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THE ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC RECREATION

Health, Physical Education, and Recreation Series

Edited by DR. N. P. NEILSON

The Administration of Public Recreation

By GEORGE HJELTE

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NEW YORK

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FOREWORD

In this new era, when machine power is rapidly replacing man power, there is coming to nearly all persons an ever increasing amount of leisure. Not knowing how to spend this spare time, the majority of people tend to substitute amusement and entertainment for self-expression through recreational activities.

Communities should plan for rich living as well as for business and industry because people need recreation, relaxation and development apart from their daily tasks. Community success depends upon healthy, happy and educated citizens. Herein, community recreation serves a useful purpose, as has been demonstrated by the many large and small cities, towns, villages, and rural areas that have already organized recreation programs as a vital public service.

George Hjelte, author of this book on the administration of public recreation, is well known as a recreation expert. He has served as Assistant State Supervisor of Physical Education in the California State Department of Education and as Superintendent of Recreation at Berkeley, California, in Westchester County, New York, and at Los Angeles, California. His wealth of experience and his unusual ability to analyze and think through problems are exhibited in the quality and organization of the text.

This text should be of great help in building a clearer understanding of recreation as an educational problem. It will prove helpful not only to those persons who are now dealing with public recreation problems of an administrative nature, in communities large and small, but also to teachers and students in teacher training institutions. An increasing number of colleges and universities are including in their undergraduate and graduate offerings, courses on the administration of recreation to which this book will make many contributions.

N. P. Neilson, Editor

Washington, D. C.
July 10, 1940

PREFACE

THE growth of a public movement usually proceeds without much reference to plan. It arises out of a recognized need. In its early stages there is considerable groping and searching for detailed solutions to the problems which the need creates but which are not too clearly conceived. Experimental efforts crop up here and there to solve these problems and gradually through the sharing of experience and the influence of imitation common practice and procedure develop.

The Public Recreation Movement in America is no exception to the general rule. It had its inception in the latter part of the nineteenth century. It has manifested itself primarily as an urban movement and is only beginning to assert itself in rural areas. Important innovations and demonstrations were first made in the largest metropolitan cities. Insofar as they demonstrated their efficacy they were copied, not without alteration, in other cities, large and small. While there has been considerable standardization in purpose and content of recreation programs there has been less uniformity in the forms and methods of administration.

So long as the volume of services rendered in any city or other subdivision of government was not large the organization of administrative procedures mattered little; but as the work grew in maturity and size more effective organization and administration had to be developed as an essential condition to further growth.

In the earlier years of the movement any treatise on the administration of public recreation could do little more than cite the forms of organization and practices in administration which were extant, but now sufficient experimentation has taken place to enable some generalization to be made and enunciation of general principles to be attempted. In this book some general principles of administration of public recreation which have borne the test of experience have been formulated. In connection with some matters still in the early stages of growth current practice has been stated without dogmatic and premature generalizations.

This book has been intended primarily as a text book on the administration of public recreation for use in the professional preparation of recreation workers and executives. Heretofore courses have been offered in many universities and teachers' colleges under such titles as Principles of Community Recreation, The Organization and Administration of Public Recreation, The Supervision of Playgrounds and Recreation; but there has been little effort to segregate knowledge in the field of administration from knowledge of programs, leadership and supervision. With the emphasis being placed upon four years of professional preparation with advanced work on the graduate level there is a need for greater differentiation of subject matter. It is felt that there is now sufficient material in the field of administration to provide content for courses dealing exclusively with problems of administration. The material in this book, somewhat as at present organized, has been used in courses under the same title given by the author in the National Recreation School, New York, prior to 1934, and more recently in the University of Southern California.

The book is also intended as an aid to governmental executives, directors of recreation and lay groups and boards in organizing local systems of recreation and establishing administrative procedures.

While the title of this book is *The Administration of Public Recreation*, it will be evident to the reader that it deals primarily with the administration of recreation under systems of local government. Recreation under federal and state administration is experiencing a very rapid growth, perhaps at a pace exceeding the present growth of local recreation. This field appears to be a subject for special study and one which can be treated independently of the study of local community recreation.

The present work is also limited to the consideration of administration from the standpoint of departmental problems. Administration proceeds on several levels. There are the problems of administering the program and facilities of the unit center, such as the playground, community building, swimming pool, camp or other public recreation place. These are not included except as they illustrate or are related to universal problems involved in the administration of all types of public recreation centers.

Acknowledgment is gratefully made to the National Recreation

Association and the many executives of recreation who have furnished helpful material; to the executive staff of the Department of Playground and Recreation and members of the Board of Playground and Recreation Commissioners of the City of Los Angeles as well as to former associates with whom the author has worked in the cooperative formulation of policies and procedures in administering recreation as a public service. The author also acknowledges his deep indebtedness to Dr. Clark W. Hetherington for lasting inspiration and instruction derived under his tutelage while the author was employed as Assistant State Supervisor of Physical Education in California. Appreciation is also expressed to Frances A. Hjelte for assistance in preparing and editing the manuscript.

GEORGE HJELTE

LOS ANGELES, CALIF.
July, 1940

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PART I

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION AND RELATIONSHIPS OF RECREATION

I

BACKGROUND OF PUBLIC RECREATION

THAT the American people have been extremely ingenious in devising ways to employ their leisure time is apparent to everyone. The amusements, entertainments and diversions designed to provide vicarious experience and the activities organized to induce active participation are too many to enumerate. Their variety is almost as great as the range of human capabilities. They partake of nearly all of the innate capacities for feeling and action and are multiplied by the development which these capacities undergo in the experience of living. Their complexity is increased by inventive genius. They are not limited by the requirements of utilitarianism but are conditioned only by their ability to give human satisfaction and enjoyment.

Apart from the complexity and heterogeneity of the leisure time pursuits is the fact that they consume a large portion of the time of the people. If the play of children and the leisure of adults are considered together it is evident that they occupy in the life span relatively more time than is devoted to work or other compulsions dictated by biological or social necessity. In later life leisure time bulks larger than time devoted to sleep.

The activities of leisure consume a large portion of the wealth of the American people. Steiner estimated that the American people spent in 1930 over ten billions of dollars for recreation.[1] Stuart Chase estimated that in 1927 out of a national income of ninety-two billions of dollars the American people expended over twenty-one billions upon leisure time activities and for commodities consumed during leisure.[2]

[1] Steiner, Jesse Frederick, *Americans at Play*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1933, p. 183.

[2] Chase, Stuart, "Play" in C. A. Beard's, *Whither Mankind*, Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1928, Ch. XIV.

Reasons for the Rise of Recreation

Increased Leisure.

The increasingly important role played by recreation is due to a variety of causes beginning with those which gave rise to the industrial revolution. The age of discovery brought the age of invention; the age of invention brought the age of power; the age of power brought the age of leisure. In the age of power mechanical processes became so improved that it was practicable to reduce the hours of labor materially. The plea of organized labor for reduced hours and greater wages would have been futile had it not been for improved processes which multiplied the results of labor. Accordingly, within the past century the hours of factory labor have been reduced in some industries from seventy-two per week to forty-eight, and in many industries to forty. State and Federal legislation has imposed restrictions upon the number of hours which minors and women might be employed. Legislation which would establish a universal thirty-hour week has been seriously considered by more than one Congress of the United States. Such restrictions upon labor in the arduous industrial trades are inevitable in the future. Along with curtailment of hours of manual labor have gone equal limitations upon "white collar" work and employment in the professions. At the same time, due to the world-wide depression no less than ten million workers have been without work. Others have been retired from active employment by child labor laws or by superannuation in the case of the aged.

Increased Dependence upon Leisure for Creative Experience.

Coincident with the decrease in hours of work has been the increased dependence of people upon activities of leisure for full expression of human faculties. In the pre-industrial era a worker found an outlet for a wide range of his faculties in his vocation. Work was not highly competitive but was "leisurely" done. It was varied in the faculties which it employed. It gave opportunity for creative experience and invention and for the individual to place the stamp of his own genius upon the character of the product. It provided opportunity for social intercourse in the productive process. Work was life in the full.

Today work in the vocations and professions alike is restrictive in its employment of the worker's faculties. His success is almost in direct proportion to the degree of his specialization. In the factory he often uses the accessory and not the large skeletal muscles. This does violence to his physiological and emotional balance and so he must find relief in big muscle play during leisure. In his play he finds opportunity also to live creatively and to give expression to the wide assortment of human capabilities with which he is endowed, but which atrophy through disuse if not released and cultivated in leisure.

Greater Wealth to Devote to Leisure.

Fortunately the processes which changed the nature of work and reduced its hours created a greater national wealth. This made possible many improvements and commodities which were needed if leisure was to bring compensatory satisfactions and values. Much of this wealth has been reinvested and consumed in the processes of further production; much has been wasted in wars and other enterprises which produced no social values; and much of it has been expended upon social betterment, education and recreation.

Realization of the potential values of our leisure has been enhanced by the increased national wealth. Many leisure time activities require materials and services which cannot be had without expenditure of money. While it is true that some of the activities which rank at the top in recreative value are free gifts of nature, others are unquestionably denied the individual if he is unable to purchase the requisite commodities or services incidental to their enjoyment. The benefits of leisure have not been universal partly because of unequal distribution of wealth. The income of a substantial percentage of the American people leaves little or no surplus over requirements of mere subsistence to permit expenditures for recreation. At present, many are totally without income except that given them as unemployed or unemployable recipients of relief.

The individual citizen's lack of monetary means to purchase recreation is in some degree compensated for by the public and other community facilities the enjoyment of which is open to all. These include not only those available through agencies specifically established for recreation such as parks, playgrounds, and beaches,

but those which are offered by public schools, group work agencies, churches and other community enterprises. These facilities are not uniformly distributed nor are they by any means adequate to existing needs.

Urbanization Fosters Recreation.

Urbanization of the population has provided a fertile soil for the growth of leisure time activities. Many of the most enjoyable leisure time pursuits are social in character. They require the association of persons of corresponding appreciations and comparative knowledge, skills, social position, age, and economic capacity. The formation of such associations is facilitated by gregarious living in the cities and retarded in rural areas. This phenomenon explains in large part why public recreation has had much greater growth in cities than in rural communities.

Breakdown of Taboos on Recreation.

The growth of recreation has also been accelerated by the breakdown of traditional cultural prejudices and religious taboos. Even at the end of the nineteenth century there was present a marked influence of medieval asceticism and scholasticism. Of more immediate influence in American life was the philosophy of Puritanism which dominated thought and action in New England for centuries and retarded the growth of recreation throughout America. Play according to the Puritan concept was the invention of Satan and therefore play impulses were to be suppressed with religious zeal. The emphasis upon systematic philosophy and theology and the rigorous practice of self-denial left little place for happy carefree recreations. Indeed, participation in certain recreative activities now looked upon not only as harmless but as of great value was prohibited by ecclesiastical decree and by governmental law. Some of this attitude still survives in laws prohibiting certain recreational activities on Sundays, in academic prejudice against the applied arts, and in the tendency to ascribe a minor role of importance to leisure time pursuits which seem to serve no utilitarian purpose or no formal disciplinary end. These prejudices, however, have been breaking down rapidly. A philosophy more tolerant of leisure time activities and one which recognizes their importance from the standpoint of human and social

values is rapidly gaining general acceptance. In such an atmosphere recreation finds conditions much more favorable to its acceptance and growth than ever before in the history of civilization.

Scholastic Acceptance of the Arts of Leisure.

The acceptance of the leisure time arts in the curricula of universal public education from kindergarten to institutions of higher learning is another factor which contributes to the growing importance of recreation. In preparing children for citizenship educators now realize that they must prepare young people for satisfying, wholesome leisure. The gradual removal of incompetence and ineptitude on the part of the American people in choosing leisure time activities and participating in them in ways conducive to progressive development of knowledge, appreciations and skills, will be an inevitable outcome of the emphasis which the universal educational system will more and more grant to recreation. Just as heretofore the removal of educational illiteracy has been an object of education it is likely that the universal removal of "recreational illiteracy" may become an added object of public education.

Organized Promotion of Recreation.

With the increasing general acceptance of recreation as something of value and dignity the direct promotion of it followed as a natural course. Steiner has pointed out that a characteristic recent trend in social organization has been the remarkable growth of associations and clubs specializing entirely in some phase of amusement and recreation.[3] Formerly the promotion came through the channels of institutions and organizations of a more general nature and with widely different functions. Now specialized organizations may promote recreations of interest to them more directly and with more efficient results.

The most outstanding organization of this type in America is the National Recreation Association. This organization was formed in 1906 under the name of the Playground and Recreation Association of America, for the purpose of promoting more attention to socially valuable recreations, principally under governmental auspices. The Association has been supported by philan-

[3] Steiner, J. F., *op. cit.*, p. 145.

thropic funds and membership fees. It has maintained an extensive service through the publication of a monthly magazine, "Recreation," a correspondence and consultation bureau, the holding of an annual national recreation congress, and "field service" with a highly competent traveling staff of specialists. The increasing attention which has been given to public recreation year after year has been due in large part to the assistance rendered by this Association.

Organization of Leisure

An activity so universal as recreation will very naturally be of concern to many types of social institutions. Many of the established social institutions such as the home and the church tend to accord recreation a place in their concerns and operations; others adopt recreation as a means for the accomplishment of objectives for which they were established; and still other institutions are created specifically to take care of recreational demands.

The organization of leisure in American life may be viewed from the standpoint of the role played by institutions of different types in providing for the leisure of the people. This point of view assists in delimiting the field of public recreation and in forming a concept of the special function it should perform. Obviously all recreation cannot be provided by public, i.e., tax-supported and governmental, agencies. In America the accepted role of government is to perform only those functions which are of universal concern to the entire people and which cannot be acceptably taken care of by private or organized non-governmental enterprise. The pattern of organization of leisure in American life appears to be one in which the responsibility for fostering and conducting recreation is divided between four groups of institutions and agencies, as follows:

(1) Voluntary organizations, such as homes, churches, fraternal orders, labor societies, athletic and recreation clubs, and other groups of temporary and permanent character;

(2) Commercial enterprises organized to deal in commodities required in leisure and to provide services requisite to the enjoyment of leisure, all undertaken essentially for profit;

(3) Community organizations, not tax-supported but drawing voluntary support from large numbers of people, which are

organized to care for obvious community leisure time needs or which use leisure time activities as an instrument for accomplishment of other related purposes; and

(4) Public institutions and agencies which are created by the body politic and which are under complete public control.

Voluntary Recreation Agencies.

The home is the most important agency in American life which provides for the leisure of the people. First lessons in play are learned in infancy from the mother. As Joseph Lee has put it, the mother is "at once instigator, audience, playmate, playground and apparatus." The family play heritage and the community and national heritage of play are transmitted to each generation primarily through the family which is the basic social unit in society.

Under more simple organization of life than now generally exists, the home tended to become almost a self-sufficient agency for direction and conduct of play and recreation. Families were large and association between members of all ages was intimate and natural. Whole families worked together, worshiped together and played together, sometimes augmented by other families who joined them for these purposes. But changes in home life have tended to destroy this association. Families tend to be smaller, they tend to disperse, living quarters, indoors as well as outdoors, tend to diminish in size and commodiousness, thus crowding out activities natural to home life. Urban congestion and poverty have rendered the family generally less effective than formerly as an agency for the direction of the recreation of its members.

Efforts to reinforce the home in respect to recreation and to improve its effectiveness as a recreational agency are not wholly lacking. They include the better planning of cities, the improved design and construction of houses and home grounds, the education of parents in home making, the invention of devices for the improvement of home-spent leisure, and the promotion of home play.

The partial failure of the home to realize its essential importance and to perform its primary function with respect to the leisure of its members has placed a burden upon other agencies which have sought to fill the need thus created. The responsibility,

however, cannot be wholly shifted from the home to the community.

The church has always exercised an important influence upon leisure time activities. The church historically has sanctioned certain forms of recreation and has censored and suppressed others. Since the attitude of the church generally has been liberalized it has provided through its many activities opportunities for recreational expression. To some extent the church services themselves may be regarded as recreational inasmuch as they provide emotional outlet and opportunity to give expression to cultural impulses. Recreation may be itself a part of worship as it may be a means of blasphemy. The church provides the setting and stimulation for social participation in a wide variety of group activities, choir and congregational singing, Christmas and Easter pageants, forums, group discussions, church entertainments and suppers, and Sunday school picnics. Not a few churches have provided gymnasiums, social halls and playgrounds and have made their plants the center of recreational activities for their members, especially the children and youth. The church must, therefore, be recognized as being among the most important agencies serving recreational needs.

Benevolent and fraternal orders, labor unions, women's clubs, Parent-Teacher Associations and business men's service clubs must also be recognized as playing an important role in filling the need for recreation. While they are organized primarily for benevolent and civic purposes it may be noted that benevolent and civic activities constitute a part of recreation. Associated with such primary activities within these organizations, however, are many secondary social activities which constitute much of their programs and which add interest and zest to membership.

The influence of these organizations may be inferred from their size. It is estimated that fraternal societies in America have a total membership of about 35,000,000. The total membership of business men's service clubs is over 500,000, of federated women's clubs 3,000,000, of the Parent-Teacher Associations 2,222,000, and of labor unions 7,400,000. In addition to the recreational outlets which these agencies afford their own members, who are predominantly adults, they frequently sponsor and provide some funds for programs of a recreational character for children.

Besides the organizations whose interest in recreation is incidental to their main purposes, there have sprung up innumerable clubs and societies concerned with specific recreations. There are in every city, large and small, clubs devoted to athletics, gymnastics, swimming, tennis, badminton, archery, golf, bowling, hiking, hunting, fishing, singing, drama, dancing, collecting of stamps, card playing, gardening, nature study, astronomy, and other recreations and diversions too numerous to mention. The degree of organization of each activity ranges from the informal grouping of a few people who meet occasionally to pursue their common interest to the formal organization with approved constitution and by-laws, playing regulations, rules of eligibility, local, state, and national tournaments, and national headquarters for the promotion and regulation of programs.

The importance of the voluntary association of people for the pursuit of common interests in recreation can hardly be overemphasized. Nearly everyone belongs to one or more groups. These groups multiply the spread of recreational opportunity, they provide an opportunity for social contact, for comparison, for competition, for informal and formal instruction, for setting of standards and for promotion of more and more interest and participation. Their by-products in socialization, formation of public opinion, and dissemination of information are not the least of their values. This form of voluntary heterogeneous organization around the leisure time interests probably constitutes the predominant pattern of organization of American social life and stands in rather striking contrast to the regimentation of leisure time activity which characterizes the organization of life in totalitarian states.

Commercial Recreation and Amusement.

Amusement and recreation have become a commodity to be manufactured, dispensed and sold. If nearly a fourth of the national income is expended upon commodities and services required during leisure it is plain that commercial recreation and amusement and related business enterprises constitute "big business." Transportation (for pleasure), motion pictures and radio are among the country's largest industries. The motion picture industry represents an investment of over two billion dollars. The

number of motion picture theaters in 1931 exceeded 20,000, with a total seating capacity of approximately 11,300,000. The weekly attendance at motion picture theaters in 1930 exceeded 100 million. This would average about one "movie" per week for every person old enough to attend. The number of families having radio sets, according to the 1930 census, was over 12,000,000, or roughly forty per cent of all families.

Commercial dance halls, amusement centers, concert halls, legitimate theaters, cabarets, night clubs, sports arenas, beach clubs and the like, taken together, constitute a vast industry catering to the demand for diversion, entertainment, amusement and recreation of the American people.

Commercial recreation and amusement occupy an important place in the whole scheme of leisure time organization. They offer something for everyone regardless of his tastes or the stage of his cultural advancement. They are both good and bad. Some of the most elevating forms of entertainment as well as the most degrading are offered under commercial sponsorship. The latter are always under attack and under some form of regulation not wholly effective, but there is reason to believe that the general tone has been on the upgrade. It must be remembered that the primary and in most cases the sole aim of commercial recreation and amusement is profit. An establishment must offer "what the people want" if it is to be successful from the pecuniary standpoint.

The gradual improvement of this form of leisure time offering must rest fundamentally upon the improvement of the public taste which is a process of education. In this respect the industry cannot be expected to lift itself by its own bootstraps. The main educational impetus will come from other sources,—the home, the church, and the community and public educational and recreational agencies organized not for profit but for human betterment.

One of the objections frequently offered to commercial recreation and amusement is that it caters almost exclusively to the spectator and does not induce creative participation. It offers largely vicarious experience and cannot be, therefore, the means of full realization of the potential values inherent in the "new leisure."

Community Organizations Contributing to Leisure.

Various types of community organizations are prominent in the promotion of recreation. These differ from the voluntary private agencies previously mentioned in the fact that they are organized for community betterment and draw their support largely from philanthropic sources or community chests, although they depend in part upon membership fees. They are not, strictly speaking, recreational agencies but utilize recreation as a means of enticement and as a program through which their primary aims are accomplished. They include the social settlements, the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, the Hebrew Associations, the Catholic Youth Organization, the Boy Scouts of America, the Girl Scouts of America, the Camp Fire Girls, the Federated Boys' Clubs, and numerous others not affiliated with a national headquarters. The total membership of these agencies is said to exceed 3,500,000 persons.

These agencies are primarily interested in children and youth. Some provide buildings, grounds and equipment for varied recreational activities but all have well formulated programs designed to contribute to the improvement of behavior. They are often spoken of as "character building agencies" but more recently as "group work agencies," the latter term signifying that they employ informal educational techniques in group activity.

The community agencies make an important contribution to American leisure in several ways. Their programs are definitely for the improvement of standards of recreational behavior. They pioneer in new fields of social work which sometimes are later accepted as public functions. (The first playgrounds, for example, were conducted by private social work agencies.) They relate to the work of recreational leadership thousands of adults who assume responsibilities as lay and volunteer workers. This constitutes an educational process in itself which serves to give support to all programs for better recreation.

Public Recreation Agencies.

Public provision for recreation occupies an important place in the whole pattern of organization of leisure in American life. Public recreation does not seek to duplicate the work being done

by other agencies but on the contrary it endeavors to render those services which private, commercial and non-tax-supported community agencies are unable to provide. The public services in recreation are rendered through such facilities as libraries, playgrounds and other recreation centers, and national, state, and local parks. These services, however, are tending to go far beyond the mere provision of physical facilities. They include the organization and promotion of public recreation activities and the supervision of these activities.

Although not usually spoken of in terms of recreation but rather in terms of education, the public library is no doubt an important and widespread public recreation agency. Reading is the most universal form of leisure time activity. The American public library had its origin in 1854 when the city of Boston appropriated $5,000. for library purposes. In 1876 the American Public Library Association was formed, and one hundred and eighty-eight public tax supported libraries were reported. In 1893 the Bureau of Education of the United States Government reported 3,803 public libraries in America each with over 1,000 volumes.[4] In the early years the movement owed much of its growth to the aid given by the Carnegie Foundation. Libraries are now generally supported by public taxation, and there is scarcely a city of 5,000 population or more which does not have its public library. County and state libraries provide library resources for rural districts and small cities.

The older and larger American cities early set aside or accepted gifts of land for local parks. As new town sites were laid out the rule was generally followed at providing a central place at the crossroads which marked the center of the town. The local parks were largely places of assembly but they were improved with landscaping, walks, statuary and benches. They were not considered as places for vigorous play;—on the contrary, they usually were posted with signs prohibiting play in them.

In 1935 the National Park Service, in cooperation with the National Recreation Association, made a study of municipal and county parks in the United States. Twelve hundred communities of 2,500 or more population reported a total area in municipal

[4] U. S. Bureau of Education, *Statistics of Public Libraries*, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1893.

parks and other recreation areas of 381,496 acres.[5] Vast strides have been made by states in setting aside park areas. The Federal Government has likewise established a National Park System and extensive facilities for outdoor recreations in the National Forests.

The park movement in America was, until the beginning of the present century, primarily a movement for the improvement of the aesthetic appearance of certain areas. Apart from the rapid increase in the number of parks the most significant development in the movement recently has been the change in concept of the function of a park. Parks are now considered as places of pleasing and attractive appearance which are set aside for varied types of recreation. Another interesting development has been the establishment of large parks away from the centers of cities and regional parks accessible only by mechanical means of transportation. The local areas formerly considered as neighborhood parks are now thought of more in terms of playgrounds and neighborhood recreation centers.

The establishment of children's playgrounds under municipal auspices marked the beginning of a transition in public recreation from a concern only with the establishment of areas and facilities to the provision of supervision of activities and organization and promotion of recreation programs. The playground movement began in the late eighties when sand gardens were established for small children in Boston (under private sponsorship), and when permission was granted in several cities to play active games in the public parks. By 1900 only a few cities had made provision for public playgrounds but in the past two decades rapid advancement has been made. Now nearly all cities have areas available for play although many do not have highly organized programs.

Writing in 1921 Clarence E. Rainwater traced nine transitions in the play movement, as follows: "(1) From provision for little children to that for all ages of people; (2) from facilities operated during the summer only, to those maintained throughout the year; (3) from outdoor equipment and activities only, to both outdoor and indoor facilities and events; (4) from congested urban districts to both urban and rural communities; (5) from philanthropic to community support and control; (6) from 'free'

[5] Butler, George D., *Municipal and County Parks in the United States, 1935*, Government Printing Office, Washington, 1937, pp. 5, 19.

play and miscellaneous events to 'directed' play with organized activities and correlated schedules; (7) from a simple to a complex field of activities including manual, physical, aesthetic, social and civic projects; (8) from the provision of facilities to the definition of standards for the use of leisure time; (9) from 'individual' interests to 'group' and community activities." [6]

To these transitions may now be added several more: (1) From a "play" movement to a "recreation" movement; (2) from a local municipal movement only, to a state and national movement; (3) from programs detached from public education, to programs integrated with the public education curriculum and system; (4) from organization limited to urban communities to that inclusive of rural areas as well; (5) from an organization largely under quasi-public control with subsidies from public funds, to full acceptance of recreation as a public function.

Preventive Aims of Public Recreation

It is always easier to stimulate public action in terms of prevention than in terms of positive promotion. To prevent or remove conditions which are widely recognized as destructive or devastating appeals readily to everyone. To appreciate a constructive course of action in the direction of ultimate objectives requires a degree of imagination and knowledge of human nature beyond the ordinary capacity. Hence, public recreation is more frequently advocated and defended in terms of its efficacy in preventing bad behavior than in terms of its long range objectives.

Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency.

The most commonly heard aim of public recreation is "the prevention of juvenile delinquency." The claims that supervised recreation programs prevent juvenile delinquency are not without foundation although it is impossible to demonstrate the truth of this assertion by statistical evidence. Law enforcement officers and recreation workers have observed that a well-conducted recreation program for children and youth has a very salutary effect in keeping them occupied in constructive activities, thus reducing the time in which they might drift into activities which are de-

[6] Rainwater, C. E., *The Play Movement in the United States*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1922, p. 192.

structive and anti-social. The establishment of a recreation center in a neighborhood where delinquent tendencies are marked usually has the effect of greatly reducing such tendencies. This result is due, no doubt, not to the influence of the place as such, but rather to the quality of the program, supervision and direction. Unsupervised and undirected public recreation centers have been found to have a contrary effect in that they have become hang-outs for youthful gangs where predatory activities are planned by them. A well-trained, skillful and devoted recreation leader can through the attraction of his program establish rapport with children and youth, including their natural leaders. He can detect misbehavior in the incipient stages and, through the influence of his personality, give positive direction to youthful energies. Anyone who plans and conducts the activities of most interest to children and youth is in a strategic position to enjoy their confidence and to give personal counsel to them. He also becomes aware of conditions in the neighborhood which are detrimental and is able to correct them or cause their removal.

Prevention of Accidents.

Another aim of public recreation is to prevent accidents. The earliest playgrounds were advocated as necessary in order to get the small children off the streets which were becoming unsafe as play places. This continues to be an important aim because in most congested urban communities, the only alternative to outdoor play on a playground is the public street. The recreation center goes farther than this, however, for it eliminates the most dangerous practices in play, provides safe equipment and by developing skill in play avoids accidents due to awkwardness. Modern recreation systems make continuous studies of causes of accidents on the public areas and devise means for their removal.

Objectives of Public Recreation

Public recreation has a higher reason for its existence and support than the prevention of a less satisfactory condition. A list of its positive objectives would include physical, mental and emotional health, self-realization, social adjustment, cultural evolution, good citizenship, democracy, joy and happiness. Recognition of these important attributes of social progress and the contribution

which recreation may make to them is what justifies the inclusion of recreation among the functions of government. Public recreation shares with other institutions the responsibility for the progressive realization of these objectives which may be summed up in terms of the "good life."

Health.

There are many factors which contribute positively to the development of health. Among them is joyous activity. Certain recreations which induce vigorous muscular activity in amounts suited to the needs of the individual, and with regularity, contribute to the development of functional power and endurance, and also have an important hygienic effect. Of no less importance from the standpoint of health is the emotional release which nearly all recreation affords and the effect of joyousness in activity upon the organism through the functioning of the endocrine glands.

Public recreation seeks to provide recreation, largely in the out-of-doors, because of the appreciation of its health building and health conserving values. The programs of public recreation for children are designed in part to counteract the effects of sedentary school occupation and the strains of school life. In vacation days public recreation affords an opportunity for continuation of health habits formed during the school term and seeks to make the most of the summer season for the purpose of individual development. For adults the program aims to complement the activity which the individual engages in as a vocation. It supplies that form of exercise and mental and emotional occupation which is missing in work. It thus contributes to the development of the whole man.

Self-Realization.

The limitations placed upon the individual by the scope of self-expression in his gainful occupation enhance the importance of recreation and provides an objective toward which recreation may contribute. More and more, people must depend upon their recreation for the continuation of the developmental processes begun during childhood. When a vocation is entered a limited range of skills will tend to be employed,—the rest should con-

tinue to find expression and further development in recreation. Public recreation, through such activities as it may properly provide, creates an opportunity for balanced development and for a continuation of education in lines pursued not for utilitarian purposes but for self-realization, pure satisfaction and joy.

The impulses which are the basis for creative art, music, literature and drama are to be found in everyone to a variable degree. Potentially everyone is an artist, musician, interpreter and dramatist. There is no more thrilling experience for the individual than to discover some modicum of creative capacity in one of these fields. People may literally be born anew by such discoveries in their recreational experience. Through well-planned leisure-time programs opportunities for discovery of latent talent may be created and a new type of art patron developed, namely, one who has had personal experience in the arts and whose appreciation of the creative efforts of others is, therefore, more real. For too long the development of art has been left to the professionals. Through planned leisure, art may be restored to the amateurs and a real folk art may emerge. This will make for a happier people.

Social Adjustment.

Through recreation a person may find for himself a satisfying place among his fellows. He may cultivate the basic human virtues of courage, justice, patience, tolerance and fairness. He may learn to live happily among his fellows, to make his contribution to the good of all and to feel that he is wanted and appreciated. These are basic needs of the social animal. In playing together people learn to live together and to be adjusted to the ramified and complex relationships which society imposes upon them.

Cultural Evolution.

It has been pointed out by Lindeman that the "basic patterns of culture revolve about human behavior as expressed in (a) ways of performing work, (b) organizing family and communal affairs, (c) worship, (d) training the young, and (e) occupying leisure time." [7] The role played by each of these fields has not been

[7] Lindeman, E. C., "Youth and Leisure," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, New York, November 1937.

constant throughout history. As leisure increases it is certain that its role will increase. Endowed with abundant leisure the American people have an opportunity to develop a superior national culture.

Heretofore, the total amount of leisure has not only been small in quantity but it has been the possession of the few. Now it is a universal possession. There are those who question whether the American people will prove themselves equal to the opportunity which this heritage bestows upon them by using this leisure for the improvement of the national culture, or whether through its misuse the culture will be profaned. Civilization according to H. G. Wells is a race between the forces of education and disaster. Public recreation as a part of education in the broadest sense may play an important part in this race.

Good Citizenship.

Wherever steps have been taken to establish local recreation they have been advocated and defended in terms of their value in developing good citizenship. The advocates have had in mind the fact that preoccupation with recreation activities of a safe type precludes participation in anti-social activities. They have also assumed that children in supervised games and other play acquire virtuous qualities which influence their general behavior. Recreation if properly supervised unquestionably creates situations through which wholesome attitudes are caught and habits of social conduct established.

Whether there may be expected much transfer of learning from recreation situations to other situations in life may be questioned in the light of modern psychology. Regardless of this it must be recognized that good citizenship in recreation alone is in itself an important part of one's whole responsibility insofar as his citizenship is concerned. If recreation is to occupy a major portion of the time of people it is important that such recreation be in accord with accepted principles of social behavior.

Democracy.

In a democracy good citizenship implies an ability to live democratically and to employ the democratic processes in many aspects of living. As a way of living democracy may be taught in

recreation. In recreation the essential dignity and worth of the individual is recognized. He is accorded a place commensurate with his capacity and his willingness to serve. His success is determined by his ability to cooperate with others. He must recognize the rules of the game. As an individual, he may choose his recreation, the time he devotes to it, and his companions; and yet, full enjoyment of his recreation requires submission to the collective choices and to the self-imposed laws. This is the essence of democracy. If it becomes the rule of life in recreation it will be difficult to follow another principle in other departments of living. Recreation in America is in conformity with the democratic ideal and fosters its general acceptance and application.

As the economic, civic and social organization has become more complex, requiring increasing regimentation of people even in a democracy, the freedom which people may still enjoy in leisure stands out in bold relief. The democratic principle of freedom strongly persists in leisure. The same necessity for regimentation in productive industry does not exist in leisure, although a danger is always present that the people might unwittingly yield this freedom to self-appointed or elected dictators. Dictators in totalitarian nations have demonstrated how leisure may be organized to serve the will of the dictator and the purposes of the state. The Declaration of Independence of the thirteen original colonies of the United States declared that "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness" are among "certain inalienable rights" with which "all men are endowed by their Creator." The right to pursue happiness in leisure must be considered a basic principle in American democracy. In protecting this principle in leisure the democratic ideal is sustained.

It is this concept of freedom in leisure which imposes upon society the necessity of educating the people for leisure. Democracy has been said to contain the seeds of its own destruction. This is true in relation to leisure. The individual may freely neglect to take advantage of leisure for purposes of growth and development; he may even waste it in vulgarity and debauchery. He may destroy his body and mind and his finer sensibilities by excesses in leisure and through ill-chosen recreations.

Joy and Happiness.

It is not necessary to justify recreation as a means of accomplishing preconceived objectives. It is true that the objectives which have been mentioned flow from recreation when it is rightly planned. But the recreator is not always conscious of them. Accomplishment of objectives is somewhat impeded by too serious contemplation of them by the subject. He is primarily interested in the *affect* and only incidentally in the *effect* of the experience. The affective state of happiness is, therefore, the primary objective of recreation.

This truth must be recognized in planning public recreation. At the same time it is necessary to discriminate between levels of enjoyment. There must be an effort to improve the quality of appreciation and response. This raises the inevitable question as to whether a public recreation agency should provide a program in accord with "what the people want" or "what the people should have." This question is usually answered in the legislative action which gave original authorization for creation of the agency or inauguration of the program. State enabling acts authorizing the establishment of systems of public recreation frequently set forth the purposes of the legislature in enacting the legislation, and are usually stated in terms of public welfare. The view may be justified, therefore, that it is the duty of a public recreation agency to offer facilities and a program of activities which will tend to accomplish the desired social objectives. At the same time the facilities and program must meet with public approval or participation in the activities will not eventuate. The problem is one of providing facilities and programs which induce participation in activities that contribute to desired objectives, in a manner the immediate and primary outcome of which is joy and happiness. This, of course, calls for the highest skill in planning and leadership.

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II

RECREATION AS A FUNCTION OF GOVERNMENT

THE growth of recreation as a function of government represents one of the interesting public developments of the present century. Previously regarded as purely the prerogative of the individual citizen in his private capacity recreation is now considered a field of human activity in which the government should manifest concern and render some aid. Under the police power inherent in the sovereign authority of organized government recreation activities which were deemed to be harmful and destructive have for many years been regulated and prohibited. The laws prohibiting certain recreations on the sabbath and laws regulating hunting, fishing, prize fighting and gambling, are examples in point. Only in the present century, however, has government in the United States gone generally beyond the province of regulation, control and prohibition to assume a more positive function of "promoting the general welfare" through recreation.

The recent activities of government in the field of recreation have not been undertaken for the purpose of interfering with the rights of individual citizens, but on the contrary they have been pursued with the object in view of expanding the scope of recreational experiences of the people and equalizing opportunities for wholesome recreation. Certain activities recognized as of wide interest and value require cooperative endeavor beyond the power of individual citizens to command. Some do not lend themselves to commercial enterprise and are still of such value that a beneficent government can ill afford to neglect them. Still others cannot be entrusted wholly to commercial agencies with frequently attendant disregard for the needs and capacities of the individual. There are activities which are of such general concern that the provision of them through the means of public taxation appears

to be the most economical and expeditious way of making them available to all. While recreation must remain largely a matter of individual initiative and a proper field for commercial enterprise, in some respects it is also a legitimate field for governmental activity, not only in the regulatory and prohibitory sense, but also for positive promotion of a state of general well being.

Attention to recreation on the part of the body politic has not been limited to local municipal governments but county, state and federal governments have likewise been active in the field. In the Federal Government thirty-five units in twelve departments are engaged in promoting programs affecting the citizens' use of leisure time. These programs include the conservation of national resources to be used for recreation; maintenance and administration of recreation areas within the national forests, parks and other land preserves; surveys of recreational needs and facilities within the several states; providing recreational leadership in communities which are distinctly under federal control in local matters, such as Indian reservations, suburban and rural resettlement communities, etc.; furnishing information concerning recreation through correspondence, publications and conferences; furnishing employment under local sponsorship for construction of recreational facilities and leadership of recreation programs.

The activities of the Federal Government in recreation are largely incidental to the performance of a primary function for which an agency was originally created. For example, the Extension Service of the Agriculture Department offers advisory recreational service to the Extension Service of the states, twenty-nine of which employ specialists in rural organization, recreation and sociology. The larger part of the permanent activity of the Federal Government in the recreation field is in relation to the provision of regional opportunities for recreation as distinguished from local recreation facilities and programs. The regional facilities are intended largely for the use of people who travel a distance beyond the reaches of their home communities and are visited by individuals on more or less infrequent occasions.

The states have likewise been primarily concerned with regional areas for recreation included within state parks, forests and game preserves and on the shores of oceans and lakes. Forty-three of the states have established state park systems whereas prior to

1900 only one state had made a significant start in this direction. There has been a similar growth of interest in counties which, like the states, have established in many places regional facilities for recreation.

The municipalities, on the other hand, have concerned themselves principally with the establishment of local areas and facilities for frequent use of the residents of their urban neighborhoods and communities. They have also given more attention than the larger governmental subdivisions to the development of programs of recreation and have recognized the importance of organization and supervision of recreation and leadership of people in activities. Local recreation as thus conducted is denoted "community recreation." Some indication of the extent to which cities have adopted community recreation as a function of local government may be inferred from the fact that over twelve hundred cities in America in 1939 reported some organized public activities in this field.

Community Recreation as a Local Governmental Function.

Community recreation, insofar as it has gained recognition as a legitimate function of government, has, like education, been considered largely a matter of local prerogative. The Federal Government has not assumed direct responsibility for local community recreation nor has it thus far offered grants in aid to states for local recreation. The activities of the Works Progress Administration in offering local supervision and leadership of recreation activities should not be regarded as a departure from this principle because they were justified exclusively as a measure of affording work relief to unemployed persons and have been on an emergency and avowedly temporary basis. Moreover, it has been the consistent policy of the Works Progress Administration to work through local governmental sponsors. Nevertheless, the continued assistance of the Federal Government in this field may be indicative of a tendency to break down the traditional distinction between local functions within the several states and federal functions.

State Powers in Relation to Recreation.

The power and authority of the several states to provide for public recreation is inherent in the sovereign power of the states. All powers not expressly bestowed on the Federal Government "were reserved to the states respectively or to the people." The sovereign states may perform any functions which their citizens bestow upon them, subject only to the powers reserved to the Federal Government under the United States Constitution. Although none of the constitutions of the forty-eight states mentions recreation the provision of recreation as a means of promoting the general welfare of the people within a state has never been seriously questioned.

Like the Federal Government, state governments have not as yet undertaken to provide directly for local recreation. Their activities have been limited to regional services and areas. They have, however, delegated powers with reference to recreation to local jurisdictions, principally to cities, although some states have granted similar powers to school districts and to counties.

Municipal Powers and Functions.

One of the powers reserved to the several states is the power to provide for local government. Cities in America are fundamentally subordinate to the state. Their powers are conferred in the form of charters which are authorized or granted by the state and which give the cities their corporate existence. Incorporation is an act of the legislature by which the citizens of the city, organized in their municipal government, are constituted as a single legal entity, the municipal corporation, which has standing in court and which can sue and be sued. Thus, when a city is sued in court it is not the numerous citizens who are sued but the incorporated city. The corporation may acquire and hold property in perpetuity and may make contracts; and it continues its legal life until dissolved, even though its citizens come and go. Control of municipal government rests with state legislatures, but during the present century there has been a strong tendency toward municipal home rule under which the cities are permitted to enact laws of local application and to draft and enact local charters. Home rule consists essentially in the power to make and

amend the municipal charter. Sixteen states have provided for municipal home rule in more or less complete fashion. In other states the powers of cities are exercised under state statutes or charters drawn up and granted by the state governments.

The right of any city to organize, promote, conduct and otherwise provide for recreation rests upon the powers granted to the city by the general state laws or the city charter or through the general provisions of home rule. Strictly speaking a municipal corporation, "possesses, and can exercise, the following powers, and no others: first, those granted in express words; second, those necessarily or fairly implied in, or incident to, the powers expressly granted; third, those essential to the accomplishment of the declared objects and purposes of the corporation, not simply convenient but indispensable." [1] This rule is quite uniformly and strictly followed although there is a tendency in recent years to apply it liberally.

New functions are assumed by local governments in response to public demand. Sometimes the demand is expressed in unmistakable form through an initiative or referendum vote of the electorate. More frequently it is expressed by a minority group of citizens, of more or less influence, who are insistent that the government take steps to meet a public need which they point out. The first steps taken to meet the need are seemingly of little consequence and involve inconsiderable funds. They are viewed frequently as experimental measures or as demonstrations. If they prove successful and meet with general approval they usually lead to steps of more and greater consequence.

Recreation as a New Function.

In many cities the inauguration of certain activities in recreation, which gave rise to the subsequent establishment of a department to administer them, took place in response to an expressed demand on the part of individual citizens and civic groups in the city. Frequently the specific act which launched the municipality upon the recreational venture consisted in the purchase of a piece of land for a playground, the improvement of land already owned for play, or the employment of a play

[1] Dillon, J. F., *Commentaries on the Law of Municipal Corporations*, Vol. 1, Sec. 33, Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 1927.

director in a public park. Having taken a number of such steps the establishment by ordinance or by amendment to the city charter of a bureau in an already existing department, or the establishment of a separate department of playgrounds or recreation, followed in due course.

Community recreation is distinctly a twentieth century movement. Prior to 1900 only eleven of the hundred largest cities in the United States had begun to provide playgrounds for children. In all of the eleven cities the playgrounds were open only in the summer months. They were supported with few exceptions by philanthropy and administered by private playground associations; but occasionally public appropriations were made to aid in their support. In several cities the playground activities sponsored by private playground associations were conducted on park and school lands. Boston, where the first playground was established in 1882, was the first city to make provision for children's playgrounds with Philadelphia, Pittsburgh and Chicago following in the order named. The first municipal playground commission was authorized and appointed by the city of Los Angeles in 1904. By 1907 fifty-seven cities reported playgrounds.[2] In thirty-eight of the cities municipal funds were provided for their operation. The total funds expended that year for playground maintenance in all cities was less than one million dollars. By 1937 seven hundred and two cities had established playgrounds and other recreation facilities supported by regular local tax appropriations totaling more than twenty million dollars for operation and maintenance alone, not including land acquisition and improvement.[3]

Recreation Enabling Acts.

The power of local jurisdictions, i.e., cities, townships, school districts and counties, to conduct recreation is usually implied in various general powers granted to them without specific mention of recreation. The power has been interpreted as incidental to other powers. For example, the power to acquire and improve parks has been interpreted as power to do all things incidental to

[2] Playground Association of America, *Year Book: Issue of Recreation*, 1908, pp. 372-384.

[3] National Recreation Association, *Year Book: Issue of Recreation*, June, 1937. These statistics do not include expenditures exclusively for parks as distinguished from playgrounds.

the operation of parks. In many states steps to provide for community recreation have been taken by incorporated cities without the existence of special enabling legislation. Few occasions have arisen in which such steps have been seriously challenged. In many cases, however, local governments have deferred action in the absence of specific enabling legislation. The failure of some state legislatures to pass enabling acts for recreation has often furnished reluctant local authorities a convenient excuse for not yielding to public pressure to make provision for local recreation.

This handicap to more rapid growth of community recreation as a universal local function is gradually being removed. Twenty-eight states so far have passed recreation enabling acts and similar acts are under consideration in many others.

Nature of Enabling Legislation.

Enabling legislation so far enacted embodies the following authorizations or provisions:

1. Authorization for the local governments to exercise the powers conferred.
2. Authorization for establishment of a particular agency within the local governmental structure to exercise the powers conferred.
3. Specification in detail of particular powers which may be exercised.
4. Provision of the means to be employed in financing the powers to be performed.
5. Provision of the means whereby the powers authorized to be performed may be initiated.
6. Authorization of certain joint exercise of powers by two or more local agencies, or coordination of, and cooperation between, certain authorities.

Authorization for Local Government to Exercise Powers.

Such authorization is sometimes generally extended to several types of local government in more or less inclusive terms as in the West Virginia Act which provides, "That any city, town, county, independent school district or school district may establish and conduct a system of public recreation and playgrounds, etc." [4]

[4] West Virginia Act authorizing establishment of recreation and playgrounds, passed April 3, 1925.

Sometimes in an act authorization is granted to a specified division of local government as in an Illinois Act which provided that "the Board of Education of any city having a population exceeding 100,000 inhabitants shall take control and management of all public playgrounds now owned or hereafter acquired by any such city which are adjacent to or connected with any public school in such city and shall equip, maintain and operate the same for moral, intellectual and physical welfare of the children and persons using them, etc." [5]

Designation of a Particular Agency.

It is not uncommon for enabling acts to authorize the establishment of a particular agency within the local government, such as a recreation commission, to administer the powers conferred. The Alabama Act provides that "there shall be, within sixty days from the approval of this Act, in all cities now having a population of one hundred thousand or more according to the last Federal census, established and constituted in accordance with the terms of this section, a permanent 'park and recreation board' for such city, etc." [6]

Frequently the local governing body is authorized to assign the exercise of the conferred powers to any convenient body. Such authorization is found in the Florida Act: "The governing body of any such municipality or county may—vest the power to provide, maintain and conduct playgrounds, recreation centers and other recreation activities and facilities in the school board, park board or other existing body or in a playground and recreation board as the governing body may determine." [7]

When an act authorizes the creation of a particular agency it usually specifies how the agency shall be appointed or elected, the number of members who are to serve upon it and what their terms of office shall be.

[5] "An act to provide for the control operation and maintenance of playgrounds by boards of educations in cities having a population exceeding 100,000 inhabitants." Approved by Illinois State Legislature June 28, 1921.

[6] An Act to provide for the establishment, etc., of parks, park areas, recreation facilities and activities . . . etc. Alabama, Approved September 29, 1923.

[7] An Act empowering cities, towns and counties to equip and operate playgrounds and recreation centers. Florida, passed June, 1925.

Specification of Particular Powers.

Recreation enabling acts are usually quite specific in designation of powers which may be exercised. The New York State law is probably more specific and inclusive than most laws. It authorizes: (1) "the setting apart for use of playgrounds or neighborhood recreation centers any land or building owned by such municipality and not dedicated or devoted to other inconsistent public use"; (2) acquisition of "land for such purposes by gift, private purchase or by condemnation"; (3) lease of "land or buildings for temporary use for such purposes"; (4) equipping such "playgrounds and recreation centers, and the buildings thereon"; and "constructing, maintaining and operating in connection therewith public baths and swimming pools." [8]

Provision for Finance.

The customary financial provision in state enabling acts consists in authorization to local authorities having power to appropriate money to appropriate or cause to be raised by taxation a sufficient sum to carry out the provisions of the acts. The Alabama Act provides more specifically for the financing of the power it confers by authorizing that a special tax may be levied and collected, that in the event no special tax is levied an appropriation of not less than fifty thousand dollars must be made by the governing body of the city and that this appropriation must be deposited to the credit of the "park and recreation fund." The provision by state law of such a fund is also unique. The law further provides that "reasonable fees or charges for access to or use or enjoyment of any playgrounds, recreation centers, recreational activities or other places of recreation . . . may be charged and collected, all funds received from such sources to be paid into and become a part of the park and recreation fund of such city." Acceptance of gifts, bequests of money or other property is also authorized.[9]

Borrowing of funds through the issuance of bonds is occasionally authorized in enabling acts. Such authorization is contained in the New York act which stipulates that "local authorities may

[8] Law granting authority to cities and counties to equip and operate playgrounds; New York State, passed 1917 and amended 1920, 1922, 1924.

[9] Alabama, *op. cit.*

provide that the bonds of such municipality may be issued in the manner provided by law for the acquisition of lands or buildings for playgrounds or neighborhood recreation centers, subject, however, to the adoption of a proposition therefore at a municipal election, if the adoption of such a proposition is for public purposes generally." [10]

Initiation of Powers Conferred.

Anticipating that reluctant local authorities may refuse to take advantage of the enabling acts, legislatures in some states have provided a means whereby such authorities may be compelled to submit the question to the electorate. In Florida a petition signed by five per cent of the registered and qualified voters, and in New York five per cent of the number of voters who voted at the last election for governor, is sufficient to require the submission of the proposition including a tax or appropriation for carrying it out.

The provision of means for submission to the voters of a proposition to establish a recreation system is of questionable value. The existence of such a provision tends to relieve the members of a governing body of a city of the necessity of making the decision themselves. It is usually more difficult to organize and conduct a successful campaign to inform the electorate of the need for a system of recreation than to obtain the favorable action of the members of a governing board. If there is sufficient public opinion to win a favorable expression from the mass of the voters it is probably more than adequate to persuade a board that the desired action should be taken.

Joint Exercise of Power.

Recreation activities are extremely diversified and frequently in the same city two or more agencies representing different arms of local government may render recreation services of similar kinds. This necessitates, for the avoidance of duplication of services, the closest possible coordination of and cooperation between the local agencies involved. Power to effect such coordination and cooperation is often conferred in enabling legislation. The Utah act provides a good illustration of such authorization: "Any board of

[10] New York, *op. cit.*

education of any school district may join with any city, town or county in purchasing, equipping, operating and maintaining playgrounds, athletic fields, gymnasiums, baths, swimming pools and other recreational facilities and activities, and may appropriate money therefore." [11]

Provision for State Supervision.

As a general rule state acts do not provide for state supervision of local agencies authorized to conduct recreation. One notable exception in this respect is the Minnesota Recreation Enabling Act which provides as follows:

"In all cases where school funds are utilized, the state board of education shall:

(1) Establish minimum qualification of local recreation directors and instructors;

(2) Prepare or cause to be prepared, published and distributed adequate and appropriate manuals and other materials as it may deem necessary or suitable to carry out the provisions of the act." [12]

The California Community Recreation Act also empowers the State Department of Education to assist local jurisdictions in carrying out the provisions of the act. This authorization is not limited to public school jurisdictions but extends also to municipal and county governments. "The State Department of Education may, upon request of any public authority other than school districts, advise and assist such authority in establishing, developing and maintaining a system or systems of recreation in accordance with the provisions of this act." [13]

Mere passage of enabling legislation does not necessarily insure that local jurisdictions will readily invoke the powers conferred upon them. In fact, in some states which have no direct enabling legislation, there are outstanding examples of meritorious local developments, and on the other hand some states which have

[11] Utah Recreation Enabling Act from revised statutes of Utah, 1933; Title 72.

[12] Minnesota Recreation Enabling Act, No. 672, Ch. 23, April 16, 1937.

[13] California Community Recreation Enabling Act, Approved June 15, 1939.

splendid enabling acts have been backward in taking advantage of the enabling legislation.

Provisions for state advisory assistance to local jurisdictions would facilitate the orderly and more rapid development of local programs. Eventually it is not inconceivable that states will establish departments or bureaus to supervise certain local agencies engaged in recreation work and to assist them in conducting suitable programs of recreation. Similar supervisory and advisory assistance is rendered in the field of public health by state health departments and in agriculture by state departments of agriculture. Other analagous examples could be cited.

Insofar as the public school districts undertake recreation work under enabling acts it is proper that state supervision of them should be assigned to the state department of education. It is significant to note that the only states which provide for state advisory assistance, Minnesota and California, authorize such assistance to be rendered by the state education department.

Recreation and School Codes.

The foregoing discussion of state legislation for local recreation refers primarily to general enabling acts which permit cities and other jurisdictions of local government to establish systems of community recreation. Some of these acts include reference to schools and boards of education. There is other legislation in many states which affects exclusively the public schools and which authorizes school boards to perform certain functions in respect to community recreation. School legislation is usually considered somewhat apart from legislation affecting the cities as municipal corporations because the school districts are not separate corporations but are subdivisions of the state. This distinction is of fundamental importance to a proper understanding of the problem of community recreation in the American city and it explains why municipal and school programs of community service are difficult to coordinate and almost impossible to consolidate.

Many state legislatures have, since the beginning of the present century, passed legislation permitting the school buildings and grounds to be used for cultural, educational, recreational, civic and, in some cases, religious and political activities. Legislative enactments of this kind have generally inferred that the school

board assumed no more responsibility than to tolerate such uses under certain regulatory provisions. Other acts have authorized assumption of more complete responsibility for promotion, organization and supervision of recreational activities on school premises. Nearly always these acts provide that the recreational uses shall not interfere with the educational purposes of the schools. The Massachusetts act of 1923 is a clear example of liberal legislation authorizing schools to function in the sphere of community recreation. This act provides as follows:

"*Public uses of school property.* For the purposes of promoting the usefulness of public school property the school committee of any town may conduct such educational and recreational activities in or upon school property under its control, and subject to such regulation as it may establish and constantly and without interference with the use of the premises for school purposes, shall allow the use thereof by individuals and associations for such educational, recreational, social, civic, philanthropic, and like purposes as it deems for the interest of the community. The use of such property as a place of assemblage for citizens to hear candidates for public office shall be considered a civic purpose within the meaning of this section. (This section shall not apply to Boston.)" [14]

The extent to which states have enacted legislation affecting the powers of boards of education in relation to the use of school facilities for community recreation and the conduct of community recreation programs is indicated in Table I.

Legislation for Parks.

The acquisition, improvement and maintenance of parks is a function which is more deeply rooted in the traditional functions of local government than recreation. Enabling state legislation for parks may be presumed to include recreation insofar as the nature of the recreation is not inconsistent with "park purposes." Courts throughout the states have consistently held that land deeded to municipalities for park purposes may be used for playgrounds, swimming pools, community centers and similar facilities. It is rapidly coming to be recognized that parks are established essen-

[14] Massachusetts General Laws, Relating to Education, 1927, p. 26, Ch. 71, Sec. 71.

TABLE I

STATE LEGISLATION REGARDING USE OF SCHOOL FACILITIES FOR COMMUNITY RECREATION [a]

	Local boards of education may		
	Permit use of facilities by outside agencies	*Conduct Community Recreation programs*	*Cooperate with municipal agencies in establishing programs*
California	x	x	x
Connecticut			x
District of Columbia		x [b]	x
Florida		x	
Georgia			x
Idaho		x	
Illinois		x [c]	
Indiana [d]	x	x	x
Iowa	x		
Kansas		x	
Kentucky		x [b]	
Maryland	x		
Massachusetts [e]	x	x	x
Michigan		x	x
Minnesota	x	x	x
New Jersey [f]	x	x	x
New York	x	x	x
Ohio	x	x	x
Oklahoma	x	x	
Oregon		x	
Pennsylvania	x	x	x
Rhode Island			x
South Dakota	x		
Utah	x	x	x
Virginia	x		
Washington	x	x	
West Virginia	x	x	
Wisconsin	x	x	x
Wyoming			x

[a] Adapted from chart published by Office of Education, U. S. Dept. of the Interior, in Pamphlet No. 10, June 1930, p. 29.

[b] May permit use of school property as community centers.

[c] Limited to cities having a population of 100,000 or more.

[d] Excepts cities of the second class.

[e] Applies to the entire state except Boston.

[f] Boards of education also permitted to use and supervise parts of parks for school activities.

tially for recreation. "The fundamental term to use in describing parks is 'recreation.' If the major use to which a piece of so-called park property is given is not 'recreation' then it ceases to be fundamentally a park." [15] As will be seen in a later chapter, however, the recreation function broadly considered includes more than the establishment and operation of facilities; namely, the promotion and organization of a program of activities. Consequently, to avoid any question as to whether the recreational function in all its ramifications is included in the authority to establish parks, it is advisable for states to enact specific legislation for recreation.

Governmental and Proprietary Functions.

The functions which government performs are considered to be either governmental or proprietary in character. Governmental functions are those performed by the state in its sovereign capacity, or by any subdivision acting for the state, which are essential for the protection of the state and for the general welfare. Proprietary functions are those which public corporations, such as municipal corporations, perform in their separate corporate capacities, which are not performed for the people of the state generally but optionally for the corporation itself and its people. Thus, public education, care of indigents, law enforcement, fire protection and public health regulation are generally held to be governmental functions, whereas the construction of streets, bridges and sewers, the collection of refuse and the operation of water, gas, electric and other public utilities are generally held to be proprietary functions. The distinction is not easily stated because there is no established rule to determine in which category a particular function falls. It is a distinction which originated in the courts. In its application to particular typical cases there is wide divergence of judicial opinion.

The distinction is of important significance in connection with public park and recreation work because courts have held generally that no liability attaches to a municipality or its employees and agents when it acts in its governmental capacity, but that liability might exist if it acts in a proprietary capacity. Whether

[15] Doell & Thompson, *Public Park Policies*, A. M. Chester, Minneapolis, 1930; p. 26.

park and recreation work is governmental or proprietary in character is a moot question. There have been many decisions on both sides by courts of nearly all states. Those leaning toward the proprietary interpretation take the view, in general, that in the particular case the municipality was not acting for the state or for the people at large but on the contrary was acting in an optional manner for its own benefit. Decisions interpreting the work as governmental have generally pointed out that the benefits of the work were not restricted to the inhabitants of the municipality and that parks and recreation have not been regarded traditionally as functions of private enterprise.

The effect of making charges for park and recreation service has had some influence upon court decisions. Where the charges were of an incidental character and were not established for the purpose of conducting the activity at a profit to the municipality, they were not interpreted as changing the nature of the function. On the other hand where charges have consistently produced a profit this fact has tended to result in interpretation of the function as proprietary.

The wide divergence of legal opinion in regard to this subject is revealed in a study made by Arthur W. Williams of the National Recreation Association in which he endeavored to classify the states according to the nature of judicial opinion therein. The following is quoted from Mr. Williams' study: [16]

"A study of court decisions has been made and competent local legal opinion has been gathered and analyzed in attempt to classify the several states as to whether they are governmental or proprietary states. Specific references to court decisions have been traced for thirty-six states and the District of Columbia. These decisions indicate that of these thirty-six states, twenty-one and the District of Columbia are governmental, fourteen are proprietary and one doubtful. In classifying a state as governmental it has been considered so if the work is broadly considered governmental even though certain factors, such as fees and charges, may affect the status of the particular facilities or activities concerned. States which have held cities liable for accidents are considered here as

[16] Williams, Arthur W., *Is Park and Recreation Service a Governmental or Proprietary Function of Municipal Government?* Bulletin M. P. No. 149, National Recreation Association, May 1932.

proprietary even though the decisions are not always based on the type of function. Delaware has been considered doubtful although two of three previous studies of court cases have declared it to be governmental, and one proprietary.

"The governmental function states appear to be:

Alabama	Kansas	North Carolina
California	Kentucky	North Dakota
Connecticut	Louisiana	Rhode Island
District of Columbia	Massachusetts	Tennessee
Georgia	Michigan	Utah
Illinois	Minnesota	Washington
Iowa	Nebraska	Wisconsin
	New Jersey	

"The proprietary function states appear to be:

Colorado	New York	South Carolina
Idaho	Ohio	South Dakota
Indiana	Oklahoma	Texas
Mississippi	Pennsylvania	West Virginia
Missouri		Wyoming

"In addition to the above, the preponderance of legal opinion would indicate that the following three states can reasonably be considered in the governmental function classification even though the question has not as yet been passed upon by the highest courts of these states: Arizona, Arkansas and Virginia; Delaware might also be added to these probables.

"Sufficient evidence has not been unearthed to justify an attempt to classify the following nine states and it is wise probably to classify them as uncertain in this respect:

Florida	Montana	New Mexico
Maine	Nevada	Oregon
Maryland	New Hampshire	Vermont"

The operation of parks and recreation centers may in general be considered in the majority of states a governmental function, but a particular activity may be interpreted as a proprietary func-

tion. A department, for example, might operate an amusement park which produces consistently a profit and which could be shown in general to be an enterprise not wholly limited in practice to public agencies but also a field for private initiative. Courts might conceivably hold that in so doing the department was acting in a proprietary capacity while in general its other activities were of a governmental character.

Liability for Accidents.

The theory upon which municipalities are held to be free of tort liability when operating in a governmental capacity is that to hold them liable would place a deterrent upon the performance by them of an essential governmental duty. Taxes are assessed and raised for definite governmental purposes and to divert them to the payment of damage claims arising out of necessary governmental duties would impair municipalities in the performance of those duties. The trend, however, in recent years has been gradually to remove special immunity heretofore enjoyed by municipal corporations in this regard. Even though operating in a governmental capacity municipal corporations are not absolved from liability in the maintenance of what is known in law as "an attractive nuisance."

Even though not protected from liability by reason of the nature of the function performed it should be pointed out that the municipality, its agents and employees can be held to be liable only under conditions which would make a private citizen liable, namely, in the event of negligence. A responsible citizen theoretically is always liable for his own negligence. In the case of members of governing boards courts have consistently held that reasonable diligence in delegating and assigning duties to employees is sufficient to absolve them of personal liability. With respect to existence of an attractive nuisance, it must be shown that prior notice was had of the condition before liability could be imputed to members of boards for the existence and continuance of the attractive nuisance.

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III

ORGANIZATION OF THE FUNCTION OF RECREATION

THE decision determining the exact type of organization of recreation in any city is usually one of expediency. The new-born infant in the municipal family is not always wanted by an established department which is either inexperienced in caring for it or which is having sufficient difficulty in obtaining budgetary funds to support the services for which it is already responsible. Sometimes an insistent minority pressure group demands the establishment of a wholly new department for recreation feeling that if the function is assigned to an already existing department it will get scant attention. There have been many cases in which the establishment of a new department was determined upon as a last resort. Citizens interested in having playgrounds provided for children sought first to have the school department enlarge, open and supervise the school grounds after school hours and during vacation periods. They also sought to have portions of parks similarly used under direction of the park department. Failing in both efforts there seemed to be no alternative but to advocate the creation of a special department exclusively for operation of playgrounds and organization of community recreation activities.

That the form of government for the administration of recreation in cities is not uniform is not to be wondered at in view of the great lack of standardized administration of all municipal functions throughout the nation. There is much discussion among recreation executives as to whether recreation is administered best under a special recreation department, under a park department or under a board of education. The answer to this question is that there is no best plan of organization. All have their advantages and disadvantages and what is best for any city depends upon many local conditions.

The establishment of separate departments of recreation in many cities has probably contributed to the more rapid development of the function of municipal recreation than would otherwise have occurred. Departments charged with a special and clearly differentiated function usually give its development more consideration than those which have other functions to perform and which are likely to view the new function as something secondary to the performance of the old. Moreover the special departments are freer to undertake experiments and are less bound by traditional practice. Such departments are more militant and aggressive in the defense of their function during times of stress and of retrenchment than are those in which recreation is a mere appendage.

In a study published by the National Recreation Association in 1938 the following conclusions were stated: "Between 1923 and 1933 the numbers of paid recreation leaders, playgrounds and indoor centers increased much more rapidly in cities with recreation boards than under other types of recreation agencies. In the early depression years, 1930-1933, recreation boards made by far the best showing in maintaining appropriations for leadership and in the number of leaders, playgrounds and centers. In 1933, 49% of the city manager cities over 30,000 had year round recreation programs as compared with 42% of the mayor-council and 37% of the commission governed cities; 40% of the recreation agencies in city manager cities were Recreation Boards." [1]

Trend Toward Standardization.

During the past decade there has been an unmistakable tendency toward more effective organization and better integration of the several functions of municipal government. This has been due to a number of factors. The universal expansion of municipal functions and services since the beginning of the present century resulted in the creation of so many new departments and bureaus that consolidation of many for efficient administration was inevitable. The economic depression and the insistent demand for tax reduction dictated a necessity for more economical administration and elimination of duplication in services. The trend of growth of certain public departments, notably those concerned with educa-

[1] National Recreation Association, *Recreation*, January 1938.

tion, adult education, library service, park operation and recreation, has been such that, with respect to some of these activities, certain similarities have developed. With respect to other services of these agencies there are no similarities. This situation has indicated the desirability of bringing about greater coordination through more effective organization. The present lack of standardization of organization may be more or less temporary. As the newer functions become more clearly defined and as municipal government improves greater standardization of organization will result.

Before endeavoring to describe the several types of municipal organization of recreation in American cities it will be desirable to consider more in detail the nature of the function of community recreation. This will aid in understanding the kinds of things and services which it is necessary to organize in order to organize the function.

Nature of the Recreation Function.

"To organize the community for recreation" is the function of a municipal recreation department. The proper performance of this function involves the utilization of resources which the community possesses which are useful in providing a richer and more extensive recreational program for the inhabitants of the city. These include natural, inanimate and artificial resources such as land, water, buildings, structures and other material assets, including funds; and such spiritual and social assets, as interests, skills, history, traditions, cultural patterns, leadership, etc. Practically, the problem of organizing the city for recreation may be viewed as having to do with the establishment, operation and maintenance of things, on the one hand and people and activities on the other. The former is subordinate to the latter for the material resources are of value only insofar as they contribute to the realization of human values and the satisfaction of human needs.

The real nature of the recreation function can be made clearer by drawing an analogy between the work of recreation and education departments. The primary function of an education department is not to build schools and to maintain grounds and buildings, but to teach children in activities which contribute to their growth and development in accordance with ideals of good citizen-

ship. The effectiveness of local agencies in performing the recreational function should be judged not so much from the standpoint of the material facilities provided, such as the number of playgrounds, swimming pools and beaches, the completeness of their appointments and the manner in which they are maintained, but from the standpoint of the program of activities which is carried on, its value in contributing to worthy social objectives and its extent.

Definition of Organization.

To organize is "to bring into systematic connection as parts of the whole, or to bring the various parts into effective correlation and cooperation." [2] What are the parts which need to be brought into systematic connection when the organization of community recreation is considered? In other words, what is there to organize? The following list is suggestive:

Land and water areas
1. Intended primarily for recreation
    A. Playgrounds
    B. Lakes
    C. Beaches
    D. Streams and rivers
    E. Park lands
2. Intended secondarily for recreation
    A. School lands
    B. Forest lands
    C. Harbor lands and rivers

Buildings and structures
1. Intended primarily for recreation
    A. Playground buildings, or field houses
    B. Play apparatus and equipment
    C. Community club houses
    D. Gymnasiums
    E. Bath houses
    F. Boat houses
    G. Swimming pools
    H. Camp structures
        Etc. Etc.

[2] Funk & Wagnalls, *New Standard Dictionary of the English Language*, 1927.

2. Intended secondarily for recreation
    A. School buildings
    B. Museums
    C. Aquariums
    D. Planetariums and Observatories
    E. Zoos
    F. Botanical and Horticultural Gardens
    G. Libraries
        Etc. Etc.

All the people of the community, differentiated according to
1. Neighborhood
2. Age
3. Sex
4. Interests
5. Traditions
6. National culture
7. Leisure available
8. Economic status
9. Artificial groupings
    Etc. Etc.

Activities
1. Differentiated according to their nature
    A. Arts and crafts
    B. Music
    C. Drama
    D. Physical education activities
        Athletics
        Gymnastics
        Games
        Combative sports
        Water sports
        Winter sports
    E. Environmental or nature activities
    F. Literary activities
2. Differentiated according to environment or equipment required
    A. Playground activities
    B. Park activities
    C. School activities (extra-curricular)
    D. Beach activities
    E. Swimming pool activities
    F. Camping activities

G. Woodcraft
H. Boating activities
I. Stadium sports
J. Golf
K. Neighborhood social activities
L. Scientific hobbies
M. Activities of the workshop and studio
Etc. Etc.

3. Differentiated according to degree of expertness required in them
   A. Elementary
   B. Secondary
   C. Advanced

Services required to administer recreation

1. Planning
2. Management
3. Construction
4. Maintenance
5. Horticultural services
6. Organization
7. Promotion
8. Supervision

From the above it will be seen at once that the problem of organizing recreation in a municipality is extremely complicated. If all things which serve a common purpose are to be grouped together in the municipal organization, then a single department would be in order, to be responsible for all services suggested in the outline. Such an assumption is responsible for much of the confused thinking concerning the organization of municipal recreation. By the same token it might be suggested that all things that serve the purpose of health be grouped together, in which case sanitary inspection, clinical services, garbage disposal, sewerage disposal and control of contagious diseases, would be grouped in one municipal department.

Recreation, like health, probably should be considered from the standpoint of organization as a "purpose" and not a "function." Several functions may contribute to recreation. The multifarious services related to recreation may be organized under more than one department. Clarence E. Ridley, Assistant Professor of Political Science of the University of Chicago, an authority on munici-

pal government, points out that the best basis for grouping of duties for distribution between departments is according to function and not according to purpose.[3] He also states that the soundest basis for distribution of duties within departments is according to activities. Under this rule all services related to a well-defined business or profession, as engineering, law, accounting, etc., would be grouped together in the departmental organization of a city. Grouping of services which require the same techniques in their execution would be the basis for divisional organization within a department. Ridley cautions against too rigid application of such rules and suggests that they be applied with a liberal amount of discretion.

Extent of Urban Organization for Recreation.

The extent to which cities are organized for recreation and the departments of city government to which the responsibility has been assigned are indicated in the statistics reported in the year books of the National Recreation Association. Table II gives the forms of administration of municipal recreation reported to the National Recreation Association in 1926 and in 1939 as recorded in the year books of the Association.[4] From these statistics it may be inferred that there has been no decided trend toward centralizing administration in any given type of agency such as playground and recreation commissions, park boards or school boards. It is interesting to note that there has been a tendency to link park and recreation functions in a single municipal agency as indicated by the fact that thirty-five park and recreation commissions were reported in 1939 and none in 1926. The report of 1939 showed an increase of twenty-three per cent in agencies administering recreation as a single function as compared with the number reported in 1938. In the same year there was a slight decrease in the number of school and park agencies which administered recreation as an additional function.[5]

The record given above is quite complete for it is the result of over thirty years of diligent effort by the National Recreation

[3] Ridley, C. E., "Some Principles of Administrative Organization and Public Management," *Public Management*, 580 (Sept. 1929).

[4] National Recreation Association, *Year Book Issues of Recreation*, June 1926 and June 1939.

[5] *Ibid.*, 1938.

Association with the aid of an efficient field staff to establish contact with and to aid local communities in organizing their recreation work. The statistics quoted show an increase of over 100 per cent in cities organized for recreation in the thirteen-year period from 1926 to 1939. While the number of cities organized to some degree seems considerable at first glance the incompleteness of the

TABLE II

FORMS OF ADMINISTRATION OF COMMUNITY RECREATION IN CITIES AND COUNTIES OF THE U. S. A.—1926 AND 1939[a]

Agency	1926	1939
Playground and Recreation Commissions, Boards and Departments	174	315
Park Commissions, Boards and Departments	111	225
Boards of Education and Other School Authorities	113	172
Park and Recreation Commissions, Boards and Departments	...	35
Park and Recreation Bureaus within Other Departments Performing Other Functions	. .	6
City and Borough Councils, County Boards and Other Legislative Bodies	17	82
Departments of Public Works	10	25
Departments of Public Welfare	7	12
Departments of Parks and Public Properties or Public Buildings	...	12
Departments of Public Service	...	5
Golf Commissions	...	8
Forestry Preserve or Forestry Boards	...	3
Swimming Pool, Beach and Bath Commissions	2	6
Other Municipal Commissions, Boards, and Other Departments	4	29
Total	438	935[b]

[a] The statistics contained in this table were taken from the Year Books of the National Recreation Association for 1926 and 1939. Some of the larger cities reported more than one public agency.

[b] Additional cities made appropriations to aid private agencies which conducted community recreation activities.

organization is illustrated in the following table which shows as for 1936 the number of cities organized for recreation in relation to the total number of cities in each population group. It is evident from this information that the larger cities have made much greater progress in effecting some plan of organization than the smaller cities.

CITIES REPORTING SOME AGENCY CONDUCTING COMMUNITY RECREATION
1936

(Population as per 1930 U. S. Census)

Cities with population of	*No of cities*	*No. reporting recreation*	*Per cent reporting*
1,000,000 or more	5	5	100
500,000 to 1,000,000	8	8	100
250,000 to 500,000	24	24	100
100,000 to 250,000	56	56	100
50,000 to 100,000	98	88	90
25,000 to 50,000	185	128	69
10,000 to 25,000	606	217	36
5,000 to 10,000	851	126	15
2,500 to 5,000	1382	50	4
Total Cities	3165	702	22

Total urban population in cities over 2,500 population 68,954,823
Total rural population (43.8 per cent of the whole) 52,820,223

Some Generalizations Concerning Organization of Recreation.

Other interesting comparisons and inferences concerning the organization of recreation may be gleaned from the 1939 *Year Book* of the National Recreation Association. The following are especially significant:

One thousand two hundred and forty-five communities reported recreation centers and programs conducted under employed leadership paid wholly or in part from local public funds.

Six hundred and sixty of the above communities were over 5,000 in population.

Eighty-two communities, principally the larger cities, reported that more than one public department conducted community recreation.

Thirty-three cities reported schools conducting recreation programs where other public departments also conducted programs.

In cities less than 500,000 in population recreation programs were usually conducted either by the schools or by a park department or recreation department, rarely by two of them.

Of the twenty largest cities all had more than one public agency responsible for community recreation.

Of the twenty largest cities all but three reported extensive programs of recreation under school auspices.

Except in a few of the largest cities, notably Washington, D. C., Chicago, Jersey City, Newark, Milwaukee and Los Angeles, school conducted recreation consisted of a summer program only.

Although more cities report recreation under playground or recreation departments than under school or park departments comparatively few of the former, probably not more than one-fourth, have full control of areas and buildings. The others use park or school facilities, frequently both.

Of the twenty largest cities seven had separate recreation departments and all seven controlled and maintained their own areas.

In all twenty of the largest cities there were park departments. In seven of these the major responsibility for organized recreation rested with a separate recreation department; but in the remaining thirteen cities the park department assumed the responsibility which it assigned to a recreation bureau.

Of the 199 school agencies rendering recreation service in as many cities only one-eighth or twenty-five reported any full-time year-round recreation workers.

That large cities sometimes have more than one department to carry on the public recreation function is not in itself to be deplored. The recreation function of the modern city is many sided and several departments are sometimes required to administer it. Insofar as the services rendered by the several departments are dissimilar, their existence violates no fundamental principle of efficient governmental organization. It is only when such departments embark upon innovations which conflict with the activities of others that efficiency requires either reassignment of activities, consolidation, or a definite plan of coordination.

Reassignment of Duties.

The activities of departments are always changing as the concept of their function changes. Schools for example have undergone almost revolutionary changes in the past three decades as the objectives of education have broadened and methodology has improved. When the first municipal playground departments were organized the suggestion that schools open their yards and supervise the play of children after school hours and during vacations was regarded as revolutionary. The same suggestion is now gen-

erally viewed as logical and would undoubtedly be widely accepted were it not for legal, financial and administrative difficulties involved.

A committee of the National Municipal League recommends a reassignment of duties between municipal recreation departments and school departments under which full responsibility for the play of children would be assumed by the school department on its own facilities and municipal departments would concern themselves with adult activities.[6] Why the school should be limited to children's activities is not clear. Many school departments are conducting extensive educational activities for adults and enroll more adults in their classes than children. The plan also overlooks the fact that municipal departments render many services to children for which the schools can claim no superior preparation or advantage. Moreover, many recreation activities are not pursued exclusively by groups of the same age but are participated in by all members of the family or by groups of all ages. To carry out the suggestion in any case would require vast changes in the educational structure involving state legislation, more adequate finance, greater personnel and changes in teacher-training practice. More difficult still are the changes in public opinion which must be brought about before schools can completely assume the responsibility for children's play to the exclusion of the municipal recreation departments in this field.

Meanwhile in many cities a division of the services in recreation between the schools and the municipal recreation department, if one exists, is in the public interest. The best division is not one based upon age groups to be served, but one based on activities or services which are distinguishable. For example, it is perfectly clear that class instruction in the many leisure time activities should be given by the schools. To the degree that the local schools are willing to undertake this service, the municipal department should refrain from offering class instruction. If schools are offering universal physical education instruction for children, the municipal department should not set up parallel instruction. Even if every school had an adequate playground and organized

[6] National Municipal League, *Report of Committee on Play and Recreation Administration*, National Municipal Review Supplement, July 1931.

and conducted an extensive program indoors and outdoors in such activities as its facilities made possible, there would still be a field of service remaining in the larger cities for the municipal recreation department and the park department. This field would not be so much in the intimate local neighborhood services, but in the district and regional services. There is great necessity for frequent reexamination of the services of all agencies for the avoidance of duplication and promotion of coordinated action.

Consolidation of Departments.

The movement in favor of consolidation of certain municipal departments has affected park and recreation organization in a few cities, but in the main, recreation departments have retained their identity. As parks are more liberally interpreted as recreation places and as municipal park authorities depart from the traditional view that the function of a park department is only to preserve and enhance the beauty of the natural landscape, the two branches of municipal service will tend to be merged.

The city of Berkeley, California, presents an interesting example of consolidation. For a number of years there existed a park commission which was primarily concerned with problems of landscape improvement of dedicated park lands and with street tree planting and maintenance. At the same time there existed a playground commission which controlled its own areas and conducted on them a program of active recreation. The staff of the park commission was composed of employees selected largely because of their skill in horticulture and landscape construction. The staff of the playground commission was selected because of fitness to organize and direct active play. The result in the early stages was that the parks were essentially garden spots almost devoid of facilities for recreation and the playgrounds were efficiently improved for play but were devoid of landscape adornment. Gradually in response to popular demand landscaped areas yielded to recreation and the parks tended to become playgrounds. On the other hand, the desirability of improving the attractiveness of playgrounds was gradually realized by the playground authorities and playgrounds tended to become parklike. As the two functions tended to merge, the logic of merging the departments became in-

controvertible. Accordingly, in 1926, the two commissions were consolidated and the new commission given the name Park and Recreation Commission. Prior to that time, however, an interesting coordination of recreation conducted by the municipality and by the school department was worked out which is described in Chapter IV.

Consolidation of park and recreation departments in the large metropolitan city presents a somewhat different problem than consolidation of the two in the smaller city. The park system of a large metropolitan city usually includes great reservations on the outskirts of the city and parkways within and connecting the reservations. The administrative problems of reservations and parkways are largely problems of forestry, land conservation, highway construction and maintenance, and police work. These problems have little in common with those encountered in neighborhood playgrounds, parks and recreation centers and in the conduct of recreation programs. In the large metropolitan city separate administration of the park and recreation functions is more justifiable than in smaller cities. In the smaller cities the park department is not concerned with the maintenance of large reservations and parkways but usually operates a system of neighborhood and district parks.

Probably the most striking example of consolidation of municipal departments took place in Chicago in 1935 when twenty-two separate and distinct park authorities were consolidated in one metropolitan park agency called the Chicago Park District. A recreation bureau is in charge of all recreation activities under the District. It should be noted, however, that this is an example of consolidation of identical functions, i.e., of several park departments and not of two or more distinct and somewhat dissimilar functions, as "parks" and "recreation," which have tended to assume like characteristics. In Chicago public recreation, except that conducted in the schools, has always been administered through and by departments of parks.

Consolidation of School and Municipal Recreation.

Consolidation of school and municipal recreation is almost impossible to bring about. The fact that schools operate as a state

function and cities as autonomous local governments under home rule is the basic difficulty in bringing these two agencies together. Another difficulty is that recreation is only one of several functions of the schools. It is difficult to consolidate one school function with the municipal government without consolidating the entire organization of the schools. The legal authority of the schools to delegate a function to another agency is seriously questioned. As will be seen later some of the smaller cities have effected a form of consolidation by the formation of a third agency jointly representative of schools and municipal government. (See Chart VI, page 71.) Consolidation of school and municipal recreation may not be considered necessary if coordination through other means is brought about.

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IV

ORGANIZATION OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT FOR RECREATION

IN the preceding chapter the growth of recreation as a new function of municipal government was traced and the nature of the function was discussed. Information as to the progress which cities have made in organizing recreation was presented. It is evident that cities are experimenting with different types of organization. In this chapter consideration will be given to the several types and their advantages and disadvantages will be discussed. The question whether there should be a lay commission at the head of the organization will be discussed in Chapter VIII.

The forms of overhead organization in general use fall into four main groups. The last which is most complex exists in four different forms. The several types of organization are as follows:

1. Recreation commission or department independent of the school and park department and controlling its own facilities.
2. Recreation division as an integral branch or bureau of a park department.
3. Consolidated park and recreation department or commission organized on a functional basis.
4. Coordinated organization linking parks, schools and recreation in a unified program.
   - A. Recreation department separately constituted from school and park department, controlling no facilities of its own but using facilities of school and park department.
   - B. Organization under which schools conduct certain activities on school properties and a park and recreation department conducts other activities on municipal properties; but by agreement both agencies employ, each on half time, the same executive.

C. Recreation Commission, constituted in part by representatives of the school department and in part by representatives of the municipal government, which conducts a coordinated recreation program using facilities of the schools, and parks, its own properties and churches and other places available for public use.

D. Quasi-public agency conducting the community recreation program, supported in part by private funds and using school, park and other facilities available for public use.

Each of the plans cited will be discussed from the standpoint of its advantages and its disadvantages.

Independent Recreation Agency.

The plan illustrated in Chart 1 is in use in many cities. It shows recreation as a function separate and distinct from park administration and centralizes the control of areas specifically intended for recreation, and the activities program thereon, in a recreation commission or department. There is no organic connection of this department with the park department except through the mayor and city council to whom both are responsible. Likewise there is no direct connection with the school department. All three are expected to cooperate.

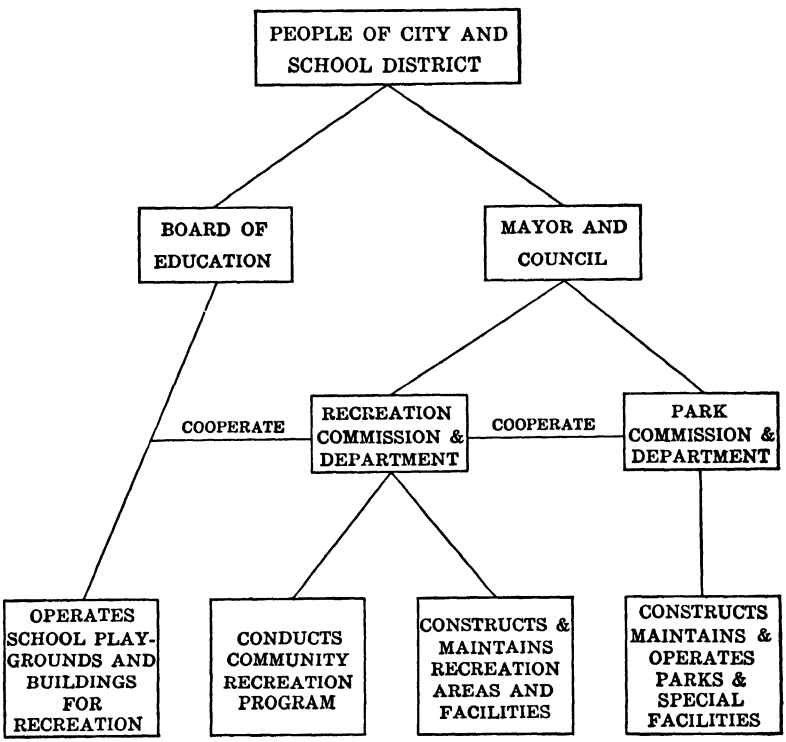
This plan has the advantage of placing community recreation under control of a special agency charged alone with that responsibility. Specializing on the one task it is usually successful in securing greater attention to recreation from the city government and from the citizens, including more adequate budgets. Its employed staff is likely to be selected with more specific attention to recreation qualifications than under plans which assign recreation to a department charged also with other functions. Having control of its own facilities it is able to organize its program more comprehensively and efficiently than if it depended upon other agencies for the use of land and buildings. The plan commends itself to large cities particularly metropolitan cities where the park department is likely to be engrossed in regional park problems. Small cities can hardly afford the degree of differentiation between

school, park and recreation functions upon which the plan is predicated.

The principal disadvantage in this plan is that coordination of related recreation services is difficult to effect between schools, parks and recreation agencies. Frequently the three departments

CHART 1

INDEPENDENT RECREATION AGENCY



misunderstand each other and fail to cooperate. Sometimes services overlap and are duplicated.

Another disadvantage arises from the public confusion as to which agency is responsible, especially when both school and recreation departments both conduct playgrounds for children and when the park department conducts picnic grounds, golf courses and other special recreation places. The rendering of similar serv-

ices by the three agencies impedes comprehensive planning of recreation for the entire city. Successful operation under this plan calls for complete cooperation and coordination.

Under this plan the possibility of overlapping between schools and recreation department increases as the school department undertakes to operate the schools as recreation centers. In most cities, excepting the largest, where this plan is in effect the schools do but little work in recreation, being content to leave this function to the municipal agency. The possession of the facilities which might be put to good use for recreation tends more and more to force the schools to permit the use of the facilities for community recreation. Then there arises the question whether such services should be delegated to the recreation department or should be rendered directly by the schools. In the former case coordination of the recreation work with the regular school work is difficult. In the latter case coordination of the school conducted recreation with the municipally conducted recreation presents a problem calling for administrative and policy-making adjustments. Such adjustments are discussed in Chapter VII.

Recreation as a Bureau in the Park Department.

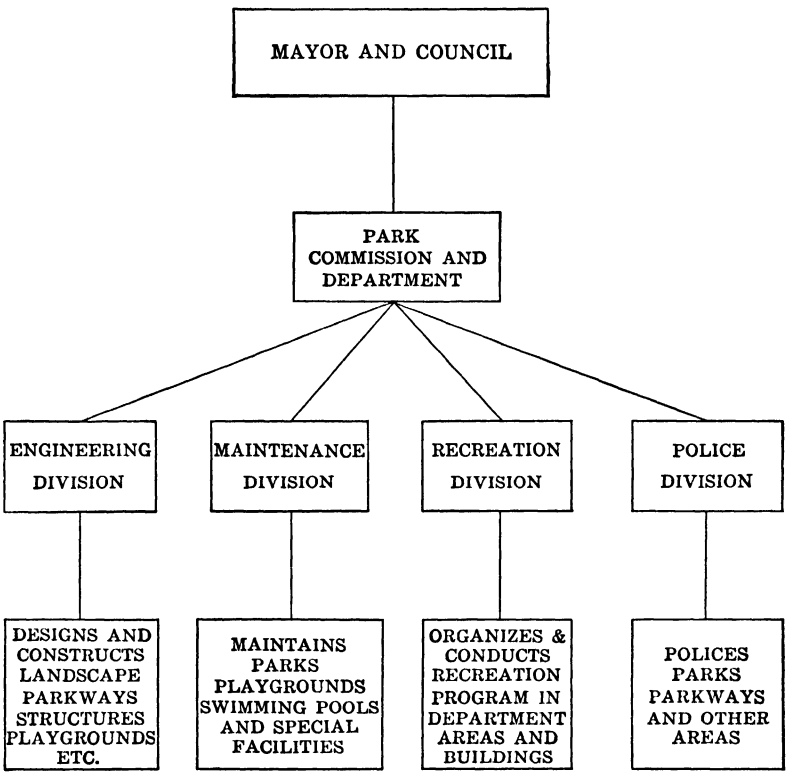
Chart 2 shows recreation as the activity arm of the municipal park department. This plan facilitates the use of all park areas and buildings for recreation purposes. It is an economical and sometimes a highly effective form of organization. This plan with engineering and police divisions is in effect only in a few large cities but in modified form may be found in many other cities of various sizes.

An objection to this plan is that it tends to subordinate recreation to the more conventional park functions. Often it is a mere appendage which struggles for attention. This is due not so much to its place in the organization plan but to the manner of its adoption. Usually this plan is a development resulting from absorption by a park department of a recreation department or from adoption of recreation as a new function in a city where there is already an efficiently organized park department. In such cases recreation finds itself in the position of the adopted child. Whether or not it will be nurtured depends upon how well the parent body, the park department, understands its needs.

This plan recognizes no official responsibility for recreation on the part of the schools. Where this plan is in effect whatever school directed recreation develops is undertaken wholly independent of municipal activity in recreation. Since recreation ap-

CHART 2

RECREATION BUREAU IN A PARK DEPARTMENT



pears to be a subordinate or secondary function of the park department the necessity for close integration with the school program does not usually impress this agency as a problem of compelling necessity.

Consolidated Department for Recreation.

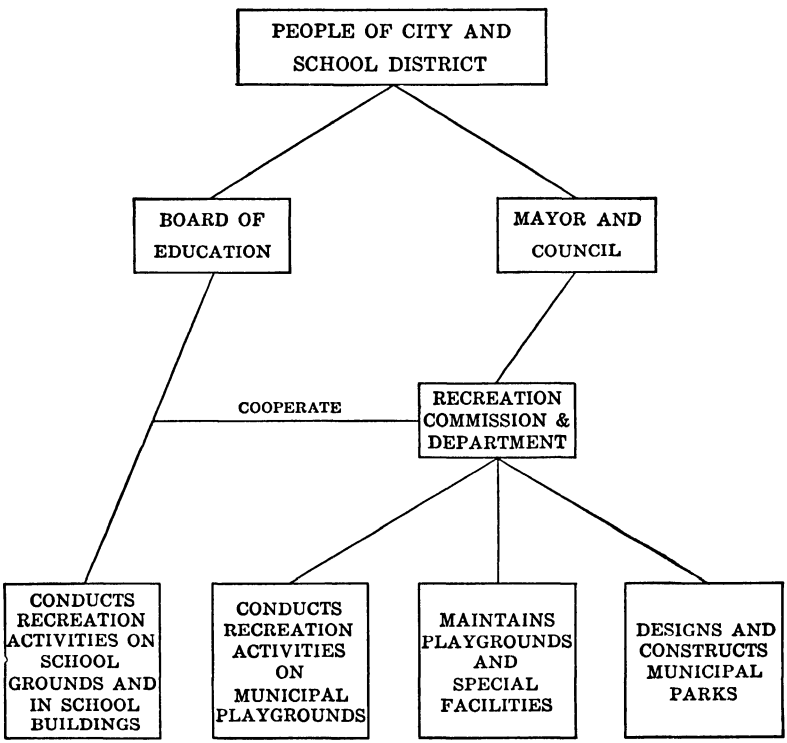
The plan shown in Chart 3 is similar to the plan illustrated in Chart 2 except that the whole department is organized on a func-

tional basis which is recreation. There is no separation of parks from other recreation facilities but all facilities under control of the department are functionally related to recreation.

The main advantage of this plan in general is that it consolidates all municipal recreation under one department and avoids the often present controversy between parks and recreation. It thus

CHART 3

CONSOLIDATED PARK AND RECREATION DEPARTMENT



offers an opportunity for the development of a more comprehensive and at the same time more diversified program. It encourages the introduction of an activity program in areas which otherwise would be regarded as parks in the strict sense, and aids in the landscape improvement of areas regarded as playgrounds and athletic fields. It conduces to economical administration and enhances the services of the city in recreation.

As the plan illustrated in Chart 2 raised the question whether recreation might not be seriously subordinated to park ideology so it might be questioned whether this plan might not similarly subordinate park development to the ideology of active recreation. The danger here is less, however, because the park function is more deeply rooted in municipal tradition than recreation.

This plan, because of the unification and economy which result from it, is to be commended to all cities over 100,000 population except perhaps the largest metropolitan cities where extensive systems of parkways, reservations and police work call for large organization of material and personnel for their administration. Such administration has little in common with the administration of traditional municipal recreation and might very well be separately organized.

Under this plan no organic connection is made with the public schools but cooperative relations are invited. The schools are free to develop their own programs and facilities with or without assistance from the municipal department. In some cities under this organization the municipal department conducts activities not only on its own properties but also on school grounds and in school buildings. In other cities the school department either does not open its facilities at all for recreation or operates them wholly under school control. The plan implies that recreation is a sufficiently large undertaking in the modern city to engage the attention of more than one agency, for example, a municipal recreation department and a public schools department, and that merging of them is not necessary so long as cooperation between them is fostered.

Department for Recreation Program.

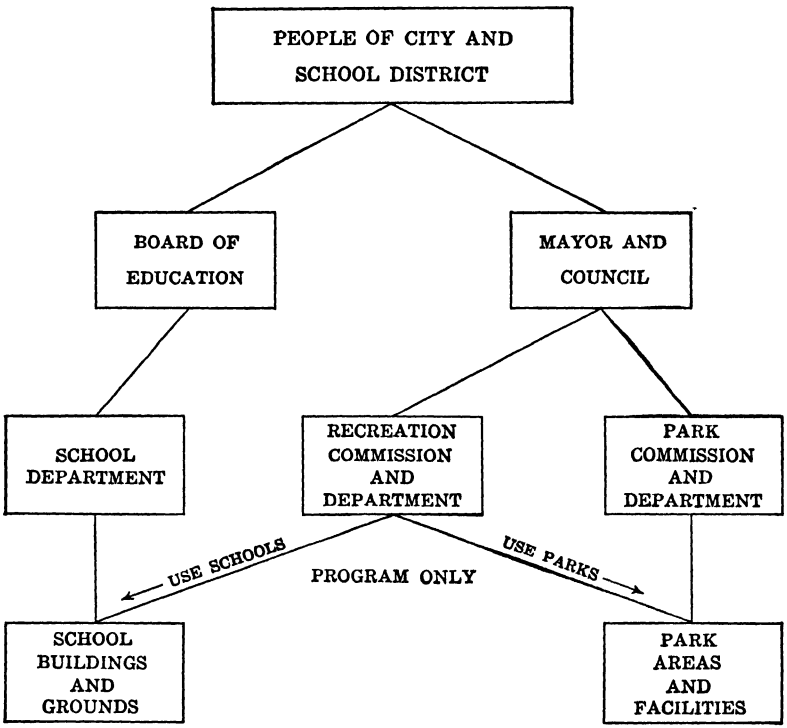
In Chart 4 there is set up a recreation department or commission which is concerned solely with the development and administration of recreation activities without being charged directly with the responsibility for acquiring, improving and operating land and structures. It uses facilities of the city which are under direct control of the park commission or department and the facilities of the public schools.

The plan in itself is suggestive of the point of view that recreation is a function distinct from education and from park operation

and yet it implies that recreation requires no facilities other than those already existing in schools and parks or included in their plans. The plan is obviously an expedient adopted because neither the school department nor the park department were willing or able to encompass recreation adequately in their plans and opera-

CHART 4

RECREATION DEPARTMENT WHICH USES FACILITIES OF PARK AND SCHOOL DEPARTMENTS



tions. It might be viewed as a satisfactory plan pending acceptance of the larger concept of education as inclusive of recreation by the school, and acceptance by park authorities of a more inclusive view of the function of parks.

The establishment of a department exclusively for recreation, as in this plan, glorifies the importance of the recreation function in the municipal organization and often enables larger appropriations to be secured for it than if recreation were assigned as an un-

important side issue to park or school departments. Since the department is not charged with the cost of improving and maintaining facilities which it uses its funds appear to purchase more recreation than otherwise. The last is an apparent but not a real advantage in the plan.

From the operating standpoint this plan has the serious disadvantage that the recreation department is wholly dependent upon two other departments for the use of the facilities it requires to do its work. Either of these departments can by withholding cooperation strangle the recreation department or render its work ineffective. In inspecting recreation areas in cities throughout the country it is a very noticeable condition that facilities for recreation provided by one department for activities under control of another are almost uniformly inferior to similar facilities under the direct jurisdiction of the operation agency. This defect is inherent in the plan. It goes back to the fact that a tenant or permittee rarely finds the premises in the condition he would like them were he the owner. Under this plan the recreation department has inferior status to that of a tenant because it does not pay for the facilities it uses.

Even if a wholehearted desire exists on the part of the governing boards and chief executives of the park and school departments to facilitate in every way the work of the recreation department, it is too much to expect that the first line employees who maintain the separate facilities will uniformly serve with like broadmindedness the agency which uses the facilities which they maintain. Employees serve first the agency which employs them.

Often under this plan park departments retain under their own jurisdiction certain of the larger recreation facilities and services, such as golf courses, stadiums, picnic grounds, beaches and swimming pools. This results in a division of recreation between two municipal departments which leads to public confusion and sometimes unnecessary duplication.

Coordinated Executive Organization.

Chart 5 recognizes that in any city the problem of public recreation concerns both the educational department and the general city government; that each may be expected to contribute to public recreation, but that coordination of the dual effort is neces-

sary. This coordination is brought about by an agreement between the school board and the park and recreation commission (or city council) to employ the same executive to supervise school recreation and physical education, on the one hand, and to act as chief executive of a combined park and recreation department on the other. Theoretically he devotes half time to each task; half his salary is paid by the school department and half by the city government. In his school capacity he reports to the superintendent of schools and the board of education and in his municipal capacity he reports to the park and recreation commission or to the city manager and the mayor and council.

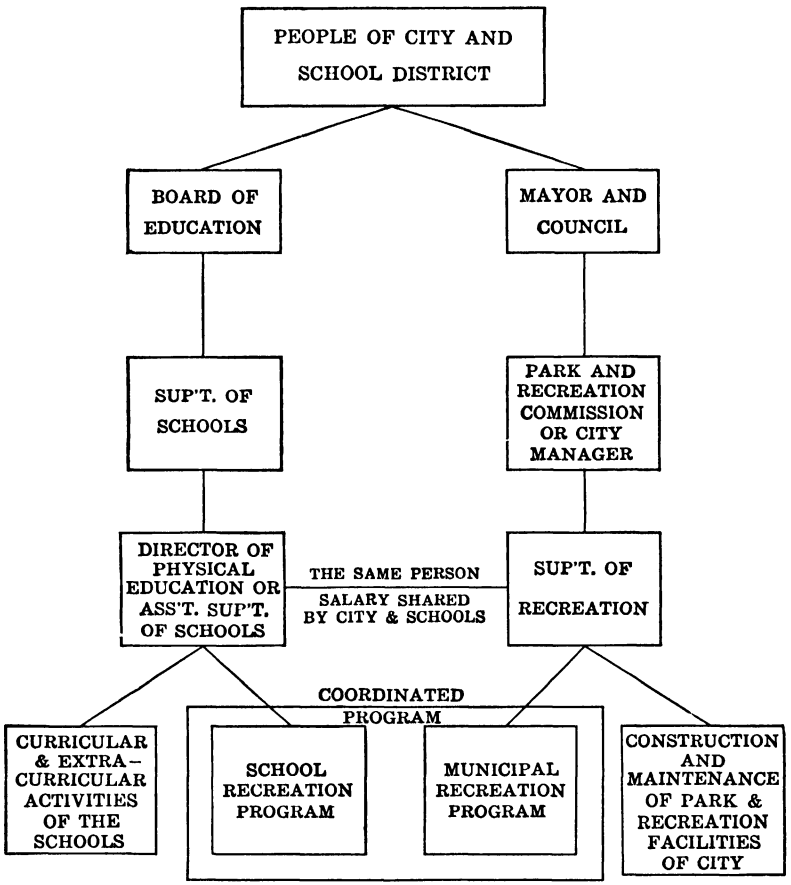
Under this plan the schools do not delegate any responsibility for recreation conducted on school premises. Their program is developed as an integral part of the educational program and is closely integrated with physical education. The staff required to supervise the school facilities and program is employed by the school department. This constitutes one of the strongest elements in the plan for it cultivates increasingly a sense of responsibility for recreation on the part of the school department. Other plans, under which the schools lend their facilities to another agency, lack this important feature. It is important because no city can hope to have a comprehensive system of public recreation unless it can utilize fully for recreation its educational equipment and unless the program resulting therefrom is closely integrated with the teaching program. This does not mean that the schools should completely occupy the field to the exclusion of the municipal agencies but rather that both should share the task under a coordinated plan.

Complete coordination of school and municipal recreation is brought about under this plan. It cannot be otherwise, so long as the higher boards and executives desire it, for one person directs both programs. The plan also brings about coordination of park and recreation work in the municipal organization and physical education and recreation in the school organization. The latter is good as far as it goes, but integration of recreation with all subjects of instruction and not alone with physical education would be preferable.

Another advantage to the plan is that it enables the smaller city to secure the services of a more competent recreation executive

CHART 5

PLAN BASED ON JOINT EMPLOYMENT OF ONE EXECUTIVE



than under other plans. The combined executive position requires a high degree of skill and wide experience; but since the compensation is paid the executive in two checks, one for each of two half-time positions, in neither organization does the salary seem out of balance with other salaries.

The plan is not without its difficulties and disadvantages. There are few executives with sufficiently broad experience and training to understand and to give leadership in all phases of these positions, namely, physical education, recreation and park service.

There are not many who can work happily and successfully in the municipal administrative organization and at the same time in the school organization. The executive connections which this executive must maintain,—legal, policy making, budgetary, personnel, public relations, professional relations, etc., are so ramified, in fact double those of the ordinary executive, that the duties are very difficult to perform satisfactorily. It is correspondingly difficult to secure someone competent to fill the position. The larger the city the more difficult it is to operate under this plan. The plan does not commend itself to large metropolitan cities.

Possibly another objection to the plan is that it has no status in law. It is brought into being by informal agreement between two governments and can be as readily dissolved.

Oakland, California, was the first city to adopt this plan in modified form. In Oakland the school department pays only one-fifth of the salary of the executive and the park and recreation departments are separate. Berkeley, California, exemplifies the plan in its entirety. In 1921 the city and the schools jointly employed a superintendent of recreation and a director of physical education. In 1930 the park department was consolidated with the recreation department. Berkeley under this plan has consistently maintained a superior recreation service with conspicuous economy.

This plan where it is now in practice integrates recreation and physical education. As the public schools in the future relate other instructional departments to the community recreation problem it is conceivable that the superintendent of recreation might preferably be related to all departments of instruction. This could be effected by giving him status as an assistant superintendent of schools. This would enable him to contact all subjects and to integrate all the instructional departments of the schools with the entire problem.

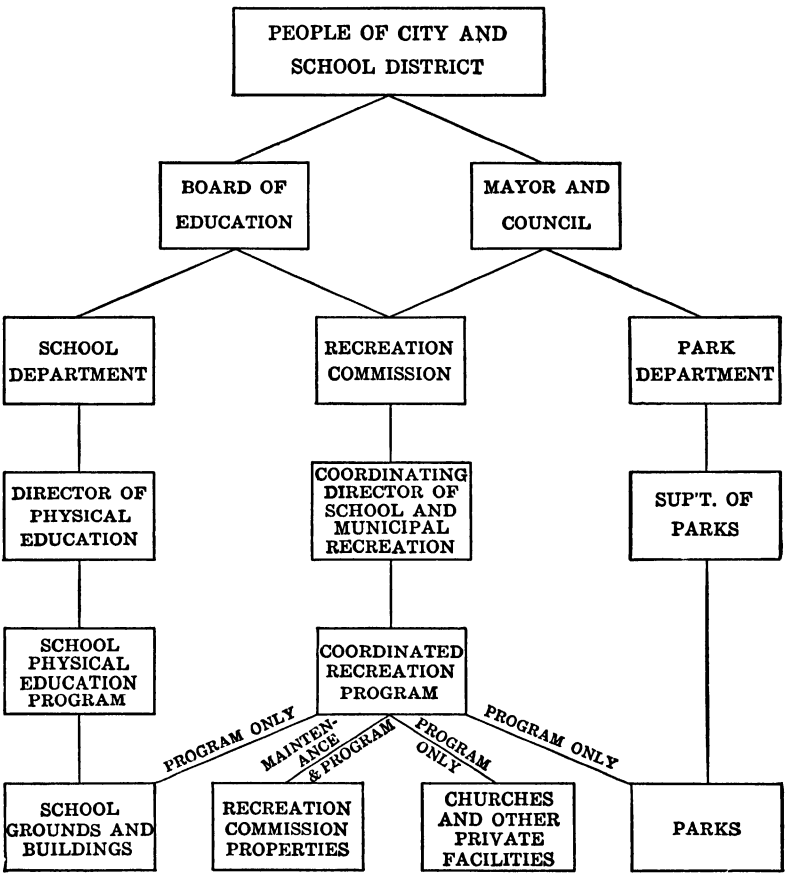
Commission Representative of City and Schools.

In Chart 6 there is a special commission composed of representatives of the city and school governments and the citizens at large. Both schools and city in effect delegate to the body full jurisdiction over public recreation regardless of where conducted. The program may or may not be financed by a special tax. Only a

small part of the revenue is expended on maintenance, construction and land acquisition because the commission uses facilities of the schools and parks and has only a few properties of its own.

CHART 6

REPRESENTATIVE RECREATION COMMISSION WITH DELEGATED POWERS



Coordination between school physical education and public recreation is insured by the provision which creates the position of Coordinating Director of School and Municipal Recreation who must also be Director of Physical Education in the schools.

One advantage of this plan over that in Chart 5 is that the

recreation commission occupies a more independent and important position as the central overhead policy-making and planning body for the utilization of all the city resources for community recreation. Possibly a disadvantage is that the school department is by this plan largely relieved of responsibility for recreation and does not cultivate, therefore, an increasingly important relationship to it. The schools and parks lend their facilities but not necessarily their energetic assistance as if the job were their own.

The chart illustrates the plan as it has been in operation at Long Beach, California, since 1928. A special tax of five cents per hundred dollars of assessed valuation is appropriated annually to the recreation commission. The same general plan, excepting the joint employment of the physical education and recreation executive, is in effect at Canton, Ohio, where a special tax of two cents is provided. In both cities the plans and special tax were adopted by popular vote. Both cities have done conspicuously fine work in public recreation.

Quasi-Public Agency.

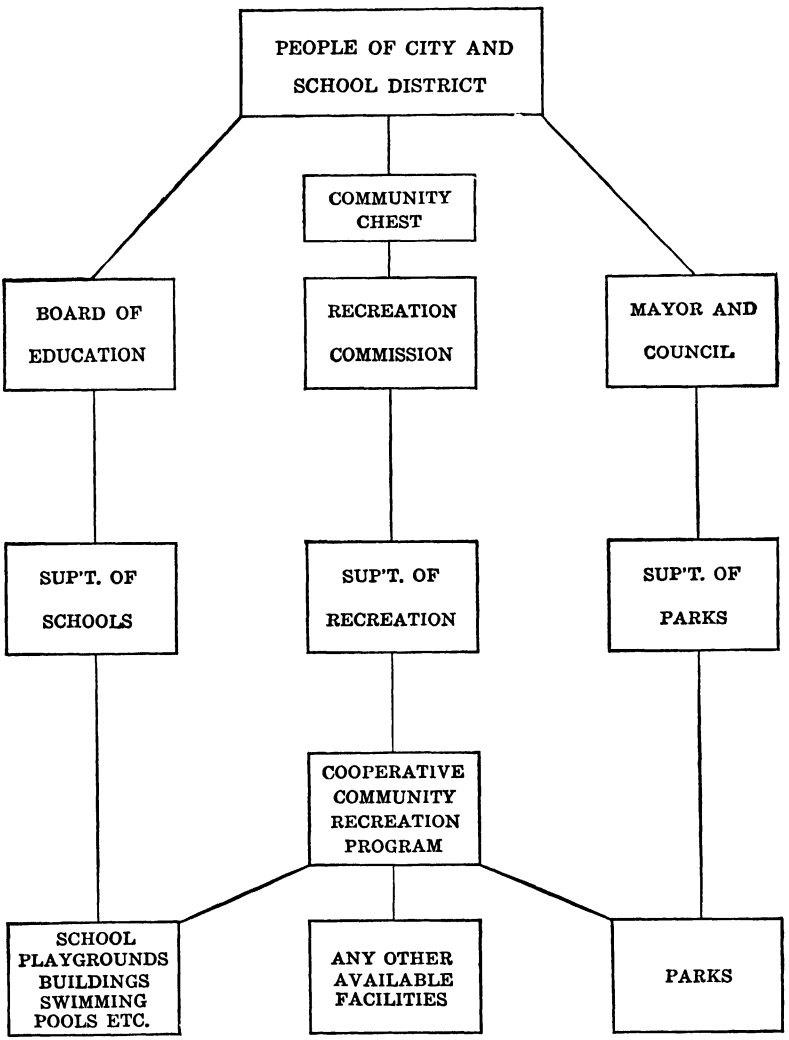
A plan which is an outgrowth of strong development of community recreation under a private agency which had its origin in wartime community service is illustrated in Chart 7. The agency was successful in obtaining financial support from the community chest. Its existence has tended to restrain the school department and the park department in developing community recreation as an integral part of their work, but they have in lieu thereof extended cooperation to the private or quasi-public association. The plan illustrates a transitional development in many cities from recreation wholly under non-tax supported agencies to a well established public department.

Other Plans.

The foregoing appear to be all the plans extant which have achieved sufficient definiteness of form to be considered as types and which are organized to provide year-round organization of recreation. There are numerous other plans in small cities and in cities which have just begun to organize themselves for recreation. In most of these cities recreation is a municipal concern only during the summer months and during the rest of the year there

CHART 7

QUASI-PUBLIC RECREATION COMMISSION WHICH USES PUBLIC FACILITIES



is little community recreation except that provided by the schools. In such cities it is frequently the practice for the municipality to employ each year some personnel to direct the summer program and usually school employees during their school vacation are

favored for such employment. A demonstration thus made often leads to demand for year-round organization which may take on any of the forms previously discussed.

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V

PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND RECREATION

LEISURE has not only given rise to a number of movements and institutions but has also profoundly affected established institutions. None has been more vitally affected than the institution of public education. Since the beginning of the present century progressive educators have been aware of the fact that the rapidly growing leisure would place new demands upon the public schools. In 1917 the National Education Association published a monograph on The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education in which seven objectives of education were set forth. One of these was stated as, "Preparation for the worthy use of leisure time." [1] "Complete preparation for citizenship" was expressed as the single goal of education. Avocational preparation was recognized as an important part of the training for citizenship which schools were called upon to give. This pronouncement gained wide acceptance everywhere and hardly any statement of aims of education is made without including preparation for leisure among them.

Influence of Leisure Upon Curricula.

This objective has justified public schools in modifying their curricula to include many new subjects of instruction; but it also has brought about a change in emphasis in the teaching of subjects which traditionally had been taught either because of assumed cultural and disciplinary values or as preparation for a vocation. The modern public school curriculum provides opportunities for amateur participation and creative experience in several fields of

[1] National Education Association, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, U. S. Government, 1917.

music, art, literature and drama. Appreciation courses are also offered in these subjects.

Schools differ widely across the country in the degree to which they have inaugurated changes in accord with the accepted principles and even within a single county there are striking variations. Instruction in the leisure time arts is still offered as an "elective." In Westchester County, New York, whose cities and villages together in 1930 represented the highest per pupil expenditures for public school education in the state, a little more than one-third of the elementary schools offered glee club work as an elective; instrumental music instruction was offered in twenty-eight per cent of the elementary schools. Only twelve of the thirty-two senior high schools reported class instruction in band and orchestra instruments, although all the schools had orchestras and half had bands. The trend in this county, which may be accepted as indicative of the tendency in all progressive school systems, is indicated in the fact that the number of music teachers in the schools doubled from 1926 to 1930.[2]

Extra-Curricular Influence of Leisure.

Another significant influence of leisure upon public school practice is the vastly growing extra-curricular activities and their recognition as an educative force. Not many years ago extra-curricular activities were suppressed in the schools and later they were condoned; but in condoning them the school accepted no responsibility for their guidance and direction. Today the more progressive schools organize many extra-curricular activities in nearly every field of recreational interest and assume responsibility for leadership of extra-curricular clubs and groups of various kinds. The school administrators take pride in having all or nearly all pupils included in the extra-curricular program. So noticeable are these tendencies that in recent educational literature the distinction is no longer made between curricular and extra-curricular activities.

Recognition of Recreation as Education.

The recognition of the extra-curricular program as an effective educational force is indicative of a change which has come about

[2] Lundberg, George A., and others, *Leisure—A Suburban Study*, Columbia University Press, N. Y., 1934, pp 219-252.

in the whole philosophy basic to educational practice. Interest and voluntary participation are recognized as fundamental concomitants of learning. The influence of this theory is readily seen in much of the curricular work of the school and, indeed, in the most progressive schools it is difficult to distinguish between that which is "curricular" and that which is "extra-curricular," all activities being conducted more or less on an informal basis.

In the changes that have taken place in educational philosophy as well as in school practice in relation to leisure time needs there will be noted a trend similar in many respects to trends which have been present in the public recreation movement. This suggests that public recreation in some of its manifestations is a part of public education broadly conceived and that the schools of the future may become one of the agencies through which community recreation may be administered. There are other considerations which point in the same direction, one of which is the extensive movement in favor of the "wider use of public schools."

Movement for Wider Use of Schools.

Schools constructed at public expense have since the early colonial days been considered as a convenient and proper place to hold public gatherings for the discussion of public affairs. In the New England colonies the schools were places for religious worship and for intellectual stimulation of various kinds. As urban life became more complex, as the school itself became more institutionalized and as other facilities for public meetings became available, churches, lodge halls, court houses, etc., the dependence upon the school as a center of community life waned. Meanwhile in the late years of the past century and the early years of the twentieth century other conditions arose which turned the attention of the public toward the school as a possible neighborhood center. Among these conditions were the extreme congestion of large cities, the scarcity of other available centers, increased leisure as hours of labor decreased and a growing interest in recreation and education.

While the first state law providing for community use of school houses appeared in Indiana in 1859, the movement for wider used schools received its first great impetus in 1907 when under the leadership of Edward J. Ward the Rochester Board of Education

commenced an experiment which had at once a wide influence in big cities throughout the country. Five thousand dollars was appropriated to open several schools as civic centers and their administration was placed under Edward J. Ward, a Presbyterian minister who had advocated in Rochester and elsewhere the establishment of a civic center in the schoolhouse. Ward's idea was primarily associated with citizen discussion of civic affairs and training for democracy but he included in his plans arrangements for art exhibitions, concerts, festivals and health and employment services. The Rochester experiment became a political issue three years after its inception and further appropriations for its continuance were defeated. It had, however, attracted the attention of other cities and its leading exponent continued his promotion of the plan in other places. Legislation followed in a number of states which in effect declared that the school was a civic center and which authorized but rarely required boards of education to permit the use of school buildings for community gatherings for civic, political, educational, recreational and sometimes for religious purposes. These laws nearly always provided that the activities must not conflict with the use of the school for regular school purposes, and that damage to school property must be paid for by the users. Nearly all states now have laws which recognize the principle that schools should be available for wider community use. In a nation-wide study conducted in 1924 seven hundred and twenty-two cities, townships and villages reported that their schoolhouses were in use as often as once a week for two types of activity or twice a week for one type of activity.[3] This represents not more than five per cent of the schoolhouses in the United States.

Recreation an Auxiliary School Service.

Most of the legislation providing for the wider use of schools goes only so far as to permit agencies other than the school board itself to make use of the schools. In a few states, notably Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Illinois, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Utah, Wisconsin and the District of Columbia, the law authorizes school boards to conduct school community centers and to charge the cost of them to the school funds. There are

[3] Glueck, Eleanor T., *The Community Use of Schools*, The Williams & Wilkins Co., Baltimore, 1927, p. 38.

a number of school districts in which extensive service in this field is being rendered, of which two outstanding examples will be treated more fully later. In all laws, however, recreation is treated as an auxiliary service, as is implied in the requirement that the recreational use must not interfere with "regular school purposes." For example, the Minnesota act, passed in 1937, provides that, "The facilities of any school district, operating a recreation program under the provisions of this act, shall be used primarily for the purpose of conducting the regular school curriculum and related activities, and the use of the school facilities for recreation purposes authorized by this act shall be secondary." [4] It is plain that it was not the purpose of the legislature to interpret recreation as an integral part of education but merely to "permit the use of school facilities."

The same distinction between recreation and education is contained in the California Civic Center Act. This act provides that every school shall be a civic center where citizens of the school district "may engage in supervised recreation activities . . . provided, that such use and occupancy of said public school-house and grounds for said meetings shall in no wise interfere with such use and occupancy of said public school-house and grounds as is now or hereafter may be required for the purposes of said public schools of the State of California." [5] General participation of the citizenry in supervised recreation activities is not intended under the act as one of the "purposes of the said public schools," but is an appendage as it were to the regular school work. This does not mean that the participation of the regularly enrolled pupils of the school in supervised recreation activities would not be within the purposes of the school but only that the free participation of the citizens of the district is to be so construed.

The act also provides that school boards "may appoint a special supervising officer, who shall have charge of the grounds, preserve order, protect the school property and do all things necessary in the capacity of peace officer to carry out the provisions and the intents and purposes of this act." In thus specifying that the supervising officer act in the capacity of peace officer the legislature did not specifically authorize the employment of teachers, play direc-

[4] *Minnesota Statutes of 1937*, No. 672, Ch. 23.
[5] *School Code of California*, Ch. V.

tors, supervisors, organizers, and promoters to carry out the recreational purposes of the Center Act. The legislature plainly intended that the supervising officer should be limited in his duties to protecting the property and preserving order.

The Wisconsin Enabling Act relating to the use of school buildings and grounds for civic purposes, although of more liberal construction than most acts of a similar nature which, it should be added, are few in number, gives evidence of the same special nature of recreation when conducted under school auspices. This act provides that "Boards of school districts in cities of the first, second and third class, may on their own initiation, and shall upon petition as provided in subsection (2) establish and maintain for children and adult persons, in the school buildings and on the school grounds under the custody and management of such boards, evening schools, vacation schools, reading rooms, library stations, debating clubs, gymnasiums, public playgrounds, public baths and similar activities and accommodations to be determined by such boards. . . ." [6]

A special tax levy to carry out the purposes set forth after approval of the electorate in an election is elsewhere provided for in the act. In other words, recreation is an appendage of the educational program to be separately financed and authorized.

Difficulties Confronting Schools.

One of the fundamental difficulties which confronts the public schools in undertaking to conduct a diversified community recreation program lies in the fact that the traditional function of the school is to "instruct" or "teach," and through years of practice this function is interpreted in terms of a formal teaching situation in which the conventional relationship of teacher and pupils obtains. Recreation is concerned more with practice than with teaching in the ordinarily accepted meanings of these terms. The technique of leadership in public recreation is one of organization of activities and groups and promotion of participation in activities by setting up a variety of incentives. Participation is not only voluntary but it is self-managed to a large extent. There is much instruction involved, but it is incidental to the main job. Because of this fundamental difference between the services to be performed

[6] *Wisconsin Statutes of 1935*, Ch. 43-50.

schools find themselves ill equipped with trained personnel to do the public recreation job.

Another fundamental difficulty in the way of schools becoming responsible for public recreation is found in the fact that school work is compulsory for children if not for adults, but in either case is conducted for those regularly enrolled in classes and usually for a predetermined time. This fact is not only rooted in long practice but is involved in plans for school finance. Most states allocate funds to school districts on the basis of their average daily attendance. Public recreation cannot be successfully conducted on the class basis with regular enrollment in classes, based on artificial classification of members especially for predetermined periods or "semesters." The informality which characterizes public recreation activities does not fit in the highly organized public school program at present.

The extra-curricular program of the public schools is an approach to the method of public recreation in that participation is voluntary, groups are largely self-managed and they endure only so long as interest sustains them. These activities, however, are in any school exclusively for the enrolled pupils of the school.

The existence of departments of playgrounds and recreation in many cities is no doubt due in some measure to the inability of the vast institution of the public schools to adapt itself to the community needs in respect to these matters. The early leaders of the playground movement sought first to open the school grounds to the children for play. Failing in this they brought pressure upon municipal authorities to establish separate departments apart from the departments of education. Had the schools advanced then as far as the more progressive schools have since progressed in the concept of the aims and purposes of education, and had the curricular and extra-curricular changes taken place which are now in vogue quite generally, many school authorities probably would have welcomed the opportunity to perform the related function of community recreation.

In cities in which community recreation departments exist separate from the schools many interests in common have developed and there is a noticeable tendency toward close coordination, mutual interchange of services and joining of facilities in a common program. Consolidation of the two is not practicable, largely

because the school departments operate as a state function and the local recreation departments as an arm of municipal governments. Functional coordination in which each department retains its autonomy but in which a unified program is achieved is the closest they have come to consolidation. The several plans for effecting coordination will be discussed later.

In cities which have not yet organized separate departments of recreation, and this includes the vast majority of cities less than 25,000 and over 2,500 in population, a difficult dilemma is presented. Should the public schools be made the agency for community recreation or should a separate agency be set up? The answer is by no means simple. The smaller the city the more compelling are the arguments in favor of dependence on schools. In rural districts there seems little alternative but to look to the schools for the service at least for the next decade or two.

It would be in the interest of clearness to summarize at this point the arguments advanced on both sides of the issue. Arguments in favor of the assumption of school responsibility for community recreation may be summarized as follows:

Arguments Favoring School Centered Recreation.

1. The schools have to a large degree the physical facilities required and which to a large extent are comparatively unused during the times when a community recreation program would require facilities. These facilities include children's playgrounds, athletic fields, auditoriums, gymnasiums, meeting rooms, music and art rooms and shops. An ideal community recreation center would almost duplicate the ideal school plant. With few exceptions, notably those in which schools are used for night instruction and for vacation schools, the school plants are idle over one-third of the days of the year, and on days when school is in session they are used less than nine hours per day. It is difficult to think of any greater economic waste than is represented in this situation in face of the demonstrated community need. To construct duplicating plants is almost inconceivable. Ways must be devised to free the school facilities for full use.

2. Schools are distributed in a city and largely in rural districts according to the same plan which would apply in locating community recreation centers. Every neighborhood must have its

elementary school, just as every neighborhood should have its recreation center. Every district, in the sense of a grouping of neighborhoods, should have its secondary school, just as every district should have its district recreation center. The same considerations which would influence the location of rural schools would apply in locating centers for recreation of the rural population.

3. The public school systems of the several states have contact regularly with all the children and with more of the total population than any other public institution. They are organized to provide a universal service to children. If recreation as a public function has any justification it is as a universal opportunity for all. There seems little hope of reaching this goal except by grafting public recreation upon the universal public education system.

4. The aims, purposes and techniques of public education on the one hand and of public recreation on the other are rapidly coming closer together to the extent that in many comparable situations they cannot be distinguished. The two movements are as two streams tributary to a large river; as they flow on their waters come closer together and finally merge in one great river. Educators recognize more and more that instruction cannot be divorced from practice or from living. The introduction of "projects" as units of instruction and the growth of extra-curricular activities in the schools bear testimony to the acceptance of this view. Similarly recreation agencies have increasingly coupled instruction, often incidentally and informally, with voluntary participation in recreation activities. Thus the educational program on the one hand and the recreation program on the other tend to become similar manifestations.

5. The schools have the potential leadership required in a recreation program. The vast army of public school teachers and administrators, numbering over 800,000, two hundred times the number of full-time publicly employed community recreation leaders, may become a tremendous force of leadership in leisure as their programs are integrated with the recreational life of the communities in which they work. The increase of personnel required in a universal recreation program would be less if the personnel were an addition to the present educational staff than if attached to an independent system. Moreover much of the leadership in recreation must and properly should be volunteer, unpaid leadership. Stu-

dents could be trained to assume such leadership not only while in school but after completion of their schooling in the neighborhoods in which they reside.

Arguments Against School Centered Recreation.

On the opposite side of this question there are many arguments which carry considerable weight. They may be summarized as follows:

1. Education should cling to its special task which is intellectual training. It should not be diverted from this task by being made responsible for conducting various activities of indirect intellectual value. The activity basis of curriculum organization is held by one school of thought to be fundamentally unsound. The "classics," by which is understood to mean the accumulated best thought and experience of the race through the ages, should be the basis of public school teaching and the emphasis upon activities which has characterized the development of education in recent years is wrong and tends to crowd out the fundamental instruction through which pupils may acquire intellectual discipline and ability to think.

This point of view, championed by President Hutchins of Chicago University, has created no small controversy among educators, most of whom it may be added are not in agreement. Nevertheless it has retarded and not encouraged the trend toward broadening of the scope of public school activities and taking on additional responsibilities.

2. The public schools already have more to do than can be well done and the addition of further responsibilities handicaps the schools in the performance of their present work. Many schools still are conducted for short terms wholly inadequate to the needs of children. They are poorly housed. Teachers in many parts of the country are insufficiently compensated and inadequately prepared. These deficiencies should be provided for before additional burdens are placed upon the system.

3. The adoption of community recreation by the schools will give the recreation program the wrong emphasis. Recreation will be patterned after educational projects, classroom techniques will be used and freedom of choice of activities will be denied. The essential democracy of recreation will not be preserved and there

will be inevitably a tendency toward regimentation of people in recreation. Recreation will fare better if a special agency is established for its service which is unhampered by age-long traditions in which education is enshrouded.

4. The use of schoolrooms, auditoriums and gymnasiums for community recreation during hours that schools are not ordinarily in session will render them less efficient for the regular teaching of school pupils. Equipment will be damaged and supplies will be consumed. The use of the same equipment and supplies by different staff in different programs is inefficient. Moreover, any extensive program in the schools will require alterations in school buildings which will be major changes in school planning. It is questioned whether other structures elsewhere cannot be more economically provided for the recreation program and whether they might not then be better adapted to the recreation work.

5. Coupling community recreation with education in one agency will make it more difficult to secure funds for both programs. Both programs being admittedly inadequate their problems are primarily problems of finance. Two agencies each conducting its own program can ordinarily obtain more finance than one agency performing two functions. Community recreation, a service so far much weaker in public support than public education, will fare better if it is promoted by those with a singleness of purpose who are responsible for it than if it is grafted onto an established agency as a subordinate function.

The Present Status of School Centered Recreation.

Notwithstanding arguments pro and con in regard to the assumption by the public schools of responsibility for community recreation it must be recognized that the problem of community recreation is challenging the schools and that the schools are more and more meeting this challenge. The extent to which they are doing so cannot be covered by any general statement relating to all schools for the attention given to the matter varies all the way from complete divorcement of schools from community recreation in some districts to assumption in others of complete responsibility for providing facilities, organizing and promoting programs and giving leadership to people in recreation activities. Out of 1,027 public agencies which had been made responsible for the adminis-

tration of community recreation in American cities in 1937, 179 were boards of education or other school authorities.[7] While many of these agencies shared the responsibility in given cities with other municipal agencies, nevertheless the number must be interpreted as indicative of an increasing trend in the direction of school centered community recreation.

The assumption of responsibility for recreation by public schools has not and probably will not in the future be to the exclusion of other agencies. The strategic position of the schools has reference almost entirely to neighborhood and local district recreation activities. Regional services and to some extent district services must continue to be rendered by other agencies. Even if the schools assumed complete responsibility for purely local or neighborhood services, administration of parks, recreation facilities properly located in parks, such as golf courses, picnic grounds, swimming pools, large athletic areas, incidental children's playgrounds, etc., public beaches and camps, would continue to be a function of agencies separate from the schools. The question is not, therefore, whether all recreation should or may be administered by the public schools but rather whether some recreation, namely, that centered in a neighborhood center, should be so administered. Should the functions of public schools be extended there would still be ample place for other public recreation agencies and certainly in most cities there will continue to be a need for local playground and recreation departments for many years to come.

Excluding consideration of classroom avocational instruction, extra-curricular activities for pupils regularly enrolled in schools, and night school instruction in leisure time arts for people not usually enrolled in day schools, what recreation services are schools rendering in certain school districts? An examination of school practice throughout the country will show that most schools render no such services, but here and there are interesting demonstrations which fall into the following groups:

1. Summer playgrounds on school areas wholly under the administration of the schools.

[7] National Recreation Association, *Year Book: Issue of Recreation*, June 1938, p. 131.

2. Summer playgrounds on school areas under the administration of other agencies, usually public but occasionally quasi-public or so-called "private" agencies.
3. Year-round recreation programs on school playgrounds and in school buildings under public agencies other than the schools or under quasi-public agencies.
4. Year-round recreation programs on school playgrounds and in school buildings wholly under the administration of the schools.
5. Year-round recreation programs on school playgrounds and in school buildings under joint school and municipal or other joint administration.

Examples of typical practice of the several types will be cited and briefly discussed.

Summer Playgrounds Under School Agencies.

Many school departments or boards in the larger cities and a few in the smaller cities open their school playgrounds for summer play and employ play directors to give supervision to play activities which take place there. Participation is usually not limited to those who are regular pupils of a given school during the year but is open to all including in many cases adults. The supervisors or directors of play are sometimes regular teachers employed at special rates of compensation for the summer period or advanced students or others who are not teachers. In recent years many clients of relief agencies, most recently of the Works Progress Administration, have also been used with direction from school employees. The general supervision and organization of programs is usually assigned to members of the school department physical education staff. The program consists of physical education activities in the main with some simple forms of handicraft, music and dramatics. The facilities used are almost exclusively the outdoor play areas and in many cases access to buildings is not permitted.

St. Louis, Missouri, is a good example of school provision of summer playground activities. In 1937 the Board of Education there operated fifty-nine summer playgrounds for which it employed a staff of 446 playground workers. Its budget for leadership amounted to $55,986 and its total attendance reached over

1,500,000.[8] This would indicate that its average attendance per day per playground was about 400. The school summer playground program parallels the municipal park and playground program but is independent of it.

Numerous examples could be cited of individual schools which now permit the school grounds to be used throughout the summer for community play and which employ someone at a moderate wage to organize and supervise the play. Thousands of schools in small and large cities have been opened in recent years utilizing W.P.A. assistants. Nevertheless it would be a mistake to infer that school grounds are generally used or that most efficient use is made of them. Eugene T. Lies, from questionnaires returned by 416 cities, concluded that 47 per cent of them did not conduct summer school playgrounds and commented that, "This obviously is a poor showing." [9] The lack of use is more pronounced in the smaller cities and in the rural districts. Lies' questionnaire did not include cities of less than 5,000 population. Any traveler passing by the thousands of school grounds along the roadsides of America must be impressed with the closed gates, forbidding fences, lack of play conveniences and almost general disuse of the public school grounds during the summer months when schools are not in session.

Summer Playgrounds Under Non-School Agencies.

It is not uncommon for recreation departments where they exist in cities to have the use of school grounds in the summer provided the school department itself does not operate its own system of summer playgrounds. The cost of supplies and the payroll of summer employees is then usually met from municipal appropriations. Three-fourths of the recreation commissions or departments in American cities do not control facilities or areas of their own but are dependent upon schools and public park departments. Most of these recreation agencies conduct all or nearly all of their activities during the summer months. In a number of smaller cities the school playgrounds are operated by quasi-

[8] National Recreation Association, *Year Book: Issue of Recreation*, June 1938, p. 151.

[9] Lies, Eugene T., *The New Leisure Challenges the Schools*, National Recreation Association, New York, 1933, p. 179.

public bodies supported by community chests or by private philanthropy with or without some public aid. Often a demonstration under such sponsorship eventually leads to the establishment of a public department or to the taking over of the work by the schools.

In most communities, particularly the smaller cities and rural and suburban communities, there is no recreation commission or department or other agency to which the schools may turn over their grounds for summer administration. The schools themselves having made no provision for operation of these grounds the communities remain unserved.

Year-Round Recreation in Schools Under Non-School Agencies.

Where there is a well-established local recreation commission or department which is financed for year-round service the question inevitably arises whether such department shall be permitted to use the school grounds and buildings for its year-round program. Since the number of recreation departments which employed ten or more recreation leaders full time the year round was only thirty-nine in 1937, it can be seen that the question at present affects relatively few cities as far as year-round service is concerned. In some of these cities the practice has developed of having the municipal department conduct year-round centers in the school buildings; in others either no recreation centers have been developed or the schools themselves have established year-round recreation centers.

The outstanding example of municipal recreation centers in school buildings is offered by Detroit. The Recreation Department of the city is granted an annual permit to conduct community centers in over eighty school buildings whose auditoriums, gymnasiums, classrooms and shops are used for a well-organized program. The Board of Education makes a charge to the City Recreation Department for janitor service and special maintenance expenses including breakage. The amount paid for these expenses in one year is approximately $30,000. Permits also include the use of school playgrounds and athletic fields. The activities in the program which is offered include athletics, gymnastics, music, art, handicraft, dances, concerts, motion pictures, lectures, literary

clubs, nature lore, gardening, and in fact all activities which are found in the well-balanced community recreation program. They are open to all usually on a free basis, but evening programs are primarily for adults or for those no longer enrolled in day schools. The program is not conducted as a formal classroom teaching program but on an informal basis with a great deal of self-direction and volunteer leadership in the groups.

The Detroit Recreation Department does not limit its work to schools but operates also in parks administered by the Park Department and on properties under its direct control. It also conducts public activities in churches, homes and public places, and is in charge of the supervision as to issuance of permits and municipal regulation of commercial recreation places such as commercial dance halls. Detroit is perhaps the best example in America of the unification of all *active* municipal recreation under one department. Its operating budget in 1937 amounted to $498,453, but in pre-depression years it expended considerably more.

While the Detroit plan has much to commend it one of its implications needs to be mentioned here. When there is a strong recreation department in any city which operates on school properties it is only natural for the Board of Education to refrain from undertaking to offer direct recreation services to the public other than through regular classes of instruction and through extra-curricular activities for regularly enrolled pupils. The result is that community recreation is not regarded as an integral part of education but as an appendage which is merely tolerated. It also means that close integration of the education for leisure with the active community recreational life is not fostered as well as would be the case if the schools themselves were responsible for that part of the community recreation program which takes place in schools.

When public recreation departments use school facilities they must of necessity be regarded as tenants and as such do not have the freedom in the control and use of the facilities which makes for efficient administration and particularly since the facilities which they employ are used also day by day by the schools themselves. Experience has shown that the conflicts which arise affecting innumerable details are almost intolerable to both agencies as a result of which freedom of operation is handicapped and arrange-

ments for use of the facilities are precarious to say the least. Much of this difficulty passes away when the schools themselves assume responsibility for the recreation program on their own properties.

Still another implication of possible far-reaching consequence consists in the fact that this plan lays the burden of financial support wholly upon the local district or city. Schools derive generally about half of their support from state tax resources. If community recreation, insofar as it may be a part of the school program, can share in such state support not to the detriment of other educational functions, however, recreation may benefit greatly. This point of view deserves considerable attention, in view of the fact that state governments generally have arrogated to themselves so many of the means of raising public revenues and left the cities with inadequate and impaired means of taxation.

Year-Round Recreation in Schools Under School Agencies.

While many school systems have made a significant start in the direction of serving their communities in recreation the number which can be said to conduct year-round community recreation programs serving adults as well as children and offering an extensive and varied program is exceedingly small. Notable among these are Milwaukee, Wis., and Newark, N. J., whose achievements in this regard are outstanding and worthy of special study.

Milwaukee is known as the "City of the Lighted School Houses." Under its Extension Division, which is headed by an executive of extensive and varied school and recreation experience who has the rank of an Assistant Superintendent of Schools, this school department operates a system of twenty-three year-round and forty-three additional summer playgrounds and twenty-three indoor recreation centers in school buildings. Its total attendance at playground activities exceeds 4,000,000 and its attendance at indoor recreation centers is over 840,000. This program is financed by a special district tax of four cents on each one hundred dollars of assessed valuation of real property, which pursuant to the Wisconsin School Recreation Enabling Act was voted by the people. Its operating budget for the year 1937 was $375,280. It employed 959 recreation workers of whom sixty-nine were full-time year-round

workers and the rest part-time and seasonal workers. In addition it had the services of forty emergency workers paid from relief funds.

The activities in the "lighted school houses" include classes in many applied arts, group activities in athletics, literary activities, music, dancing and dramatics and a varied assortment of civic, patriotic and social events. The indoor centers are open to children of school age after school hours up to 6:30 o'clock and to others no longer enrolled in school during the evening hours. Boy Scout troops and similar groups of children are accommodated during the evening hours by special permit from the principal. The activities of the outdoor playgrounds, both daytime and under lights in the evening, are the same as conducted by well-established municipal recreation departments including highly organized adult sports for youth and adults.

A distinctive feature of the Milwaukee program is that, notwithstanding the fact that it draws its financial support from a special school fund, it is integrated closely with the regular school work, many of the evening directors of program being also employed in part during the day. Lighted school centers are under the general supervision of the day school principal or vice-principal which creates a tie with the general school work which is of the utmost significance and which minimizes administrative conflicts between the two programs.

The Newark system under the Board of Education is similar to the Milwaukee system with some notable exceptions. It is administered by a Recreation Department under the Superintendent of Schools and the Board of Education. It is not financed by a special tax but its expense is incorporated in the regular school budget.

This department expended for operations a total of $204,081 in 1937. It operated thirty-three year-round and ten summer playgrounds and thirty-three indoor recreation centers the year-round in school buildings. It employed 225 recreation leaders of whom sixty-eight were employed full time the year round, not including forty-two emergency workers employed from relief funds. The recreation leaders are selected from applicants who have qualifications in professional training equal to those of school teachers and administrators and are granted professional status, including salary, accordingly.

Strategic Position of Schools in Rural Areas.

The increasing tendency of public schools to enter the community recreation field is perhaps of greater significance to rural districts than to the cities. The incorporated city is a governmental device invented specifically for the purpose of organizing the services of government which are of local importance. The rural areas lack such a device, except for education which is administered through a system of local school districts and school boards. These boards are the only agency of government immediately in contact with local community needs. They also control the publicly owned facilities which could be utilized in a rural recreation program. The creation of any other agency for local rural recreation has not yet come about. It appears that insofar as community recreation activities under public sponsorship are concerned the district school offers the only immediate hope for rural people.

There are unquestionably numerous rural schools which, through extraordinary vision and initiative of a principal, teacher or district board, are making a contribution to the recreational life of their communities. An interesting organized effort on a wide scale in this direction is now offered by the State of Minnesota. There in 1937 the state legislature passed the Minnesota Recreation Enabling Act which authorized school districts and other jurisdictions to operate programs of public recreation. It authorized the use of school funds for this purpose and provided that in cases where school funds are used the State Board of Education shall "Prepare or cause to be prepared, published and distributed adequate and appropriate manuals and other materials as it may deem necessary or suitable to carry out the provisions of this act." [10] When this act was before the legislature the University of Minnesota sent a questionnaire to one hundred school superintendents concerning the act and its effect upon their communities. Of eighty-eight who replied, eighty-three per cent stated that a definite need existed for trained recreation leaders in their districts and seventy-six per cent stated that they expected to avail themselves of school funds if the act carried. In less than one year after passage of the act six school boards in rural areas had under-

[10] *Minnesota Laws of* 1937, Chapter 233.

taken to provide for community recreation primarily through the schools with the school superintendent as the general administrator and a recreation director in charge. Several other school districts had joined with other agencies in a plan of cooperative sponsorship. The County Board of Education of Rural St. Louis County employed an experienced recreation director to aid in the organization of school centered recreation through the several school district boards.[11]

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VI

COUNTY AND RURAL RECREATION

THE public recreation movement has so far manifested itself primarily in urban districts and has only begun to be felt in the rural areas. Forty-three and eight-tenths per cent of the population of the United States in 1930 resided in rural districts or in villages and towns of less than 2,500 population. The problem of the rural population insofar as recreation is concerned is quite different from the problem of urban dwellers. Nevertheless they are not without leisure and from the standpoint of the socializing values of recreation their needs are no less vital than those of persons residing in cities.

As in the cities the needs of the rural people have been partially met through the services of agencies organized primarily for other purposes. These agencies have sometimes utilized recreation as a vehicle for the accomplishment of their main objectives, but recognizing the great need for recreation they have adapted their operations in many instances directly to the satisfaction of the need without disregard for the original purposes for which they were organized. The Grange, a great voluntary organization for the improvement of the economic, political and social conditions of farmers, with its numerous local units, has proved to be a valuable instrument for the organization of social activities for the families of farmers. The Young Men's Christian Association in its program for town and country youth has initiated and conducted an extensive program of recreational activities. The 4-H Clubs of the Agriculture Extension Division of the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the Future Farmers of America have been useful agencies in this field. The rural schools have provided some recreational opportunities for children and the widespread development of secondary schools for rural youth has been an even greater

factor in bringing recreation opportunities to the rural communities. The program of the Works Progress Administration since 1935 has been the most widespread demonstration of organization of rural communities for recreation, for this agency has had workers in thousands of villages and hamlets across the country.

All of these efforts are of the utmost significance and unquestionably presage a vast future development of rural recreation. The problem as in the cities is essentially one of organizing the local resources in land, structures and other facilities and the interests, skills and enthusiasms of the people for the enrichment of their leisure. Although voluntary and private agencies will do much to explore the field and to experiment in the techniques there will be no universal program of opportunities without public organization. Patterns of organization are not many but they may be studied in relation to the conditions peculiar to rural life which brought them forth. They may be indicative of the probable trend of organization of rural recreation in the future.

The assumption of responsibility for finance, personnel and a large measure of general direction by the Works Progress Administration cannot be assumed to be the permanent pattern of organization of rural recreation. The Administration is acknowledged to be a temporary agency existing primarily to afford work relief to its clients who would, it is assumed, be otherwise unemployed. Frankly recognizing this fact the policy of the Administration has consistently been to require local sponsorship by public agencies. These include the boards of supervisors of counties, temporary commissions and committees appointed by such boards, town trustees and officials, district boards of education, county park and forestry departments and various state agencies. The form or forms of organization which will evolve in the future may be largely a matter of conjecture for the problem is even more complicated than in the cities; but it is probable that the future organization will evolve through the established agency for public education in rural districts or through county governing boards and agencies to be established by them. The possibility of future state and federal aid is not, however, to be wholly dismissed. It will be necessary, if the problem is to be better understood, to inquire into the nature of the county and school organization and the functions of counties and school districts.

The Legal Nature and Status of Counties.

The form of local government in the United States derives from the old form developed in England and transplanted in the American colonies. For purposes of local government the several Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, which were united in the ninth century to become the United Kingdom of England, were each divided into shires or counties. These were in turn divided into "hundreds" which were a collection of townships. With the organization of the Church the parish came into existence and its boundaries were usually the boundaries of the shire or county. When government was established in the colonies of America the essential form of English government was adopted but with some variations between colonies. The influence of other European governments was also present as in the Dutch settlements of New York and Pennsylvania. Following the Revolution local government tended to become more uniform and certain officials and functions passed out of existence or became of little effect. With the complete separation of church and state, for example, the parishes were no longer important and ceased to exist except in Louisiana where governmental traditions were from the French. The parishes in Louisiana may be considered as counties. As new states were organized they took on largely the forms of the original states. The township as a subdivision of the county became of less and less importance and now exists in only nineteen eastern and north central states. The separate organization of cities, boroughs, villages and incorporated towns as an instrument of local government has influenced the decline of the township. The development of incorporated local governments has proceeded at a rapid rate since the Civil War. There are now nearly 20,000 incorporated municipal governments in the United States.

To the separate municipal corporations, as pointed out in Chapter II, state legislatures have granted wide latitude in the government of local affairs. This condition has facilitated the adaptation of local government to new conditions and has been no small factor in the establishment of local agencies in the incorporated cities for community recreation purposes. The rural districts in respect to purely local needs have no such convenient governmental form with almost unlimited powers and are de-

pendent upon the county government with its limited powers, or upon the school district, or in some states special district government with specific and distinctly limited powers.

Counties are merely certain portions of the territory of the state into which the state is divided to conveniently exercise the powers of the state government. All portions of any state are within some county and the county is created by the state with a view to the policy of the state at large. All cities are likewise within some county.

The distinction between counties and municipal corporations was very well expressed by the Supreme Court of Ohio in 1857. The court stated that "counties are local subdivisions of a state, created by the sovereign power of the state, of its own sovereign will, without the particular solicitation, consent, or concurrent action of the people who inhabit them. The former organization is asked for, or at least assented to by the people in embraces; the latter is superimposed by a sovereign and paramount authority. A municipal corporation proper is created mainly for the interest, advantage, and convenience of the locality and its people; a county organization is created almost exclusively with a view to the policy of the state at large, for purposes of finance, of education, of provision for the poor, of military organization, of the means of travel and transport, and especially for the general administration of justice. With scarcely an exception, all the powers and functions of the county organization have a direct and exclusive reference to the general policy of the state, and are, in fact, but a branch of the general administration of that policy." [1]

Those who reside in an incorporated city have in general two local governments: one, the county, organized to administer locally the government of the state and the other, the municipal corporation, to administer such functions as the body politic locally determines to be to its best interests. It is the latter which has been used to exercise the powers of organizing systems of public recreation. Thus, it is seen that people residing in rural districts outside the limits of separate municipal corporations do not have a local government as well adapted to their local needs as do the city dwellers except as the county government may be adapted thereto.

[1] Commissioners of Hamilton County v. Mighels, 7 Ohio St. 109 (1857).

In 1930 there were in the United States 3,170 counties, or an average of sixty-five per state. Delaware had the smallest number of counties, namely three, while Texas had 253. Counties varied in size from twenty-two square miles (New York County) to 20,175 square miles (San Bernardino County, California). The average size of counties was 975 square miles. The great majority of counties are distinctly rural in character; not more than one-fourth of them contain a city over 10,000 population and in most of these rural population predominates.

Counties are created by the state legislatures in conformity to limitations set forth in state constitutions. All states do not require the approval of the voters in a proposed new county. New counties are created by division of old counties. The tendency toward increase in the number of counties is not great.

Many state constitutions place a minimum on the size of counties, which varies from 275 square miles in Tennessee to 900 square miles in Texas. Some constitutions prescribe minimum populations which range from 700 in Tennessee to 20,000 in Pennsylvania.

The Functions of Counties.

The functions of counties are limited expressly to the powers granted to them by the state. The Supreme Court of the United States has held that counties "have no inherent jurisdiction to make laws or to adopt governmental regulations, nor can they express any other powers in that regard than such as are expressly or implicitly derived from their charters, or other statutes of the State." [2]

Several functions of counties have become traditional. In all states the counties are districts for the administration of justice, for the construction and maintenance of roads and bridges and for the conduct of state and county elections. In nearly all states the county also acts for the state in providing relief for indigents and as a tax collection agency for the collection of state and county taxes. Many states grant legislative powers to their counties in connection with certain specified types of cases under the police power.

[2] Commissioners of Laramis County v. Commissioners of Albany Co., 92 U. S. 307 (1876).

There is a tendency in recent years for states to grant to counties new powers related to local interests. Among these may be noted the powers to aid and promote agriculture; to promote and administer public health regulations and institutions; to construct sewers and drains; to establish county libraries and to establish and maintain county parks.

The first county park in America is said to have been established by Essex County, New Jersey. Twenty-two states have enacted laws specifically empowering counties to acquire, improve and maintain parks and in several additional states the power is contained in general laws relating to other powers. Most of the specific laws relating to county parks vest the powers of administration in the county boards of supervisors, but six states provide for the appointment of separate boards of park commissioners. In no enabling acts except the act passed by the legislature of California in 1939 is mention made of the power to promote, organize and conduct recreation activities and insofar as these functions are concerned they must be implied in the acts providing for the acquisition, improvement and maintenance of park areas. The Pennsylvania act makes more specific mention of community recreation facilities than other acts which refer primarily to parks. The Pennsylvania act empowers counties to "designate and set apart for use as playgrounds, play fields, gymnasiums, public baths, swimming pools, or indoor recreation centers, any land or building owned by the county and not dedicated or devoted to other public use." [3]

Growth of County Parks and Recreation.

In a study published by the United States National Park Service in 1937, it was reported that seventy-seven counties in America had established county parks.[4] The number of parks owned and operated by counties was reported to be 526. Several counties, notably Westchester County, N. Y., Cook County, Ill., Union County, N. Y. and Los Angeles County, Calif., had established systems of parks. These counties are in highly developed and densely populated metropolitan areas.

[3] Pennsylvania Statutes, Complete to 1920, sec. 15822-15828.

[4] U. S. Department of the Interior. *Bulletin of the National Park Service*, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1937.

The Westchester County system is the best known and the most complete. It consists of a network of over 160 miles of traffic parkways throughout the county, four great inland reservations and five waterfront parks. The improved recreation facilities include three swimming pools, three golf courses, numerous athletic fields and picnic grounds, boating facilities on lakes, bathing beaches and a most elaborate amusement park, known as "Playland" which, when completed in 1929, set a new high standard for such parks in America, whether publicly or privately owned. The total cost of the Westchester system for land and improvements exceeded $65,000,000.[5]

Types of County Recreation Areas.

The areas acquired and improved by counties for park and recreation purposes may be considered as of six more or less distinct types:

1. *Parkways.* Several metropolitan counties in establishing rights of way for heavily traveled motor highways have acquired sufficient land on either side of the highways to control the roadside development. Where the highways pass through wooded regions the natural landscape is preserved or restored for a distance on either side of the highways of from one hundred to five hundred feet. In driving through these parkways one has the impression of passing through a vast park. Interesting features such as rock formations, lakes, streams and long distance vistas are exposed. At certain spots adapted for the purpose picnic facilities are provided.

The Westchester County Parkways of New York are the most notable example of such development in America. Splendid examples are also found in Wayne County, Michigan, Milwaukee County, Wisconsin, and San Francisco City and County, California. Since the construction of highways through counties is rapidly coming to be a state function the parkway will probably tend to be developed in the future as a part of the state highway and park systems. The Long Island State Parkways of New York are an indication of this trend.

2. *Beaches.* A number of counties on the Atlantic, Pacific and Gulf coasts have acquired beaches and have protected and

[5] Westchester County Park Commissions, *Annual Report*, 1931.

developed them for public recreation purposes. The beaches are a facility which attracts visitors from afar and are consequently considered a proper object for planning on the part of a governmental subdivision larger than the city. Because the beaches within the city limits are usually occupied by commercial, industrial and navigation enterprises the city dwellers usually must go beyond the city limits for beach recreation.

3. *Local Parks.* A number of counties have established parks within the boundaries of cities or immediately beyond the municipal boundaries which correspond in their development and service to the municipal district park and playground. Counties have usually come into possession of such areas by gift or bequest or by transfer from other public uses. The areas vary in size from ten to fifty acres. Sometimes they are equipped with an athletic field, children's playground, picnic area, swimming pool and amusement devices of various kinds and occasionally they surround some spot or object of historic or unusual scenic interest.

4. *Regional Parks.* Near large metropolitan areas there are several examples of county parks which might be termed regional recreation areas and parks. They are usually beyond the city boundaries. They frequently are characterized by some wooded areas, lake, streams, winter sports areas, picnic spots and golf course.

5. *Reservations.* A number of counties have acquired large reservations of wooded lands, and in the Southwest desert lands, to preserve the natural fauna and flora. These vary in size from 500 to 5,700 acres. Recreation indigenous to the nature of the region are permitted and encouraged, such as winter sports, camping, hiking, fishing and boating. Among such reservations are the Denver City and County Mountain Park, the Cook County, Illinois, Forest Preserves, the Poundridge and Blue Mountain Reservations of Westchester County, New York, and the Big Pines County Park of Los Angeles County, California.

6. *Miscellaneous Small Parks.* Counties come into possession by one way or another of small parcels of land which are designated as County Parks. Most frequently they are along the road sides or at some historic or scenic spot. Sometimes they are improved for camping or picnicking. They do not occupy an important place in the county scheme of recreation areas.

Regional Function of County Parks.

It is apparent from the foregoing that the essential function of county parks is to provide a regional service. That counties should endeavor to meet the need for regional recreation facilities is logical. With improved highways and transport facilities people are able to travel farther afield than the confines of their neighborhoods, districts and municipal boundaries for some of their recreation. The regional recreation place with its wooded and natural environment, its spaciousness, its extensive facilities capable of accommodating large numbers of people, occupies an indispensable place in the whole recreation plan.

The provision of neighborhood and district facilities for recreation has already been well established as a legitimate service for cities to perform. All cities except the large metropolitan cities could hardly do more than properly take care of this need. The allocation of the regional areas to the counties, to the states and to the Federal Government is a reasonable division of the responsibility. Moreover, if counties are to expend for recreation funds raised from general county taxes, to which the city property owners contribute a large share, it is proper that the object of expenditure be such that the city people might share in the benefits. The locations which lend themselves best to the development of regional recreation facilities are more likely to be outside the incorporated limits of cities and removed from city congestion than within such limits. It is better that the county improve and administer them for the benefit of all the people of the county than that the cities go beyond their limits to undertake the task.

Unincorporated County Territory.

The problem of providing local recreation areas and programs, as distinguished from regional services, in unincorporated county territory and in rural areas remains as yet unsolved. There are two promising alternatives; one is to expand the function of the public schools to include some services in recreation and the other is to permit the organization of special recreation districts within counties with powers to establish systems of recreation and to tax property within the district presumed to benefit thereby. The latter will be discussed first.

Special Districts Within Counties.

In order to provide certain governmental services in portions of counties a relatively new agency has been created known as the "special district." As rural and urban life have become more complex many problems have arisen peculiar to certain sections but not to the whole of a county. This condition has given rise to the creation in many states of special districts for the handling of these problems. Certain problems are of special concern to a city and the adjacent unincorporated area and others to unincorporated area alone. There are, for example, several metropolitan utility districts and sanitary, flood control and park districts. The creation of such districts to handle certain problems peculiar to large metropolitan areas has removed one of the most urgent reasons for consolidation of cities in metropolitan areas and at the same time has provided a means for administration of separate services vital to the area. There are also many special districts in rural areas for highways, drainage, irrigation, public health and special schools. In 1929 forty-seven different varieties of special districts were found to exist under eighty-nine different titles. California had twenty-eight, Arkansas eighteen, Washington thirteen, and Illinois twelve.[6]

The special district renders its services within the confines of the district and raises its revenues from direct assessment upon the real property or by ad valorem tax, and by fees or charges for special services. The taxes are assessed and collected by the county. The districts are created by state legislatures or by county boards of supervisors under authority granted by the legislatures. The initiative for the formation of the districts is taken by the landowners or voters and is evidenced by petition addressed to the board of supervisors. Districts are variously governed,—by boards appointed by state authority or the board of supervisors and some by elected boards. In some cases the board of supervisors acts as the district board.

[6] Guild, F. H., "Special Municipal Corporations" (*National Municipal Review*), p. 319, 1929.

Metropolitan Park Districts.

Metropolitan areas which overlap municipal and sometimes county boundaries have in a few instances created metropolitan park districts. These districts usually have independent taxing powers and if located in more than one county collect their taxes through the tax collection agencies of the counties in which they are located. The best known metropolitan park district is that in Massachusetts in and around Boston, which is governed by a Board of District Commissioners. It has a system of thirty-four parks comprising 12,607 acres. Other metropolitan districts are the East Bay Regional Park District in and about Oakland, California, the Cleveland Metropolitan Park District of Cuyahoga County, Ohio, and the Toledo and Akron districts of Lucas and Summit Counties, Ohio.

Districts for Local Recreation.

So far the organization of special districts for local community recreation in rural areas has not been resorted to but as the rural sections become more conscious of their recreational needs this device may well be considered. It overcomes what appears to be the principal difficulty in the way of counties providing for rural recreation out of general county funds raised in large part through taxes assessed against city property. A recreation district could be comprised of all the unincorporated area in the county or there could be one or more districts in any county comprising such area as would directly benefit. It may not appear to be advisable to permit the formation of several separate district boards for small districts in any county, as in the case of small rural school districts, but to meet this objection it would be feasible to assign the control of the districts to a county board or department of recreation. Precedent for this is found in the present tendency to diminish the authority and number of rural school district boards and to vest their control in county boards of education.

Contractual Arrangements Between Counties and Small Municipal Corporations.

Another plan might be considered for the organization of recreation in small municipal corporations such as incorporated

villages, towns, boroughs and townships which are too small to seem to justify the setting up of a separate recreation department. It consists in the establishment of a county recreation department which would contract through the Board of Supervisors with the separate boards of the small corporations, to render certain services. It would also render certain general services of countywide importance including regional parks. The local corporations would pay the county for services from which they receive direct benefit. Joining in the plan would be voluntary on the part of any local corporation. This plan is already being used in public health administration in several counties. It has the benefit of economical administration coupled with uniform and expert supervision. It is not likely that larger cities would surrender their local prerogatives in the control of local recreation especially where local departments of recreation have already been created.

Recreation Under Rural and Consolidated School Districts.

The place of the public school in the whole recreation plan was discussed in the preceding chapter. It was pointed out that the schools are increasingly becoming related to the recreation problem both in the provision of instruction in the leisure time arts and in the formulation and promotion of programs of recreation for the entire local community. This tendency has been less pronounced in rural schools than in city schools. If it is accepted that community recreation in some of its manifestations may properly become a part of the educational function, then the rural school district constitutes an already present local governmental form through which local rural recreation may eventually be administered.

Elementary and secondary education is administered through a system of local school districts of which there are many in nearly every county. With some notable exceptions in remote and very sparsely settled portions of some states it may be accepted that wherever there are children there is a school district and a school building located with a view to the convenience of travel of the children of the district. The district is governed, under definite limitations of county and state educational authorities, by a local district board elected by the people of the district. The district is financed in part by local taxes and in part by county and state

appropriations. With improved transportation facilities there has been a definite movement toward consolidation of school districts to afford better buildings, larger enrollment and improved instruction. In some places the townships and the counties have taken over the functions of the local district boards. Nevertheless, it is evident that the whole structure of local organization of education is identical with what might be considered an ideal form or organization for local recreation. This is true as to the universality of the organization, the democratic participation and control, the supervision of county and state agencies and the sharing by the locality and the state of financial obligation tending to equalize opportunity.

Certainly no more economical method of organizing rural America for local recreation, excluding regional services, could be conceived than to adapt the present structure and program to the need. The additional cost would be relatively small. In the smallest districts no additional personnel would be required. The program in the rural districts would not call for daily activities except for pupils enrolled in the school for whom the program would be only in the nature of an enrichment of the curricular and extra-curricular activities now properly a part of the educational program. For the community at large there would be only the occasional community gatherings largely self-managed. The larger the school and the population of the district the more frequent these events would be held until, in the community large enough to have a complete graded school, the program would be a continuous one quite like that in the city neighborhood school or recreation center, with evening as well as daytime activities. Recreation leaders could be shared by several districts and general supervision and promotion and organization of volunteer leadership could be provided by the county education authority.

Example of School Centered Rural Recreation.

The realization of potential possibilities inherent in the organization of rural recreation around and through the district schools, with the aid of the county department of education, has been effectively demonstrated by St. Louis County, Minnesota. Here under the Leisure Education Department of the County Board of Education, the most comprehensive rural leisure time program

in America has been developed. Because it sets forth a splendid pattern for the organization of rural recreation, which might well be emulated by other rural counties, an outline of the program of this county is quoted in full below. St. Louis County is situated in the northeastern part of Minnesota. Its total population is 205,000, but its population exclusive of the cities in which there are independent school districts, was estimated to be 60,000 in 1937. There were twenty-eight rural school districts with seventy-six elementary schools.

General Outline [7]
Leisure Education Program
St. Louis County Rural Schools

I. General Purposes
   The St. Louis County Idea—
   1. Putting knowledge into action through a "Work-Study-Play" educational plan of procedure.
   2. Self-help, self-teaching, self-motivating, self-support, and self-government as sound principles of a democratic rural leisure time program which will stimulate the development of the rural individual and socially—for the general welfare of all.

II. General Outline of Program
   The Leisure Education Program
   A. Social Center Work
      1. Adult Education
      2. Social Center Recreation
      3. Special Feature Events
      4. Organization and Promotion Work
   B. Community and Countywide Rural Recreation Program
      1. Athletics
      2. Dramatics
      3. Music
      4. Arts and Crafts
      5. Social Recreation
   C. Special Feature Events
      1. Athletic Tournaments
      2. Winter Sports Meets and Frolics

[7] Quoted by permission.

3. Picnics and Celebrations
4. Holiday Programs and Celebrations
5. Special Social Center Events
6. Dramatic Programs
7. Music Programs
8. Arts and Crafts Demonstrations and Exhibits
9. Garden Club Activities
10. Civic Events
11. Community Parties and Dances
12. Novelty Events

D. Organization and Promotion Work
1. In-service Training of Workers and Volunteer Leaders
2. Service Bureau Programs
3. Organization and Promotion Services
4. Groups Organized on a Countywide Basis
5. Groups to be Organized on a Countywide Basis

The Health and Physical Education Program of the Schools
A. Grade School Recreative Physical Education
B. High School Recreative Physical Education
C. High School Intramural Athletics
D. Interscholastic Athletics
E. Grade and High School Special Feature Events

III. General Statistics Concerning the Program from 1933 to 1938

A. Social Center Summary

Total No. of Subjects Taught	154
No. of Groups Organized in Subjects	3,058
No. of Persons Enrolled	64,493
Total Attendance	532,335

B. Recreation Summary

Total No. of Activities	33
No. of Groups Organized	1,388
No. of Persons Enrolled	16,703
Total Attendance	383,710

C. Special Feature Summary

Total No. of Activities	123
No. of Groups Organized	3,028
Total Attendance	265,331

D. Organization and Promotion Work Summary

Total No. of Activities	60
No. of Groups Organized	2,228
Total Attendance	24,964

General Summary of Leisure Education Program

Total No. of Subjects or Activities	370
Total No. of Groups Organized	9,702
Total No. of Persons Enrolled	81,196
Total Attendance at all Activities	1,206,340

Problem Primarily One of Organization.

The recreation problem in the rural community resolves itself primarily into a problem of organizing the resources for recreation already available in the community and mobilizing the voluntary unpaid leadership which is always present but which, without organization and stimulation, remains inert and unused. The technique of organizing these factors has been demonstrated by St. Louis County. This technique is well illustrated in the following paragraphs, quoted from the *Winter Sports Yearbook for 1938* of the Leisure Education Department of this county:

"The efforts of the Leisure Education Department of the St. Louis County Rural Schools, the Greater Rural St. Louis County Winter Frolic Association, the 114 rural community winter sports committees, and the many groups cooperating in the carrying out of the local, regional, and countywide frolics and winter sports contests are being coordinated and encouraged to dramatize, give color to, and publicize all winter sports activities, each and every rural community, all rural organizations, and the rural recreational and educational programs of the county. Through this it is hoped to continue the growth and to establish permanently the winter activities in a definite winter sports movement. Its purpose is to keep the people of rural St. Louis County winter sports conscious and keep alive and make vital the county frolic slogan, 'Everybody Take Part—Just For Fun.'

"The mobilization and coordination of the talents and efforts, as well as interests and abilities, of the many participants in the winter activities in this county, has resulted in a splendid example of cooperation among the numerous local community groups, rural, civic, educational and recreational systems, and urban bodies of a similar purpose. Because of this happy relationship among the groups from Duluth, the range cities, all towns of the county, and the rural communities, the present large rural winter sports program, and in particular the Countywide Rural Frolic, have become such outstanding successes.

"There is a definite winter frolic and winter sports consciousness present in the make-up of rural St. Louis County. Frequently from the beginning of the winter season to its close, informal tobogganing, bump-the-bumps, skating and sleigh riding parties are planned by small groups. On a more organized basis and affecting the entire community are the local community frolics which include informal activity and free play as well as organized events in the way of contests, races, competitive and entertainment features.

"The regional plan of action which has proved successful as a basis of administration for rural recreation on a countywide scale is repeated in the winter frolic program with several communities combining their efforts, after they have staged a local frolic, to sponsor a region-wide frolic at which experiences and values of the local frolic are capitalized. In 1937-1938, thirty-one local and regional frolics were held in the rural areas alone.

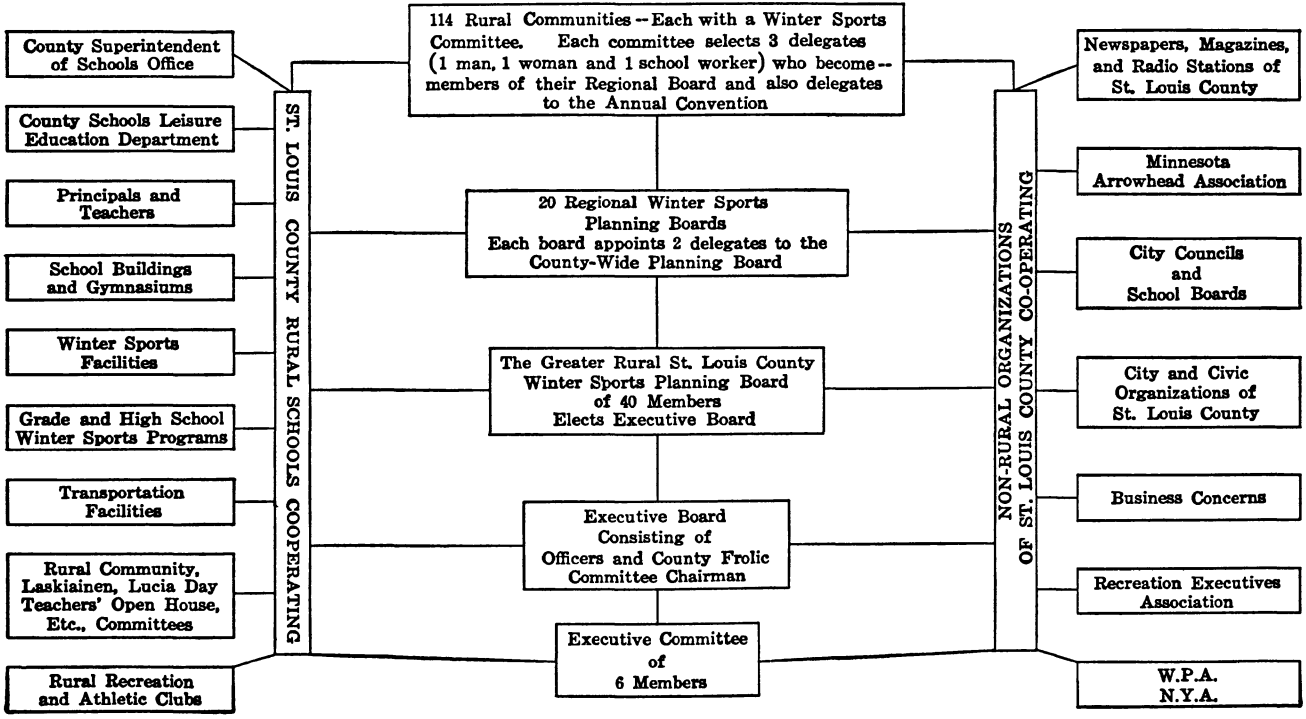
"As a gesture of friendliness and appreciation of the cooperation of community friends and parents of the students in their classes, the teachers of Rural St. Louis County introduced, three years ago, the Teachers' Open House. To this event adults of the community are invited to enjoy the winter play areas and facilities at night, following which entertainment of one sort or another and refreshments are provided by the local school faculty. The Teachers' Open House has been most heartily enjoyed by the community and faculty alike. In many communities it is fast becoming a tradition and a looked for event. Twenty-three of these events were given by the teachers last year.

"In 1937 an important innovation was made in the winter sports program. A countywide winter sports convention was held. In 1938 the second annual convention was attended by 150 delegates representing 20 regions of St. Louis County. This convention was formed into a Greater Rural St. Louis County Winter Sports Association which sponsors local, regional, and countywide winter sports programs.

"One hundred and fourteen rural communities, each with a winter sports committee, selects three delegates (one man, one woman, and one school worker) who are members of the regional board and delegates to the annual convention. Twenty regional winter sports planning boards each appoint two delegates to the countywide planning board. The Greater Rural St. Louis County

CHART 8. TYPICAL ORGANIZATION OF AN ACTIVITY ON A COUNTYWIDE BASIS

The Greater Rural St. Louis County Winter Frolic Association sponsoring winter frolic and sports programs



Winter Sports Planning Board of 40 members elects the executive board of 14 members. In addition the six officers of the association constitute the executive committee. Cooperating with this association are the non-rural organizations of the county as well as the St. Louis County Rural Schools.

"The emphasis at the local, regional, and countywide frolic especially, is on mass activity and participation by all as contrasted to limited participation by a highly specialized few. Spontaneous activity is encouraged and much to be desired. New novelty events and informal activity are introduced each year. Wood chopping contest, parades, queen coronation pageant, and the rural community stunt program on the ice, are a few of the many introduced.

"A new feature introduced in 1938 was the 'Rural St. Louis County Snow Train' from Duluth to the County Frolic at Chisholm. 576 persons made that trip.

"To give color to the frolic, a parade with torchlights and banners as well as caps, kerchiefs, arm bands, and other insignia, was held preceding the coronation pageant ceremonies and the Imperial Coronation Ball.

"As an important part of the development of the rural frolic program, the series of numerous meetings held in the many communities of the county plays its vital part. In keeping with the plan that recreational activity must be educational to be of lasting value, the holding of these meetings is encouraged."

Organization of Rural Recreation Through the Farm Bureau.

All rural recreation in St. Louis County, Minnesota, is not administered by the public schools. Another program has developed through the activities of the Farm Bureau Association and the Agricultural Extension Service of the University of Minnesota. This program illustrates very well as does also the school centered program that the problem is very largely one of organizing and training leadership within the county. A brief résumé of the program and organization prepared by the County Office of the Association is given below.

"The recreation program gradually grew out of the need for recreation which followed the World War and the fire of 1918 and other events which created this need. In August of 1923 the

first recreation institute was held at Virginia, Minnesota. The second institute met at Camp Sigel on the shores of Lake Eshquaguma, and was attended by delegates and those interested from the farm and community clubs. At the institute they were given instruction on leading games and other forms of recreation. They also took part in games and activities such as baseball, horseshoe, and swimming. This institute enables the delegates to go back to their communities and conduct recreation and games at such events as picnics, the period following farm club meetings, and other community events. Also they began to realize that the young people in the community needed organized recreation to help them develop in a wholesome manner.

"Each year following the first institute, a recreation institute or camp has been held the early part of the summer at Lake Eshquaguma. Since the 4-H Building was constructed on the shores of Lake Eshquaguma, the camp has been held there. The County Agricultural Agents and the Home Demonstration Agents assist the Recreation Committee of the St. Louis County Club and Farm Bureau Association in preparing the program for the camp and in obtaining the instructors. Each year the program is varied, and committee meetings are held before and following the institute.

"For many years the recreation program within the communities of St. Louis County was carried on solely by voluntary local leaders. These were men and women who enjoyed working with young people and who were interested in recreation and athletics and were willing to help coach teams and take part in other recreation activities. However, since WPA came into existence, it has been possible for the St. Louis County Club to sponsor WPA projects which permit the Extension Agents' offices to have several workers regularly employed to organize and carry on recreation in the communities. The procedure has usually been this: A community will send representatives to the Home Demonstration Agent's office to ask for a recreation worker in that community. They explain the situation to the Home Demonstration Agent, and very often she goes out to the community to confer with the residents and become acquainted with their particular recreation needs. If it is winter time, they may want to have a skating rink constructed and have a recreation worker there to supervise the

rink. In the summer time they may request a playground to be constructed and a recreation worker to supervise, or if there is already a playground or athletic field they may ask for someone to supervise and oversee the activities there. If all her workers are already located in communities, the Home Demonstration Agent confers with the WPA office and possibly obtains another worker. The worker, in connection with the schools or at evening classes, teaches handicraft and other recreational subjects. The worker also organizes boys' and girls' teams in many sports—hockey, broomball, skiing, baseball, softball, touch football, basketball, volleyball, and other sports. Activities such as boxing, archery, and badminton are also carried on. These recreation workers are fitted to assist with many things. When the farm club, community club, or 4-H club needs an assistant, the recreation worker or leader helps in leading games following the business meeting of the club, and he also assists with special events such as carnivals, picnics, and dramatic entertainment. Very often the recreation worker coaches plays. Some of the equipment for these recreation workers is supplied by the WPA and part by the St. Louis County Club and Farm Bureau Association.

"The recreation workers attend a WPA training school which is held one morning each week, and are required to make reports on their activities twice a month to the Home Demonstration Agents' office and the WPA office. Just recently some of the communities have appointed local committees to work closely with the recreation worker.

"During the progress of the recreation program in St. Louis County, an athletic association was formed which organizes leagues and arranges schedules for games and tournaments. In the fall a banquet is held, at which the winning teams and individuals are honored, stressing always the importance of good sportsmanship.

"The recreation program in St. Louis County has become well established and runs uninterrupted through the year. Some of the special events held each year are winter sports days in the local communities, culminating in a countywide winter sports day, a Rural Holiday Ball, and sports events at the county fairs, besides Recreation Camp and the athletic banquet. While there are the regularly employed recreation workers, there are not enough for

each community, but there are still those who voluntarily carry on recreation and give of their time and energy. The home demonstration agents also have occasion many times to call upon other groups and agencies for special help, and have been fortunate in securing willing and invaluable assistance."

Example of a County Recreation Commission.

While there are several county park commissions and departments which conduct recreation activities on the regional park areas the Westchester County Recreation Commission affords an excellent example of a county agency concerned primarily with the organization of countywide recreation activity programs and the coordination of numerous community recreation agencies in the county. Westchester County is a highly developed suburban area adjacent to and north of the Bronx of New York. Within the county are four cities ranging in population from 25,000 to 130,000 and about fifty smaller cities and villages. Two-thirds of the cities and villages have organized recreation commissions or departments. The Westchester County Recreation Commission maintains a field service through which it counsels the several local agencies, conducts institutes for the training of recreation workers and volunteers, makes surveys of local situations, conducts conferences for lay and professional leaders and generally promotes public planning and interest in recreation. The Commission conducts a countywide program of events and activities in which local groups, which have sprung from the local programs, participate. These activities include music, arts, crafts, drama and athletics. A large public auditorium in the center of the county is administered by the Commission. This auditorium known as the County Center is spoken of as "the focal point of community life in Westchester." Many activities, which in their preliminary stages have their setting in the local villages and cities, culminate in countywide occasions at the County Center. The Commission also conducts a large summer camp which provides summer camp outings for over 600 boys and girls.

The public schools of Westchester County are administered by many separate district boards. Among the schools are some which are outstanding examples of extension of the school program into the recreation life of the community. The Westchester County

Recreation Commission works cooperatively with the several school districts but has no official or legal connection with them.

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VII

THE COORDINATION OF LOCAL RECREATION AGENCIES

WIDESPREAD attention is being focused upon the necessity for coordination of the work of municipal agencies. The necessity for coordination arises out of the increasing complexity of municipal government and the diversity of municipal services. Coordination may be desired in connection with any of a variety of situations and conditions. Two agencies whose principal functions might be wholly different may find that in certain minor functions their work intersects. Sometimes several departments make a contribution in different ways to the attainment of a common objective, for example, a number of departments contribute to crime prevention, public health and public safety. In some cities a school department organizes and supervises extra-curricular activities, while at the same time a municipal recreation department conducts a similar program in the neighborhoods. Such situations call for coordination to effect joint action, division of the field to avoid overlapping, or perhaps reciprocity in the interchange of facilities.

Dr. Frederick M. Thrasher, in an address before the Teachers' Assembly District Clubs of New York in which he urged the adoption by New York City of a plan of coordination of recreation agencies, summarized the necessity for coordination in the following words:

"Most recreation agencies have been content to pursue their particular policies in the service of limited clienteles, largely unaware of the problem of the real integration and articulation of their programs with the activities of other agencies in an attempt to do a well-rounded recreation job for all the children in the community. The result in some cases has been a high degree of

institutional efficiency, but a failure of all such agencies combined to do a good piece of recreation work for the whole community." [1]

Coordination by Conference and Agreement.

Various devices to effect coordination of recreation agencies have been adopted with very beneficial results. The simplest device is the frequent interchange of information through conference. Conferences are arranged between the coordinate representatives of two agencies when problems of mutual concern arise. To facilitate such conferences sometimes regular meetings are provided for. Occasionally a third agency or person, such as a civic organization like the Parent Teacher Association or the Chamber of Commerce, or the Mayor, calls representatives of both agencies together to initiate steps in coordination. Coordinate understandings and policies are sometimes set forth in informal agreements or memoranda. Such a memorandum of agreement is that adopted by the Board of Education and the Board of Playground and Recreation Commissioners of Los Angeles in 1930, which is quoted below because it specifies instances in which coordination between two such agencies is often necessary.

"During the past few years many cooperative practices have developed between the School Department and the Department of Playground and Recreation. In the main these practices were brought about by the administrative officers of the two departments and not always with expressed approval of the boards governing the departments nor with knowledge of such cooperation on the part of the public. A joint committee of the two boards met recently and formulated a statement covering such cooperative relationships as have existed and such as it is desired to foster. This statement was approved by the Board of Playground and Recreation Commissioners on February 6, 1930, and by the Board of Education on February 10, 1930, and is published herein for the information and direction of all concerned.

"1. The Board of Education and the Board of Playground and Recreation Commissioners recognize and accept cooperative responsibility in providing such areas, facilities and supervision as may be required to meet the recreational needs of the city.

[1] Chicago Recreation Commission, Reprint No. 19, *New York City Urged to Adopt Chicago Recreation Commission Plan*, Chicago, 1938.

"2. Areas and facilities owned by the Board of Education may be considered available for recreational uses by citizens of the City and of the School District within such limitations as may have to be placed upon their use by reason of the type of school involved and prior claims of established school activities, or by reason of financial or other conditions.

"3. It is recognized that the areas and facilities of the Board of Education are not sufficient in themselves, even if made available to the utmost degree, nor are the legal powers sufficient, to fully meet the recreation requirements of the city. The provision of additional areas and facilities and of supervision thereof on the part of the Board of Playground and Recreation Commissioners is considered highly desirable and consistent with the City Charter.

"4. To avoid overlapping of service, the Board of Playground and Recreation Commissioners express it as their intention to acquire and improve no new sites for neighborhood playground use adjoining or close to an existing or contemplated school ground, provided the latter is capable in size to meet the needs of the neighborhood of which it may be a center. It is recognized that there are cases of elementary school grounds which are so small as to make the establishment of a city playground in the same neighborhood desirable and necessary; further that there are school grounds developed for special play purposes which make it advisable to establish city playgrounds in the same neighborhoods for other or general purposes (e.g., high school athletic fields and playgrounds for small children; or elementary school playgrounds and tennis courts for district use).

"5. Wherever a city playground established some time in the past adjoins or is close to a school ground, the Board of Education will refrain wherever possible from establishing supervision after school hours on such a ground, understanding that the Board of Playground and Recreation Commissioners will render such recreational service as may be required in the neighborhood concerned.

"6. The following are recognized as desirable forms of cooperation which have developed between the Department of Playground and Recreation and the School Department. They are sanctioned in themselves and are quoted as illustrations of the kind of cooperation which it is desired to foster:

"(a) An annual program of swimming instruction for pupils of the elementary schools has been developed by the Department of Physical Education of the Board of Education, and the Aquatics Division of the Department of Playground and Recreation, whereby groups of school children are organized in swimming classes in the schools and conducted by their teachers to nearby municipal plunges where they are instructed in the fundamentals of swimming by employees of the Playground and Recreation Department.

"(b) An arrangement has been developed whereby school gymnasiums and athletic facilities under the control and supervision of the Board of Education are used on permit by the Municipal Sports Division and the Industrial Recreation Division of the Department of Playground and Recreation.

"(c) The boys' and girls' camps in Griffith Park, and on occasions the summer camps in the mountains, are used by organized groups of school pupils who are supervised by their teachers. The Camp Division of the Department of Playground and Recreation aids these groups in conducting a program of outing and camping activities at the camps.

"(d) The Department of Nature Study of the School Department has provided volunteer nature guides and instructors in the several municipal camps and has developed at such, a nature museum. The Girls' Camp in Griffith Park has been made available for the frequent use for conference purposes, of the special teachers of nature study in the School Department.

"7. In view of the recognition of the cooperative responsibility of the two Boards to render the largest possible recreation service to the citizens of the city, each board expresses its willingness to grant the other the use of its facilities and areas generally in preference to non-public agencies, consistent, however, with such rules and exceptions as may be considered necessary.

"8. In the interests of the development of uniform administration of public recreation in the City of Los Angeles, the Board of Education and the Board of Playground and Recreation Commis-

sioners instruct the administrative officers concerned to bring about wherever practicable uniform rules, regulations and practices in conducting the recreation work of the two departments."

Coordination Through an Overhead Agency.

In the largest cities of the nation different agencies have sprung up from time to time to render specific recreation services. Long established governmental agencies have also tended gradually to assume responsibilities in recreation. State, county and municipal parks have existed within the corporate limits of several cities. Each agency has tended to render certain recreation services without much consideration for the total problem within the whole municipal area.

No city exemplified this situation to a greater degree than Chicago until 1934. In that year, after extensive study by civic groups, there was created by action of the Mayor and the City Council the Chicago Recreation Commission. This Commission was granted no jurisdiction over other agencies or over areas and equipment, but was empowered to act as a planning and coordinating body. It consists of fifty-two members among whom may be found representatives of all public recreation agencies of Chicago and a number of influential civic leaders appointed at large. Its purposes are stated in an introduction to the third annual report of the Commission for the year 1937 by Edward J. Kelley, Mayor of Chicago, as follows:

"There was no centralized agency, however, until I asked the City Council to authorize the appointment of a recreation commission to think in the interest of the whole problem of recreation, to plan intelligently to coordinate the various systems and enterprises for recreation.

"The motive, then, behind my setting up the Chicago Recreation Commission was to secure for the city a central organization to make a thorough study of our city's leisure time needs and provide a leadership for bringing about a coordination of recreational plans locally.

"It was my hope—and I am pleased to note the splendid progress made in this direction—that the Commission would be able to develop a realization on the part of the general public of the need

and value of recreation; and also that it would bring about a closer union of the different Chicago groups which were definitely committed to this feature of our civic life." [2]

This commission has sponsored jointly with Northwestern University a comprehensive survey of recreation in Chicago.[3] It has conducted city-wide recreation training conferences and recreation training institutes. It has promoted wider use of public school plants for community recreation and has stimulated the organization of neighborhood councils for the study of neighborhood problems and coordination of work. More important still, it has served to bring representatives of all agencies to a place around the conference table where a coordinated plan of recreation service for the whole city has been in process of progressive development.

The Chicago plan has not yet been in effect sufficiently long to demonstrate its ultimate worth. If it has any weakness it probably lies in its lack of authority to require cooperation in its work. On the other hand it may be argued that real coordination cannot be effected by unwilling agents yielding to compulsion. Coordination must arise out of a wholehearted desire to cooperate. To be effective the Chicago Recreation Commission must cultivate and preserve the good will of the operating agencies and not seek to arrogate to itself functions which belong to them. It must also recognize that it is comparatively easy to analyze situations and make a recommendation as to what it considers to be a proper action on the part of an operating agency. That agency, on the other hand, is alone responsible for its acts, and its decisions must be respected. The Chicago plan is one which is applicable only to the largest cities where there are many public agencies, whose activities touch vitally the recreation of the people and where their very multiplicity and the impossibility of consolidating them call for the creation of another overhead body specifically designed to affect coordination. It is one of the striking examples of earnest effort on the part of large cities to meet the need for effective coordination of many related public services.

[2] Chicago Recreation Commission—Third Annual Report, 1937.

[3] Todd, Arthur J., and others, *The Chicago Recreation Survey*, Vol. I, *Public Recreation*, sponsored by Chicago Recreation Commission and Northwestern University, Chicago, 1937.

Coordination Through an Employed Coordinator.

Somewhat akin to the Chicago plan is that of Washington, D. C. Here a Coordinating Director of Recreation is employed under an agreement between the several governmental departments serving the District in recreation. These include three agencies of the District to which appropriations of public funds are made for the maintenance of certain properties for recreation and for the conduct of a portion of the whole public recreation program of the District. These agencies are the Board of Commissioners of the District, the Board of Education and the office of the National Capital Parks. The first named has provided for a Playground Department. In addition to these agencies there is the National Capital Park and Planning Commission, which is the body authorized by Congress to provide a comprehensive systematic and continuous development of park, parkway and playground systems for the National Capital and its environs.

In 1934, upon invitation of the President of the United States, representatives of all four agencies met and after a thorough study organized in 1935 the District of Columbia Recreation Committee. This committee joined in the employment of a Coordinator and Executive Secretary. It was agreed at the outset that the Coordinator should have no administrative responsibility for the several departments but should act as a technical adviser to the committee and to the departments. The Coordinator is responsible for "seeing that there is developed—a complete, comprehensive, coordinated and cooperative play and recreational-educational program utilizing all the resources under the control of these agencies and with due regard for the autonomy of each." The four agencies participating in the agreement share the cost of necessary services, supplies, and equipment for the Coordinator, but his salary is carried in the budget of the Office of the National Capital Parks.

Two committees have been organized by the District of Columbia Recreation Committee to effect coordination. One is known as the Program Coordination Committee and the other as the Coordination Plan Committee. Both are composed of duly designated representatives from the participating departments or agencies of government who are parties to the whole plan and the Coordinator is chairman of both.

This plan, like the Chicago plan, assigns no authority to the coordination agency. It can accomplish results only through moral suasion; nevertheless, it serves to bring to the surface glaring examples of duplication and lack of coordination and tends to correct them by focusing study and public attention upon them.

Coordination Through Joint Employment of an Executive.

A number of California cities, notably, Oakland, Berkeley, Pasadena, San Diego and Long Beach, have sought to coordinate their school and municipal services in recreation by the joint employment of one executive who acts as director of physical education in the schools and superintendent of recreation under the city recreation commission. Long Beach has carried this plan one step further by creating a joint recreation board. This board is composed of one member of the Board of Education and the Superintendent of schools, one city councilman and the City Manager, and three members selected at large. This board is granted jurisdiction over all community recreation activities, whether conducted on municipal or school areas. It employs a "Coordinating Director" who is also Director of Physical Education for the schools. Canton, Ohio, has a similar plan in somewhat modified form.

Another Untried Plan.

The plan by which two departments, school and municipal, jointly employ an executive who directs two programs, commends itself to cities of small size and perhaps is workable in cities up to one hundred thousand population. In larger cities the plan has serious drawbacks. In the larger cities organization and administration in the municipal government on the one hand and in the school government on the other are greatly involved and complicated. A two-headed executive would become so enmeshed in details of administration, particularly in his relations with overhead administration of the city and school departments, that he would have scant time to familiarize himself with the intimate details of work in the field to bring about coordination except in connection with major policies. Another plan therefore suggests itself of joint employment by the city recreation department and the school department of a coordinating supervisor of municipal and school recreation who would be free of all executive or managerial duties

and who would devote all of his time to coordination. He would be accountable not directly to the governing boards but respectively to the two superintendents. Being an employee of the school department, who would employ him on half-time, he would have access to the entire school personnel, records and facilities; being an employee of the city recreation department, who would likewise employ him on half-time, he would have the same advantage there. Being in effect an assistant superintendent in both departments he could be clothed with so much authority as his situation required. His functions suggest the liaison officer in an army whose duty it is to keep two coordinate units under different command in connection and in cooperation with each other. Specifically his duties might be summarized as follows:

1. To interpret to the staff of the Recreation Department the best educational philosophy and techniques in their application to community recreation.
2. To interpret to the School Department staff the best recreational philosophy and techniques.
3. To investigate and make recommendations concerning neighborhood problems in the solution of which the School Department and the Recreation Department should make some contribution.
4. To confer with representatives of community agencies such as the Parent Teacher Association, the Coordinating Councils and the Councils of Social Agencies on community recreation problems affecting the School Department and the Recreation Department.
5. To assist in forwarding certain cooperative undertakings, such as:

A. Preferred use of municipal playgrounds and swimming pools by organized school groups.
B. Preferred use of school auditoriums, gymnasiums and athletic fields by municipal department groups.
C. "Carry over" activities growing out of school experience but fostered by the Recreation Department, such as choruses, athletic leagues, camps, etc.

6. To aid in the coordination of school and municipal playground programs and to develop uniform rules of activities, seasons, hours of service and general policies, to the end that a joint co-

ordinated program might be presented to the citizenry of the city and the School District.

7. To coordinate W.P.A. and N.Y.A. projects connected with school and municipal recreation activities.

This plan recognizes that coordination is not only a matter affecting policies, but reaches down to and touches details of operation in the field. In every large city there would be plenty of work for an employed coordinator of the kind suggested. In time through his efforts many highly worthwhile joint projects would undoubtedly eventuate if the coordinator were a person of tact and imagination.

Coordination of Public and Private Agencies.

Coordination of public agencies with quasi-public agencies or so-called "private group work agencies" is quite as important as coordination of the public departments themselves. The public recreation departments and the private group work agencies, such as the Boy and Girl Scouts, the Y.W.C.A.'s and Y.M.C.A.'s, the Catholic Youth Organization, the Hebrew Associations, the Camp Fire Girls, the Boys' Clubs and Social Settlements, are closely related. In the public agencies the principal concern is to provide recreation facilities and to organize mass recreation for all citizens with "group work" as an incidental part of the whole program. The private agencies specialize in group work, each with its own program and its own conception of the ultimate objective which colors the program. The latter frequently have extensive use of public facilities in conducting their programs.

In an effort to coordinate public and private groups in the interest of child welfare, many "coordinating councils" have sprung up in American cities. The councils are of many types with little standardization thus far, but they are essentially voluntary organizations with professional and lay representation. They usually serve to enlist in social planning a large number of citizens. In several large cities there are many neighborhood coordinating councils largely composed of laymen. They exemplify the democratic process in the field of preventive social work. They are at once a laboratory, a school of instruction and a device for the formulation of public opinion. Their function, as the name implies, is wholly coordina-

tion and they diligently avoid the assumption of responsibility for conducting recreation or other programs.

Another type of agency which acts in a coordinating capacity in many cities is the Council of Social Agencies. Such Councils are composed of elected or designated representatives of social agencies which participate in community chests, but usually public social work agencies are also represented. Social planning is their primary function and this includes an effort to eliminate duplication of services and to bring about coordination of the work of all agencies, both private and public.

Coordination on Various Levels.

It is sometimes erroneously assumed that coordination of two or more agencies can be effected by coordinating the agencies at the top. Experience has shown this assumption to be false. It is not sufficient to have two or more policy-making bodies agree on a coordinated plan of operation. To make such coordination effective it is necessary to bring about coordination on various levels of administration. Given two agencies which it is desired to coordinate, it is necessary first that the policy-making authorities agree; second, that the executive officers of the two agencies cooperate and agree; and third, that the employees on related projects coordinate their work. This will make it plain why neighborhood councils are an important factor in bringing about coordination in the field. They bring together the working units of several agencies on the "front line" and join them in the common task.

Coordination Dependent on Good Will.

The form of coordinated organization does not in itself insure coordination. The personal equation enters in vitally. Without mutual good will and understanding any coordinating plan will fail. Harmonious official relations tend to be cultivated by acquaintanceship and joint effort. Any plan of coordination which serves to bring together the representatives of agencies on various levels for the consideration of tasks of mutual interest can be effective if it cultivates good will between the representatives and disseminates information among them of what each is doing and can do toward the common objective.

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VIII

THE RECREATION COMMISSION AND THE SUPERINTENDENT

MORE than three-fourths of the departments of recreation in American cities are governed by commissions or boards consisting of lay citizens. Boards vary in the powers assigned to them, which range from complete legislative and administrative control of the department, including control of their own funds and personnel, to mere advisory power. Generally their powers may be referred to as policy making. Their specific powers are set forth in the city charter or in ordinances adopted by the city council or other governing body of the city.

Recreation departments which are not governed by commissions come under the direct control of administrative officers of a city, such as a mayor, city commissioner, city manager, director of public works, director of public welfare, etc. Policy-making functions in such cases are performed by the city council or other governing board of the city.

Whether there is a commission or not the most common practice among cities is to employ an executive head of the recreation department and to give him the title of superintendent. In a few cities the executive is called a director. The title of superintendent is in more general favor and probably derives from the practice in a related field, namely, education, in which the executive head of the public school system is called a superintendent of schools. Director is a term usually employed to designate one who conducts activities or manages a recreation center. The superintendent of recreation is employed either by the board of commissioners, the city council or other appointing authority and is not an elected official of the city. He is not, as a general practice, appointed for a stated term but continues to serve at the pleasure of the appointing power unless his position is in the civil service.

The question whether or not there should be a commission is determined not alone from the standpoint of recreation. If the form of municipal government provides for commissions for other departments such as planning, health, police and fire, it will seem logical to provide also for a recreation commission. In some cities commissions are provided for the newer functions of government, notably planning, parks, recreation and libraries, even though there may not be commissions for the departments which perform the older and more conventional functions. There is a tendency in municipal government to dispense with commissions for the departments which perform routine functions and to establish commissions for departments which do creative and promotional work.

There is no doubt that the appointment of a commission to preside over a department of recreation has important advantages. It enables the city to avail itself of the experience, judgment and counsel of prominent and competent citizens whose continuous attention to the welfare of the city in recreation is of great value. This service on the part of a group of commissioners is of particular importance in the earlier stages of the establishment of the recreation department when policies are constantly being formed. No less important is the stability and prestige which a commission lends to the department not only in the family of municipal officials but also before the general citizenry. Many departments would have been short lived and would have succumbed with the overturn of the administration which created them had they not been sustained by the influence of a board of commissioners.

The Function of Commissions.

The principal function of a commission is to formulate and promulgate policies for the government of the department. A policy is a statement of position or rule governing decisions in a given set of circumstances determined upon as being for the best interests of the department and the city. Policies are determined upon previous experience, the purposes for which the department was established and the law involved. Policies may be either stated or implied in custom. They are not immutable and do not have the force of law unless they are incorporated in municipal ordinances.

Commissions are responsible for the policies which they adopt but in formulating them commissioners avail themselves of aid

from several sources. They receive advice from the superintendent or general manager and the staff; in fact, it is one of the important duties of the executive of the department to bring to the commission all the pertinent information at his command concerning any problem, including information of experience in other cities. Suggestions are received from the citizenry of whom the commission is really representative and whose desires it seeks to interpret. The commission also endeavors to conform to the policies of the general municipal administration as expressed by the mayor and city council.

Management is concerned with the execution of the policies established by the commission and is clearly a function of the employed manager or superintendent of the department. This clear-cut distinction between the functions of the commission and the superintendent is recognized as fundamentally important by all authorities in municipal government and should be strictly adhered to. Encroachment by the commission upon the prerogatives of the superintendent is destructive of good management and tends to break down the system of responsible administration.

Recognition of this principle is contained in a statement of policy of the Recreation Commission of Long Beach, California, in the following terms:

> "The Long Beach Recreation Commission is essentially a policy-forming body. Composed of representatives of the municipal government and the public schools, both executive and legislative, but with a majority of its members having no connection with either body, the Commission is well constituted to formulate broad general policies concerning public recreation.
>
> "The carrying out of all policies is placed in the hands of the Director and the employed staff. One of the most firmly established policies of the Commission is that, while there is no lack of sincere interest in all phases of recreation on the part of the Commission members, it would be an imposition for recreation workers to carry to them details of administrative problems when the wise provisions of the Charter and of the Commission have created an administrative department charged with the responsibility of relieving them of such matters." [1]

[1] Recreation Commission, Long Beach, Calif., *Rules, Policies, Regulations, etc.*, Approved September 23, 1937, p. 4.

Detailed responsibilities of a commission not unrelated to and not inconsistent with the main policy-making jurisdiction are several and include the following:

1. Approves finally the acts of the department. As the governing board responsible for the results of the work of the department the commission receives reports of the work of the staff through the superintendent and records its approval of it.

2. Acts as a court of final appeal. Any disagreement arising between employees and between the public and employees, if not satisfactorily resolved by the superintendent, may be referred by the complaining party to the commission whose decision should be final.

3. Advises with the superintendent on problems of administration. All superintendents are in need of advice in the performance of their managerial duties and in carrying out the policies set up by the commission. The advice of commissioners should be sought by superintendents but should not be interpreted as instructions or regulations unless given such force and effect by action of the entire body.

4. Interprets the department and its work to the general public. This responsibility the commission fulfills by published resolutions and by public discussion and address. The personalities represented on the commission symbolize the aims and objectives of the department, for the character of the department is reflected in the members who are appointed to represent it in the capacity of commissioners.

5. Interprets public desires and demands to the department. Commissions are usually appointed with a view to having certain interested segments of public opinion represented on the policy-making board. Commissioners endeavor to sense the tenor of the public mind through the many contacts which they have with the general public. They also receive more vocal expressions from the citizenry in the form of communications, petitions and appearance of representative delegations at commission meetings.

6. Represents the department at official occasions. Commissioners often act as spokesmen for the department at public ceremonies, public hearings on problems concerning the department and conferences at which recreation programs and policies are under discussion.

7. Negotiates advantages for the department. Because of their individual and collective prestige commissioners are often in a better position than the superintendent or others to negotiate advantages for the department with the mayor, city council, other public officials and bodies and the general public. Among these advantages, for example, are those connected with securing an adequate budget for the department work. The layman who does not derive pecuniary benefit from the appropriation for the department is usually more effective in such negotiations than a salaried employee.

Appointment and Organization of Commissions.

Recreation commissioners are usually appointed by the chief executive of the city, the mayor, with the concurrence of the city council. In some cities the council itself appoints. Commissions usually consist of five members who serve without compensation; but some charters provide a per diem of five dollars, more or less, per meeting. Commissioners are most frequently appointed for terms of five years, one term expiring each year. With each expiring term several experienced commissioners remain on the board. This procedure provides continuity in policies. With a change in municipal administration it is not customary for commissioners to resign—they usually serve out their unexpired terms.

Appointment to a recreation commission offers many opportunities for unselfish civic service for citizens of high type. "Politics" does not as a general rule carry much weight in determining appointments to recreation commissions. The office is not frequently sought but leading citizens respond generously to the invitation to serve on a recreation commission. Usually persons of high standing in the community are appointed because of their concern for child welfare, education or phases of the community recreation program in which they are interested, such as, amateur athletics, music, drama, etc. Women have served with distinction on recreation commissions and usually a board of five members is composed of men and women together. There are a few commissions composed entirely of women as there are some composed entirely of men. The nature of the work of the recreation commission is such that men and women may make distinctive contributions to it.

Commissions as a rule elect their own presiding officer, a president or chairman. A secretary is required for the purpose of keep-

ing minutes and other records of the commission and certifying its acts. Usually the secretary is an employee who is so designated and who may also perform other duties. It is not advisable to burden one of the lay members with the detail duties of secretary nor should the superintendent be assigned such duties. The superintendent should meet with the commission and be free to participate in discussion but he should not be accorded a vote. A treasurer is not necessary because the duties of treasurer are performed by the city treasurer; however, if the commission is empowered to handle private funds, for example community chest subsidies, a treasurer may be necessary.

When the work of a department becomes extensive it is desirable for commissions to appoint standing and special committees. Usually such committees consist of only one person. The existence of standing committees makes it convenient to assign to a commissioner any matter upon which the commission may not yet be ready to act for further investigation and recommendation. Committees do not have administrative powers in relation to the matters referred to them. No committee or individual member has any authority except by referral to and through the entire body. The assumption of authority by individual commissioners or committees is destructive of sound practice and breaks down established lines of responsibility. In this respect municipal commissions operate quite differently from boards of directors of private social work agencies. In the latter there is often a desire to enlist members for lay services of various kinds and administrative functions are often assigned and assumed by board members.

The following list is suggestive of the kinds of committees which are created:

Personnel
Landscaping
Acquisition of New Properties
Construction
Finance and Budget
Legal Problems
Relations with Other Agencies
Special Events
Playgrounds
Swimming Pools

Beaches
Camps
Music
Athletics
Arts and Crafts
Dramatics
Girls' and Women's Activities

Meetings of commissions should be held as frequently as necessary. Most commissions meet weekly. Meetings should be held in a public place, preferably in the city hall. The time and place of meetings should be published and meetings should be open to the public.

Commission Procedure.

Matters may be brought before a commission by any commissioner, by the superintendent, by other city officials or by citizens. In the interest of proper recording referral of matters to the commission should be by written communication or report, but strict adherence to this rule is not always possible or convenient. Before a problem is fully discussed by the commission the superintendent should be requested to give his report upon it. This conduces to independent expression on the part of the superintendent unswayed by consideration of the views of any commissioner. The contrary practice cultivates a "yes man" attitude on the part of the superintendent and thus falls short of utilizing his special experience and expertness to the full. Having received the report of the superintendent the commission is empowered to approve, disapprove or modify his recommendations after which it is his duty to execute such decisions as have been made without regard to any personal disagreement with such decisions.

Correspondence received by the commission should be referred to the superintendent for report and recommendation in a similar manner. To expedite business such correspondence may be routed through the superintendent so that he may prepare his report if practicable and may have it available when the correspondence first comes before the body. Much correspondence is of course only informative and routine and is merely filed without action.

Any official dealings on the part of commissioners as individuals

or as a body with employees should be through the superintendent. Some employees, not having a proper understanding of correct procedure, seek the ear of commissioners for one purpose or another. They should as a rule be directed to bring the matters to the attention of the superintendent who will report upon them if necessary to the commission. Most frequently such matters are detail or are matters of executive management which do not directly concern or fall within the scope of the responsibility of the commission.

Some commissions adopt plans of procedure and some prepare and adopt by-laws to govern their operations. The following is a suggested routine plan of procedure concerning the handling of correspondence, reports and recommendations which come before a board:

1. The recommendation of the superintendent, relative to any matter presented by him to the board, shall be written as a separate recommendation referring only to that matter and shall be attached to the complete file, if such a file exists, of papers referring to the same subject.
2. Any recommendation made by the superintendent, or any subject presented by him to the board, shall be automatically referred to the proper committee of the board and action shall be held over for one week unless immediate action is requested in the recommendation, or unless the committee to whom the matter would normally be referred is ready to move appropriate action. In submitting recommendations to the board the superintendent shall indicate on his recommendation the committee to which he thinks the matter normally should be referred. The secretary shall read the name of such committee, or any other committees to which he thinks the matter may be referred, and the file shall be referred to the committee indicated or to a committee designated by the chairman unless otherwise decided by the board.
3. All matters in the hands of committees shall be listed by the secretary and reports on the same shall be called for by the chairman each meeting until finally disposed of.
4. When a file is referred to a committee, it shall be kept by the secretary, available for reference by the committee in whose hands the matter may be, and, if the committee so desires, the secretary shall provide extra copies for their use of the recom-

mendation referred to them, together with other supporting data.

5. All communications upon which a recommendation from the superintendent is desired shall be referred to him when read at the board meeting, it being understood that if the letter is received sufficiently in advance of the meeting, the superintendent may attach his recommendation thereto, so that it may be available for the board when the letter first is presented to them.

6. Recommendations of committees shall be attached to their respective files when they are presented to the board; recommendations may be in writing on an appropriate form to be provided, or verbal. If verbal, the secretary shall record such recommendations on the form when made.

It is accepted practice in municipal government to assign complete executive responsibility to the employed manager or superintendent of a department. In pursuance of this rule the selection of all employees should be made by the superintendent subject to the procedure established in the municipality affecting all departments, such as civil service in some cities. Only if the superintendent has the power of appointment can he be held responsible for the performance of the employees.

As representative of the citizenry commissions should conduct meetings which are open to the public and should permit individuals or delegations to address them on pertinent subjects. Skillful handling of a meeting by the chairman is called for on such occasions. Most frequently the matter brought before a commission in this way is such that an immediate answer is not always possible or expedient. Often the petitioner is not in agreement with the commission. It should be remembered that the prerogative of the petitioner is only to state his views and not to participate in the action. The responsibility for the action if any is taken rests with the commission who, after giving a respectful hearing to the petitioner, makes its own decision. The decision need not be made at the time the matter is brought before the commission but the subject may be taken under advisement and a decision announced in due course.

Proper performance of the duties of a recreation commissioner requires intimate acquaintance with the problems of the city insofar as recreation is concerned and knowledge of the work which is

being conducted by the department. A commissioner finds that more time is required to fulfill this responsibility than the time which is taken up by official meetings. Visits to recreation centers, attendance at recreation programs, inspections and participation in conferences with professional and lay leaders are very helpful. Systematic planning of such occasions is advisable. Opportunities for conferences are afforded by the local and national associations of workers and laymen.

The Superintendent and the Commission.

The relation between the commission and the superintendent is a reciprocal one. They are mutually dependent upon each other but each performs different functions as has been seen. Care must be taken by the commissioners to clearly understand the functions and responsibilities of the superintendent and not to trespass upon his field. At the same time the superintendent must respect the prerogatives of the commission. There must be a feeling of mutual confidence between the commission and the superintendent if together they are to function efficiently. Since the superintendent is selected by the commission, this confidence is present at the beginning of the superintendent's service, but it should be cultivated and preserved continually. Harmony between the superintendent and the board no less than between the several board members is an essential condition to effective work.

The close association in the work which mutually engages commissioners, superintendent and secretary often results in the cultivation of fine personal friendships. Regardless of personal relationships thus developed the superintendent must be careful to treat all commissioners alike in his business relations with them and certainly should not presume upon his friendship with any member or members.

There are many occasions when commissioners and superintendent do not agree on the matters before them just as there are logical disagreements between commissioners. The superintendent must reconcile himself to the decisions of the commission and carry out its policies and orders even when his own judgment is contrary. As in all group discussion and action there must be a certain amount of "give and take" in arriving at conclusions. In the interests of harmony, minor differences should not always be

asserted. On major matters, however, conscientious material differences should be expressed and asserted and should be adhered to until the decision is reached. Such differences will be recorded when a vote on a motion is taken. The report of the superintendent on the matter should also be recorded whether or not his recommendation is adopted.

One of the responsibilities of the superintendent is to aid commissioners in learning about the department, the work it performs, the manner in which it functions and its traditions. Newly appointed commissioners especially are in need of assistance in these matters in order that they may assume without undue delay their place in the deliberations of the commission. The superintendent will render this aid through conferences, correspondence, inspections of the work under varying conditions and by placing before his commissioners reports and pertinent published material. The official meeting of the commission provides a good occasion to bring up matters for discussion in various ingenious ways. Reports in person by employees other than the superintendent are often helpful to the commissioners and stimulating to the staff.

The work of commissions is expedited and facilitated by proper physical arrangements. The meeting room of the commission should be prepared for the transaction of business; it should be well ventilated and illuminated, equipped with a suitable table, comfortable chairs and equipment for the display of maps, charts and photographs, and facilities for the convenience of visitors, who may wish to attend the meetings or who may desire to bring matters before the board. The commission should have a regular order of business and for each meeting an agenda should be prepared by the secretary or the superintendent.

Reports of the Superintendent.

The superintendent should bring matters to the attention of the board in written reports. Reducing his opinions and recommendations to writing will serve to make them of record and will assist in crystallizing his thoughts. Reports will be of three kinds:

1. Reports of information on matters which are of concern to the commission, including reports of the condition of the department and progress of its work.

2. Reports requesting instructions or expression of policy.
3. Reports setting forth problems and recommending action to be taken in relation thereto.

It is advisable for the superintendent to adopt a standard form of report. It should be clearly typed with enough copies to furnish one to each commissioner and the secretary. It should be dated and numbered. A good form summarizes the recommendation in a summary sentence with the body of the report in detail following. The body of the report should state the origin of the problem which has called for the report, any other information essential to understanding the problem and the recommendation made concerning it.

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IX

RECREATION IN THE CITY CHARTER AND IN CITY ORDINANCES

THE necessary legal framework under which a city authorizes the performance of recreation functions must be incorporated in the city charter or in an ordinance adopted by the legislative body of the city. It is preferred to have the provisions for recreation incorporated in the city charter which is the organic law of the city. This requires that the provisions be included in the charter when it is first drawn and adopted by the voters of the city or in amendments subsequently voted. The principal advantage in having the legal framework for recreation in the charter is that permanence is thus given to it, for charters can only be amended by vote of the people and approval of the legislature. Ordinances on the other hand may be amended or rescinded by the legislative body of the city which enacted them.

The charter provisions or ordinances of the city council will not govern the operations of the board of education in the sphere of public recreation. School departments are not a part of the municipal corporation but derive their power separately from the state legislature. The powers of school boards are uniform for all boards throughout the state and are set forth in the state school laws.

Usually when a city first embarks upon recreation as a municipal function it does so under an ordinance which later, at the first opportunity, is incorporated in the municipal charter. Lacking suitable complete provision for recreation in the charter the city should provide for recreation by enactment of an appropriate ordinance. In either case the content of the enactment will be substantially the same. What is said below concerning the city charter in its provision for recreation may also be considered as applicable in general to an ordinance or ordinances adopted for the same purposes.

Establishment of Department and Commission.

The charter should definitely establish a department for the exercise of the recreation function and should give it a name. If it is desired a commission may also be created. It is important to note that the department is the agency that carries on the work incidental to the performance of the function and that the commission, if any, is the governing board of the department. This distinction has not always been clearly made and adhered to but is fundamental if legislative and policy-making jurisdiction is to be kept distinct from management. In creating a commission the charter should state the manner by which the commission members are appointed, terms which they serve, how they may be removed, and salaries of members or per diem allowance, if any. The manner in which the commission is organized, e.g., its officers and their duties, and the powers and duties of the commission, should also be stated. The latter should make it clear that the commission is the responsible body for the government of the department and for the determination of its policies, but should reserve to the manager or superintendent the duties of management.

The designation of a name for the department is of considerable importance. The name should be descriptive of the work which the department is to do. Heretofore the tendency has been to designate departments by the places they operated; however, the recent tendency has been to add the functional term "recreation" to the name or to substitute it for all other names as an inclusive term covering all services rendered. The names most frequently encountered are Park Department, Playground Department, Park and Playground Department, Playground and Recreation Department, Park and Recreation Department and Recreation Department.

Acquisition of Property.

The charter should authorize the acquisition of real and personal property deemed to be necessary for recreation purposes by any of the ways by which the control of such property may be acquired. These ways include purchase, condemnation, gift in fee simple or in trust, bequest, lease, transfer and grant. The title to any property acquired should vest in the city and not in any department. The power to acquire the property may be vested in the recreation com-

mission if there is one and if the commission is granted control of its own funds. If not, the city council may be authorized to perform these powers. If there is a commission, however, the council should not be authorized to acquire nor to dispose of property once set aside for recreation without the approval of the recreation commission. It should be specified that these powers may be exercised with respect to property inside or outside the limits of the city.

Although as a general rule the properties required by any city for recreation use will be within the municipal boundaries, there frequently arise situations in which it is desired to acquire properties outside the limits of the city. A regional park may be located wholly beyond the limits or partly within and partly without. The only land available to serve a neighborhood on the border of the city may be just over the line. A city might desire to acquire a camp or beach site some distance from the city. In anticipation of such contingencies the power to acquire land and operate programs should not be limited to the areas within the city limits.

The charter should authorize the city council to designate for recreation purposes any lands, buildings or other structures owned by the city regardless of the original purpose for which the same might have been acquired. This provision need not necessarily be in the article or sections referring to recreation but may be in the list of powers granted to the city council.

In cities in which there are both a park department and a recreation department, or commissions for both, the charter should authorize each to permit the use of portions of its lands by the other. For example, it might be desired in such cities for a portion of a park to be operated as a playground under the jurisdiction of the recreation department; and on the other hand good procedure might suggest that the landscaped areas on certain playgrounds be cared for by the park department. Permits granted by one department to another under such provisions should be either for stated terms or until revoked by mutual consent of both departments or commissions.

Street Trees.

Park departments are often made responsible for street tree planting and maintenance. This function can be better performed by the park department or by whatever department performs the

park function than by any other. The charter should be specific in the assignment of this jurisdiction and should make plain upon whose authority street trees may be planted and removed.

Improvement of Property.

Authorization should be granted in the charter to improve lands and to construct buildings and structures in a manner deemed to be necessary or convenient for the purposes of recreation. The question as to whether these powers should be granted to the recreation commission or to some other agency, such as the engineering department, will depend upon the size of the recreation department, whether the commission controls its own funds and other factors. In any event, however, the commission or department should be granted authority to approve or reject plans for such improvement.

Operation of Recreation Places.

The charter should be specific in its designation of the types of recreation places which the department may operate. These may include playgrounds for children and adults, athletic fields, gymnasiums, auditoriums, community houses, golf courses, beaches and camps. In order that the department may never be prevented from operating any unusual type of place deemed to be important some inclusive terms may be added, such as, "and any other places deemed to be necessary for the purposes of public recreation," the use of the specific terms "establish, maintain, operate, control and supervise" is also advisable. The charter of the City of Long Beach, California, provides a good example of an inclusive definition of what constitutes "public recreation," as the term is used in the charter. This definition follows:

"The term 'public recreation' wherever herein used is hereby defined and understood to mean and include all public recreation activities in or upon playgrounds, athletic fields, ball parks, summer camps, waterways, public buildings, coliseums, play areas in parks, tennis courts and other suitable places or other public lands or public waterways used, owned, controlled or operated by the City of Long Beach, either within or without its corporate limits, and the activities in or upon them, and use of same for athletic sports, or contests, games, aquatic games, community leagues, pageants, dramatics, music, public amusements and entertainments and other

recreational and play programs and activities, whether herein specified or not, excepting therefrom, however, the municipal golf links, civic auditorium and the municipal band, and the provisions of this article shall apply to adults as well as to minors." [1]

Power to Conduct Programs.

Many of the older charters limit the department to functions related only to the operation of property and omit reference to programs of activities. This arises because of a lack of understanding of the true function of a recreation department which, as previously stated, has to do with the organization of life activities. The charter should authorize the department to organize, promote, supervise and conduct any and all recreation activities deemed by the department to be advisable, either on property owned by the city or elsewhere. Some recreation departments have been inconveniently hampered in the free development of program by being restricted to the city-owned properties.

Financial Support of the Department.

The sources of financial support for the recreation department should be provided for in the charter. The charter should require the city council to make an appropriation annually for this purpose and to make such emergency or additional appropriations from time to time as in their discretion may be necessary. Financial support other than taxes may consist of fees charged for special services. Although many special funds separately kept are not generally favored by authorities in municipal government, when viewed from the standpoint of recreation alone the establishment by the charter of a special recreation fund is highly advantageous. The principal advantage derives from the fact that fees collected may then be deposited to this fund and may serve to augment the tax moneys appropriated for recreation. Without a special recreation fund under control of the department all fees are deposited in the general fund of the city. In such a case the incentive to raise more revenue through legitimate charges is weakened, for once deposited to the general fund the right of the department to use the revenue for its own purposes is lost. The revenue from recreation fees in relation to the whole revenue budget of the city is almost inconse-

[1] City of Long Beach, *Municipal Charter*, Sec. 202 a, 1929.

quential. Accordingly, when budgets are determined at the beginning of the year the revenue from recreation carries little weight in determining the total budget for recreation. The advantages and disadvantages of the fixed annual levy for recreation will be considered in Chapter XIII. If it is desired to have a fixed levy, in terms of so many mills on the dollar or so many cents on each hundred dollars of assessed value of real property, provision should be made for it in the charter.

The adoption of an annual budget of estimated revenues and expenditures is one of the duties of the department which should be specified in the charter. In commission cities the preparation of the budget should be a duty of the superintendent but power to approve and amend it should be assigned to the commission.

Power to Cooperate.

It would seem unnecessary to authorize recreation departments to cooperate with other agencies in order to integrate the several distinct types of recreation service rendered by various agencies in some cities. There are, however, special considerations which render such authority desirable. One of these is the fact that some agencies with which cooperation is desired are private or quasi-public in character, such as the social group work agencies, and some, although tax supported, are not parts of the incorporated city government. The latter include the schools, which usually operate under state laws, and separate recreation or park districts which are distinct corporations. It may be desired to enter into cooperative contracts with such agencies and the specific authorization of cooperation will remove all doubt as to their legality. Such authorization also strengthens the resolve to bring about cooperation by giving it legal sanction. Such sanction carries the implication that it is the intention of the freeholders or voters who approved the charter to effect cooperation. The recent tendency is to authorize cooperation and all authorities now so recommend.

Employment of Personnel.

The department should be authorized by the charter to employ necessary personnel to carry out the recreation purposes set forth in the charter. The selection, appointment, discharge and suspension of the employees should be a function of the superintendent,

but the classification of positions and determination of salaries and wages is a matter of policy which should be assigned to the commission, if one is provided, and, if not, to the city council.

Powers of the Superintendent.

The powers of the general manager, or superintendent of recreation as he is usually called, are not always specified in charters. In cities in which recreation commissions are provided for the powers are clearly distinguished from those of the commission. A good statement of these powers and duties is contained in the Los Angeles City Charter. This applies equally to the administrative heads of all departments in the city government and reads as follows:

"Sec. 80. Subject to the provisions of this charter, the rules of the department and the instructions of his board, said general manager shall have the power and duty:

"(1) To administer the affairs of the department as its chief administrative officer;

"(2) To appoint, discharge, suspend, or transfer the employees of the department, other than the secretary of the board and the chief accounting employee of the department, and to issue instructions to said employees, other than the secretary and the chief accounting employee, in the line of their duties, all subject to the Civil Service provisions of the charter;

"(3) To expend the funds of the department in accordance with the provisions of the budget appropriations or of appropriations made subsequent to the adoption of the budget;

"(4) To recommend to the board of the department prior to the beginning of each fiscal year an annual departmental budget covering the anticipated revenues and expenditures of the department, conforming so far as practicable to the forms and dates provided in this charter in relation to the general city budget;

"(5) To certify all expenditures of the department to the chief accounting employee;

"(6) To exercise such further powers in the administration of the department as may be conferred upon him by the board of his department.

"Sec. 81. The general manager of each department at least once a month shall file with the board a written report on the work of the department."

Miscellaneous Charter Provisions.

All provisions in the charter affecting the recreation department are not contained in the sections which relate specifically and exclusively to the department. Certain specific provisions concerning which uniform administration throughout the city government is desired and which govern all departments, are contained in other sections. Some of these which affect vitally the operation of the recreation department are mentioned below.

Certain uniform personnel practices are usually set forth. Many cities have departments of civil service which prescribe policy and procedure in personnel matters. Rules governing examination, exemptions, appointment, discharge and suspension are stated, as are regulations concerning vacations, leaves of absence, sick leaves and pension privileges. Charters often restrict political activities of city employees and require residence within the city.

Definite procedure for the guidance of all departments is set forth concerning preparation and approval of the budget and budgetary control following adoption. Safeguarding and collecting moneys and accounting procedure are specified. Borrowing money by bond issue either for recreation or other purposes is covered by appropriate regulations and provision for periodic reports is also made.

Authority to Make Rules.

The charter should authorize the department to establish reasonable rules and regulations for the control and management of the recreation facilities and program. These rules have the same effect in theory as ordinances passed by the city council but they are in practice not as easily enforced because they do not include penalties for violation of them. With respect to some matters, however, the rules and regulations even without penalties carry more moral force than ordinances and they have the additional advantage of being easily passed, rescinded or amended.

Control by Ordinances.

In order to give more effect to certain policies in the operation of parks and recreation centers cities often incorporate them in city ordinances. Ordinances are sometimes necessary to curb persons

who are amenable only to legal and police control. The content of regulatory ordinances is usually recommended by the governing board or the superintendent of the park or recreation department to the city council and the ordinances are prepared by the legal department of the city. Prescribed procedure for the enactment of ordinances requires serving of notice of intention to pass them, advertisement of their contents, interval between the first and final reading, and opportunity for the public to be heard concerning their provisions or enactment.

Among the items usually covered by regulatory ordinances for parks and recreation centers are the following:

1. Prohibited uses and conduct.
   - A. Posting of signs, advertising, use of radios and public address systems.
   - B. Parades, demonstrations, etc.
   - C. Removal of trees, shrubs, plants and flowers.
   - D. Destruction and misuse of equipment.
   - E. Use of explosives, firearms, fireworks, and building of fires.
   - F. Entering certain areas except during specified hours.
   - G. Disorderly conduct, annoying women and children.
   - H. Gambling and solicitation of funds.
   - I. Hawking and merchandising in or within a stated distance of the public area.
   - J. Bringing animals into the area.
   - K. Molesting birds, fish and other fauna.
   - L. Disposal of refuse.
2. Uses subject to certain regulations.
   - A. Picnicking at stated areas and under permit.
   - B. Bathing, boating, swimming and winter sports at specified places and under stated conditions.
   - C. Holding meetings, rallies, exhibitions, except on permit.
   - D. Automobile, motorcycle and bicycle traffic.
   - E. Camping, use of tents and shelters, loitering and sleeping in the areas at night.
3. Specified penalties.

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X

CITY PLANNING FOR RECREATION

THERE is no more important movement for the improvement of urban life than city planning. American cities with few notable exceptions have been permitted to grow without consideration of long time needs and the essential coordination of the numerous parts which go to make up the whole city. The traditional right of the owner of private property to put it to whatever use he may choose, regardless of the effect of such use upon adjoining properties and the welfare of the entire city, had been sustained to the point of wholesale destruction of material and human values in urban communities. The result has been oppressive congestion, strangulation of industry, blighted areas, unspeakable living conditions, delinquency, crime, bad health and a host of other ills of the American city. The imperative necessity of rebuilding cities to meet changing urban needs resulted in appalling expenditures which might have been avoided if attention had been given to the development of comprehensive city plans. These conditions have given rise to a movement for better planning which has gained so much impetus as to promise a new quality of urban life in the future.

City planning is based on the long-time and continuous scientific study of the needs of a city and the orderly control of present and future development in accordance with the needs. It inquires into the problem of land use and the control of such use in relation to present and future population; transportation needs by water, air, railroad, truck and automobile; business and industrial development; public utility services; facilities and structures required by government; educational, cultural, aesthetic and recreation needs.

City planning has its correctional and developmental applications. It concerns itself with the relocation of traffic arteries, the

widening of streets, the destruction of unsightly structures, removal of "eye sores," the substitution of suitable dwellings for slums and reconstruction of blighted areas which characteristically surround the older business and commercial districts of large cities. It also controls the development of new and outlying areas to avoid the errors characteristic of the past.

All aspects of city planning have some bearing upon the recreational interests of the people of the modern city; but there are certain features of city planning which concern directly the function of public recreation. Land must be acquired for neighborhood playgrounds and recreation centers in residential areas already developed and in which there is no vacant space. Sufficient areas must be preserved for public use in neighborhoods not yet wholly built up. District athletic fields and recreation centers need to be located. New subdivisions must be controlled so as to preserve sufficient open space for future needs. Regional park areas in the outlying districts need to be acquired before development cramps them and land prices become prohibitive.

City planners advocate the careful plotting of a master plan for land use against which all proposed new development of industries, highways, subdivisions and properties for public use are checked. Such plans should be stamped with authority which would make adherence to them compulsory, with proper discretionary power in regard to their modification assigned to a proper governmental agency. Recognition of the legality of zoning ordinances by the Supreme Court of the United States is a step in this direction. Some states have authorized the adoption by properly constituted planning bodies of authoritative master plans. Many cities have adopted master plans.

New York Example in Regional Planning.

The city of New York has set a commendable example to other cities in the matter of city planning. In the post-war period there was created a Committee on Regional Plan of New York and Its Environs, which was financed by the Russell Sage Foundation. With a staff of recognized experts in city planning in its many phases this committee formulated a comprehensive plan for the future development of the metropolitan area. In 1928 it published its Study of Parks, Playgrounds and Other Outdoor Recreation

Facilities.[1] While at the time it seemed to some that its recommendations were somewhat visionary, a decade had not passed before opportunity occurred to carry out many of the recommendations made in the plan. The recent development of the numerous neighborhood playgrounds, district athletic fields, great natatoriums, parks, parkways and beaches is in large degree a direct result of the sound plans formulated by the New York Committee.

The New York Plan, insofar as recreation was concerned, sought to answer the following questions:

"What kinds or types of recreation spaces are required for a region such as this?

"How much of each type is needed?

"How should they be distributed?

"How much of each do we now have, where is it located, and how used?

"How much more is required and what are the present opportunities for securing additional areas?

"What legal questions are involved in securing such areas (including water front space), and how can they be dealt with best?" [2]

Planning the Typical Large City

These questions, and others concerning improvements required on the areas and the cost of carrying out the plan, should be asked in every city with regard to its recreation needs. The answer will be different for every city. No standard pattern can be prescribed for all cities. Yet, if the elements of a complete plan were set forth it should be helpful to all cities in formulating local plans for public recreation. Accordingly, a hypothetical city of 100,000 population will be assumed and an estimate will be made of the physical facilities which such a city should have to provide with reasonable adequacy for the recreation needs of its people.

There will also be presented estimates of the cost of providing such facilities assuming that the city should start from "scratch" in building its recreation system. These estimates will, of course, be of the most general sort in the absence of exact specifications and

[1] Hanmer, Lee F., *Public Recreation, A Study of Parks, Playgrounds and Other Outdoor Recreation Facilities*, Regional Plan of New York and Environs, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1928.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 5.

in view of the wide variation in land and construction costs under variable conditions. The standards of adequacy of facilities will be determined on the basis of what is reasonably attainable in the city which accepts recreation seriously as an important local function. There will also be standards which are not out of line with those expressed generally by many authorities. By interpolation the problem of the city larger or smaller than 100,000 can be inferred, understanding that the city of considerably smaller population would be fortunate indeed if it had all of the special types of facilities such as are found frequently in the largest cities.

The problem of providing open spaces in the crowded tenement or slum districts of the large metropolitan cities must be approached not only from the standpoint of recreational needs but in relation to the provision of essential conveniences for healthful living, the promotion of public health, fire and crime prevention and economic well being. Valiant efforts at slum clearance and construction of multiple housing units are being made in many of these cities with the aid of the Federal Government which provides attractive financial inducements to any city which will join with it in low cost housing programs.

The high premium placed upon land in the close-in highly congested areas of these cities calls for the adoption of extreme and unusual measures to provide play and recreation space. The establishment of playgrounds on roofs and blocking off streets for play are not infrequently resorted to. In the great multiple housing projects in New York City, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Chicago and other cities provision is being made for playgrounds for small children. While the amount of space in these play areas is usually grossly inadequate as measured by standards applicable to more favored neighborhoods the condition is infinitely more satisfactory than that which formerly obtained. While most of the largest cities over 100,000 population have slums the problem of creating recreation areas in slum districts must be regarded as peculiar to such districts and as inextricably interwoven with a wide range of related problems. In endeavoring to arrive at standards for general application to urban communities it would be well to consider conditions which are not extraordinary or peculiar to areas of extreme congestion. These are a problem for special study and adaptation to their peculiar needs.

Neighborhood Recreation Centers

Definition of a Neighborhood.

The neighborhood is the smallest unit of urban area for which it can be reasonably expected public provision of recreation facilities may be made. The term "neighborhood" is not susceptible of exact definition, but for this purpose it may be defined as a group of blocks whose residents incline to the use of certain common facilities, such as a school, shopping center, church or transportation conveniences. These facilities and conveniences conduce to the formation of certain common interests or concerns and to a degree of intimacy of acquaintance. Often the residents of a given neighborhood have other characteristics in common, such as race, nationality or religion, and they tend to be of the same general economic and ofttimes cultural level. In a neighborhood such as has been defined the playground or recreation center is the logical center of the neighborhood recreational life, especially for the children.

In congested neighborhoods in which the homes have no yards or at best very small unimproved yards, playgrounds within each block would be of great value. No city so far has been able to provide playgrounds within the block even in its most congested area. The difficulty lies not only in the procurement of the land but also in the cost of maintaining and supervising innumerable small units. Attendance being small at each the cost of supervision in relation to the number served would be extraordinarily high. For the present the block playground however desirable must be regarded as an exceptional facility and not the rule for the average city.

A Playground for Every Neighborhood.

The city of 100,000 population should have as many neighborhood playgrounds as it has neighborhoods. This is tantamount to saying that it should have no fewer neighborhood playgrounds than it has elementary schools since elementary schools are usually located with reference to neighborhood need and convenience. In large cities elementary schools are situated so that they may be within convenient walking distance of the homes of all the children. The number of neighborhood playgrounds should probably

exceed the number of elementary schools because children are required to attend school whereas they attend playgrounds voluntarily. They will in many cases travel farther to school than to a playground for this reason. Experience shows that playgrounds for small children serve effectively an area of no more than one-quarter of a mile in all directions from the playground with allowance for natural and artificial barriers which tend to reduce the area.

If all elementary schools were equipped with adequate playgrounds and if each playground were administered with a view to serving the playtime needs of the children residing in the neighborhood of the school, the city of 100,000 people would require no additional playgrounds for small children except a few to care for neighborhoods, if any, incapable of being served by existing schools.

Space for the Neighborhood Playground.

The minimum amount of space which the city will require for neighborhood playgrounds may be roughly computed from the factor of one hundred square feet per child of elementary school age.[3] Since children of elementary school age represent about one-tenth of the total population the standard may be expressed approximately in terms of ten square feet per unit of population or 1,000,000 square feet for the city of 100,000 people, which amounts to approximately twenty-two acres. This area must be well distributed in several units by neighborhoods and must be clear of all obstructions except those installed to facilitate the play. An ill chosen location may destroy the effectiveness of any playground.

The average American city of 100,000 population will have a population of elementary school age of approximately 10,000. Elementary schools will range in enrollment from about five hundred to one thousand. The city will have from ten to twenty elementary schools from which it may be inferred that it should have not less than an equal number of neighborhood playgrounds. The fewer grounds there are the larger they should be.

[3] The expression of space standards in terms of square feet per child is not scientific unless it is stated how the children are to be organized for play. The standard suggested here anticipates not more than one-third of the children would be available to play at a given time, hence 100 square feet per child means a minimum of 300 square feet per available child, which is adequate.

Space for Landscaping Neighborhood Playgrounds.

The space which has been computed for play purposes does not include space for landscaping. Every playground should be adorned with landscaping whether a school playground or playground of other type. The neighborhood playground should be also the neighborhood park. A minimum amount of space devoted to landscaping in the neighborhood playground should be not less than half the space provided for play. If twenty-two acres are required for play purposes in the several neighborhoods, eleven acres should be added for landscaping, making a total of thirty-three acres for both purposes.

While the neighborhood playground is intended primarily for the use of small children and its capacity is determined by children's needs it will tend to be used to some extent by adults. Daytime play of adults should be discouraged on neighborhood playgrounds and provision should be made for them at the district playgrounds. The neighborhood playground will be equipped for the many varieties of outdoor play interesting and of value to the small children and also for certain indoor activities in inclement weather. It will require a building for the latter and for certain auxiliary conveniences such as lavatories, office and storage rooms; rooms for group meeting, and small auditorium and sometimes a gymnasium are also desirable. The gymnasium and auditorium may be combined in the neighborhood center. Here again is a strong argument in favor of making the school the neighborhood play center since the school usually has the facilities required which by adaptation may serve the neighborhood recreation needs much more economically than a separate and distinct plant. It is inconceivable that cities will duplicate the school facilities, in the long run, for a separate service so intimately related to that which schools now render. If, however, the schools are not adaptable to the need it must be cared for by another agency.

The District Playground.

The district playground is intended to serve persons of adolescent years and adults. It may be termed an athletic center because it is primarily equipped for the organized athletic sports of several kinds. The persons it is intended to serve are able and willing to

travel farther than the younger children to enjoy its benefits both because of their greater freedom and capacity to travel and also because of their desire for more highly organized activity. The latter gives them greater incentive to travel a distance which may be required in order to participate.

Space Required for District Recreation Centers.

In a diversified program of athletic activities the average amount of space required by the participant is approximately one thousand square feet. This, however, does not allow for marginal areas between athletic fields. It would seem that the figure should be increased fifty per cent on this account. Those who use the public athletic facilities are in the main the boys and girls of adolescent years, say from twelve to eighteen, and the younger adults. The former are for the most part in junior and senior high schools. Their athletic activities may be organized so that no more than ten per cent of them are available to play at any given time. If the area in a district system of athletic fields is determined on the basis of their needs it will be sufficient also for the needs of the latter group, namely, the younger adults, who will, generally speaking, use the facilities during evening hours and on non-school days, mainly on Saturdays and Sundays. The junior and senior high school age group constitutes about ten per cent of the population, or 10,000 in a city of 100,000 people. Allowing one hundred and fifty square feet per boy and girl, which means 1,500 square feet for each one available at a given time, it may be inferred that 1,500,000 square feet or about thirty-three acres of space will be required for district playgrounds. This amounts to half again more land than the city requires for neighborhood playgrounds, but it should be distributed among fewer locations. One district playground to each five neighborhood playgrounds would be satisfactory. There is need, therefore, for thirty-three acres divided between two or four areas; if in two areas each would be about sixteen acres; if in four areas each would be about eight acres.

Space for the District Park.

The district playground, like the neighborhood playground, should be provided with space over and above the needs for organized play to constitute it the district park. The park requirement

for each district should be no less than the requirement for organized recreation. It may be said, therefore, that if thirty-three acres are required by the city for district playgrounds a total of sixty-six acres will be required for the combined district playground and park purposes.

Combined Land Requirement for Neighborhood and District Use.

The total acreage required by the city for recreation and park purposes for neighborhood and district use, may now be computed. Adding the two gives thirty-three plus sixty-six or a total of ninety-nine acres; one hundred acres in round figures. This amounts to one acre to each 1,000 persons.

Regional Reservation or Park.

The city will not be well equipped for recreation unless it possesses a large regional park or reservation. This preferably will be an area of interesting terrain with hills, lakes, streams and woods. It should have at least one golf course and preferably two. It should have well developed picnic areas, trails and bridle paths, swimming pool and special landscaped or horticultural features. It may have such special features as a planetarium, aquarium, bird sanctuary, arboretum, horticultural conservatory, art and natural history museum, stadium, and public auditorium and exposition center. The last three may be better situated in more accessible locations.

Obviously an area intended for the use of the people of the entire city and region and equipped as indicated will of necessity be large, certainly not less than two hundred acres and preferably larger. It will in the nature of things be away from the center of the city and usually on the outskirts. In most cases it will constitute acreage which is not wholly suited to other uses or, at least when originally set aside, probably considered as "sub-marginal" land or land not particularly suited to economic use. Often such land is situated along the seashore, around a lake or in a hilly region. Because of these factors its exact size need not be considered in relation to usable area per unit of population. Two hundred acres may be accepted as a reasonable minimum size for a city of 100,000 population. This amounts to one acre per each five hundred persons of population.

Recapitulation of Area Requirements.

Adding the area required for neighborhood and district purposes (100 acres), and that roughly required for a regional park (200 acres), gives a minimum standard of 300 acres for the city of 100,000 persons. This amounts to one acre for each 333 persons in the general population. It compares favorably with the standard arrived at by the Committee on Regional Plan of New York and Its Environs who conducted the most extensive survey yet completed in America to determine the minimum requirements of the metropolitan city for recreation. The conclusion in this survey is stated in part as follows:

"Leaving out of account the water frontage needed for bathing, but including any upland areas attached to the beaches as water front neighborhood parks, it may be approximately estimated that one acre of open space is needed for *active recreation* to every 1,000 persons in the general population, or about 238 families. Much of this space, of course, will be found in the parks, where areas will be set aside and designed for children's playgrounds, athletic fields, play fields, tennis courts, etc. What, then, is the minimum area needed within an urban area for all the park and recreation requirements of the community?

"It is reasonable to assume that twice this area is needed for all purposes—i.e., one acre to each 500 persons as a minimum for combined city parks, athletic fields, water front parks, and playgrounds. A desirable minimum, however—would be one acre to each 300 persons likely to be resident in a district, and an absolute minimum of one acre to each 500. Any percentage between these two figures might be reasonable having regard to local conditions, and to proximity of country parks which are not included in the calculation. In areas only partially developed the percentage should apply to the potential, and not to the present population, and in all cases the figures now being used should relate to open spaces within walking or short driving distance of residential neighborhoods." [4]

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 129. For a tabulation of park and playground acreage in American cities see Walker, Mabel L., *Municipal Expenditures*, Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1930, Ch. IV, pp. 55-111.

Comparison With Actual Acreage in American Cities.

That the standard stated is not beyond the ability of American cities to provide is indicated in the fact that about one-fourth of the cities over 30,000 population have surpassed it. Most of these cities, however, do not have their park and playground acreage distributed in such a manner as to give the most efficient coverage and to render the best possible service. This is inevitable in the light of the conditions under which the properties in most cities have been acquired, mainly by gift and transfer.

The Cost of an Adequate Recreation System.

What would be the cost of providing the city of 100,000 population with a system which would include all the facilities for recreation mentioned herein? What would be the annual cost of operating and maintaining it? It would be impossible to estimate these costs with accuracy for a number of reasons:

1. Land and construction costs and operation and maintenance costs vary greatly from city to city.
2. Without fairly exact specifications of what constitutes each unit, which specifications do not exist, accurate estimates are impossible.
3. No city builds all of its system at one time or in one generation.
4. No city has all of the features, but each city dispenses with several until, at opportune or fortuitous times, they are provided one by one.
5. Some of the features are often supplied and maintained by public benefactors or by agencies privately financed.
6. Cities often build their systems with little regard for comprehensive planning and sometimes, in response to special promotion, provide one or more features at greatly enhanced if not exorbitant costs, as, for example, one city of 75,000 population spent $15,000,000 for the construction of a civic auditorium. This was more than enough to build a complete system of public recreation for that city including all neighborhood, district and regional features.

Nevertheless, if the system of recreation set forth herein cannot be shown to be within the financial capacity of a typical city of

100,000 people it could hardly be justified as an adequate and practicable plan. Accordingly, all of its features have been itemized below and a rough estimate made of its costs. All parts of it have been included for the sake of completeness, although it is recognized that no city as yet can claim so complete a system even though some have spent more than it has been estimated an adequate system, built according to a moderate plan, should cost. The estimated unit costs are based upon averages among many cities and upon experience in planning and administering the types of facilities included. The schedule is presented with full knowledge of its weaknesses. It is included more for the purpose of suggesting the possible application of the suggested standards to the problem of comprehensive planning of the whole city rather than as a formula to be applied in any given case. It may prove helpful as an aid to better understanding of the whole problem of planning and financing a municipal recreation system and services. It may also serve as a list against which elements of the comprehensive plan may be checked.

SUGGESTED COMPREHENSIVE RECREATION SYSTEM FOR A CITY OF 100,000 POPULATION WITH ROUGH ESTIMATES OF COST.

	Capital Investment	*Maintenance and Operation*
Neighborhood Recreation Centers		
Land for 20 playgrounds		
33 acres @ $10,000	$330,000.00	
Improvements to land including grading, landscaping, fencing and play apparatus & equipment, wading pool, etc.		
20 grounds @ $10,000	200,000.00	
Buildings, consisting of service building for the playground and average of four rooms for group activities		
20 buildings @ $20,000	400,000.00	
Recreation Center Operation		
20 centers @ $6,000		$120,000.00

	Capital Investment	Maintenance and Operation
District Playgrounds & Parks		
Land for 4 District Playgrounds		
66 acres @ $4,000	264,000.00	
Improvements to land including grading, landscaping, fencing, eight tennis courts each, athletic equipment, etc.		
4 grounds @ $20,000	80,000.00	
Buildings		
Field houses, including gymnasium, small auditorium, club rooms, etc.		
4 @ $100,000	400,000.00	
Swimming Pools, Outdoor		
2 @ $60,000	120,000.00	
Playground and Park Operation		
4 @ $10,000 (net cost)		40,000.00
Swimming Pool Operation (Partly self-supporting)		
2 @ $5,000 (net cost)		10,000.00
Regional Park or Reservation		
Land		
200 acres @ $500	100,000.00	
Improvements to Land, including landscaping, grading, park roads, athletic field, tennis courts (18), picnic grounds, trails, etc., but excluding special improvements listed below	300,000.00	
Park operation and maintenance not including special facilities..		30,000.00
Golf Course (self-supporting)		
1 @ $100,000	100,000.00	
Swimming Pool, Regional (self-supporting)		
1 @ $150,000	150,000.00	
Stadium		
1 @ $250,000	250,000.00	
Net cost of operation.....		5,000.00

	Capital Investment	*Maintenance and Operation*
Special Facilities		
Museum		
1 @ $100,000	100,000.00	
Net cost of operation and maintenance		20,000.00
Horticultural Conservatory		
1 @ $100,000	100,000.00	
Net cost of operation		10,000.00
Public Auditorium and Exposition Center		
1 @ $1,000,000	1,000,000.00	
Net cost of operation		15,000.00
General Administration		
Overhead cost computed at 5%		12,500.00
	$3,894,000.00	$262,500.00
Total per capita investment in recreation system	38.94	
Per capita annual net cost of operation and maintenance		2.62

RECAPITULATION OF COST

Neighborhood and District Recreation Centers & Parks		
Total capital cost	$1,794,000.00	
Total net annual operating cost		$170,000.00
Per capita investment	17.94	
Per capita annual operating cost		1.70
Regional Park or Reservation		
Total capital cost	900,000.00	
Total net annual operating cost		35,000.00
Per capita investment	9.00	
Per capita annual operating cost		.35
Special Facilities		
Total capital cost	1,200,000.00	
Total net annual operating cost		45,000.00
Per capita investment	12.00	
Per capita annual operating cost		.45
Total investment	3,894,000.00	
General Administration (5% of operating cost)		12,500.00
Total Annual Operating cost		262,500.00
Total per capita net cost of operation		2.62

Relative Cost of Operation.

Further light on the cost of operating the system presented above may be derived from an interpretation of the cost in terms of the tax rate. Suppose the assessed valuation of the city were $100,000,000 or $1,000 per capita, which is a fair average for large cities.[5] To yield an annual income of $262,500, which is the total cost of operation, it would be necessary for a tax to be levied at the rate of twenty-six cents per hundred. This rate, however, should not be compared with rates now charged in many cities because some of the cost applicable to the operation of neighborhood and district facilities would be charged against education. Moreover, some of the special facilities enumerated would in every city be maintained by public benefactors which would reduce the cost proportionately. In most cities some of the special features would be provided and operated by the county or state government. Finally, it should be pointed out that no city with approximately 100,000 population has so complete a system of public recreation as that set forth.

Whether or not American cities can afford the annual expenditure for the operation of their park and community recreation system and for the special facilities included in the discussion above, such as museums, auditoriums, stadiums, art galleries and the like, may be questioned. In contrast with the sum spent on other public services the program should not appear to be an extravagant one.

Neither is it to be considered extravagant in relation to expenditures made for commercial recreation. The study of commercial recreation made by the Chicago Recreation Commission revealed that Chicago's total investment in the various forms of commercial recreation was between $700,000,000 and $1,000,000,000 and that the annual per capita expenditures for these forms of recreation was $80.00.[6]

[5] U. S. Census Bureau, *Financial Statistics of Cities*, Washington, D. C., 1933.

[6] Chicago Recreation Commission and Northwestern University, *The Chicago Recreation Survey*, 1937, Vol. 2.

What Services Would Be Rendered.

Another interesting speculation suggested by the schedule of facilities and costs is the amount of services which such a system would make possible. A simple way of estimating this is to divide the total annual operating cost, $262,500, by the factor of three cents which is a fair average cost of individual services rendered by varied types of public recreation facilities. This gives a quotient of 8,750,000 which is an estimated total number of individual services or visits the system would produce. Considering this figure in relation to the population of the city, 100,000, it means an average of 87 services or visits for each citizen or about one and one-half services per week. Some citizens will not claim any of the services and others, usually children, will receive service almost daily.

The statistics quoted are acknowledged to be quite unrefined and some are based on purely hypothetical situations. Granting this, it is believed they suggest, if they do not demonstrate, that a public recreation system which includes all of the varied facilities required in a program which will contain something of interest to all citizens and which meets the reasonable requirements of the modern city, is not impossible of realization. On the contrary, with careful comprehensive planning it is reasonably attainable without imposing an excessive burden of taxation.

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XI

ACQUISITION OF RECREATION PROPERTIES

THE acquisition of lands properly situated and well distributed presents one of the most fundamental and difficult problems in the establishment and development of a municipal recreation system. The difficulty of obtaining suitable lands impedes the growth of public recreation in cities probably more than any other factor. Everyone recognizes the vital importance of neighborhood and district park and recreation areas; yet the problem of providing them in the older sections of cities and of reserving suitable areas in new districts has been almost insurmountable. Not only has little progress been made in acquiring areas in districts of cities already built, but new sections continue to be opened and developed without adequate provision for recreation needs.

Insofar as the districts already subdivided and developed are concerned there seems to be no other complete answer but to purchase, usually at great cost, improved areas and to clear them of buildings and other structures. Other expedients have been employed in particular instances as will be described later, but in general the problem will not be solved until funds are provided in sufficient quantity to permit cities to rebuild in a manner which will give every neighborhood and district a public recreation center. Methods which have been employed to finance land purchases and improvements will be discussed in Chapter XIII.

Dedication of Lands in Real Estate Subdivisions.

With regard to districts yet to be subdivided and sold in separate lots or parcels for residential purposes it would seem that some way could be found to require that land be dedicated for public recreation purposes as a condition to approval of subdivision plans. This is the manner in which dedication of necessary streets

is obtained. Municipal statutes uniformly require approval of street plans and dedication of easements for street purposes before subdivided lands may be sold. The courts have generally upheld local zoning ordinances setting up reasonable requirements with reference to streets. Similar legal authority to require the dedication of recreation areas is lacking, nor can it be granted by the enactment of state laws or amendment of state constitutions, for legal authorities have agreed that any such provision would be unconstitutional in that it would be tantamount to confiscation without compensation.

Many real estate subdividers realize the value of parks and playgrounds in improving a subdivision as a desirable residential place and the sales appeal which provisions for them might make. Not a few subdividers have voluntarily set aside lands for park and playground purposes, particularly in the large and better class subdivisions. One very successful real estate operator, W. Burke Harmon, was so imbued with the merits of this plan that he established a foundation and endowed it with funds to promote the plan throughout the country.

In a circular published by the National Recreation Association in 1930, entitled "Recreation Areas in Real Estate Subdivisions," Mr. Harmon made the following statement: [1]

> "Adequate recreation space is today an economic necessity in every community. Furthermore, the subdivider of today has learned that it is wise to set aside land for playgrounds in his communities in the same way that he allots certain areas for streets.
>
> "For a number of years the Harmon Foundation has been seeking to demonstrate that in supplying this economic necessity the financial interest of the subdivider and the civic interests of his community are identical. The subdivider benefits markedly from the higher prices and quicker sales which result in new communities supplied with adequate playgrounds, parks, athletic fields, tennis courts, or golf courses. The benefits which accrue to the public from permanent provision for its recreational needs are no less obvious.
>
> "Through a series of awards the Harmon Foundation has been

[1] Playground and Recreation Association of America (National Recreation Association), New York, *Recreation Areas in Real Estate Subdivisions*, 1930.

able to encourage a large number of subdividers throughout the country to test for themselves the value of creating adequate play spaces in their real estate developments, and to discover that such a policy pays real economic dividends. The Foundation has been more than glad to join the Playground and Recreation Association of America, which has administered the Harmon Foundation Awards, in publicizing the work of real estate developers who have demonstrated the feasibility of the plan."

The report of the Foundation in 1930 showed that recreation areas had been set aside in 278 subdivisions, which did not include 147 subdivisions known to have recreation space but concerning which insufficient data were at hand. A total of 8,075 acres had been set aside in subdivisions comprising 109,327 acres, which amounted to seven per cent for recreation. Of the subdivisions more than one-fourth were of areas from twenty-six to fifty acres and twenty-one of areas less than twenty-five acres. Of 204 subdivisions for which definite information was on record slightly more than half had been deeded to municipalities or townships. The subdividers continued to pay the taxes on about one-fourth of the areas usually with the expectation of later deeding the property to the municipality. In a few cases the cost of maintenance was carried by the subdividers and the property owners in the subdivisions and in some instances associations of property owners maintained and operated the areas.

The practice of dedicating areas in subdivisions would be more generally adopted if immediate improvement of a dedicated area could be assured and if cities could give binding guarantees that the dedicated areas would be kept up and supervised in a manner which would be creditable to the subdivision. Cities are usually not able to undertake immediate improvement and operation in advance of the time when the subdivision is completely built up and populated. Often this process requires several years during which the cost of operation would more than equal the value of the land dedicated. If the land is taken over by the city before it is actually needed the city not only incurs the cost of operating it during a period when there would be little return in usefulness but also loses the taxes which would be paid on the land if it remained in public ownership.

Right of Eminent Domain.

The right of eminent domain is the traditional legal right of any government to take any lands required for public purposes. The right implies that the land must be taken by due process of law and that the private or corporate owner from whom the land is to be taken is adequately compensated. This right applies to the taking of lands required for parks and recreation as well as other public purposes. The right is exercised through judicial processes set forth in statutes of the several states. Courts have held that the finding of the properly constituted governmental body as to the public necessity for the acquisition is conclusive. The courts merely adjudicate the damages to be paid the owner from whom the property is taken.

Condemnation of Lands.

The process by which governments exercise the right of eminent domain is called the process of condemnation. The governing body of the city, having ascertained that funds are available for the acquisition of a given piece of property, officially finds that the same is required for public recreation or other public purposes and serves legal notice on the owner to this effect. The case is then tried before a civil court. Procedures vary between the several states, but some provide for trial by jury and some do not. Usually it is provided that appraisers be appointed by the court and that evidence be admissible as to the value of the property.

Condemnation is usually the best means of determining what is a fair price to pay but frequently properties are acquired by direct purchase in the open market. Owners sometimes prefer to negotiate direct without awaiting condemnation either because of delay involved in condemnation proceedings (often a year or more is required), or because of apprehension concerning the possible outcome of trial. Public departments often prefer to handle purchases by condemnation rather than direct purchase because then they do not bear the responsibility for determining the exact price to be paid since the price is fixed by the court and criticism of the department is avoided.

Excess Condemnation.

A public improvement such as a highway, bridge or park frequently causes adjoining property to increase in value. Value is created by the public investment for the benefit of the owners of adjoining property. It would seem that the improvement itself might be financed in whole or in part by the value thus created. City planners have advocated the use of excess condemnation to accomplish this object. This plan involves the condemnation of more land than required for the public improvement and sale of the excess land at an enhanced price when the improvement is completed. Proceeds derived from the sale are applied on the cost of the public improvement.

Several states have passed laws permitting the use of excess condemnation but the method has not as yet come into wide usage. The constitutionality of the legislation is seriously questioned on the ground that the power of eminent domain can apply only when the government takes land required for a public use. The question is one of determining whether the condemnation of land to sell it again constitutes a public use. So far there has been no decision on the legality of excess condemnation by the Supreme Court of the United States.

If this method proves to be legal it will be of value in connection with certain large district or regional park projects where enough land is involved to make the plan practicable and where the nature of the park improvements are such as to definitely assure enhancement of property values nearby. As far as neighborhood areas are concerned, however, it is questionable whether the plan can be advantageously employed. The effect of neighborhood park and playground improvements upon adjoining property values is uncertain. While in general the effect in the neighborhood as a whole must be beneficial the property immediately adjoining may be adversely or beneficially affected depending upon the exact nature of the improvement and many other purely local factors.

Direct Purchase of Recreation Lands.

Direct purchase of land desired is a more simple procedure than condemnation. It is also less expensive, for court and other

expenses incidental to condemnation often run very high in relation to the total award to the owner, especially when the award is not great, as in the case of small properties acquired for neighborhood and district use. If the city or department representing the city is in a position to "shop" as a private individual would do, and particularly where there are two or more areas to choose from, a better bargain can be made as a rule than by condemnation. In conducting negotiations for purchase of property for city use it is usually not advisable to reveal that it is the government which is seeking the property. As soon as this is known owners are inclined to hold out for a higher price than that for which they would sell to private buyers. This is because generally the government is committed to a particular location and does not have the same freedom in adjusting itself to market conditions as does the private buyer. To overcome such situations departments considering the purchase of land frequently obtain options in the names of private persons. Commissions to realty dealers are not a legal expenditure in most places, but nothing prevents the seller from paying a commission to one who represents him in the transaction.

Due to the fact that cities have little money in a single year to devote to land purchase for recreation it is often proposed that property be bought on the lease contract or partial payment plan, paying a portion of the purchase price each year. This procedure in most states is not legal and is barred on the theory that an incumbent administration may not make a binding commitment to any policy or expenditure upon a future administration. Purchase of a portion of a given area each year for a period, meanwhile leasing the remaining parcels with options to buy, is one way by which the cost may be distributed over several years. For example, suppose ten lots were required for a playground which would cost ten thousand dollars and that only two thousand dollars could be budgeted for land purchase each year. Two lots may be purchased the first year and a lease and option taken on the remaining eight lots with the agreement that lease rentals shall apply on the subsequent purchases. The following year two more lots are taken and so on until all are acquired.

The city government has one advantage over private buyers in the acquisition of property by purchase in that upon assuming

title to the property unpaid taxes may be canceled. The private buyer must assume this obligation. Occasionally desirable properties become delinquent in tax payments and are legally "sold" to the state for non-payment of taxes. While technically the state possesses the property after a certain period of delinquency, varying in different states, the owner of record may redeem the property upon payment of delinquent taxes and penalties. It is rare that properties are completely abandoned especially such as are large enough and suitably located to be considered for public recreation purposes. A recreation department would do well to investigate whether any desirable properties are distressed for, if so, advantageous deals may be made with the record owners to acquire their equities. If the delinquent taxes and penalties may be canceled upon transfer of title the department is then able to acquire the land for a fraction of its ordinary value. This procedure would bear careful investigation particularly when tax delinquencies are numerous and values of unimproved real estate are low.

Most recreation departments do not have power to conduct purchase transactions themselves. These duties are performed by designated agents of the city council or by a land department. Nevertheless, knowledge of how purchases may be made and close liaison with the properly designated agents of the city in these matters often enables the recreation executive to secure advantages for his department not otherwise apparent.

Transfer of Lands from Other Uses.

Within the confines of a city there are usually parcels of land in public ownership, i.e., belonging to the city, county, state or federal governments, which are no longer required for the purposes for which they were originally acquired. There are former reservoir sites, firehouse sites, sites acquired for corrals or stables or storage of city engineering equipment, public school lands no longer used, or properties bequeathed to the city for one purpose or another in years gone by. Many of the municipal recreation centers in cities across the country are located on such lands. A search should be made in the public records for such properties and if they are suitable for public recreation purposes then transfer by proper authority to the control of the recreation department

should be sought. If possible such transfer should be made permanent by dedication by ordinance of the governing body. If this is impracticable temporary transfer may be acceptable. Occasionally these lands may be traded with private owners for lands better situated for public recreation use.

Indiscriminate acceptance of jurisdiction over public lands of the type mentioned is unwise. There are often small odd-shaped pieces of land left over after streets have been laid out or changed which are assigned to the recreation or park department for maintenance. These are usually a source of continuing expense without being of much value to anyone. Such lands should be examined carefully before being accepted. Sometimes there seems no alternative but to maintain them as parks but if they do not fill an important place in the city's park or recreation plan the indiscriminate tendency to create them in the first instance and to burden the park or recreation department with their maintenance in the second instance, should be resisted.

Use of Lands Under Lease and Permit.

Use of lands under lease and permit is sometimes resorted to when more permanent control is impracticable for lack of funds or for other reasons. Where the need for the land is a permanent one acceptance of jurisdiction in this manner is rarely advisable. A lease for a long term of years would ordinarily not be granted by private owners except at commercial terms. A lease for a short term gives such temporary control that improvements at considerable cost cannot be justified. Without proper improvements successful operation is rarely possible. Operation under a lease or permit encourages an attitude of complacency which mitigates against the formulation of plans for more permanent solution of the problem. If the lease or permit is from another governmental agency the situation is altered. Each proposal or project needs to be examined and judged on its own merits, but as a general rule the acceptance of lands on lease or permit is not to be encouraged.

Gifts of Recreation Lands and Structures.

Many cities have received notable gifts of lands and structures for community recreation and some have received cash bequests

to be used for the same purpose. Gifts of funds are more infrequent than gifts of properties. The latter are a natural outcome of the development of private estates which, when they have served their purpose through a period of years, are turned over to the city for public use. Sometimes the incentive to deed such property to cities arises out of sentimental attachment to a place and disinclination to have it dismembered. Sometimes it is due to a philanthropic spirit. Often mixed motives dictate the action.

Cities and other public jurisdictions prefer to receive gifts in "fee simple." The fee simple is the unrestricted title to the land without conditions as to its use or future disposition. Public benefactors, however, are usually unwilling to make grants in fee simple, but write into the deeds various conditions and restrictions, such as the use to which the property may be put, the name by which it shall be called, and how it shall be improved and maintained. Reversionary clauses are also included which provide that if the conditions of the grant are not complied with the title shall revert to the donor or his heirs.

In their eagerness to accept lands for public benefit officials heretofore frequently erred in agreeing to all sorts of unreasonable and fanciful restrictions which donors have insisted upon. Some of these appeared reasonable enough or perhaps innocuous at the time the gift was made, but subsequently as the city grew and conditions changed their unreasonableness came to light. A word of caution needs to be sounded, therefore, concerning this matter but no general rule can be stated as to which restrictions are reasonable and which are not acceptable. Each situation must be judged according to its individual merit.

Not infrequently owners offer to cities lands which have no commercial or economic value to them but which if maintained as parks or recreation areas will tend to enhance the value of adjoining property, or at least relieve the owners of the expense of taxes. Among these are gullies, swamps, precipitous lands, odd-shaped areas and lands left over after partitioning of larger tracts. Usually the cost of improving and maintaining such areas would appear to be out of proportion to the public benefit and, if so, donation of them for public use should be discouraged and acceptance declined.

Most older cities of considerable size have been the recipients

of a number of grants of most valuable and useful park and recreation lands with and without improvements. It is plain that a park or recreation center is a splendid object through which the memory of any citizen may be perpetuated among his fellow citizens and throughout posterity. The practice of making suitable grants should be encouraged and promoted by giving dignified publicity to noteworthy examples set by donors. The value of gifts of park and recreation lands may be deducted from income on state and federal income tax returns. The amount deductable under gifts is limited, however. The right to make such deductions constitutes an inducement to some prospective giver to make donations for worthwhile public purposes.

Legal Uses of Parks.

Lands acquired and dedicated for park purposes may not thereafter be used for any purposes inconsistent therewith. This is a fortunate legal provision for frequently where land is needed for almost any public purpose it is suggested that a portion of the park lands already owned be taken. The immediate need usually seems more pressing than the permanent need for parks and were it not for the protection afforded parks by state laws they would frequently be dissipated. Courts have been quite liberal in interpreting what constitutes park purposes, and have held that airports, swimming pools, playgrounds, auditoriums and stadiums are not inconsistent with park purposes. In many states park lands may not be sold once dedicated except by order of a court of competent jurisdiction, upon showing that public necessity requires such sale. If park or other recreation lands have been acquired by gift under restrictions and reversionary rights, which in the future hamper proper development, the reversionary rights may be condemned under the right of eminent domain but with proper compensation for the owner of such rights. Playgrounds as a rule do not share the same legal protection generally enjoyed by parks unless they have been originally acquired and dedicated as parks.

Gifts by Dedication.

A gift of park or recreation lands may be made by presentation and recording of a proper deed of gift in favor of the municipality

or other subdivision of government. The dedication must be officially accepted by the governing body. Gifts may also be made by filing a subdivision map showing the area dedicated as park or playground but some courts have ruled that the dedication to be complete must be accepted by the governing body and must be recorded. Sometimes acceptance may be implied by use and improvement of the land by the public.

Ocean Beaches and Tide Lands.

The lands washed by the tides of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans and the Gulf of Mexico are rapidly becoming of vast importance to the recreation of the American people. The waters are used by millions each year for aquatic sports and the adjoining beaches are used for related recreations. It is important to note that the tidelands, which consist of lands lying seaward from the line of mean or ordinary high tide, are generally owned by the state.[2] This ownership has its basis in the English common law. The public ownership is vested in the state as the sovereign power. The right of the public to use the tidelands and the waters thereon for purposes of commerce, navigation and fishing is traditional; however, use of the same for recreation has until recently received scant recognition in the law although it has not been held to be inconsistent with the traditional right. Owners of land adjacent to the waters of the ocean and to lakes and rivers enjoy what is known as "riparian rights" which consist of the rights of access to and use of the said waters, also of the ownership of accretions to the foreshore when caused by natural forces. The ownership of artificially induced accretions varies in different coastal states.

It should be pointed out that tidelands and tidewaters cannot be generally enjoyed for recreation unless access is had to them across the adjoining upland beach. For this reason seacoast cities, counties and states have recently undertaken to acquire long strips of ocean beach for recreation purposes. The manner of acquisition has been the same as for parks and playgrounds.

[2] In New Jersey and some other states on the eastern seaboard certain portions of the tidelands are in private ownership which derives from original grants made to private individuals or companies by the English Crown.

Rivers and Lakes.

Navigable rivers and lakes have generally the same status as to public ownership and public rights to use them as the ocean, but non-navigable waterways are often held wholly in private ownership, subject to certain riparian rights of owners of property dependent thereon for water supply. Acquisition of some waterways for public recreation purposes is now recognized as commendable public policy and may be accomplished in the same manner as park and recreation lands are acquired.

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PART II

ADMINISTRATION OF A RECREATION DEPARTMENT

XII

INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF A RECREATION DEPARTMENT

IN Chapter III the organization of recreation departments in relation to the other functions of government and in the whole structure of governmental organization has been discussed. This chapter will deal with the internal organization of a municipal recreation department. Several principles of organization will be discussed first and then a hypothetical organization will be illustrated. The complexity of relationships within an organization increases with size. In order that all the relationships might be illustrated it will be necessary for the hypothetical organization to be one of large size and comprehensive of all municipal recreation services rendered by the largest cities, omitting those performed by school and library departments.

Some Principles of Administrative Organization.

1. Lines of administrative responsibility should be direct. Supervisory responsibility descends from the top of the organization "through channels" to the employees who perform the units of work for which the department is organized. The employee who performs any unit of work reports to and is responsible to his immediate superior. No employee should be required to be accountable to or direct the work of another employee of equal rank. Employees who are involved in these direct lines of responsibility are termed "line" employees.

2. In a complex organization in which highly specialized auxiliary services are required, specialists are often employed to perform such services. These are called "staff" employees.

The function of staff employees is to plan, to coordinate and to provide technical advice and guidance. With respect to their several specialties the advice of staff specialists is clothed with

the authority of the chief executive of the department. This authority is sometimes assigned in blanket fashion which enables the services of staff employees to be "fed" into the "line" at any convenient point and when needed.

In small departments staff and line functions are frequently performed by the same persons. The following is a list of typical line and staff functions in a large recreation department:

Line Functions

A. Maintenance of areas and equipment to facilitate recreation on
   (1) Athletic fields
   (2) Tennis and other courts
   (3) Play apparatus
   (4) Picnic areas
   (5) Golf courses
B. Maintenance of camps
C. Maintenance of beaches
D. Maintenance of swimming pools
E. Maintenance of landscaped areas
F. Maintenance of roads, paths, streams, bridges, etc., within parks
G. Maintenance of buildings
H. Supervision of the public in the use of areas and facilities
I. Instruction of individuals and groups in certain recreation activities
J. Organization and promotion of activities adapted to available facilities
K. Organization, promotion and management of special programs
L. Safeguarding of lives of the public in the use of beaches and swimming pools
M. Construction of buildings, ground improvements and equipment

Staff Services

A. Planning of new areas and facilities
B. Publicity and public relations
C. Services of supply
D. Personnel selection and administration
E. Recording and filing
F. Accounting and auditing

G. Advising, counseling and developing standards concerning the recreation activities conducted by the department in special fields of recreation, as follows:
   (1) Athletic schedules, tournaments and contests
   (2) Girls' and women's activities
   (3) Boys' and men's activities
   (4) Drama
   (5) Music
   (6) Arts and crafts
   (7) Aquatics
   (8) Camping and other outing activities

3. The division of services or duties within a department should be based upon a clear-cut differentiation of the activities to be performed by the employees involved.

Duties which are similar in respect to the skills and training required in their performance should be grouped together. Duties which are dissimilar in respect to the skills and training required should not ordinarily be assigned to the same person. For example, recreation leadership should not be assigned to caretakers or janitors nor should maintenance duties generally be assigned to recreation directors. The result of assigning dissimilar duties to one employee is usually that he favors one and neglects the other according to the direction in which his interests and skills lie. Because many recreation centers have only a small staff of one, two or three workers it is often necessary to violate this principle.

4. Administrative responsibility at any recreation center to which more than one employee is assigned should be assigned to a single employee.

At any recreation center numerous activities are performed which require coordination in accord with the policy of the department. Coordination must be effected at the place where the duties are performed. There needs to be someone at the place of work who has the authority to make decisions. Assignment of administrative responsibility to one person facilitates various transactions between the central headquarters of the department and the staff of the center. It also tends to minimize conflict between the several employees at a given place. This practice is, in fact, a partial decentralization of the executive function which is advisable in a department whose work is carried out at many places.

At most recreation centers there will not be sufficient executive duties to require the full time of one person. In such cases the executive duties may be assigned to one who also performs other duties. In that event he should be given some such title as "chief director." In larger centers employing considerable staff there will probably be enough executive duties to require the full time of one person. This executive will be to the recreation center what the principal is to the large school.

5. When an employee is responsible for the performance of two or more distinguishable functions he may properly be required to report concerning them to two or more superiors.

The director in charge of a swimming pool, for example, has under his supervision employees who perform maintenance duties and other employees who perform instructional and directorial duties. With respect to the former he may report to the executive in charge of maintenance and with respect to the latter to the executive in charge of recreation activities.

6. The organization of a department must be sufficiently flexible to enable the department to make the fullest possible use of the staff employed.

Fundamentally, of course, the functions which a department must perform determine its structure or organization. Employees should be secured who can perform the required duties. But in practice the form of organization, more in the lower than in the higher levels, should be capable of adaptation to the peculiar skills and abilities of the available personnel. When changes in personnel occur redistribution of duties is often necessary. Sometimes an employee is outstanding in the performance of certain activities and deficient in others. Occasionally this situation calls for a change in organization.

The Organization Chart.

A hypothetical organization of a recreation department in which park, recreation and related functions are shown in a single department is illustrated in Chart 9 (see page 195). This chart illustrates the general principles of departmental organization which have been stated. It should not be regarded as an ideal plan of organization because local conditions vary so that no ideal plan can be recommended. The organization in any city must be adapted to

the general organization of the municipal government and is usually dictated by local traditions, procedures and expediency. The chart obviously illustrates the ramified organization of a large department. In smaller departments the same principles of organization apply but duties and responsibilities are in many cases consolidated. For example, some of the staff duties may be performed by the executives involved in line responsibilities. Recording and filing may be united with accounting and auditing; supervision of athletics and aquatics or of drama and music may be consolidated; direction and management of beaches and swimming pools may be combined.

In most cities several staff functions are performed by officers who serve several or all departments. Legal advice is furnished by a city attorney, auditing by a city controller or auditor, purchasing by a city purchasing agent, and personnel administration sometimes by a civil service department. Notwithstanding this centralization of staff functions for the entire city government the several staff officers frequently have their counterpart in each department; for someone in each department must prepare requisitions and keep stores of supplies, someone must keep personnel records and perform other duties in personnel administration, and someone must account for funds and keep fiscal records. Construction, including design and engineering, is sometimes assigned to the department of public works or the city engineer although landscape design and construction more frequently remains an activity of the recreation or park department.

Discussion of Hypothetical Organization

In Chart 9 "line" responsibilities and relationships are indicated by ascending and descending lines and "staff" responsibilities are indicated by horizontal lines. Again let it be said that the chart illustrates a large department in which all recreation functions of the city are incorporated and consolidated in one department. There are few departments in the country large enough to require the ramifications of organization illustrated here. Yet, if it is assumed that recreation facilities of the type shown at the bottom of the chart are operated but are not so numerous, the several functions and services illustrated will of necessity exist. They will, however, be consolidated and assigned to fewer persons than in

the large department. The degree of ramification in organization and specialization in particular administrative and executive duties increases with the size of the department.

Board Functions.

The chart shows a board or commission as a policy making and legislative body. The functions of boards and their methods of operation have been more fully explained in Chapter VIII. Some cities may dispense with a board but if so the functions ordinarily performed by the board will have to be performed by the City Council. Directly related to the board and responsible only to it is the secretary. He is the one who keeps the official records of the board. He certifies official resolutions and other documents and conducts the board's correspondence. Boards of small departments would not be justified in employing a full-time secretary but may assign secretarial duties to one of their number or to a clerical employee who performs other duties. As secretary, however, he should not be responsible to the superintendent.

Line Organization.

The superintendent is responsible for the general management of the department and for the efficient maintenance and operation of all facilities, i.e., playgrounds, swimming pools, etc., and the programs related thereto. If there are sufficient of these units certain intermediary executives may be employed who will be made accountable in turn for the performance of employees assigned to the facilities and programs in their charge. For example, there may be sufficient playgrounds to call for a supervisor of playgrounds who will be in general charge of the staff employed at all playgrounds. He may be provided with the assistance of certain staff directors assigned to no particular area or facility but related to the promotion and conduct of programs at all centers.

The supervisors of all the distinguishable facilities, e.g., playgrounds, beaches, camps, etc., may report directly to the superintendent, but if the department is large enough this relationship may be exercised through two intermediary executives,—one in general charge of all maintenance and the other in charge of all activities. In some large departments the former is called superintendent of parks and the latter superintendent of recreation. If

the title superintendent is given to them, then the department head is called general manager or chief engineer.

A department may construct its own facilities in whole or in part. Some departments call upon the city engineer or department of public works for construction; some design and construct all of their own structures; some design their structures and let out the larger jobs to private contract on competitive bids; many departments do their own minor construction. In any event there may or may not be required an engineer in charge of construction. His duties may also be consolidated with those of the executive in charge of maintenance.

Staff Organization.

The line organization has now been described, but there remain certain staff duties which are related to the entire plan of operation and maintenance and which should be explained. These are illustrated in Chart 9 on a horizontal line immediately below the superintendent. They are so shown not because they are superior in rank to all who appear below them but because they are related to the entire organization and provide information, services and reports direct to the superintendent as needed by him in the performance of his duties as general manager. Their services are centralized in the general office where they are accessible to all who need them. If the office or clerical duties are sufficiently numerous and large they may all be assigned for supervision (with the possible exception of publicity and public relations) to an office supervisor or chief clerk, not shown in the chart. The several staff functions are as follows:

1. Recording, filing, clerical and stenographic services. These services are incidental to all the work of the department. Modern office practice favors consolidation or centralization of these duties insofar as practicable. For example, instead of assigning a stenographer to each employee who dictates, the stenographers are "pooled" and their services are on call when needed. Dictaphones are found practical in many cases.
2. Purchasing and Supplies. As explained elsewhere larger cities have quite generally adopted plans of centralized purchasing under which the services of the city purchasing agent are available to all departments. Any large department, however,

would still require someone to prepare and follow through the numerous requisitions submitted to the purchasing agent and interpret the requisitions in terms of the exact needs of the department, also to consolidate requests for materials to be bought so that the advantages of quantity buying may be had. In addition there is the supply of stores which must be distributed and accounted for. A department large enough to be organized on the "hypothetical plan" would undoubtedly have a large storeroom with several employees and facilities for delivery.

3. Personnel records and reports. The keeping of these records and reports has ramifications extending through the entire department for wherever and whenever any employee works an original record is made for payroll and other purposes. These records must be consolidated and transmitted to the civil service department, if any, the city controller or others. Personnel records referring to every employee must be kept for reference.

4. Accounting and auditing. While these are separate functions they are mentioned together here. Accounting refers to the detailed recording of information concerning the moneys received and expended and the relation between the several accounts. This information will be compiled in the form of reports of record and memoranda for the guidance of executives. Auditing has reference to the checking of the records and accounts to insure their correctness. Every department has a certain amount of accounting to do and for its own satisfaction may do certain auditing. The official audit, however, will more properly be made by the city auditor or controller.

5. Publicity and public relations. Some public departments have little reason to be concerned about publicity except in the interest of having the tax paying public know how the government is administered. The recreation department has a greater interest in publicity in that it must keep the public informed concerning the many opportunities for recreation which its facilities and program provide. This is distinctly a staff function related to all the facilities and services of the department. The one in charge of it should be close to the superintendent and board so that he may know the regulations and policies of the department and may know immediately when they are changed. He needs also to have access directly to the several operating units and personnel. This function is discussed more fully in Chapter XXII.

The organization of a recreation department is not complete without an information service. Almost countless questions are asked of the recreation department not only of its own work and services but also of other opportunities for recreation available through other sources. An information clerk cannot only render this service but also relieves the executives and other office workers of many annoyances and interruptions. The clerk can also receive callers and refer them to the proper office. Some departments expand the functions of this office to the proportions of a service bureau to issue permits for athletic facilities, picnic grounds, auditoriums, etc., to offer suggestions and programs for parties and private recreational occasions, to promote wholesome recreation everywhere with the aid of circulars and other printed matter, and sometimes to schedule leaders to aid groups in the community to conduct their activities in homes, churches, schools, etc. Insofar as this service is not rendered on public property under the control of the recreation department, and insofar as it relieves private individuals and agencies of responsibility, initiative and expense it is hardly to be construed as a proper public function.

Definite Responsibility.

The organization of any department should be such that all employees have a clear understanding of their duties and to whom they are responsible or accountable. Written instructions and charts indicating lines of responsibility are useful for this purpose. Employees should also know how their work is related to the accomplishment of the objectives of the department. The delegation of responsibility to employees should be plain and as challenging to the employee as possible. Along with the assignment of responsibility should go the authority to carry it out.

Internal Coordination.

In a large organization in which functions are departmentalized there is always a danger that coordination between divisions may be lacking. The fact that the work of a department is conducted at several centers geographically out of touch with each other also contributes to this tendency. Joint projects in which all parts of the department must cooperate, such as a department pageant, aid greatly to interrelate the several parts. Departmental meetings, reg-

ular bulletins dealing with all department affairs and social occasions for employees are also useful devices to promote mutual understanding and coordination.

Decentralization of Executive Functions.

In all organizations there is an inevitable tendency to overcentralize the executive functions. Possibly this is due to the human frailty to enjoy the exercise of control. Executives should delegate control and pass the responsibility for making decisions as far down the line of organization as may be consistent with getting the work done. This is important not only in relation to a particular item but also because the practice reduces executive overhead, encourages growth and sense of responsibility, is conducive to wider experimentation, permits adaptation to local conditions and saves time.

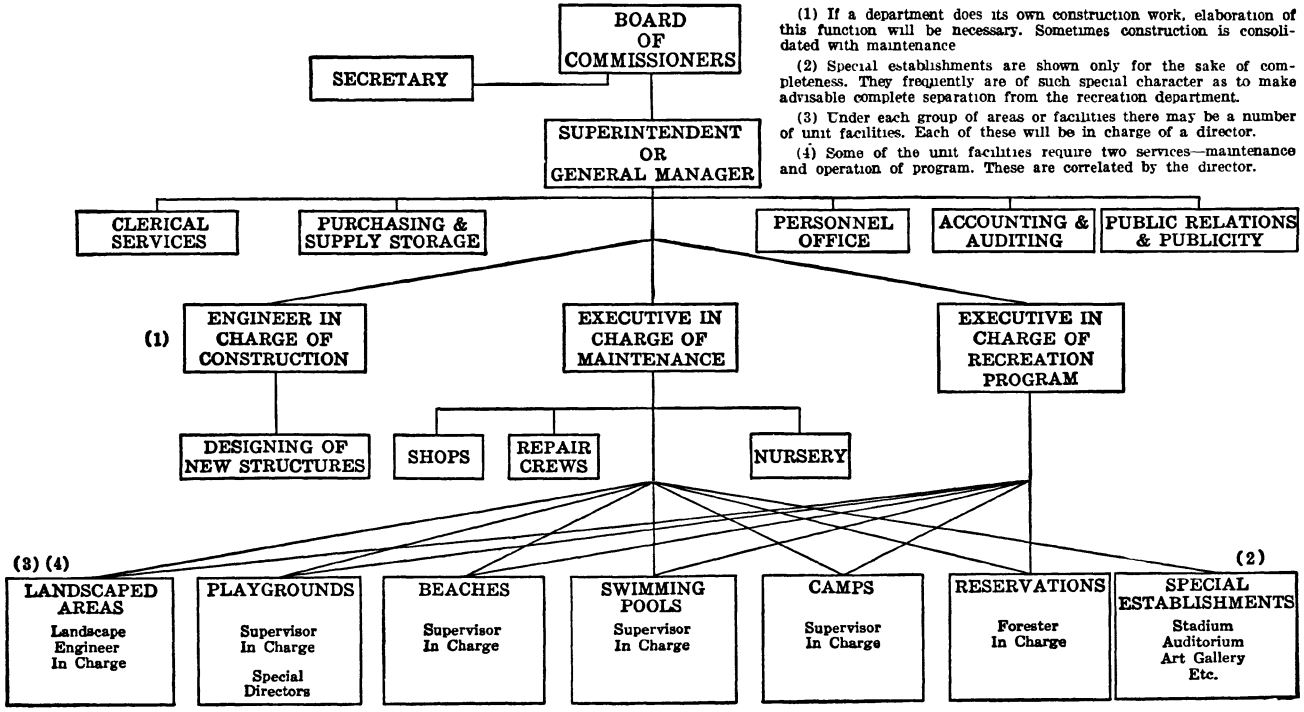
The tendency to overcentralize the executive functions is closely related to the tendency to build up an unnecessarily large central executive staff. As in the army the effort of the executive staff should be to get as many of the employees on the front line as possible, consistent with the efficient executive control of the work. The relation between the number of executive and office employees and the employees at the places where the basic work is done should be re-examined from time to time. So often employees are brought in to the central office for special work and reassignment to the field is unduly delayed. A reappraisal of the work performed in the executive office often reveals that some of it is no longer necessary and can be well dispensed with.

Balance in the Executive Staff.

In selecting those who are to fill executive positions care should be taken that the several members complement each other in the qualities and abilities that they bring to the organization. All executives should not be of the same temperament. There is need for the promoter with his imagination and enthusiasm, for the person with broad social sympathy and zeal for the improvement of social conditions, for the conservative business minded executive with a good sense of economic values, for the patient, painstaking, approachable and sympathetic executive who can counsel employees well. No executive can be all these things and yet all executives

CHART 9. HYPOTHETICAL ORGANIZATION OF A MUNICIPAL RECREATION DEPARTMENT

Illustrating relation of the several functions and of line and staff responsibilities



(1) If a department does its own construction work, elaboration of this function will be necessary. Sometimes construction is consolidated with maintenance

(2) Special establishments are shown only for the sake of completeness. They frequently are of such special character as to make advisable complete separation from the recreation department.

(3) Under each group of areas or facilities there may be a number of unit facilities. Each of these will be in charge of a director.

(4) Some of the unit facilities require two services—maintenance and operation of program. These are correlated by the director.

together may constitute a balanced staff with respect to these qualities.

Similarly, in selection of the staff consideration should be given to the contacts which should be made with different elements of the population; religious, racial and cultural groups. There are also contacts to be maintained with various civic and governmental agencies such as the associations of property owners and tax payers, governmental departments and executives, the city council, public schools and teacher groups, libraries, social work organizations, etc. The department is fortunate if it has on its executive staff persons fitted to cultivate all of these contacts and relationships. It might be added that executive positions in recreation should be open to members of both sexes.

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XIII

FINANCING MUNICIPAL RECREATION

THE revenues for the support of the municipal government are obtained from several sources of which the general property tax yields by far the greatest amount. Approximately sixty per cent of the revenues received by municipalities in the United States is obtained from the general property tax. "Grants in aid" to municipal governments which are funds contributed by states, counties or the federal government for specific purposes, amounted to approximately thirteen per cent of the total revenues in 1936; earnings, principally of public service enterprises, approximated an equal amount. Business taxes and license fees produced nearly six per cent of the total revenues and the balance, namely eight per cent, was obtained from various sources such as street franchises, fines, forfeits, donations, etc.[1] Nearly all of the taxes and charges other than the general property tax are collected for specific or special purposes and revenues from them are usually earmarked for such purposes. The general property tax is intended to provide almost exclusively for the operation and maintenance of the general departments of the municipal government of which the recreation department may be one.

The general property tax is levied upon real and personal property. Each year an assessed value is placed on all such property by the properly constituted municipal officer who is usually designated the assessor. The total assessed value of all taxable property is divided into the amount of revenue that will be required in order to determine the tax rate. This rate is expressed in mills per dollar of assessed value or, for convenience, in terms of cents per hundred dollars of assessed value. Thus a tax of one mill per dollar is equivalent to a tax of ten cents per hundred dollars of assessed value. The general property tax in American cities for general govern-

[1] U. S. Bureau of Census, *Financial Statistics of Cities Having a Population of Over 100,000*, U. S. Govt. Printing Office, 1936, p. 82.

mental purposes, excluding taxes for education, debt service and capital outlays, varies roughly between one dollar and two dollars. Assessed valuation for city tax purposes ranges from about five hundred dollars to twenty-five hundred dollars per capita.

Comparisons of assessed valuations of taxable property of cities and of tax rates derived therefrom are of little significance unless the variable bases of valuation are taken into consideration. These vary from twenty per cent to one hundred per cent of true or cash value. In many states the basis is determined by state law. The determination of true or cash values is difficult because there is no scientific manner of computing it. Values fluctuate and the value of property is largely a matter of individual judgment. Theoretically true or cash value is considered by assessors to be the price which a property would bring in a sale by a solvent debtor to satisfy a debt. Except by actually selling the property there is no exact way of determining what this amount would be.

Inadequacy of Funds for Recreation.

The dependence of city governments upon the general property tax for general governmental purposes including recreation is perhaps an important reason why community recreation has not been better financed. Functions of municipal government have greatly increased in number during the present century. The cost of caring for established functions has also increased. The mechanization of life in the modern city has created a need for fire and police protection, street construction and traffic control, sanitary sewers and storm drains, and numerous other facilities and services. The increasing cost of these municipal services has been a charge against the general property tax. The per capita tax for all municipal purposes including schools amounted to $48.83 in 1936.

In the face of a rising municipal tax rate, recreation has found it difficult to wrest even a small pittance from municipal funds to meet its increasing demands. Just at the time when leisure began to increase at an unprecedented rate, when the need for community recreation increased proportionately, the value of real property, which was the basis of municipal financial support, declined greatly. In order to lessen the tax load borne by real estate and personal property, assessors generally reduced the assessed valuation of such property. In some places this reduction amounted to as much as

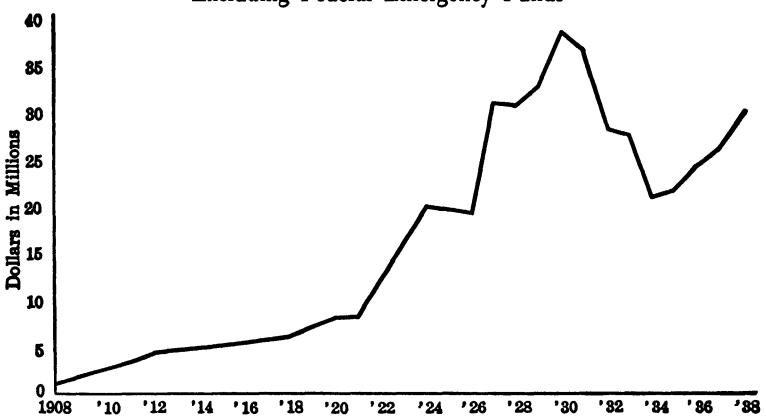
fifty per cent of the valuation made previous to 1930. With diminished revenues, cities have found it extraordinarily difficult to appropriate funds nearly adequate to meet the obvious needs in recreation.

These needs were evident not only in relation to the problem of providing children's playgrounds for use after school hours and during the long summer vacations, but also in relation to adult recrea-

CHART 10

TOTAL ANNUAL EXPENDITURES FOR COMMUNITY RECREATION AS REPORTED TO THE NATIONAL RECREATION ASSOCIATION, 1908-1938

Excluding Federal Emergency Funds



tion. With increased leisure, adults began to use municipal recreation centers and to demand services during daylight and evening hours. The program tended to broaden to include many cultural and aesthetic activities in addition to the traditional outdoor vigorous games of children and youth. Indoor as well as outdoor facilities were demanded. The result has been that recreation departments have been attempting to render the expanded service on a scheme of finance admittedly inadequate even for a thoroughgoing system of children's outdoor playgrounds.

Increasing Financial Support.

From 1900 to 1931 the increasing recognition accorded community recreation by American cities was evidenced in the comparatively rapid rise in total expenditures incurred therefor. In

Chart 10 it will be seen that expenditures rose at an increasing rate until 1931 when they declined precipitately until 1934. Since 1934 they have again shown a rising tendency but not at the rate which characterized their rise in pre-depression years.

The total amount of money spent by American cities for recreation during the year 1936 is given in Table III. The figures include only expenditures from local funds. They are broken down for cities of three population groups and the per capita cost payments for recreation within each group are shown. It is of interest to note that the per capita expenditures for parks and trees exceed by fifty per cent the per capita expenditures for "other recreation."

TABLE III

GOVERNMENTAL COST PAYMENTS FOR OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE OF RECREATION [2]
1936

	Total	*Per Capita*	*Parks & Trees*	*Other Recreation*
Cities 500,000 and over ...	$35,818,794	$1.62	$.91	$.71
Cities 300,000 to 500,000 ..	5,389,538	1.17	.74	.43
Cities 100,000 to 300,000 ..	11,095,347	1.02	.70	.32
All cities over 100,000.....	$52,303,679	$1.49	$ 90	$ 59

Comparison with other Activities.

Some comparisons of the expenditures made for recreation by cities with expenditures made for other services add significance to the records. Table IV gives the per capita expenditure for various municipal services during 1936 in cities over 100,000.

Comparisons with the cost of commercial amusement and entertainment are also illuminating. The average annual expenditure per capita for community recreation under municipal governmental auspices is approximately equal to the cost of one admission to a first-run motion picture show; a grandstand seat at a professional baseball game; an evening at a bowling alley; two hours of play in

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 126. The items for "General Recreation" and "Educational Recreation" have been consolidated under the heading "Other Recreation." The apparent discrepancy between these figures and those derived from the National Recreation Association Year Book is due to the fact that the Bureau of Census includes certain expenditures not reported by the Community Recreation Agencies.

TABLE IV

GOVERNMENTAL COST PAYMENTS PER CAPITA FOR OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE—CITIES OVER 100,000 POPULATION [3]

Schools	$15.19
Libraries	.56
Health Conservation	1.16
Police Protection	4.84
Fire Protection	3.04
Sanitation	2.59
Recreation	1.49[a]

[a] This figure includes $0.59 for "General Recreation" and "Educational Recreation," and $0 90 for "Parks and Trees."

a billiard parlor; a gallery seat at a concert or a balcony seat at an ordinary prize fight.

Support from Non-Tax Revenues.

Community recreation receives its support in part from revenues derived from fees and charges made by municipal departments for services rendered. Earnings from recreation enterprises in which fees are exacted or charges made, while not great in relation to total revenues of the city, are considerable in relation to the recreation budget alone. In 1937 fifteen per cent of all financial support for community recreation was derived from fees and charges.[4] This method of financing or supporting certain community recreation services is being used more year by year. It will be discussed at length in Chapter XIV.

Allocation of Tax Funds.

In most cities the financial needs of the recreation department are considered by the City Council, Board of Aldermen or other chief governing body, prior to the beginning of the fiscal year. Appropriations are then made in the city budget to provide for the needs with due consideration also for the capacity of the city to meet them. The claims of recreation must be evaluated in comparison with the claims of numerous other municipal functions.

A new function is somewhat at a disadvantage in this procedure. There is an inevitable disposition to take care of the older and

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 130, 134.

[4] National Recreation Association, *Year Book: Issue of Recreation*, June 1938, p. 133.

more established functions first and then to parsimoniously dole out small appropriations to the newer departments and bureaus. With a reluctance, which is always present, to increase the tax rate, new functions fare poorly unless there is an unmistakable and widespread public demand in their favor. Recreation, one of the newest functions, has not yet achieved sufficient general recognition to command insistent general support.

Recreation, parks and libraries are municipal services which are highly important, but the necessity of providing for them rarely seems an emergency. The attitude among members of governing bodies seems usually to be that these needs may be deferred and more pressing needs taken care of first.

For these reasons the practice has developed of making a special tax levy for recreation, parks and libraries. This tax is sometimes referred to as a millage tax, i.e., a tax whose rate is in terms of mills or tenths of a mill for the special purpose. Often it is expressed in terms of cents per hundred dollars of assessed valuation. In more than one-fourth of the cities over 50,000 population in 1928 parks and recreation derived their tax funds from special levies.[5] Among smaller cities the practice is not so prevalent. In 1928 sixty-five cities reported to the National Recreation Association that their recreation activities were supported by a special levy.[6] In thirty-seven of these cities the tax levy was the result of a referendum provided for by law as a means of initiating community recreation work. Seventeen of the thirty-seven were in Illinois where the State Recreation Enabling Act provides this means specifically for the adoption of community recreation as a governmental function. In twenty-eight of the cities the special levy was specified in the original charter or in a charter amendment. The rates ranged from one-tenth of one mill to one and one-third mills with an average of eight-tenths. (The Illinois cities were almost uniformly one and one-third mills; one city, Morgantown, W. Va., was three mills.)

Whether or not the special levy is advantageous to the cause of recreation is a moot question. It is often debated at gatherings of recreation executives. The question must be answered separately for

[5] Weir, L. A., *Parks—A Manual of Parks*, 1928, A. S. Barnes & Co., New York, Vol. 1, pp. 493-497.

[6] National Recreation Association, Bulletin No. 1985, *Recreation Tax Rates*, 1928.

each city since it is really a question whether more adequate funds can be obtained by the special levy or by appealing annually to the governing body of the city. One objection to the special levy is that it tends to freeze the appropriation at a given rate for a period of years since it can be changed only by popular vote. This would be a disadvantage during periods of inflation and an advantage during periods of retrenchment.[7]

Since recreation is nowhere adequately financed, the question will be asked by those primarily interested in recreation, What plan promises to produce the largest funds for recreation? This question, as has been intimated, must be answered for each city separately, and a correct answer one year may not be the same several years later. It is of interest to note, however, that during 1937 in sixteen cities over 100,000 population in which community recreation was supported from special levies, the average per capita expenditure for recreation excluding capital expenditures was 53.5 cents, whereas in sixty-eight other cities of the same population class, with no special levies, average per capita expenditure was only 34.0 cents.[8]

The funds appropriated by cities for community recreation have been supplemented by expenditures made by the United States Government for community recreation under the several work relief agencies. These contributions from emergency federal funds in 1937 almost equalled the funds expended by local agencies in cities which had reported expenditures from local funds for recreation. E. C. Worman of the National Recreation Association has tabulated this relationship as follows:[9]

	Expended from	
	Regular Funds	*Emergency Funds*
Land, Buildings, Permanent Improvements ...	$3,403,191	$7,975,252
Upkeep, Supplies, Incidentals	3,783,555	
For Leadership	7,469,427	8,686,805
For All Other Services	5,546,421	
Total Expenditures	25,794,537	22,139,243[a]

[a] This figure does not include expenditures for "other services and upkeep, supplies, etc."

[7] Buck, A. E., *Municipal Finance*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926, pp. 28-30.

[8] Computed from National Recreation Association, *Year Book Issue of Recreation*, 1938.

[9] Worman, E. C., "Trends in Public Recreation," *Recreation*, August 1938, p. 267.

The amount recorded above as the expenditure of the Federal Government for community recreation must not be assumed to be the total contribution of the Federal Government to that function in 1937. Much more was expended in rural districts and in some cities which do not habitually report their expenditures to the National Recreation Association.

Neither should it be assumed that the aid rendered by the Federal Government is a committal to the principle of permanent federal financing of a function which heretofore has been considered purely a local function. The federal expenditures in community recreation have been primarily and fundamentally for relief of unemployment and community recreation has been aided only because it represents a field of work which offers opportunities for socially constructive employment. Nevertheless it seems evident that community recreation is destined to slow growth unless more promising means for its support than have yet been utilized can be discovered, or until state and federal aid is granted.

So far no states have made "grants in aid" to local civil divisions for community recreation. State expenditures for recreation have been almost exclusively for the acquisition, improvement and operation of regional parks. States uniformly, however, contribute to the support of education which from the standpoint of control is still largely considered a local and not a state function. Insofar as community recreation is provided by schools it may be said to receive some state support. Federal financial aid to states for education is under active discussion throughout the nation. In view of the broad taxing powers of the state and federal governments on the one hand, and the limited taxing powers of cities and counties on the other, the suggestion that more community recreation be financed from school funds derived from state taxes carries considerable weight. It is not inconceivable that state and federal aid may in the future be granted direct to cities and counties for the support of local community recreation.

Consideration of the limited financial support accorded community recreation in cities leads to the unmistakable conclusion that community recreation services are spread very thinly or that the services are relatively very inexpensive. As a matter of fact both conclusions are correct. How much recreation service can be purchased for fifty-nine cents per capita if municipal expenditures are

considered or for $1.18 per capita if federal and local contributions may be taken together? Statistics on this point are lacking largely because accurate methods of computing attendance at recreation functions are not in general use. The records of the Los Angeles Department of Playground and Recreation are helpful and suggestive in this connection. This department has kept careful records of attendance at every recreation center for over ten years and has prepared each year an accurate cost record of each center. Each year it has prepared a report of total costs and attendance and has kept a running account of unit costs. Its financial report for the

TABLE V

COST PER UNIT OF ATTENDANCE OF VARIOUS TYPICAL RECREATION SERVICES [a]

Type of Service	*Attendance*	*Total Net Cost* [b]	*Cost per unit of Attendance*
Playgrounds (year round) ...	11,108,130	$421,001	$.038
Camps (campers' days) Board, Lodging, etc.	39,292	13,114	.334
Swimming Pools	445,491	41,236	.093
Public Beaches	8,076,576	98,149	.0122
All Services	19,669,489	$573,500	$ 029

[a] Computed from the financial report of the Department of Playground and Recreation, city of Los Angeles, for 1938.

[b] Net cost is gross cost less revenues derived from fees and charges and includes the cost of maintaining properties used for recreation as well as the cost of conducting and supervising activities.

fiscal year ending June 30, 1938, shows an average cost per unit of attendance of less than three cents. (See Table V.)

Numerous samplings of records in many cities of the cost of rendering playground and community center service, maintenance and operation both included, reveal that the cost of such service is in the neighborhood of three cents per unit of attendance. A unit of attendance is considered as a visit for participation in or observation of one or more activities for a half day period or less. If this is taken as a criterion it will be seen that the average per capita expenditure of fifty-nine cents or $1.18 will provide respectively from twenty to forty units of service to one person during a year. In other words, local and federal funds taken together will

provide for one visit every nine days for the entire local population. Local funds alone will provide about one visit every eighteen days. Obviously any regularity of enjoyment of the community recreation services by a majority of the citizens of any community would cost several times the per capita expenditure that American cities have thus far been disposed to make.

From these deductions it is plain that community recreation as now conducted has a long way to go before it may be considered a universal service for all the people. Some interesting speculation may be indulged in at this point. Should community recreation be ideally a service participated in by all the people of the community? If so, how much would it cost a city to provide it? How would a city finance a system of recreation five, ten, or twenty times more costly than present systems? Would such a system equal in its size the institution of public education? Do these considerations lend force to the suggestion that public education should expand its functions to include much of public recreation to avoid duplication of areas, structures and overhead? If cities are to continue to serve only a small portion of their people in community recreation whom shall they seek to serve? Should the service be rendered only to the underprivileged? Should the limited services be spread sparsely but generally over the entire city so that those who take advantage of them represent a reasonable cross section of the population? Should services be limited to children only? Should adult services be self-supporting? These and similar questions remain unanswered in the present experimental stage in which the community recreation movement finds itself.

Financing Land Acquisitions and Improvements

Financing land acquisitions and improvements for community recreation is oftentimes more difficult than obtaining appropriations for maintenance and operation of recreation facilities after they have been established. Once facilities have been acquired the necessity for maintaining and operating them is obvious; moreover, when once an allowance has been made in the municipal budget for maintenance and operation, there is a disposition to continue it year after year. The acquisition of a new piece of land and improvement of it are considered with caution, not only because once acquired and improved the improved property will be a continuing

source of expense, but also because the original cost is great and looms large in the budget of any year.

The continuation of the established municipal services is a first charge upon the revenues of the municipal government. When these have been estimated, additions and improvements to property are then considered. The cost of the former has tended to rise year by year, as has been explained, rendering it increasingly difficult to finance additions to land and improvements from the current revenues derived from the general property tax and other sources.

The Pay-as-you-go Plan.

The advantages of the so-called pay-as-you-go method, under which additions and improvements are made yearly, insofar as the government has the current funds to pay for them, are obvious. While all cities endeavor to employ this method to some extent for the many varieties of improvements required, it has generally been used for the benefit of recreation only upon comparatively inexpensive improvements.

Financing by Bond Issues.

Cities have resorted more frequently to the method of borrowing on long term bonds, with terms of twenty, thirty and forty years. Cities generally are so far behind in the accomplishment of any reasonable program for acquiring and improving recreation areas to the degree required in the modern age that the pay-as-you-go method proves wholly inadequate under present standards of municipal taxation. Some more heroic measures must be discovered. When the motor age called for the rebuilding of cities and new systems of highways, new ways of financing these improvements were created. The age of leisure will call for the rebuilding of cities and for newer means of financing the improvements than the wholly inadequate methods now employed. Bond issues with few exceptions require submission of the definite proposition to the electors at a general or special election. Usually a two-thirds majority in favor of the issue is required before it can be made. Once approved, the retirement of the bonds and interest on them are a charge against the assessable real property of the taxpayers, although the tax rate therefor is separately computed and listed on

the individual tax bills. State laws regulate the amount of bonds which any city may issue for general governmental purposes, including recreation, and this limit is usually about three per cent of the assessed value of all taxable property. This limit does not apply to bonds for self-liquidating public utility purposes which carry a special limit, considerably higher. The reasonable limits of bonding capacity independent of statutory limitations are determined in part by the ratings computed by large bond buying houses. If a city over-bonds itself according to these criteria, it may find that there is no market for its bonds and will be unable to sell them, will have to pay premiums or will have to sell the bonds at prohibitive rates of interest.

During the first three decades of the present century, cities bonded themselves heavily for public improvements. Since 1930 the cost of bond redemption and interest has been so great a burden on the taxpayers that this method has not been so popular in recent years. In the five-year period following 1925, 148 cities voted bond issues for parks and improvements totaling over $153,000,000 whereas in the five years following 1929 only seventy-eight cities voted issues totaling about $18,000,000.[10] This tendency was due in some measure to the availability of funds for improvements from the Federal Government. Federal aid has not been available for the purchase of areas but only for improvements which provided work for the unemployed.

Cities heretofore have been more inclined to vote bonds for the acquisition and improvement of large regional parks and for parkways than for neighborhood recreation places.[11] This is due to the fact that parks have a longer tradition in American city life than community recreation, the need of which has only recently begun to be so generally understood as to enable a two-thirds majority vote to be obtained for any bond issue providing for them. It should be stated, however, that many of the park projects provided for by city bond issues have included some acquisitions and improvement of neighborhood recreation areas and facilities and many recreation features in regional parks.

[10] Worman, E. C., op. cit., p. 273.

[11] The parkway is a scenic drive or highway protected and decorated on each side by a strip of landscaping of variable width, sometimes a hundred feet more or less.

The method of financing municipal improvements by borrowing and issuance of bonds is objected to by many. It is pointed out that the cost of such improvements is increased if not doubled because of interest payments; also that the burden of repayment falls on future generations. These objections are less applicable to bonds for recreation areas and improvements than to many others because by borrowing for recreation improvements new values are created and the investment, especially in land, is of permanent worth. Its benefits will continue to be enjoyed long after the bond issue has been paid off. Since future generations will enjoy the benefits they may with equity be called upon to pay a portion of the cost. The bond plan may be termed the "pay-as-you-benefit plan." A distinct advantage of the plan is that so far it is the only plan discovered under which a large comprehensive program of improvements can be undertaken and accomplished in a few years.

The great paucity of neighborhood recreation centers in nearly all cities presents a problem of finance which cities will increasingly have to face in the future. The rate of progress in acquiring these facilities through annual appropriations from current tax funds is wholly unsatisfactory. It seems logical that as old bond issues voted in the days of relative prosperity are retired cities will be more able and more willing to adopt comprehensive plans for land acquisition and improvement which will be based upon the principle that every residential neighborhood must have its community recreation center, adequate in size and appointments to be efficient in its service and a credit to its neighborhood. This is a goal which will not be easily attained, especially since it will require rebuilding or re-planning of most cities. The areas that will be required are in many cases in neighborhoods already congested, in which there is no vacant land. The acquisition of a suitable area of three, five or ten acres in such neighborhoods will require the condemnation and purchase of many improved lots in each case. New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Minneapolis, Cincinnati and other large cities have already made a start on such a program, but at present it cannot be said that progress among cities generally is at a rapid rate.

The Special Assessment Plan.

The special assessment plan of financing the acquisition and improvement of lands for recreation has been used in a few cities with more or less success. It involves the assessment of the cost of the project against the property in the district which is presumed to be benefited. The assessment may be paid in cash, or if it exceeds a given sum, twenty-five, fifty or a hundred dollars, it may be permitted "to go to bond," and may be paid in annual installments for principal and interest for a period, usually ten years. In principle, this is the same method as that used for many years to finance the opening, widening and paving of streets which are of purely local benefit.

This plan, which has been most widely used in Minneapolis under the Elwell law passed by the legislature of Minnesota in 1911, enables a district which desires a local improvement to have it at its own expense without having to wait until the entire city is ready to provide the same sort of improvement generally. The plan is easy to invoke, since neither a general or district election is required. The governing body of the city may establish the district and order the assessment when convinced that the owners of a sufficient proportion of the taxable property (usually more than fifty per cent) desire the improvement.

The special assessment plan seems eminently fair at first glance because those who desire and are willing to pay for the improvements and services may have them. If, however, the plan is generally applied it will result in the less well-to-do neighborhoods having none. This would not be compatible with the principles of democratic government. If community recreation is a general governmental function, it must be provided for all and financed by the same means as other governmental services are financed. Governmental services are rendered alike to all; taxes to finance them are paid by all, but in proportion to the ability of the individual to pay.

Other objections to the plan arise out of the difficulty of its administration. The determination of a proper district including only those properties which will benefit by the improvement is almost impossible and must in the last analysis be arbitrary. Grading of assessments according to benefit, those residing close to the im-

provement paying more and those residing farther away paying less, presents another difficulty. Moreover, the plan is costly to administer, particularly in the computation and collection of each assessment. For a comparatively inexpensive local recreation improvement involving many but small assessments, the total cost of the project is often doubled.

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XIV

FINANCIAL EARNINGS OF RECREATION DEPARTMENTS

WHILE public recreation is generally considered to be a free public service supported by taxation, there is a growing tendency to obtain some financial support from charges for services and commodities. Fifteen per cent of the total local revenue for the support of community recreation was obtained from charges or fees in 1937.[1]

The practice of charging fees for services or privileges connected with the administration of recreation departments arose primarily out of a desire to augment the meager appropriations obtainable from tax sources. Having decided that charges might be made, the particular services and privileges to be charged for and the amount of the charges have been justified on various grounds. The most frequently mentioned justification is that certain special services or privileges are enjoyed by only a comparatively few people in any city, hence those who enjoy the special benefit should pay directly; the cost of rendering the special service should not be a charge upon all the taxpayers.

It is, therefore, the special nature of the services or privileges rendered which provides justification for the imposition of special charges. No one would advocate that all community recreation be self-supporting, nor that the ability to support itself should be the determining factor in deciding whether or not a given service should be provided in the program. This would be tantamount to saying that community recreation should not be a governmental function, because if the service can be rendered on a commercial basis it had better be left to private commercial enterprise.

[1] National Recreation Association, *Year Book: Issue of Recreation*, June 1938, p. 133.

It is the opinion of some executives that the practice of charging for recreation services affects favorably the behavior of those who take advantage of the services. This point of view may well be questioned. It is more probable that when charges are made more effective measures of control of the public are instituted, both because such control is expected by those who have paid, and the desire to collect added revenue has made the control measures necessary. The practice of charging may select a class of patronage which is more amenable to control.

When charges are made there is a tendency among those who are connected with the enterprise to forget its recreational and educational objectives and to judge its success solely from the standpoint of the financial returns. The attitude is taken that the activity is successful in the degree to which it produces enough revenue to pay for its cost. With this attitude uppermost there is a tendency to select personnel to manage the activity wholly with consideration of business rather than recreational standards.

Sources of Earnings.

Earnings of recreation departments derived from charges and fees may be considered as of three different kinds; first, charges for services of a purely recreational character; second, charges for non-recreational services or commodities, which are incidental to the enjoyment of certain recreational activities; and, third, earnings from non-recreational services, which bear no direct relation to the public recreational program. The policies which should be adopted by a recreation department should be different with respect to each of the three sources of earnings, so they will be discussed separately.

Charges for Recreational Services

Current Practice.

Practice among recreation departments with respect to charges for services of a purely recreational character vary considerably throughout the country. Charges are sometimes made for the use of areas and facilities, for instruction and for administration of adult athletic programs. Some typical charges which are made by many departments are as follows:

1. ***Charges for the use of recreational areas and facilities.***

A. Baseball diamonds, basketball courts, football, soccer, and hockey fields, running tracks.

Usually the use of these facilities is free; occasionally where the facilities are well improved and maintained in a manner desired by the most skilled teams a flat fee is charged. The fee is collected from the group to whom a permit is issued for a given period. The fee is easily collected because the activity is on a team basis and is of standard duration. This practice tends to limit the use of the facilities to adults. Frequently in a given city facilities of an ordinary standard are provided free and those of an extraordinary standard are on a fee basis.

B. Archery ranges, handball, horseshoe, tennis and roque courts.

These facilities are used by individuals rather than teams, consequently the problem of collecting fees is complicated. In most cities, the use of these facilities is free, but in some a fee is charged. The fee is usually at an hourly rate per person ranging from ten cents to fifty cents. Sometimes the fee is per court per hour regardless of the number of players. Charges for tennis are more prevalent than for other activities. Charges are collected in various ways either at the counter from the individual when he reports to play or at the department office when a permit is granted. The simplest method is to charge for a privilege card good for one season.

C. Golf Courses.

With few exceptions a charge is made for the use of golf courses. Where no charge is made or where the charge is very small, less than twenty-five cents per day, the courses are usually inadequate. Charges for use of adequate courses range from twenty-five cents to $1.50 per day. The charge is collected from the individual when he reports for play. Reservations are made for players to start at a given time. Often a season ticket is sold, costing from five to ten dollars, or a monthly permit, from one to five dollars. The practice of charging, the amount of the charge and the nature of the game tend to limit play to adults. In some cities reduced rates are offered to students.

D. Bowling Greens.

Bowling on the green is not a common activity in American parks and playgrounds, but where special greens have been provided a charge is often made. Usually the number who participate is few, but the bowlers are devoted enthusiasts and nearly always adults of middle age or over. The most prevalent practice is to charge a membership fee for the month or year, which entitles the players to use of the greens. Players usually own their own bowls, but in a few places bowls are rented.

E. Ice skating, skiing, tobogganing.

The use of areas for winter sports is not charged for, but equipment required by the individual is often rented.

F. Bathing beaches.

The use of public bathing beaches is usually free. A few cities whose beaches are small and where the demand is great, make admission charges ranging from five to twenty-five cents per person.

G. Swimming pools.

About as many cities charge for the use of swimming pools as offer the service free. When charges are made they range from five to fifty cents and usually a smaller fee is charged children than adults. When the charge is high, it includes use of locker, suit and towel. Pools which make no charge for the privilege of swimming frequently charge for the use of a towel and suit. Some pools, which ordinarily charge, offer free periods weekly for children presumed to be unable to pay.

2 ***Charges for instruction.***

Generally speaking, with exceptions as noted above, the use of a public facility for recreation is free, but instruction to the individual or group in a particular activity is frequently considered a special service, for which the individual or group should pay. This is especially so where the undivided attention of the instructor is required for the individual or group. There is, of course, much incidental instruction which is given by play directors as they perform their general duties and this is usually given free. While there is a tendency to charge adults for special instruction children are often not required to pay. Some examples of charges for instruction are as follows:

A. Individual golf lessons.
B. Individual and group swimming lessons.
C. Individual and class tennis lessons.
D. Dramatic coaching.
E. Individual and class instruction in arts and crafts.
F. Class lessons in dancing.

3. ***Charges for administration of athletic competition.*** There is an increasing tendency to levy charges for the administration of adult competition in athletics. Fees are charged to cover drawing and publishing schedules, services of employed umpires and referees, trophies and incidental expenses connected with highly organized competition. A forfeit fee to guarantee appearance of teams and registration fees for individual athletes are also frequently charged.

These fees are often collected and disbursed by extra-official agencies, such as municipal athletic associations, which operate on public facilities and are subject to varying degrees of control by the recreation departments. This practice developed mainly because the municipal procedure of collecting, accounting for and disbursing special funds was not sufficiently flexible to accommodate the transactions required in this new line of business. To cite one example, it is questionable whether public funds can be disbursed to purchase trophies which are given to winning teams in athletic competition. If fees to cover cost of trophies are collected from players and then deposited in the city treasury, withdrawal from the public fund for purchase of trophies may prove to be impossible. The larger and more experienced departments, however, are gradually finding ways to administer all the details of athletic administration within the established plan of governmental operation and accounting. This is desirable in handling of funds involved in athletic administration and in promotion of other activity programs.

Policy Governing Charging.

Having presented a statement of what is current practice concerning charges and fees the policy which community recreation agencies should pursue in relation to services of a purely recreational nature may now be discussed. In general, authorities are agreed that such services should be rendered free provided suffi-

cient funds from other sources can be obtained to make such a policy practicable. The question of policy becomes one of economics.

If it is necessary to charge fees for recreation services, the following rules may be suggested as to when charges should be made:

1. When the particular service is relatively costly to render. Swimming, for example, in a well-regulated municipal pool costs on the average about fifteen cents per unit of service (i.e., one swimming period). The average cost of all services is about three cents; hence a charge may be justified because of the high cost of swimming.

2. When the particular service is demanded by a comparatively few persons and the cost of providing the facilities therefor is relatively high. Bowling on the green is a good example. A charge may be justified on the ground that a facility used by very few if provided at all at public expense should be operated at the expense of the few beneficiaries.

3. When the services are offered in competition with private business. There are many who say that such services should not be rendered at all; however, if offered for some special reasons they should be offered at a fee which would tend to lessen the competitive effect and not unduly embarrass private operators. Dancing instruction offers an example in point.

4. When participation in the activity is limited to an exclusive group. Public events and activities ordinarily are supposed to be open to all without distinction. Many of the activities in a recreation program, however, are such that they are not enjoyable unless limited to those who form congenial groups. Such groups are called "closed groups." A fee is often justified for the special privilege accorded closed groups in the use of a public facility. A fine distinction needs to be drawn here between groups limited to certain persons for personal reasons and groups which have reached the maximum size permitted by the nature of the activity (e.g., a team of so many players permitted by rules, a cast for a play, or a group whose size is limited by the capacity of the place).

5. When the service is primarily for adults. Adults are more able to pay for special services than children. Many recreation departments justify charges, when made at all, on this principle.

6. When the service is enjoyed by a considerable number of

non-residents who are not taxpayers of the jurisdiction in which the service is rendered. Suburban cities are often confronted with this problem. Their facilities are provided from local tax funds, but are used sometimes by citizens of the larger city adjoining or from other suburban cities. They justify charges on the basis of self-protection, either to make the visitor pay a share of the cost, or to reserve the service to local people. Westchester County, N. Y., whose Park Department is the outstanding example of a system operated largely on revenues from recreation and related services, justified its schedule of charges largely on the ground that visitors from New York City are the largest users of its facilities.

Frequently a charge seems justified, but the cost of collecting it is greater than the revenue that would be collected, or the revenue does not exceed the cost sufficiently to make a system of charges practicable. Such is often the case with tennis courts. A battery of eight or more courts would be required in one place arranged for convenient control before charging for their use would be practicable.

Any charge tends to arouse public opposition, especially when it is established after a service has been rendered free. In considering whether any recreation service should be charged for the probable revenue should be weighed against the public ill will which the charge might create.

When the charge deprives persons of small means from the benefits of necessary community recreation it should not be established. People of low economic means are more dependent upon public recreation than are others. So long as charges are very nominal, their effect upon this group may not be great. If, however, the charges are considerable, their effect might be to deprive those most in need of the benefits of the public service. This would be as indefensible as to charge for public education. Certain activities, like golf, are quite beyond the capacity of these groups, because of personal expense incidental to the playing of the game; namely, expense of clothing, balls, clubs, transportation, etc. Activities which are universal in appeal and which serve a universal need should be free.

Amount of Charges.

As to the amount of the charges for recreation services several points of view are current and defensible according to local conditions.

1. The charge may be determined on the basis of the actual cost of rendering the service, all costs considered, including interest on, and amortization of, the investment. Few cities adopt this viewpoint. To do so would place the activity on a purely commercial basis in which case it had better be left to private enterprise. Special circumstances, as in Westchester County, might indicate the advisability of adopting this policy.

2. The charge may be computed on the basis of direct operating expenses, disregarding capital items. This policy is quite in vogue where it has been determined to make a charge for recreation services.

3. The charge may be determined at the rate which would represent the cost of rendering the service over the normal cost of other services taken together. Thus if the average cost of rendering community recreation services is five cents per unit, all costs above that figure would be used in computing what the charge for a special service might be. If the gross cost of providing swimming is fifteen cents per swim, a charge of ten cents would be justified according to this view. This policy has much to commend it, if charges are necessary at all.

4. The charge may be computed at that rate which will result in efficient use of a given area or improvement. When insufficient facilities are provided, failure to charge sometimes results in overtaxing them with resultant diminished pleasure for all the participants. It may result also in monopolization of the facilities by individuals or cliques who, because of some advantage, such as residence nearby, or willingness to wait longer for their turns, may crowd out others who do not have such advantage. In such cases a charge is justified. The charge then becomes not only an instrument of effective control, but also a means of obtaining funds to enlarge the number of facilities.

5. The charge may be all that the traffic will bear, even above all costs. This policy is rarely followed, except in unusual situations. It is justified not only because of use by non-residents but also to offset costs of other recreation services for which it may not be practicable or desirable to make a direct charge.

Charges for Non-Recreational Services and Commodities

It is often necessary for recreation departments to render services of a non-recreational character or to sell commodities for the convenience of the public who desire to participate in the recreation program or use the recreation facilities. Examples of such services

are automobile parking adjacent to a recreation place, and within the publicly-owned area; checking of clothing and valuables; rental of suits and towels at a swimming pool; electric current for night play; transportation to a public camp or recreational event; and lodging at a public camp. Examples of commodities sold are refreshments served at a park or playground refectory, or by vendors at a public event; supplies used in handicraft classes. Charges for these services and commodities should be distinguished from charges for purely recreational privileges. Funds from tax sources should ordinarily not be used to provide them. Common practice, with notable exceptions, supports this view.

The exceptions to the policy of charging for such services and commodities are cases in which the cost is negligible or inconvenient and impracticable to collect. This is true in the case of automobile parking where the space is great and no supervision is given the parked cars; or in the case of provision of soap and paper towels; or in the case of inexpensive handicraft supplies. Another common exception is in the provision of inexpensive play supplies for group use or where the commodities are supplied to persons of very low economic means.

In general, non-recreational services and commodities should be charged for at commercial rates or at least at their actual cost. Many departments endeavor to charge all the traffic will bear, hoping to derive additional revenue from the profits to support recreation services.

Other Non-Recreational Earnings

There are earnings which accrue to recreation departments in other and miscellaneous ways which have no direct connection with the recreational program. They include such items as rent of rooms and grounds for non-recreational events, rent and sale of equipment no longer required in the pursuance of the recreation program, motion picture production permits, etc. Charges for entertainment and amusement devices whether provided directly by the recreation department or by concessionaires might also be included within this category. Revenue from all of these non-recreational sources is not considerable, and need not be discussed further. It is sufficient to say that the rate of charge should be all that can be reasonably and fairly obtained.

The Problem of Concessions

Many park and recreation departments have adopted the practice of granting concessions to private operators to offer services and to sell commodities to patrons of parks and recreation centers. The most common forms of service concessions have to do with parking of automobiles, rental of boats, rental of various kinds of play equipment, boating excursions, rental of horses and operation of amusement devices. Commodity concessions most frequently found are refectories, refreshment stands, vending privileges on grounds and in grandstands, and stores for sale and repair of supplies, such as golf, tennis and swimming supplies.

The practice of permitting or granting concessions is a form of patronage which arose because of the inability of park and recreation agencies to handle the business expeditiously and efficiently themselves. Municipal practices in buying commodities, accounting for revenues other than taxes and employing personnel have been cumbersome and involved in "red tape." Moreover regularly employed personnel have not been skilled in merchandising. When it seemed necessary to provide certain services and commodities for the convenience of the general public using the recreation facilities the concession method seemed the easiest way.

When the problem of providing certain services and commodities first arises the question is inevitably raised whether the municipality should enter into merchandising in competition with private business. The current viewpoint upon this question is that public business in this field should not be inaugurated unless private business is unable to render the service required. The justification for the public business is not primarily to make profits but to render a needed service. This point should always be kept foremost.

If the needed service cannot be conveniently supplied by private business on its own premises adjacent to or outside the public area then a decision is in order that the services be rendered directly by the municipal agency or through the granting of a concession.

The concession plan is open to several serious objections. It permits the making of private profit from a public investment. The need for the concession is a direct result of the public improvements and program which attract the public to the place where the

concession operates. The practice of granting concessions encourages use of political influence to gain private advantage. Concessionaires apply commercial standards to their operations and are not inclined to uphold high standards of public recreation service particularly when they conflict with profit making. These questions give pause to a public body when it considers the matter of inaugurating concessions.

Accordingly, public park and recreation authorities have inclined in recent years to assume more and more direct responsibility for this type of business. The sale of services and privileges has been brought more under direct public operation than the sale of commodities. The former presents the simpler problem because prices of services are less complicated and more easily standardized than the costs and prices of commodities. The problem of checking on employees and of accounting for receipts is also easier. Many examples could be cited of successful direct public handling of sales of services and privileges but few public departments have undertaken to enter the business of selling commodities. The most noteworthy example of the latter is the Minneapolis Park Commission which conducts an extensive merchandising business on many of its parks under conditions which compare most favorably with the best practice in similar private business.

Concession Contracts.

If it seems necessary to grant a concession, either for services and privileges or for sale of commodities, it is advisable to do so by entering into a formal contract with the concessionaire. The concessionaire should be selected only after competitive bids have been received from prospective concessionaires. Advertisement for bids should be made in the customary manner, prescribed usually in city charters, and should state the detailed specifications which will govern the concession and which will become a part of the concession contract.

Specifications and contracts may provide for payment of a flat sum or percentage of gross receipts to the department. The former is usually preferable, but it can be employed only when the nature of the business can permit any prospective concessionaire to estimate reasonably accurately how much business may be done and what he can afford to offer for the privilege of doing it. Usually

experience is lacking to permit this to be done; accordingly, the method of charging a percentage is employed. The percentage is preferably upon the gross receipts of the concessionaire from all sources rather than upon net income. If upon net income, there is invariably a question of what costs should be included in the accounting of the concessionaire to determine the net proceeds, whereas it is comparatively easy to determine the exact gross receipts of the concessionaire. Concessionaires operating on a percentage should be required to use cash registers, duplicate numbered receipts or numbered tickets, depending upon the nature of the concession, so that an original record of every sale may be had. Printing of the receipts and tickets should be subject to audit and to inspection at any time. Percentages paid for refectory concessions range from five to twelve per cent; for refreshment and soft drink concessions in spectator stands from ten to twenty-five per cent; and for service and privilege concessions from ten to fifty per cent. Payments required to be made by concessionaires should be made weekly or monthly. If in the form of rent they should be paid in advance. Prompt payment must be insisted upon otherwise delinquencies mount up and a crisis is eventually precipitated with the department appearing in the role of a major creditor. This often leads to involved legal procedure which might have been avoided by strict compliance with contractual terms in the early stages of operation.

The concession specifications should require that the concessionaire sell no commodities and employ no persons of which the department may officially disapprove. They may regulate hours of business, use of signs and other advertising, and methods of vending.

Concessionaires should ordinarily be required to post a cash or surety bond to guarantee faithful performance under the contract and should take out public liability policies naming the municipality as one of the insured.

It is advisable to have concession contracts on terms of one, two or three years to facilitate change of concessionaires should this be necessary. Short terms are not practicable, however, if the concessionaires are required to make relatively large investments for buildings and fixtures. Cities are inclined to construct the building or designate the place in an existing building where the business

is to be conducted and to own and install the necessary fixtures. This practice makes it easier to make a change of concessionaires and has the added advantage of controlling the architecture, arrangement and appearance of the place of business. A higher percentage or greater total guarantee may be obtained from the concessionaire if he is relieved of the capital investment. In the long run this procedure should not be more costly.

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XV

ACCOUNTING AND FINANCIAL PROCEDURE

THE process by which information concerning the financial operations of any enterprise is obtained, recorded, verified and interpreted is termed accounting. Accurate and complete accounting records in governmental administration are necessary for a number of reasons:

1. In order that the financial transactions may be made a matter of permanent record.
2. To make it possible to ascertain whether the public funds have been received and disbursed according to proper legal authorization and restrictions.
3. To facilitate the transaction of public business. Accounting information must be classified and arranged in statements so that the effect of the financial transactions may be readily understood and may be used as a guide to future action.

In public work a special bureau or department is usually constituted by law and charged specifically with the responsibility of compiling and recording the financial transactions of the city or other governmental subdivision and of preparing the essential statements interpreting the financial facts. In cities such departments are headed by one known as the auditor, controller or director of finance. Other fiscal officials of the city include the treasurer, who collects, disburses and safeguards the public funds; the tax collector, who collects all taxes levied by the city; and the assessor who places a value for tax purposes on the taxable property of the numerous property owners in the city.

The several "line" departments of a city perform certain accounting duties to provide original information for the auditor or controller and to avail themselves of records often in more detailed

and readily available form than kept by the auditor, for their immediate information and guidance.

The form in which such records are kept may be prescribed by the auditor and the records may be subject to the verifications of the auditor. All original accounts which require detailed verification are inspected periodically and audited by the auditor. The accounts of the auditor and if necessary of the several departments are subject to further audit, sometimes by supervisory state auditors or by private auditing firms engaged by the governing body of the city on contract.

Inasmuch as the principal accounting functions are usually performed by another agency than the recreation department, it is not necessary to describe in detail the methods employed in municipal accounting and auditing. It will be sufficient to indicate the nature of some of the accounts and statements which are compiled by the auditor and their value to the recreation department. These records vary considerably between cities due in part to their variable size and also to lack of standardization of financial practice. Several agencies, among them the National Municipal League and the Municipal Finance Officers' Association of the United States and Canada, have been striving to bring about more uniform practice in accounting procedures among cities and their efforts have effected gradual but certain improvement. The latter organization has published an accounting manual for small cities which it recommends for cities of 25,000 or less.[1] The accounting procedure and the accounts and statements of a city of this size are fundamentally the same in kind as those of a larger city.

Funds.

A "fund" in the public accounting sense consists of moneys intended by law for a particular purpose and to be separately accounted for. The several governmental operations of a city are usually grouped for accounting purposes under a General Fund. Other funds of the small city include a Special Assessment Fund, Trust Account Fund, Sinking Fund, Bond Fund, and sometimes a Utility Fund for public utilities such as water, transportation, and electric power. Large cities have more elaborate fund designations. The

[1] Chatters, Carl H., *Accounting Manual for Small Cities*, Municipal Finance Officers' Association of the United States and Canada, Chicago, 1932.

separate funds are usually designated by the city charter and sometimes the governing boards are empowered to set up special funds. The recreation department operations are most frequently included in the General Fund except as certain outlays may be financed from bond funds. When departments are granted a fixed revenue annually based on a millage tax or a tax allocation of a certain number of cents per hundred dollars of assessed valuation of real property, a special fund is set up for them.

Special funds for the customary separate governmental operations of cities are not recommended by municipal finance officers. This view is taken in part to simplify the accounting procedure, but also to enable the current resources of the city to be more finely adjusted to the variable needs with respect to many functions. It can be readily seen that if the majority of the departments had special funds the power of adjusting the total resources of the city to its variable needs would be diminished.

Financial Statements

The statements which are required for a proper understanding of the financial transactions dictate the kinds of records and accounts which must be kept, consequently they will be mentioned first. The four most important statements include (1) a Statement of Expenditures, Encumbrances and Appropriation Balances; (2) a Statement of Operations; (3) a Statement of Income; and (4) Balance Sheets. Each of these will be described, but it must be explained that they represent only a few of the statements required by the modern city and are those which are of more frequent and valuable use to the recreation department in its operations.[2]

[2] "Appropriations" are the amounts set up in the budget to be expended during the year for a particular object. Appropriations for the year are officially made when the budget for the year is approved by the governing body. Thereafter throughout the year additional appropriations may be made by the governing body by official enactment. "Expenditures" are amounts disbursed and become such only when payment for them has been made by the treasurer. Until the consummation of the transaction and from the time they are ordered to be made they are "encumbrances." An "encumbrance" is a commitment to make a given expenditure against an appropriation, as for example on a purchase order or contract for services. "Capital outlays" are expenditures for properties which have more or less permanent value such as land, improvements to land, buildings and permanent equipment (not supplies), and fixtures.

Statement of Appropriation Balance.

From the standpoints of control of expenditures and interpretation of the cost of conducting the operations of the department this statement is indispensable. It divides the expenditures within each department between those related to operations and capital outlays or permanent improvements. The operations expenditures are classified according to the principal objects of expenditure such as personal services, contractual services, materials and supplies, current charges and current obligations; and according to subdivisions of these principal objects. The statement usually shows in successive columns, (1) the annual appropriation for each object; (2) the actual expenditures to date; (3) the encumbrances outstanding as of the date; (4) the total of expenditures and encumbrances; (5) the unencumbered balance of appropriations, and (6) the percentage of appropriations unencumbered. When a city follows the practice of making an allotment of the annual appropriation for each month or quarter for each object the statement is elaborated to show actual expenditures and encumbrances against each cumulative allotment as of the date of the report. If the official statements of the auditor do not carry such detail departments find it advisable to carry such information roughly in memoranda prepared by themselves for their own purposes of control.

Statements of Expenditures, Encumbrances and Appropriation Balances are rendered by the auditor monthly and a final statement is rendered at the end of the year. In many cities there is a lapse of several weeks if not a month or more between the end of any month and the time when the statement for that month is available. The longer this lapse becomes the less valuable is the statement for control purposes. In other words, a statement may reveal a condition resulting in more rapid expenditure of a given appropriation than should be permitted if the appropriation is to last the year out. If this condition cannot be known promptly remedial measures are correspondingly delayed. When statements are habitually received late, departments are compelled to keep more detailed memoranda of their own for control purposes.

Operating Statements.

Each separate activity of the city which is conducted wholly or largely out of direct revenues received from its operations should be covered by an operating statement. Such a statement should be prepared, for example, for each swimming pool where fees are charged, for a municipal auditorium and for a municipal golf course. Ordinarily the statement should be prepared monthly, and promptly at the end of each month; but for certain operations in which the activity is on a routine schedule a seasonal or annual statement should suffice. The operating statement should show (1) the cost of rendering the services covered by the unit, properly segregated according to the classification of objects of expenditure used by the auditor; (2) a proper allocation against the unit of general administrative expense or other "overhead"; (3) the total operating cost for the month or other period; (4) the receipts applicable to the period; (5) the net profit or loss; (6) the total units of service, if susceptible of statistical treatment, such as, number of swims, days in camp, rounds of golf, etc.; and (7) the net cost per unit of service.

The allocation of charges against any operating unit of a fair portion of the general administration cost or other "overhead" is usually compiled according to the fairest possible arbitrary judgment. It may be computed according to the rates which the attendance at any unit bears to the total attendance of the department; or according to the ratio which the total direct cost of operation of the unit bears to the total direct cost of all units; or according to a purely arbitrary schedule based on opinions of the administrative staff of what would be an equitable distribution. If the last method is used it should be a fixed schedule and should not vary month by month. Insofar as possible services should be charged directly to the operating unit. For example, the services of traveling mechanics and special directors of recreation activities can be charged direct if the time sheets filled out by them are designed to show where they worked and during what hours.

In compiling operating statements for public work, except in the case of public utilities, it is not customary to charge deprecia-

tion or interest on the capital investment. Depreciation reserves are not built up for the governmental functions of cities. This, as will be discussed later in this chapter, should not cause an indifference to the capital costs of conducting public business, although it is possible that such might be the effect to some extent.

Statement of Income.

The Statement of Income is prepared monthly and at the end of the fiscal year by the auditor. The statement is a cumulative record of receipts classified by sources and for each department. The statement should show in successive columns (1) the estimated total income for the year, (2) the estimated and actual receipts for the current month, (3) the over-run or under-run for the month, (4) the estimated cumulative total to the end of the current month, (5) the actual cumulative receipts to the end of the current month, (6) the cumulative over-run or under-run and (7) the balance to be received to meet the estimate for the year.

A statement of this kind enables a department to keep informed of the revenue-producing operations month by month and to adjust operations when necessary to the actual conditions. An extraordinary under-run may result in an investigation which will indicate the necessity for any of several changes. An extraordinary over-run may justify the request for an additional appropriation in view of greater revenue for a given activity for the year.

Many cities do not render monthly income statements in the detail suggested, or render them too late to be of immediate value. Many do not classify the sources of income in sufficient detail to permit of extensive use of the statement for control of revenue-producing activities of the varied kinds operated by a recreation department. In these cases the department is forced to keep its own memorandum accounts and to prepare memorandum statements for its own guidance.

Balance Sheet.

A separate Balance Sheet for each fund and a consolidated Balance Sheet of all funds are prepared. These statements do not reveal the operations for a given period but show the nature and amount of the assets and liabilities of the funds to which they refer and their relationship to each other. They are designed for

the purpose of revealing the financial condition of a city at a given time. The balance sheets are of interest to all department heads in that from them the financial condition of the city may be inferred. They have much to do with the credit standing of the city and its ability to finance improvements and additions from its current funds and more particularly by borrowing through the issuance and sale of bonds. Long time planning for public recreation, involving acquisition of lands and provision of buildings, structures and other improvements, requires consideration of the financial facts revealed in the balance sheets.

One of the balance sheets of a city will be of the capital fund in which the value of various types of properties will be shown. These will usually be carried at their original cost. This balance sheet will show the additions which have been made to the recreation properties during the year. In most cities the public recreation problem is to a large extent a problem of adding, to the physical assets of the city, properties and equipment which may be organized for recreation. The balance sheet is of interest then in indicating what progress has been made in this direction year by year.

The Balance Sheet and the property accounts from which it is made up in part, should also be used to interpret the relative capital cost of providing for different types of recreation activities. Insufficient attention has been given thus far to this consideration. The cost of conducting public recreation has been considered primarily from the standpoint of the annual cost of operations, without giving thought to the investment required to make the operations possible. For example, an outdoor swimming pool may be said to be financially self-sustaining when it produces revenues equal to the cost of its operation for the summer season. This is not a true picture because included in the cost of operation should be a proper percentage of the capital cost of building and equipping the pool which would in effect be a charge for depreciation. If this factor were considered it might conceivably appear that providing a swimming pool was a more costly undertaking than at first supposed. Consideration of the capital cost of a given recreation facility in relation to the services made possible thereby might indicate that capital funds should be expended upon improvements which can be used the year round rather than in a

structure which can be of service only during a short season each year.

Innumerable instances could be cited in which funds for capital improvements have been unwisely expended. Here is a city which has expended a million dollars for a municipal auditorium infrequently used when the same sum would provide ten local recreation centers used the year round. Here is another city which provides an elaborate recreation building in one neighborhood, costing as much to construct as several less elaborate structures, when general application of such a plan to all neighborhoods would at once reveal that the city could not sustain a program of operations on such a scale.

Accounting Records.

The financial statements contain information which must be taken directly from the accounting records of the city, consequently the latter should be designed in such form as to enable this to be done without additional computations. In other words, the classification of accounts, the terminology used in the accounts and other details should conform to the requirements of the statements.

Before describing the most frequently used books required to record the financial transactions of the city a distinction should be made between memorandum records which any employee or executive might find expedient in the conduct of his work and the official records. The former are mere aids to administration and are described in Chapter XVII. The latter register the official transactions of the city and must be accurate. They are kept in accordance with law and they may not be changed. A falsification of them may constitute a crime. All entries in such records must be supported by original documents which are part of the official records.

Cost Accounting.

Governmental agencies lag behind private business enterprises in the use of cost accounting. The recent insistence, however, upon reduction of costs of government is tending not only to limit or reduce the amount of governmental services but also to reduce the unit cost of rendering the services. More rapid adoption of

cost accounting practices is impeded partially by the lack of standard methods of defining units of work and by the lack of up-to-date and uniform methods of governmental accounting. Both of these handicaps are gradually being overcome and it may be expected that cost accounting in public work will receive increasing attention in the future.

The customary accounts of a municipality mentioned herein cannot supply the essential information required for a system of cost accounting. It is necessary for this purpose to install systems of field reporting which will show the personal services, materials and supplies, equipment, supervision and overhead which are applicable to separate jobs. Such records usually cannot be easily handled by the general accounting and auditing department of the city, but to the extent they are necessary they can profitably be installed in each department concerned.

If a recreation department does its own repairing and construction work a system of job orders and field reporting for such work can be easily installed. It will involve a procedure calling for a careful estimate of each job broken down to show the estimated labor, materials and supplies, and equipment required and a posting against such estimates of the actual costs of doing the job. It will necessitate also a work and cost ledger to which this information will be posted constantly. Equipment records will have to be developed showing the cost of operating each unit of equipment, such as tractors, graders, rollers, concrete mixers and similar equipment. From these records unit costs of using the equipment may be computed and charged against each job according to the time each piece of equipment is employed. The labor costs may be readily computed from the individual time sheets of workmen which will show the jobs upon which they have been employed.

Records of this kind are of value to the recreation department in determining whether the kind of work involved should be undertaken by the department itself or should be let out to private contract. They also serve as a check against the estimates of cost of doing work and as a constant stimulus to reduction of costs and elimination of unnecessarily expensive methods and procedures.

For routine continuous operations cost checks can be made

from time to time for limited periods by the method of sampling. The cost of separate items of expense in connection with such operations can be computed and comparisons made. The cost of rendering services at comparable recreation centers can be compared.

As an example of this type of computation of detailed costs the procedure followed by a recreation system which operates several outdoor swimming pools for limited seasons each summer may be cited. A carefully prepared form showing all the elements of cost that are involved in the operation of a swimming pool is prepared and furnished to each pool director. Some of these costs are carefully estimated unit costs of general maintenance, such as services of pool-cleaning crews, water supply, electric power, etc. These are posted on the form in advance. Other costs susceptible of control by the director in charge of the pool are left blank and are posted day by day by the director. The daily receipts from fees may also be posted on the form and a running account kept day by day of the "profit" or "loss."

The effect of this simple cost accounting analysis has been very salutary upon the efficiency of operation. Unnecessary personal services have been eliminated and cooperation has been secured from the entire staff in the reduction of costs and in increasing receipts.

Auditing

The function of auditing is to confirm the correctness and validity of financial transactions. In public work a pre-audit of disbursements and receipts and a post audit of all transactions is necessary. The pre-audit of disbursements is concerned with the checking of original documents such as invoices, receipts of delivery of commodities, payrolls, purchase orders, etc., to insure that each expenditure is made by proper authority and in accordance with law. The pre-audit of income consists of a checking of duplicate receipts and other evidences of collection of funds to determine the proper amounts to be deposited in the treasury. The post-audit is a periodic check of both kinds of transactions and of the records kept of them to verify the correctness of the procedure.

Audits may be considered as internal and external. The internal

audit is that made systematically by designated employees of the department or city, and the external audit is that sometimes made by an outside agency, such as a state auditing bureau or a private firm of auditors.

Two devices usually employed to insure a correct internal audit consist first in the control of all financial stationery and second in the assignment of auditing duties to persons other than those charged directly with the duty of making the invoices, or charges, or collecting the money.

The financial stationery used by recreation departments consists largely of numbered receipts bound in books or pads, each receipt in numbered duplicate or triplicate, as the case may be, and of numbered tickets of admission. The tickets should be serially numbered in rolls or released by mechanical recording ticket machines. The stationery required by employees at the operating center is released to them on receipt and they are required to account for all numbers recorded thereon. The supply of numbered receipts or tickets is kept under lock and in charge of a responsible employee.

The internal audit also includes an inventory of all supplies in the central storeroom and a check of supplies received on purchase and of withdrawals by requisition.

Procedure in Collecting Revenues.

Direct revenues from operations of a recreation department are collected in the field at the several recreation centers and in the office. In many cases the amounts collected are very small which does not justify the setting up of elaborate systems of receipting and accounting for the collections. Nevertheless, systematic accounting is necessary to discourage dishonest practice and to avoid public criticism. The following is an analysis of the kinds of transactions which involve the payment of moneys and the devices and procedures found practicable in connection with them.

Payments Made at Recreation Centers.

1. Cash payments at uniform rates for admission to recreation places, such as swimming pools, stadiums, tennis courts, etc. The participation of two employees in this type of transaction is

recommended. One employee accepts the price of admission and returns to the purchaser a numbered ticket; the other employee at the entrance accepts and cancels the numbered ticket either by punching or tearing it. If the amount of business done is large enough, mechanical ticket machines which record the number of tickets dispensed may be installed. Turnstiles which automatically record the number who pass through them provide a means whereby the number of persons admitted may be checked against the tickets sold.

In small establishments, such as neighborhood swimming pools, where the amount of business does not justify the use of two employees in the process of receiving the money and collecting the tickets the cash register is an acceptable device. The theory of the cash registers is that the purchaser is interested in seeing that his payment is recorded, or sufficient purchasers are interested to require the employee to be faithful in recording each purchase. If cash registers are used they should be so placed that the recorded payment will be easily visible not only to the purchaser but also to others close by. The registers should record on a printed tape the amount of each purchase and the number of purchases.

Some types of payments for services can be collected by coin meters. Meters governing electrical switches are used for illumination of tennis courts. A twenty-five cent piece deposited in the meter gives electrical illumination for one-half hour. Gas and electric coin meters are also used for stoves at picnic places. The use of "slugs" or counterfeit coins is largely prevented by intricate mechanical devices including electric magnets and a glass covered window in the face of the meter through which the last deposited coin is apparent. Tampering with meters and actual destruction of them to steal their contents may be deterred by frequent removal of the contents at irregular intervals.

2. Miscellaneous payments for the use of recreation rooms, auditoriums, baseball diamonds and other facilities. These payments should be on permits issued in advance on which the amount to be collected is plainly stated. If the permits can be obtained in the office when issued further inconvenience is avoided. If not, the employee at the center where the permit is issued should use a numbered receipt in triplicate; one copy is

given to the payee, the second is sent with consolidated remittance to the office and the third is retained as the employee's record. Only carbon copy receipts should be used for this purpose and they should be in bound books. The books of numbered receipts should be issued from the office and employees should account for all numbers.

3. Miscellaneous payments of variable small amounts for instruction, sale of merchandise in small quantities, etc. These payments are so small oftentimes that the writing of separate individual receipts for each of them is unjustified. The best device for handling them is the "tearoff" receipt. Receipts are bound and numbered in books. The detached receipt given the purchaser and the stub both indicate the amount of the transaction at the place torn. This device is practicable for amounts of less than one dollar.

Payments Made at the Office.

Insofar as practicable payments should be required to be made at the central office. This practice, however, should not be insisted upon to the point of public inconvenience. Certain fees, such as seasonal playing privileges on tennis courts, entry fees in city-wide tournaments, camp fees and the like may reasonably be required to be made at the central office of the department. It is preferable to have two employees participate in these transactions if there is sufficient business to warrant it. One issues the permit or other form indicative of the privilege purchased and the other, a cashier, accepts and receipts for the payment. Here again numbered receipts must be used.

Publication of Standard Fees.

All fees collected by a municipal agency should be at rates regularly approved by the proper authority. These rates should be posted conspicuously or printed upon the permit forms or tickets. This prevents overcharging and undercharging for the services.

Safeguarding and Transmitting Collections.

Collections made at the central office are customarily deposited with the treasurer daily, but often collections are made late for

deposit and must remain in the office over night. Proper safes or other equipment must be provided at the central office for the protection of such moneys. This presents a problem of less difficulty than that of safeguarding and transmitting collections made at centers in the field. If these are of sufficient amount they may be picked up daily by bonded messengers; however, they are usually so small in total that daily transmittal is not practicable. Ingenious devices must be resorted to. Sometimes in large cities the funds are deposited in nearby neighborhood banks to the credit of the department; cashier's checks or money orders are purchased and transmitted by mail. Small safes are installed in concrete floors in inconspicuous places. In the case of small sums the director is sometimes permitted to make weekly deposits at the central office. Ordinarily, unless safes are provided, it is inadvisable to leave money in drawers or elsewhere in the centers for this constitutes an incitement to petty thieves. Employees should not deposit public funds in personal bank accounts. Burglary insurance should be carried if the amount of collections warrants and all employees who handle funds should be under bond.

Control of Private Funds.

The program of the recreation department includes many private organizations or groups which raise funds in various ways to sustain their own activities. These funds are raised by dues, assessments against the members, donations, collections, ticket sales, fees for admission to events and sale of refreshments. The groups vary from informal clubs of children to highly organized adult groups.

The safeguarding of funds of these organizations presents a difficult problem to the recreation department. To the degree that they are public organizations connected with or sponsored by the recreation department, the department must assume some degree of supervisory responsibility over their finances to insure the proper use of their funds and to remove possibility of scandal. Some of the adult groups are sufficiently well organized to be entrusted fully with the control of their own finances, subject to regulations acceptable to the recreation department including the filing of monthly or annual reports with the department.

Others require closer supervision. The extent to which supervision should be exercised over the finances of such groups is a moot question. On the one hand it is plain that the moneys are not public funds in the sense that they belong to the city and consequently they cannot be deposited in the city treasury. If so deposited it would be impossible to disburse them for private purposes. On the other hand if they are not subject to supervision the possibilities of misuse or of allegations of misuse are multiplied.

Some departments disclaim any responsibility or concern for such funds and to avoid any difficulty prohibit fund-raising activities of all kinds by affiliated groups. This practice has some merit but it limits the scope of the program of the department. Nearly all departments prohibit employees from accepting personal responsibility for the moneys of participating groups. Some departments set up a quasi-public organization, controlled by department representatives, to act as depository for the so-called private funds and to disburse them according to the expressed wishes of the several groups to which they belong. This appears to be the best answer to the problem. When such agencies are established their procedure should be according to approved accounting practice and their records should be regularly audited and open to inspection at all times.

One city maintains what it terms the Municipal Sports Fund. Into this fund are deposited entry fees assessed for the purpose of buying trophies for the winners, collections taken up at certain games, gate receipts at final games, forfeit fees and similar income. Each adult sport is governed as to schedules, classification of players and teams, registration of eligible players, protests, etc., by an executive committee elected by the managers of all teams, or by players in the case of non-team sports. Disbursement from the fund is authorized by the committees according to an approved form of procedure, and checks are signed by the department accountant on order of the sports supervisor. Records are kept in the department office and books are audited by a representative of the city auditor's office. While this procedure is perhaps extra-official it commends itself as a practical method of handling a difficult problem to which strict municipal practice is so far not well adapted.

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XVI

BUDGET MAKING AND BUDGETARY CONTROL

As applied to governmental practice the word "budget" is used to denote the plan prepared by a responsible governmental agency for financing a public enterprise for a given period. Until it has received the approval of the appropriating body, usually the city council, the budget is merely a plan without force. With this approval it becomes a "controlling financial plan" for carrying out a program of government operation and service, and a plan for raising the necessary revenues therefor.

Budgetary practice within the several departments of a municipal government is uniformly prescribed by the city charter, by ordinance or by order of the chief executive. The problems of budget making and administration are primarily problems of general city administration and secondarily of department administration.

Budgets must be considered several months in advance of the fiscal year to which they apply because of the involved procedure which is usually prescribed and also because the final budget estimate is the basis for the determination of the revenue-raising plan for the year including the fixing of the tax rate. The latter must be accomplished before the tax bills may be computed. A time schedule is prescribed for submission of department estimates to the budgetary authority of the city, for transmittal of the recommended budget to the chief governing body, usually the city council, and for adoption of the budget by the same body. The adoption of the budget is by city ordinance, which requires time for publication, hearings and debate. If the city operates on a fiscal year commencing July 1st, it is not uncommon for preliminary department estimates to be submitted as early as February and March. These estimates, after careful tabulation and comparison, are usually found to be in excess of the avail-

able revenue tentatively determined and are referred back to the department heads for revision in accordance with such instructions and suggestions as may be issued by the budget-making authority. In this process, there is a good deal of negotiation and "give and take." Further revision may also be necessary upon consideration of all budgets as submitted by the budget-making authority to the chief governing body. These revisions may be influenced by public opinion as it manifests itself during consideration of the problem by the governing body.

The formulation of plans for raising revenues from taxation for the support of public work is a duty performed by financial officers and departments in the municipal government and does not concern directly the executives in charge of service departments. The raising of direct revenues from charges for recreation and related services, concerns directly the executives in charge of recreation and particularly so if these revenues are credited directly to the recreation fund and are not deposited in the general fund of the city.

Classification of Expenditures by Functions and Objects.

A municipality performs several kinds of dissimilar services which may be differentiated as to function. The classification of functions of the government is reflected in the organization of departments. The work of a department usually embodies a single major function which often consists of two or more subordinate functions. For example, the major function of a recreation department is public recreation; the subordinate functions may include operation of neighborhood playgrounds, community centers, camps, swimming pools, beaches, extension service, etc. In order that the expenditures made for the several subordinate functions may be compared, it is desirable for expenditures to be differentiated according to the subordinate functions for which they are made.

Under each major function of the city and under each subordinate function of the several departments, expenditures are made for similar objects, i.e., "things." There are expenditures for personal services, supplies, materials and equipment, purchase of property, etc. A high degree of standardization in the classification of objects of expenditure is possible and is urged by all au-

thorities. This enables comparisons of expenditures for like objects to be made between departments and between subordinate functions within departments, and often reveals inequalities in salaries paid for similar services and in prices paid for the same commodity. Standardization between departments is thus promoted.

The budget classification of expenditures should, if possible, parallel the classification of accounts used by the city auditor or controller. For the purpose of making and controlling a department budget within the department itself, it is often desirable to classify expenditures in more detail than is required by the auditor or controller.

Standard Classification of Expenditures.

A simple expenditure classification that is already in use in more or less modified form in a number of cities is recommended by the National Municipal League, Institute of Public Administration, and is as follows:

EXPENDITURE CLASSIFICATION

1000. Services, Personal
- 1100. Salaries and Wages, Regular
- 1200. Salaries and Wages, Temporary
- 1300. Other Compensations

2000. Services, Contractual
- 2100. Communication and Transportation
  - 2110. Postage
  - 2120. Telephone and Telegraph
  - 2130. Freight and Express
  - 2140. Traveling Expenses
  - 2150. Hired Horses and Vehicles
- 2200. Subsistence, Care and Support
  - 2210. Subsistence and Support of Persons
  - 2220. Subsistence and Care of Animals
  - 2230. Storage and Care of Vehicles
- 2300. Printing, Binding and Advertising
  - 2310. Printing
  - 2320. Typing and Mimeographing
  - 2330. Binding
  - 2340. Advertising
  - 2350. Engraving and Stamping

2360. Lithographing
2370. Photographing and Blue-printing
2380. Publication of Notices
2400. Heat, Light, Power and Water
2410. Furnishing Heat
2420. Furnishing Light and Power
2430. Furnishing Water
2500. Repairs
2510. Repairs to Equipment
2520. Repairs to Buildings and Other Structures
2600. Janitorial, Cleaning and Other Services
3000. Commodities
3110. Office
3120. Food
3121. Food for Persons
3122. Food for Animals
3130. Fuel and Lubricants
3131. Coal
3132. Other Fuels
3133. Lubricating Oils
3140. Institutional
3141. Clothing and Household
3142. Laundry and Cleaning
3143. Refrigerating
3144. Surgical and Medical
3145. General
3150. School and Recreational
3160. Farm and Dairy
3170. Laboratory
3180. General
3200. Materials
3210. Building
3220. Road
3230. General
3300. Repairs
3310. Parts of Equipment
3320. Parts of Structures
4000. Current Charges
4100. Rents
4110. Of Buildings and Offices
4120. Of Equipment

4200. Insurance
4210. On Buildings and Structures
4220. On Stores
4230. On Equipment
4240. Official Bonds
4250. Employees' Liability
4300. Refunds, Awards and Indemnities
4400. Registrations and Subscriptions
4500. Taxes
5000. Current Obligations
5100. Interest
5200. Pensions and Retirements
5300. Grants and Subsidies
6000. Properties
6100. Equipment
6110. Office
6120. Furniture and Fixtures
6130. Instruments and Apparatus
6140. Tools
6150. School
6160. Motor Vehicles
6170. Farm
6180. Live Stock
6190. General
6200. Buildings and Improvements
6210. Buildings and Fixed Equipment
6220. Walks and Pavements
6230. Sewers and Drains
6240. Roads
6250. Bridges
6260. Trees and Shrubs
6300. Land
7000. Debt Payments
7100. Serial Bonds
7200. Sinking-fund Installments

The code numbers which appear opposite each segregation in the classification of expenditures are for convenient identification of each item in its proper segregation. Use of the code renders unnecessary writing out the proper segregation to which any item may be charged. For example, in the classification given above a

requisition for postage would have noted upon it the number 2110. This would indicate that it is classified as a "contractual service" because it is in the 2000 series, and is classified under "communication and transportation" because it is in the 100 series. If it is to be charged to a particular place, further elaboration of the code may be made by using the unit digit, or by adding letters.

Form of Budget Estimate.

The budget estimate is usually submitted to the budget-making authority on columnar sheets showing after each item: (1) the expenditures in each of the two preceding years; (2) the expenditures to date in the current year; (3) estimated expenditures as at the close of the current year; and (4) estimated expenditures for the coming year.

Detail sheets or supporting schedules showing how the several estimates are built up should accompany the department budget. For example, the detail sheet for "Services, Personal" should show under "Salaries and Wages, Regular": (1) the classification of positions; (2) the names of incumbents; (3) ordinances fixing salaries; (4) the compensation for the current year; (5) the compensation recommended for the coming year.

It is not necessary here to describe in detail the composition of all supporting schedules. It is sufficient to state that unit costs of all items enumerated in the budget should be shown, together with the number of units that make up the total request.

Value of Detailed Information.

Information as detailed as has been suggested may not in all cases be required by the budget-making authority; however, such detail is essential to sound budget making and should be at hand in the department as the basis for building up the estimates. For example, it should be known how many baseballs, how many yards of sand, or how many tennis nets, each playground requires to function efficiently during the year. Without such information budget making is mere guesswork.

Knowledge of unit costs of all sorts regarding the work of other cities as well as the local community is highly valuable, not only to the department executive who builds up the budget but also to

the higher authority who must revise it to bring it within the estimated revenue for the year. Authorities in governmental administration are agreed that one of the greatest needs in improving the administration of government work is the discovery and uniform use of measurable units of expenditure and of work done. Economical administration and intelligent planning require detailed consideration of needs of the job in terms of specific items required and their cost. Too often consideration is not detailed enough and judgments are made on the basis of total cost estimates covering a variety of things. Thinking must be in terms of specific needs no less than of total costs.

Analysis of unit cost data is of especial value in observing a proper balance between different phases of a department activity. Such data may reveal that too little is being expended for supplies in proportion to the expenditure for supervision; or that the expenditure for caretaking service is made at the expense of adequate supervision; or that a highly expensive piece of work is being maintained in one quarter to the starvation of an inexpensive yet highly desirable service elsewhere.

Flexibility in the Budget.

Good administration requires a budget that is sufficiently flexible to permit minor adjustments to be made in it without delay and difficulty. The appropriating body should adopt a budget differentiated only by departments, and principal objects within departments. This permits the chief administrative officer who is responsible for budgetary control to make minor adjustments throughout the year so long as the total for any principal object is not exceeded.

Some years ago appropriation in great detail was advocated as a means of insuring expenditure of funds for the specific objects for which the money was originally appropriated. More recently the tendency in municipal government has been to assign executive responsibility to one or a very few responsible executives who are held strictly accountable for carrying out the plans of the appropriating body. Appropriations are made only by principal objects within departments in accord with this newer tendency in municipal administration.

The Relation of the Budget to the Recreation Plan.

The recreation budget cannot perform its proper function unless it is based upon a well-formulated plan of department activity. The thing of vital importance in the last analysis is not the budget but the service which the budget makes possible. The budget is but an instrument subordinate to a plan of service. The plan of service is a carefully worked out program for giving the public the service it demands within the limits prescribed by the available and anticipated revenue which it provides.

Control of Expenditures Under the Budget

The Work Program.

The budget is too often regarded merely as an instrument for obtaining appropriations, and once appropriations are secured it is filed away and forgotten. It should be considered a controlling financial plan for accomplishing a program of work; departments should be held responsible for completion of the work planned under the estimates; and failure to complete work should be excused only for good reason. In many cities the work program, based upon the approved budget, is drawn up after the appropriations have been made. As applied to the recreation department the work program may include, among other things, the number of recreation centers to be maintained and operated, periods and hours during which they are to be supervised, improvements and equipment to be added, supplies to be consumed, and contracts to be entered into. During the year, and especially at the end of the year, the actual accomplishments of the department should be checked against the work program to encourage adherence to a plan and to assist in making more accurate the estimates for subsequent years by revealing the actual cost of accomplishing certain ends as distinguished from the estimated cost.

Authorization of Expenditures.

When the budget has been finally adopted, the auditor or controller sets up in an expenditure register all appropriations by principal objects. Expenditures of all kinds, as specific authoriza-

tion for them is formally requested, are entered in this register against their proper appropriation. When an expenditure is first requested, only its estimated cost can be entered; but when the actual cost becomes known later, a correction can be made. The requested expenditures are said to encumber the appropriation. An "unencumbered balance" is carried forward for each segregation of the appropriation, from which it can be seen at a glance what part of an appropriation remains to carry the department for the remainder of the fiscal year.

Since the auditor's expenditure register will check expenditures only against principal objects for any department, the executive of a department should cause a department register to be set up against which expenditures in more detail, differentiated by subordinate objects or segregations, and by centers or activities to which they apply, may be checked. Similarly, the executive of a center, if it is of sufficient size and importance to justify it, should have his own expenditure register to guide him in management. This process should be carried as far down the ladder of administration as practicable to encourage thinking in terms of cost.

One of the difficulties in the administration of a large organization is that the higher executives are inclined to think too much in terms of cost, and the executives in charge of operating units too much in terms of needs. Sharing by all executives in the procedure of budgetary control aids in bringing about a more balanced consideration of both costs and needs.

An essential of budgetary practice is that no estimate be exceeded without authorization. To exceed the total department appropriation or the total estimated for the few principal objects should require approval of the council by ordinance. To exceed the total for a segregation within any principal object should require the approval of the chief executive, usually the mayor or city manager. To exceed subordinate segregations should require the approval of the department head. Occasionally the total appropriation for a principal object will prove insufficient to accomplish the program of work contemplated under that object. Relief in such a contingency is usually afforded by transfer of funds by authority of the chief executive from an unassigned appropriation made for contingencies when the original budget appropriation

ordinance was passed, or from an "unappropriated balance." The latter is the difference between the total amount appropriated and the total estimated revenue.

Estimate by Quarters or Months.

To prevent dissipation of funds during the early part of the year and resultant embarrassment toward the close of the year, expenditures under the several segregations should be estimated by quarters or by months and only so much of the total amount budgeted for the year should be made available as was estimated to be required for that part of the year. The quarterly or monthly "split" should be based upon the work program. The several parts estimated for each quarter or month will not necessarily be equal, but will be adjusted to the seasonal requirements of the department. Exceeding quarterly or monthly estimates should not be permitted without explanation, and overdrafts should be made up in subsequent periods.

Savings Under the Budget.

Adoption of the budget should not necessarily commit a department to actual expenditure for the items which were used as a basis for determining the amount of funds required. The budget makes funds available when, and if, it becomes necessary to spend them for a given purpose. Conditions may alter the necessity for a certain expenditure, and if any expenditure proves to be unnecessary funds set aside for it should represent a saving.

If a contemplated expenditure should prove unnecessary or should be deferred, the funds originally appropriated for it should not become available for an item that failed of approval when the budget was originally drawn up, nor should such funds be used to meet a need not originally anticipated without the approval of the higher executive authority.

At the end of the fiscal year unexpended balances usually exist in several segregations. These balances arise either because certain expenditures were not made, or because the actual cost of certain work or commodities proved to be less than was estimated. The balances represent savings and often enable a department, or the city, to show a surplus of funds over and above all expenditures at the end of the year.

Final Control Vested in the Council.

Control of expenditures to the degree described often cramps the freedom of action most enjoyed by department heads. The head of a department would personally appreciate nothing more than to be permitted to expend funds as he alone might see fit with no curb to his choice of objects upon which to spend except an injunction not to exceed a certain total for his department. Accepted theories of municipal government, however, assign to an elected body, usually the council, the responsibility for determining how the city funds shall be spent, and for conducting the affairs of the government within the available income. Some measure of responsibility must be assigned by the council to department heads and other subordinate officers without relinquishing final control of expenditures. Likewise control must be retained without hampering good and convenient administration. The budget plan, if wisely administered, is a plan which accomplishes these objects.

The Budget of Revenues

A budget is concerned as much with revenues as with expenditures, because in the accounting sense all budgets are in balance, i.e., the budgeted expenditures may not exceed the budgeted revenues. A "balanced budget" in the popular sense is one in which the expenditures allowed may be cared for from tax and operating revenues without the necessity of borrowing. If the tax and operating revenues are insufficient to finance the estimated expenditures, the source of additional funds will be shown in the budget document. Borrowing is not of direct concern to the recreation department, but is a function of the fiscal officers of the city and the mayor and council, as is also the determination of the tax rate.

The operating revenues are the anticipated earnings from various operations such as earnings resulting from various types of charges for recreation services, sales of commodities, income from concessions and the like. In the whole scheme of municipal finance these do not bulk large, but from the standpoint of department operations and control they are of great importance. It is necessary

to keep them in control and to regulate operations which produce them quite as much as it is necessary to control expenditures.

The total anticipated revenues are built up from specific detail in the same way that total expenditures are computed. It is necessary to analyze each operation which produces revenue and to estimate its probable returns. These vary by seasons and are responsive to changes in operations. They are also subject to public whims which are often inexplicable. The experience of past seasons is the best guide. It is advisable to know in detail what this experience has been and the various factors which influenced it. For this purpose it is advisable to keep week to week, if not day to day, memorandum records of income from each operation with notations of factors which might have had a bearing on the operations. Reasonable goals of accomplishment should be worked out in advance for each operation. These are helpful because if the actual income falls short of what seemed to be a reasonable goal when the operations were planned, the executive is likely to investigate the operation to discover if something might not be done to improve the condition.

New services for which charges are made are inaugurated from time to time, and the amount charged is also changed. A study of the unit charges and probable patronage is helpful in arriving at proper estimates of revenues.

Departments which are granted the revenue accruing from a fixed tax allocation of so many cents per hundred dollars of assessed valuation, are more concerned with the revenues budget than those which go directly to the City Council for their appropriations. The former must present a budget of expenditures which is within the amount of the anticipated tax revenues augmented by operating revenues. In determining the probable revenues from the tax allocation, they receive estimates from the fiscal officers of the city. These estimates take into account possible tax delinquencies and credits from deferred tax payments of previous years.

The Project Budget

Recreation departments frequently embark on special projects which are wholly or partially dependent upon direct income from them. Among such are events like inter-district athletic tourna-

ments financed by entry fees and spectator admission fees; music festivals financed by ticket sales; camps financed by per diem fees for board and lodging; training courses financed by tuitions and the like. Receipts from such events are sometimes deposited in the city treasury, but more frequently they are handled by a special committee or organization formed for the purpose. Nevertheless the department assumes a degree of responsibility for the financial success of the project, if not liability for its deficit, if any, because the public facilities are used, and the event is sponsored by the recreation department. The recreation executive is often in the center of the financial management of such projects, and finds it necessary to prepare carefully a detailed budget of anticipated revenues and expenditures in the same manner as for departmental operations. These budgets are not submitted to the general governmental authorities; but it is advisable to have them approved by the recreation board, if any, and by the organization which is conducting the activity. Expenditures should be controlled meticulously under the project budget and the budget should be drawn if possible in such a way that expenditures may be scaled up or down as conditions reveal that the anticipated revenues will or will not be realized and as the project progresses. Needless to say, prior arrangements need to be made to cover any possible deficit and for the use of any possible surplus.

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XVII

RECORDS, REPORTS AND FILING

IN the administration of a recreation department numerous official records and reports are compiled and kept and much recorded information is received and filed. The records are important as the factual basis upon which an accounting is made to higher authority and to the public of the work done. Records are also of indispensable value as reference material used by administrative and office employees in performing their duties; in fact, they are the basis of administrative action. The recorded information in the form of printed matter, memoranda, bulletins, etc., is used as reference material in planning facilities and programs.

While some records must be kept in a form required by law or by regulations of higher authority the form of most records of the recreation department is left to the discretion of the department itself. It is impossible to set forth the form of all records kept by recreation departments because of the wide variation in plans of organization and in size and functions of departments.

In this chapter the essential records for a recreation department are listed and briefly described. The list is subject to considerable elaboration for large metropolitan departments and for those which have complete control of their funds and operations. In such departments records ordinarily kept by the city treasurer, controller, engineer and other general city officials may have to be kept by the recreation department itself. The list given below includes records of a department governed by a recreation board or commission, since the majority of departments are so governed. The records may be considered in relation to the board, the superintendent, finance, supplies, property, legal matters, personnel and program. The essential records are briefly described.

Board or Commission Records

Board Minutes.

The minutes of meetings of the Board of Commissioners constitute official authority for the work which the department performs. In the minutes are contained the enunciations of policy, the instructions to administrators, the approval of reports of administrators, and decisions of a particular nature regarding many details which have come before the board for consideration and decision.

The minutes should state where and at what time each meeting took place, what members were present and when each arrived and departed, if any member or members did not remain for the entire meeting. The minutes should contain a clear and concise statement of each action taken with a record of the vote of each member on every motion. They should mention in brief form reports and correspondence received and their important contents. Each report and communication should be given a reference number so that it can be readily produced from the files and its full contents examined.

When the minutes have been approved at a meeting they then are the original official record of the meeting and may not be changed. They are of such importance that they should be very carefully prepared, indexed and bound. The loose leaf form with accurate paging and permanent binding at the end of the year is usually preferred. The minutes should be kept only in the official office of the board, should not be removed therefrom except on order of the board and should be kept under lock.

Board Correspondence.

The correspondence of the board often relates to matters concerning which some statement of policy or some decision is required. Several letters, reports, memoranda or other papers frequently have reference to a single problem. These are assembled, fastened together and constitute what is termed a "file" on the given subject. It is usually advisable to keep the board files separate from the general operating files of the department, both because of their great importance as official original records and

also because they frequently need to be reproduced on short notice. These files are sometimes referred to the superintendent, secretary or other person as they work upon the problems involved. It is advisable to keep a record of their assignment and to periodically check up and account for them.

Agreements, Contracts, etc.

A special file should be kept for copies of all legal contracts and agreements or other obligations or commitments of the board. These have dates of expiration or dates when some act must take place, such as rental due dates or dates when notice is to be given. A calendar of such dates should be kept by the secretary.

Reports to the Board.

The board receives official reports from the superintendent and from others, usually through the superintendent. It also prepares or causes to be prepared reports for transmittal to other boards or officials. Both types of reports should be indexed and become a part of the board records. Important portions of them if not the entire contents should be recorded in the minutes.

Policies and Legal Opinions.

Various individual actions taken by the board are expressions of official policy. Legal opinions of the city attorney or other duly constituted legal advisers are of similar effect. These should be assembled in a cumulative file so that in one place there may be a complete compendium of legal opinions and policies.

Superintendent's Records

All records of the department are in a general sense the records of the superintendent even though they may refer to matters delegated regularly to others. The superintendent keeps readily at hand for his own reference a record of instructions given him by the board, reports to the board and instructions issued to personnel. The instructions to personnel, together with other material, are frequently compiled in a manual of instructions to staff which should be in such form as to permit convenient reference and frequent additions or amendments.

Financial Records

Budget.

A record of the current budget and of recent preceding budgets, broken down according to various segregations, is essential. A monthly memorandum report showing encumbrances against each segregation and unencumbered balances is a part of this record.

Register of Encumbrances.

The register of encumbrances is an original record of all encumbrances as they are authorized. Each encumbrance is charged against its proper budget segregation and corrected as its exact amount is found to differ from the original entry. A working balance of unencumbered funds is entered. This is the record from which the monthly memorandum report referred to in the above paragraph is compiled. Operating policies are often affected by such comparisons.

Register of Cash Receipts or Income.

Although all cash received must be deposited with the city treasurer, usually daily, an original register or ledger should be kept in which the individual items of income are recorded as received. Memorandum reports should be prepared from this register weekly or monthly in which the amount of cash received under each type of operation is compared with the estimated amount contained in the budget of anticipated revenues.

Duplicates of Original Receipts.

All cash received by the recreation department is receipted for in duplicate on numbered receipt forms or by cash register, turnstile, meter or other mechanical device. Duplicate copies of the numbered receipts or original certified records of the mechanical devices, such as cash register tapes, should be kept.

Cash Transmittal Forms.

When deposits of income are made with the city treasurer they are recorded on a transmittal form which shows the amount and its source. The treasurer either returns a receipted copy of this

form or issues a receipt based on it which in either case is kept as the official department record.

Payroll.

The payroll is a list on prescribed forms showing the names of all employees to whom payments of salaries or wages are to be made by the treasurer for the time worked and at the rate indicated thereon. It must be certified as correct by the superintendent. Payrolls are submitted weekly, bi-monthly or monthly in accordance with the practice in general effect. It is usually the practice to transmit payrolls to the auditor who checks them against available funds. A copy is sent to the civil service department, if there is one, which checks each name against legal authority for the employment. The payroll also shows the portion of the total which should be charged against each of the several budget segregations. This is usually in the form of a recapitulation of the whole contained on the payroll form. Duplicate copies of payrolls are kept by the department as its record.

Record of Financial Operations.

The original record of financial operations showing receipts and disbursements in various segregations is kept by the auditor. This record is sufficient for the recreation department and copies of it showing monthly and yearly operations are kept by the department for reference. The registers of receipts and encumbrances will check roughly if not exactly with the operation statements. The former yield the information so necessary to financial control of operations before the transactions are consummated and are therefore an immediate guide in determining decisions on subsequent items which result in the expenditure of funds or receipt of income. In other words, the official operating statement requires some time to compile and decisions often have to be made on the basis of the information contained in the registers of receipts and encumbrances before the operation statements are received by the department from the auditor.

Capital Account Records.

These records show the investment made by the government in land, buildings, other structures and equipment of a permanent

nature used by the department. They are kept by the auditor but copies are sent to each department annually.

Insurance Policies.

Property of the several departments of a city is often insured by order of the city council. Policy concerning insurance is usually determined for the entire city government by the city council. Each department, however, should keep a record of its insurance policies, including the expiration dates, coverage, premiums, etc.

Supply Records

Inventory of Stores.

Most recreation departments maintain a central store of supplies from which the various centers are supplied. Records of consignments received by the store, disbursements or deliveries made from stock, and a periodic inventory, must be kept. These records are necessary to determine the cost of supplying each center to enable needs to be anticipated and to discourage waste.

Delivery Records.

Many items of supply or equipment are delivered direct to recreation centers without clearing through the storeroom. It is necessary to have a record in the central office of these deliveries in order to be able to certify that goods purchased have been received in good order and that they are according to specifications. A copy of purchase orders is usually sent to the center concerned upon which certification of delivery is made after which it is returned to the central office. Similar records are transmitted to the office by the person in charge of stores, concerning deliveries to the store.

Specifications for Standard Supplies.

Many items of supply are standard. Detailed specification for these should be compiled and kept available for use when new requisitions and purchase orders are issued. These specifications are refined from time to time as the supplies are tested in practice.

Property and Equipment Records

Land Records.

Land used by a recreation department is owned not in the name of the department but of the municipal corporation. Original deeds, easements, or grants in trust, are kept by the city clerk, but copies of all such instruments or digests of them should be kept by the department.

The department should also have on file sketches, or preferably plane table surveys, of all lands under its jurisdiction showing dimensions, elevations or contours and locations to scale of all excavations, fills, buildings, structures, pipe lines, sewers and drains. These records should be kept strictly up to date so that decisions may be made in the office concerning various problems without necessitating a trip to the area each time. The location of under-surface conveniences and structures is particularly important to record when the installation takes place, otherwise great expense in locating and tracing them in order to make repairs may later have to be incurred.

The history of the acquisition of parcels of land is another important record. It should show the manner by which the land was acquired, the date, cost, how financed, and any other pertinent data.

Records of Buildings and Structures.

In the form of blue prints, working drawings and typed specifications properly dated and certified, the recreation department should keep a record of all buildings, structures, landscaping, improvements to grounds and equipment, including the layout of the grounds. The cost of construction segregated as to materials, labor and other costs should be a part of the record as well as when and how the buildings and other improvements were constructed. The record should also show what separate recreation facilities exist at each center.

Equipment, Furniture and Fixture Inventory.

Whatever equipment, furniture and fixtures are provided for each center or other place should be a matter of record in the

form of a property inventory. Removable articles of equipment such as desks, tables and file cases should be numbered and a tag or plate containing the number and name of the department should be affixed to them. Tools and removable fixtures may have the department name or initials stamped or painted on them.

Legal Records

The legal records of a recreation department are not many. They include copies of state laws affecting recreation departments, the city charter, city ordinances, court orders (if any of direct application to the department), legal opinions rendered by authorized advisers (usually city attorneys), and instructions issued by legal advisers on legal procedures.

Records About Personnel

Personal Information Concerning Employees.

There should be on file a card for each employee in the department giving age, sex, address and other personal information, previous training and experience, official status in the department, and when the employee entered the department. There should be recorded on this card or in other convenient form a cumulative record of the employee while employed in the department, including vacations, leaves of absence, absence on account of illness, accidents, additional training evidenced, assignments, disciplinary measures and special achievements or commendations.

Schedule of Assignments.

The assignment of every employee should be recorded in convenient form. The record should show where the employee works and during what hours daily he is scheduled to work. This record should be classified according to places of employment and cross indexed on the individual personnel record cards upon which will be shown the place of assignment if not more detailed information.

Time Records.

Original time sheets or cards are required in most departments for each employee. These records show the exact time daily that

the employee has worked during the payroll period. This information is certified as correct by the employee's immediate superior. Various computations for the payroll based on the time worked and the rate of compensation become part of the record.

Applications for Employment.

Most applications for employment are of no record value but those obviously from persons whose services might some day be required should be kept in a form classified for ready reference.

Fidelity Bonds.

Certain employees who handle funds should be under bond. The bonds are usually prescribed by the city council or the auditor but record of them as to amount, what they cover, name of the underwriters, date of expirations and cost should be on file in the department. The cost of securing bonds is usually borne by the department.

Transportation.

Some employees travel in department automobiles from place to place in the line of duty and frequently they travel in their own automobiles but are reimbursed for the expense on a mileage basis. In either case a record of where they went and original speedometer records are necessary. For mileage reimbursement the speedometer records are as important as are time records for payroll purposes.

Program and Attendance Records

Program Instructions and Policies.

A recreation department is continually issuing instructions, announcing policies and making suggestions concerning what activities may be conducted and in what manner. These instructions should be combined in convenient form and classified according to the activities to which they refer. They form the basis for an activity manual which is sometimes published so that the instructions may be conveniently available at the several recreation centers. In some departments the activity manual and an administrative manual are combined, but this is often unwise

because the activity program is constantly changing. Moreover, so much suggestive program material is sent out that it tends to quickly encumber the manual.

Master Calendar of Events.

There are certain events and occasions which the department prescribes shall be generally observed. The programs of each center impinge upon these uniform features. They constitute a master calendar or program and should be published for the information of all concerned.

Weekly or Seasonal Forecasts.

Just as the superintendent and supervisors set up a yearly program for the entire department so the staff at each center prepare a weekly or seasonal forecast of events. These should be required to be filed with the office not only so that information may be had of what events are expected to take place and when, but also to encourage systematic program planning by the staff.

Weekly Reports from Recreation Centers.

For the compilation of consolidated reports of the entire department and also to enable executives to keep in close touch with what is happening at each center a weekly report is usually required to be filed. These reports should be on standard forms drawn up in such manner as to enable the essential information to be recorded plainly and with a minimum of effort. No information should be required on the report which is not put to important use afterward. The following is the specific information which a supervisor or superintendent requires from each center weekly:

1. *Name of each employee and exact record of when he was present for work daily throughout the week.* This is a record of the exact time during which the employee was at the center and may or may not represent the total time worked. If some of his work was performed at another place, that will appear elsewhere in the record. Occasions arise when it is expedient to consult the record to find out who was on duty at a given center. The original record on the weekly report is of value for this purpose. It also enables other information on the report

form, recorded as to time, to be interpreted in terms of who was on duty at a given time.

2. *Scheduled activities which took place, who was in charge of each, time they occurred and attendance of participants and spectators.* This information enables the actual program to be checked against the planned program or forecast. Special events should be similarly reported but elaborated under remarks. The routine or "free play" activities should not be recorded except as they are revealed in the total attendance since they can be assumed to take place and will be largely of the same nature each week. If new and novel routine activities are introduced they should be commented on under remarks.

3. *Scheduled events planned by outside agencies but conducted at the center on permit.* If the permit has been issued by the central office the number of the permit can be given.

4. *Total estimated attendance at all activities, i.e., the gross attendance shown by sessions (morning, afternoon and evening) and by participants and spectators.* Methods of estimating this attendance have to be prescribed to suit each separate type of center. For some the record might be very exact (e.g., swimming pools where fees are charged), but for others the attendance is at best a careful estimate.

5. *Visits of supervisory staff or other important visitors and time of visits.*

6. *Important community contacts and outcome of the same.*

Cumulative Program Records.

From the reports submitted by the staff at various centers and by supervisors of special programs which do not necessarily take place at department-owned centers, a cumulative program and attendance record may be compiled. This becomes the basis for consolidated weekly, monthly and annual reports.

Records of Accidents.

It is important in public work to record at the time they occur all accidents which are serious from the standpoint of accident prevention, injury sustained, disposition or possible liability. Departments usually require a separate form to be filled out by the recreation director in charge of the center where the accident occurred, showing:

1. Name, address, age, and sex of the injured person.
2. Exact time, place and circumstances concerning the accident and how it occurred.
3. Description of the injury.
4. Disposition of the case.
5. Names and addresses of witnesses.
6. Comments as to cause and prevention of similar accidents; also significant information of value in the event of contest for damages. In the case of serious accidents statements of the injured person and of material witnesses made at the time should be recorded.

Permits for Use of Facilities.

Recreation departments not only conduct their own programs but accommodate self-organized and self-managed groups with facilities the use of which is granted on permit from the central office. Among such are permits for large picnics, use of gymnasiums, use of auditoriums and use of athletic fields. A record should be kept of such permits, preferably by carbon copy. The original permit is given to the permittee. A third copy should be sent to the center. The original when presented by the permittee to the staff at the center may be used to record on it a report on the activity. This copy is then returned to the office.

Reports

Routine Administrative Reports.

It is good administrative practice for the head of a department to require periodic reports from the chief administrative employee of each division of the department whether the division be concerned with the administration of a group of separate facilities or places of recreation, or programs of special activities. Division heads likewise usually require periodic reports from the chief directors of separate recreation places. These reports may be daily, weekly or monthly as seems best. They are important to enable a cumulative record of the work to be assembled and summarized and to assist the administrators in keeping in touch with the progress and trends of the work. Those who are required to render reports are encouraged to think in terms of factual material related to their work and to analyze measured accomplish-

ment in relation to effort. The contents of such reports vary according to the nature of the work performed.

Annual Department Reports.

Heads of governmental departments are usually required by the city charter or other legal enactment to render an official annual report of the work of their departments. These reports must be submitted to the mayor, the city council or the city manager. The reports of all departments are then consolidated in brief form and published for the information of the general public. The department reports are sometimes separately published by the departments and sent to interested persons and to public and institutional libraries. They are always available at the office upon request of any interested citizen.

Voting and taxpaying citizens are conspicuously disinterested in the reams of published statistics and dry narrative of the traditional governmental reports and are inept at analyzing and understanding the material published in report form. In past years this has not been wholly the fault of citizens for the material has been published in form not easily comprehensible and, in fact, it has been frequently charged that some public officials purposely published their reports in highly complex and technical form for the specific purpose of confounding the inquiring citizen. In recent years there has been a distinct effort on the part of progressive public officials to encourage public interest by publishing reports in more attractive and understandable form. Some have carried this to such an extreme that it is difficult to distinguish the report from cleverly printed advertising matter. The printing of circulars and other material to cultivate public interest and to inform the citizen who "reads as he runs" has an important place in the work of public relations of any department, but it should not be confused with nor take the place of the annual report of a department which is a comprehensive statement of the state of the department and its accomplishments. The annual report can be improved in attractiveness and readability by art work, charts, photographic cuts and popular interpretation in narrative form, but the essential information which distinguishes it as a report should not be omitted.

Contents of the Annual Report.

The report should contain such material as will enable the reader to obtain a better understanding of the work of the department, to appraise the accomplishments of the department for the period to which the report refers, and to learn about the plans for the future or the important needs of the city with respect to the matters for which the department is responsible. It should be as brief as consistent with these objects and should not be a cyclopedic compendium of information about recreation or about the department. Its contents will include information and records about functions of the department, its organization, physical properties, program, personnel, finance, specific needs, plans and recommendations:

1. *Functions.* A clear statement of the functions of the department and the legal authority by which they are undertaken will assist in interpreting the rest of the material. The division of these functions into sub-functions upon the basis of which the department is organized may also be included.
2. *Organization.* This will include a description of the manner in which the department is organized, internal relationships and relationships to other agencies. A chart is often valuable in making these relationships clear. Any changes in organization should be especially reported.
3. *Properties.* The number of properties upon which the department operates and the improved facilities located thereon interpret to a degree the extent of the department services. Since one of the most important problems of the city is to obtain a sufficient number of areas, buildings and other structures to enable its services to cover the entire city, tabulation of additions of this sort year by year is an important index to growth. Noteworthy new acquisitions and alterations should be mentioned and stressed according to their relative importance.
4. *Program.* While the program of activities is perhaps the most important thing to be reported it is not necessary to catalogue in detail each event by date and description. It should rather be the object to summarize the program and to indicate the underlying purposes in conducting certain types of activity and the extent to which such purposes were accomplished.

Summaries for the year of attendance of participants in activities and non-participants or spectators, classified according to types of places, i.e., playgrounds, swimming pools, indoor recreation centers, or golf courses, are almost invariably quoted. These records are often accorded more important position than they merit. In connection with some activities they are at best inaccurate estimates yet they are about the only quantitative measure there is of public response. They should be published with knowledge of their imperfections and perhaps with interpretation. The familiar bar, "pie" and curve charts are valuable for interpretive purposes.

Special problems for which specific programs have been devised should be briefly discussed. For example, if evening activities have been stressed to attract older youth from unwholesome hangouts this feature might well come in for special mention; or if the department has inaugurated winter sports for the first time, or the organization of adult dramatic groups, these features might be discussed. Such incidents create opportunities to emphasize qualitative considerations which cannot be treated statistically.

5. *Personnel.* The organization of personnel, number of employees, seasons employed, increase or decrease in personnel, and similar material might well be included. Measures taken to select competent employees and to provide in-service training might be used to emphasize qualitative aspects. The names of all employees are not necessary but it is customary to publish the names of members of the board of commissioners and secretary, if any, and the chief executive and divisional heads.

6. *Finance.* A report is not complete without certain financial statements. An essential one is the report of financial operations giving sources of revenue, whether from taxes, fees, gifts or other sources, and detail of expenditures classified by principal objects for which made. Both revenues and expenditures should be further classified according to the functions to which they apply, e.g., playgrounds, indoor community centers, swimming pools, golf courses, etc. Unit costs of rendering various services may also be included, but with interpretations, for they can be easily misunderstood.

A capital statement showing the book value of lands, buildings, and equipment and any important additions or losses during the year is often valuable in an annual report. If the depart-

ment controls its own funds entirely it is advisable to include a balance sheet with classified assets and liabilities, the latter including bonds unredeemed.

7. *Needs.* The needs of the city in regard to public recreation as viewed by the department are an important part of the annual report. If these needs can be based upon valid surveys rather than on unsupported opinion the expression of them is all the more valuable. It is, of course, the duty of the department not only to operate the facilities it has as efficiently as possible but to inform the general city officials and the public concerning problems unsolved and needs unprovided for. The annual report is a proper instrument through which to emphasize such matters.

Recommendations. A list of specific recommendations may logically follow the factual record of accomplishments, needs, state of the department, etc.

Filing

Filing of records, reports and miscellaneous information presents a problem in all public executive offices. Few departments, however, encounter greater difficulty than the recreation department in keeping this material in a manner that admits of convenient reference. This is due to a number of reasons. The recreation department is not concerned with a single activity but with many activities which are extremely diversified. The efficient recreation office must have available not only the official records of business transactions but also a great quantity of reference material concerning almost innumerable activities. This material is of great assistance to the staff as suggestive information in building programs and is also useful in meeting requests from the public for information concerning all sorts of recreation activities. Moreover, the department program is not a static or routine program but one that is constantly changing and developing.

The method of filing material according to subject and the logical relation of the subject matter to the organization of the department's functions is the most efficient method in recreation departments. This procedure results in the accumulation of material of like nature in one location in the files rather than in several locations. It also renders indexing and cross-indexing unnecessary. Another advantage is that those who consult and use the files must

continually think in terms of organization and interrelation of the several functions of the department rather than in terms only of each separate subject unrelated except alphabetically or chronologically to subjects.

An outline of a filing system for recreation executive offices is given below. This outline assigns all material to three separate files; one having to do with administration of business transactions, facilities and programs; another with miscellaneous information concerning activities and a third with information concerning the "field" of work, or the community. Several observations concerning the adaptation of this plan need to be made.

The suggested outline is adaptable to either the centralized or decentralized plan of filing. The former contemplates the assembly of all material from all parts of the executive office in a central place, the latter plan permits each executive supervisor or director to keep such files in his office as relate to his particular duties. Both plans have advantages and disadvantages. The better plan for any department depends upon many local considerations.

The whole question of filing concerns the larger more than the smaller departments but even in the latter careful treatment of the problem is important. The principles underlying the treatment are the same in either case. The outline presented herein has been expanded to fit the larger departments. Obviously subdivision of subjects to the extent indicated will hardly be necessary in the smaller departments.

Various practices and devices related to the mechanism of filing and using the files are not treated herein. These have to do with the coding of file folders to facilitate their return to the proper places, memoranda to be left when material is withdrawn, cross reference devices, choice of tabs and folders, and disposition of matter referring to more than one subject.

The Administration File.

Official records, memoranda, correspondence and reports kept in files as a permanent record of transactions and for ready reference when required. This may be called the "Administration File."

1. Most of this material may be conveniently filed in vertical letter-size drawer files. It should be filed according to subject. Subjects should be indicated by tabs, or indicators.

The arrangement of the subject tabs should be according to a classification based usually upon a functional separation of duties. The file arrangement will largely conform to the staff organization. (See outline.)

2. Some of this material is referred to so frequently, that it is more convenient to keep it in special desk filing devices of various kinds. The material and convenient ways of keeping it are as follows:

A. Board Minutes.
   May be kept in loose leaf book of typed pages. Books should be bound by year and indexed.

B. Cumulative register of encumbrances against the budget.
   May be kept in vertical card file or in loose leaf ledger.

C. Duplicate receipts of income received from various sources.
   May be kept in bound duplicate receipt books.

D. Register of cash receipts posted in cash book from duplicate receipts.

E. Employees' time records.
   The original record sheets filled out by the employees may be filed in loose leaf binders or vertical files.

F. Continuous inventory of the storeroom showing quantities withdrawn from time to time on requisition.
   The vertical card file is best for this purpose.

G. Weekly programs of recreation centers and programs of special directors.
   The original reports filled out by the directors may be filed in loose leaf binders.

H. Weekly attendance reports.
   The original reports filled out by the directors may be filed in loose leaf binders.

I. Master calendar of important events.
   This is a chart which may be kept on the desk, in a drawer or on the wall.

The Activity File.

Information filed for occasional reference having to do with activities of many kinds. It consists of rules, descriptions, plans,

suggestions on organization and leadership, etc. It is mimeographed or printed matter in the form of circulars, bulletins, articles, books and memoranda of every sort. This material should not be included in the "Administration File" but should be accumulated in an "Activity File." This file should be arranged according to some well-understood classification of activities. Material too bulky to file or bound material may be kept in book cases.

Material in the "Activity File" is purely suggestive information and not material of record. An illustration or two will clarify its function. The program of a pageant prepared and given by the playgrounds of the department belongs in the "Administration File." Sample programs from other places may be collected in the "Activity File" to be available as suggestive material when needed. Rules of baseball belong in the "Activity File." Any special rules of eligibility for a local league belong in the "Administration File."

The Survey File.

Information concerning the community and its recreational resources which may be called the "Survey File." The recreation department is continually conducting a survey of the community. Material concerning the people who make up the community, the groups into which they are organized and the facilities which exist for their recreation is collected from time to time. This should be assembled under appropriate titles in a vertical letter size drawer file.

OUTLINE FOR ADMINISTRATION FILE

The Governmental Organization
- Department History
- The Charter
- The Governing Body of the City or Village
- Legislation
- The Commission or Board
  - Composition, Appointment, Terms of Office
  - Duties and Powers
  - Minutes
  - Reports

- Procedure, By-laws, etc.
- Instructions

Department Administration

- Organization
- Acquisition and Development of Properties
- Development of Service
- Finance
  - The Current Budget
  - The Past Year's Budget
  - Administration of the Budget
  - Purchasing
  - Accounting Reports
    - Capital
    - Operating
    - Auditor's Reports
    - Treasurer's Reports
  - The Staff
    - Staff Organization
    - Qualifications
    - Applications
    - Selection
    - Recommendations Received
    - Recommendations Given
    - Recruiting
    - Promotion
    - Discharge
    - Compensation
    - Payroll
    - Interrelationships
    - Training
    - Grading of Employees
    - Discipline
    - Staff Activities
    - Volunteer Leadership
  - Publicity and Promotion
    - Instructions and Policy re Publicity
    - Articles
    - News Releases
    - Photographs
    - Mailing Lists
    - Addresses (Speeches)

Relations with Other Agencies
- The National Movement
  - Conferences
  - Reports
  - Year Book Statistics
- City Departments
  - School Department
  - Park Department
  - City Planning Department
  - Welfare Department
  - Engineering Department
  - Legal Department
  - Library Department
- Semi-public Agencies
  - Boy Scouts, Y.M.C.A., Y.M.H.A., Boys' Clubs, etc.
  - Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Y.W.H.A., Y.W.C.A., etc.
  - Universities
  - Churches
- Private Agencies
  - Clubs and Leagues
  - Homes
  - Fraternal Orders
  - Industries

Construction and Maintenance
- Construction, General
- Maintenance, General
- Equipment, General
- Supplies, General
- Office
  - Supplies
  - Staff
  - Equipment
- Playgrounds
  - General (i.e., applying to all playgrounds)
  - One Tab for Each Playground
    - Staff
    - Plans and Layout
    - Equipment
    - Repairs
    - Supplies
    - Utilities
    - Inventory

- Swimming Pools
  - General (i.e., applying to all pools)
  - One Tab for Each Swimming Pool
    - Staff
    - Plans and Layout
    - Equipment
    - Repairs
    - Supplies
    - Utilities
    - Inventory
  - Beaches
  - Camps
  - Golf Courses
  - Etc.
- Administration of Program by Places
  - Playgrounds
    - One Tab for Each with Further Subdivision if Necessary by Types of Activity
      - Athletic
      - Music
      - Handicraft
      - Drama
      - Special events
      - Etc.
  - Swimming Pools
    - One Tab for Each with Further Subdivision if Necessary by Activities
  - Beaches
  - Camps
  - Etc.
- Administration of Programs by Activity
  - Athletics
    - Program in General
    - One Tab for Each Activity, Further Subdivision if Necessary, e.g.
    - Basketball
      - General Correspondence
      - Officials
      - Rules
      - Municipal Leagues
        - Eligibility
        - Protests

- Schedules
- Awards
- Officials
- Etc.

- Baseball
- Etc.

Drama
- Program
- One Tab for Each Project, Subdivided Further if Necessary

Music
- Program
- One Tab for Each Project, Further Subdivision if Necessary

Handicraft
- Program
- One Tab for Each Project, Further Subdivision if Necessary

Outing Activities
- Program
- One Tab for Each Project

Home Play
- Program
- One Tab for Each Project

Outline for Activity File

Athletics
- Football
- Soccer
- Basketball
- Volleyball
- Baseball
- Track
- Etc.

Outing Activities
- Hiking
- Camping
- Picnicking

Handicrafts

Fine Arts

Drama

Music
- Program in general
- Band
- Orchestral

- Chamber Music
- Choral Music
- Other Instrumental Music
  - Harmonica
  - Ukelele
  - Etc.
- Community Singing

Dancing
- Folk Dancing
- Social Dancing
- Interpretive Dancing

Literary Activities

Science

Unclassified Activities
- Playground Activities, Informal
- Home Play
- Social Activities
- Etc.

Outline for Survey File

The City and Community
- Geographical and Topographical Data
- Population
  - Distribution by Districts, Age Groups, Neighborhood, Nationality, etc.
- Physical Resources
  - Public School Areas and Facilities
    - Playgrounds
    - Athletic Fields
    - Etc.
  - Parochial School Areas and Facilities
  - Other Public Facilities
    - Parks
    - Libraries
  - Privately Owned Facilities
    - Churches
    - Lodge Halls
    - Golf Clubs
    - Tennis Clubs
- Community Programs
  - Public Schools
    - Courses of Study
    - Extra-Curricular Activities

Parochial Schools
Library
Churches
Commercial Agencies
Boy Scouts
Girl Scouts
Y.W.C.A.
Y.M.C.A.
Etc.
Fraternal Organizations and Activities
Foreign Groups
Athletic Leagues and Clubs
Social Clubs
Dramatic Clubs
Civic Clubs
Welfare Organizations

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XVIII

MAINTENANCE AND CONSTRUCTION

THE physical maintenance of the recreation properties and equipment should be regarded as one of the major concerns of recreation administration. This function is not always performed by the recreation department itself but is sometimes taken care of by another department. For example, in many cities, as was pointed out in Chapter III, a recreation department is responsible solely for the activity program and the maintenance function is performed by a park or other department. The coordination of the work of organizing, promoting and supervising recreation activities with the maintenance of the facilities required by them is difficult even when both functions are performed by one department. The difficulty is increased when the coordination must be effected within two departments. The maintenance of the facilities must be viewed as subordinate to the program of activities from the standpoint of the fundamental purposes of the department. In other words, the requirements of the program should dictate the kinds of facilities to be provided and to some extent the manner in which they are to be maintained. Too often the program is subordinated to details of maintenance. A recreation department which does not control its own maintenance work is usually subjected to severe handicaps in bringing about the proper relationship between maintenance and program functions. Regardless of how a city may be organized, however, the problem of detailed administration of maintenance and construction work is fundamentally the same.

A department which is responsible for the maintenance of a system of recreation facilities consisting of separate units located in different parts of the area, will view the problem of administration as having local and general aspects. If only one place of recreation is to be maintained all duties of maintenance may be local-

ized. When an extensive system is established certain maintenance duties may be more economically and efficiently centralized. In this chapter routine maintenance will be understood to refer to that performed by the staff assigned to any recreation center and general maintenance to that performed by a general staff organized to serve all units of the system.

Routine Maintenance

Routine maintenance consists of the janitorial duties in buildings and similar duties out of doors. The former include the opening and closing of the building and its rooms; sweeping, cleaning, scrubbing, waxing floors; tending to heating and ventilating; minor repairing and painting; and arranging furniture and equipment for activities within the building. The outdoor duties consist of collection and disposal of refuse; arranging equipment for the outdoor activity programs; sprinkling and marking fields and courts; minor grading of grounds; repair of walls, pipe lines and water fixtures; irrigating, cultivating, grass cutting, pruning, and fertilizing.

Time Schedule of Maintenance Workers.

The routine daily cleaning of a recreation center is most efficiently done when it can be scheduled during hours when the facilities are not in use. Many systems require their maintenance workers to report early in the day so that their work may be completed before the afternoon crowds arrive. Beach cleaning crews, for example, sometimes report for work at four or five o'clock in the morning and complete their work before noon, working a short day but six and sometimes seven days per week in the summer season. Auditoriums are often cleaned at night. The daily clean-up may be handled in this way, but while activities are underway in the afternoon and evening some incidental cleaning and other work must often be done. This calls for varied schedules of hours for some workers. Each type of recreation facility has its own problem in this regard and for this reason too definite uniform standardization of hours and duties for local maintenance workers throughout the system is inadvisable.

Titles of Maintenance Workers.

There is as yet no standardization of titles for persons performing routine maintenance duties. The titles most frequently used are janitor, caretaker, custodian, grounds keeper and gardener. Maintenance workers employed for routine work at a center are recruited from many different crafts and have a rating generally equal to that of semi-skilled laborer.

Maintenance Workers and Public Relations.

While the duties of these workers are primarily concerned with physical maintenance of property the workers often come into direct contact with the public. In a recreation center, in the absence of directorial staff, the maintenance worker has to be depended upon to maintain reasonable order, to answer inquiries courteously and intelligently and to otherwise represent his department. He must present an appearance creditable to the department and consistent with the nature of the work he does. Many departments prescribe a uniform costume for maintenance workers. The selection of routine local maintenance workers must be made with all these factors in view.

Another important consideration in this connection is moral attitude and conduct of the maintenance workers. Their close contact at recreation centers with the public and especially with children and women makes it doubly important that only persons of good repute be employed for such work. As a precautionary measure in this regard some recreation and public school departments require finger printing of all applicants and investigation of previous records, including transmittal of finger print identifications to the Federal Bureau of Investigation at Washington, where a central index of all recorded crimes is kept. The Bureau furnishes confidential information on request to any public agency concerning records or files.

Supervision of Maintenance Workers.

Where two or more maintenance workers are employed at any recreation center the duties need to be divided among them and someone needs to be in authority. One of the workers may be placed in charge of all without being relieved of routine work.

Large parks and recreation centers with a number of workers frequently assign one to be the foreman.

If there is a director of recreation in general charge of the center he should have general authority over the maintenance personnel as well as over other directorial personnel and should be responsible for the work of all. There needs to be some localized and responsible supervision of all the employees at each center. The maintenance employees should be subject to the instructions of the recreation directors in the conditioning of the place for the program of activities.

Where the maintenance services are limited there sometimes arises a conflict as to the division of the time of maintenance personnel between duties related to upkeep of the property and duties related to the facilitation of the program. The director in chief of the center should be able to resolve this conflict. Due to the fact that recreation directors are lacking in experience in the mechanical trades maintenance workers often require some supervision from the general maintenance headquarters. This supervision is an important factor also in the practical training of the maintenance workers. Instructions given by general supervisors to maintenance workers should be with the knowledge of the director in charge.

General Maintenance

Every recreation center requires repair work from time to time which is beyond the ability or facilities of the maintenance staff of the center itself. Either this work has to be let out to tradesmen and contractors or it must be done by department mechanics other than those assigned regularly to the center. Most departments choose to have such work done by traveling repair men. These men are equipped with a light truck in which they carry the tools and supplies most likely to be required as they travel from one center to another. They usually have a regular route which brings them to every center at least once each week. From the director of a center or from the local maintenance head they ascertain what ordinary repairs are required and, if they have the necessary materials and tools, they proceed with the work. Extraordinary repairs or alterations for which they haven't the tools or material, or which require an extraordinary amount of time, or which entail

unusual expense, are referred to the central office where they are given proper consideration. Each repair man is required to keep a record of his visits, the time spent at each job and the work done. Costs of labor and materials are computed from the repairman's original record and are charged against the proper centers and budgetary accounts.

Nature of Repairs.

These repairs require mechanics with varied abilities. They include repair of doors, windows, roofs, plumbing fixtures, water, gas and sewer lines, stoves, heaters, furniture, locks, electric fixtures, pumps, motors, masonry, sidewalks, fences, playground apparatus, and fireplaces. Some small painting jobs are done by repair men but generally a large department has enough painting to occupy the full time of one or more painters who travel from one job to the next. Important plumbing and electrical repairs are required by law in many places to be done by licensed plumbers and electricians and must be in accordance with the codes governing such work. Special crews are also organized for pruning and spraying of trees, especially if the department is responsible for maintenance of parkways and street trees.

Not infrequently an extraordinary repair requires several men to complete it in the available time. A sidewalk must be dug up to get at a stopped sewer line, or a long section of fence blows down and needs to be replaced. To care for such emergencies traveling crews are consolidated, or extra laborers are employed or the job is let out on contract.

Extra Help for Special Events.

Every recreation department has special events at various centers from time to time which necessitate maintenance work to be done additional to that which can be handled by the ordinary crew on the premises. Bleachers need to be moved or built, temporary stages erected, lines of rope or cable stretched to control crowds, stage properties moved. These needs are handled in the same manner as extraordinary repairs.

The Central Shop.

The central shop is a necessity in every system of recreation centers. The shop serves a number of functions; it is the headquarters for the supervisor of maintenance and for all centralized mechanical services; it is the place where materials required in maintenance are classified, stored and prepared for delivery to the centers, including the renovating of salvaged lumber, brick and other materials; it is the place where the equipment used seasonally, such as swimming pool chlorinators, life lines, summer playground equipment, stage properties and the like, are put in order for their next use; and it is the place where the rolling stock, lawn mowers, pumps, and other mechanical equipment are serviced.

Even the small department with not more than one or two general maintenance men requires a shop. Large departments must have elaborate central shop facilities and may have several shops consolidated at one location. These include the millwork and carpenter shop; painting shop; forge and machine shop; electrical shop; repair shop for keys, canvas goods, nets, play supplies, etc.; and a garage and automobile service shop. The last named is important even though the automobiles and power equipment may be repaired on contract. The storage, oiling, greasing and routine servicing of automobiles, if there are several, at the central shop contribute to longer life of the equipment, economical operation and effective control.

Central Warehouse.

Any department large enough to have a central shop needs also a central warehouse and storeroom for expandable maintenance and recreation supplies. Supplies are purchased in quantities to obtain the advantage of lower prices and then are parceled out to centers in suitable quantities on requisition. The dispensing of supplies from the storehouse requires careful control and accounting for the purpose of keeping proper cost records and to prevent unauthorized use. The administration of the storehouse is not ordinarily a function of the maintenance division but is more properly related to the accounting division. The storeroom, however, is usually located at or adjacent to the central shop because it

dispenses maintenance and construction supplies and is then accessible to transportation equipment used in delivery.

Costume Storage.

Convenience also indicates the advisability of locating the central costume storage and repair facilities at the location of the central shop. Many departments assemble and manufacture numerous costumes for use in dramatic programs. These must be renovated, repaired, remade and repacked for the next occasions.

Horticultural Nursery.

Still another central feature in a large department is the horticultural nursery. Many departments find it practicable to propagate their own shrubs and trees. In determining a suitable location for the nursery, consideration must be given to soil conditions, wind exposure, temperature and sunlight.

Construction

The recreation department is concerned with the following types of construction:

1. Grading and paving of recreation and landscape areas, roads, paths, and sidewalks.
2. Installation of pipe lines, water systems, sprinkler systems, sewer lines, septic tanks, and storm drains.
3. Construction of bridges within recreation areas.
4. Installation of electrical illuminating systems for outdoor recreation areas.
5. Construction and installation of fences, backstops, bleachers and play apparatus.
6. Construction of reinforced concrete swimming pools, wading pools, tennis courts and similar structures.
7. Construction of frame, brick and reinforced concrete buildings.
8. Landscaping of areas.
9. Manufacture of various types of equipment, apparatus, furniture and fixtures.

Contract Work vs. "Force Account."

In public work the question arises as to whether the designing and construction shall be done by "force account," that is by per-

sons employed on the payroll of the public department, or by private architects and contractors. Insofar as minor design and construction are concerned there is no question because such work is nearly always done by regular employees of the public department. In major construction, however, there is no common practice. Sometimes the structures are designed by the public departments and let out to contract and then again architects and engineers are engaged to make the design and the execution of the work is done by the public departments.

There is no general rule that can be stated concerning which procedure is best. So many variable factors influence the situation that a decision should be made only after consideration of all factors and with reference to each phase of the construction plan. The City of Minneapolis Park Commission found it most satisfactory to design and construct small buildings costing in the neighborhood of ten or fifteen thousand dollars by contract.[1] Electrical work and street illumination are also handled on contract as are the construction of concrete walks and curbs and lake dredging. Plumbing work, grading, paving and landscaping, on the contrary, are done under force account. The determination of the question in each case devolved upon whether the commission had a sufficiently continuous amount of work in any field to enable it to develop and maintain an efficient crew of workers of the type required. Even if a crew can be maintained there are other factors to consider; namely, the wages of public employment and prevailing wages in private employment, the condition of the construction industry, the relative efficiency of public and private employees in various crafts, the size of the project, the union labor situation and its effect on both private and public work, the time factor, and similar matters.

Handling Minor Construction.

Recreation departments which maintain their own facilities have, as has been explained, a staff of mechanics for general repair and alteration work. These mechanics are also used for minor construction. Several of the larger park and recreation departments do all of their own designing and construction except when the

[1] Doell, Chas. E., and Thompson, Paul J., *Public Park Policies*, Parks and Recreation, Minneapolis, Minn., 1930, p. 53.

projects are of great size, like the building of a great stadium, public auditorium and structures costing hundreds of thousands of dollars. The availability of WPA labor has encouraged departments to do more of their own construction, particularly in the field of simple construction because this labor cannot be had on contract jobs. PWA (Public Works Administration) has tended to encourage the handling of very large and complicated projects on the private contract basis.

Letting Construction Contracts.

Contract jobs are handled on a cost plus basis or on stipulated total bid. Contracts are let after advertising for bids on published specifications. Public agencies are usually required by law to accept the lowest responsible bidder. If the lowest bidder is not accepted it must be for valid reasons indicating his lack of responsibility. If precautions are not taken in advance incompetent or unreliable and irresponsible contractors submit bids which sometimes are low. The burden of proof concerning reasons why they are rejected is on the public department. To avoid this situation some departments first qualify contractors for bidding by causing them to submit replies to a questionnaire stating their qualifications to do the work and giving reasonable evidence thereof, including financial ability, previous experience, quality of workmanship and reliability. Only those who qualify are then permitted to submit bids.

When work is let on contract the plans and specifications need to be drawn in more complete detail than when done under force account. This is necessary not only to enable bidders to determine with exactness the amount of their bids but also to insure completion according to plan of all details of the work. Departments must, of course, employ inspectors who represent them on the job and who check up on faithful adherence to detailed specifications.

Designers.

Every recreation department which maintains its own facilities and does any construction can use to good advantage the services of competent designers. It needs the services of architectural draftsmen, topographical draftsmen, engineers for structural design and landscape designers. Expertness in all these lines is rarely

found in one person. A department which has sufficient work to employ four draftsmen would do well to select them so that all of these special fields are represented.

Frequently the recreation department calls upon the city engineering or other departments for expert assistance in designing and supervising construction if not also in actual construction work.

Coordination of Design and Operation.

One of the most difficult things in the whole construction problem is to coordinate design with operation. Designers are not usually familiar with the operating problem and those skilled in operation are not adept in interpreting their needs to the designers. Regardless of whether the designing is done on force account or on contract every opportunity must be taken to have the designers become cognizant of the operating problem in relation to the design. Obviously, if the designing is done by the department staff there is an opportunity through experience for the designers to become increasingly familiar with the operating requirements.

Manufacture of Equipment

Having a construction and maintenance shop and equipment for repair it is an easy step to the manufacture of much of the equipment required in public recreation centers. It is quite common practice for departments to fabricate such equipment as bleachers, benches, desks, game tables, card tables, banquet tables, drinking fountains, shower mixing valves, filters, chlorinators, ladders, playground apparatus, tennis nets, and similar equipment. Equipment for which there is a large market and which is manufactured on mass production can usually be bought more cheaply than it can be made by department mechanics. WPA labor in many places has been effectively employed in the fabrication of equipment for recreation use.

Requirements and Duties of Construction and Maintenance Personnel

It is unnecessary to describe the duties of special craftsmen, such as painters, carpenters, plumbers and electricians who may be employed in the construction work of a recreation department.

These duties are well known and are the same everywhere. The positions of general supervisor of construction and maintenance, repairman and caretaker are peculiar to recreation departments. A suggested schedule of requirements and duties for these positions is given below:

Supervisor of Construction and Maintenance

Requirements.

Education equivalent to that represented by graduation from a university of recognized standing, with major work in civil, structural or architectural engineering. At least three years of responsible experience in connection with the design and construction of buildings and other structures, one year of which shall have been in a supervisory capacity, preferably in connection with parks and recreation. A thorough knowledge of surveying, reinforced concrete and timber, construction of buildings and other structures; supervisory ability; and good judgment.

Duties.

Under executive direction, to be in responsible charge of Construction and Maintenance in the Recreation Department; to supervise the planning, designing, constructing and maintaining of recreational areas, buildings, apparatus, equipment, swimming pools, filtration and sterilization systems, etc.; to prepare complete specifications for the construction of buildings and other structures contemplated; to make land surveys; and to perform related work as required.

Repairman

Requirements.

Education equivalent to that represented by completion of the eighth grade in a public school. Experience and skill in the use of mechanics' tools; mechanical aptitude; ingenuity.

Duties.

Under supervision, to make minor repairs to buildings, plumbing fixtures, electrical fixtures and playground and gymnasium

apparatus; to assist in the installation of playground and gymnasium apparatus; to repair leaky roofs; replace broken window glass; repair and adjust door locks and door stops; adjust and make minor repairs to plumbing fixtures; clean and repair sewers and pipe lines; repair fences; repair electric lighting fixtures and switches; repair rings, horizontal bars, basketball equipment, swings and other playground and gymnasium apparatus; assist in the installation of rings, horizontal bars, basketball stops and baskets, swings and other playground and gymnasium apparatus; to paint exterior and interior woodwork; and to perform related work as required.

Caretaker

Requirements.

Education equivalent to that represented by completion of the eighth grade in a public school, preferably some special schooling or training in horticulture or agriculture. At least one year of experience in caring for gardens, nurseries, cemeteries, parks, playgrounds or in farm work. A thorough knowledge of janitor work. Good physical condition. Reliable, trustworthy and of good moral reputation.

Duties.

Under immediate supervision, to keep playground premises, buildings, etc., clean and in order; to perform routine janitor work; to assist in making minor repairs to grounds, equipment and buildings; to care for equipment commonly used on playgrounds and in recreation buildings; to set up equipment used in games on playgrounds; to mark play areas for baseball, volleyball, basketball, etc.; to maintain order in a play area during the absence of the director; to cultivate, fertilize, water, prune, spray and trim flowers, trees, shrubs, and lawns; and to perform related work as required.

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XIX

PROGRAM PLANNING AND CONTROL

THE activities which take place at public recreation centers of various kinds are known as the public recreation program. What responsibility is accepted by public recreation agencies in relation to this program? Is their responsibility limited to the provision of the facilities and to the exercise of essential control, to protect the public property, and to regulate behavior of the patrons? On the other hand, is it their responsibility to assume full control of the recreation program and to permit on the public recreation centers only activities which they have organized and promoted in accordance with certain preconceived objectives? These are two extreme viewpoints and many examples can be found of conformity to them as a matter of public policy. The park movement in America was built on the former concept. The playground movement in its early stages was concerned primarily with the welfare of children and thus tended to conform to the latter view. Schools which assume limited responsibility for public recreation usually start with the concept that the school program in recreation must be conducted by teachers or recreation leaders employed as teachers and that the program must be of a curricular and extra-curricular nature designed to accomplish certain educational objectives.

Modern public recreation departments at the present stage of the movement seem to follow a middle course. On the one hand they recognize that certain types of facilities should be available for "free play" or unscheduled activities of individuals and for self-organized and self-directed group activities. On the other hand they realize that a certain amount of promotion and organization will multiply the number of activities and participants in the program and make for greater efficiency and larger usefulness of the public facilities. They also appreciate the necessity for super-

vision of activities and the provision of positive leadership by trained recreation leaders so that educational outcomes may be assured.

Each type of public recreation place presents its own peculiar problems in program organization and promotion. Some recreation places are established primarily for a single specialized type of recreation. Golf courses, swimming pools, beaches and picnic grounds are of this type. The program at such places from the standpoint of the operating agency tends to become largely a matter of mere routine. The recreation patrons desire only to be granted freedom to pursue their interests and enthusiasms with a minimum amount of interference. Program administration for such places consists primarily in arranging the physical facilities for efficient use, issuing permits for use of facilities to prevent conflicts, promoting activities to insure maximum benefit, and establishing regulations governing the use of the facilities by the public.

Special Nature of the Playground Program Problem.

Other types of recreation places, for example playgrounds and recreation centers, are established for participation in varied activities for all ages of patrons. Many of the activities desired are those which call for organized group participation. The playground and recreation center is also distinguished from other recreation places in the fact that it has specific educational objectives, the attainment of which calls for program planning of a special sort. Because of the special nature of the problem of program administration which is presented by playgrounds and recreation centers fuller discussion of this problem is presented in this chapter. There are vast differences in playgrounds and recreation centers. The discussion which follows has reference particularly to the types of centers which have more or less complete facilities outdoors and indoors for a varied program which includes adult and child participation. The principles set forth, however, will apply also to centers which are not so complete in their appointments as those indicated.

Grouping of Activities According to Their Nature.

The activities of the recreation center are innumerable and because of their complex nature are difficult to classify. Dr. Clark W.

Hetherington has suggested a practical grouping of them which is highly suggestive of their varied nature and scope: [1]

(a) Big muscle activities
(b) Manipulating and manual activities
(c) Environmental and nature activities
(d) Dramatic activities
(e) Rhythmic and music activities
(f) Social activities
(g) Vocal and Linguistic activities
(h) Economic (or acquisitive) activities

The normal play life of children and the recreation of adults include selected activities from all of the groups mentioned. These may be graded from simple elementary forms to complicated expert forms. Activities from each group are possible in varying degree at every recreation center, depending upon the facilities, organization and leadership. Each group is capable of infinite variations in organization. The tendency to organize one group heavily (for example, big muscle activity) to the exclusion of other groups in the program is a frequent error and should be avoided. It is important that the program include activities representative of all groups so that a varied play experience may be had by all.

Grouping of Activities According to Organization.

Some of the activities require no special organization of players in advance and may be engaged in at the whim of the player. These undirected activities, sometimes termed "free play," tend to become a routine for certain regular attendants. Other activities, particularly group and team games, class meetings for instruction or group participation, must be planned in advance and scheduled for a given time and place. Usually they recur again and again, but according to schedule. Still other activities are of the special type requiring preparation for days and sometimes weeks in advance and terminating in a performance or demonstration. They are the spectacular special events which are eagerly anticipated and which sustain interest in the program. The dis-

[1] Hetherington, Clark W., "The Demonstration Play School of 1913," *American Physical Education Review*, May, 1915.

tinction between scheduled events and special events is largely that the former are recurrent and the latter occur but once.

Relative Value of the Three Types of Activities.

The routine activities are of greatest value from the standpoint of development of the powers and skills of the individual because they are repeated day after day and their effects are cumulative. The recurrent scheduled activities are developmental in value largely in proportion to the frequency of their repetition. The special events are valuable chiefly because of the preparation and training which are required to make them possible but indirectly they are useful in sustaining interest in a program which otherwise would tend to become commonplace and monotonous.

In planning the recreation center program, care should be taken to observe a balance between routine, scheduled and special activities. Any of the three groups can be overdone. If only routine activities take place the recreation center is dull, uninteresting and lacking in novelty. If the program of the recreation center is dominated by repetitious scheduled events to the exclusion of freedom of choice on the part of the patrons the whole program will tend to be one of regimentation. Preparation for and staging of special events too frequently and under high pressure will remove much of the joy and spontaneity which should always be evident. By careful study of the center and the needs and interests of its patrons a coordinated program involving all types of activities can be developed.

Five Groups of Patrons.

In attending recreation centers, some people prefer only to "drop in" and participate informally as the whim strikes them, or they prefer not to take part in any scheduled contests or meetings. Others come only to attend special events either as performers or spectators. Still others come only by appointment to meet in a regular class or play a scheduled game. Some parents will permit their children to attend a recreation center only when a scheduled event is to take place. At every center there is a regular clientele who are present almost always and ready for anything. The program should be so planned as to provide some attraction for all.

Informal Routine Activities or "Free Play."

It should be the object of the recreation director to encourage and initiate as many informal routine activities as possible. Ideally the center should be so attractive and well equipped as to appeal to boys and girls and men and women at all hours of the day to attend it and to use its facilities. The customary playground equipment and supplies will induce much routine play. The equipment and supplies will include swings, slides, sandbox, play house, horizontal bar, flying rings, traveling rings, climbing pole, parallel bars, table games and the equipment and supplies for handball, basketball, baseball, volleyball, tennis, etc.; as well as materials and tools for handicrafts. It must be remembered, however, that routine activities are not all spontaneous. Many of them are planned by the recreation directors but the planning must not be too apparent. Interesting ways to use the equipment must be constantly invented and taught. New non-equipment games and events must be introduced; old games and events revived. The most common criticism of recreation programs is that they are repetitious and monotonous. The director should be constantly thinking of new stunts, new emphases, new variations to suggest and introduce so that the center is thought of as a place where something new and different is going on all the time.

The recreation center should be a place to go to spend free time. Once there, however, one should find many incentives and invitations to do interesting things and experience new thrills in learning.

Recurrent Scheduled Activities.

Recurrent scheduled activities are so termed because they are engaged in upon appointment. They are usually group activities such as clubs, classes and contests in which so many members take part according to rules or conventions that a given time and place must be appointed for them. They are repeated on a daily, weekly, or monthly cycle until the schedule is completed, the season is concluded, or the program is finished.

Many of the scheduled activities are self-managed. When the courts, fields, gymnasiums and meeting rooms are not required

for the activities conducted directly by the staff they are usually made available to groups which are organized for recreation but which manage themselves. It should be the aim of recreation directors to organize as many groups of this kind as possible without entirely relinquishing their control of them insofar as control may be necessary. The development of an extensive program of adult recreation at any center requires that this technique be used, otherwise the number of groups which will be served will be limited by the capacity for direct leadership of the employed staff. Aside from this, however, there is the compelling reason that the educational value of the activity is often greatly enhanced when the group manages itself and participates in the selection of its own leadership.

Special Events.

The special events at every recreation center are the occasions which give "spice" to the program. They attract new patrons, discover new talent, provide an incentive to practice, give an ever-changing flavor or emphasis to the program, and create an opportunity to secure some educational outcomes not otherwise possible. Their variety is endless and is limited only by the imagination of the recreation director. In general they fall into seven classes:

1. Demonstrations of skills learned; such as gymnastic demonstrations or musical programs.
2. Exhibits of objects made or collected; such as stamp exhibits, hobby shows, nature exhibits.
3. Performances before an audience; such as the customary holiday programs, the concert, the stage drama.
4. Special contests; such as the track and field meet, the final league baseball game, the dance contest, the drama contest.
5. Mass group participation in an activity usually practiced in small groups; such as the seasonal "play day" and the folk dance festival.
6. Social occasions; such as the social dance, the "community night" or the "party."
7. Excursions.

It is a common error in planning and staging special events at recreation centers to emulate too closely the standards of professionally produced entertainment both as to the nature of the entertainment and the skill of the performers. The recreation center cannot compete creditably with professional entertainment for obvious reasons. Moreover, the objectives of professional entertainment are wholly different from those of the recreation program; the former caters to audience approval only and the latter endeavors to provide satisfying experience for the performers. In recreation events the entertainment of the audience is secondary.

Special events should provide opportunities for as many as possible to participate. They should not exploit a few individuals. They should be truly representative of activities learned at the center and should be the incentive for days if not weeks of routine preparation, not, however, in an arduous fashion.

Program Making.

Every recreation center should have a daily, weekly, monthly, seasonal and yearly program, since the activities follow a daily, weekly, monthly, seasonal and yearly cycle. The recreation director finds it helpful to chart the program for the whole year. Events during the year which influence the program, such as the closing and opening of the school term, holidays, special events and seasonal emphases which will characterize the program throughout the year should be placed on the chart as a guide. The program for each month or season may be worked out in more detail as the year progresses.

The program for the week should be posted in a conspicuous place so that all may see it and become interested in its activities. The daily program is the recreation director's plan of work for the day. The director will think through each day's work in advance, always planning something new or interesting for those who are to attend during the day, and never depending wholly upon the inspiration of the moment.

Playgrounds in the early days tended to over-schedule activities. Each half hour was designated to be devoted to some scheduled practice or class activity and frequently to instruction. Such regimentation had its advantages in that it insured emphasis upon

varied activities and kept the playground patrons informed exactly when each activity was to take place; but it made insufficient allowance for variety and novelty and for freedom of choice on the part of the playground patrons. The playground so conducted took on too much the routine of the school room. The scheduled events of the day should be the occasional pegs on which the program hangs, but they should not consume the day to the exclusion of other activities not scheduled.

In a system of recreation centers it is inadvisable to prescribe the same program for all centers, although all departments usually have some special events observed by all centers in the department. These are set forth in a master program announced for the entire year in advance. The program of each center should be adapted to the peculiar interests of the people residing in the neighborhood, neighborhood traditions, neighborhood organizations, programs of other agencies, facilities of the center, available leadership and the abilities and interests of the recreation director. All of these factors vary greatly between two or more centers. The director of each center should be given freedom to formulate the program for his center with no more prescription from the central office of the department than seems necessary to insure a well balanced and varied program. Failure to do so results in an ordinary and commonplace program.

The program is only a plan. Too strict adherence to it is often inadvisable. Numerous unforseen situations arise dictating necessity for a change in program. To adhere to prescribed or preconceived programs at all cost devitalizes the recreation center and its activities. The interests of children are transitory and changeable. To catch the new interests and involve them in newly programmed events is a real test of a recreation director's discernment and skill.

No director can have at his finger tips at all times of the day all of the information necessary to conduct a successful program. The individual director finds it helpful to build up for his center and for his own personal and professional use, a library containing materials on all phases of the activities which he organizes and conducts. The director who refers again and again to such material generally has the most diversified program. Each director should seek to classify for his own personal use, either at home or in the

office of his center, material to which he may refer in order to effectively plan his program.

The physical equipment and the planned activities are not the only attractions at the recreation center. The opportunity to meet others there under congenial circumstances is probably the most compelling incentive to attendance. The program should be set up to provide innumerable happy social occasions. Similarly, the possibility of unhappy experiences should be minimized; for example, if the use of the equipment is attended always by bickering, if timid persons are imposed upon by aggressive ones, if orderly persons are intimidated by rowdies, many prospective patrons will stay away. Definite supervision to prevent such negative elements is important.

A Sample Program

Below is quoted the program of a typical recreation center in a large city. The activities have been listed according to whether they are informal routine activities, recurrent scheduled activities, or special events. The numerous items under the last two headings were copied from the weekly reports of the center. The routine activities were observed upon the occasion of several visits.

In order to interpret this program it is necessary to describe the center and its facilities and to give other pertinent information concerning it. The following will be sufficient for this purpose:

ALPHA RECREATION CENTER

Area: 8 acres		
Investment		
Land	$38,000	
Buildings	75,000	
Improvement to Grounds	21,000	
Total		$134,000
Operating Budget		
Total average yearly budget		$9,000
Outdoor Equipment		
Baseball diamond		
Soccer field (overlapping diamond)		
Softball diamond, lighted		
Basketball, volleyball and handball courts		
Two paved tennis courts, lighted		
Roque, horseshoe and card area for men		
Customary playground apparatus		

Wading pool (summer only)
Sand box and shady corner
Garden, with a corner suitable for outdoor drama
Croquet court

Building
Combined auditorium with stage and gymnasium
Men's checker and chess club room
Boy Scouts' room
Girls' club room
Dining room and kitchen
Two meeting rooms

Staff
Two full-time recreation directors (man and woman)
Two part-time recreation directors (each 20 hours weekly)
Approximately 10 hours special service per week
Two assistants (WPA)
Two caretakers

Time schedule
Open daily the year round from 8 A.M. to 10 P.M.

Attendance
Average daily attendance, approximately 700
Gross yearly attendance, approximately 250,000

Informal Routine Activities

(Any of the following may be observed almost any day, weather permitting.)

Small Children
Sand Box Play
Doll Play
Climbing
Swinging
Sliding
Running
Tag Games
Singing Games
Jumping Rope
Jack Stones
"Make Believe" Play
Simplified Athletic Games
Relays
O'Leary
Collecting
Kite Flying
Paddle Tennis

Older Girls
Informal Athletic Games
Tennis
Ping Pong
Informal Singing
Paddle Tennis

Older Boys
Soccer Games
Softball Games
Basketball Games
Tennis
Handball
Keep Away
High Jumping
Broad Jumping
Running Races
Relays
Paddle Tennis

Women
Sewing
Discussion
Observing Children

Men
Checkers
Chess
Tennis
Baseball
Handball
Horseshoes
Card Games
Croquet
Observing
Conversation
Discussion

Scheduled Activities

(During any week in the Spring.)

Day	Small Children	Older Boys and Girls	Adults
Monday	Stamp Club	Basketball League Game	Stamp Club Checker Club Chess Club Women's Tap Dancing Basketball Games Dancing Club Softball Games
Tuesday	Rhythm Class	Sea Scout Troop Soft Ball	Bridge Club Mixed Group Volleyball Sketching Club Softball Games
Wednesday	Camp Fire Girls' Meeting	Tap Dancing Club Baseball Instruction	Baby Clinic Orchestra Practice Badminton Club Gym Club Pigeon Club Softball Games
Thursday	Story Hour	Dance Matinee Basketball League Games	Craft Class (Women) Wood Carving (Men) Photography Club Table Tennis Tournament Open Forum Softball Games
Friday	Girl Scouts' Meeting Boy Scouts' Meeting	Radio Club	Community Band Basketball Games Drama Club Old Fashioned Dancing Softball Games
Saturday	Handicraft Club Dramatization (Informal)	Model Airplane Club Boys' Gym Club Hiking Club	Social Dancing (Young People) Softball Games
Sunday			Softball Games

Special Events

(Held During One Year.)

January	Gym Circus Soccer, District Play-off, Older Boys' Skating Tournament

February	Arts & Crafts Exhibit
	Valentine Party, Children
	Patriotic Program, Washington's Birthday
March	Kite Contest
	Basketball, Senior Finals
	Community Night
April	Musical Program by all Music Groups
	Children's Picnic
	Women's Gym Clubs Play Day
May	May Day
	District Track Meet
	Boys' Week—Father & Son Program
	Neighborhood Flower Show
	Mother's Day Program
June	Baseball, District Finals
July	Marble Tournament, Finals
	Puppet Show
	Weekly Children's Dramatic Matinee
August	Doll Show
	Boys' Week-End Hike
	Weekly Children's Dramatic Matinee
September	Annual Pigeon Show
	Constitution Sesquicentennial Program
October	Hallowe'en Children's Party
	Hallowe'en Community Celebration
November	Stamp Exhibition
	Community Night
December	Christmas Play for Children
	Community Christmas Program

Intra-Mural vs. Extra-Mural.

Every recreation department is faced with the problem of determining whether its own controlled program of activities shall be conducted on an intra-mural or an extra-mural basis. This problem arises more in connection with the athletic program than with other activities. The early playground systems proceeded on the theory that each center should have a representative team in each of the standard sports which should compete in leagues and tournaments with similar representative teams from other playgrounds. To encourage wider participation teams were organized according to a plan of classification based on age, weight or other factors tending to equalize competition.

One of the results of this procedure was to cause play directors to confine their work largely to those of considerable skill who were most likely to qualify for places on the representative teams. Directors became "coaches" who were more inclined to be inter-

ested in producing winning teams than in performing varied services to large numbers of participants, many of whom had no opportunity to become members of representative teams. The inherent weaknesses in the inter-playground or extra-mural plan led to its complete abandonment in many places and to an emphasis upon intra-mural activities in which the competition at a center was confined to that center. Winners of local contests were not matched with winners from other centers. The emphasis was then placed upon the organization of as many groups as possible at a single center and upon the organization of local schedules which contained sufficient groups to make the competition interesting.

The present tendency is to combine both plans to derive the advantages of both. Inter-playground competition is limited to teams which have participated in a qualifying intra-mural schedule or tournament during a preliminary season at the home center. This encourages the participation of the largest number possible in the local preliminaries, at the same time taking advantage of the special stimulation provided by competition with representatives from other centers. Various means are employed to tone down the importance of the extra-mural competition to avoid the evils of overemphasis.

Awards.

The granting of trophies or other awards of considerable intrinsic value to winners of recreation competitions is now regarded as inimical to the development of good attitude upon the part of participants. It emphasizes winning rather than participating. It develops an attitude of unwillingness to participate unless the prize competed for is of sufficient value to attract. It also discourages those who have little or no chance to win from entering competition. The present practice is to grant no awards or to present only awards of insignificant intrinsic value, such as ribbons or certificates. Group awards in the form of plaques, cups, and banners are favored over individual awards since the former encourage group cooperation rather than individualism. The granting of inexpensive awards is justified on the ground that they serve as a permanent record of achievement and an incentive to participation and improvement.

Transportation of Participants and Directors.

The extra-mural program conducted by some recreation departments raises problems of transportation of participants and directors. A successful program requires that the participants keep appointments made for them and to insure their arrival it is often necessary to organize their transportation. If they are immature it seems necessary for a director to accompany them and to supervise them while traveling from one center to another. If it is necessary for a director to travel with representative groups he must either leave his home center unsupervised during his absence or a substitute must be employed. For a director to travel with a single team while a potentially large number of persons remains at home unattended is inefficient and indefensible. To employ a substitute is expensive. The cost of such employment should be measured against the values derived from the program requiring the director to travel.

Other problems also arise out of the situation. Shall the department pay the cost of transporting participants, particularly children? If not, will the participants be able and willing to pay for their own transportation? Can volunteers be secured to transport them in privately owned automobiles? Should the director carry the participants in his own car? What liability attaches to the volunteer, the director and the governmental agency in the event of negligence resulting in accident and injury to those transported? If the director leaves one center and goes to another to conduct an approved event is he "on duty" while en route and if he has transported some players, with or without authority, does liability in the event of accident and injury attach to the employer, to himself or to both jointly? These and similar questions do not bulk large in the small city but in the large city they loom as major problems the answers to which have much to do with the determination of policy concerning inter-playground events.

Supplies for Recreation Activities.

The successful conduct of a recreation program requires not only suitable areas, equipment and structures but also supplies. Supplies are distinguished from equipment in the fact that they are expendable, that is, they are consumed in the operation of

the facilities or program. In practice goods which are consumed generally within a year are termed "supplies." More durable items are termed "equipment." Supplies required in the maintenance and routine operation of the facilities are furnished without question. Supplies used and consumed by recreation patrons present a problem. So far it has not seemed advisable for a public recreation agency to be unstinting in the provision of such supplies. In most states textbooks and other supplies are furnished free to children at state expense in the public schools. This is justified because children are required by the state to attend school and if all are to enjoy equal educational opportunities essential supplies must be provided for all. In public recreation, however, participation is voluntary and nowhere is attendance universal. Moreover, the standard of finance for public recreation is still too low to allow generous supply of all needs connected with the program. Practice in the matter is not uniform among recreation departments but the following general rules may be deduced from the most prevalent practice:

Supplies should be furnished:

1. For group activities wherein the item in question is used by the whole group.
   Examples: Basketballs; tennis nets; books for community singing.
2. Generously for children but sparingly, if at all, for adults.
3. For individual activities where failure to provide the supplies would definitely render a highly important activity impossible to conduct.
   Example: Handicraft materials in a very underprivileged neighborhood.
4. Supplies which are required for demonstration purposes in order to get an activity started but which when underway will be supplied by the participants.
   Example: Harmonicas to initiate interest in harmonica playing.
5. When the cost of supplying an activity is insignificant or relatively low.
   Example: Inexpensive handicraft materials for children's handicrafts,—paste, paper, crayons, etc.

Supplies should not be furnished as a general rule:

1. When the activity requires an item peculiarly adapted to the individual.
   Examples: A fielder's glove, broken-in to the hand of the player; gymnasium shoes or other articles of clothing; musical instruments except for demonstration purposes.
2. When the cost is high in relation to the use derived.
   Examples: Tennis racquets; badminton "birds."
3. When the item is easily stolen and conditions are such as to expect considerable loss through theft.
   Example: Hand balls, except inexpensive substitutes.
4. When the tradition is favorable to general individual possession of the article.
   Examples: Marbles; tops; skates.
5. When the article can be easily made by the participant.
   Example: Kites.
6. When the supplies are to be used elsewhere than at a public recreation place.

Organization of Self-Directed Groups.

The program of every well-equipped recreation department includes many activities not directed by employees of the department but which take place on department controlled property. These range from the groups which are entirely self-initiated and conducted and which merely use the public facilities to those which have been initiated by the recreation department but are conducted on a self-government basis. They are usually not children's groups but are composed of youth and adults. They include athletic teams, athletic clubs, choral societies, bands, orchestras, hobby clubs, dramatic societies and the like. Insofar as they are open to the general public without restriction, save interest in the activity and ability to participate on a comparatively equal footing with other members, they are regarded generally as "public" and not "private" groups. They are welcomed by recreation departments and granted the use of facilities. The trend of development of organized public recreation for older youth and adults may be said to be along the line of organization and promotion of groups of the kinds mentioned.

In relation to group activities for youth and adults the public recreation department becomes largely a service agency. It discovers common interests about which groups may organize. It arranges meetings, schedules, demonstrations and competitions which provide incentives to group participation. It provides group leadership, often only in the initial stages, seeking as rapidly as possible to put the group on a self-sustaining and self-led basis. Two examples will be cited to illustrate the technique employed in organizing group activities of the type mentioned.

1. Example in athletics: Business houses and industries form a convenient unit about which to organize teams and leagues. A letter is sent to the heads or personnel managers of such agencies advising them of the intention of the recreation department to form an industrial league in baseball and suggesting that a representative be sent to an organization meeting. Representatives gathered at this meeting discuss details of classification of teams, eligibility and playing rules, officiating, available diamonds, entrance fees, expenses likely to be incurred, etc. An executive committee is formed which assumes jurisdiction. Thereafter the representative of the recreation department draws up the schedule, assigns the places of play and assists the committee in the conduct of its league, all in accordance with regulations previously approved by the department. Thus, a great volume of recreation is induced by a minimum amount of organizational services given by the department.

2. Example in music: The members of high school glee clubs about to graduate are canvassed to ascertain how many would desire to continue their musical experience after graduation. A sufficient number indicating such a desire a meeting is arranged at a public recreation center at which plans for the formation of a choral society are discussed. An organization is formed and a competent leader is chosen. Perhaps the recreation department provides the leader for a season while the group, which is self-governing, gradually assumes more and more of the expense of leadership until it becomes wholly self-supporting.

Self-directed groups have a tendency to get beyond the control of the recreation department even though their activities take

place upon the department controlled facilities. To maintain a proper liaison between the groups and the department it is often advisable to require that a recreation director be a member of the executive committee of the group or that he hold office in an ex-officio capacity. Another plan which works well is to require all groups not under immediate direction of the department to file their constitutions and by-laws for approval. Charters good for one year are issued to organizations which comply with department rules. Upon expiration of a charter at the end of the year the status of the groups may be reviewed after which privileges may be withdrawn, renewed or modified.

Use of Public Facilities by Private Groups.

The use of public facilities for recreation activities by private groups, i.e., groups whose membership is exclusive, is often permitted by recreation departments if the facilities are not otherwise occupied by public groups for the time desired. Privileges are granted usually by permit which sets forth the regulations governing the use. Some departments charge a fee for such permits, especially if the group in question desires to charge admission. The amount of the fee is determined by the cost of making the facilities available, the ability of the group to pay the amount to be collected, and the purpose for which the proceeds are to be used. If the proceeds are to be used for public benefit the fee charged is usually low; if for private gain the fee is determined on a commercial basis.

Private exploitation of public places for monetary gain and of the public who attend public recreation centers must always be guarded against. Professional promoters organize teams, enter them in leagues and endeavor to derive profit from collections at games. Private teachers give instruction at public recreation centers and charge fees for their services. Vendors of commodities of various kinds solicit business at the recreation areas. Promoters, in the name of charity, hold "benefit" performances from which no one but the promoter benefits when the expenses are paid and the proceeds divided. These, and many other ingenious forms of exploitation must constantly be detected and prevented by reasonable regulations.

Non-Recreation Uses of Recreation Places.

The use of public recreation places is often desired for purposes not of a recreational nature. If there is an auditorium in a recreation center it is sometimes desired for civic meetings, political gatherings and religious services. Athletic fields are desired for outdoor rallies of various kinds. A board or department in charge of recreation facilities should take the view that the facilities are intended by law for recreation purposes and should develop a program which will keep them well occupied by recreation activities. There will be occasions nevertheless when applications for non-recreational uses must receive respectful consideration. Then some fine distinctions must be drawn. A civic purpose must be such in fact as well as in name. Occasions organized for purposes of propaganda should be discouraged if not prohibited. Political meetings should be permitted only if non-partisan. Religious gatherings, if permitted by law in public tax supported places, should be non-denominational or interdenominational. It is impossible to lay down rules of guidance in all cases of non-recreational use of public recreation facilities since the best or most expedient rule in a given situation depends upon the state and local laws involved, fine discriminations in the interpretation of the laws, traditions, local attitudes and similar factors. Some departments find it advisable to limit non-recreational uses by establishing schedules of special charges for the use of facilities for such occasions.

Evaluation of the Program.

Efficient administration must not only concern itself with measures which facilitate the formulation and conduct of a satisfactory recreation program but constantly evaluates this program qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitative evaluation is rarely possible in terms of objective measurements, but is dependent upon appreciation of values, sense of fitness, clearly defined purposes and subjective appraisal of performance and outcomes in terms of these purposes. Qualitative evaluation of programs cannot be made from records but requires frequent visits to recreation centers to observe the programs in operation. Observations and evaluations by executives and program specialists should be the

basis for counseling recreation directors and for the issuance of written program material and instructions.

Quantitative evaluation of recreation programs can be made from more or less accurate records. The "productivity" of a recreation center may be evaluated constantly by the inauguration of a system of reporting such factors as attendance, differentiated in several ways; numbers of group activities which took place; financial receipts; special events prepared and conducted, etc. The total attendance of participants in the recreation program and of observers or spectators is widely used to compare the work of separate centers of recreation. Departments compile attendance statistics to measure their progress year by year and for use in publicity. The National Recreation Association in its annual Year Book, publishes the total reported attendance of all city and county systems of playgrounds as well as the special attendance for indoor recreation centers. The use of statistics as a means of program control and evaluation has possibilities which have not yet been fully realized. More effective use of statistics for such purposes will require greater refinement of methods of recording and reporting than has so far been accomplished by most recreation departments.

The National Recreation Association has developed a uniform method of recording and reporting attendance at playgrounds. In a memorandum distributed in 1939 playground authorities in the United States and Canada were urged to adopt a uniform method of determining playground attendance. This method was based on a study conducted in forty-three cities by a committee of recreation executives and is as follows:

> Playground attendance is to be based upon the counts taken at the peak load of attendance during each morning, afternoon and evening session. These counts are to be multiplied as follows:
>
> (1) Multiply morning peak count by 2 to get total morning attendance.
>
> (2) Multiply afternoon peak count by 2.5 to get total afternoon attendance.
>
> (3) Multiply evening peak count by 1.5 to get total evening attendance.
>
> Add these totals to get the day's attendance. This method

should only be applied at outdoor playgrounds where a varied play program is conducted under leadership, primarily for children up to 15 years of age.

This plan evidently recognizes that on most playgrounds it is impracticable, either because of insufficient staff or lack of control of the ingress and egress of playground patrons at gates or at unfenced boundaries, to obtain an approximately exact count of all who attend. Registration of those who attend a playground and checking a roll of attendance is impracticable except in the smallest playgrounds and then only when the clientele attends regularly. Accordingly, it is recommended by the Association that a count be made of all present at a given time and that this count be weighted by multiplying it by a constant factor. This factor is introduced to account for those who may have already been present and retired from the ground before the count is taken or who may arrive after the count is taken.

While this method, if generally followed, has value in securing a uniform system of reporting the total attendance for all cities it produces at best the roughest sort of approximation of total attendance at any playground or system of playgrounds. The totals so produced must be interpreted with caution. For the purpose of reporting total attendance of various cities insofar as playgrounds of one type are concerned it is probably as good a system as any that can be devised for the present, but for purposes of program evaluation it has little validity and usefulness.

Systems of municipal recreation which consist of playgrounds of variable kinds and other types of recreation centers should devise methods of recording and reporting attendance which are more discriminating and which allow for adaptations to local conditions. For example, the director of a neighborhood playground which has only a small attendance, say no more than 100 in any half-day session, can estimate at the end of each session the number who have actually been present within a few of the exact number. Directors of large neighborhood and district playgrounds whose attendance is dispersed over a large area must be content with gross estimates.

From the standpoint of program evaluation the gross attendance at recreation centers is of little value, but the attendance at

scheduled activities and special events, particularly of participants, has immense value. Such attendance is directly related to the efficiency of directors in planning and conducting the activities and events. For this reason the system of reporting should provide for accurate statistics concerning events which are susceptible of accurate measurement and whose attendance reflects planning, organization and leadership. Among the activities at playgrounds and indoor recreation centers for which fairly accurate statistics may be reported are the recurrent scheduled activities, such as classes under leadership, club meetings, team and individual contests, musical and dramatic performances and rehearsals, tournaments and meets, and excursions. The number of participants in special events is also susceptible of accurate reporting, but the number of spectators usually can only be estimated unless the events are held indoors. For events for which admission is charged accurate reporting is a simple matter.

The forms used by a department to report activities should be carefully designed to provide for accurate reporting of those units of activity which are susceptible to more or less exact treatment. Statistics should be taken from these forms weekly or monthly. They should be consolidated for purposes of study by supervisors and the superintendent and used as a basis for counseling directors, reformulating programs, and a variety of administrative adjustments. Instructions should provide that records be made daily or at the conclusion of each activity. At the same time care must be taken that superfluous information is not requested and that the task of recording information may not become a burden to the staff to the extent that it keeps them from other essential duties. Form 3 shows a suggested method of recording information concerning the operation of a neighborhood playground or community center.

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PART III

RELATED PROBLEMS OF RECREATION ADMINISTRATION

XX

RECREATION PERSONNEL

THE personnel employed by a recreation department or bureau is determined by the nature and amount of work to be performed. In general the work is in relation to three more or less distinct operating functions, namely, (1) maintenance and construction of recreation facilities; (2) secretarial, clerical and other office work; and (3) organization and leadership of recreation programs. The persons employed to perform the first two types of work are recruited from the general pool of available mechanics, laborers, and office workers. Titles assigned to them are generally similar to employment titles in other business and governmental fields. Their pre-entry training is not necessarily designed with specific reference to recreation. The adaptation of their skills to the requirements of the recreation department is a problem of in-service training.

Employees engaged to perform duties directly related to the recreation program are specialists who may be presumed to have had pre-entry training of the character required by their specialties. Their duties are coming to be understood in terms of a more or less generally accepted nomenclature. The National Recreation Association has published a report of a Committee on Standards of Training, Experience and Compensation in Community Recreation Work which lists the titles which are tending to come into common use and which generally have the approval of the profession. The following is taken from the report of the committee:

Positions in community recreation work have tended to become standardized as the public recreation movement has developed. An examination of the titles used by the numerous cities which are carrying on this work reveals substantial, though not unanimous, agreement, not only as to titles of employment but

as to duties assigned. The following is a description of the titles more generally used and of the responsibilities usually assigned to each type of position:

1. SUPERINTENDENT
   Chief executive officer in charge of a department or division and its personnel; usually responsible to a board or commission; sometimes directly responsible to a city manager, city council, or city commissioner. In case the community recreation work is administered as a division of some other department, such as the park or school department, he is usually responsible to the superintendent of the department.
2. GENERAL SUPERVISORS
   Executive officers responsible to the superintendent and in charge of a group of recreation centers of similar kind, their personnel and the general program of activities carried on therein; or of some special function such as construction, and maintenance generally applicable to all centers; e.g., Supervisor of Playgrounds, Supervisor of Community Centers,[1] Supervisor of Construction and Maintenance.
3. SUPERVISORS OF SPECIAL ACTIVITIES
   Specialists in charge of special phases of program development. The responsibilities of these employees vary greatly. Examples are Supervisor of Athletics, Supervisor of Music, Supervisor of Drama, Supervisor of Girls' and Women's Activities, Supervisor of Dancing, Supervisor of Arts and Crafts, Supervisor of Nature Activities and supervisors of such other activities as the extent of the local program requires. These workers usually are responsible to the superintendent and have staff rather than line responsibilities.
4. DIRECTORS OF CENTERS
   Executive officers in charge of administering the facilities, staff and program of a recreation center such as a playground, community center, swimming pool, golf course or camp. These officers are usually responsible to a super-

[1] For the purpose of this report a community center was defined as a place offering more or less adequate indoor and outdoor facilities around which a recreational program aimed at meeting the needs of all ages may revolve throughout the twelve months of the year.

visor, if there are sufficient centers of a kind to warrant the employment of a supervisor and, if not, to the superintendent. Examples are Playground Director, Community Center Director and Camp Director. The title of Manager, rather than Director, is often applied to the person in charge of a golf course, swimming pool or bathing beach.

5. PLAY LEADERS
   Employees who, under the close direction of directors or assistant directors, exercise general oversight over the play of children or adults on a playground or in a community center, lead groups in organized play activities, or assist with special projects. These employees are often employed part time and frequently they are students preparing for professional work in recreation.
6. SPECIALISTS
   Employees who serve as instructors in a special activity, usually at more than one center, or on a part-time basis. Their duties are largely restricted to organizing and teaching groups in a particular activity such as golf, tennis, tap dancing, archery, gymnasium class, swimming, puppetry or a special type of craft project. They differ from the supervisors of special activities in that usually they do not have responsibility for promoting or supervising a phase of the program on a city-wide basis.[2]

Other types of employment may be inferred from the following list of titles used by a large, well-established department of recreation:

Accompanist
Automobile Machinist
Automobile Machinist Helper
Bathhouse Attendant
Beach Guard
Beach Guard Captain
Blacksmith
Bookkeeper
Building Repairman
Caretaker

[2] Committee of National Recreation Association, *Standards of Training, Experience and Compensation in Community Recreation Work*, 1938, pp. 5, 6.

Clerk
Chef
Cook
Carpenter
Cement Finisher
Comptometer Operator
Electrician
Electrician Helper
Equipment Repairman
Filter Mechanic
House Painter
Junior Accountant
Junior Stenographer
Laborer, Common
Laborer, Skilled
Labor Foreman
Locker Room Attendant
Secretary
Senior Stenographer
Swimming Pool Cashier

General Qualifications for Recreation Employment.

A broad cultural background is the first requirement for recreational employment related to the leadership of people in leisure time activities. Regardless of what other qualifications may be required, recreation agencies lay great stress upon the general educational background as a prerequisite. Graduation from a college or university is preferred as evidence of such background, but the minimum requirement is often stated as two years of college or university work beyond the high school level. For summer work alone high school graduation is often accepted as the minimum qualification. There is a definite tendency to raise the profession of recreation leadership, insofar as prerequisite educational preparation is concerned, to a level equal to that established for public school work.

Personal skills in a good sampling of the activities which constitute the recreation program are also required. While it is not necessary for a recreation director to be highly expert in many activities he should at least be sufficiently skillful to recognize

good performance when he sees it and to demonstrate good form for the beginners and those of moderate skill in a given field. A high degree of expertness in at least one activity is a most valuable means through which general confidence can be established. A limited number of recreation workers are employed in specialized fields of activity, such as music or drama, but most workers are employed to direct a varied program. Since the physical education activities constitute the bulk of that program at present many recreation executives insist that workers be well grounded in these activities with auxiliary skills in some of the others. The background of skills in activities is a product of a rich recreational life through the years. While much can be obtained from courses on the high school and college level designed to improve skill, if the individual has not lived an active recreational life he is at best poorly equipped for recreation work.

Knowledge of human nature is another requirement. This is necessary in order that the needs, capacities, and interests of those for whom the program is organized may be understood. Here again practical experience contributes much but there can be no substitute for study of the biological and social sciences. The preparation of the recreation worker includes courses in biology, zoology, physiology, hygiene, psychology and sociology.

Courses of training in the philosophy and methodology of education and recreation leadership are also important. Through such courses an understanding of the objectives of the work is acquired and the methods employed to achieve them. Closely linked with this training is instruction concerning the recreation movement and the structural organization and environment in which the work is to be done.

While technical training is of great importance it will avail the recreation worker little unless he also possesses the personal attributes which distinguish the leader and which justify confidence being placed in him for a work so definitely designed to improve human behavior. Foremost among such personal qualities are the ability to make friends, to inspire confidence and to be acceptable among all types of groups; high moral and ethical standards; awareness of social situations wherein problems of behavior are present; and tolerance and zeal for social service.

Lack of any of these qualities may be the difference between success and failure and no amount of academic preparation or specific skill in activities will compensate for their absence.

Duties of Recreation Personnel.

The duties of persons employed by recreation agencies vary because of the great variations in size of the agencies, in the facilities which they operate and in the programs they conduct, as well as because the work is comparatively new and relatively unstandardized. It has been observed that the recreation job tends to conform to the individual employee unlike jobs in productive industry in which the individual must conform to the job. This is understandable when it is recognized that recreation activities, which are the instrument through which objectives are realized, are almost innumerable in kind and no recreation director can be expected to be skilled in all the activities. Moreover, the program of activities of a given recreation center is determined in part by the preferences of those who attend it and in part by the interests and skills of the recreation leaders.

The duties most difficult to describe are those of a recreation director employed in a community center or playground. They are likely to be thought of in terms of the duties of the occupation most closely related to that of recreation leader, supervisor or director, namely, teaching; but an analysis of the duties indicates that they are quite different from those of teachers and that teaching, strictly construed, constitutes only a small part of the whole. While again it must be said that duties vary according to the position, the capacity of the person and other factors, the following job analysis of the position of recreation director in a large department is interesting. The percentages represent the average computed from the original records of actual duties performed which were kept by many directors for a period.

DUTIES PERFORMED

	Percentage of Time Devoted to Each Group
1. *Managerial Duties* ..... Management of the staff, the public, supplies, equipment, finance; preparation of reports; keeping of records; ordering supplies, etc.	23
2. *Maintenance Duties* ..... Preparation of facilities; cleaning; repairing, etc.	2
3. *Public Relations Duties* ..... Promotion and publicity; contacts within the community with parents, organizations and agencies; acting as department representative.	9
4. *Organizing* ..... Organizing staff and volunteer personnel; organizing activity groups, clubs, classes, etc.; arranging materials and facilities; planning activities and special events; conducting surveys; analyzing needs, etc.	23
5. *Supervision* ..... Exercising general oversight over the use of facilities and the participation in various activities; being present at meetings, dances, plays and contests in a general supervisory capacity, etc.	33
6. *Teaching* ..... Class teaching and direction; individual teaching or "coaching"; counseling, etc.	10
	100

REQUIREMENTS FOR AND DUTIES OF RECREATION POSITIONS

In order to make clear the differentiation between the requirements for and the duties of the various types of recreation positions, it is necessary to state them in relation to a department of considerable size. In small departments with few employees the duties will be less specialized. In the pages which follow statements will be given of requirements for and duties of executive, supervisory and directorial positions in a typical well-organized

recreation department in a city of about one hundred thousand population, or more. Adaptations to the situations of other cities may be inferred from these. Positions related to construction and maintenance work were considered in Chapter XVIII.

The duties of a superintendent of a recreation department or bureau are difficult to specify, not so much because the job is relatively new, but because of the vast variation in size of departments or bureaus. Obviously the duties of a superintendent of a department employing only two or three recreation workers will be different from those of a superintendent of a department employing a staff of a hundred or more. In the small department the superintendent will perform duties of all descriptions. In the larger department his duties will be more specifically executive and managerial. Although the latter require preparation and aptitude of a specialized nature the superintendent must also be well grounded in the basic operations of the department.

Superintendent of Recreation

Requirements.

Education equivalent of: (1) graduation from a university or college of recognized standing, with major specialization in recreation, education or social work; and (2) graduate study in the same and related fields, including administration. At least five years of experience in recreation work, not less than one year of which shall have been in an agency of public administration. Successful experience in formulating recreation programs, directing and supervising recreation and other staff, planning and managing recreation areas and facilities, and conducting public relations. Broad knowledge of the recreation movement and its philosophy and principles of financial management as applied to recreation administration.

Duties.

To be in executive charge of the department (or bureau) of recreation; to supervise the staff of recreation workers and construction and maintenance workers; to prepare and administer programs of operation including budgets for the same; to gen-

erally plan recreation areas and facilities; to study the needs of the community and to formulate plans for future development to meet the needs; to prepare reports of the department (or bureau) for submission to higher authority and for their consideration and action; to carry on cooperative relations with other agencies of somewhat similar purpose and with other municipal departments; to organize and participate in a public relations program.

Supervisor of Playground and Community Center Activities

Requirements.

Education equivalent to that represented by graduation from a university or college of recognized standing with major work in physical education. At least three years of responsible experience in connection with recreation and community center activities, one year of which shall have been in a supervisory capacity. Knowledge of modern methods followed in playground and community center activities; of personnel and recreation administration; administrative and supervisory ability; and good judgment.

Duties.

Under executive direction, to be in responsible charge of the recreation and community center activities of the department; to supervise the work of all recreation directors; to visit recreation centers and to observe the administration of programs; to make special research studies and reports for the superintendent of the department concerning neighborhood needs for recreation service; to make recommendations on proposed playground sites, and as to the layout of buildings and grounds; to represent the department in conferences and public meetings wherein playground and community center matters are involved; to plan for exhibits and programs in which the department is represented; to supervise the conducting of playgrounds and the assignment of personnel; to study and solve personnel problems; to evaluate the work of employees; to administer budget control affecting playground and community center activities; to make studies, researches, investigations, reports and recommendations.

Supervisor of Municipal Athletics

Requirements.

Education equivalent to that represented by graduation from a university or college of recognized standing with major work in physical education, or wide experience in the promotion of industrial athletics and recreation. At least three years of responsible experience in conducting athletic games, contests, leagues and tournaments, one year of which shall have been in a supervisory capacity. A thorough knowledge of and familiarity with the recreational facilities of industrial organizations, churches, schools and athletic clubs; supervisory and leadership ability; and good judgment.

Duties.

Under executive direction, to be in responsible charge of the organized athletic program of the recreation department; to organize, develop and supervise a program of participation in all branches of organized sport for teams, groups or individuals, including archery, baseball, soft ball, tennis, badminton, bowling, basketball, volleyball, track and field, soccer and "American intercollegiate" football, swimming, horseshoe pitching, etc.; to develop league programs in the various branches of athletics; to supervise the selection and purchase of trophies and other awards for all sports programs; to pass on permits for use of various athletic facilities; to make studies, investigations, reports and recommendations pertaining to municipal athletics; and to perform related work as required.

Supervisor of Music

Requirements.

Education equivalent to that represented by graduation from a college of music of recognized standing. At least three years of responsible experience in organizing and directing musical activities, including musical clubs, classes, orchestras, bands, glee clubs or community singing. A technical knowledge of music and familiarity with the philosophy of recreation and its relation to

musical activities; supervisory and leadership ability; and good judgment in musical matters.

Duties.

Under executive direction, to be in responsible charge of the musical activities of the recreation department; to supervise playground and community musical activities; to organize new activities and projects; to represent the department at meetings and conferences of local musical societies; to train volunteer leaders; to advise individuals and groups pertaining to music; to supervise the work of music directors; and to perform related work as required.

Supervisor of Dramatics and Pageantry

Requirements.

Education equivalent to that represented by graduation from a university of recognized standing, with major work in dramatics. At least three years of responsible experience, preferably in recreation work, in connection with story-telling, dramatization of stories and the presentation of simple dramas and pageants, one year of which shall have been in a supervisory capacity. A thorough knowledge of pageantry and simple dramatics especially adapted to the interests and abilities of children; of inexpensive methods of producing color effects and in designing and making of costumes and scenery background; and of story-telling technique; supervisory and leadership ability; and good judgment.

Duties.

Under executive direction, to be in responsible charge of the dramatics and pageantry of the recreation department; to organize plays, festivals and pageants throughout the year at the various playgrounds, and to organize community pageants; to supervise the department costume room; to plan weekly matinees during summer vacation periods; to select, adapt and write suitable plays and pageants; to arrange special dramatic classes for recreation directors; to arrange schedules for story-tellers, etc.; to supervise extemporaneous rehearsals and programs; and to perform related work as required.

Supervisor of Beaches and Swimming Pools

Requirements.

Education equivalent to that represented by graduation from a university of recognized standing, together with special training in swimming and water sports. At least three years of responsible experience in connection with aquatic and recreational activities, one year of which shall have been in a supervisory capacity. A thorough knowledge of the philosophy of play and recreation; of the resuscitation of the apparently drowned; of first aid to the injured; of the use, maintenance and repair of life lines, towers, boats and other beach equipment; of the maintenance and operation of swimming pools; of the methods commonly used in the recovery of persons in distress in the water; of the city ordinances and state laws governing the administration of the public beaches and swimming pools; good physical condition; administrative ability; and good judgment.

Duties.

To direct the activities of the beaches and swimming pools; to organize a program of swimming, water sports, beach activities and swimming instruction, in order to encourage a wider use of the pools and beaches by the public; to enforce rules, regulations and provisions of ordinances governing the conduct of persons upon public beaches and in swimming pools; to supervise and instruct subordinate employees in the operation and maintenance of pools and beaches.

Recreation Director

Requirements.

Education equivalent to that represented by graduation from a university or college of recognized standing including some work in physical education and recreation activities. At least one year of experience as a paid employee in physical education or recreation leadership with public or recognized private agencies. A general knowledge of organized play and recreation activities, with a thorough knowledge and creative ability in at least five

phases of recreation activity such as low organization games and free play activities, social recreation, aquatics, music, camp craft, art and handicraft, apparatus and mat work, calisthenics and rhythmic activities, sports, dramatics and story-telling. Knowledge of the philosophy and objectives of the public recreation movement. Ability to meet and deal with the public; pleasing personality and leadership ability; enthusiasm, firmness and tact.

Duties.

Under general supervision, to be in responsible charge of a playground, community center, camp, swimming pool or other recreation area or facility or to be in responsible charge of a combination of such areas or facilities; to formulate, organize and supervise a well-rounded program of play and recreation to meet the needs of people of all ages and stations of life frequenting or accessible to such areas or facilities; to develop leaders used in carrying out such programs; to give immediate direction to employees required in leadership of such activities and in the care of areas and facilities used; and to perform related work as required.

Play Leader

Requirements.

Education equivalent to that represented by graduation from high school and two years in college, preferably training in physical education and recreation activities. A general knowledge of low organization games and free play activities and general skill in at least three phases of recreation activity such as social recreation, aquatics, music, camp craft, art and handicraft, apparatus and mat work, rhythmic activities, athletics, dramatics and story-telling. A knowledge of the philosophy and objectives of the public recreation movement; ability to meet and deal with the public; pleasing personality and leadership ability; enthusiasm, firmness and tact.

Duties.

As qualified, to conduct under direction or supervision play and recreation activities at playgrounds and at recreation centers

where only a limited program is possible, or to conduct a portion of the program at larger recreation centers. Such activities will include games, circle games, singing and folk games, party games and programs, water sports and swimming, singing and instrumental music activities, nature study, hiking, art work, handicraft, standard gymnasium and athletic activities, folk dancing, story-telling and dramatics. To administer and care for facilities for such activities as assigned; and to perform related work as required.

Selection of Recreation Personnel.

Persons to fill positions in public recreation should be selected wholly upon merit. Although the majority of cities and counties which employ recreation workers have no systems of civil service it can be said that usually there is a sincere effort to select persons properly fitted for the work. Difficulty arises less from a lack of desire to appoint competent persons than from inadequate information as to what constitutes competence in this new field. Where there are systems of civil service the recreation employment falls properly within the systems and is subject to examination.

Examinations under civil service should include three types of tests: a written test covering, insofar as practicable, the whole field of knowledge directly related to the work; an oral test in which the personal qualifications of the applicants are judged in personal interview with the aid of information concerning performance in positions previously held; and a practical test in which the examiners appraise the ability of the applicants to lead groups of people in activities and the familiarity of the applicants with the materials employed in the program.

The organized civil service exists not alone for the purpose of systematizing the selection of employees for public service but also to grant employees security from unwarranted discharge. Under civil service rules an employee is usually on a probationary status for periods varying from three to twelve months. During the probationary period an employee may be discharged without formal charges being preferred against him by his supervising officer. After the probationary period has been completed, formal charges giving valid reasons must be filed.

Cities and counties which do not have organized civil service systems may not be wholly without some of their benefits. Many recreation departments in non-civil service cities set up their own systems of examination to guide in selection of employees from long lists of applicants for positions. This procedure is purely voluntary on the part of the recreation agencies. Its effectiveness depends upon the diligence with which it is adhered to. The examination technique gives the recreation executive an objective basis upon which to grade candidates and may be used to good advantage in resisting pressure favoring the employment of inadequately prepared applicants. Lacking objective information the executive must depend solely upon his own subjective judgment which, while it may be quite reliable, is not always so accepted by others when the qualifications of applicants are considered.

Recruiting of Recreation Workers.

Regardless of whether or not the employment is under the organized civil service recreation departments should devote attention to the recruiting of qualified applicants for employment. Many persons make application voluntarily at the office of every recreation department. Application blanks should be required to be filled out by all applicants. These blanks should give an opportunity for the applicant to record all information bearing upon his qualifications and should include the names of several references. Many qualified and available persons do not apply voluntarily either because they do not know of the employment or are not informed as to the qualifications required. The active executive will learn of many such persons through inquiry of recreation directors, social service workers, school executives and training institutions. Some qualified applicants may be discovered among the volunteers who become related to the work at the recreation centers. Recreation agencies usually enlist and train volunteer workers to assist in directing activities.

Since about four-fifths of the workers employed by local recreation departments are either part-time or seasonal workers, these employees constitute a valuable source of supply from which the permanent full-time staff may be recruited. The seasonal work is not usually considered permanent but reappointment must be made each season or periodically. Many of those who perform

seasonal or part-time work consider themselves in training for full-time permanent work. In-service training courses are often provided for such workers.

State Certification of Recreation Workers.

In order to promote the acceptance of high standards of professional preparation and to discourage and in some cases to prohibit the employment of untrained persons, states have generally established systems of state certification for certain professional employment. The certificate is in fact a license to practice. Such state systems are well known in connection with the work of medical practitioners, dentists, nurses, teachers, lawyers, architects and accountants. Social workers in many states are seeking similar status and a number of state legislatures now have under consideration legislation setting up systems for certification of social workers. Recreation workers and executives of long experience feel that similar registration of qualified recreation workers would enchance the standing of the profession, but there is wide divergence of opinion as to whether such workers should be registered under the systems of teacher certification or social work certification, or under a system specifically concerned with recreation alone. Eventually it seems some such plan will be adopted but as yet the work is too heterogeneous to permit standardization of titles, duties and qualifications which should be prerequisite to the establishment of a system of state certification.

Compensation of Recreation Workers.

There are wide variations in salaries paid to recreation workers throughout the country. The larger and longer established agencies generally compensate their workers at higher rates than the newer and smaller agencies. Compensation is generally higher in Eastern and Middle Western states than in the South with the Pacific Coast states ranking about in the middle. Workers are usually paid less than public school teachers and executives and as a rule less in public recreation agencies than in private recreation and group work agencies. Since 1930 the tendency in cities has been to pay no more than formerly, although the majority of cities which reduced salaries have made restorations. Emily Harris

Noble in her study of recreation workers presented the information contained in Table VI.

TABLE VI

SALARY RANGE IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE RECREATION AGENCIES[3]

	High	*Low*	*Mean*	*Median*
1. Public Departments (cities)				
a. Executive, per mo.	$545.00	$150.00	$353.00	$338.50
b. Full-time Worker, per mo.	225.00	75.00	122.25	131.75
c. Part-time Worker, per hour	3.25	.25	.76	.76
2. Private Agencies (20 cities)				
a. Executive, per mo.	833.33	50.00	236.27	200.25
b. Full-time Worker, per mo.	300.00	75.00	163.35	142.75
c. Part-time Worker, per hour	5.00	.25	.38	.86

The Committee of the National Recreation Association in its report entitled Standards of Training, Experience and Compensation in Community Recreation Work expressed its views on the range of salaries which the work should command in order to attract personnel competent in training and experience to perform the work satisfactorily. Their recommendations with explanatory comments are contained in the following paragraphs:[4]

"Those familiar with current practice in community recreation work will notice the discrepancy between actual conditions in the field and the practical objective. This will be apparent most strikingly in respect to recommended standards of education and salary. It is the firm belief of the committee that emphasis must be placed upon adequate preparation for the work and that this preparation should be generally comparable in amount and thoroughness to that required for the profession most closely related to it, namely, public education. To achieve this standard it will be necessary to offer compensation somewhat commensurate with the preparation desired.

"The salary standards which are recommended herein for the several positions are, in the opinion of the committee, such as would command the services of employees with the desired preparation and qualifications. The range of salary recommended

[3] Noble, Emily Harris, *Status and Professional Preparation of Recreation Workers in California in 1929*, University of California Press, Berkeley, Calif., 1931.

[4] Committee of National Recreation Association, *op. cit.*

TABLE VII

RECOMMENDED SALARIES [5]

Superintendent	
Cities under 100,000	$2,400 to $6,000
Cities 100,000 to 500,000	$3,600 to $8,000
Cities over 500,000	$6,000 to $12,000
Supervisor of Playgrounds or of Community Centers	
Cities under 100,000	$1,800 to $4,000
Cities 100,000 to 500,000	$2,400 to $5,000
Cities over 500,000	$3,600 to $6,000
Supervisor of Construction and Maintenance	
Cities under 100,000	$1,800 to $3,500
Cities 100,000 to 500,000	$2,400 to $4,500
Cities over 500,000	$3,600 to $5,000
Supervisor of Athletics	
Supervisor of Drama	
Supervisor of Girls' and Women's Activities	
Supervisor of Arts and Crafts	
Supervisor of Nature Activities	
Supervisor of Dancing	
Cities under 100,000	$1,800 to $3,500
Cities 100,000 to 500,000	$2,400 to $4,500
Cities over 500,000	$3,000 to $5,000
Playground Director	
All Cities	$100 to $200 per mo.
Community Center Director	
All Cities	$120 to $250 per mo.
Play Leader	
All Cities, full-time	$ 75 to $150 per mo.
All Cities, part-time	$ .50 to $1.00 per hr.
Specialist or Special Teacher	
All Cities	$100 to $250 per mo.
Camp Director	
All Cities	$175 to $300 per mo.
Manager of Golf Course	
All Cities	$175 to $300 per mo.
Manager of Swimming Pool or Bathing Beach	
All Cities	$150 to $250 per mo.

for each position is necessarily great because of the variation in responsibility assigned under any title in various localities. For example, the title of 'playground director' may apply to the single employee on a small neighborhood children's playground with little equipment or to the worker in charge of an elaborate play-

[5] Committee of the National Recreation Association, *op. cit.*, quoted by permission of the Association.

TABLE VIII

SALARIES OF RECREATION WORKERS[6]

FULL-TIME YEAR-ROUND
(ANNUAL SALARIES SHOWN)

Number of Departments Reporting	Titles	All Departments Highest Salary Reported	Lowest Salary Reported	Median Salary Reported
176	Executive	$10,000	$1,200	$2,800
54	Assistant Executive	5,520	840	2,014
	City-Wide Supervisors of			
24	Playgrounds and/or Community Centers	3,660	720	2,070
8	Music	2,543	780	1,800
11	Dramatics	3,120	900	1,620
28	Athletics	3,985	720	1,980
41	Girls and Women	3,600	720	1,536
19	Boys and Men	3,000	1,080	1,800
8	Arts and Crafts	3,120	1,200	2,070
1	Nature	1,200	1,200	....
4	Dancing	1,380	840	1,336
36	Construction and Maintenance	3,900	900	1,800
43	Playground and Community Center Directors	2,510	600	1,500
14	Playleader	1,950	634	1,344
12	Specialist	2,000	1,020	1,650
2	Camp Director	2,775	2,600	....
19	Manager of Golf Course	2,500	720	1,800
9	Manager of Pool or Beach	3,000	780	2,280
7	Swimming Instructor	2,100	1,500	1,750
6	Life Guard	2,700	720	1,780

In addition to the salaries shown in these tables certain departments provide certain other perquisites of money value.

ground equipped for regional as well as neighborhood service to all ages and with elaborate facilities and large staff.

"In suggesting a minimum age, experience and range of salary for the several executive and supervisory positions, the committee has differentiated between cities of three sizes of population.

"It should be recognized also that there will be necessary

[6] From Bulletin of the National Recreation Association, *Survey of Salaries Paid to Recreation Workers*—1938; p. 4, reproduced by permission of the Association.

TABLE IX

SALARIES OF RECREATION WORKERS [7]

FULL-TIME SEASONAL
(WEEKLY SALARIES SHOWN)

Number of Departments Reporting	Titles	All Departments Highest Salary Reported	Lowest Salary Reported	Median Salary Reported
0	Executive	.....	.....	.....
2	Assistant Executive	$27.00	$21.00	.....
	City-Wide Supervisors of			
46	Playgrounds and/or Community Centers	75.00	10.00	$24.22
6	Music	28.00	10.00	19.11
9	Dramatics	33.33	10.00	15.00
10	Athletics	25.00	11.11	15.33
5	Girls and Women	24.00	10.00	20.00
5	Boys and Men	31.11	10.00	20.00
17	Arts and Crafts	28.00	9.00	16.66
3	Nature	20.00	13.33	17.00
12	Dancing	27.00	10.00	20.00
6	Construction and Maintenance	35.00	10.00	12.22
127	Playground Directors and Playleaders	38.00	8.77	16.50
12	Community Center Director	30.00	8.00	14.00
29	Specialist	45.45	8.88	18.00
6	Camp Director	38.88	8.00	26.25
13	Manager of Golf Course	58.00	18.00	35.00
33	Manager of Pool or Beach	42.00	16.00	27.50
30	Swimming Instructor	40.00	8.00	17.50
70	Life Guard	34.00	10.66	18.25

differences in salary bases in different regions of the country where salaries in comparable related fields vary, where living costs may vary; in certain types of communities such as suburban communities with more than average wealth and where other local conditions would effect some modification of general salary standards for the country as a whole. It should be recognized that the duties to be performed in a small city are as important relatively as those in the larger city; also that there are some communities, regardless of size, where public understanding and

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 9.

appreciation of community recreation needs have developed far beyond the average understanding and where such communities will want to pay a salary or salaries in excess of these average standards in order to secure the unusually capable personnel necessary to carry on a pioneering demonstration program."

A survey of salaries paid to recreation workers in 218 recreation departments in 206 cities and five counties as of 1938 was made by the National Recreation Association. The information revealed by this study is contained in Table VIII which shows the annual salaries paid for year-round positions and in Table IX which shows the weekly salaries paid for full-time seasonal positions.

Working Conditions.

Recreation work is conducted when people are at leisure. Many of the recreation workers must be employed, therefore, during evening hours and on Saturdays, Sundays and holidays. This is a necessary but somewhat disagreeable condition. Recreation executives endeavor to limit the amount of work assigned during such unusual times by causing all recreation employees to share the evening, Sunday and holiday assignments and by placing a definite limit upon the amount of such work any employee may be required to do. One large department requires full-time directors to work four nights per week unless they are assigned to Sunday in which case they may be assigned to work only three nights. The total number of hours worked per week and the time off for vacation, sickness and other emergencies conform to local practice for public workers generally. The same may be said as to workman's compensation, group insurance and public employee's disability and retirement privileges.

Uniform Costumes.

While it is recognized that recreation workers should at all times present a clean and neat appearance and that directors of recreation should be recognizable as such when at work, so far there has been no unanimity of opinion as to how these objects can best be accomplished. A few departments have adopted costumes for playground directors which the employees are required to purchase at their own expense. Uniform costumes have

more frequently been specified for beach and pool guards and for caretakers and gardeners. For those who organize, conduct and instruct, in varied recreation activities, departments are content to prescribe that the dress shall be neat and clean and suitable to the activity being directed. Sometimes a sweater or shirt with an emblem is prescribed for use in athletic and gymnastic activities and arm bands, sun visors and badges are also used as insignia indicating official connection.

Employees' Organizations.

Recreation workers like other public employees with professional interest affiliate with organizations of local, state and national scope for mutual benefit. The National Recreation Association enrolls many members among the lay and professional persons connected with public recreation. The Association publishes bulletins, the monthly magazine "Recreation," and books dealing with a wide variety of recreation topics; conducts national and district conferences and maintains a staff of district workers in the field who make surveys and advise and counsel local public recreation agencies and exccutives. This organization has been in existence since 1906. The American Institute of Park Executives is a membership society composed largely of superintendents of park departments of cities and other executives interested in park work. In 1938 the Society of Recreation Workers of America was formed to provide a membership organization for recreation workers of all ranks in private and public agencies. "Recreation," the magazine published by the National Recreation Association, is the official journal of this society as well. The American Physical Education Association, which was first organized in 1885, at its national convention in 1937, enlarged its scope to include divisions of health education and recreation. The name was changed to the "American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation." It also consummated plans, long in process of preparation, to affiliate with the National Education Association. The former Association is organized into district and state associations. Nearly all of its members are connected with schools, colleges and universities. It publishes a monthly magazine known as the "Journal of Health and Physical Education" which has a large circulation. Another organization recently formed is

known as the Association of Leisure Time Educators. Several states have state associations of recreation workers and the employees of the large public recreation departments have their local societies. There has been thus far no movement to unionize recreation workers.

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XXI

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF RECREATION WORKERS

UNIVERSITY and college preparation for recreation work is usually given in departments of education, physical education and sociology. In 1929 fourteen institutions in America offered certificates in social work with specialization in recreation. Half of these offered a curriculum for graduate students. In eight of the institutions the curriculum was included in a school or department of social work or sociology. In two the curriculum was offered in the department of education and in two in the department of physical education. Three of the institutions were not connected with any university. Numerous other teachers' colleges, universities, and schools of social work which did not offer a complete recreational curriculum, nevertheless offered courses related to recreation work, usually in the department of physical education.[1] Since 1929 several other universities have instituted major courses for the preparation of recreation workers.

In recent years universities and teacher training colleges everywhere have instituted training courses for recreation workers. While few have considered that the opportunities for employment in this field justified the setting up of major professional curricula in recreation, all have offered one or more courses for persons desiring to prepare themselves in this field. The problems of leisure have influenced the content of courses in educational theory and practice and in sociology as well as in the fine and applied arts.

The concern which universities and colleges have for the problems of recreation, and their desire to adapt their curricula to

[1] Noble, Emily Harris, *Status and Professional Preparation of Recreation Workers*, University of California Press, Berkeley, California, 1931.

present day and future needs in this field, was demonstrated in the response made by them in 1938, to the invitation of the Recreation Division of the Works Progress Administration and the University of Minnesota to attend a conference for the discussion of professional training for recreation. A second conference was held at the University of North Carolina in 1939. The reports of these conferences contain an excellent interpretation of the entire problem. The report of the sub-committee on curriculum of the first conference which is quoted in part below is especially significant.[2]

I. *Education for Leisure on the Undergraduate College Level*

Traditional college education has been concerned primarily with preparing students to make a living. It has neglected or ignored other essential functions which the individual must perform in the contemporary community, such as making a home, keeping healthy, keeping continuously oriented to changes in life around him, developing a dynamic philosophy, sharing in the opportunities and obligations of citizenship and, of special concern to us, using his new leisure.

We affirm that it is the function of education to equip persons to live effectively. We assert, furthermore, that to live effectively in our day, education for leisure is of coordinate importance with vocational education, however broadly conceived.

A new view of the curriculum is indicated and a greatly vitalized, that is to say, functionalized, method of directing the experience of students must be substituted for traditional procedures. We think of the curriculum as being coextensive with the life of the student, and the college as a community of living, not merely an institution of learning. It is the conviction of this committee that leisure is expanding at such a phenomenal rate that not only must the colleges educate students to manage their own leisure more effec-

[2] Recreation Division of the WPA and University of Minnesota, *Report of College Conference on Training of Recreation Leaders*, Mimeographed Report of the Recreation Division, Office of the WPA, Washington, D. C., 1938.

tively, but they must develop leadership in college students, even though they do not go into recreation as professionals. This must be done in order that communities may have at least a minimum of resources in personnel to give leadership to the community's leisure. This is particularly necessary in smaller and rural communities. It will be years before America will demand or produce professionals in recreation in quantity to compare, let us say, with professionals in education. Colleges must prepare persons to live with leisure and to share together in community planning. This cannot be postponed until the supply of specialists is available.

II. *General Education in the First Two Years of College*

We see the following steps as being fundamental in providing education for leisure for all. This type of education will also provide the basic culture for those few who will later take the professional training courses for recreation leaders.

A. The curriculum of general college education must be reorganized in terms of certain broad functional categories. Research and experimentation at such institutions as the University of Minnesota and the State Teachers College at Mount Pleasant, Michigan, would seem to indicate that the following four areas of experience might adequately serve this purpose:

1. Vocational orientation
2. Home and family life
3. Personal life
4. Socio-civic participation

The basic phase of general education is provided by core or survey courses given in each of these functional areas during the first two years of college.

B. The consideration of leisure in general education should serve as a *part* of a frame of reference for every survey course. We mean by this that whether the orientation be to the biological field, the humanities, or the social sciences, or whether it be to the four areas of experience enumerated above, a dominant objective or emphasis should be to arouse curiosity, develop ap-

preciation and to generate a continuing amateur pursuit which would ordinarily occupy one's leisure. This implies chiefly a reconstruction in curriculum organization and teaching method.

C. Explicit and extended consideration should be focused upon the facts concerning, and the significance and meaning of, the expansion of leisure in our society in a separate, though related unit, which would survey recreation or leisure in the modern world. This latter course will serve as a pre-professional course for those who are considering recreation leadership as a vocational future. Rightly conceived such a course will orient all students to recreation trends while serving as a professional orientation course for those considering recreation as a vocation.

D. Opportunity for active participation should be provided for all undergraduate students in such fields as the following: arts, crafts, drama and related theater activities, music, dancing, sports, games, literature, and nature study. While presented from the standpoint of the amateur, the objective of which is enjoyment rather than excellence of performance, high standards of quality should be maintained in all activities. Efforts should be made to conduct recreational activities for men and women jointly. There is a further need to provide for an understanding and critical appreciation of motion pictures in the 85,000,000 people that attend weekly. Care should be exercised in the education of youth to promote at least some activities that are likely to insure participation on the adult level. The values of competition need to be conserved rather than exploited by unwise and extreme use of artificial incentives.

E. The final proposition or suggestion has to do with the whole area of campus organization and life. Student self-government is likely to be built upon a false set of assumptions. Really important matters are frequently reserved for faculty consideration and control, whereas students and faculty

need to explore the possibilities of a partnership in developing policies and practices relating to campus affairs. The total college community needs to be organized cooperatively, students and faculty sharing responsibility quite apart from prestige qualifications. In facing common problems together, in getting at the facts of given situations, in formulating plans, in putting plans into action, in evaluating outcomes—in these ways, and in these ways chiefly, will students acquire the ability to work with other persons effectively and with equity. It is in these ways too that students will get actual experiences in democratic participation and responsibility, and will achieve respect for the high meanings and values of the democratic ideal.

III. *Professional Education at the Upper Division Level*

This phase of our report is divided into two sections: one (A) on the basic or horizontal areas of learning common to any curriculum for recreational leaders; the other (B) on the vertical or specialized professional areas.

A. These basic courses may be considered as common requirements for all specialized major curricula described in division two, or they may be thought as comprising an undergraduate minor, or, in situations where not even a minor can be provided, these courses may be considered as functioning for recreational leadership training regardless of the vocational or cultural major curriculum taken by the student. These basic training areas are functionally described without course titles being given or assumed. They are:

1. Study of the personality of the individual from the biological, psychological and sociological points of view. This is not a course in biology, psychology, or sociology but cuts through all three fields of learning. If the course is given in one of these three departments, great care should be used to see that all three phases of the development of the individual are considered.

2. A study of community resources and community needs, with special reference to recreation.
3. A study of group organization and leadership in the field of recreation.
4. A study of physical and mental health, safety education and elementary first aid. In some situations much of this study can be given in the first basic area named, that of a study of the personality, while in other colleges, the medical school or hygiene department may organize a course or courses covering the topics named.
5. A study of advanced courses in the arts and crafts. This is an extension of certain or all of the art activities initiated in the first two years of college. The very nature of skill development demands at least some degree of expertness for all recreation leaders who would carry over into the professional or even volunteer leadership field. In addition, however, these advanced courses should include added theory and techniques necessary for community or group applications such as methods of teaching community music and directing drama, etc. Regardless of the specialized curriculum chosen in division two every recreation leader should have a certain repertoire of arts and crafts, skills and understanding.
6. Field work problems, including supervised and directed field experience and practice teaching.

B. The number of vertical or specialized professional curricula that could be considered in even a large university is strictly limited. The curricula outlined here are considered as broad fields, determined on the basis of both university organization and vocational outlets. The details of each of these curricula should be left to each institution, which in turn must often wait for research information and job analysis. In some respects

these specialized curricula are extensions of the basic horizontal areas of education. Every leisure time worker should have knowledge of arts and crafts, sports and games, and other forms of voluntary group activity, but these areas can also be carried forward in professional specializations that provide the largest opportunity in job outlets. The four most desirable curricula are:

1. Arts and Crafts (music, dancing, graphic and plastic arts, handicrafts, etc.)
2. Dramatics (acting, theory and practice in directing and producing, festivals, pageants, plays)
3. Sports and games (and other organized and non-organized physical activity)
4. Other voluntary group enterprises (clubs, camping, social education, forums, etc.)

IV. *Graduate Work of from One to Three Years*

This capstone of the training of recreation leaders is reserved for administrative curricula. It is felt extremely unwise to attempt to train for administrative and supervisory positions at the undergraduate level. Such responsibilities demand experience as well as training and the greatest value of the training curricula will be realized by graduate students with actual job experience. To offer such curricula at the undergraduate level is to do violence to the significance of the work involved. Such provision will also give unwarranted encouragement to immature and inexperienced students to anticipate administrative positions. The three basic curricula at the graduate level are:

1. Administration
2. Supervision
3. Coordination of Community Work.

Training and Professional Opportunities.

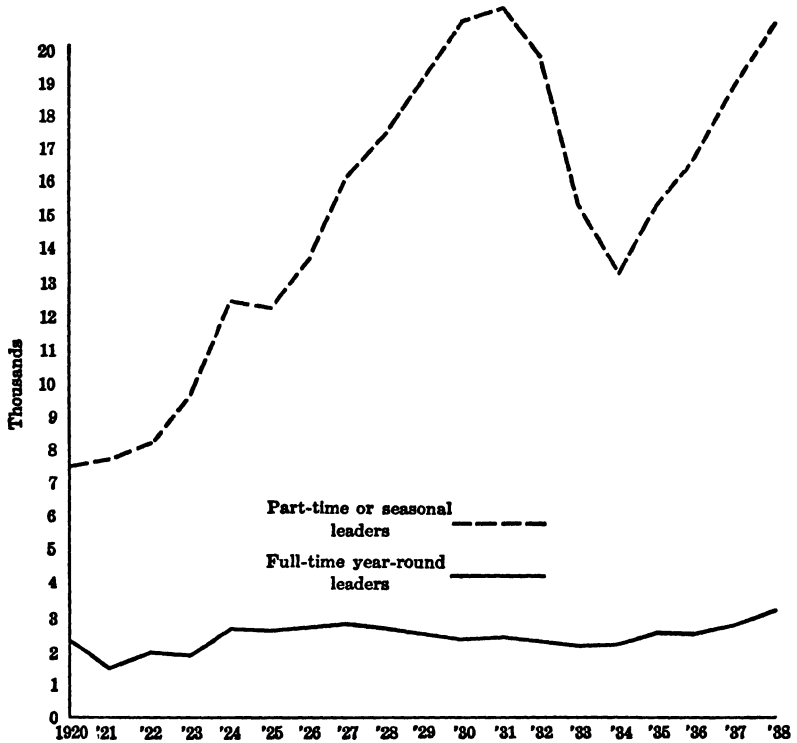
Training institutions face a serious dilemma. On the one hand they recognize the great need for trained personnel to organize and lead the leisure time activities of the American people. At the same time they are faced with the fact that professional employment in this field has not kept pace with the fast developing

needs and further that compensation of recreation workers is not on a plane commensurate with high standards of pre-entry preparation. The number of persons gainfully employed by local public agencies conducting recreation was roughly 3,300 on full

CHART 11

GROWTH IN NUMBER OF COMMUNITY RECREATION LEADERS PAID FROM LOCAL FUNDS

As reported to the National Recreation Association by cities in the U.S.A. and Canada



time and 21,000 on part-time or on seasonal work in 1938. The number of persons employed for similar work by private or quasi-public agencies was approximately the same. This amount of employment and the rate at which it has been increasing does not call for the immediate inauguration of complete professional curricula in all universities and other teacher training institu-

tions. At the same time it must be recognized that the improvement of professional preparation and the turning out of trained workers by educational institutions will tend to elevate the standards of compensation, promote the employment of trained rather than unprepared workers, and improve the quality of work done.

The preparation for public recreation work need not be considered wholly apart from that required in many private and commercial recreation fields. Commercial recreation is a rapidly growing field of employment and calls for some knowledge and skills required also in the public work. The possibilities of placement in commercial recreation have not been sufficiently surveyed to be appraised with any degree of accuracy, but it is evident that professional preparation may be directed toward both private and public work.

In-Service Preparation of Recreation Workers.

Like all new public services recreation departments have found it expedient to organize continuous programs of in-service training for their employees, most of whom have been recruited with comparatively little previous special training directly related to their duties. Some departments, which employ each summer a considerable number of summer playground workers, hold a preentry course or institute of training to better systematize their processes of selection and also to prepare the workers for their summer work. In-service training programs consist in general of six types of training procedures which are as follows:

1. *Supervision of the employee on the job to which he is assigned.* The first concern is to render the employee more competent to perform the immediate tasks assigned to him. This training is closely related to careful assignment of the job to the employee. The nature of the job and its relation to the interests and capacities of the worker may constitute a forceful incentive to improvement. This method of training includes, in addition to frequent visitation of a competent supervisor, personal counseling of the employee by his supervisor and others competent to give guidance.
2. *Staff meetings.* These meetings are held weekly or monthly. They include discussion of policies, programs and regula-

tions; presentation of useful materials, interesting books and articles; demonstration of new and proven techniques; and lectures by non-staff members on related knowledge.

3. *Attendance at professional conferences of recreation workers and similar groups.*
4. *Visitation of other recreation centers within and without the local recreation system for observation of programs and methods employed by others.*
5. *Stimulation of home study by calling attention to extension courses, new literature, study outlines, etc.; and by development of a department library.*
6. *Short term institutes.* These institutes are often conducted by staff executives with the aid of recreation directors especially skilled in certain fields and often by outside agencies such as the councils of social agencies and the National Recreation Association. The latter has in recent years offered institutes with a highly skilled instructional staff in such subjects as organization and administration of recreation programs, conduct of girls' and women's activities, leadership of social recreation, community music, arts and crafts and nature study. These institutes are conducted under the sponsorship of local recreation departments. Short term training institutes vary in a number of ways as the following list will indicate:

   A. Intensive institutes requiring the full time of the enrollees for several successive days.
   B. Institutes consisting of one or more periods per week for a given season.
   C. Comprehensive institutes of either type above mentioned covering a variety of subjects, often undertaking to give a superficial survey of the entire field of knowledge related to the work.
   D. Institutes specializing in a single activity or field of administration.
   E. Institutes limited to lectures, discussions, and demonstrations.
   F. Institutes which include practice of recreational skills under instruction.

The Recreation Division of the Works Progress Administration of the United States Government has conducted the most exten-

sive in-service training program for persons engaged in recreation work ever attempted. Eighteen thousand workers were assigned in 1935 to recreation leadership projects by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration in thousands of communities, most of which had had no previous public recreation programs. This number of workers within a year had increased to over 45,000 under the Works Progress Administration, almost twice the number of workers employed by regularly established local community recreation agencies for part-time, full-time and seasonal work. Practically none of the emergency workers had had previous experience as directors of public recreation, although many brought to their new emergency jobs recreational skills which they had developed in their own avocational experience or in vocational experience in other fields. The necessity for a widespread in-service training program was immediately evident. Such a program was initiated by the several state administrations under instructions from the Recreation Division of the WPA in Washington. In two years 75,841 individuals had been at some time participants in the training program.

The effectiveness of this program was appraised by the WPA in a study completed in 1937 from which the following paragraphs are quoted: [3]

"SUBJECT MATTER STRESSED IN TRAINING PROGRAMS BY NUMBER OF STATES

Subject Matter	*Number of States*
Music	43
Drama	43
Handicraft	43
Physical activities	40
Theory and philosophy of recreation	33
Social recreation	28
Dancing and rhythmics	25
Administration and organization of recreation	25
Method of leadership	24

[3] Works Progress Administration, *Summarized Report of the Findings of a Survey of the In-Service Training Program of the Division of Recreation*, 1938, Washington, D. C., Bulletin 12450.

Community organization	24
Art	23
Gameroom activities	21
Safety	20
Health and sanitation	20
Nature lore	15
Camps and camping	9
Story-telling	7
Folklore	7
Recreational therapy	6
Facilities	5
Education	5
Sociology	5

"In brief, State Directors were of the opinion that in-service training affected the quality of work, produced more capable leaders, changed the public's viewpoint toward the problem of leisure, caused community-wide interest and greater participation in recreational activities, promoted the development of the cultural fields, and developed more effective types and techniques for training on the job.

"The material gathered in this study would seem to point toward the following statements:

"1. Many individuals, who do not possess academic qualifications for professional work, with job-training can develop and maintain high standards of work in the field of recreation. It is not implied that job-training is an adequate substitute for academic work.

"2. There is a growing demand and need for the training of volunteer workers in recreational fields.

"3. The type of in-service training that can be done by any agency is influenced by the extent and nature of assistance granted by colleges, universities, normal schools, and libraries.

"4. Recreation administrators and supervisors tending as they are toward the greater use of informal methods of teaching need special assistance in the use of discussion methods, demonstrations, visual materials, and the unit of interest method.

"5. There are and will be a large number of recreation workers who do not live in or are not accessible to middle-sized and large cities. For such workers, in-service training is more neces-

sary than for those who have easy access to experts and reference materials. The development of a new type of correspondence training, extension courses, widespread distribution of bulletins, reading lists, traveling exhibits and portfolios would provide means by which training materials could be gotten to those workers who can be serviced infrequently, if at all, by traveling specialists.

"6. Cultural activities in communities are on the upswing, but the further development of a correlated, cultural, community recreation program requires a new approach to the teaching of music, drama, dancing, nature lore, crafts, the visual arts, puppetry, etc.

"7. The WPA program has employed a large number of people whose exceedingly useful recreational experience should be taken into consideration if in the near future some of them without academic qualifications should desire to pursue such work.

"8. Special incentives are needed for recreation workers who possess ability to discover and apply new techniques in the fields of group work and progressive recreation. This might take the form of scholarships, grants, and special admissions to professional schools, colleges, and universities.

"9. Recent experiences indicate that many college and university graduates have not been able to secure certain types of courses necessary for successful operation in their particular fields. Among such topics are: recreational therapy, public administration related to recreation, social and economic problems of leisure, survey techniques, the use of social data, the functional planning and use of facilities."

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XXII

PUBLIC RELATIONS

A RECREATION department cannot render the fullest service of which it is capable without the support of public opinion. The public opinion which supports the recreation department is based upon understanding and good will. The process by which greater understanding and good will are fostered and developed is known in business and professional enterprises as public relations. Public relations are such contacts and responses between an enterprise and the general public as tend to promote a better mutual understanding and good will.

Private enterprises have long recognized that favorable public relations are vital to their success and that they may be consciously planned and created. For this purpose they give attention to every detail of their operations which brings them into contact with the public and oftentimes employ specialists as public relations counselors to organize a comprehensive program of public relations for the entire establishment including programs of publicity and advertising. Public tax supported agencies in the past have not been so aware of the necessity for planned public relations. This day is fast passing. Public administrators are now tending to adopt the methods of private business in this respect subject, however, to very proper legal restrictions.

Among the legal restrictions which prevent the complete adoption of the methods of private business in this field is one which prohibits the use of tax funds by governmental agencies for purposes of advertising, unless specific authorization has been granted by the state legislature, or by the city charter in the case of home rule cities. Such authorization has been given in a number of instances, particularly for advertising and exploiting the advantages of the city or county as a residential or industrial place; but no authorization has been granted to departments to advertise them-

selves or their own services. The latter has been opposed on the ground that it would constitute a use of public funds for purposes of keeping the incumbent administration or officials in office.

Notwithstanding this traditional prohibition it has been generally recognized that public agencies and departments have an implied obligation to inform the public whom they serve concerning the work done and the services and benefits available to the public through their operations. Processes of imparting public information have been considered to be incidental to the purposes for which the agencies have been established. The expenditure of a reasonable portion of the funds for disseminating information and for reporting has been construed as a proper use of public funds.

While public departments do not advertise, in the strict sense, they are more and more employing the methods of publicity. A distinction between the two terms can be made. Advertising in the business world is for the purpose of directly promoting or creating sales. Publicity makes no sales but promotes good will and understanding. Advertising is a commodity for which a price is paid; publicity usually is associated with "news" and flows through channels which are free. The propriety of the use of publicity in public work will have to be judged in relation to its purposes. Publicity, however, represents only one of many methods of public relations used by recreation departments.

In all public relations work, undertaken by public departments, there is a mutuality of interest on the part of both the public and the department, which is the improvement of the public service. There is also a duality of relationship; the public desire to express their wishes, demands and criticisms and to bring about adjustments on the part of the department to them; the department on the other hand desires to ascertain the interests and needs of the public and to inform the public concerning the services which are available in the department to serve these interests and needs. The department desires also to adapt itself to the changing interests and needs insofar as it is permitted to do so consistent with its powers. The department will consider as part of its public relations program measures which it may take to become informed concerning the public as well as the means it adopts to interpret itself to the public and to create public good will toward the department.

Good public relations are important to all departments of government, but none is more dependent upon publicity as a part of the public relations program than the recreation department. All of the activities programs and other work of the department are absolutely dependent upon public knowledge of them and support based on understanding. The department must overcome inhibition and apathy by the use of publicity. Some of its activities are on a revenue-producing basis, and their continuance depends upon the paid attendance. Participation in the activities of the recreation department being purely voluntary the department must employ the methods of salesmanship to secure the maximum public response.

The means at the disposal of the recreation department for public relations may be considered as of two types, first the internal means wholly under the control of the department itself, and second the external means, or those subject to the cooperation or control of other agencies.

Internal Means of Public Relations

Physical Facilities and Public Relations.

The physical facilities and equipment are a "front" for the department. The impression of many is gained from their contact with the department through its facilities and their condition. If the office has a neat and businesslike appearance, if the grounds are well laid out and carefully maintained, if the buildings are in good repair and kept in a clean and orderly manner, the esteem in which the department is held by the public will correspond. Recreation departments must insist upon the standard of physical appointments being equal to that which applies to other departments. At the start there is a tendency on the part of the city fathers to quarter the office of the department in some place detached from the city hall with facilities incomparably worse than those enjoyed by other departments. Likewise a standard of maintenance of buildings and grounds is tolerated far below that which would be acceptable for fire stations, police stations and other longer established departments. Recreation departments are themselves in part to blame for this condition because they are so im-

bued with interest in the activity program and its educational implications that they are sometimes inclined to pay insufficient attention to the other aspects of their work.

Printed Circulars and Reports.

The annual report which all recreation departments prepare and submit to the mayor and city council and which most of the departments publish and distribute in considerable quantity, provides information helpful to the citizens in interpreting the value of the work. It is a comprehensive and consolidated statement of the whole problem and accomplishment of the department during the year. If its full value is to be derived its format should be attractive and the contents readable and interesting. Even before publication portions may be extracted and furnished to the newspapers as news. More than any other knowledge the citizen needs information as to where the facilities of the department are located, specifically what services there are which he may enjoy and how he may avail himself and his family of them. The annual report is too voluminous to serve this purpose well or to be published in sufficient quantity Accordingly, departments frequently publish brief circulars containing this information which are available throughout the year to hand to office visitors and to pass out at meetings, exhibitions, and demonstrations. Separate inexpensive circulars may be published in quantity for different types of services as for camping, picnicking, swimming, playgrounds for children, adult hobbies, etc.

Program Demonstrations.

The recreation department has the best opportunity of all departments in the city government to cultivate good public relations. The sum total of its individual contacts with citizens is greater than those of other departments, the contacts are somewhat of an intimate nature and they are relative to occasions which the citizen enjoys. The mood of the citizen when he makes his contact with the work of the department is nearly always a happy, expectant and appreciative one, which is conducive to a fine resultant impression. If the experience of the citizen is a happy one he will publicize it widely by word of mouth. The conduct of the

work on an efficient and high plane and in a manner which merits the approbation of the citizenry is far-reaching in any public relations program.

Employee Contacts.

Every employee in the department is a public relations agent. A larger percentage of the employees of a recreation department come in contact with the public than in any other municipal department. To a large extent public relations are their duty and obligation as well as their privilege. A slovenly caretaker at a neighborhood center, a disgruntled recreation director or a discourteous office clerk can do more damage to the public relations of a department than reams of published material can correct.

These thoughts need to be impressed upon recreation department employees continually for there are always some who do not appreciate their importance. Those who by temperament or incapacity are unable to contact the public advantageously should be assigned to duties in which they come least in contact with the public. It is sufficient here merely to mention the importance of telephone contacts, not only in the office but at the several centers, the courteous conduct of correspondence and the strategic position of the information clerk or receptionist in the central office.

External Means of Public Relations

Newspapers.

The metropolitan newspapers in the largest cities and the leading dailies in other cities are undoubtedly the most important medium of publicity. The attitude of the department toward newspapers should be friendly, cooperative, and at the same time persistent. The person having the department publicity in charge should regard himself as a reporter for all newspapers and attempt to give them the kind of material which is suitable for their particular purpose. Different newspapers have different policies and different ways of presenting the news. It is well for the publicity person to know what these are, so that he may supply their needs. Frequent contacts with news executives are of vital importance in maintaining the relationship of the department to the newspapers.

It is not sufficient simply to write publicity stories and mail them out with the hope of some of them being used. By going to the editors in person, reasons for the use or the rejection of stories may be ascertained and put to good advantage for the future.

The utmost impartiality in dealing with the papers, if there are more than one, is vitally necessary. The greatest frankness must be observed in writing news stories and real news should not be withheld. Through a long period of contacts with editors their confidence is cultivated which is conducive to the growth of co-operation. Types of newspaper publicity which may be used are as follows:

Regular News.

This includes such stories as those dealing with action of the recreation commission, announcements of new policies, dedications of new playgrounds, adoption of budgets, summary of attendance figures and similar items.

Features.

These offer the best opportunities for securing space in metropolitan newspapers since they belong to the class that is known as "human interest" stories. The opportunities for developing this type of publicity are almost unlimited. Boys make a new type of kite, and a picture is then appropriate. Foreign children get together and organize a band, and another feature is possible. Life guards get new equipment and a feature can then be worked up on the speed with which this equipment can be employed in an emergency. The metropolitan newspapers will be found very willing to cooperate in the matter of working up these features. What may be regarded as only a regular news event, may be arranged so as to bring much greater publicity by treating it from the feature angle. For example, at one playground recently, a pedestal upon which children were to place crumbs for the birds, was dedicated. This, in itself, was only good for a small story, but when the same was called a "bird lunch counter" and some stuffed birds were secured and placed on the edge of the counter a real picture subject was thus provided. As a result of this rearrangement, two metropolitan newspapers photographed the counter and published the pictures the next day.

Continuous Publicity.

Under this heading comes publicity intended to popularize municipal camps, swimming pools, golf courses, boathouses and similar facilities. This is the most difficult kind of publicity to "get across" because it is necessary to go over and over the same ground constantly. In other words, it is necessary to hammer away with news stories and pictures on these subjects without necessarily having any real news upon which to hang the story. To do this type of work requires ingenuity in discovering new things to be said about these facilities. Special programs and events at playgrounds or swimming pools help in securing publicity because they furnish an excuse for writing about them. When it is not possible to have these, it is up to the person in charge of publicity to "make" news about them. One way of making news about a municipal camp is to arrange what is known as a "tie-up" with an automobile concern, or its advertising agents. This "tie-up" will result in the automobile concern sending one of its cars to the camp and using the camp as a means of publicity for its car. In this way it is possible to secure "motorlogues" in automobile sections of newspapers, which are read by numerous persons planning vacation trips. The municipal swimming pools are always good places where feature publicity may be worked up whether or not an occasion has arisen to provide an excuse. Special stunts may always be developed there and prove satisfactory for use as swimming pool publicity.

Use of the Special Departments.

When a playground building is built, the real estate section may yield some desirable publicity. The automobile section may be used as outlined above. The sports section, of course, is always useful in chronicling tournaments and sports of all kinds. The Sunday feature section will be found valuable for the publication of some special items. The picture and rotogravure sections are fertile fields for the placing of recreational publicity.

Cooperation With Promotion Departments.

When it is desirable to get continuous publicity for some special activity, the promotion department of a newspaper may

sometimes be found willing to cooperate. The promotion department works to increase the circulation and advertising volume and any type of event or activity which will enlist the interest of any additional readers will be carefully considered by this department for special backing. Model airplane tournaments, backyard playground contests, swimming carnivals, are events which have been backed by newspaper promotion departments in many cities. One paper, by publishing a series of twelve Christmas carols on the twelve days preceding Christmas, gave effective aid to a recreation department program of carol singing on the streets.

Newspapers sometimes conduct athletic and other contests of their own as part of their promotion program. In doing so they solicit the assistance of the recreation department to conduct or officiate at the events. If these contests are free and open to all and are not tied up with subscription campaigns departments often render assistance. Occasionally the events are held at public playgrounds. When the department lends its collaboration in such events excellent publicity can be obtained for a period as long as the events receive notice in the papers. For their own events papers devote a quantity of space far in excess of the space they would allot them if conducted under the auspices of others. The "Soap Box Derby" and the "Roller Skates Derby" held in all large cities and with final national contests are events which many newspapers throughout the country have conducted. Recreation departments assisted in conducting these contests and in return received much favorable mention in the papers.

Annual Editions.

Newspapers put out annual editions every year which summarize various activities for the year. Editors will be found willing to use recreational articles of the summarizing type.

Editorials.

When frequent mention of recreational activities is made in metropolitan newspapers, editorials will come without being sought, as an outgrowth of the good will of the newspaper and their interest in the subject. Another method, however, of securing editorials, is by sending material to editorial writers, packed with "food for thought," for example, the annual report of the

department, statement of attendance for the year, or similar analytical material.

Weekly and Neighborhood Papers.

The issuance of a regular news bulletin to these papers will produce much publicity. This bulletin should contain stories of general interest that are not too lengthy so that they may be used in any size newspaper or magazine. When special information affecting a particular district is available, such as the dedication of a new playground, it is well to send a special story to the neighborhood newspaper covering that district. Because neighborhood newspapers cannot afford the use of many cuts in their news columns they will always welcome the receipt of matrices from which they may cast lead cuts. Recreation departments may use the matrices to illustrate municipal facilities and activities which they are endeavoring to popularize. These materials cost very little and are highly effective.

Magazines.

There are in every community numerous publications of both general and special interest in which it is possible to secure articles on the recreational work. Included in this group are Parent-Teacher bulletins, teachers' journals, magazines of special interest to women, chamber of commerce publications and others of this type. Before writing any articles for these publications it is always best to consult the editor and secure his version of what the magazine needs and wants.

Radio.

Next to newspaper publicity probably the radio is the most important medium for publicizing the activities of the department. Stations are required by the Federal Communications Commission to devote a certain percentage of their time to affairs of civic interest. Recreation conducted under public auspices can be placed in this category. Station managers often welcome opportunities to present good programs emanating from the public recreation work.

There is much competition for radio time now that the radio has "grown up," so programs need to be carefully planned to meet

the exacting requirements of the stations. The radio address is the simplest form of radio presentation but it is also of least value. Amateur dramatic programs are acceptable to many stations if well presented, but stations are usually more receptive to amateur musical programs than to amateur drama. Interviews and novelty programs, such as contests and presentation of awards, are effective. For projects which serve an obvious public purpose, such as May Days, Christmas programs, patriotic occasions, etc., stations will frequently make without cost series of spot announcements in intervals between programs. If an event is of sufficient public interest radio stations will consider the practicability of installing remote control equipment for the purpose of broadcasting the event from where it is conducted.

Exhibits.

Exhibits are worth the effort required to put them on only when large numbers of people get to see them and when they present material which is of general public interest. Consequently, exhibits which are carefully arranged with a view towards presenting a real message, and which are seen by an adequate number of visitors are of considerable value. Recreation departments when invited to participate in general exhibitions, fairs and shows should give serious consideration to participation and its possible benefits. If an exhibit is placed, it should be one that is truly representative of the department's work.

The most effective exhibits are live demonstrations of activities. For example, practical demonstrations of skill in archery, badminton, fly casting, sketching, horseshoe pitching, handicrafts or any of a thousand activities are immeasurably more effective than posters or printed matter referring to them. Among its large clientele any recreation department can easily find many persons who delight in exhibiting personal skills in activities which can be made a part of a department exhibit.

Window Displays.

Window displays may be secured in the windows of banks, department stores, large drug stores and similar business organizations. These should be attractive and representative of departmental activities.

Printed Publicity.

Under this heading may be listed folders, posters, window cards, and other printed material calculated to carry the message of the department to the public. It is well to make these as attractive as possible with photographs, art-work and the like.

The recreation department has splendid opportunities to distribute printed material. It may be posted and handed out at the neighborhood recreation places. Children attending the recreation centers may be asked to take the material to their parents. Since it concerns the public business and is not commercial matter the heads of large industries and business houses are generally willing to distribute the material to their employees. The annual report of the department, in addition to summarizing the work during the fiscal year, may also be used as a publicity booklet by arranging it in attractive, easily read and profusely illustrated form.

Motion Picture and Wire Services, and Syndicates.

Included in this group are the various motion picture newsreel companies, the picture syndicates and press services such as the Associated Press, United Press, etc. These are valuable in securing national publicity for a recreation department. There are many times when this kind of publicity returns to its source and results in local publicity as well. These organizations generally are interested in publicity of the "feature" variety rather than news material of purely local significance. They will use human interest material that is truly "different" or "unusual." Only the best portion of the features suitable for local use are of any value to these agencies. It is well, therefore, to call upon them only on special occasion when there is a feature that people all over the country might view with interest.

"Tie-Ups."

In addition to "tie-ups" with newspapers and their special departments there is another type which is sometimes used and which is of great value. It is the "tie-up" with other civic agencies in a joint program. The Memphis Recreation Department had a

most effective "tie-up" with the local fire department in a fire-prevention educational program. Another department had a "tie-up" with the Parent-Teacher Association and the Department of Education in a "planned vacation program for every child," including a back-yard playground contest. These associated projects resulted in favorable mention of the recreation department in all publicity relative to these events. If a newspaper can be associated in the project it will be most generous with its space. The recreation department must take care that standards of competition and recreational values are left to their determination in such joint projects. It must be assured that participants will not be exploited for private pecuniary or commercial advantage. When a "tie-up" with one newspaper is made other papers as a matter of fixed policy will withhold cooperation. When a department evidences willingness to associate itself with one paper it must, to preserve good will, be equally willing to join with other papers under substantially the same conditions. Nothing is more destructive of newspaper cooperation than partiality in dealing with the several papers.

Motion Pictures.

A number of the larger departments have developed motion pictures illustrating department activities and dealing with public recreation problems. Some also have portable projectors which are used to present programs at civic meetings and other occasions. It is advisable, if a good impression is to be made, that films be up to date and, if possible, in color with sound accompaniment. It is frequently possible to dramatize the motion picture story. With the recent rise of amateur motion picture photography the voluntary aid of competent persons can be enlisted to produce these pictures if professional assistance is prohibitive in cost. Volunteer assistance in dramatization is readily available everywhere.

Public Addresses.

Public speaking affords another excellent avenue through which public relations may be cultivated. The recreation department has many interesting stories to tell about its general services, its

particular events and activities, the philosophy of its work and related subjects. Its representatives are welcome speakers at ever so many occasions in every community, if they are adept in making public addresses. Members of the recreation board, the superintendent and the several executives in charge of features of the work may be used to fill engagements. Efforts should be made to solicit opportunities of this kind and the staff should be trained by practice and encouraged to cultivate the ability to favorably represent and act as spokesmen for the department at public meetings.

Organization of Public Relations

Small departments of recreation cannot afford to employ a specialist to organize and dispense publicity, but this should not deter them from considerable effort in obtaining a good hearing. Board members and the superintendent will devote much time to public relations work, more in the recreation department than in the more traditional and prosaic departments. The recreation activities are so closely related to the interest of the public that this is inevitable. Other members of the staff can be drawn into the program as well. Each department should have a carefully worked out program in which there is a division of labor among many of the department employees touching upon all or many of the devices enumerated above. This division of responsibility will recognize the peculiar fitness of each person involved.

Larger departments can employ and assign the major duties and the general management of public relations to a specialist. At present no less than a dozen park and recreation departments in large cities do this. The specialist is a "staff" employee and should have access to all phases of the work of the department. He should be associated with the superintendent and should work directly under him, but he should be in close contact with the board, so that he may be aware of the policies and plans of the board. The employment of a special publicity person should not absolve other employees from doing public relations work. Any special publicity undertaken by other employees should be cleared through the specialist. The following is a statement of requirements and duties of a specialist to supervise and direct the public relations of a large recreation department:

DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC RELATIONS AND RECREATIONAL PROMOTION

REQUIREMENTS: Education equivalent to that represented by graduation from a university of recognized standing with major work in journalism; experience in the preparation of publicity material for metropolitan newspapers, district newspapers, and other publications; in the preparation of material suitable for presentation over the radio; in the preparation of printed and advertising materials such as folders, leaflets, window cards, and posters; in the planning and organization of exhibits; knowledge of the methods of contact with groups and organizations for the purpose of disseminating recreational information; knowledge of the preparation of printed annual reports; understanding of the requirements of newspapers and magazines as applied to news photos; experience in the planning of sixteen millimeter motion pictures showing the work of the Recreation Department, the preparation of appropriate continuity for the guidance of the cameraman in making the pictures, and the preparation of proper vocal descriptions to accompany these films when sound is added; understanding of the methods of dealing with established agencies for the dissemination of information, such as newspapers, radio stations, publications, news and picture-gathering agencies, etc.; knowledge of the organization, operation, and functions of the Recreation Department.

DUTIES: To have responsible direction of the publicity and public relations work of the Recreation Department; to organize educational campaigns for special features of the Department's work, such as camps, swimming pools and events of a city-wide nature; to present a continuing program of public relations and publicity which will keep the public informed of the Department's work and recreational opportunities, tend to increase attendance and participation, foster better understanding, correct misapprehensions, and promote development of public recreation generally for the benefit of the city; to employ in the proper manner and in their correct relationships to each other the various media of public relations work, such as newspapers and periodicals and arrange for their publication; to make assignments to photographers and projectionists and supervise their work; to arrange showings of the department's motion pictures; to secure time over radio stations for broadcasts about the Department and arrange programs for such presentation;

to plan and prepare printed materials required by the Department such as folders, leaflets, posters, circulars, and annual reports; to supervise the distribution of printed and advertising materials to groups and organizations; to supervise the securing of space and the installation of exhibits; to plan sixteen millimeter motion pictures of the Department's work, prepare continuity, direct cameramen or other technicians, and prepare properly timed vocal descriptions for sound accompaniment; and to perform related work as required.

Special Campaigns.

Somewhat infrequently there arise occasions when a special campaign of publicity is called for, such as when a bond issue or a charter amendment is before the voters. These occasions call for a comprehensive and widespread campaign lasting over some weeks or months. The use of department funds in such a campaign is sometimes questionable or improper, although much indirect aid can usually be given by the regular establishment. Special publicity campaigns of this kind are best handled by a citizens committee which can easily be organized. Citizens committees, if the issue is important enough, can always find means for raising such special funds as may be needed to carry on special campaigns. These committees need to be carefully guided, and the sources of contributions and campaign aid must be carefully scrutinized in order to avoid any possibility of severe criticism reflecting upon the project or indirectly upon the department.

Revenue-producing recreation projects and activities present a special problem in respect to publicity. Because they produce income they are likely to be judged according to standards that are applied to non-governmental commercial enterprises. There is, of course, the desire of the department to have them produce as favorable a financial outcome as possible. Avenues of publicity open to activities which are free are sometimes closed to activities for which charges are made. If it can be shown that while they produce revenue, they do not yield a profit, this obstacle is sometimes overcome.

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XXIII

ADMINISTRATIVE RESEARCH IN RECREATION

PUBLIC recreation has reached that stage of development in which research is recognized as an essential requisite to further growth. Recreation has now become an important concern of government for which large funds are being expended. Many expensive mistakes are being made because of the scarcity of factual information and recorded experience. Research is required to enable a better understanding to be had of the fundamental objectives of public recreation, the bases for formulation of recreation programs, the processes of leadership and guidance in recreation activities and the efficacy of various forms of organization and procedure. Much of the research which is needed is of a highly specialized academic character which requires the services of specialists in several scientific fields. On the other hand much of it is of immediate practical nature closely related to administrative operations. To the extent that this is so, research may be considered an important function of administration.

All well established public recreation agencies conduct research from time to time, if not continually, and occasionally avail themselves of the research services of special agencies which are organized to provide research services. Some cities and counties have a bureau which conducts research as needed and whose services are available upon request of any department. Universities are usually equipped to conduct research for other agencies, and are frequently requested to aid public departments in making special studies. These are sometimes made free of cost, particularly if they serve directly the purposes of the university. There are several governmental research agencies which have been organized to aid local governments in this respect and whose services may be had for a consideration.

Recreation Surveys

The recreation survey is a product of research which cities, and to some extent counties, have found exceedingly helpful. There are many kinds of surveys in the field of recreation, each of which has its own value and usefulness. The National Recreation Association conducted an extensive inquiry into the leisure habits of 5,000 people. Another splendid study of this type was the study of leisure in a suburban community, Westchester County, New York, which was conducted by the Council for Research in the Social Sciences of Columbia University. There have been comprehensive surveys of cities to determine the nature and solution of their recreation problems. Notable among these are the Recreation Survey of Buffalo, published by the Buffalo City Planning Association, the Survey of Recreation Facilities in Rochester, New York, made by the Council of Social Agencies of that city, and the Chicago Recreation Survey by Northwestern University and the Chicago Recreation Commission. The Recreation Survey of New York and Environs made by the Russell Sage Foundation is another excellent example. Surveys have also been made of the work of public recreation agencies or departments, and of their administrative organization. Departments themselves frequently appraise their own services and survey the work of a single institution or recreation center or the neighborhood which it serves.

Recreation surveys vary not only in subject matter which they cover, and in their comprehensiveness, but also in their immediate purpose. Some are intended as an exhaustive compilation of relevant subject matter as a reference guide for technical students; some are intended only for popular use to inform the general public rather than the technical student or administrator; others are designed primarily as a basis for a definite recommended program which finds its factual support in the subject matter analyzed; still others are intended as a technical guide to the administrator.

An outline for a comprehensive recreation survey of a city is given below. This type of survey would provide a basis for the planning of physical facilities and program and for the organization of an agency or agencies to administer the public recreation program.

OUTLINE OF A COMPREHENSIVE RECREATION SURVEY

A. Geography and topography of the city

Description of the physical nature of the city, including its size, boundaries, street development, major traffic arteries, railways, industrial, business, small family and multiple residential zones. This information may be graphically described with the aid of maps.

Method: City Engineer's maps, traffic surveys, public utility corporation files and maps, airplane photographs, reconnoissance

B. Population

Analysis of the population which inhabits the city

a. Density of population by neighborhoods
b. Distribution of population by age groups
c. Employed youth population
d. National groups, if any, and residential location of same

Method: U.S. Census, school enrollment, public utility corporation records, consular offices, foreign church records, reconnoissance

C. Socio-economic factors

1. Economic factors
   a. Property and land valuations
   b. Housing
   c. Purchasing power
   d. Dependency
   e. Indigence and relief
   f. Unemployment

   Method: Examination of records and reports of public housing and social work agencies; statistics of mercantile agencies, public utilities, chambers of commerce, U. S. Census Bureau, real estate bureaus, assessors' records, building permits, etc.

2. Political and governmental factors
   a. Organization of city, county or other governmental subdivisions
   b. Organization of public agencies rendering recreation services

c. Policies, administrative practices and program of public recreation agencies
d. Budgets of public agencies
e. Tax structures: tax rates, assessed valuation, etc.
f. Cost analysis of recreation services

Method: Examination of public records and reports, the city charter, interviews, other surveys, etc.

3. Social factors
   a. Social agencies: their organization, finance, relationships, program; possible duplication and competition; unserved areas
   b. Delinquency trends, problem districts, kinds of offenses, treatment
   c. Public opinion concerning recreation

   Method: Reports and records of the several agencies, records of law enforcement agencies, records of school attendance officers and probation officers, interviews, analysis of newspaper notices

D. Physical resources for recreation
   1. Analysis and description of areas and facilities available for public recreation activities, considered in relation to neighborhoods and districts
      a. Park and recreation department areas and facilities
         Neighborhood parks and playgrounds
         Community houses
         District and regional parks and playgrounds
         Golf courses
         Picnic grounds
         Zoological gardens
         Stadiums
         Auditoriums
      b. Facilities and areas under school control
         Neighborhood school playgrounds
         Athletic fields of high and junior high schools
         Gymnasiums
         Play rooms
         Auditoriums
         Music rooms

Meeting rooms
Science rooms
Shops

c. Facilities and areas under parochial school control
d. Other community facilities
Libraries
Other public lands, if any
Public places for winter sports
Auditoriums or meeting places
e. Privately owned and institutional facilities
Churches
Lodge rooms and halls
Private fields and facilities available for public recreation

Method: Reports and records of the several agencies involved; original records derived from reconnoissance and inspection

E. Critical evaluation of the public recreation services of existing agencies
1. The park department
a. Policy concerning recreational use of areas and facilities
b. Program of activities
c. Extent of services
2. The recreation department
a. Policies regarding promotion, organization and supervision of activities
b. Program
c. Amount and quality of leadership
d. Extent of services rendered
3. The schools
a. Analysis of several courses of study in relation to preparation for use of leisure
b. Extra-curricular program of activities and extent of participation
c. Extent of use of school grounds and buildings for community recreation activities and leadership for same
d. Policies concerning extension of school services into the recreation field

4. The parochial school
   (Same as above)
5. Library Department
   a. Policy concerning use of facilities
   b. Program including forums, exhibits, debates, and story telling
   c. Extent of services
6. Churches
   a. Policies of individual churches concerning use of facilities
   b. Programs of recreational activity within each church
   c. Amount and quality of leadership
   d. Extent of services
7. Group work agencies; Boy and Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Clubs, Settlements, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., etc.
   a. Program
   b. Facilities
   c. Membership
   d. Leadership
8. Fraternal organizations
   a. Number, type and location
   b. Facilities
   c. Activities
   d. Membership
9. National Societies
   a. Number, type and location
   b. Facilities
   c. Activities
   d. Membership
10. Clubs and Activity groups—athletic, social, dramatic, literary, musical, civic, etc.
    a. Number, type and location
    b. Facilities
    c. Activities
    d. Membership
11. Commercial agencies—theaters, bowling alleys, sport centers, dance halls, etc.
    a. Number, type and location
    b. Facilities
    c. Measure of services

Method: Consult reports of the several agencies; reconnoissance, interview, inspection, correspondence, questionnaires, etc.

F. Recreation habits of the community
   1. Typical recreation patterns for various groups
      a. Elementary school boys and girls
      b. Junior high school boys and girls
      c. High school boys and girls
      d. University boys and girls
      e. Employed boys and girls
      f. Men
      g. Women
      h. Family groups
   2. Appraisal of the status of community development in relation to special activities
      a. Athletics
      b. Music
      c. Art
      d. Drama
      e. Civic life
         Etc.
   3. Community traditions affecting recreation

   Method: Prepare schedules for selected groups to fill out, canvas newspapers, interview leaders, reconnoiter the city contacting groups wherever found, consult transportation company representatives, etc.

G. Diagnosis of the important needs of the community as revealed by the foregoing inquiry insofar as community recreation is concerned
   1. In space and facilities
   2. In programs and leadership
   3. In organization and administration
   4. In finance

H. Recommended program for satisfying the recreation needs of the community

The Continuous Survey.

Efficient administrators conduct continuous surveys concerning the work of their agencies. They have definitely in mind all of the factors and information which affect the work and are con-

tinually adding to their fund of information. Much relevant information comes to the administrator in the routine of his work. A survey file in which such information can be placed for later reference, properly classified, is of practical value to the administrator. Even though the information is never formally transcribed in a document intelligible to others, and never published, it is of value to the administrator to the extent that he uses it as a basis for his own recommendations and planning. When necessary the information can be used to substantiate recommendations when they are questioned. With these considerations in mind, some departments require that the staff at various centers make surveys of their neighborhoods or districts and furnish outlines as a guide to the staff.

Appraisal of Recreation Services

Cities are often interested in appraising their recreation services in relation to standards which apply generally. In some fields of public work objective standards have been developed by which the work of cities may be compared. In public health work, for example, standards have been published by the American Public Health Association and cities are scored periodically in relation to numerous indices accepted by the Association as standards. This procedure enables a city to detect the probable weaknesses in its public health provisions and is also a stimulant for improvement. Public recreation has not yet reached the stage of development where authoritative standards can be set up; however, the National Recreation Association has compiled suggested standards for appraisal and has published them in tentative form.[1] So far they have not been widely used to compare cities, but one large city, Los Angeles, used them in modified form to appraise the services rendered in various comparable districts. The appraisal was very helpful in furnishing a guide for the equalization between districts of the services of the recreation department and in providing an objective basis for recommendations for future development. The standards used by Los Angeles as adapted from the schedule of the National Recreation Association are given below. It should be stated that the standards applicable to physical

[1] National Recreation Association mimeographed bulletin, *Schedule for the Appraisal of Community Recreation.*

facilities and areas have more basis in experience than those related to program. It should also be noted that the standards do not represent an ideal condition but have been roughly computed as a "yardstick" for convenient measurement. Doubtless as public recreation develops, more valid standards will be possible of formulation.

Schedules Used by Los Angeles for Appraising Recreation Services in Twenty-three Districts

Land, Areas and Buildings

A. Total acreage of publicly owned parks, playgrounds, athletic fields, libraries, school playgrounds, for community use, 50 sq. ft. per unit of population
   1. Children's neighborhood playgrounds, 10 sq. ft. per unit of population
   2. District play fields, 15 sq. ft. per unit of population
   3. Special areas
      a. Bathing beaches, capacity for 10% of population
      b. Baseball diamonds, 1 per 25,000 population
      c. Softball diamonds, 1 per 6,000 population
      d. Tennis courts, 1 per 2,000 population
      e. Golf courses, 1 (18 holes) per 54,000 population
      f. Municipal camps, minimum of one

B. Community Center Buildings
   1. Gymnasiums, 1 per 25,000 population
   2. Auditoriums, 1 per 10,000 population
   3. Club rooms, 1 per 5,000 population

C. Swimming Pools, 1 pool for each 50,000 population

Program Service

A. Playground Supervision, 1 Session (morning, afternoon or evening) per 15 population

B. Swimming Pool Supervision, 1 Session per 200 population

C. Scheduled Recreation Program
   1. Physical education activities, 1 period (organized on scheduled time for instruction or practice) per 15 population
   2. Nature activities, 1 period per 200 population
   3. Music activities, 1 period per 1000 population
   4. Dramatic activities, 1 period per 1000 population

D. Community Center Program
   1. Physical education activities, 1 period per 50 population
   2. Music activities, 1 period per 100 population
   3. Dramatic activities, 1 period per 100 population
   4. Arts and crafts, 1 period per 100 population
   5. Social recreation, 1 period per 50 population
   6. Rhythmic activities, 1 period per 100 population
   7. Hobby activities, 1 period per 200 population
   8. "Character Building" groups, 1 meeting per 200 population

Participation and Use
   A. Playground Attendance (per year), 10 times population
   B. Swimming Pool Attendance (participants only), 2 times population
   C. Scheduled Recreation Program (participants only), 3 times population
   D. Community Center Program (participants only), 3 times population

Finance
   $3.00 per unit of population

Note: For each item to be scored a scale was provided. The maximum number of points was allowed if under any item the standard mentioned above was attained. The services in recreation of all public departments were included in arriving at the total score under each head, i.e., Park Department, School Department, Library Department and Playground and Recreation Department.

Research Projects

Research Concerning Attendance.

1. Studies of total attendance at various recreation centers and events. Nearly all recreation departments require that attendance counts be made daily and that reports showing daily attendance be submitted either weekly or monthly. While it is not practicable to have the daily attendance broken down too finely, limited differentiation is practicable; for example, the daily attendance may be differentiated as to morning, afternoon and evening; as to sex; as to spectators and participants; as to scheduled and special events. If the statistics thereby derived are systematically collated

many comparisons between centers and events may be made. The effect of changing policies may be noted, and to some extent the efficiency or "productivity" of staff insofar as the latter may be inferred from attendance. Graphs showing seasonal trends may be made and are found to be of considerable value.

2. Intensive studies of attendance by the method of sampling. For limited periods more specific information concerning attendance may be obtained. The sampling method by which is meant the intensive study of data taken as a fair sample of the general condition, requires more attention to the task of recording data than can be afforded over a long period; moreover, the patrons of a recreation center will tolerate for a short period but not for long the annoyance often caused by solicitation of intimate information. The sampling method affords an opportunity to obtain a variety of information otherwise unknown including such things as the average duration of stay; the frequency of attendance for each person; the relative popularity of activities; the relative appeal of different apparatus; the distance traveled from home to the recreation center; the relative "pull" of different hours of day and night; the age groups served; nationality of patrons, the percentage of population of a given district served by the center and frequency of service; the effect of various barriers such as traffic arteries, rivers, industrial zones, etc., upon attendance; effect of variations in fees charged.

One city determined that its attendance at a regional recreation center was composed largely of non-residents by recording for a period the license numbers of the automobiles which entered the area. Another found that day-to-day attendance at municipal swimming pools and beaches correlated closely with the mean temperature published by the weather bureau and could anticipate the probable attendance by weather forecasts. The latter information aided in the assignment of staff.

The efficacy of playground programs and other matters have been inferred from studies of reasons for non-attendance of people within the district presumed to be served by the center. Such studies involved interviewing of a cross section of the population but much has been learned also from studies of attendance at counter attractions including the nature and amount of street play.

In one suburban district the staff of a large playground with

the aid of temporary personnel, conducted a house-to-house canvas of the entire district from which valuable information on the effectiveness of the playground in the community was ascertained.

Research Concerning Cost.

If a simple system of cost accounting is followed much information of value to the administrator can be obtained especially when the cost accounting is interpreted along with statistics of attendance. The following are some cost studies that have been found useful.

1. Studies of cost of operation of each center and comparison of costs in terms of total attendance, area, facilities, personnel, etc.; cost of operation per unit of attendance; cost of class instruction in different activities; cost of general supervision of different types of playgrounds per capita of attendance; cost of maintaining building and areas; cost of landscape maintenance; cost of utilities such as electric power for various activities and for various types of installation.

2. Durability and cost of various facilities in terms of time and use; for example, surface, apparatus, fences, spring boards, towels, soap, swimming suits, balls, bats, gloves, etc.

3. Studies of cost of office procedures such as mimeographing, dictation, postage, printed forms, promotional printed matter.

4. Studies of employees' travel as to distance, time consumed, mileage cost, maintenance and operation of rolling stock, all in relation to return therefrom in service.

5. Studies of camp costs, including cost of counseling or supervisory payroll in relation to number of campers; salaries and wages of employees who prepare and serve food; cost of camp supplies, cost of meat, fruit, vegetables and other food costs, all computed on the per meal basis. It is very important in camp administration to compute at frequent intervals the cost of food consumed. The summer camp season is so short that definite preparations need to be made for camp cost accounting in order that the tendencies may be known early enough to correct any conditions which require correction.

6. Studies of capital cost of providing land, buildings and structures for different types of recreation centers all in relation to the use and service rendered.

Research Concerning Accidents and Safety.

A definite procedure for reporting accidents and information pertaining thereto is essential to enable studies to be made having as an object the prevention of accidents and minimizing personal and municipal liability therefor. Recreation departments frequently make continuous studies of the following types:

1. Classification of the nature of accidents and relative frequency of each type including fractures, abrasions, contusions, concussions, etc.

2. Studies of apparatus injuries revealing the apparatus in use when accidents occurred and the relative hazards presented by each type of apparatus. Such studies have been the basis for correction of faulty installations and elimination of the most dangerous apparatus.

3. Studies revealing the relative dangers of participation in various types of athletic games and contests. These studies suggest preventive measures for participants and spectators at athletic events.

4. Studies of places where accidents occur in swimming pools and on beaches. These studies are the basis for instruction to pool and beach guards as to where accidents are most likely to occur and what spots require special vigilance; also what locations on beaches are so dangerous as to prohibit swimming there.

Research Concerning Personnel.

Recording of information concerning training, experience and other qualifications of recreation personnel and studies of work done by such employees are of assistance in selecting personnel, arranging for in-service training, assigning of personnel and better understanding of the nature of the work to be done. Studies have been conducted frequently of the following types:

1. Job analyses. Employees for a given period are required to record the duties performed hour by hour. Forms are prepared on which are shown the standard tasks such as general supervision, instruction, counseling, program organization and planning, community contacts and preparing reports. Places are also provided for description of other non-standard duties. These are analyzed as to duties performed and time consumed, and general tendencies

are noted. Similar studies are made of the duties of maintenance and clerical employees.

2. Analyses of training and experience of workers in relation to specific skills employed on the job. These have proved of assistance in indicating the skills which should be sought in selecting employees and in suggesting the nature of in-service training which should be provided.

3. Rating systems. Several systems for rating the work and value of employees have been devised. They are difficult to apply to employees whose work does not lend itself to objective measurement, but within certain limits they are helpful in systematizing the appraisal of employees and in emphasizing the relative value of qualities which contribute to success.

The research projects which have been listed are merely suggestive of the kinds of information of which the public recreation movement stands in need. These researches are of the simplest sort requiring no highly developed research techniques in the social sciences. Nearly every recreation agency is competent to conduct some research on this plane which will not only produce information for immediate practical use but also an attitude and habit of scientific approach to administrative problems. The more deeply involved problems of values and objectives remain the special province of sociologists and others detached from administration and specially trained in the more complex techniques of the scientific investigator.

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FORMS

No.....

Report of Superintendent

Date.....

To the Board of Recreation Commissioners.

Honorable Members:

Subject:

Recommendation:

.....

Superintendent.

Approved ☐ Disapproved ☐ Further Report ☐ Committee ☐

Detailed Report:

Form of Application Blank

PERSONNEL RECORD

Name_____ Date_____

Street Address_____ City_____ Phone_____

Date of Birth_____ Wt._____ Ht._____ U. S. Citizen?_____ How long in city?_____

What dependents have you?_____ Do you own a car?_____

State all physical or health defects_____

Ancestry_____ Foreign languages spoken_____

High School attended_____ City_____ When graduated_____

College attended_____ City_____ Number years_____ When graduated_____

Major courses in college_____

Number of courses in Physical Education or Recreation_____ Total hours_____

Other school work_____

EXPERIENCE—List all recreation positions held for which you have received a salary and any other positions which would help to qualify you for recreation work.

NAME OF EMPLOYER	ADDRESS OF EMPLOYER	WHAT DID YOU DO?	When Employed From	When Employed To	SALARY

(PRINTED ON REVERSE SIDE OF BLANK)

ACTIVITIES CHECK LIST

On the following list, check once any activities you have taken part in regularly, and check twice those in which you have actually organized and directed others. Add any recreational activities not listed.

AQUATICS

_____Life Saving
_____Boating
_____Swimming

ATHLETICS

_____Baseball
_____Basketball
_____Hockey
_____Football
_____Soccer
_____Track
_____Volleyball
_____Playground Ball

CHARACTER BUILDING GROUPS

_____Boy Scouts
_____Y. M. C. A.
_____Girl Scouts
_____Campfire Girls
_____Sunday School
_____Church Societies
_____Other Groups

CHILDREN'S ACTIVITIES

_____Circle Games
_____Relay Games
_____Tag Games
_____Singing Games

DANCING

_____Social
_____Folk
_____Square
_____Clog
_____Tap

DRAMATIC ACTIVITIES

_____Dramatics
_____Pageantry
_____Story Telling

GYMNASIUM ACTIVITIES

_____Tumbling
_____Pyramids
_____Gymnastics
_____Apparatus
_____Calisthenics

MANUAL AND ART ACTIVITIES

_____Model Building
_____Wood Work
_____Crepe Paper Work
_____Paper and Cardboard Work
_____Painting
_____Modeling
_____Sketching

MUSIC

_____Band
_____Orchestra
_____Community Singing
_____Part Singing
_____Harmonica
_____Ukulele
_____Accompanist

OUTDOOR ACTIVITIES

_____Hiking
_____Camping
_____Picnics
_____Nature Study

SPORTS

_____Boxing
_____Golf
_____Horseshoes
_____Tennis
_____Handball
_____Wrestling
_____Archery
_____Bowling
_____Pool
_____Billiards

MISCELLANEOUS

_____Minstrel
_____Vaudeville
_____School Journalism
_____Debating
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

ATTACH
RECENT
PHOTO

SMALL
KODAK PICTURE
IS
SUFFICIENT

Department of Recreation

Playground and Community Center Weekly Report

Record for week ending _____, 194____

Name of Center _____

Entries in the daily journal will be made by director conducting the activity. Chief Directors will verify total report.

Daily Attendance	Sunday		Monday		Tuesday		Wednesday		Thursday		Friday		Saturday		Total Weekly Attendance	
	Par.	Spec.	Par.	Spec.	Par.	Spec.	Par.	Spec.	Par.	Spec.	Par.	Spec.	Par.	Spec.	Par.	Spec.
Morning																
Afternoon																
Evening																
Total																

The above attendance count is the sum total of all persons for the period, including free play, organized activities, and building, sports and playground permit groups. For purposes of determining attendance, one or more visits by one person within a time period, shall be counted as a unit attendance.

Staff Record	On	Off	On	Off	On	Off	On	Off	On	Off	On	Off	On	Off	Staff Visits (Record day and hour)

Daily Journal

Day	Activity	In Charge	Hour	Accompanist	Par.	Spec.	Day	Activity	In Charge	Hour	Accompanist	Par.	Spec.
								Carried over from Column 1					
TOTAL, COLUMN 1							GRAND TOTAL						

CENTER

(PRINTED ON REVERSE SIDE OF REPORT)

FOR WEEK ENDING

WEEKLY PLAYGROUND REPORT

_____ 194____

EXTRA SERVICE REQUIRED

(Should be requested well in advance)

Type of Service	Approved by	Worker Desired	Date	From	To	Reason

SCHEDULE CHANGE REPORT

Type of Activity and Group	New Group Will Begin		Group Now Meeting On		Will Meet		Will Discontinue	Approved
	Day of Week	Hour	Day of Week	Hour	Day of Week	Hour	Date	By

SPECIAL EVENTS FOR NEXT WEEK

Activity	Date	Hour	Activity	Date	Hour

COMMUNITY CONTACTS DURING WEEK

Talks given, conferences with local people, newspapers, etc.

Nature of Contact	Made by Whom	Purpose

SAFETY REPORT

Number Accidents—Minor (Not Reported) Major (Reported)

I hereby certify that I have personally inspected all equipment under my jurisdiction, and found same to be safe for use, with the following exceptions:

I have put out of use the equipment listed above. I further certify that the information given in this report is correct to the best of my knowledge.

Signed _____
Chief Director.

REMARKS: Suggestions for improvement of program, administrative conferences desired, mention of activities especially successful, equipment lost, stolen or wilfully damaged serious disciplinary problems, attendance fluctuation causes, scheduled events which have special publicity value.

WEEKLY SWIMMING POOL REPORT
DEPARTMENT OF RECREATION

Pool ____ For Week Ending Sat. ____, 19____

Attendance		Sun.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Sat.	Total
Boys	A.M. to Noon								
	P.M.								
	If Night 5:00 on								
Men	A.M. to Noon								
	P.M.								
	If Night 5:00 on								
Girls	A.M. to Noon								
	P.M.								
	If Night 5:00 on								
Women	A.M. to Noon								
	P.M.								
	If Night 5:00 on								
Total Paid Attend.									
Total Spectators									
Gross Attendance									
No. Towels Sent									
No. Suits Sent									

Number in Organized Activities	Sun.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Sat.	Total
Boys' Lessons								
Men's Lessons								
Girls' Lessons								
Women's Lessons								
Mixed Group Lessons								
Diving Lessons								
No. of Swimming Tests								
Life Saving Instructions								
Other Org. Act.								
Total in Org. Act.								

Report of Special Programmed Events: Under this heading list events which have taken place during past week, also those planned for coming week, such as Exhibitions, Meets, Pageants, Life Saving Contests, Polo Games, Parties, etc.

Date	Hour	Event	Organization, Remarks	No. Participating	Spectators

Remarks: Record here such items as visits from Superintendent, Supervisor, Maintenance Division, equipment out of repair, causes of attendance fluctuations, complaints, etc.

Suggestions for publicity, pictures, human interest stories, etc.

(Printed on Reverse Side of Swimming Pool Report)

Remarks:

Time Record of all Employees for Week Ending Sat....., 193....

Employees (Last Name First)	Classification	Total Hours Worked Per Week							Total Hours	Rate Per Hour	Total Estimated
			Sun.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Sat.			
		From-to										
		Total										
		From-to										
		Total										
		From-to										
		Total										
		From-to										
		Total										
		From-to										
		Total										

From-to

Total

From-to

Total

From-to

Total

From-to

Total

From-to

Total

From-to

Total

From-to

Total

Total Pay Roll

POOL GUARD RESCUE AND ACCIDENT REPORT

Date Time Guard Victim Remarks

Date Time Guard Victim Remarks

Date Time Guard Victim Remarks

Date Time Guard Victim Remarks

Date Time Guard Victim Remarks

Date Time Guard Victim Remarks

SAFETY REPORT

I have made a daily report of the condition of clearness of the water, and put all dangerous equipment out of service.

(Signed)

Accident Report

Department of Recreation

Note: This report must be sent to the office within 24 hours after the accident.

Name of Injured Person ..... Address .....

Age ..... Sex ..... Phone .....

Date of Accident ..... Hour .....

State Exact Nature of Injury .....

.....

State in Detail How Accident Occurred .....

.....

.....

Give Name and Address of Physician or Hospital Used .....

.....

What Was Done with Injured Person and by Whose Orders? .....

.....

Did a Director Witness Accident? ..... If Not, Where were Directors when Accident Occurred? .....

Give Names and Addresses of Three Witnesses of Accident:

.....

.....

.....

Give your opinion as to cause of accident, whether carelessness of injured, carelessness of another, defective apparatus, violating safety rules, etc.

.....

.....

Was this Activity on Permit? ..... If so, give Number of the Permit ..... Was the injured a spectator or player?

.....

Signed .....

Playground ..... Title .....

Form of Permit

for the Use of Athletic Facilities

PERMIT No.

DEPARTMENT OF RECREATION

Receipt No.....

Amt. .....

Place..... Date....., 193....

Sport..... Time.....

Teams..... vs.....

Issued to..... of.....

Address..... Phone.....

1. **Postponement or cancellation of game must be immediately reported to Sports Office and Playground.**
2. **All permits and schedules are subject to cancellation by the Department of Recreation and are not transferable.**
3. **The Playground Director is in charge of the ground and will interpret all rules and regulations of the Department pertaining thereto.**
4. **Failure of team to appear will result in forfeiture of forfeit fee.**
5. **Manager of team will be held responsible for conduct of players.**

Paid	Part .....
Collect	Spec. .....

JOHN DOE, Superintendent,

By.....

Permit must be handed to Director in Charge.

Form of Permit
for Use of Buildings by Self-managed Groups

DEPARTMENT OF RECREATION

Permit **Date**_____, 193____

Permission is hereby granted to_____
(Name of organization)

to use_____ **at the**_____
(Specific facilities)

Recreation Center on the date of_____, 193____, **from**_____ **to**_____

o'clock for the purpose of conducting a_____
(Type of activity)

This permit is issued with the understanding that_____
(Name of responsible party requesting permit)

of_____, _____, **will be responsible for adherence**
(Address) (Phone)

to "Regulations For the Use of Community Building" enclosed herewith and information printed on the back of this permit. Your organization is classified as a_____ **group, and will therefore be charged $**_____ **for the use of facilities for the hours requested in accord with statement on back of permit. Please forward check or money order made payable to the Department of Recreation, or hand to Director with this permit, which must be relinquished at time of meeting herein authorized.**

JOHN DOE, Superintendent.

By_____

Read information on other side of permit carefully. Permits not transferable.

(Printed on Reverse Side of Permit)

READ CAREFULLY

1. Unless specifically stated on this permit it is understood that the gathering to be held is not a benefit affair, that no admission is to be charged, that no tickets will be sold, and that any collections taken up will be to defray expense of the affair only.
2. If dining room and kitchen equipment is used a deposit must be posted with the Director to cover possible loss or breakage, such deposit to be returned if no such loss or breakage should occur.
3. Charges for use of facilities will be made as follows:
   (a) Program groups—no charge.
   (b) Charter groups—no charge
   (c) Outside groups—If at hours when center is not normally open, $3.00 for first two hours, and $1.00 for each hour or fraction thereafter.
   (d) Private or closed—$3.00 for first two hours and $1.00 for each hour or fraction thereafter.
4. Permits are not issued for later than midnight.
5. The Department of Recreation is not responsible for accident, injury or loss of property.
6. For cause, permits are subject to cancellation by this Department.
7. At all gatherings of young people two or more adults must always be present throughout the affair.
8. In case of disagreement regarding interpretation of regulations governing use of facilities of the Department, patrons are requested to conform to the statements of Recreation Director in charge and submit written report to the main office of the Department.

Recreation Director must sign and return permits to Department Office on Monday morning of each week.

Time group left Building_____

Receipt No._____

Amount_____

Participants_____

Spectators_____

Remarks:_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Recreation Director in Charge.

Recreation Department

Weekly Mileage Statement For Privately Owned Machines

FOR WEEK OR PERIOD ENDING _____, 194__

Name _____ Position _____ Group _____ Class _____

Home Garage _____ Headquarters _____ Round Trip Distance _____ Miles

Auto Make _____ Model _____ License No. _____

REGULAR MILEAGE To Be Filled In By All Employees					HOME MILEAGE ALLOWANCES To Be Filled In By Dispatcher			
	SPEEDOMETER READING							
DATE	Start at Garage	Job or Headquarters Start	Job or Headquarters Finish	Finish at Garage	Regular Mileage	DATE	JOB LOCATION	Job Zone	Home Zone	Allowance
Total Regular Mileage						Total Home Mileage Allowance				

Regular Mileage _____

Home Mileage Allowance _____

Total Mileage _____

Approved _____, 194__

_____
Head of Division.

Calculations, Terminal Points, etc. Checked

_____

DETAILED TRIP STATEMENT

To Be Filled In By All Employees

DATE	TERMINAL POINTS	NATURE OF WORK	DATE	TERMINAL POINTS	NATURE OF WORK

INSTRUCTIONS:—Each owner of a motor vehicle using same for City Business and authorized to receive payment for such service, must make out one of these reports in full each week or period and send same to the Accounting Division. Use both sides. All blanks must be filled in accurately by the employee except "Home Mileage Allowance," which will be filled in by Dispatcher. "Regular Mileage" is obtained by subtracting speedometer reading shown under "Start at Job or H.Q." from "Finish of Job or H.Q." In the "Detailed Trip Statement," specify the exact location visited. Under "Nature of Work" state the class of work performed at that terminal point, giving Job No., Order No. or Permit No., if any.

NOTE: The term "Dispatcher" refers to employee who is charged with the duty of computing mileage allowances.

Department of Recreation

RECREATION SUPPLIES REQUISITION

Playground _____ For the Month of _____

Requested	On Hand	
		ATHLETIC SUPPLIES
		Arm Bands
_____	_____	Doz., Attendant
_____	_____	Doz., Director
_____	_____	Doz., Leader
_____	_____	Doz., Patrol
		Awards
_____	_____	Only, Commendation Certificates
_____	_____	Only, Ribbons, First
_____	_____	Only, Ribbons, Second
_____	_____	Only, Ribbons, Third
_____	_____	Only, Honorable Mention
		Balls
_____	_____	Only, Baseballs
_____	_____	Only, Basketballs, Inseam
_____	_____	Only, Basketballs, Outseam
_____	_____	Only, Croquet Balls
_____	_____	Only, Footballs
_____	_____	Only, Handballs
_____	_____	Only, Inflated Balls, 5-in.
_____	_____	Only, Paddle Tennis Balls
_____	_____	Only, Ping Pong Balls
_____	_____	Only, Playground Balls, 12-in.
_____	_____	Only, Playground Balls, 14-in.
_____	_____	Only, Put Shot Balls, 5-lb.
_____	_____	Only, Rubber Sponge Balls, 1½ in.
_____	_____	Only, Soccer Balls
_____	_____	Only, Volley Balls

Requested	On Hand	
		Bases
_____	_____	Sets (3), Baseball
_____	_____	Sets (3), Playground
		Bats
_____	_____	Only, Baseball, Regulation
_____	_____	Only, Baseball, Fungo
_____	_____	Only, Playground
		Bladders
_____	_____	Only, Basketball
_____	_____	Only, Football
_____	_____	Only, Punching Bag
_____	_____	Only, Soccer Ball
_____	_____	Only, Volley Ball
		Nets
_____	_____	Only, Badminton
_____	_____	Only, Basketball
_____	_____	Only, Paddle Tennis
_____	_____	Only, Ping Pong
_____	_____	Only, Volley Ball, White, Outdoor
_____	_____	Only, Volley Ball, Black, Indoor
		Miscellaneous
_____	_____	Only, Bamboo Bars
_____	_____	Only, Baseball Catcher's Glove
_____	_____	Only, Baseball Catcher's Mask
_____	_____	Only, Baseball Catcher's Protector

Requested	On Hand	
_____	_____	Only, Inflators
_____	_____	Only, Inflators, with Gauge
_____	_____	50-ft. Jump Ropes, No. 10 Sash Cord
_____	_____	Only, Laces, Rawhide
_____	_____	½ Pints, Neatsfoot Oil
_____	_____	Only, Needles, Lacing
_____	_____	Only, Needles, Mattress (for Leather)
_____	_____	Only, Punching Bags
_____	_____	Only, Rubber Patch Outfits
_____	_____	Only, Thread, Linen, for Repairs
		Game Supplies
_____	_____	Only, Bean Bags
_____	_____	Only, Bean Bag Boards
_____	_____	Sets, Chess Men
_____	_____	Only, Checker Boards
_____	_____	Sets, Checker Men
_____	_____	Only, Crokinole Boards
_____	_____	Only, Crokinole Cues
_____	_____	Sets, Crokinole Discs
_____	_____	Only, Croquet Mallets
_____	_____	Sets, Friends (Tags)
_____	_____	Sets, Horseshoes (4 in Set)
_____	_____	Sets, Horseshoe Stakes (2 in Set)
_____	_____	Doz., Jacks (Dozen)
_____	_____	Only, Paddles, Paddle Tennis
_____	_____	Only, Paddles, Ping Pong
_____	_____	Only, Sprinkling Cans (Sand Box)

Playground _____ For the Month of _____

Requested	On Hand	
		Only, Trowels (Sand Shovels)
		Stamp Supplies
		Pkg. Stamps, Cancelled
		Pkg., Stamp Hinges
		Inch, Stamp Sheets, Ruled
		Only, Stamp Tongs
		FIRST AID SUPPLIES
		Roll, Adhesive Tape, 2-in.
		Bot., Ammonia, Aromatic Spirits
		Box, Antiseptic
		Box, Anti-Pyrol, 1 oz.
		Roll, Bandage, 1-in.
		Roll, Bandage, 2-in.
		Roll, Bandage, 3-in.
		Can, Boric Acid, Cans
		Roll, Cotton, 4 oz.
		Bot., Hexylresorcinal, 1 oz. bottle
		Bot., Iodine, 1 oz. bottle
		Bot., Mercurochrome, 1 oz. bot.
		Pr., Scissors, Surgical
		Only, Tweezers
		MECHANICAL HANDICRAFT
		Brads
		Lbs., No. 16, ¾, 1 in.
		Lbs., No. 18, ½, ¾ in.
		Lbs., No. 20, ½, ¾ in.
		Wire Nails
		Lbs., No. 16, ¾, 1 in.
		Lbs., No. 18, ¾, 1 in.
		Lbs., No. 20, ¾, 1 in.
		Doz., Coping Saw Blades
		Pints, Glue

Requested	On Hand	
		OFFICE SUPPLIES
		Pad, Accident Reports, Employees
		Pad, Accident Reports, Patron
		Only, Blotters, Desk Size
		Only, Blotters, Hand Size
		100 Cards, Ruled, 3x5 in.
		25 Cards, Index, for 3x5 in.
		Only, Cards, Invitation
		Only, Cards, Membership
		Only, Trays, Oak, for 3x5 in. Cards
		Box, Clips, Paper
		Doz., Envelopes, Stamped
		Only, Erasers, Blackboard
		Only, Erasers, Ruby Rubber
		Only, Expense Sheets
		Only, Files, Letter
		Only, Files, No. 591, for Folders
		Only, Folders, Manila
		Only, Grip Binders, Letter, No. 400-S
		Bot., Ink, Black, Desk Size
		Bot., Ink, Red, Desk Size
		Sheets, Letter Heads
		Only, Letter Trays, Wire
		Pads, Office Memorandums
		Sheets, Paper, 8½x11 in., White Bond
		Sheets, Paper, 8½x13 in., White Bond
		Sheets, Carbon, Pencil 9x12 in.

Requested	On Hand	
		Sheets, Carbon, Typewriter 8½x13 in.
		Box, Paper Fasteners
		Only, Pencils, No. 2
		Only, Pencil Sharpeners
		Only, Pencil Sharpener Blades
		Only, Pen Holders
		Doz., Pen Points
		Pads, Requisitions, Caretaker
		Pads, " Handicraft
		Pads, " Mechanical
		Pads, " Miscellaneous
		Pads, " Recreation
		Box, Rubber Bands
		Scratch Pads
		Only, Small
		Only, Medium
		Only, Large
		Pads, Time Sheets, Blue
		Pads, Time Sheets, Pink
		Box, Thumb Tacks
		Only, Visors, Directors
		Only, Waste Baskets, Volcot
		Only, Waste Baskets, Wire
		Only, Weekly Reports
		Only, Weekly Reports, Half Sheets.

Director.

Use "Miscellaneous Requisition" form for items not listed.

No requisition honored unless "ON HAND" shown.

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