

A STUDY OF THE TREND IN THEORY AND  
PRACTICE OF PHYSICAL EDU-  
CATION SINCE 1900

by

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The thesis of Raymond J. King,  
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The purpose of this study is to present a theory and practice of physical education in the thirty-five years of the twentieth century, and to influence the trends and development of physical education.

## I. INTRODUCTION

### A. General Statements

The physical education movement is perhaps the oldest of all educational movements.

In order that the reader might fully appreciate the progress made by physical education after 1900, this thesis includes a brief history of physical education up to that time.

A trend is usually considered an inclination in a certain direction or a general tendency by which a thing moves. In physical education, "trend" would not be appropriate, for the extremes which characterized the movement make it necessary to use "trends".

There is no attempt to give a detailed history of the physical education movement, nor to exhaust any one phase in the trends of physical education. This thesis is an effort to show briefly and concisely what has happened in the field of physical education since the beginning of the twentieth century.

### B. Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to show the trends in theory and practice of physical education during the first thirty-five years of the twentieth century, the factors influencing the trends, and the results of such influences.

### C. Method of Collecting Data

The material and information were obtained by analyzing the articles written in the Journal of Health and Physical Education,<sup>1</sup> the Journal of Education (American), and the Elementary School Journal<sup>2</sup> from the year 1900 to the present time; and by analyzing text and reference books in the field of physical education which had material related to the magazine articles.

### D. Brief History of the Physical Education Movement up to 1900

The first physical educator was the parent who taught his son how to throw, to jump, and to climb; and in company with others, instructed him in standards of the group to which he belonged. Until the Greeks made their contributions to the world, little was known of the educational beginnings. Records and history show that the ancient Greeks had a system of education to develop and perfect the body as

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<sup>1</sup>The Journal of Health and Physical Education is a continuation of the American Physical Education Review. The latter was discontinued in 1929, and has since gone under the name of the former.

<sup>2</sup>Before the school year of 1913-1914 the Elementary School Journal was known as the Elementary School Teacher.

<sup>3</sup>E. A. Rice, A Brief History of Physical Education (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1911).

early as 600 B. C.<sup>3</sup>

It is quite evident that the training of the physique was an outgrowth of necessity. Primitive man was compelled to be strong in order to survive. Man soon learned that by being fleet of foot, strong of arm, and long winded, he was better qualified to hold his own with the strong and to dominate the weak.

Perhaps the most suitable name to apply to the system of body training employed by the early Greeks is "gymnastics." These exercises consisted chiefly of running, jumping, throwing, wrestling, marching, camping, riding, and such activities as contributed to the training of the youth and young men in military tactics.

In their desire to develop strong bodies, the early Spartans almost wholly neglected the training of the mind. The Athenian philosophy was more cheerful. Their highest ambition was to cultivate the right harmony between mind and body. The Athenian system of culture was eventually adopted by many of the other southern European empires, and the former practices in body culture were set aside in favor of music, art, and activities of aesthetic nature.

With the growth of aesthetic education, the warring

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<sup>3</sup>E. A. Rice; A Brief History of Physical Education.  
(New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1930).

element became less important. The Romans ignored the training of the body in order to spend more time in training the mind.<sup>4</sup> Physical power decreased as mental power increased. This new mode of life permitted the upper class of people to live in a leisurely and lazy style, while only the slaves were forced to work at heavy labor. When the Romans had reached a very low level physically, the hardy teutonic races of the North began their southern invasions and their advances marked the beginning of the downfall of the Roman Empire.

Not long after the Teutons had over-run the southern empires, they began to yield, in turn, to the proselyting activities of the young and lusty Christian Church. Parallel to the rise of the Church was the doctrine of asceticism. This doctrine, which held sway throughout the Dark Ages, retarded the physical education movement longer and more steadfastly than any other obstacle in the history of education. The commonly accepted belief of this doctrine was that the body was evil and the mind was pure or divine, and the body and mind were constantly waging a bitter war against each other. Under no circumstances should a person admire, perfect, or even think of his body in any other terms than

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<sup>4</sup>E. A. Rice, Brief History of Physical Education.  
(New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1930, Pp. 53-54.)



that it was an enemy and must be subdued at every opportunity. Any form of physical activity for pleasure was frowned upon, and many would torture their bodies for the sake of their souls. The followers of the doctrine believed that this world was only a place to prepare for the next, and that no one should enjoy any pleasures, for he would receive his happiness after death.

The reign of asceticism had hardly established itself when a very marked decline began in the health of the people. With the fall of the physical standards, plagues and epidemics swept through southern Europe, destroying thousands and often an entire community of inhabitants in a short time. Any such epidemic, however, did not suggest health improvement, but was regarded as a "visitation" and was attributed to the wrath of God or to the malice of Satan.

The asceticism epoch caused the decline of, and eventually the abolishment of the former methods of training youth for military service, and, had it not been for the era of chivalry when the national defense depended upon the knights, there would have been no organized military body throughout the greater part of the Dark Ages. The decline of chivalry and knighthood as a military system began shortly after the last great Crusade in 1270 and in the

fifteenth century became complete, for the introduction of gunpowder in warfare, with the increased importance attached to infantry and artillery, made the weapons and armor of the knights of no avail. With the decline of the last agency that encouraged physical development among men, namely, the system of Knighthood, the future outlook for any type of body training became discouraging.

The period of the Renaissance and the Reformation brought about many drastic changes in the educational policies. The days of asceticism waned and new leaders were found in western and northern Europe, Denmark, Sweden, Germany, France, England, and Switzerland. Early in the sixteenth century, Martin Luther of Germany, followed closely by educational leaders in Switzerland, France, England, and Italy, began organizing educational programs in which they revived the Greek gymnastics. John Locke and Jean Jacques Rousseau in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries respectively, kept the work of Luther and others before the public through their writings.<sup>5</sup>

The beginning of a so-called modern physical education originated in Germany under the leadership of Johann

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<sup>5</sup>F. E. Leonard and R. T. Tait, History of Physical Education. (Philadelphia: Lee and Bediger, 1927).

Bernhard Basedow (1723-1790). Basedow was perhaps the first man to combine mental with physical training. Another great leader in physical training in Germany was GutsMuths, who lived and worked about the same time as Basedow. Friedrich Ludwig Jahn (1778-1852) of Germany, however, was called the father of popular gymnastics. His organizing of gymnastic societies and never-ceasing campaign for physical training made him an outstanding leader of his time. Adolf Spiess of Germany advocated adding gymnastics to the school curriculum and making such a study a part of the regular educational program. Per Henrik Ling of Sweden taught gymnastics with the belief that it had a rightful place in medicine, education, and national defense. Franz Nachtegall (1777-1847) of Denmark was the first educator to introduce physical training into the schools as an essential part of the course and to prepare teachers of that subject by offering systematic instruction in the theory and method of gymnastics.

The types of systems of physical training found in Europe by 1900 can be reduced to three essential forms, illustrated by the Turnerein of popular gymnastic societies of Germany, the athletic sports and active games of the English public schools and universities, and the school gymnastics of Germany and Sweden.

It is more difficult to trace the physical education movement in America. The early colonial life of the settlers (Philadelphia: W. B. Eerdmans, 1911).

was so taken up with making a living that little thought was given to physical education. The first schools were largely Church sponsored and naturally, in accord with the early views of the Church on physical activity and games, little was accomplished to aid the development of the students. Captain Alden Partridge started a military academy movement which in a short time became widespread; it required a combination of military and physical training of every student. Perhaps the first school to provide for a systematic course in physical training was the Round Hill School of Northampton, Massachusetts, in 1823. In this school the Jahn system of gymnastics was introduced by Charles Beck and was received with much favor until about 1830 when practically all interest in gymnastics was lost. A few years later another educational institution was organized for the purpose of teaching physical training. This one, the first of its kind, was called the Normal School of Gymnastics. The leader in it was Dio Lewis, who originated and taught his own individual system. His plan of physical training was so widely accepted that it supplemented the German and Swedish systems in many schools.<sup>6</sup>

Several staunch advocates of the German gymnastics tried constantly for several years to arouse interest

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<sup>6</sup>J. F. Williams, The Principles of Physical Education. (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1930).

enough to organize gymnastic societies, and in 1851 succeeded in organizing the United Turnverein of North America. The organizing of the Young Men's Christian Association in Boston at the close of 1851 was a definite step forward in the advancement of physical education. The primary purpose of the organization was to study the bible, but after the Civil War, Y. M. C. A. directors saw the need of physical as well as spiritual and mental development and immediately made provisions for a system of physical training.

By the late sixties, many leading colleges and universities had some type of athletic program in which they engaged in inter-school contests in baseball, rowing, and other competitive sports. The period from 1870 to 1900 gave rise to many societies and organizations sponsoring some form of physical activity. The last decade of the nineteenth century was characterized by much experimentation, the trial and error method of procedure, the rise and fall of systems and organizations, and a general complication of theories and practices of physical education. The saltatory development of physical education of the nineteenth century was, in a true sense, a trail blazer for the dramatic progress of the physical education movement during the first thirty-five years of the twentieth century.

Training in Physical Education  
and the Y. M. C. A.  
Graduate School

## II. TRENDS FROM 1900 TO THE PRESENT

### A. Definitions

In the beginning, any practice of activity for the purpose of developing the body was thought of merely as body training. The Greeks used the term "gymnastics" to designate their system of body training, and as with many other aspects of Greek knowledge and practices, the term "gymnastics" was adopted and used predominately by other countries until the latter part of the nineteenth century.

The name "gymnastics" was then supplemented by the term "physical culture" to correlate with the cultural idea of all education. Physical culture, however, had to share its title with "physical training" due to the new trends in theory and practice by body training. Physical culture dominated physical training until about 1897, when it began to decline in favor of the latter, and by 1914 it was used no longer. Physical training then reigned from 1898 until 1909, when it began to give way to a new title, "physical education." By 1925 physical training disappeared and physical education has ever since been the name accepted and applied by all educators.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ruth Elliott, "The Organization of Professional Training in Physical Education in State Universities, ("Columbia Press, Columbia University, Contribution to Education, Graduate School).

In order that the reader might have a clearer understanding of the terms, physical culture, physical training, and physical education, and the significance attached to each, the opinions of various educational writers and authorities are quoted.

1. Physical Culture. As previously stated, the term "physical culture" was applied to physical activity and body training to correlate with the cultural idea with which all educational subjects were taught.

"Physical culture did not seek to gain spiritual excellence nor to acquire the recorded wisdom of the world."<sup>2</sup>

"The primary purpose of physical culture was to develop a strong, robust, and symmetrical body."<sup>3</sup>

2. Physical Training.

"Physical training is putting into use all parts of the body so that no one part shall be used at the expense of any other part, but so that all shall receive a sufficient amount of exercise to enable all of the functions of the vital organs to be performed harmoniously and healthfully."<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>Williams and Morris, Physical Education, (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1917), p. 27.

<sup>3</sup>R. M. Simpson, Elementary School Teacher, (1913-1914) Pp. 221-225.

<sup>4</sup>Baroness Rose Posse, "How Physical Education Affects the Welfar on the Nation," American Physical Education Review, October 10, 1910, p. 494.

"Physical training is the supervised practice of muscular exercise under conditions which tend to promote the health of the pupils, insure normal growth, and develop motor control."<sup>5</sup>

"Physical training means the exercise and the training of the motor powers of the body, carried on primarily for the sake of health, discipline, or pleasure. The term implies something systematic or regular, done intelligently according to hygienic principles."<sup>6</sup>

### 3. Physical Education.

"Physical education is the contribution to the general complete education provided by psychomotor activities, mainly, the larger more fundamental muscle nerve centers."<sup>7</sup>

"Physical education is the education in general approached from the viewpoint of necessary physical support to intellectual and moral excellence."<sup>8</sup>

"Physical education is that phase of education which is concerned, first, with the organization and leadership of children in big muscle activity, to gain development and adjustment inherent in the activities according to social standards; and second, with the control of health and growing conditions naturally

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<sup>5</sup>William A. Stecher, Educational Gymnastics for Junior High Schools, (Philadelphia: J. J. McVey, 1918), p. 1.

<sup>6</sup>W. P. Bowen, Teachers Course in Physical Training, (Ann Arbor: George Wahr, Publisher, 1917), p. 1.

<sup>7</sup>Wood and Brownell, Source-book in Health and Physical Education, (New York: Macmillan Co., 1925), p. 58.

<sup>8</sup>E. H. Reisner, "Physical Education in our Changing Philosophy of Life," The Discobulus, March, 1924, p. 8.



associated with the leadership of the activities so that the educational process may go on without growth handicaps."<sup>9</sup>

4. Summary. Physical culture, although taught with certain health aspects in mind, was considered impractical from the modern viewpoint. Health was thought of in terms of strong, well developed muscular and symmetrical bodies. Physical training, however, was taught on a more scientific health basis. Perhaps the chief distinction between physical culture and physical training was that physical training included all of physical culture and psychic and psychomotor training as well. Physical education has a wider meaning than physical training, as it includes all of it along with the knowledge of the principles that should guide such training. "Physical training gives the hygienic results and the development that is desired at the time, but physical education does this and also prepares the individual to carry on his own physical training and that of other people."<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>Clark W. Hetherington, School Program in Physical Education, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1922).

<sup>10</sup>H. P. Bowen, Op. Cit.

<sup>11</sup>Journal of Physical Education, Vol. 1, No. 1, 1911, p. 10.

<sup>12</sup>Clark Wether, "The Use of Physical Education in the Problem of the Physical Education of the Child," Vol. 2 (1911), pp. 384-385.

B. Factors Influencing the Trend of Physical  
Education

1. Systems of Physical Education. By the beginning of the twentieth century, the United States was a melting pot for all of the European systems of physical education. Each school, each society, and each organization had its own system of physical education. Virtually, there were just as many of them as there were physical instructors.<sup>11</sup>

Of all the systems practiced in the United States, there were only two which had any significant influence upon the trend of physical education. The two great systems which have competed for world leadership are the German and Swedish.<sup>12</sup> The German system, founded by F. L. Jahn during the time of national depression, owes its origin, according to some authorities, to the conviction that a people, in order to hold its own among rivals, must be sturdy and patriotic.<sup>13</sup> The Swedish system, founded by Ling, lacks all the emotional elements characteristic of the

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<sup>11</sup>Elmer Berry, "Various Systems of Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 2 (1931) Pp. 20-21, 54-55.

<sup>12</sup>Ibid. Pp. 54-55.

<sup>13</sup>Carl Meier, "The Use of Instincts in Physical Education-Problem of the Physical Education Director," Mind and Body, Vol. 2 (1914), Pp. 334-345.

German system. Its purpose is the development of the bodily faculties in the most economical manner, eliminating everything that has no recognized value from the physiological standpoint. If followed strictly, it is never play, but always a conscious effort toward a conscious end.<sup>14</sup> It might be well to mention another system; although not an important, it has some values that were adopted by others. This is the Delsarte system, which aimed to develop graceful bearing and movements. It had its origin in work given in a school for actors, but it became popular with other people as well.

For nearly a generation after 1900, great dissatisfaction was shown toward the prevailing systems of physical education by the American people. Many looked forward to the time when the old systems of gymnastics would be combined with athletics. Up until that time only a few schools had attained this ideal, because most of them had fallen victims to a monotonous program of gymnastic drill, or to unrestrained or over-strenuous competitive athletics.<sup>15</sup>

The secret of the failures of the physical education

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<sup>14</sup>Carl otto Meier, "The Use of Instincts in Physical Education Problems of the Physical Education Director," Mind and Body, Vol. 2 (1914) Pp. 334-345.

<sup>15</sup>F. N. Whittier, "Physical Training for the Mass of Students," American Physical Education Review (1904) p. 24.

systems was the attempt to introduce into American schools foreign systems of gymnastics and physical training.

The system of gymnastic employed in the classroom was characterized, in the main, by formal procedure. An example of the formal classroom exercise is as follows:

All pupils stood at attention beside their desks; at the count of one, the pupils raised their arms parallel to their shoulders; at the count of two, arms were extended above the head; on the count of three, arms were lowered back to position parallel to shoulders; and on the count of four, arms were dropped to side. This and similar exercises were repeated many times. On the playground, the pupils engaged in "scrub" games of their own device, free from formal count and direction of the classroom teacher.

From 1900 to 1910, the United States was an arena of contests between the English athletics and the German or Swedish systems of gymnastics, but when America attempted to adopt any of these forms, many difficulties were immediately encountered because they were foreign and not native. It was necessary for a system of physical training to become Americanized before it could secure and hold a welcome place in the educational programs. The foreign systems were not founded on America's story or tradition.<sup>16</sup>

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<sup>16</sup>F. N. Whittier, op. cit., Pp. 23-24.

Throughout the same decade, while there was so much confusion of ideas and of the methods and practices of the various systems of physical education, athletics, as if guided by some unseen superior hand, rose to a great height in the physical program. The English athletics plan had inconspicuously crept into the American educational program, and was either adopted outright or it gave rise to modified activities the Americans thought their own.

✓ It was when calisthenics formed the largest single item in the American program that they largely determined a system; and the decline of gymnastics with calisthenics caused the use of "systems" to decrease rapidly. Physical programs from 1910 to the present time have been characterized by an ever increasing practice of play, games, athletics, and recreational activities. Up until 1930, most school gymnasiums were equipped with gymnastic apparatus, but in practically every instance the apparatus has been stored or pushed aside in favor of play and competitive athletics.

Although "systems" of physical education was ever a subject of much discussion, doubt, and criticism, and now entirely out of use, the modern physical program owes its rank in the educational world to the pioneer "systems."

## 2. Organizations.

### a. Amateur Athletic Union of the United States.

In analyzing the organizations which have influenced the

trends of physical education during the first thirty-five years of the twentieth century, it is necessary to mention first the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States.

Although the A. A. U. was organized in 1888, its importance was not fully realized until after 1900. Immediately after the organization of the A. A. U., its officers launched a campaign for public playgrounds and athletic fields. Their efforts were not in vain, for in 1906, the Playground and Recreation Association of America was organized. The A. A. U. was also directly responsible for the institution of the first public baths in America. Before 1900, very few factories, mercantile establishments, or firms sponsored any form of a physical education program for their employees, but due to the influence of the A. A. U., the movement gradually spread until at the present time there are very few industrial concerns that do not have a program to provide recreation for their employees. This is very significant not only to students who attend school and to people who belong to athletic clubs, but to laymen and business men also who now have opportunities for recreational activities.

In contrast to the disorderly status of physical education programs, athletic leagues, clubs, and societies at the beginning of the twentieth century when each had its own set of governing rules, the A. A. U. has made possible and compulsory, uniform rules which govern all physical education

Section 14, p. 7.

and athletic organizations. Practically all athletic clubs and schools in the United States are members of the A. A. U.<sup>17</sup>

b. Playground and Recreation Association of America.<sup>18</sup>

The campaign for public playgrounds in America by members of the A. A. U. set the stage for one of the most progressive organizations ever to be devised in the history of physical education. Playground enthusiasts from all over the United States met in Washington in 1906, and organized the Playground and Recreation Association of America, electing Luther Gulick to act as its first president. Its major aim was to provide supervised leadership, playgrounds, and playground equipment for children. Later the organization extended its provisions to take in the youth as well as the children. From a few sand boxes, back yards, alleys, and closed streets, the playground movement has grown until now practically every city and town in the United States is providing playgrounds, parks, ball diamonds, tennis courts, golf courses, swimming pools, etc., not only for children but for adults as well.

The advent of the playgrounds was, perhaps, the most important factor in the decline of formal gymnastics. Very few people enjoyed the rigid training or exercise the gymnastics provided, but instead preferred the more enjoyable

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<sup>17</sup>Spalding's Library, Number 117R (1933), Pp. 11-16.

<sup>18</sup>More will be said about the playground movement in Section I<sup>1</sup>, B, 7.

games where competition was keen.

c. Young Men's Christian Association. Another great organization that did much to influence the trends of physical education was the Y. M. C. A. It was founded in 1851, for the purpose of studying and teaching religion. The Civil War revealed that this training alone was insufficient, and the Y. M. C. A. modified its program to include training which would improve the mental, spiritual, social, and physical condition of young men.

The Y. M. C. A.'s activities did not provide for the mass of people until after 1900. Before that time, the organization was confined chiefly to larger cities, but now almost every citizen in America lives near enough to a local unit that he may have access to its provisions if he so desires.

During the World War, the Y. M. C. A. provided a large number of physical directors for the United States Army training camps.

The progressiveness of the organization has been shown by the modification of its programs and objectives throughout all the years of its existence to meet the needs of changing society.

The most recent objectives set up by the Y. M. C. A. are: "To promote by means of exercise, recreation, and education, the highest physical, mental, and moral efficiency mind and



of men and boys essential to the development of the best type of virile Christian manhood."<sup>19</sup>

d. American Olympic Association. The American Olympic Association is affiliated with the National Olympic Association for the promotion of competitive games, sports, and athletics among all civilized countries of the world.

The Olympic games were revived in 1896 after being abolished in 394 A. D. Every four years the Olympic games are held and all nations are invited to compete. These games form an inspiration for thousands of athletes to live healthfully, train carefully, and adhere to the moral and social codes in accord with the standards of the day.

The Olympic athletes carry back to their own countries and communities, the spirit of good fellowship, loyalty, fair play, and earnest effort.

Rulers and leaders as well as educators see the value of international athletic contests, not only in the light of physical education, but also as an agency for bringing all nations into complete harmony with each other.<sup>20</sup>

e. The National Collegiate Association. The National Collegiate Association was organized for the purpose

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<sup>19</sup>E. A. Rice, A Brief History of Physical Education. (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1930).

<sup>20</sup>Horace Butterworth, "History of the Olympic Games," Mind and Body, Vol. II (1904-1905), Pp. 93-97.

of placing all athletics under faculty control, standardizing the rules and regulations governing intercollegiate competition, and for the promotion of clean, wholesome physical activities.<sup>21</sup>

f. State Athletic Associations. Any high school holding membership in its state athletic association is compelled to adopt all rules and regulations set up by it, and any school failing to do so automatically loses its eligibility standing and membership. Some of the more important rules many schools must require their athletes to abide by are: they must be regularly enrolled in grade 9, 10, 11, or 12; they must not be over 20 years of age; they must be passing in three solid subjects, and pass a physical examination. The association probably owes its origin to the fact that many schools with young, small, and inexperienced boys would compete with teams using boys that were over age, and often professionals. The unfairness of competition and the degrading social and moral contact caused by such competition made it imperative that some systematic regulation be made and enforced.

g. National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations. This organization originated as a

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<sup>21</sup>E. A. Rice, op. cit., 181-199.

result of pressure brought to bear because of the diversified rules and regulations by which individual states carried on their inter-scholastic athletic programs. All states belonging to the federation have practically the same rules concerning the eligibility of athletes. Under this situation schools of one state can compete with schools of another on a fair basis.<sup>22</sup>

h. American Physical Education Association. The American Education Association is an organization that deals largely with the educational phase of physical education. Its major purposes are to do research work in this field and to formulate educational aims and objectives.<sup>23</sup>

i. Other Organizations.

(I) Boy Scouts of America

(II) The Department of School Health and Physical Education of the N. E. A.

(III) The National Organization of Women's College Directors of Physical Education

(IV) The National Organization of Men's College Directors of Physical Education.

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<sup>22</sup>Spalding' Library, Number 117R (1933), Pp. 11-16.

<sup>23</sup>E. A. Rice, op. cit., Pp. 181-199.

(V) The Society of State Directors of Health and Physical Education.

(VI) The Society of City Directors of Health and Physical Education.

There are many other organizations which have had considerable influence on the trend of physical education, but they are in a sense, duplicates of the ones mentioned in this unit.

3. Aims and Objectives. The aims and the objectives of educational procedures have often been used synonymously, making it difficult to distinguish one from the other.

An aim is the major purpose, and the objectives are sub-divisions of the aim, or guiding principles, upon which a program is based and administered.

"Aim is to denote direction, general purpose; objectives mark out the specific points along the way, all of which contribute to the realization of the aim. The aim, however, is never realized, and only the objectives are within the bounds of practical accomplishment."<sup>24</sup>

Throughout this chapter, several sets of objectives of physical education are quoted from various sources to show how the educational theories influenced the methods

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<sup>24</sup>J. F. Williams, Principles of Physical Education. (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1927), p. 291.

and practices of physical education.

"The object of physical training is to put the will into the muscles. It is to give one such control over all his muscles that each act performed by the body is performed by all the muscles that nature has provided for the purpose."<sup>25</sup> The above objective indicates one of the earlier theories in regard to physical education. The major purpose was to develop the muscles of the body. The mind was given hardly any consideration, and, consequently, the physical aspect was developed at the expense of the psychic.

"1. Stimulation for the growth of the body in general, and the development of the vital organs in particular.

"2. The development of strength, quickness, and agility.

"3. The removal of bodily defects or conditions brought about by school life.

"4. The increasing of vitality, so as to give the body that resistance against sickness which is needed to live well.

"5. A general basic training of those psychic powers which are necessary for the growth of the will power, and which are recognized as obedience, submission to rules and order, perseverance, courage, self-reliance, and self-control."<sup>26</sup>

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<sup>25</sup>W. T. Harris, "Observations on Physical Training in and out of School," Journal of Education, Vol. LVI, No. 25 (1902), p. 411

<sup>26</sup>W. A. Stecher, "The Objects and Methods of Physical Training in Primary and Grammar Schools--from the Standpoint of the Physical Training Teacher," Journal of Education. Vol. L, No. 20 (1904), p. 327.

Here again the greatest emphasis in physical education was placed on physical development. The only reference to mental development was in that phase which aids in muscular control.

"1. The aim of physical education should be the furthering of the normal growth of the child by developing and strengthening its body and by favorably influencing the growth of its mental and moral powers.

"2. Physical training should begin with the first school year, and continue throughout school life.

"3. At least one hour of bodily exercise per day is necessary for health.

"4. All parts of the body should be exercised during a gymnastic period, and stress places on postural and breathing exercises.

"5. School instruction should be supplemented by other bodily exercise like swimming, skating, hiking, sledding, etc."<sup>27</sup>

In more recent aims, educators stress the development of the moral and mental powers in almost equal proportion to the physical.

"1. Develop social relationship by appropriate group activities, particularly games and athletic sports.

"2. Develop self-confidence, self-control, mental and moral poise, good spirits, alertness, resourcefulness, decision and perseverance, courage, progressiveness, and initiative.

"3. Promote organic development, conserve health, and provide a fair degree of strength and endurance.

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<sup>27</sup>W. A. Stecher, "Modern Viewpoints Regarding Physical Education," American Physical Education Review. Vol. XXIII (1918), Pp. 225-231.

"4. Engender in the youth an intelligent and healthful interest that shall lend to lifelong interest and practice, forms of active exercises which favor physical efficiency, mental sanity, and stimulating social contact."<sup>28</sup>

The seven cardinal principles as adopted by the National Education Association are:

- Sound health
- Worthy home membership
- Mastery of tools and technique and spirit of learning
- Vocational effectiveness
- Wise use of leisure
- Useful citizenship
- Ethical character

Physical education contributes directly to all of these seven objectives. The general aim in education can also well represent the aims of physical education. Physical education is education.

Sound health. Certainly the superior physical education program functions for sound health.

Worthy home membership. Through the development of play and games, physical education can function directly in building up a proper home life and relationship.

Mastery of tools and technique and spirit of learning. Constantly, the competitive idea of games and sports is used in the learning process.

Vocational effectiveness. Having a job and doing well

<sup>28</sup>The Aims and Scopes of Physical Education," American Physical Education Review, Vol. XXV (1920), Pp. 259-261.

by it is essential to being a good citizen.

Wise use of leisure. The program of physical education that includes plays, games, sports, and athletics certainly functions directly for development of the skills, habits, and hobbies that shall be useful in later life and are essential for the use of leisure time.

Useful citizenship. Through the motivating power of games and highly organized athletics, the whole program functions directly toward the building of useful citizenship.

Ethical character. Here again the physical education program is a positive laboratory for the training of ethical character.<sup>29</sup>

The aims branch out to include a multitudinous array of objectives. Not only the body, but the mind and all those characteristics which contribute to ideal character are taken into consideration.

It is noticeable that after 1920, group activities, such as games and athletics, were substituted for the more or less formal gymnastics which were previously used as a means to accomplish the purpose or intentions of the aims.

<sup>29</sup>James E. Rogers, "The Seven Cardinal Principles and Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. XII (1931), No. 1, p. 19.

Education, American School of Physical Education (1922), pp. 405-411.



- "1. Develop the instinct.
- "2. Train the human will.
- "3. Develop attitudes of attention and concentration.
- "4. Train for control of emotions.
- "5. Train or develop mental attitudes."<sup>30</sup>

For the first time aims deal with the instincts of individuals. Until the second decade of the twentieth century little thought was given by physical educators to the instincts of the children whom they taught. It is natural for a child to run, throw, jump, climb, etc., but very few physical programs were so organized as to consider these instinctive activities. Therefore, programs were organized to bring out and develop the natural talents and instincts of children.

According to the objectives set up by C. W. Hetherington, a physical education program should stress leadership and the training of children in intellectual, neuro-muscular, and organic activities, and the development of social relations by adjustment.<sup>31</sup>

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<sup>30</sup>William H. Burnham, "The Newer Aims of Physical Education and Its Psychological Significance," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 27 (1932), pp. 1-7.

<sup>31</sup>Clark W. Hetherington, "The Objectives of Physical Education," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 27 (1922), pp. 405-414.

- "1. To develop citizenship in terms of:
  - a. personal qualities,
  - b. social qualities, and
  - c. character.
- "2. To promote physical growth.  
 To promote mental growth.  
 To promote health.  
 To correct physical defects.  
 To provide leisure time activities."<sup>32</sup>

A program of the newer objectives of physical education tends to perfect the body, develop the mind, maintain health, correct bodily defects, and to provide leadership and facilities for leisure time activities. With the increase of machine power and less need for man power, it became necessary to provide means by which idle and unoccupied citizens could spend their leisure time in some ethical and enjoyable way.

"1. The program of interscholastic athletics in secondary schools should be so organized and administered as to contribute to health, leisure time, citizenship, and character objectives of secondary education. The aim should be to develop sufficient skill in one or more sports among all pupils to provide enjoyable forms of recreation in later life.

"2. All athletic competition should grow out of and form an integral part of the physical education program of the high schools.

"3. The administration of all athletic contests in the high school program should be entirely controlled by properly constituted school officials.

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<sup>32</sup>Charles L. Bowdlear, "An Analysis of the Aims of Physical Education," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 31 (1926), pp. 592-595.

Edward A. Rockwell, "The Physical Education of the Citizen," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 15 (1934), pp. 36-37, and 53.

"4. Fair play, generosity, courtesy, self-control, and friendly feelings for the opposing school should not be sacrificed in the desire to win."<sup>33</sup>

The objectives of physical education now seem to include criteria for organizing athletics within the school. Not only do the objectives set up criteria for high school team organization and interscholastic competition, but for the moral and character viewpoint and the end results.

"1. The aim of physical education is to develop through total-body activities, primarily on the play level, the physically, the mentally, and socially integrated and effective individual.

"2. The remote objectives of physical education:  
 a. health,  
 b. worthy use of leisure time, and  
 c. ethical character.

"3. The intermediate objectives of physical education:  
 a. organic development,  
 b. neuro-muscular development,  
 c. interpretative-cortical development, and  
 d. emotional-impulsive development.

"4. Immediate objectives of physical objectives:  
 a. physical changes,  
 b. habits and skills,  
 c. knowledge and insights, and  
 d. ideals, attitudes, and appreciations."<sup>34</sup>

In the most recently formulated objectives, emphasis is placed on complete development of the individual.

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<sup>33</sup>J. B. Edmonson, "The Objectives of Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 2, No. 5 (1931), pp. 5-7.

<sup>34</sup>Karl W. Bockwaller, "The Objectives of Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 5, No. 2 (1934), pp. 26-27, and 55.

The body, the mind, and all that is associated with them are given equal consideration in the physical programs.

Summary. Aims and objectives are set up to guide and direct the procedures of physical education programs. The changing civilization causes the needs and desires of the people to change. Physical education aims to meet the needs of the people; therefore, when new conditions arise, new aims and objectives must be formed to direct the new procedures.

During the first decade of the twentieth century, the aim of physical education was to develop the muscular body. The major objectives were to develop speed, strength, endurance, agility, and the vital organs. During the following decade, educators came to realize that students who participated in physical activities were usually healthier, and more intelligent than those who did not take part in physical exercises. Since there was proof of the value of physical activity, objectives changed so as to provide training of the mind. Later, educators saw the need of health work in physical education, and by 1920, most objectives included health training as a large part of physical education.

To sum up the trend in aims and objectives of physical education in the order of their occurrence, the list would be as follows:

1. Muscular development.

Edward B. Segroot, "Physical Education and the Training of the Mind," *American Physical Education Journal*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 302-304.

2. Mind and body development.
3. Character development.
  - a. Moral.
  - b. Aesthetic.
4. Health.
5. Recreation.
6. Health, physical, and moral instruction.
7. Formation of worthy habits.
8. Placing physical education in education.

4. War. Immediately after the United States entered the World War, many secondary schools and colleges instituted a type of military drill in place of the regular program of physical training or combined military with physical training.

The encroachment of military drill into the physical programs caused a great deal of anxiety among school officials and parents. Some authorities held that military drill should become a regular part of the curriculum.<sup>35</sup> It was found, for the most part, the advocates of military drill in the schools were misguided amateurs in the field of military affairs.<sup>36</sup>

The war caught the United States totally unprepared as far as any definite policy or system of physical education

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<sup>35</sup>Frederick S. Camp, "Abstract," School Review, Vol. 25 (1917), p. 542.

<sup>36</sup>Edward B. Degroot, "Physical Education versus Military Training," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 22 (1917), pp. 302-304.

was concerned.<sup>37</sup> The methods of physical training were not standards. No two schools had the same type of program. Health and corrective education were rudimentary in the physical department. Very few skilled or trained instructors held positions in the secondary schools. Statistics show that more than thirty per cent of the men of military age who were drafted during the war were rejected from military service because of some physical defect.<sup>38</sup> Most of the defects were of such a nature that they could have been remedied or cured by a well-directed program of physical training.

As soon as the men of the United States were enrolled in the army, they were sent immediately to some base training camp. At these camps the soldiers were drilled in military tactics, but physical training was given even in excess of military training. The men were compelled to go through certain calisthenic and gymnastic exercises, but most of the training hours were spent in military drill, wrestling, boxing, running, and athletic games. The men at the front when not in actual fighting, participated in a huge physical training program. The need for expert physical directors drained the resources of the American colleges and Y. M. C. A.'s.

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<sup>37</sup>Dr. J. E. Raycroft, "Suggestions for the Colleges from the Army Experiences in Physical Training," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 24 (1919), pp. 264-271.

<sup>38</sup>Charles W. Savage, "Lessons from the War for Physical Education in Colleges," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 24 (1919), pp. 180-190.

Every person who was skilled in physical training work was in charge of the physical program at some camp.

The war caused some very important changes in the practices of physical training. The men in the armies needed physical training to get into good fighting condition and also to keep in condition. Previous to this, conditioning the body had not been thought of except by athletes and trainers. The lessons taught by the war established in the minds of many people the true value of physical education. To make a good soldier, or a good citizen, a man must be physically fit. Military training alone cannot do this; therefore, physical training is absolutely necessary and should come first in any physical program.

The countries whose armies in the World War were found best prepared did not give military drill in their schools. On the contrary, they gave an abundance of physical training.<sup>39</sup>

Physical training never before reached the peak it did on the fighting front, due, primarily, to the fact that physical fitness was considered the foundation of all success in war.<sup>40</sup> Some of the influences of this fact upon physical

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<sup>39</sup>Earl H. Lee, "Physical versus Military Training," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 22 (1917), pp. 305-308.

<sup>40</sup>Luther H. Gulick, "Physical Fitness in the Fighting Armies," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 23 (1918), pp. 341-354.

training were the evident rise of interest in exercise of the military type, rapid depletion of the field of men teachers and directors, emphasis in the army of physical education for every man, presentation to the country of a plan to adopt, and proof to the world that physical education can produce results.<sup>41</sup>

Other influences of the European war were the widespread interest in preparedness and the organization of bodies of men for the purpose of physical and military training.

Military drill, while not the best thing for the youth of America, at least set in motion some good ideas as to what should be done for the training of young men and boys in this country.<sup>42</sup>

The war showed with brilliant demonstrations, the gains that might be secured through an intelligent and adequate physical education program.<sup>43</sup>

Summary. The war, while one of the greatest tragedies of the present century in many respects, was one of the most

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<sup>41</sup>W. P. Bowen, "The Influence of War upon Physical Education," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 24 (1919), pp. 92-99.

<sup>42</sup>Charles W. Savage, op. cit., pp. 180-190.

<sup>43</sup>Thomas H. Storey, "War Time Revelations in Physical Education," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 25 (1920), pp. 47-52.



important events in the history of modern physical education. Before the war, physical educators were handicapped with insufficient knowledge, non-specific criteria, and inadequate time and facilities to direct a well-planned program of physical education. Health instruction and physical examinations had not been thought important; consequently, many students participated in physical activities which were more injurious than beneficial to them.

When the soldiers returned from the front they were nervous and craved physical activity, which was supplied in some measure by the athletic and recreation clubs. The soldiers not only led active physical lives, but influenced others to do likewise.

In the move for preparedness against any future emergency, many of the states of the Union passed laws compelling all schools to give a course in physical education under the supervision of qualified instructors. Many of the states also passed a law that made it necessary to hire a state director of physical education. Along with compulsory physical education came the department of health education. Doctors and nurses were employed to examine school children for physical defects and ailments. In short, the war revealed the laxity of the physical education programs and the intense value and necessity of physical education for the welfare of the nation.

5. Health. Health education and physical education are two great fields which to some extent overlap. Physical education makes many contributions to the field of general education through physical activity, while health education contributes to the physical and mental welfare of the child through other avenues as well as through physical activity.<sup>44</sup>

It might be well at this time to define several terms used in a health and physical education program which are often confusing:

**HEALTH EDUCATION** is the sum of all experiences which favorably influence habits, attitudes and knowledge relating to individual, community, and racial health.

**SCHOOL HEALTH EDUCATION** is that part of health education that takes place in the school or through efforts organized and conducted by school personnel.

**PUBLIC HEALTH EDUCATION** is that part of health education that takes place in the home and community.

**HYGIENE** is the applied science of healthful living; it provides the basic scientific knowledge upon which desirable health practices are founded.

**SANITATION** is the application of scientific measures for improving or controlling the healthfulness of the environment.

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<sup>44</sup>C. E. Turner, "Health Education and Its Relation to Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 2 (1931), pp. 3-5.

HEALTH in the human organism is that condition which permits optimal functioning of the individual, enabling him to live most and serve best in personal and social relationship.

HEALTH INSTRUCTION is that organization of learning experiences directed toward the development of favorable health knowledges, attitudes, and practices.

HEALTH SERVICE comprises all those procedures designed to determine the health status of the child, to enlist his co-operation in health protection and maintenance, to inform parents of defects that may be present, to prevent diseases, and to correct remedial defects.

HEALTHFUL SCHOOL LIVING is a term that designates the provisions of a wholesome environment, the organization of a healthful school day, and the establishment of such pupil-teacher relationship as gives a safe and sanitary school, favorable to the best development and living of pupils and teachers.

HEALTH EXAMINATION is that phase of health service which seeks through an examination by physicians, dentists, and other qualified specialists, to determine the physical, mental, and emotional health of an individual.<sup>45</sup>

<sup>45</sup>T. D. Wood and C. L. Brownell, Source Book in Health and Physical Education, (New York: Macmillan, 1925), P. 57.

<sup>50</sup>William H. Burdick, The System of Physical Education, American Physical Education Series, 1917, p. 11.

The first introduction of physical training in educational institutions was largely as a health measure.<sup>46</sup>

Physical training in its best sense, is nothing more than applied physiology and hygiene, and the soundness of the theory depends upon the realization of the practice.<sup>47</sup>

A vital relationship exists between health instruction and activities in physical education, and the achievement of the general objectives of secondary education.<sup>48</sup>

The shortsighted view sees physical education only as it concerns itself with competitive sports, etc., but the broad-minded physical education policy lays the emphasis squarely on health.<sup>49</sup> From the point of view of hygiene, every form of exercise and every method of instruction must be considered with regard to healthful development.<sup>50</sup>

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<sup>46</sup>American Physical Education Association, "Definitions of Terms in Health Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 5, No. 10 (1934), pp. 16-17.

<sup>47</sup>D. A. Sargent, "The Field of the Department of Physical Training in Educational Institutions in the Development of Public Hygiene," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 18 (1913), pp. 146-153.

<sup>48</sup>J. A. Clement, "Standards for Health and Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 4 (1933), pp. 26-27.

<sup>49</sup>William Probken, "What Should the Health Education Program Accomplish?," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 4 (1933), pp. 26-27 and 59.

<sup>50</sup>William H. Burnham, "The Hygiene of Physical Training," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 14 (1909), pp. 467-468.

"Physical education is not a 'subject' to be compared with high school 'subjects,' but a general method having many possible subjects of its own; its program may be as wide as the entire mental education program. Physical education is education by way of or through physical means."<sup>51</sup>

The general recognition of the paramount importance of health and physical development is now sufficient to cause an appropriate diffusion of health and physical education activities throughout the entire elementary and secondary school program.<sup>52</sup>

A department of health and physical education should be made up of the following:

1. Medical examination.
2. School nursing service with follow-up work, home visits, etc.
3. Dental and ocular service.
4. Nutrition activities.
5. Hygiene, safety, and first aid.
6. Physical education.<sup>53</sup>

<sup>51</sup>Frederick Rand Rogers, "Physical (and?) (or?) Health Education," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 23 (1928), pp. 299-307.

<sup>52</sup>John R. McClure, "More Complete Living through Physical and Health Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 1 (1930), pp. 3-6 and 40.

<sup>53</sup>R. W. Maroney, "The Organization of a Physical and Health Education Program," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 34 (1929), pp. 3-6.

In health, as elsewhere, training is necessary for habit formation.<sup>54</sup> Health is not an end in itself, but a means to an end. The same might be said for physical education. Since neither physical nor health education is an end, but a means to an end, physical education is a means or device by which health can realize the end. Health, therefore, is the desired result of physical activity.

The ten cardinal points in the platform of health and physical education are:

1. An adequate health examination and a comprehensive protection program for every school child to include control of communicable diseases, healthful school environment, and hygienic standards in the entire curricular and extra-curricular life of the school.
2. A program of health and physical education based on the nature of man and the evident needs in American life, and dedicated to the health, happiness, and character of the American people.
3. Adequate indoor and outdoor facilities in every school, and adequate time in the curriculum.
4. Co-ordination of community effort in policies, finances, and the use of facilities for programs of health, physical education, and recreation.
5. Health instruction based upon scientific materials, progressively arranged throughout the grades and upper school and directed toward personal accomplishment and school ideals.
6. Establishment of procedures for the scientific classification of participants to insure the best educative results.

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<sup>54</sup>C. E. Turner, "Health Education and Its Relation to Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 2 (1931), pp. 3-5.

7. Professionally trained and accredited supervisors and teachers for all branches of the health and physical education program, including the coaching of athletic teams.

8. Promotion of the idea of play and recreation as aspects of the finest living.

9. The accreditation of health and physical education in the high schools and colleges for graduation and acceptance of such credits from high school for college entrance.

10. The organization and administration of health and physical education in the schools as a single, executive department.<sup>55</sup>

Summary. Physical training or physical education has always been thought of as a health measure, but, originally, health was thought of in terms of well developed muscles.

The European War revealed to the world that the prevailing methods and practices of physical education were impractical for good health and physical development. So in accord with the war taught lessons, educators began to revise and broaden the physical education programs to include more and more health training. So great was the health education movement that present physical education programs are based on health measures and provisions.

6. Athletics. Perhaps the most influential factor in the trend of physical education during the first decade of the twentieth century was the athletic movement. Before 1900, school physical activities were composed chiefly of gymnastic

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<sup>55</sup>Dr. F. J. Williams, "Ten Cardinal Points in the Platform of Health and Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 2 (1931), p. 19.

and calisthenic exercises. Only colleges and larger high schools carried on an extensive athletic program. Shortly after 1900, however, the interest in the rigid training provided by gymnastics was lost in favor of team games and competitive athletics. The interest in competitive sports grew so rapidly that by 1910, not only colleges, but many of the smaller secondary schools were also providing facilities for athletic games and contests.

Inter-scholastic athletics became so widespread that leagues, conferences, and associations were organized to support them. During this transition from one type of physical activity to another, much confusion resulted as to the purposes and meaning of the various physical activities.

To some, physical training, gymnastics, and athletics meant one and the same thing, and it is exceedingly unfortunate for the cause of physical education that the above terms were used synonymously by the general public.<sup>56</sup>

Physical training and gymnastics, in an ideal sense, have for their interpretation the building of the human body to its highest degree of symmetry, beauty, and perfection. Athleticism, according to many gymnasts, stood for cultivating the animal in man, with degradation of his higher and

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<sup>56</sup>D. A. Sargent, "Athletics in Secondary Schools," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 8 (1903), pp. 57-69.



mental forces.<sup>57</sup> As can be seen by the preceding statement, athletics did not take the place of formal gymnastics in the views of some people.

In spite of the fact that athletic pursuits were side-spread and popularized, many people harshly criticized them. Most of the objections which have been made against athletics have arisen more from over emphasis than from sound educational procedures. Many of the destructive criticisms were just, because of the use of athletic teams for school publicity, gambling, commercialism, and undue attention for the athletes.<sup>58</sup> In this respect, all agree, probably, that athletics were not accomplishing the intended purpose. It was not the fault of athletics, however, but of the educators and schools. With proper school and faculty control over all athletics, the above stated evils will either cease or be reduced to a minimum.

One of the original ideas concerning sports was "sports for sport's sake." This old idea was gradually supplanted by the practice of using sports definitely and consciously for the up-building of character. Athletics, properly conducted,

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<sup>57</sup>James E. Sullivan, "Present Status of Athletic Gymnastics and Gymnasiums," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 8 (1903), pp. 268-279.

<sup>58</sup>D. A. Sargent, Op. Cit.

form one of the strongest moral and social forces used in the development of manhood.<sup>59</sup>

Athletics and games are not merely physical exercise, but rudimentary forms of earlier activities. Athletic training is no more physical than it is social, moral, and intellectual. In many instances, gymnastics originated largely as a method of teaching the elements of athletics.<sup>60</sup>

Most of the confusion in the educational program results from different conceptions as to what constitutes physical education in general and athletics in particular.<sup>61</sup>

The essential purpose of school athletics should be the development of such physical, mental, and moral qualities as will be of most value in fitting students for their life duties.<sup>62</sup>

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<sup>59</sup>Editorial, "Athletic Federation," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 18 (1913), pp. 187-188.

<sup>60</sup>Henry S. Curtis, "Athletics in the School Program," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 29 (1924), pp. 281-285.

<sup>61</sup>John L. Griffith, "The Purpose of Athletics," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 30 (1925), pp. 329-333.

<sup>62</sup>C. B. Evans, L. Gulick, and V. Prettyman, "Athletics in the Schools," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 8 (1904), p. 176.

The athletics portion is a branch and an important part of the physical program; therefore time should be set aside during the regular school day for all to participate in some athletic activity.<sup>63</sup>

Aside from being a large part of the physical education program during the school hours, athletics constitute practically all the physical education there is outside of school hours. The varsity and intra-mural athletics which are carried on outside of the regular school day provide means of activity for nearly every pupil.<sup>64</sup>

Although athletics form the most popular part of physical education, and the movement possesses much greater force and volume than any phase of undergraduate activity, the early growth was characterized by the crude and boyish devices of the students themselves. Consequently, without faculty and school control, the athletic movement was marked all throughout its early progress by a tendency toward extravagance and professionalism.<sup>65</sup>

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<sup>63</sup> Harry A. Garfield, "Athletics for All," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 21 (1916), pp. 220-224.

<sup>64</sup> Randel D. Warden, "The Daily after School Life of Boys," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 24 (1919), pp. 1-9 and 219.

<sup>65</sup> C. V. P. Young, "Intercollegiate Athletics and the Professional Coach," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 19 (1914), pp. 331-338.

Summary. The first school athletics and competitive sports were characterized by non-faculty and school control, unqualified coaches, lack of funds and proper equipment, poor organization, and student control.

Athletics no sooner dominated the field of physical education than wise educators began advocating faculty control and the employment of qualified coaches. For some time, the physical education teachers were used almost exclusively in the role of athletic coaches. Athletics continued to be the most important and most popular form of physical education, and many school officials capitalized on the movement and used athletics as a method in teaching physical education.

Athletic associations were formed, uniform rules and regulations were made, qualified coaches were hired, and athletic games were made a part of the regular physical education program.

The interest in athletics has never died down, and to this day, competitive sports make up the largest single element in the school physical program.

When physical training failed to receive the attention of school men and the general public and to receive the place it deserved in the physical program, the athletic movement barged to the front with such overwhelming pressure that educators and the general public were forced to make room and accept this form of physical training in their programs. In

the process of adjusting, regulating, and administrating athletics, the educators unconsciously did the same for physical education. Athletics and physical education are inseparable; where one goes, the other goes also.

Throughout all the years of athletic evolution, the physical programs have been constructed so as to foster and support athletics.

7. Playgrounds. The playground movement began in Boston in 1886, with a small unsupervised sand garden. The following fourteen years was a period of continual campaigning for playgrounds by educators, civic organizations, and philanthropists.

After 1900, the sand gardens expanded into small open playgrounds without any apparatus; from this, they developed into outdoor gymnasiums or playgrounds with apparatus, and then into recreation centers with buildings, swimming pools, ball diamonds, tennis courts, and other recreation facilities. The movement then found its way into the schools and community centers.

At first, play was limited to a few hours of daylight, but it soon included evening hours as well. The playgrounds were at first equipped with facilities to provide recreation for children only, but later provisions were made to care for people of all ages. No supervision of play was thought necessary at first; however, the need of supervision became

evident and trained leaders were hired and paid from public funds. The playground, beginning as a private effort, soon grew into a public function.

Play and recreation are today popularized. The increase of leisure time has made play and playgrounds indispensable to human welfare.<sup>66</sup>

The increase in the number of playgrounds gave rise to pressing needs for a central executive body to formulate plans and methods by which these could be made of most value to the public. So, in 1906, advocates of this type of education met in Washington and organized the Playground and Recreation Association of America. This association has been, and still is one of the most progressive organizations of its kind in the world.

The playground, during the first few years of the twentieth century, provided almost the only source of physical activity for children, and has ever since been established in the program of physical education. One might even go so far as to say that the playground is the first essential in any physical program.<sup>67</sup>

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<sup>66</sup>Theodore J. Smergalski, "Play and Recreation," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 25 (1920), pp. 290-292.

<sup>67</sup>James F. Rogers, "The Importance of the School Playground in the Physical Education Program," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 32 (1927), pp. 590-592.

The school boards came to realize that the gymnasiums, swimming pools, and recreation rooms that were closed after school hours were wasted play resources; therefore, they provided adequate play opportunities to fill the spare time of the children by maintaining year-round playgrounds under expert supervision.<sup>68</sup>

The playgrounds and gymnasiums are recognized not merely as centers for increasing bodily efficiency, but also for the formation of correct moral habits as well.

Play contributes to three levels of physical development, namely, the organic level, the motor or sensory level, and the higher intellectual processes and moral judgment.<sup>69</sup> In its relation to physical education, play has four developmental purposes--grace, muscular strength, organic strength, and nervous stability and health. In the elementary school, it is the best method of physical education. In the development of an individual, if use is made of this instinct and opportunities given for self-expression, more will be done toward vitalizing physical education than can be done in any other way. It has been shown quite clearly that organized play does

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<sup>68</sup>Mabel Travis Wood, "The School and Play Movement," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 29 (1924), p. 152.

<sup>69</sup>J. H. McCurdy, "Play and Physical Education for Boys over 10," American Physical Education Review, vol. 16 (1911), pp. 315-320.

more than give health, beauty, and versatility to an individual; it also gives an opportunity for character and intellectual development.<sup>70</sup>

Of all the physical activities that children may take part in, play is undoubtedly the most natural. It is an instinct. A child needs no other motive than the instinctive urge. The response to it is individual, and is made with very little, if any, external or artificial stimulus. Consequently, there will be more likelihood of equal psychic and physical reaction. When a person reaches adulthood, the external stimulus is often dormant, but the natural stimulus or instinct will carry over into action. Play is also hereditary, and second in importance only to instinct, is the play heritage.<sup>71</sup>

Summary. Physical education as carried on in the schools is not a complete program. It is left to the playgrounds to provide the means for physical activity out of school and during the summer vacation period.

In any administrative work, whether in school or elsewhere, supervision is an important factor, and the playground is well in the lead in the field of physical supervision.

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<sup>70</sup>G. W. A. Lucky, "Shall Organized Play Be Made a Regular Part of the Curriculum?" American Physical Education Review, Vol. 15 (1910), pp. 526-532.

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<sup>71</sup>Charlotte Stewart, "Natural or Play Activities as Applied to the Needs of Various Age Periods," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 27 (1922), pp. 375-377.



Playgrounds paved the way for supervision in physical education, fostered recreation for people of all ages, opened the eyes of the school officials and the public to the true value of free and supervised play, and also advertised the value of physical education.

8. State Control. The field of physical education has become a complex one. There are so many different types of teachers that it is difficult to speak of them as a body. It has gone beyond the stage where there are merely grade, high school, and college teachers of physical education. There are now in the grades, for example, special full time teachers, classroom teachers, and elementary supervisors; in the high schools are part time teachers, special full time teachers, full or part time athletic coaches, physical education instructors who teach the health program and ones who do not, and city, county, and state supervisors.<sup>72</sup>

If the program in physical education is to go forward, more attention must be given to the quality of it, to the employment of trained teachers, to provisions for adequate facilities, and to a sufficient allotment of time.<sup>73</sup>

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<sup>72</sup>D. Oberteuffer, "A State Certification Code," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 3, No. 2 (1932), p. 13.

<sup>73</sup>William G. Moorhead, "A State Program in Health Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 3, No. 2 (1932), p. 88.

In certain phases of physical education it is desirable to have a standardized method of procedure for the entire state. In these instances the state department of health and physical education should formulate the best available procedures and supply them to the schools. Examples of this type of service include classifying pupils for participation in activities, scoring tables and charts, a uniform terminology, standards for judging requests to be excused from physical education, health supervision forms such as physical examination cards, notices to parents of physical defects of children, vision charts and height-weight wall charts, group functional tests, standardized physical efficiency tests, and standards for awarding school emblems or letters.<sup>74</sup>

The state department should co-operate with and seek the co-operation of all city and county health authorities, the city department of recreation and physical education, the college department of physical education, the state and county health authorities, and of all organizations interested in child health and recreation.<sup>75</sup>

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<sup>74</sup>J. R. Sharman, "The Function of a Division of Physical Education in a State Department of Education," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 32 (1927), pp. 732-733.

<sup>75</sup>Ibid.

<sup>76</sup>W. E. Wheeler, "Physical Education in the State Department of Education," Journal of Physical Education, No. 8 (1928), p. 231.

Some ways by which the state department can render important service are:

1. To confer and advise with teacher training school authorities as to the curriculum and method of procedure.

2. To arrange conferences that include all teachers of physical education in the teacher training schools for the purpose of organizing a curriculum in physical education that will most nearly meet the needs of teachers when they begin their work.

3. To give lectures and demonstrations at teachers' institutes, city and county teachers' meetings, and before groups of teachers who have assembled for extension work.

4. To have each teacher training school to organize several extension groups in physical education.

5. To have a good book on physical education included in the State Reading Circle books for teachers.

6. To get the state board of education to make a regulation that no certificates will be issued, renewed, or extended to teachers who have not completed successfully an approved course in physical education.

Other duties of a state department of health and physical education may be summed up as follows:<sup>76</sup>

1. Certification of teachers.

For many years, teachers of physical education were not required to take definite training courses in order to hold a position in this work. Any academic teacher could teach this subject. Gradually, the requirements for a teacher of such a course became so restricted that, at the present time, a physical education instructor must be a college graduate

<sup>76</sup> N. P. Nielson, "State Problems in Health and Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 3, No. 8 (1932), p. 26.

and must have completed certain required courses before being granted a license. Physical education teachers are on a par with academic teachers in regard to training and scholastic qualifications.

2. Professional preparation of physical education teachers.

3. Manuals and publications concerning physical education.

4. Evaluation of physical education programs.

5. Determination of credits for physical education.

6. Measurements of achievement in the physical programs.

7. Encouragement of national teacher-training study.

8. Supervision with constructive criticisms.

9. Co-operation with the State High School Athletic Association.

10. Supervision of an annual problem of research.

While many cities had previously set up requirements as to the preparation of teachers of physical education, state-wide regulations came into existence in 1915, since which time, remarkable national interest in physical education has taken place in the United States.<sup>77</sup>

This progress has been made by degrees: In 1918, only eleven states had laws in regard to physical education; in 1926, thirty-three states; and in 1929, thirty-six states had

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<sup>77</sup> Bureau of Education, Revised List of Requirements by State Departments of Education for Directors and Supervisors of Physical Education in Grade and High Schools, (Washington, D. C.: Department of the Interior, July, 1926).

laws requiring the teaching of physical education in their public schools.<sup>78</sup>

At the present time, there are few, if any, states in the United States which do not have some law or requirement in regard to physical education; twenty-two states have gone even further and employed a state director of health and physical education.<sup>79</sup>

It is significant to note that the state movement in physical education has originated and developed within the twenty years from 1915 to 1935. During this twenty-year period practically every public school in the United States has been brought under state control in regard to physical education. This should be proof enough of the rightful place of physical education in the general education program, as it is a part of it and required of every pupil.

9. Physical Education and General Education. The changing attitude of the school with respect to health and physical education parallels the changing attitude of the school toward general education.<sup>80</sup>

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<sup>78</sup>James E. Rogers, "State Health and Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 1, No. 2 (1930), p. 25.

<sup>79</sup>Bureau of Education, op. cit.

<sup>80</sup>Charles C. Cowell, "Physical Education and Its Relationships in the High School," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 4, No. 3 (1933), p. 33.

<sup>83</sup>ibid.

For many years, educators interpreted the principle of self-development in terms relating solely to intellectual growth. The school was considered to have discharged its function if the child was trained to use his mind in certain definitely prescribed fields. Physical well being, at whatever level it was found, was regarded as a dispensation of Providence or the gift of a fortunate inheritance.<sup>81</sup>

The tendency now is to stress the noun education and not the adjective physical. So today trends for making programs and procedures conform to educational theory and practice. Physical education is a field in the administration of education and in the school curriculum.<sup>82</sup>

The physical trainer is one who makes activity an end; the physical educator is one who makes the activity a means to get educational outcomes. There is more talk about aims and objectives than ever before, and the aims and objectives of physical education are made to coincide with those of general education. Physical education is trying to conform to the best in philosophy and psychology; it is being tested according to educational standards by administrators who are being asked to put more education into it.<sup>83</sup>

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<sup>81</sup> Ibid.

<sup>82</sup> James E. Rogers, "Trends in Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 2, No. 8 (1931), p. 18.

<sup>83</sup> Ibid.

Five standards necessary to put education into physical education are:

1. Better organized programs.
2. Graded programs.
3. Programs graded and adapted to individual needs based on health and physical examinations, physical fitness tests, and other measurements.
4. Measured and tested programs.
5. Programs formulated according to the best psychological and curriculum building methods.

A benefit specifically found in physical education, educators recognize the economy in utilizing the natural activities of the child and the participation in those activities for educational ends.<sup>84</sup>

Professional training in physical education has made such great strides in the past ten years that it is showing signs of catching up with the demands for its institutional organization symbolized by state laws.<sup>85</sup>

The physical educator is responsible for at least five programs which may be presented in the form of a tabular analysis as follows:<sup>86</sup>

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<sup>84</sup>Dr. Albert Barrett Meredith, "Physical Education and Its Relation to General Education," American Physical Education Review, Vol. 34 (1929), pp. 449-456.

<sup>85</sup>Clark W. Hetherington, "Professional Education in Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 5, No. 9 (1934), p. 3.

<sup>86</sup>Ibid.

A. The educational functions are:

1. To lead programs in activities and to achieve the developmental objectives of these activities according to standards.
2. To lead the program in character education associated with the activities.
3. To teach health (hygiene) informally as health practice or training; and formally in class as informational hygiene.

B. The protective functions are:

1. To conduct a program in accident prevention.
2. To organize and insure the success of the health protection program.

The supreme functions of a physical educator, as of any teacher, are centered:

1. In the determination by examination and test of the classification of the people with whom he deals as to the capacities and needs in educative and protective programs, and
2. In the selective analysis, evaluation, and adaptation of programs, their organization according to the capacities and needs of the classified groups of people.<sup>87</sup>

Why can it be said that physical education is a school subject, and yet more than a school subject--in fact, a way of education? The answer to this question is, briefly, that in physical education there is an attempt to develop a number of concomitant abilities, many of which receive little, if any, direct training through academic school subjects, and yet which

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<sup>87</sup>Clark W. Hetherington, Op. Cit.



must receive training if complete education and success in the activities of life are to result.<sup>88</sup>

Physical education as a process is an integral part of organized education, concerned with the progressive change originating primarily from the stimulus of big muscle activity. Physical education's chief objective, then, is the optimum stimulation for response in growth, development, and adjustment.<sup>89</sup>

This conception of physical education and its relationship to the high school will emphasize the need for the broader training of physical education instructors on the one hand and the broader training of the academic teachers in the biological point of view on the other.<sup>90</sup>

The physical education department treats the child as a complete unit, while academic teachers are often subject centered.<sup>91</sup>

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<sup>88</sup>David K. Bruce, "Why Physical Education Is a Way of Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 3, No. 10 (1932), p. 20.

<sup>89</sup>Coleman R. Griffith, "Physical Education and General Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 3, No. 9 (1932), p. 29.

<sup>90</sup>Charles C. Cowell, op. cit.

<sup>91</sup>Stanley Rolfe, "The Relation of Physical Education to the Modern Program," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 4, No. 6 (1933), p. 6.

"No more can education be smug and self-satisfied, shut within its academic walls; no more can physical education and health education be bounded by syllabi, or days' orders, or hard and fast systems; physical education has suddenly become more than a way of education; it has become one of the instruments for keeping the nation sane; it has become one of the balance wheels of civilization."<sup>92</sup>

Summary. The position of physical education in education at the present is a far cry from the position it held less than ten years ago. It was many years before educators and the public realized the value of physical education. They had to be educated before they could see the relationship of physical education to general education. Now that physical education is a part of education, there is no cause to worry about its not being accepted and given a place in the school curriculum.

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<sup>92</sup> Agnes R. Wayman, "Physical Education of the Future," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. 6, No. 1 (1935), p. 3.

### III. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The first view presented of physical education in the United States was of its status about 1900 in its relationship to systems. It was not then the subject it is today, but a system of physical training or physical culture. It was not thought of in the sense of general education, but as a method of body training and organic development.

The first departure from the formal systems was due largely to the encroachment of athletics and competitive sports upon the physical programs. Heretofore, very few high schools had provided for any form of supervised physical activity, and for several years, athletic programs provided students almost the only opportunity for physical education to be had in the secondary schools.

The force of the athletic movement was so great that it formed the largest single item in the physical training program.

Athletics would be undesirable as the sum total of physical education, but as a method of it and a stimulus for physical activity, there is no equal.

Perhaps the greatest contribution of athletics to the field of physical education is that of clearing the way for and making possible the plan of study in use today.

Closely associated with the athletic movement are the organizations and societies which were arranged to sponsor some type of physical activity. Most of these organizations were formed for the purpose, not of teaching physical education, but of sponsoring athletics and competitive sports. Some few societies, however, were formed for recreational purposes, and these, according to the modern interpretation, came the nearest to being ideal physical education organizations.

Physical education owes much of its progress and widespread acceptance to the various organizations which provided for and educated the public and the school world to the benefits which can be derived from wholesome physical activity.

The different organizations are in many instances the sole sources of physical activity for people not enrolled in school, and after all, much of the support for school physical education comes not from the school itself, but from the public outside.

The first physical programs were concerned only with the older students and adult populace; it was not until the advent of the playgrounds that the physical welfare of the children was given any great consideration.

The playground was, perhaps, the nearest approach to true physical education of any agency organized for that purpose.

This movement with the athletic movement in furthering vigorous movement. Through these agencies, however, came the decline of formal gymnastics and systems.

ences were taken into consideration and many changes were made.

It was the first important agency to foster and support recreation and leisure time activities, and inasmuch as leisure time is one of the major problems of physical education, the playground movement rates a high position in any physical program.

Some of the most radical changes in the physical education movement came during and immediately after the European War. Before 1914, the various physical education organizations, movements, and programs had been proceeding with no definite goal in view. The physical status of the soldiers showed quite clearly that the programs of physical education were inadequate for the physical welfare of the nation. Physical defects were revealed, many of which could have been remedied or cured by a well balanced physical education program.

With the facts before them, educators and physical educators began organizing programs for the main purpose of developing strong, physically fit men in preparation for any future emergency. Out of the move for preparedness grew many phases of the modern physical program, which began changing to include not only physical training, but also physical examinations and health service. In many schools, classes composed of subnormal children were organized for the purpose of giving the mis-fit pupils an ideal school and study environment. Through these special classes, individual differences were taken into consideration and many pupils were aided

in overcoming physical and mental handicaps.

The war revelations gave rise to the next big movement in this field, that of health education. Before the war, the health of an individual was left in charge of a doctor. The physical educator was in charge of the physical and muscular development. Little thought was given to the possibility of children and students having physical defects until the war department issued statistics showing that more than thirty per cent of the men drafted during the war were rejected because of some physical defect. In order to detect the physical defects of children, it was necessary to ask the assistance of the men of the medical profession. Doctors, dentists, oculists, and other qualified specialists gave pupils thorough physical examinations. Any children with defects found to be of curable or remediable nature were called to the attention of the physical education department. Thus the medical profession co-operated with physical educators for the advancement of the physical and health status of all school children.

Physical educators were soon to realize that unless cooperation was secured from all departments of education the health phase of their work would be a failure. Therefore, within a short time, most school children were subject to teacher inspection, periodical physical examinations, and follow-up service by doctors and nurses.

Modern physical education programs are directed in such a way that they adhere to the aims and objectives of general and health education with the health aspect uppermost.

Any progressive movement, in order to survive, must have a definite goal or it is likely to fail. In physical education, it was necessary to set up aims and objectives by which the physical programs and procedures could be directed.

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