate Director of the Yale University Gymnasium the normal school was moved to New Haven and renamed the Anderson Normal School of Gymnastics. Dr. Ernst Hermann Arnold became the director in 1896 and in a few years Dr. Anderson's connection with the institution ceased. In 1901 it was given the present name, the New Haven Normal School of Gymnastics.

The School of Physical Education of the Chautauqua Assembly at Chautauqua, N. Y., was also organized by Dr. Anderson. In 1886 the first session was held, but it was about four years later when suitable quarters were erected. Dr. Anderson served as head of the school until 1904. Jacob Bolin, who had been a member of the faculty for several years, succeeded Anderson and remained head of the school until 1910, when he became Physical Director at the University of Utah. Since that time Dr. Jay W. Seaver, Dr. Joseph E. Raycroft, and Charles W. Savage have held the position.

The origin of the training schools of the Young Men's Christian Association has been told in Chapter XX.

The events leading to the founding of the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics in 1889 has been related in Chapter XXIII. Baron Nils Posse left the school in 1890 and was succeeded by Claes Enebuske, who was the chief instructor until 1898, when Carl Oscar Collin followed him. In 1909 the school became the Hygiene and Physical Education Department of Wellesley College. Nearly all of the graduates of the school were women.

Jacob Bollin, Claes Enebuske, and Carl Collin were all natives of Sweden, and all played a notable part in American

physical education, especially in the normal school work. Beside the service which has just been mentioned, Bolin and Enebuske were members of the faculty at the Anderson Normal School of Gymnastics and at the Chautauqua Assembly. Collin was a teacher in the Battle Creek School of Physical Education and the Chicago Normal School of Physical Education.

After severing his connection with the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics, Baron Posse established a private gymnasium, later called the Posse Normal School of Gymnastics, in 1890. Under his direction the school became the center of Swedish gymnastics in this country and at the time of his death, in 1895, the institution had graduated about one hundred teachers. Baroness Rose Posse directed the affairs of the school until her retirement in 1915. The institution was then fortunate in securing Mr. Hartvig Nissen as its president, who served until his death in 1924. The Posse-Nissen School of Physical Education, as it is now called, does not confine its teaching to Swedish gymnastics, but gives courses in all the subjects needed in American physical education. Mr. Harry Nissen is the president of the institution.

Since 1890 several private normal schools have been organized and, with the older institutions, they have fulfilled the ever-increasing demands for trained physical instructors.

Training in Colleges, Universities and State Normals.—Only within recent years have the higher educational institutions and the general normal schools provided courses leading to titles and degrees in physical education. As late as 1914 there were only about fourteen institutions offering training of this kind.

Since that date the wide acceptance of the physical education program and the demands for recreation supervisors have induced the general normal schools to establish courses for the training of physical instructors. In those states where physical exercise was legislated into the schools, the state normals immediately began the preparation of teachers. In 1921

about seventy higher institutions offered courses of this kind and it is estimated at about one hundred for 1925.

In addition to the increase in the number of institutions there has also been an increase in the enrollment in these courses. Most of the investigations of the problem of the supply and demand of physical instructors show that, if the laws were enforced and if well-trained teachers were demanded, these institutions and the physical educational colleges combined could not supply the necessary numbers with their present equipment.

The Course of Study.—The normal schools of the sixties and seventies began with a course of study which required a period of about two months and gradually extended it to seven. During the eighties it was customary to require one year of ten months, and in the next decade the period of training covered two years of resident study or its equivalent.

Soon after 1900 several colleges added a third year, but gave certificates for two-year and one-year courses. At present a three-year course is regarded as the minimum requirement for a trained teacher of physical education. Nearly all of the institutions now engaged in training physical instructors, offer either a three- or a four-year course, or both, and in some schools provision is made for the higher degrees. The majority of the institutions require a six or eight weeks' summer course in the school camp in addition to the regular work.

Since 1910 a high school education or its equivalent has been generally considered as a prerequisite to the normal course by all schools.

With the increase in the number of institutions preparing teachers of physical education a need arose either for the standardization of the subject matter and methods or a ranking of the schools according to the character of the work they were doing. The American Physical Education Association appointed a committee to make a study of the problem. The committee recommended, in December, 1920, that: A classification of the institutions, based on the character and extent of the work, be made; that means of inspection be

provided; that regular college standards be demanded; that four years of study be a minimum for the preparation of directors, supervisors, college instructors and health examiners; that two years be a minimum, at present, for assistants in the gymnasium and the playground, for coaches of teams and for teachers of special lines, for example, swimming and dancing. No officially recognized classification of this kind has yet been made.

Committees and individuals have recommended and published courses of study which have met with general adoption in the different institutions and a fair degree of uniformity in the work has been attained.

The subject matter of the curriculum has undergone a marked change in the last three decades. There has been an increase in the study of the methods, principles, and history of general education and in the study of psychology. There has also been a more detailed and more scientific consideration given to anatomy, physiology, and kinesiology. Folk dancing and games for small children have received more attention. The playground movement has demanded courses in play and playground supervision. The tendency toward games and athletics has required instruction in coaching and directing of athletics. The health education program has necessitated courses in personal hygiene, school hygiene, sex hygiene, civic hygiene, orthopedics, and massage. Other courses resulting from modern movements and tendencies are scoutcraft, dramatic art, and pageantry. In addition to these, many courses have been added for their cultural values. It is desirable that teachers of physical education be as highly trained and as well educated as teachers of other school subjects.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Berry, Elmer. "Problems in the Recruiting of Teachers of Physical Education." Gives statistics on numbers enrolled in twenty-eight normal schools. American Physical Education Review, June, 1920, pp. 233–239.

Bowen, W. P. "Seven Years of Progress in Preparing Teachers of Physical Education." American Physical Education Review, Feb., 1922, pp. 64–65.

Elliot, Ruth. "The Organization of Professional Training in Physical Education in State Universities." New York. 1927.

Hetherington, C. W. "University Professional Training Courses in Physical Education." American Physical Education Review, May, 1920, pp. 185–197.

Hines, L. N.; Rowe, F. A.; Hetherington, C. W.; Chase, D. "What Are the Requisite Personal and Professional Qualifications of The Physical Training Teacher?" American Physical Education Review, Feb., 1920, pp. 52–65.

Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association with the Cooperation of the Technical Committee of Twenty-seven. "Health Education." Pages 140–142 and 153–155. 1925.

Lee, Joseph. "The Normal Course in Play." New York. 1925.

Leonard, Fred E. "A Guide to the History of Physical Education." Chap. XXVIII. Philadelphia. 1923.

McCurdy, J. H. "Business Meeting of the American Physical Education Association." Report on need for teachers. American Physical Education Review, May, 1919, pp. 282–286.

Standardization Committee, "Standardization of Schools and Courses for the Preparation of Teachers of Physical Education." American Physical Education Review, April, 1922, pp. 178–180.

Ziegler, Carl. "The Preparation of the Director of Physical Education." American Physical Education Review, Nov., 1916, pp. 462–471.

CHAPTER XXVII

RECENT TRENDS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Retrospection.—During the last hundred years physical education has experienced repeatedly the defining of new objectives, the inauguration of new viewpoints, a vacillating emphasis, and changes in methods.

The 1820's witnessed the introduction and the temporary acceptance of the out-door German gymnasium with a program of games, athletics, and apparatus work not yet formalized. Under native American leadership many military academies, which gave unusual attention to the physical development of the students, were organized.

The 1830's saw the introduction of calisthenics into "female seminaries" for the purpose of securing for the students grace and "sound health." The incorporation in the college curriculum of manual labor as a beneficial form of exercise and as a substitute for gymnastics also dates from this period.

The 1840's fix the beginning of organized amateur and professional sport and the origin of the turnvereins in the United States.

The 1850's were marked by the rapid spread of the turnverein movement; the increased interest and participation in out-door activity and recreation; the development and rise to popularity of organized sports; the beginning of intercollegiate athletics and the erection of the first college gymnasia; the introduction of Swedish movements and theories; the efforts to devise a program for the public schools and to secure a place in the curriculum for it; the publication of several manuals of gymnastics and many articles on the necessity of physical exercise.

During the 1860's Dr. Dio Lewis popularized "The New

Gymnastics for Men, Women, and Children"; founded the first normal school of physical education to graduate a class; secured the introduction of his calisthenics into the schools, into the private gymnasia, and into the homes. Dr. George Winship and the "strength seekers" entertained the public with their feats and interested them with their lectures and prepared the way for the sale of "health lifts." The excellent work of Dr. Edward Hitchcock in organizing the first college department of physical education which fully comprehended its responsibilities to the student body also belongs to this period. The beginning of the physical program in the Y. M. C. A. should receive mention.

The 1870's saw a development of intercollegiate sports to such a level that they took their place as an important feature and a difficult problem of higher institutions. The attention given to military training in schools and colleges during this period hampered the progress of physical education.

The 1880's constituted an outstanding decade. The colleges that could obtain sufficient funds built or rebuilt a gymnasium and organized a physical department. The Y. M. C. A. established a training school for physical educators. The Y. W. C. A. began the practice of physical education. The turners narrowed the German system in order to meet the requirements of the school men and secured a place for it in the schools of many cities. Dr. Dudley A. Sargent disseminated his theories, perfected his machines, developed his tests and measurements and set up a normal school to meet the demand for trained teachers. Dr. Hartvig Nissen introduced the Swedish pedagogical gymnastics and folk dancing to the educational world. Baron Nils Posse more perfectly adapted the Swedish system to the American school methods and secured a favorable recognition for it. Faculty control of college athletics became a necessity in this period. Frequent conventions of physical educators were held and the Association for the Advancement of Physical Education was founded. The Delsarte System began to attract attention. The playground movement was launched.

The 1890's constituted the period of controversy. The advocates of the German, the Delsartean, and the Swedish systems stimulated an interest in physical education which resulted in the widespread adoption of some sort of physical education program in the schools. The efforts of the systems to meet the requirements of the schools of that time resulted in more formalized methods. This decade also witnessed a rapid spread of the playground and school athletic movements which contained the elements and theories that were to temper the formal program.

The most outstanding movement of the decade of 1900-10 was the development, organization, and supervision of school athletics. This movement included the elementary school and the university. Much criticism arose as a result of the tendency toward the training of a few for the purpose of insuring victory in interscholastic contests. Folk dancing became recognized as a part of physical education.

The period of 1910-20 is best marked by the emphasis placed on health teaching; increase in playground and recreation activities; scouting; passing of compulsory physical education laws; development of athletic programs to secure the participation of all students; and the beginning of the natural movement in physical education.

Each decade brings new problems, new points of view, new controversies, new lines of research, new methods, and frequently revivals of old ideas. Few movements are confined to a single decade; rather they germinate in one, grow in another, and bear fruit in still another.

The Natural Movement in Physical Education.—Teachers College, Columbia University, is the center from which the new movement in physical education has radiated. As early as 1910 Dr. Thomas D. Wood set forth the ideas which launched the new physical education. During the following decade Dr. Jesse F. Williams, Miss Helen Frost, and Miss Gertrude Colby made contributions to the emerging program.

The natural movement in physical education is undoubtedly the most important event of the 1920's. During this decade

Dr. Jesse F. Williams was foremost in setting forth the principles of the natural movement, in organizing a line of procedure and proving its practicability, and in showing that the new physical education is in close harmony with American educational theories. His two texts, "The Organization and Administration of Physical Education," 1922, and "The Principles of Physical Education," 1927, and his numerous addresses and magazine articles have exerted a marked influence on physical education programs. Clark W. Hetherington, who is also a contributor to the movement, showed in a report of 1923, "School Program in Physical Education," how an informal naturalized program might be carried out.

It is debatable whether this natural movement can be historically interpreted as a revolt against formalism because of the fact that no one was practicing an exclusively formal program at the time of its inception. However, that the natural program calls very definitely for a very different emphasis from that previously in use is clear to all. The natural program might be recognized as the reincarnation of the spirit of the physical education of the Athenians. That the program is much nearer to the practice of GutsMuths and Jahn than it is to the practice of the last few decades in America is also clear.

The ideas of the Athenians, of GutsMuths, and of Jahn came as a result of observations concerning the character of man needed by society and concerning the character of the activity which is beneficially enjoyed by man. The most rational means of securing these ends were used. The time came, however, when this rational program was rearranged for an indoor formalized institution,—the school; it was rearranged so that it might serve as a training for national defense in war; it was rearranged so that it might serve as a means of giving intensive physical exercise to large numbers at the same time; it came to be based solely on an erroneous physiology and anatomy; all of these developments furthered its formalization.

The natural program returns to the pre-formalized rational

procedure and at the same time bases itself on the recent anthropological, biological, psychological, medical, social, and educational advance. It is the outgrowth of the development of the play and recreation movement which came into prominence from 1880 to 1910; it is the outgrowth of the athletic movement in education dating from about 1890 and continuing to the present time; it is the outgrowth of many educational theories, for example, self-expression, informal class-room procedure, social efficiency, and character training.

The program includes: 1. Fundamental skills; running, jumping, throwing, climbing, hanging, lifting, carrying. 2. Play; games, sports, athletics, equitation, aquatics. 3. Dancing and Dramatic Activities. 4. Self-Testing Activities; combat, self-defense, stunts. 5. Out-of-Door Camping Activities; hiking, trailing, hunting, fishing, camping, wandering. 6. Individual Gymnastics. (See "The Principles of Physical Education," by Jesse F. Williams, p. 250.) Health education is to be correlated with but not incorporated in the new physical education program. The above program emerged as a result of the study of what the needs of the individual are in order to take his place in American society. It tries to answer the questions of what movements are used in daily life and what are the habits, skills, and attitudes useful in society.

This program excludes the formal free exercises and apparatus work on the ground that the movements are artificial, not natural; that they are not the most beneficial; that the work does not give the best opportunity for self-expression; that it can not be easily motivated with interest because it is subjective rather than objective; and that it is least valuable as a means of social and moral training.

The natural movement is still in the experimental and testing stage. Many have accepted the program in its entirety; many are experimenting with it and developing a procedure of arriving at its objectives; great numbers, however, are yet to be convinced that physical education can safely throw out all of the formalism.

The Natural Dancing Movement.—During the first decade of this century the most important development of the dance in physical education was the adaptation of folk dancing. Almost contemporary with this movement was the adoption of aesthetic and ballet dancing, both as a medium of artistic expression and as a means of education.

To Isadora Duncan belongs the credit for reviving the classic Greek style which has taken an important place in the art and education of the second and third decades. Miss Duncan's idea was "to seek in nature the fairest forms and to find the movement which expresses the soul of these forms, —this is the art of the dancer." Miss Gertrude Colby did a great deal to adapt Miss Duncan's work to the demands of educational institutions and gave rise to the name "natural dancing."

The term, natural dancing, is used because the movements are based on the simple natural body movements such as walking, running, leaping, and skipping; further, the dancing "comes naturally," no high degree of technic being necessary before the dancer can experience satisfaction; lastly, it is a most natural way to give expression to thoughts and emotions.

The ideal of the natural dance is the expression of an idea or an emotion through rhythmic movements involving the entire body. The dance theme may be any human idea or emotion, ranging from childish pastimes to national upheavals or even the evolution of the race. This type of work is regarded as a valuable feature of a physical education program because of the natural character of the physical activity involved; because it is self-expressive and gives satisfaction to the participant; because it has in itself an objective, namely, the securing of a finer muscular control so that the expression and interpretation can be done with still greater satisfaction. The pure lyric interpretation, without the dominance of an idea or emotion, is not regarded as of equal educational value.

Natural dancing is one of the most highly developed features of the natural program. It has been widely accepted

particularly in educational institutions for girls and young women. An abundance of literature has already accumulated on the subject.

Fundamental Danish Gymnastics.—During the 1920's the innovation known as Fundamental Danish Gymnastics, developed by Niels Bukh, Director of Gymnastics in the Peoples School at Ollerup, Denmark, came to the attention of the American physical educators (See pages 117-118). This system has gained a foothold in the United States through the publications of Niels Bukh and his students, through his tour and exhibitions, and through the American students who have gone to Ollerup to study his methods. There has been some controversy concerning its adaptability and usefulness for the American people.

Some observers believe that there is a stiffness and tightness in the American just as there is in the agricultural Dane, although in a less degree. Many of the exercises are designed to recover a natural musculature and posture through flexibility, suppleness, and by lengthening and shortening and toning the large muscles. All of this, however, is regarded as preparatory for other developmental exercises, as well as for games, sports, and other activities. As Bukh says, "Likewise the clay of which the artist makes his models must first be thoroughly softened and worked before it can be shaped by skillful hands to express in its lines the beauty of form and character that was the master's ideal."

The formalism of the Ling Swedish system is carried over into the Danish Gymnastics, but the holds and precision of the former give way to rhythmic action and greater freedom in the latter. Although these exercises are rather strenuous, they are finding greater acceptance among women's classes than among men's. The future influence of Danish gymnastics on American physical education is problematical.

Expressive Gymnastics.—Expressive Gymnastics, developed by Dr. Rudolf Bode in Germany, is one of the most recent European movements to attract the attention of the physical education teachers in the United States. Dr. Bode's

contribution is in the direction of "back to nature" in physical education. The movements are taken from sport forms, primitive dances, and from the natural play and stretching activities of children and animals. Some of the leading principles are: each movement brings into play the entire body; the movements originate and center in the trunk; tension and relaxation alternate; rhythm is of great importance.



EXPRESSIVE GYMNASTICS
(Courtesy of the "American Physical Education Review.")

The progenitors of this movement suggest that the trained teacher can easily transfer his knowledge of calisthenics and other exercises to the new interpretation. The work is regarded as preparatory for all kinds of activity, such as walking, running, dancing, and sports. This movement has had very little influence in the United States.

The Natural Movement in France.—It has been said before that France has been ready and satisfied to accept the systems and ideas in physical education imported from foreign nations

(See pages 134-136). Georges Demeny, who was the recognized leader in physical education in France for two decades previous to 1908, accepted part of the Swedish system but attempted also to organize a program of athletics and games which might serve as a more beneficial means of physical development. In 1902 he was made a member of the faculty of the military school at Joinville; but, because of the increasing attention given to the Swedish system there, he left the institution in 1908.

A few years later Georges Hébert, a naval officer, perfected his *méthode naturelle,* a system of physical education based on the natural activities of man. Several exhibitions of Hébert's sailors in the gymnastic festivals won favorable recognition for his methods. In 1916 the physical education program at Joinville was revised and modeled largely on Hébert's ideas. The objectives and the scope of the activities of the *méthode naturelle* lack the breadth which marks the natural movement in America. The French idea of physical training for soldiers is still too persistent. However, the American games and athletics, which were introduced in France during the war, promoted the natural movement and tended to broaden its objectives.

During the 1920's the French people have made great advance in nation-wide participation in games and sports and in the organization of physical education programs in the schools. Hébert's work is only a part of the international movement toward natural and rational programs.

Objectives and Tests.—The term "objective," which was used during the Great War to indicate the destination or the point to be taken by an army movement, carried over into the field of education and came to mean the end or aim (definitely stated) of an educational procedure. The physical education literature of 1920-25 contained many statements of the objectives of the field of physical education. When the objectives of modern physical education were listed they were found to be very numerous and very comprehensive. They included the broad terms of physical development; physical fitness; char-

acter training; moral or social training; mental training; training in the proper use of leisure time, health education, safety education, etc. When these headings are broken up into their more specific items they make a long list of worthy objectives. No single subject in the elementary and secondary curriculum claims to promote a so comprehensive and important section of general education.

The stating of these objectives resulted in an examination of the material of instruction to determine whether the program was the very best that could be devised to attain the goals. The breadth of the objectives made necessary a more comprehensive program which would include every variety of wholesome activity. The teacher of physical education now prepares himself in formal gymnastics, calisthenics, games, athletics, sports, scouting, camping, dramatics, pageantry, dancing, playground work, orthopedics, therapeutics, hygiene, safety education, and many cultural subjects which are allied to the field of physical education. The four-year course for teachers is now recognized as essential.

Having set up the objectives toward which the masses of students should strive, it becomes a logical procedure to devise and apply tests and measurements, in order to determine whether this or that individual or group is capable of being so trained, to measure achievement toward the goals, and to determine the kind of activity which is most beneficial. During the last two decades many achievement tests, tests for physical efficiency, physical fitness, motor ability, and physical capacity have been scientifically developed and their validity has been proved. During the 1920's much has been written and much has been done along this line.

Through the investigations of well trained students of physical education and medicine, much has been discovered regarding the difference in the physiological and anatomical growth of children of the same age. These and similar studies have a direct bearing on the program of physical education.

The 1920's have witnessed more emphasis on the corrective and preventive field of physical education than has ever existed

before. Very large numbers of people who need this type of work have come to the attention of physical examiners.

The most progressive educators agree that the physical education and health education programs should occupy a leading position in the curricula of the elementary and secondary schools. Communities are insisting that spacious play yards and athletic fields be provided for every school building. Hospitals, camps, churches, municipal recreation departments, to say nothing of the athletic and recreation clubs, are finding need for well trained teachers of physical education.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Bovard, J. F. and Cozens, F. W. "Tests and Measurements in Physical Education." University of Oregon, 1926.

Brace, David K. "A Natural Program of Physical Education in Colleges." American Physical Education Review, April, 1925, pp. 202–7.

Brace, David K. "Measuring Motor Ability." New York. 1927.

Bukh, Niels. "Primary Gymnastics." Translated by Hansen and Bevington, London. 1925.

Carpenter, P. M. "Progress of Physical Education and Sports in France, 1918–20." American Physical Education Review, Oct., 1921, pp. 328–336.

Colby, Gertrude K. "Natural Rhythms and Dances." New York. 1924.

Dawson, Percy M. "The Vacation Camp as a Factor in Education." American Physical Education Review, April, 1927, pp. 238–248.

Frost, Helen. "Oriental and Character Dances." New York. 1927.

Gardiner, Rolf. "Rhythmic Gymnastics in Germany." Mind and Body, Dec., 1925, pp. 776–780.

H'Doubler, Margaret M. "The Dance and Its Place in Education." New York. 1925.

Hetherington, Clark W. "School Program in Physical Education." New York. 1922.

Hillas, Marjorie and Knighton, Marian. "Athletic Dances and Simple Clogs." New York. 1926.

Johnson, M. H. "Objectives of Outdoor Activities in Physical Education for High School Boys." Mind and Body, Sept., 1924, pp. 254–257.

Kilpatrick, William H. "What Range of Objectives for Physical Education." American Physical Education Review, March, 1926, pp. 691–696.

Lowman, Colestock and Cooper. "Corrective Physical Education for Groups." New York. 1928.

Marsh, Agnes and Marsh, Lucille. "The Dance in Education." New York. 1924.

Medau, Hinrich. "Introduction to Dr. Bode's Expressive Gymnastics." American Physical Education Review, Jan., 1929, pp. 7–10.

Mitchell, Elmer D. "Intramural Athletics." New York. 1925.

Mueller, G. W. "How May We Maintain the Balance Between Formal and Free Activity Programs in the Elementary Schools?" American Physical Education Review, Oct., 1927, pp. 584–586.

Report of a Conference. "Professional Training in Physical Education." Gives recent developments. Physical Education Series No. 9. Bureau of Education. 1928.

Rogers, Frederick R. "Physical Capacity Tests in the Administration of Physical Education." New York. 1926.

Rogers, Frederick R. "Tests and Measurement Programs in the Redirection of Physical Education." New York. 1927.

Sanders, E. M. "Should Formal Gymnastics Have a Place in Modern Physical Education." American Physical Education Review, Feb., 1928, pp. 78–82.

Stafford, George T. "Preventive and Corrective Physical Education." New York. 1928.

Sumption, Dorothy. "Fundamental Danish Gymnastics for Women." New York. 1927.

Williams, Jesse F. "The Organization and Administration of Physical Education." New York. 1922.

Williams, Jesse F. "The Principles of Physical Education." Philadelphia. 1927.

Wood, Thomas D. "Health and Education." Ninth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part I. Pp. 75–108. 1910.

Wood, Thomas D. and Cassidy, Rosalind F. "The New Physical Education." New York. 1927.

INDEX

Academy, 27, 81, 149-152.
Amateur Athletic Union, 173, 187, 188.
A. A. U. Allied Organizations, 188.
American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education, 169, 227, 232, 239.
American Child Health Association, 249.
American Medical Association and N. E. A. Survey of 1922, 238, 250.
American Physical Education Association, 196, 227, 259.
American Physical Education Review, 228.
American Students' Health Association, 216.
Amherst College, 206-209, 214, 222.
Amoros, 134, 135.
Anatomy, 102, 119, 167, 245.
Anderson, 227, 265.
Anthropometry, 131, 166, 195, 208, 213.
Apodyterion, 27.
Apparatus, 91, 100, 101, 107, 121, 122, 135, 151, 153, 154, 156, 170, 176, 201, 225, 229.
Arbeiter-Turnerschaft, 106.
Archery, 11, 12, 71, 125, 187.
Aristotle, 29.
Arnold, 265.
Art, 40.
Asceticism, 53, 54.
Asham, 72, 126.
Association of Directors of Physical Education for Women, 215.
Athletic Clubs, 106, 111, 166, 184, 213.
Athletic League, 195.
Athletic Research Society, 189.
Athletics, School, 151, 159, 184, 189, 209, 215, 216, 217, 233, 234, 237, 238.
Baden-Powell, 261.
Balancing Exercises, 88, 90, 100, 135.
Ball Playing, 6, 10, 25, 37, 43, 48, 70, 76, 83, 217.
Ballin, 170, 232.
Barnard, 161.
Baseball, 153, 164, 184, 185, 218, 238.
Basedow, 88.
Basket-ball, 106, 187, 202, 217, 222, 236, 238.
Bathing, 25, 28, 47, 193, 209.
Battle Creek School of Physical Education, 266.
Bean Bags, 178.
Beck, 152, 154, 156.
Beecher, 157, 158.
Betz, 170, 228, 232.
Bishop, Emily, 182, 183.
Bishop, Nathan, 224.
Boat Racing, 139, 217.
Bolin, 265.
Boston Normal School of Gymnastics, 229, 265.
Bowling, 47, 83, 126, 145, 146, 186.
Boxing, 5, 15, 17, 18, 33, 36, 37, 39, 146, 156.
Boy Scouts of America, 261.
Branting, 120.
Brooklyn Society for Parks and Playgrounds, 257.
Brosius, 167, 172, 227.
Brown, 198.
Bukh, 117, 118.
Burschenschaften, 103, 104.

Calisthenics, 177.
Camp Fire Girls, 196, 262.
Campus Martius, 44, 48.
Central School of Hygiene and Physical Education, 204.

Chariot Race, 16, 34, 45.
Charles Bank, 257.
Chicago Normal School of Physical Education, 203, 266.
Chivalry, 57.
Circus, 45.
Clias, 128, 134, 135.
Collin, 265.
Comenius, 83.
Conference in the Interest of Physical Training, 231.
Cong Fu, 8.
Corrective Gymnastics, 179, 180, 195, 209, 216, 230.
Coubertin, 136, 139.
Cricket, 126, 146, 187, 222.
Curling, 127, 187.
Curtis, 260.
Cynasargus, 27.

Dancing, 4, 10, 18, 19, 23, 37, 48, 71, 160.
Danish Rifle Clubs, 115.
Dark Ages, 51.
Delphi, 27.
Delsarte System, 171, 181-183, 195, 202, 232.
Diaulos, 31.
Didascaleul, 25.
Discus, 25, 28, 31, 33.
Dolichos, 31.
Douglass Park, 258.
Dumb-bells, 71, 135, 177, 193, 205.
Dummer School, 147, 150.
Durant, 200.
Durant Gymnasium, 201.

Eclectic Systems, 195, 228.
Eiselin, 101.
Elementary Schools, 224-244.
Elyot, 71, 126.
Emerson, 251.
Enebuske, 265.
Ephebus, 26.
Esthetics, 66.
Euripides, 39.
European Federation of Gymnastic Societies, 137.
Eurythmics, 134.

Falconry, 59.
Far Eastern Olympic Games, 198.
Fellenberg, 98, 150, 153, 158.
Fencing, 6, 59, 76, 119, 156, 160, 187.
Feso-Capper Bill, 243.
First Aid, 166, 167.
Follen, 153, 155, 156.
Football, 38, 122, 126, 127, 146, 148, 153, 218, 219, 221, 236, 238.
Formalism, 108, 128, 131, 138, 234, 236.
Fleck, 167.
Frank, 94.
Franklin, 149.
Free Exercise, 105, 108.
Froebel, 98, 150.
Fuller, 94.
Funeral Games, 16, 19.

Galen, 39.
Games, *see* Play.
Georgii, 128.
German System, 130, 137, 153, 160, 162, 170, 171, 173, 231, 232.
Girl Scouts, 262.
Gladiatorial Games, 46.
Goldie, 210.
Golf, 125, 186, 222.
Gulick, 194, 196, 246, 260.
Guts-Muths, 90, 114, 119, 127, 235.
Gymnasia, 19, 25, 27, 28, 154, 175, 178, 192, 195, 202, 206, 209, 213, 215, 237.
Gymnastic Costumes, 100, 177, 182, 201.
Gymnastic Crown, 178.
Gymnastic Programs and Progression, 100, 108, 121, 129, 135, 195, 196, 230.
Gymnastics, 23, 27, 38, 83, 192, 215, 216.
Gymnastic Societies, 122, 134, 135, 136, 137.

Halteres, 28.

Handball, 49.
Happel, 136.
Hartwell, 170, 230, 231.
Harvard, 154, 161, 209, 214, 219, 220.
Hasenheide, 100, 103.
Health Education, 80, 112, 132, 137, 150, 152, 161, 195, 196, 206, 208, 215, 233, 245, 253.
Health Organization, 250.
Hemenway, 210.
Hetherington, 261.
Higginson, 175.
High School, 224, 232, 236, 237, 238.
Hiking, 21, 91, 99, 195.
Hinduism, 9.
Hippocrates, 39.
Hitchcock, 170, 207-209, 227.
Hockey, 37, 106, 125, 153, 187, 217.
Hoffman, 94.
Hop-step-and-jump, 32.
Humanism, 67.
Hunting, 11, 76.
Hygiene, 61, 132, 138, 150, 157, 161, 166, 167, 176, 195, 197, 215, 247.

Iliad, 16.
Intercollegiate Athletics, 217, 218, 219, 220.
Isthmian Games, 35.

Jahn, 93, 99ff, 124, 127, 152, 234.
Javelin, 11, 21, 25, 31, 32.
Jefferson, 160.
Joust, 62.
Jumping, 31, 32, 44, 59, 83, 88, 96, 100.

Kant, 96.
Kite-flying, 8.
Knighthood, 58.
Knudsen, 132.
Königliche Zentral-Turnanstalt, 110.

Lacrosse, 6, 187, 222.
Langkilde, 132.
Lee, 260.
Legislation, 115, 120, 135, 233, 239-243, 251.
Leibold, 232.
Lewis, 176-180, 192, 202, 210, 25, 226, 264.
Lieber, 155, 156.
Lindsey, 259.
Ling, H., 121.
Ling, P., 188ff.
Locke, 79, 102.
Luther, 73.
Lyceum, 27.

Maclaren, 128, 135.
Mann, 161.
Manual Labor, 76, 88, 89, 91, 98, 150, 158, 159.
Massmann, 103, 110.
Mayhew, 204, 205.
McCurdy, 196, 228.
McKinstry, 204.
Medical Inspection, 247-249.
Mercurialis, Hieronymus, 72.
Military Training, 11, 12, 22, 27, 40, 61, 76, 151, 159, 173, 178, 184, 224, 226.
Milton, 76.
Mind and Body, 171, 235.
Modern Health Crusade, 249.
Monasteries, 54.
Montaigne, 78.
Moody, 147.
Mulcaster, 82.
Music, 23, 33, 39, 76, 109, 157, 178.

Nachtegall, 114, 119.
Napoleon, 99.
National Amateur Athletic Federation, 173, 188.
N. A. A. F. Members, 189.
National Collegiate Athletic Association, 222
National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations, 237.
National Financial Aid, 116, 243.

National Physical Education Service, 243.
Naturalism, 88.
Nemean Games, 30, 35.
Neronea Games, 48.
New Haven Normal School of Gymnastics, 227, 264.
Nissen, Harry, 266.
Nissen, Hartvig, 181, 228, 229, 230, 266.
Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union. 163, 167, 168, 232, 264.
Normal School Standardization, 267, 268.
Nutrition Classes, 112, 132, 166, 250, 251.

Olympia, 27, 30.
Olympian Games, 30, 31, 53, 123, 136, 139, 140.
Open Air Schools, 112, 132, 166, 250.
Osterberg, 132.
Outdoor Gymnasium, 95, 107.
Outdoor Recreation League, 257.

Page, 58, 59.
Palestra, 24, 31, 47.
Pan-Hellenic Games, 28, 30, 36.
Pankration, 33, 34, 36
Partridge, 151, 152.
Pedagogue, 24.
Pentathlon, 31.
Pestalozzi, 96, 134, 150, 158.
Philanthropinum, 88, 89, 96.
Philbrick, 224, 226.
Physical Directors' Society of the Y. M. C. A., 196.
Physical Education Department of the N. E. A., 233, 250.
Physical Education for Women, 22, 29, 91, 95, 107, 111, 115, 157, 176, 179, 210, 214.
Physical Efficiency, 216, 239.
Physical Examination, 132, 138, 179, 194, 215, 250.
Physical Training, 196.
Physical Training School for Chinese Women, 205.
Physiology, 102, 119, 157, 161, 167, 176, 245, 247.
Pindar, 40.
Pitching the bar, 127, 146.
Pius II, 70.
Plato, 29, 38, 79.
Play, 21, 70, 83, 89, 96, 97, 98, 100, 101, 112, 117, 121, 124, 128, 129, 132, 145, 147, 177, 216, 234, 236, 238, 255.
Playground, The, 260.
Playground and Recreation Association of America, 237, 243, 260.
Playground Instructors, 255, 260.
Playgrounds, 106, 138, 146, 173, 186, 197, 254-261.
Plutarch, 39.
Pole-vaulting, 90, 100, 127.
Posse, Baron Nils, 229, 230, 265.
Posse Gymnasium Journal, 231.
Posse-Nissen School of Physical Education, 266.
Princeton, 161, 210, 214, 217.
Public Schools Athletic Leagues, 237, 259.
Punching Bags, 25, 28.
Pythian Games, 30, 35.

Quintain, 58, 60.
Quoits, 126, 160.

Rabelais, 76.
Rasmussen, 232.
Rath, 264.
Realism, 74.
Recreation, 70, 72, 108, 131, 152, 195, 197, 199, 255.
Religious Reformers, 72, 73.
Reuter, 170.
Rhythmic Gymnastics, 112.
Rickoff, 225.
Riding, 11, 12, 44, 59, 71, 72, 76.
Riis, 257.
Roberts, 193, 194.

Rounders, 146, 148.
Round Hill School, 152, 153, 154.
Rousseau, 86, 87.
Rowing, 127. *See* Boat Race.
Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics, 120, 121, 229.
Rugby, 127, 219.
Running, 5, 17, 18, 21, 25, 31, 44, 59, 71, 96, 146.
Rush, 158.

Salzmann, 90.
Sand, 104.
Sand Gardens, 256.
Sargent, 170, 201, 202, 210, 211-213, 227, 231, 264.
Savage, 265.
Schnepfenthal Educational Institute, 90.
School Clinics, 112, 132.
School Hygiene, 156, 245.
School Hygiene Association of America, 246.
School Hygiene, International Congress of, 246.
School of Physical Education of the Chatauqua Assembly, 265.
Sex Education, 112, 250.
Shinny, 148, 217.
Simon, 88.
Skittles, 127.
Slinging, 11.
Soccer, 106, 150, 187, 222.
Sociétés des Sports Athletiques, 139.
Society of Directors of Physical Education in Colleges, 214, 228.
Socrates, 38.
Sokol, 136, 137.
Spencer, 161.
Spiess, 93, 97, 105, 106, 107, 134.
Sports, *see* Athletics, Play, Golf, Baseball, etc.
Squire, 59.
Stade Race, 31.
Stadium, 20, 31, 139, 218.
Stebbins, 182, 183.
Strigil, 28, 48.
Suder, 170, 172.
Swedish Movement Cure, 161, 178, 179, 180.
Swedish System, 8, 110, 116, 119, 121, 130, 131, 171, 181, 226-232, 235.
Swimming, 5, 9, 21, 25, 44, 45, 59, 71, 76, 91, 186, 197, 202.
Swiss Society for Games and Excursions, 256.

Taylor, C. F., 180.
Taylor, G. H., 180.
Tennis, 71, 126, 185, 222.
Terminology, 102.
Teutonic Barbarians, 52.
Thayer, 150, 162.
Thermæ, 47.
Tice, 225.
Tilting, 60.
Tissot, Clement, 95.
Tissot, Simon, 95.
Tournaments, 62.
Town and Gown Fights, 56.
Track and Field, 218, 237, 238.
Training for Contests, 35, 60.
Training of Teachers, 109, 111, 114, 115, 116, 117, 120, 122, 129, 132, 151, 163, 179, 194, 195, 196, 203, 204, 213, 264-269.
Tremont Gymnasium, 175, 193.
Turnerbund 162, 163, 166-174, 192-259.
Turnerschaft, 105, 111, 139, 255.
Turnfest, 105, 106, 162, 172.
Turnhalle, 101.
Turnplatz, 100, 101, 105, 110, 154.
Turnverein, 99, 104, 105, 106, 161-163, 166-174, 228.
Turnzeitung, 105, 162.

Unctorium, 47, 48.
Universities, American, 156, 185, 210, 213, 219. *See* Harvard, Yale, Amherst, etc.
Universities, German, 111.
Universities, Medieval, 55.
Universities, Swedish, 123.

University of Virginia, 161, 206.

Vacation Schools, 256.
Vergerio, 68.
Vieth, 95.
Virgil, 43.
Vittorino da Feltre, 67.
Volksturnen, 101.
Volley-ball, 106, 187, 202, 222.
Von Schenckendorff, 255.
Vorturner, 101.

Warren, 154, 155, 156.
Webster, 159.
Weight Throwing, 18, 21, 32, 127.
Williams, 191.
Windship, 161, 176, 193.
Wittich, 170.
Wood, 160.
Wrestling, 5, 9, 17, 18, 21, 25, 33, 44, 71, 77, 83, 96, 100, 146.

Yale, 209, 219.
Y. M. C. A., 166, 184, 191-199, 259.
Y. W. C. A., 166, 200-205, 259.

Zakerzewska, 256.
Zapp, 170.
Ziegler, 238.
Zystos, 28.