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Recreational Research

G. M. GLOSS

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RECREATIONAL
RESEARCH

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FOR
GREATER HUMAN
HAPPINESS

PREFACE

The material presented in this booklet follows as the result—first, of a hobby of observing and studying various recreational projects; second, of research done as part of the requirement for a Doctorate project; and third, as an attempt to combine these two with extracts of the latest available materials on the subject. This final completion came in consequence of an invitation from Dr. Walter Monroe to write a chapter on Recreational Research for the Encyclopedia of Educational Research which he is editing. Dr. Monroe, in the process of editing, shortened considerably the original manuscript.

Requests for the original manuscript have been received and so because of this, and because of its possible service to others who may be interested, it has been made available in this form. Due to the inaccessibility of a multitude of materials, there will necessarily be many omissions of books, theses, dissertations or ideas.

There is the possibility of mistakes or deviations from original findings. But it is hoped that the usefulness of the whole compilation will more than offset any possible distortion of the primary findings or opinions of individual authors or research workers.

The compiler hereby wishes to acknowledge and give proper honor to the various authors and their publishers (especially A. S. Barnes and Co.), for all ideas, facts or opinions used in any form. In many cases, it was impossible to always give credit directly, since the original sources are so numerous, and also they often-times duplicate each other. If the reader is stimulated to further use of mentioned materials, this compendium will have fulfilled its primary purpose.

To Dean Fred Frey, Dean Clarence Ives, Mr. J. A. McMillan, Dr. A. D. Browne, Miss Ruth Price and Kay Hunsaker of Louisiana State University, thanks are due for securing assistance, library materials, editing and typing.

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INTRODUCTION *

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Braucher (31:497) mentions the fact that leisure-time activities are so varied that no single word could encompass them all. Webster's Dictionary (273:738) defines play as being a general term for physical or mental exercise for amusement. A game is play in the form of a contest, usually according to set rules; sport applies especially to outdoor athletic games or contests; and recreation is regarded as diversion or relaxation.

For our present purpose we shall in this resume, consider leisure time that portion of a person's life in which he chooses to do as he pleases. Recreation shall be considered the actual participation in an activity during this time, be it passive, active, individual or shared, organized or unorganized. In this sense the terms, leisure-time activities, or recreational pursuits, may be used interchangeably. The word play itself has lately gained a wider connotation and so for variety in writing, play will also be used to describe free-time participation.

OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH IN RECREATION

A topic as broad as recreation may be classified in a number of ways. Several committees (193 and 288:38-39) recommended areas which could be easily used as classification outlines. However, this manuscript itself is divided into:

I. History and Recent Trends, II. General Sociological Effects, III. Youth and Leisure, IV. Recreation and Education, V. Public Recreation, VI. Economic Effects, VII. Professional Aspects, VIII. Personal Health and Recreation.

Each one of the above areas has possible a number of common related basic divisions, for example—activities, administration, facilities, finance, interpretation, organization, legislation, personnel, supervision, leadership training, safety, efficiency, needs, future developments and promotion.

For purposes of thinking through this problem, the various methods or types of research used, or possible, might be considered as—historical, statistical, comparative, creative, philosophical, case study, experimental, survey, interview, observation, analytical, or any combination of these. Some of these methods are illustrated in Neumeyer (191: 338-395), a few in Lehman and Witty (135:33) and a good list in (296).

DIFFICULTIES IN RECREATIONAL RESEARCH

Since recreation as an accepted social institution is relatively new, many difficulties face the research worker.

- (1) Interpretations as to the terms used vary a great deal.
- (2) Intangible personal and social effects, unorganized programs, informal activities, all are difficult, if not impossible to measure or interpret.

* First numbers in brackets refer to book number in Bibliography, and second numbers refer to pages.

- (3) Most investigations neglect certain activities (engaged in during free time) which are socially taboo, or which conflict with customs or tradition. Some of these neglected items are, for instance, gambling, prostitution, drinking, dating, the use of drugs, stimulants or hypnotics. For an example of this see Havelock Ellis' chapter (78:116-132) on the "Play Function of Sex," which has never been re-quoted to the writer's knowledge, by any author or investigator.

Steiner (248:13-14) mentions that very few studies of the use of leisure time present a well-rounded picture and that certain differences make for so many uncontrollable variables that comprehensive studies would be prohibitive because of the expense involved.

In light of all this, it would seem that most generalizations regarding recreation are far from accurate. Quite a few studies involving leisure-time activities of people or surveys of various towns and programs are difficult to compare because of different uses in terminology, differences in items included, or other varying factors. Fortunately, Weedon (274) has devised an improved technique for determining interests in leisure-time activities. To date this has not been used on a wide scale.

RESEARCH NEEDED

The fact that research in recreation is in its infancy does not, however, prevent Hjelte (110:3) from stating that both academic and practical types are necessary (1) to help prevent expensive mistakes, (2) to clarify objectives, (3) to formulate programs, (4) to study the effects of leadership, and (5) to discover the efficiency of various forms of procedure and organization. See Neumeyer (296).

THEORIES OF PLAY

Many theories¹ have been advanced concerning the values and purposes of recreation and play. They may be summarized under the following headings: relaxation and rejuvenation, better physical health, increased mental health through personal integration, increased efficiency, safety, a greater degree of penetration into human nature, self-education, character formation, creative effort or self-expression, sociability, the improvement of society by the promotion of social integration; and acceleration of production through increased manufacture of sporting goods.²

Recently several authors have tried to simplify these theories by proposing a more inclusive basic aim. Their viewpoint will be developed later as philosophy under the division of Professional Aspects.

¹For the various theories of play as expressed by writers on this subject, see the following items in the appended Bibliography: 27:194 ff., 31:497 ff., 133:91-101, 135:1-26, 142:2-3, 152:86 ff., 165:vii, 191:2-3.

²For further development of these ideas, see the following items in the Bibliography appended: 3:27 ff., 18:16 ff., 78:116-132, 152:171 ff., 191:224 ff., 253:8 ff.

I. HISTORY AND RECENT TRENDS

GENERAL BACKGROUND

Many authors¹ have written on the history and trends of recreation. A condensed survey touching only the highlights of these various writings shows that—recreational pursuits are both old in time and universal in place. Wherever human life has existed, man has sought some form of recreation. The quest for greater amounts of leisure time in which to enjoy life was one of the causes of man's constantly seeking a better mode of tribal and racial organization. As early civilization grew and culture advanced, there was greater freedom for the use of leisure and with it came more varied forms of expression. Organized games, rituals, and pageantry developed. Community living grew more complex and occupational specialization developed. The controlling classes, such as rulers, warriors and sportsmen, regarded their opportunity for leisure time as a mark of superiority.

The first real evidence of systematized play was put into effect by the ancient Greeks, particularly by the Athenians and the Spartans. The Spartans used play to improve the efficiency of their military state by preparing their young men for military service. During the time of the Roman Empire, sports became more and more a spectacle wherein a few participated while the majority looked on. These public spectacles were used to keep the populace busy thru amusement.

Concurrent with, and following the decline of the Roman Empire, there was a period of chaos in Europe commonly known as the Dark Ages. Partly as a reaction against this state of turmoil and consequent disintegration, various peoples sought solace by picturing a better world in a hoped-for life after death. Preparation for this world was to be made by denying all apparent bodily pleasures in this world. It followed quite naturally that play being a pleasurable activity was vigorously opposed, especially by various religious groups. This lasted until the Renaissance which brought a revival of recreational interests. Music, dramatics, painting, sculpture, sports and the dance appeared.

AMERICAN BACKGROUND

At first, America's earliest settlers had to strive hard merely to keep alive. They had little time for enjoyment accepted and justified for its own sake. Add to this the fact that their own attitudes had been very strongly colored by their European background, and it is readily seen why they justified all play as work. Work therefore became play and sport itself became work in hunting, fishing, barn-raising, log-rolling, quilting-bees, corn-husking and contests of skill and strength. Later, when men commenced to accumulate a little surplus, life became more than a matter of work, and much of Colonial America (especially in the South) lifted some of the former prohibitions concerning play. Men indulged in cards, drinking, hunting and gambling. Needlework, parties and visiting were engaged in by women.

¹18, 27, 92, 141, 152, 162, 191, 223, 245, 247, 258, 264, 292, 302, 303.

The next great development came when the theatre, Punch and Judy, minstrel shows, circuses, and country fairs brought the amusement angle to a height never before known in America. Families began to incorporate as part of their regular lives Christmas celebrations, picnics, parties and dances.

Around 1850 an exceptionally large number of Germans migrated to the United States. This in time led to the organization of gymnastic societies copied after their own national pattern. Eventually, these societies influenced physical education programs in the public schools. In the 1860's unrecognized athletic groups resembling the English idea of sport began to be formed in colleges as extra-curricular activities.

In the 1850's baseball followed one-old cat, roller skating became a craze and croquet was the accepted family game. In the 80's country clubs opened, but the real fad of the day was bicycling.

The first instance of municipal funds being used for the purchase of land for recreational purposes was in 1872 in Brookline, Massachusetts. Then followed the rise of our semi-public type of organization, such as the Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A. Boston opened sand-gardens in 1866, and other cities soon adopted this innovation. The establishment and development of children's play areas continued, but no really effective progress was made until 1906, when the Playground Association of America was organized.

In 1907, Rochester, New York, opened its schools as community centers for the general public. Along with this there was a definite growth in the camping movement under the leadership of private organizations for boys and girls. As the importance of athletics became officially recognized, they were slowly recognized as a part of high school and college programs. Faculty members were made advisors, and better facilities and equipment were made available.

The formation of the American Physical Education Association in 1885 preceded the formation of the Playground Association. Its first years were spent in discussing the relative merits of the various (except England's) systems of physical exercise. As interscholastic and intramural athletic expanded, and the idea of physical play was accepted, the school programs of physical activity were gradually modified. The various systems were merged into the more natural game and sports movement. As a result of this, the American Physical Education Association in 1931 adopted as one of its ten cardinal principles the promotion of play and recreation as an aspect of the finest living. Lately it has incorporated Recreation into the title of the Association. Other organizations concerned with the use of leisure time have recently been organized, for example, the Association of Leisure Time Educators, The National Council on Education for Character and Citizenship and The Society of Recreation Workers of America.

The rapid growth of industry, and the accompanying rise and development of cities in the past fifty years left little time for city dwellers to engage in organized programs of leisure. With the long day spent indoors

and the time often consumed in going to and from work, there was little opportunity to mingle pleasure with work, as had been done in the varied, out-of-door farm life. In the country, children had fields, forests and streams as their playgrounds, with the natural play equipment of trees and animals and with the supervision of their parents and elders. The city substituted a crowded mixture where climbing, swimming, running, exploration, inquisitive and acquisitive activities (which had been normal in the country) were definitely limited by the new environment. Gangs developed, adding to the confusion of existing practices. Tensions, arising from these and a variety of other required urban adjustments, led to the establishment of the playground, the social center and the juvenile court.

A few philanthropic and social-minded individuals began to campaign actively to provide opportunities for play in congested sections, and to preserve what little was left of natural facilities. Semi-public organizations, including boys' and girls' clubs, renewed their effort to mold character through proper use of youths' leisure-time pursuits. Progress was being made when the World War diverted the efforts of these organizations into other emergency channels. Later, a continuation of this movement resulted in the beginning of year-round programs for all age groups.

The seemingly startling findings of medical examinations during the World War brought about post-war legislation in the various States requiring the teaching of health and physical education in the schools.

Corporation directors and other industrial community leaders believed that recreational programs assisted in the Americanization of foreign-born laborers, who continued to come to the United States after the World War. This belief further stimulated the growing movement toward adult education. As this movement grew, recreation facilities and activities for older groups were added to the children's and young peoples' programs already in existence in schools and public parks. The idea of the school as a community center began to be more widely accepted, and plans for school buildings included the building of larger gymnasiums, and the placing of auditoriums on the ground floor. This movement also expressed itself in the addition of field houses to public parks for use during the winter.

With the inclusion of adults in the recreational program there developed the recognition of a necessity for more adequate public support through increased taxes and appropriations. The great body of tax-paying adults had never before had a real chance to participate, and therefore had never fully understood the aims or realized the value of community provisions for a year-round program of recreation.

With this growth and expansion of recreational programs, the question of adequate leadership came to the fore. Without a good program and effective leadership, facilities were not used efficiently or wisely enough to justify public expenditures. Many children, youths and adults did not know how to play without direction. Some play spaces were used as hangouts for gangs. The necessity for diversification of activities not only called for leaders to teach and direct, but demanded in addition

skill and even specialization. Specialists were needed to supervise games, musical activities, dramatics, dancing, handcrafts, and social activities.

Graduates of schools of physical education went into this field, but in general their training was limited to the direction of purely physical activities. To help meet this demand for specialized training, the National Recreation Association in 1926 established a school for the training of executives, supervisors and playground directors. This Association still continues to hold general and special institutes in addition to offering many other services to our country.

The seventies and eighties had seen a large growth in competitive sports and athletics. During this period intercollegiate contests and professional baseball gained their greatest momentum. Baseball developed rapidly after 1910. Sand-lot baseball, as an amateur game, continued to flourish. Boxing climbed from back alley to stadia for the World War Veterans made prize fighting and even wrestling popular. College athletics have gone big business and in 1930 some twelve million people paid over \$21,000,000 for tickets. Because of the profit players are often given scholarships. To balance this commercialization, intramural programs for the remaining student body have developed to a degree higher than ever before.

During the last fifteen years there has been a second expansion of sports which has resulted in much greater participation. In consequence, athletic fields, golf courses, swimming pools, and tennis courts are increasing at a much more rapid rate than playgrounds for children. Private resources, community facilities, and even governmental bureaus are being called upon to furnish not only space and equipment, but also leadership.

Today, indoor home recreation claims the greatest amount of leisure time with reading, the radio and cards taking the largest share. Puzzles and other games come and go within a few months. Movies, the funnies and dancing claim much time of youth, with the corner drugstore, poolroom, and roadside dance hall the favorite play place.

In spite of recent progress in provision for both public and private recreation, most people still depend largely upon some form of commercial amusement for diversion. Motion pictures, dance halls, roadhouses, poolrooms, and even less socially accepted types of amusement than these, still flourish. Although some schools have become community centers in the real sense of the term, the greater proportion still remain closed after school hours. Rural recreation programs and facilities lag far behind the urban group.

II. GENERAL SOCIOLOGICAL EFFECTS

CULTURAL STRAINS AND PROBLEMS

Rapidly changing customs, population shifts, technological developments, economic strains, unemployment, interstate conflicts through taxes (and laws), a post-war moral breakdown, living tempo speed-up, and keen competition have resulted in great personal and governmental instability. Congested urban areas, regional jealousies, lack of opportunity in rural areas, speed-up system of machine production, political graft and crime have also helped to destroy tranquility and contentment.

The worker no longer sees the final production and the satisfaction of individual creative craftsmanship is gone. The drabness of factories with odors, noise and intense competition has made the worker a dullard or one who must forget the day by trying to enjoy himself in the speediest way when he leaves his work. Prestige is given to the accumulation of wealth and little to artistic creative efforts.

On the other hand, there is a greater amount of opportunity both in time and materials for creative use of spare time.

However, as a whole, legislators, sociologists, educators and the group have not as yet (in practical application) seen this point of increasing social stress. We do not have a working philosophy, clear objectives or real respect for leadership in the field of recreation. Ogburn (196:361) and Counts (58) express this by stating that recreation has not been appreciated or awarded the place it deserves in sociological recognition and study. Scholars in the field of recreation, have warned that we have the choice of destroying our civilization altogether or finding and "making popular"—active and creative uses of leisure time. At present, ready-made machine pleasures, passive amusements and the quest for over-stimulating excitement are tending to further disintegrate the individual and our society instead of acting as a balance wheel against the present tendency towards a neurotic culture. According to a recent authentic governmental report (188) machine-made pleasures will probably increase, while at the same time, unemployment and consequent economic strains will become greater.¹

Nash (164:11) points to the fact that no great civilization with appreciable amounts of leisure has in the past been able to keep from destroying itself. People have either ceased striving through becoming onlookers, or they have engaged in activities which have eventually destroyed themselves or their social order.

If recreation is to serve the ends of mankind, it would seem that it must act in the capacity of a personal and social integrator. Before it can be utilized in this way, its basic functions as an institution for service will have to be known and supported by social leaders and the populace at large. We can no longer live without machines but some of their disastrous effects may be controlled so that man becomes master of both the power released and the greater amount of spare time. At present

¹Most of this material has been extracted from the following writings: 107:74, 162:47-48, 44:21, 230:140, 188:29, 90, 288:5-15, 18:9-10, 164:111, 228:22, 112:94, 271:365, 42:158, 117:75, 107:127, 48:259, 209:206, 264, 55:191-193, 195:93.

economic conditions and lack of facilities prevents the majority from enjoying many worth-while recreation pursuits, while on the other hand, the non-accepted and therefore disintegrating types of amusements, such as the lower quality movies, radio programs, comic sheets, slot machines, pulp magazines and dance places are cheap and accessible and therefore exert a profound influence upon the populace.

RECREATION AS AN AGENCY FOR ADJUSTMENT.

Lehman and Witty (135) and Ogburn (196) note the fact that recreation may be used as an agency to prepare the individual for society. Batchelor (18) and Gloss (90) also believe this and add the idea that our highly interrelated economic system makes it essential that we cooperate on an enjoyable basis to solve the persistent problems of human associated living.

However some authors like Rugg (227:213) and Brown (33:169-170) believe that the real solution will not be in directing leisure activities but in making the industrial system change to allow for more satisfaction and creative ability in work.

Several authors¹ point out that the question of general economic sufficiency is basic, before we can discuss adequately what people should do in their spare time. For excellent discussion see (297).

INTERESTS, DESIRES AND ACTUAL PARTICIPATION IN ACTIVITIES

In general, the choice of a particular recreational interest or activity may be the result of conditioned drives, attitudes, and the habits of individuals, plus group stimulations and opportunities. These activities, of course, vary with age, sex, race, climatic conditions, social situations, and economic status. Individual differences, also, cause great variation. Whatever uniformity does exist in leisure-time activities may be due largely to suggestion, imitation, and the influence of traditional patterns, rather than a specific inherent drive for certain activities. See (191:8)

A survey by Butler (176), a compilation by Gloss (91:138-142) and a study by Thorndike (255:464-469) tend to show in general that more time (forty hours average per week) is being spent in recreational pursuits. On the other hand, when the desires of people are compared to what they do, it would seem that there is a marked difference, for they want to go swimming, play tennis, play golf, bowl, go horseback riding, camping, auto riding or boating, but—instead read newspapers and magazines, listen to the radio, converse, visit, play sedentary games, or watch spectacles.

Those who can afford it are gradually adopting more active out-of-doors pursuits. Interest in outdoor life and vacation activities is still growing, due in part to the nationwide vogue for automobile touring and pleasure travel. Accepted recreational patterns are changing. Older people are becoming interested in sports like shuffleboard, horseshoes and hiking; that is, less strenuous activities suitable for mature people of both sexes seem to be developing. There is also a general tendency towards play activities becoming similar for both sexes amongst young people.

¹ 200:1, 142, 287:12, 90.

In many ways the earlier prejudices against amusements and sports have been replaced by an almost equally fanatic belief in their value and necessity. The seeking of recreation has become entrenched in the habits and folkways of many people, so that it now wields a strong influence. This movement has swept Sunday "blue laws" aside, and great numbers now regard the week end as a time for pleasure.

The recent movement in adult recreation has influenced labor organizations and has been a force in the struggle for shorter hours. The growing demand for more time at the close of the working day, particularly for urban residents desirous of an additional hour of daylight for outdoor sports, gave impetus to the Daylight Saving movement. But, taking the country as a whole, the demand for time in which to get outdoors at the close of the working day is being met by increased efficiency in outside night lighting. Tennis and badminton courts, ball fields, swimming pools, playgrounds, golf driving ranges, and even football and soccer fields, have been equipped recently and with excellent results.

GROWTH OF SPECIALIZED CLUBS

During the last decade, the Y. M. C. A. and other semi-public organizations provided for a large number of activities, but within the last few years there has been considerable development in associations and clubs which specialize entirely in some one phase of recreation. People who can afford it are not so inclined as previously to come together for general recreation. There are clubs catering to a group interested in a single sport, or a number of sports of the same nature, such as badminton and tennis. These clubs, moreover, are banding themselves together into national organizations, and local clubs without national connection are not given so much prestige. This is true not only in the case of active recreation groups but of luncheon clubs, fraternal societies, and so forth. National officers and rules are agreed upon and once the national group falls into a pattern, the local groups rarely deviate from it.

INDUSTRIAL RECREATION

Several authors¹ have studied this phase of the recreation picture. The immediate background of industrial recreation arose immediately after the World War when Veterans, who had been exposed to the athletic program of the Army, demanded something similar in their ordinary life. Many of these ex-service men returned to industrial organizations, and brought with them the desire to continue active recreational pursuits. This gave an impetus to the improvement of the personnel service in industrial organizations. As a part of this service, corporations developed recreational programs. Many of the corporations who instigated programs felt that there would be a better feeling between the employer and the employee if all of them could get together on the basis of play, and they felt that this would be especially true if families mixed in pleasurable activities outside of working hours. As a matter of fact, Edmund (75:312) found that inside serious labor unrest was decreased by a good program.

¹92, 75, 76, 123:10, 148, 152:305, 191:355, 205, 279:38 and 53-54.

Industrial communities were particularly impoverished of space for the natural play spaces, such as water fronts and other play areas, were taken up by docks, railroads and corporation grounds. Lack of facilities make many of these industrial communities and neighborhoods dependent upon the lowest form of commercial recreation. At the present time, the great number of young men and women in the U. S. work in industries or offices. Slot machines, saloons and houses of prostitution usually are concentrated to a greater degree around industrial communities than in any other place. While the Puritanical carry-over of our forefathers and the lack of community planning thru legislation has retarded public recreation development in these communities, there are few enforced laws or any generally effective educational program to prevent the exploitation of workers thru non-acceptable forms.

However, many employees and labor unions felt that company sponsored programs bordered too much on the paternalistic². Consequently, many corporations dropped the special recreational program and instead made efforts to initiate and improve community recreation programs. They built community houses and Y. M. C. A.'s, hoping that the citizens would see their value and assume their support out of tax appropriations. The public was slow in accepting these innovations, because it did not consider recreation a public necessity. Many corporations, still desirous of continuing this, offered their own facilities or subsidized community programs they had instigated, or those already in existence. In this sense it might be said that corporations have allied themselves with the municipal programs of their communities.

Some people connected with labor organizations do not believe in having activities directed for them. They say that the problem is one of wages, rather than of programs. There seems to be some relation between the type of amusement sought and the wage scale. Kelly (126) in a study of a thousand workers found that the wage scale is quite a factor, for it ranked highest in its influence on participation in the more cultural leisure activities. As wages rose from lower than \$15 a week to more than \$35, there was an increase in participation in civic affairs. Club activities also increased around 40 per cent, while motion pictures only about 10 per cent. Radio usage increased from 13 per cent to 53 per cent. Reading showed a slight increase in popularity. Fifteen per cent of the better paid workers go to school at night, while only 4 per cent of the poorest paid workers attend. In amount of time spent, motion pictures received about 75 per cent greater emphasis by the most poorly paid workers. But in regards to numbers attending there was little difference between the wage groups.

LABOR ORGANIZATION PROGRAMS

The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics issued two bulletins (36 and 37) in which they studied 430 companies. They found that labor organizations themselves were rapidly developing programs of recreation and that they were most frequently sponsored by the local organization.

²76-6-7, 150:465.

The National Industrial Conference Board (168) in 1935 surveyed 2,452 corporations and tabulated the recreational activities and facilities. In 1935 the National Recreation Association (181) issued a bulletin covering a survey of 215 companies. This bulletin compares some previous statistics and shows an increase of 12 per cent in all activities.

COMMERCIAL RECREATION

Commercial recreation is largely unknown in Europe and Asia because of the force of folk habits and traditions. Here, in the United States, there is a lack of a consistent traditional background to check the movement toward commercialization. From the cultural point of view the absence of such traditions and the increase in amount of leisure time, has caused many undesirable forms of commercial amusement to develop. All the modern techniques of advertising have been used to promote and capitalize leisure. Many kinds of recreation have been provided at prices to fit the pocketbooks of all classes of people. This uncontrolled and unchecked development presents one of our greatest social problems.

If acceptable and useful cultural forms are to be developed, recreation must not be thought of in the narrow sense of entertainment and passive amusement. Avocations of deep spiritual and cultural significance through which the individual may actively express himself, are necessary for the full growth and flowering of personality.

America has made a tremendous advance in the number of recreational pursuits offered, but the quality has received much unfavorable comment. Experts, such as Nash (164), Lindeman (138), and Counts (58:310), have made two major criticisms. The first is that modern recreation, particularly the commercial, emphasizes the passive, vicarious and is non-creative; the second, that it appeals to the crude side of man's nature, and at the same time fails to satisfy the deeper cultural needs. In the consideration of recreational pursuits as a cultural and social force, activities falling under either of these criticized classifications possess little or no value.

Amusements, particularly, are largely in the hands of commercial interests. It is difficult to gain control of undesirable amusements because of the large financial return they bring to those who own or direct them; in fact, most of the commercial amusement programs are run for their financial return and do not consider other effects.

A superficial survey of the extent and variety of commercial amusements reveals the tremendous popularity of dance halls, prize fights, horse racing, pool and billiard halls, night clubs, motion pictures, cheap magazines, amusement parks, and pleasure resorts. Many of these popular amusements fail to measure up to desirable standards, and the burlesque shows, cabarets, taxi dance halls, and other types have a minimum of cultural integrative potentiality. Movies and radio, which might be employed to help solve many of our national problems, are generally not put to uses that would promote effective individual living patterns, or a desirable national culture pattern.

In terms of numbers of participants, commercial amusements reach such great numbers of people that they are in a position to exert a far

greater influence than can be estimated. They may even have a deleterious effect on attitudes and moral standards. Not all commercial recreation can be considered undesirable, but in its present state of development it is difficult to restrict or curb; and the vested interests involved are an obstacle to the proper functioning of governmental responsibility.

The problem as it pertains to commercial recreation is how to direct the public's desire for amusement into socially desirable channels.

PUBLIC UNDERSTANDING NECESSARY

At present most of the communities' recreation programs are being carried on by commercial, private, and semi-public agencies. Recreation originates, is stimulated, and supported in the main by private initiative or philanthropy. However like any other institution it assumes its greatest value when much of it is taken over as a public function. One of the responsibilities of educators and other socially inclined leaders, will be to bring this problem before the American people so that more adequate schemes of public planning, control and support may be devised. Sumner (249:603-4) has shown that man's past history shows evidence that amusements may become dangerous—for good morals may be lost and undesirable ones produced. They require social control and good judgment to guide them. Amusements, he says, always present a necessity for group education and self-direction. All religions have produced Puritan and ascetic sects who ineffectively sought improvement, not in satisfying but in trying to counteract the desire for amusement and pleasure. Their efforts have proved that there is not a solution thru drastic prohibitions. There must be an educated judgment for the mass of people and proper authorities to carry out the group's wishes for control.

The new leisure, then, may be either an asset or a liability. Its value depends entirely upon its use. It can enrich individuals' lives as well as a nation's culture. In this power age one of the tasks will be to find desirable things for people to do. Making a living demands less and less time. A large proportion of the population will have time for enjoyment undreamed of by our ancestors. See Lindeman (297).

Although the problems seem insurmountable, it represents a situation typical of social change. The early promotion of recreation by private individuals shows the direction that future programs may take. Hart (107:538) and Sumner (249:19) have pointed out that the caring for these situations in turn changes a culture. They note that a number of stresses arise within a culture; certain strong and alert minds see the implications and possible solutions of these stresses; they originate ideas which, when set afloat, pass by suggestion from person to person. New suggestions come in from other quarters, are combined with the originator's ideas and in time produce a modification of the culture.

CONCLUSION

Recreation, as a movement in the United States, has directly or indirectly influenced every individual's life. It has changed government, industry, business, education and religion. Although the philanthropist continues to contribute large sums annually, municipal, county, state and

federal governments are all assuming responsibility for the establishment and maintenance of public recreation facilities. Puritanical ideas of play as a vicious waste of time are giving way to the recognition of recreation as a fundamental need in the normal development of children, and as a socially desirable mode of expression for everyone.

The chief responsibility of those concerned with the profession of recreation, are, first, to understand its function as an integrative force; second, to provide adequate facilities and trained leadership; third, to control and redirect undesirable amusements; and fourth, to educate the people to its significance in social integration, and to its acceptance as a public responsibility. Recreation is a function of democracy. All of the people and their organized institutions must play an important part in its reinterpretation and redirection.

III. YOUTH AND LEISURE

YOUTH PROBLEMS ACUTE

Douglas (71:110-112) finds that youth is caught more harshly by the strains in our society than any other age group. This, he says, makes them hard, selfish and cynical. Instead of the idealism previously held, they are trying to get what they can without giving in return. This attitude plus unemployment leads to varying degrees of delinquency.

He further points to the fact that youth is dependent upon expensive amusements, and so he steals cars, snatches purses, or does other things which make it possible for him to conform to the pressure of present fashions of ostentation and adornment. It is impossible for young people of today to live a normal accepted social life without monetary expense, many times that which was required of their elders when they were young. For the majority of youths, money may come from only one of three sources—their elders, employment, or illegitimate sources. To help solve this he believes that young people must be re-educated in their leisure pursuits so that they will accept and enjoy less expensive leisure-time activities.

Another author (277:203-207) in reviewing the writings of people who have investigated youth problems, found that a number of critical problems were facing us in our taking care of the youths of today. He says that they are not allowed to take any responsibility, and so they either rebel and turn toward anti-social conduct, or give up and make no attempt. It would seem that young people are more numerous in low-plane living areas. Unemployment is greater in the youth group, particularly under twenty-one. Schools are not educating students for the type of positions that they eventually obtain. There is a thwarting of the normal desire for marriage and a lack of education for the same. There is neither education for, nor facilities for an adequate recreation program. Rural youth turn to artificial and commercial amusements in nearby cities and to low-grade recreation opportunities which are invading the rural territory. The churches have a declining influence. School physical education has stressed winning athletics to the detriment of widespread participation in sports for the less privileged. Keen athletic competition for the youngsters under nineteen has become dangerous to the health of these boys and girls. There is little chance for personal satisfaction through success, and even though it could be given in a proper program of recreation, it is at present impossible because existing machine-made pleasures offer no real goal to attain. Despite all this, he finds no accurate generalization possible as to any one factor as the cause of youth's lawlessness.

GOVERNMENTAL RECOGNITION

Our present government has been cognizant of youth problems and has made a number of surveys itself. There are other compilations regarding 166 youth surveys (105). A government bulletin (56:2) points to the fact that one out of every four, between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four, were without occupation, and not in school. In jail, reform

school, and prison, there are 250,000 below the age of 30. Approximately 250,000 are bumming up and down the rail and motor highway (71:10). There are ten million girls and only 1,500,000 of them are touched by any agencies serving the adolescent girl. In other words, a little over nine per cent of the girls in this country have a chance to participate in organized club recreation (216:78-79).

COMMUNITY SERVICES FOR YOUTH

Several authors¹ discuss the various types of clubs and organizations serving youth. Recently the church has taken more interest in spare-time interest of its youth (18:67), (121:141).

Another group of writers² arrived at the conclusion that nothing can be done for youth as long as the single type of youth agency continues to function in its narrow sphere. Substantial progress can only be made when all social, character-building, labor, educational and commercial interests get to-gether and formulate some sort of agreed-upon ideals based upon a political-national philosophy. Through a common goal more progress can be made. These writers all stress the necessity of its beginning in the local community. After a number of Federal Conferences, several youth co-ordinating councils were formed on an experimental basis and proved very successful (2:127-128).

Rainey (215:159-167) even goes so far as to say that the largest group of our robbers and gangsters are of college age, but that when youth becomes devoted to a special cause, there is in all likelihood to be much less difficulty in the realm of personal morals. Rainey (215:176) believes that the community must undertake the removing of contradictory standards of (1) school and church, and (2) of polite society, commercialized amusements, politics and business on the other.

Another author (8:279) believes we are overemphasizing the youth problem and points out that there are those who wish to use our youth in the same way that the dictators in some other countries have, to accomplish their nationalistic aims.

Some authors³ have shown how, with great efficiency, the dictators have enlisted the loyalties and the sports enthusiasm of youth to further their own political goals. Their physical education and recreation programs are deliberately designed for (1) preparation for military service, (2) for propaganda, and (3) for indoctrination of nationalistic ideology.

Hanna (104:265) believes that the totalitarian states, through the unification of useful projects, give youth more purpose.

Williams (277:256), quoting Winslow, believes that this country can develop a sound program for youth free from the elements of regimentation existing in dictatorship countries.

¹ 18:74-75, 27:50-61, 152:365-391, 191:324-363.

² 215:174-177, 238:61-62.

³ 8, 17, 49, 73, 90, 102, 129, 139, 259, 267, 272, 275, 282, 293.

Rainey (215:76-79) points out that the play areas in the city have become very scarce. On the other hand, that everywhere youth must depend, as far as the recreation picture is concerned, upon the motion picture, automobile, dance hall and poolroom and he says the young people are asking for more playgrounds, community centers, where they may have individual sports, dances, clubs, dates and participation in hobbies.

Edgren (74) found that the economic status of youth was a strong factor in determining activity participation. On the other hand, Thom (254) believes that if youth were adequately trained, they would find a wealth of inexpensive pleasures. And Glover (93) emphasizes this point when she said that youth had been coddled too much and that it needs to serve the community by building and creating its own play spaces and equipment. This point is again emphasized when Hanna (104:267-268) finds a need for leadership which will assist children and youth to find something worthy of their strength and loyalty, that is, something that will give youth a sense of belonging through giving service for which they may obtain praise in return.

Swanson (250:67) drew the conclusion that for rural young people neither the strictly educational, nor the strictly recreational meetings were as educationally effective as a combination of these two.

Another government bulletin (120), surveying the status of American youth, compiled figures on the recreational pursuits and desires of the boys and girls in thirteen communities, totaling 48,801 youths. The comparison of actual participation against desired participation shows that they wanted more outdoor activities. The authors of this study concluded that the present younger generation, because of their present leisure-time participation, will be more efficient than their parents, in health, morale and vigor.

Cassidy (46:3), after surveying European programs, finds that we could use many of their ideas of youth travel in order to teach intelligent citizenship by first-hand experience. She further points out that only through seeing various conditions in other parts of our country can one have any comprehension of problems in several various areas.

The Sixteenth Yearbook (8:142) listed an excellent set of objectives for youth's leisure-time programs. These concerned themselves with philosophy, health, life interests, opportunity, social attitudes, knowledge of facilities and sharing through building a better program. A very complete listing of the organizations that serve youth are in this same publication (8:261).

IV. RECREATION AND EDUCATION

THE SCHOOL'S TASK

As far back as 1921, Dewey (135:2) expressed the belief that organized education must offer adequate provisions for the enjoyment of leisure and further that the idea that play could be suppressed was absolutely false, for the Puritanical tradition which will not recognize the need has brought on an enormous crop of evils. On the other hand, Brownell (35:12) calls attention to that fact that the public schools have never really faced the problem of education for leisure time, and that those few activities which are included in the curriculum are tolerated only because they offer relief from the supposedly more necessary academic education.

Newer educational theories (118) have stressed the necessity of a recreational approach for all education. The old idea of education with its emphasis on subject matter to be mastered, skills to be acquired, or conduct patterns to be formed, is giving way to the newer concept in which the individual is seen in the light of all his experiences. It recognizes that learning is not necessarily something of the mind that goes on only in school. With this recognition comes the realization that out-of-school experiences may be of even greater influence. See (58-308).

These new ideas of education have been summarized (225:288) in the following three concepts:

1. Education and life conceived of as a growth process.
2. The evolution of meanings through actual experience. Growth becomes dependent upon a progressive evaluation of experience in terms of end results.
3. The normal human is to be regarded as a normal human being when his choice of experiences move him toward ever better integration.

The essential connection between education and play lies in its being an expression of activity in which changes takes place when the individual engages actively in the solution of a problem. When people play together they tend to enjoyably learn the rules of the game, and in addition acquire in varying degrees each other's attitudes toward life and ideals. In this sense the influence of play is frequently more far-reaching and subtle than "in-school" relationships, because of the participant's pleasurable feelings and absorption in the activity. See (297:21-22). (191:168.)

Active participation comes only through the use of the body. Rugg (225:388) believes that "the body in action" is the very matrix of the human self, the essence of human personality and he concludes that it is most important that educators see that the proper use of the living organism is central to the whole enterprise of education. Boyd (28:410) develops this viewpoint further when she expresses the belief that—when games are used for educational purposes, they have greater possibilities of creating normal patterns of behavior than any other activity.

We must keep in mind here that by play or recreation we mean more than just physical games. It would seem that arts and crafts have

never been utilized for the potentialities that they have for creative satisfaction. A state department of education (61) under the newer type of curriculum development has listed the various activities possible to use in school. See also (305).

Dimock (70:427) in his thought-provoking article asks specifically, how effective is our education for leisure? He reminds us that education for leisure is not the same thing as the automatic result of participation in recreational activities. He sets up a number of criteria for discussion. The first one concerns itself with whether or not interests or activities being engaged in, are capable of persisting on adult levels. He (70:427) also asks whether or not the interests or activities give an opportunity for creative self-expression.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Lee (134) lists the present trends in our physical education programs as (1) departures from formalized methods, (2) recognition that programs are for the mass of students, including the underprivileged, (3) co-recreation, (4) achievement standards, (5) further adaptation of the programs to fit the individual's needs, and (6) units in teaching.

The great feeling for the necessity of carry-over or life usefulness has been one of the reasons for questioning the old type of program. Gestalt psychology would seem to bear out the contention that even the participants must know the ends sought and the usefulness of any activity (88:17).

Madden (143:358) clearly expresses the view that physical educators must—in order to prepare men and women to fill their free time with active games, teach them to swim, to play tennis, golf, shuffleboard, table tennis, deck tennis, badminton, archery, horseback riding, and all the other sports which offer greater opportunity for participation than the team games.

PLAY BEHAVIOR AND DEVELOPMENTAL POSSIBILITIES

Many studies have been made on various age levels regarding behavior and upon people's expressed desires and seeming needs. A few educators have tried to plan a program to meet them. Lehman and Witty (135) call attention to the fact that any play behavior is conditioned by many variables, particularly that of environment, racial backgrounds, prevailing fashions, local adult interests, space and facilities, materials and equipment, and further call attention to the fact that any generalizations regarding individual play behavior must be made with extreme care.

CHILDREN'S PLAY

Bonser (25:79) in his investigation at Cleveland, drew the conclusion that recreational habits of any permanency were those acquired early in life during the elementary school period and therefore that the elementary schools have the greatest opportunity to influence peoples' later actions. However, he found that the school was failing completely and even destroying the early interests of the child by refusing to recognize that the child's interests were directed toward constructive enterprises and social activities.

He found that the school failed to utilize the clues inherent in children's spare-time activities which reveal interest in, and capacity for, constructive, scientific, industrial, and social studies of current interest. These interests and capacities would seem to be of first-rate importance for the economic, civic and social well-being of our society. It would seem from his report that the schools should utilize interests and capacities of children to promote that harmony of social adjustment which they as an institution of adjustment are intended to promote. In his opinion constructive and worthwhile interests disappear after the student passed through the educational system, and he further draws the startling conclusion that very low correlation of general standards of ability with school marks indicates a waste on the part of the school to fully utilize the abilities which the pupils bring to it.

Mitchell (151:50) also drew the conclusion that leisure-time activity skills were developed in childhood, if at all, and therefore he believed that the school's responsibility is to make accessible a wide variety of leisure-time activities as a part of the curriculum. This is to be not only team games and sports, but the manual arts, the fine arts, household arts, and even nature study.

Thom (254) stressed the role of the parent, in expressing the belief that permanent life satisfactions and pleasure in later life could be furthered by giving the child a chance to acquire habits and attitudes of self-reliance for the later pursuance of recreational activities.

Parten (201) found that school children most frequently play in groups of two. Another conclusion seems to carry out Bonser's idea when Parten found that playing house was the most social type of playing engaged in by nursery school children.

Greeley (97:79) found that children between ten and thirteen learned the games played outside of school from their parents and from other children, rather than from the school physical education program, and the carry-over value of school games could be increased by programs of natural activities, plus the provision for children to play the school-taught games under their own leadership while at school. Schwendener (237) found fourth grade children enjoyed competitive behavior, plus general body activity and social games.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

Investigations by Cowell (59:169) and Lehman and Witty (135) found that the students of junior high school age liked big muscle activities and team games. Both sexes seemed to enjoy competitive sports, especially the boys.

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

This interest of the team game begins to drop out in the junior high school. This tendency becomes more marked during the senior high school level, according to Wilder (276:42), Anderson (9), Hood (112:51) and Wayman (270:5). In general these people found that sports of the individual and dual types, such as swimming, archery, golf, tennis, bowling, horseback riding and hiking, were desired with greater frequency by

the students and in addition had much more potential carry-over value.

Wilder (276:46), Wayman (270:6), LaMaster (128:57), English (80:5), Bagwell (15) and Bottje (26:78) all concluded that the senior high school failed to develop skills and habits in connection with individual and dual sports activities. Few of the activities the students desired or actually participated in for fun were learned in school. The formal physical education program, class and intramural team game competition, and athletics, they said, all had failed to give them usefulness in out-of-school or later life sports skills.

English (80:5) pointed out further that even when the physical education program was not formal that it tended to overemphasize group games with individual and dual activities being grossly neglected.

Bottje (26) and LaMaster (128) have concluded that there is no apparent relationship between some of the activities participated in by the students outside of school and the ones they were taught in the school physical education program.

Davis (65:163) concluded that hobbies were of real educational significance and (1) that they make their initial appearance through all grades, (2) that they were learned from friends, from home, and from school, (3) that, since this was the case, their present curricular work in school must include hobbies, because the present extra-curricular program did not contribute to their hobbies. The subjects in a school which did contribute most were Physical Education, English, Literature, Biology, History, General Science and Physics.

Chin (50:49) found that the relationship between school activities and out-of-school activities were most marked in music, art and the sciences. He would have the school take over much more training in the use of leisure time. Jayne (119:2) found that a group of junior high school children engaged in hobbies more than any other form of activity during their leisure time. The rank order of their actual participation was: reading, walking, eating, football and picture shows.

Witherspoon (279) found girls were influenced very little by the school in their own outside social activities. Activities such as dating, joy riding, parties, visiting and gossiping were most popular. They cared little for physical activity and she drew the conclusion that it was the fault of the physical education group in not teaching them how to play.

Bergholz (22:82) and Heaton (108:234) have concluded that there needs to be a course in the worthy use of leisure time on the high school level, for individuals needed guidance and help along this particular line.

Cassidy (45:1) believes that the secondary school physical education program should be based on the individual's differences and needs, with a program of full guidance to help the individual to clarify his goals, plan to achieve them, proceed to carry out the plan and adequate help in evaluating progress from time to time.

After nine years of study, a committee of experts representing a national association (53:30) recommended that basketball, gymnasium drills,

field hockey, soccer, softball, football, volley ball, other team activities plus individual and dual sports, be made part of the high school program.

COLLEGE PROGRAMS

Much of the same criticism of the high school is seemingly also applicable to college programs. Talbot (252) in a study of a state university found that opportunities to take advantage of a definite interest in the various types of nature study were not being taken care of, and also that college women would like to participate more in active pursuits but that facilities were lacking.

Hamblen (101:42) discovered that most of the activities which women students expressed a desire to do are almost entirely active in nature. They wanted dancing, swimming, hiking, tennis, walking, etc. Besides the active things, they wanted some help in collecting, drawing, painting, sketching and music. Toogood (256:99) found in studying actual participation and expressed desires for some three thousand college women that they participated in inactive and indoor types of passive recreation, but desired active outdoor sports like golf, riding, skiing, swimming and sailing. Most of these were not taught in the regular physical education program.

Elliott (77) in a study of a state university found that there was inadequate provision for men's physical activities and also that social and cultural activities needed a definitely planned program.

Karsner (124:90-100) in another study of the men's program in a state university discovered that working students do not have sufficient leisure time, that the present program of physical education activities did not cater to the interests of the majority of the students and that a relatively small percentage of students were active in fine arts and dramatic arts.

Harris (106:97) also found that students who work for pay had much less time for recreation than the average student. Bike (24:77), Miller (149:45-46), Patterson (202:45) and Newell (192) in surveys of various colleges found that highly competitive team sports were being overemphasized and that individual activities, such as swimming, golf, tennis, boating, fishing, hunting, reading and music were needed to meet the needs of students and to fulfill the carry-over values.

Johnstone (122) in a study of a state university found that the six outstanding recreational interests were: swimming, tennis, basketball, skating, golf and handball, and also discovered that the desires of men and women were practically the same. Newell (192) in a study of six colleges and 1,145 men found that the activities ranked in order of preference were: tennis, golf, swimming, squash, handball, badminton, skiing, skating, boxing, volley ball and horseback riding.

Hupp (114) found a need for the teaching of creative arts which might be developed into hobbies, and more guidance in helping the students to choose their reading materials. She also found that the individual and dual type of sports were more popular than the group type.

A committee report (154:35) recommended promotion on the college level of activities which have the greatest carry-over values, i.e., individual

and small group activities. They also recommended provision of facilities for fishing, hunting, boating, golfing, bowling and skating.

Cotteral (57) investigated the relationship between the college physical education department and the communities in which they existed. In this study of 72 institutions she found that approximately 63 per cent were helping in the leisure-time program in the community, and 37 per cent were not. Individual activities led in popularity.

CO-RECREATION

Co-recreational activities on both the high school and college level have recently been developing. Dalrymple (63) in a study of 142 colleges and universities found that prejudice and personal opinion hampered the developing of a program. The actual number of co-recreational courses was less than one per cent per school in state and private schools, and slightly more than three per cent in denominational institutions. The most common activities were tennis, archery, badminton and golf. Those students who had a chance to participate enjoyed themselves.

Wayman (269) quoting a national association study found that co-recreational programs were proving highly successful when instigated, even though most of the programs that are existing are in the early stages of organization. For further reading see (298).

Roberts (219) summarized a panel discussion on co-recreation and listed recommendations on how to begin a program. A number of people¹ have written on the topic of co-recreation citing examples that have proved successful. One of the most highly recommended co-recreational activities is dancing. However Marsh (144:62) in a survey of social dancing in America found that the most discouraging condition in social dancing was the inadequacy of the educational group to handle it. As a rule the teachers could not dance, didn't enjoy it, or did not like to teach it. She believes that young people will dance anyhow, but that they are forced to go to questionable places to do so. This is where they acquire their cheap morals, tawdry philosophies and common styles of dancing.

HIGH SCHOOL ATHLETICS

Ash (11:1) and Rohret (224:27) criticize high school interscholastic athletic programs on the basis of their effect upon education in general and the individual in particular. They believe that it may prevent a meeting of the individual's need and that when it becomes a power in the schools, the teachers lose control of their pupils and the general effect is detrimental.

COLLEGE ATHLETICS

Savage (233, 234, 235) in his studies of American and British athletics criticized America's intercollegiate athletics on the basis of its being commercial, plus the fact that they lack character building possibilities for the student. He believes that intramurals and less formal sports and games should be stressed more. This he finds is compatible with the sports

¹ 12:396, 32, 60, 157, 174, 175, 203, 254, 262:14, 298.

practices of British universities which do not compel men to participate, or place a premium on their skill. Participation is evaluated in terms of its physical effect upon youth and its socializing influence. For a condensed report of this literature see Ryan (231).

GENERAL SCHOOL SYSTEM SURVEYS

Various surveys¹ in a large number of public school systems have been made. Alsop (6:356) found that state programs vary as to the aims and objectives of physical education, and also that states were not agreed concerning physical or social characteristics of children for the first six grades. Brammell (29:77-79) in a study of 460 secondary schools found that three-fourths of them state that physical education is required. Only a small percentage of them open their grounds or buildings at any other time than the regular school day.

Lies (136) in his survey of 35 public school systems found that a large percentage of the schools did not have gymnasiums, auditoriums or swimming pools. He also found that the development of extra-curricular activities had not progressed to any great degree. Some had many, others a few, depending upon the interest of the principal. He concluded that the bulk of the millions of school children in our public schools do not have adequate after-school programs, or sufficiently skilled leadership to carry it on.

On the other hand, a report (180:4) showed that legislation and leadership for school physical education between the years of 1928 to 1934 has increased remarkably. College graduates have come into the field as leaders, expenditures have increased and standards have been raised. Enrollment in physical education classes has increased from 7 per cent in 1928 to over 50 per cent in 1934.

RECREATION COORDINATOR

The American Association of School Administrators' report (8) recommended that within each school there should be a coordinator or director of leisure-time activities. They list some of the possible duties as (1) keeping records, (2) calling of attention to current interesting activities and clubs, (3) meeting with agencies who are maintaining programs, and (4) counseling with the parents and pupils.

¹The Survey Staff of Teachers College, Columbia University, has in its reports included excellent sections on physical education and other phases of recreation.

V. PUBLIC RECREATION

INTRODUCTION

Miller (150:467) contends that the purpose of the State is to elevate human life, and so because of present needs the chief function of our government should be the education of its citizens, not only for the problems of their life's work, but of their leisure time as well.

The term "public recreation" is used in this chapter to mean those agencies developed and supported by public funds. These agencies would include parks, playgrounds, public municipal recreation, libraries, museums, botanical and zoological exhibits, etc.

In the last 25 years there has been a decided tendency to accept recreation as a public function both in the matter of providing education for recreation, facilities and leadership. Although people are frequently protesting higher taxation, still they demand more and more services from the government. Just as education has become accepted as a public responsibility, so such functions as public health measures, state care of defectives, care of dependents, the aged and unemployed, and public recreation are becoming more and more to be considered necessary functions of the State, and the National Government.

NATIONAL PROGRAMS

Lindeman (138:399) in discussing the national programs, points out that during a period of two years the Works Progress Administration alone spent \$300,000,000 on the construction of facilities and that this, plus leadership furnished, had advanced in this short time recreation in America a thirty-year span. He believes that this growth may continue if (1) the Federal Government promotes long-time planning, (2) if the citizens become enlightened as to the meaning of recreation, and (3) if the leadership is of high caliber. He believes that people themselves are seeking a type of recreational experience which is compatible with the democratic way of life. This implies that the existence of a leisure class as in feudal states is incompatible with the equality of opportunity that should be offered by a democratic society. Further, he judges that the worthiness of living in a technological society is likely to be determined by the quality of individual growth which comes from development secured in one's leisure time. Recreation as a national expression becomes a pursuit, not for filling in idle hours, but to repair the disintegrating experiences of a working day which tends to tear apart the totality of the individual. See also Lindeman (297).

TRENDS IN PUBLIC RECREATION

Several studies (291) (299) and (179) covered recent trends in public recreation in the United States. Worman (291) in excellent fashion shows the increase in areas, in facilities, both in federal, state, county and municipal parks, and also shows there has been an increase in the use of school facilities. There is also a gain in the way older youth and adults have used facilities, in the field of drama, puppets and marionettes, in community singing, outdoor activities, in the betterment of the personnel

qualifications, in the participation of voluntary leaders, in playgrounds for colored people, in funds spent for municipal recreation, and in the amount spent by people. He calls attention to the serious problems of municipal recreation, in regards to finance, qualifications of personnel, political influence, and the difficulties of securing adequate lay support.

The National Recreation Association in a publication (179) lists expenditures for areas and facilities, administration and maintenance, activities and personnel of public recreation. This report states that the outstanding developments since 1932 are in facilities, a shift from municipal support to Federal emergency funds, a marked increase in the development of hobbies and greater participation in a variety of arts and handicrafts, especially among adults.

SUGGEST FEDERAL BUREAU OF RECREATION

Various national governmental agencies, bureaus and offices have assumed responsibility for furnishing recreation for the people. Some thirty-five agencies have been separately trying to meet the need.

This condition of various Federal government services by bureaus led to the temporary appointment of an inter-departmental committee (116) to see how it might be possible to coordinate these various Federal agencies. This technical committee, representing thirty-five various groups, drew in brief the conclusions that (1) there is a definite need for coordination amongst governmental agencies now promoting recreation; (2) that this coordination can only be achieved by establishing a bureau of recreation to be under the administration of a proposed new department of welfare; (3) that this bureau be vested with the responsibility of furnishing information to all agencies engaged in recreational activities, both public and private; (4) that it encourage specialized training for recreational leadership; (5) that it formulate standards designed to improve the quality of recreation programs; (6) that it review proposals for state projects and advise on current programs; (7) that it concern itself with national planning on behalf of recreation; (8) that it enhance recreation functions being performed by other Federal agencies, rather than to absorb them; (9) that it (a) maintain a library for research materials, and (b) encourage research and furnish information on research already gathered to both governmental and private institutions; (10) that it assist in planning by offering services to cities, towns, counties, states and regions; (11) that it assist by advising and helping to formulate legislative phases; (12) that it initiate and assist in conducting special demonstration programs; (13) that it receive appropriations and disburse these to needed states and communities.

Several qualifying statements regarding the functions of this bureau are appended to the report. The report lists also the various functions of the Federal agencies that are now in existence. This report brings to mind a question which confronts the United States now in many governmental agencies; that is, that of centralization of authority. It would seem that centralization produces efficiency, but it might tend toward totalitarianism unless certain choices, responsibilities and powers are left to the local communities.

DANGER OF CENTRALIZED CONTROL

A number of people¹ have pointed out that a comparative study of present programs shows that the centrally controlled totalitarian governments have superimposed the whole recreation programs with little left to individual initiative. This program planning embraces all phases of recreational pursuits, i.e., theatre, movies, arts, libraries, publication of books, physical recreation, etc. These are all used as a medium for arousing and cementing national consciousness. Herein it would seem lies the danger of centralization in the United States. One anonymous writer (265:1) voices his opinion in defense of individual choice of recreational pursuits by signifying his dislike of any sort of governmental supervision of free time and he questions whether the great majority of people really want—their tastes improved, their idleness disrupted with purposeful activity, or their ignorance dispelled.

On the other hand, Butterworth (41:168) takes an opposing point of view when he registers an opinion against unplanned leisure. He argues that the community has a definite responsibility and concern with the free time of its citizens.

FEDERAL AND STATE PROGRAMS

One of the most systematic and widespread surveys as to extent of areas and facilities was accomplished when in 1933 Federal assistance was made available to the states and the civil division as part of the emergency program. The National Park Service, having previously been concerned with park conservation and recreation, took the leading role by gathering statistics and information. Later these services were made permanent by an Act of the Seventy-Fourth Congress and the National Park Service was directed to make a nationwide study (171). This study covered three major objectives: (1) to obtain all available information concerning existing recreational facilities, areas and systems, and to analyze legislation, existing plans, population and other factors affecting the recreational problem; (2) to determine requirements for recreation over a period of years on a nationwide scale, and (3) to formulate definite plans and recommendations for adequately meeting the present and future recreational requirements. Thus there are really two phases: the first, the inventory phase (existing and potential), and second, the analysis, appraisal and recommendation for the future. The state was considered the unit, and since the study was uniform, it will finally permit of a master plan in each of the states, in regions and nationally.

The first report of progress of the National Park Service (169) covered all of the work being done throughout the country by the Federal Aid Program. Some thirteen million dollars were spent on projects supervised by the National Park on development projects. Some eight million dollars were spent on demonstration areas. Cooperation and services of C.C.C. camps were used in the development of buildings, beaches, picnic grounds, parking areas, roads, bridges and other facilities required for adapting land to public recreational uses.

¹ 90, 147, 258, 275.

The impetus of the support from the national government through the whole park and recreation movement brought a more rapid development. Most states had no central bureau nor had given much attention to developing park systems. They awakened quickly to the improvement of recreation service. The cooperation of national and state governments has proven sound. A functional working relationship has been established with appropriate state agencies. So far, the work has proceeded on the inventory phase and is directed through four regional supervisors responsible in turn to the Washington office.

Many states have produced reports which are listed in (169) and (170). The Richmond office has produced a mimeographed list (251) covering state agencies. Many of these state reports can be secured by writing to the proper authorities. Two government publications list many of these reports (284).

The next report (170) of the National Park continued the tabulations of the previous year, plus discussions by the government officials, and also included articles by authorities in recreation outside of the Federal government.

Besides the cooperative relationship of the National Park Service and state agencies, the service has built up a staff to furnish technical assistance, to conduct research, to assist drafting of legislation, to help with administrative organization, program building, and the planning and stimulation of community recreation.

The Works Progress Administration (283:450) estimated in 1936 that when the 5,722 recreational facility projects of the Works Progress Administration have been completed, they will have cost over \$181,000,000. Not only has the recreational division itself provided assistance through building, but it has also provided leadership, bulletins, booklets, advice, demonstration projects and many other services to state and local programs.

W.P.A. programs are instigated in communities through the formulation of a local recreational council. This council is made up of representatives of a number of organizations in the community. This means that there is no imposed program for the council serves as a means of mediating between the national government and the community. It chooses where, and how, and what, the program and staff should be. They are supposed eventually to see the value of the program and transform the emergency program into a regular community service. All phases of the program must conform with certain policies, as to safety, etc. It represents an effort to utilize emergency expenditures in such a way that a vital program will be left operating under state and local systems. Probably some of the most valuable results have been the stimulation, the passing of legislation, new and improved skills to thousands of workers, and a deliberate attempt to revive arts and crafts on a widespread scale. There are special training institutes and other methods of instruction used by the W.P.A. They have been much closer to the theories of progressive education than the colleges and universities who train recreation leaders. See (299).

A good example (289) of the type of materials produced by the Recreation Division of the W.P.A. is their compilation of state laws for local

recreation. This bulletin has as a central objective an evaluation of the present types of laws with special regard to the inclusion of provisions allowing for the operating of a comprehensive program. They do not recommend any model law, but show that each state must meet its particular problems in its own way. Examples are cited and excellent suggestions made.

Recently the United States Housing Authority has become interested in the planning of recreational facilities for its projects. In one of its latest bulletins (261) it considers many phases of planning the recreation site. Other housing projects are discussed in a magazine article (182:370).

COMMUNITY RECREATION

Pangburn (200) calls attention to the fact that the ordinary American cannot afford the type of recreation that is given prestige, by virtue of its being engaged in by the wealthy. In the city, homes are small and crowded, rivers are polluted, the simple parties of the old community and churches are gone and even in the rural communities the facilities for outdoor sports are lacking.

Ku (127:142) found little recognition of the necessity of planning for urban recreation in relation to the general city plans. Nash (165:64) called attention to the fact that cities grow up and get set before people realize there is a necessity for planning, and then it is practically impossible to effect changes. He suggests scientific study in this area.

We have seen that while Federal and state agencies have accomplished much, still, as Morrow (156) says, it is upon the community that the real responsibility must fall. This, of course, has been the theory of the W.P.A.

Only recently has it been possible to survey and evaluate a community's adequacy in providing a program. Now, the National Recreation Association has an excellent form (300). Holland's form is useful (301:37). Co-authors, Spindler and Dambach (246:119), have set up a form for the evaluation of physical education programs in contributing to leisure time participation.

In regard to facilities, Butler (40 and 208) has prepared the most comprehensive books on building and maintenance of play facilities in a community. Gardner (84) has a pamphlet on the promotion and development of a program, and Morrow (156) also shows various methods of promoting and organizing a program.

A magazine article (185) gives a short description of various types of municipal recreation. It describes equipment, discusses leadership, location, layout, play fields, playgrounds, recreation parks, reservations, areas, beaches, pools, stadia and camps.

Some of the newer movements in community recreation seem to be greater co-ordination of public agencies, offering of leadership to any group of sufficiently large numbers, community support for many of the semi-public type of institutions, greater uses of the schools, churches and other public buildings, the building of municipal auditoriums, the

addition of leadership, the building of day camps, handball courts, shuffle-board courts and stadia, and great gains in the use of the beaches, softball diamonds and cultural activities.¹

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF COMMUNITY RECREATION.

One of the favorite controversial topics is who shall control or administer a community program. Many authors² have written upon this topic. It would seem, however, that in general the responsibility rests with the park board, the school board or an independent playground and recreation commission. Sometimes two of these groups join in conducting a program. Occasionally they unite into one body of control. The important thing would seem to be the degree of cooperation which governing groups and leaders may secure from various departments and institutions in a given area. No one agency can be isolated from the other community agencies.

LEGISLATION

Legislation has increasingly received attention, meriting the importance which it deserves. One government publication (289), another publication (8:167) and several theses (156 and 68) all point to the fact that lack of clarity in legislative codes causes much of the overlapping and confusion.

STATE DEPARTMENTS

State departments are beginning to develop programs through the development of conservation departments, state planning boards, commissions of forestry, of fish and game, park boards, highway commissions, division of forests and parkways, and various combinations of these agencies. Under the impetus of the National Parks' study, this will undoubtedly increase.

OTHER AGENCIES BESIDES PUBLIC

Throughout this report there are references to other agencies. Standard books listed in the Bibliography cover the extent of the semi-public, occupational, private, commercial, informal and institutional programs.

¹These materials were extracted from the following publications: 191, 92, 115, 152, 173, 218, 247, 248.

²8:165, 64:24, 79, 92:63-84, 103, 109:403, 115:185, 172, 190, 191:305, 212:51, 243, 278:395-403 See especially Neumeier 191:314

VI. ECONOMIC EFFECTS

Tandy (253:10) reveals that the economic effects of leisure will be largely in accordance with what people do, plus the way legislation and other cultural forces allow recreation to be used. For, the activity, in turn, affects the kinds of goods that will be used, the workers employed, capital required and the development and use of natural resources. Steiner (247) signifies that by virtue of the commercialization of leisure it has become bound up with purchasing.

OVEREMPHASIS ON ECONOMIC ASPECT

There is, however, a fundamental weakness of the current economic emphasis on leisure. Through studying the money phase we tend to place emphasis only upon what people buy and spend. Through this kind of accent we stress the indulgence phase, instead of seeking to discover why people do not use this time for the best personal and social interests, that is, through the keeping of a nice balance of integration of personality, based upon man's biological nature and social needs. Although expenditures represent a certain direction, still, unless they are used to show the deviations from what is desirable and necessary, they become mere facts without reference.

INFLUENCE ON ECONOMICS

Frankl (81:42) brings to our attention the fact that the greatest increase in industrial production during the first quarter of this century is to be found in those industries which manufacture goods for recreation and leisure. Some of these industries are the automobile and its related products, the radio and phonograph, silk and rayon goods, manufactured sweets, cigarettes, motion pictures and their by-products, and many industries making products which the ordinary man believes are necessities for his living.

The Society for Curriculum Study (245:22) estimated that between the years of 1927 and 1930 the American people spent ten billion dollars, or an average of \$80 per person per year. This sum was equal to their savings in 1929, a little more than their clothing bills and three times what they paid out for medical care or education. They estimated that of this amount two billion, two hundred-fifty million dollars were spent on commercial amusements.

Beard (19:337) estimated the annual cost of play in America as over twenty-one billion dollars. Another estimate (177:639) gave the total average annual expenditures in the past few years at six billion dollars per year. This same report estimated that commercial amusements received approximately one billion dollars during this period. This report concluded that (in comparing 1933 with 1935 expenditures) commercial amusements are on the upward trend by at least 34 per cent and that as the working hours get shorter, there will be more and more demand for popular amusements.

A government report (284:49) estimated that the various state incomes

from recreation produced as a direct result of park use amounted to more than seven million dollars in 1930. Fish and game license fees alone were nine million dollars in 1930, and almost fourteen million dollars in 1932.

Worman (291) estimated the amounts expended from both regular and emergency public recreation program funds as follows: from the regular funds for land, buildings, upkeep, supplies and salaries, over twenty-five million dollars; for the same services from emergency funds, over twenty-two million dollars. From a comparison between 1909 and 1935, he concludes that we are going into more active pursuits, and that the American people appear to be spending a large and rapidly increasing amount of their income for recreation. He found that the emergency governmental agencies have spent approximately one billion dollars, directly or indirectly, for recreation purposes.

FUTURE ECONOMIC INFLUENCE

Steiner (247) discovered that as the family budget tended to increase, smaller percentages were spent on such essentials as food, rent, fuel, and lights, while larger percentages are spent on miscellaneous items, and he believes that this is just the beginning indications of how the average family will budget its money in the future.

Batchelor (18:58-59) believes that as our economic status as a nation rises that the people will ape, to a very large extent, the wealthy class by purchasing the automobile, the radio, by going to the movies, by traveling, by belonging to social organizations and similar leisure occupations. These activities, by virtue of their association with wealth and wealth being given so much prestige, are looked upon as valuable and serve for the mass as criteria of economic status, and thus stand for success.

VII. PROFESSIONAL ASPECTS

NEED FOR PHILOSOPHY

There is no agreed-upon philosophy for the field of recreation. Many theories are proposed as to the value, but most of them center directly or indirectly around the idea of making a greater material success for the individual. This is in direct contradiction to the present social concept of group cooperation, but is due probably to the fact that our traditional cultural pattern has left us with few fundamental attitudes of individual acceptance for group responsibility. However, as long as recreation and play are confused with idleness their worth will be evaluated in terms of how it furthers this goal of personal acquisition.

Nash (166:17) points out the absolute necessity for America to develop a philosophy of recreation. A research committee (288:38-39) recommended a study of temporary aims and objectives for the purpose of gaining some sort of philosophy for guidance, formation of policies and leadership training.

Batchelor (18) and Gloss (92) believe that only when recreation's full implications as a cultural force are understood will it be accepted, not as a prerogative of the leisure class, or a way of enabling one to work better, but as a way of making general social and cultural progress.

Batchelor (18:90-91) asks further for standards of values so that the adequacy of leisure pursuits may be evaluated in terms of how much they contribute toward the attainment of these values. He believes that the central objective of life should be a social and ethical relationship aiming toward the improvement of societal standards. In this sense, he would evaluate any activity of life, such as work, leisure, culture or beauty, as they contribute toward these goals. In this sense, neither stigma or praise is to be placed upon work or leisure in the sense of the past argument for personal gain or usefulness, but rather all activities are to be seen and judged in terms of how much they contribute towards the central goal of social progress. He calls attention then to the fact that the present stigma of effeminacy connected with music, poetry and the fine arts, would disappear because these would no longer be judged in terms of their utility in serving to the acquisition of material wealth.

Collier (55) seemingly believes much the same thing, but says it in another way when he asks that recreation not be for the satisfaction of the senses or that leisure-time activities become automatic movements, but that they be an intensive living for the community or race life. He wishes leisure to be organized and inspired toward public work ends. He defines public work by calling it "world's work", differing thus from the daily labor which he terms "wage work". He wants life to be an active striving, exploring and creating to render service for the larger good.

Lindeman (139:3) believes that recreation can no longer be considered merely as physical exercise, but rather must be seen as an opportunity for continuing education, for engaging in civic affairs, for participating in aesthetic experiences, for developing skills, and for the enjoyment of nature.

LEADERSHIP

Many writers¹ believe that the keynote of a worthy program rests with the leader. Lindeman (288) indicates the differences between leadership and dominance, saying that as long as people of a democratic country have confidence in their leaders, it will survive, but that when this confidence is destroyed, the people will turn suddenly toward dominance. He points out further that the true leader creates an inter-unity, while the dominator imposes upon the people an external uniformity.

The Cleveland survey found that 70 per cent of the adult's recreation habits had been formed in childhood through the leadership or suggestion of some other person. They found that this leadership was exercised in the following order: (1) playmates outside of the family, (2) parents, (3) children in the home, (4) other adults in the home besides the parents, and (5) adults outside of the home, such as teachers, playground instructors or Sunday school teachers. See (86).

Prescott (211:268-273) believes that leadership is the ability to be recognized and admired by a group as a pace setter and model. Followers find it pleasant to be associated with, and work for the goals which are defined for them by the leader. This understanding makes for greater effectiveness and satisfaction. He says further that differing situations require different characteristics but in general that teachers were liked for being helpful, cheerful, friendly, fair, sympathetic and for having a good sense of humor. They were least liked for being cross, grouchy, sarcastic, never smiling and for losing their tempers.

Mitchell and Mason (152) classify characteristics of leaders as being (1) desirable personal characteristics, (2) technical knowledge of play activities, (3) health knowledge, (4) cultural education, and (5) the capacity to mix in public affairs. LaPorte (130) would judge the quality of leadership on the basis of what the activities do to the persons who participate.

Butler (40:55-67) in two studies lists what children liked in their play leaders and found the general rank order to be: kindness, knowledge of the game, fairness, enthusiasm, jolliness and taking part in the game.

Lawton (163:64) reminds us that people must and should be made to understand themselves and others, and that it is the failure to achieve this that accounts so much of life's unhappiness.

Wallin (266:101) believes that it is all important that teachers themselves practice the art of mental hygiene not only in teaching and managing techniques, but in regard to the development of control and regulation of their own life. He says further that they must become well-adjusted, harmonious and unified personalities, so as to set the pattern for what the child should become.

The National Recreation Association's report (184:8) on training for community recreation work says that no profession calls for greater emotional stability than the recreation profession.

¹ 51:29, 130:20, 133:126, 152:514-520, 184:8, 191:365, 279:204, 294:52.

Lehman and Witty (135:226) called attention to the fact that all play should not be supervised or else the initiative will come from the adult instead of the child. Balen (16:84), contrary to most of the conclusions drawn by other writers, found that supervision of some areas did not have any appreciable effect upon improving the delinquency rate.

LEADERSHIP TRAINING

Nash (166:295) in covering the problems of training recreation leaders indicates that this field is now at the place where training for physical education leadership was twenty years ago. We will never be able to reach the objectives sought for in educating for recreational leadership as long as we work only on the basis of academic credits. We will have to think of recreation in terms of enthusing people's interests. He mentions that during the training period there should be established a basis for many individual hobbies in the field of arts and science, and in sports and nature study. There must be less classroom and more laboratory discussions and conferences rather than lectures. He also mentions that although rather complete surveys have been made to show both the expressed interests and present participation of adults and late adolescents, that still many of these most popular activities are not usually taught or promoted by professional schools of physical education.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION TRAINING ADEQUATE?

This brings up a discussion which promises to be a long controversy. Lindeman (139:5), Wayman (270:5), Plant (206:303), and Halsey (100:26) all, in one way or another, mention the fact that the traditionally trained physical education director is not competent to handle or give leadership to a wide, diversified, cultural recreation program. Lindeman desires them to be something more than an athlete and mentions that a recreation leader must be a fit representative of the best in our cultural life, as it is his task to restore to human dignity the losses incurred through the present uses of the machine. Wayman (270:5), in looking forward to the future of physical education emphasizes that we must no longer see physical education only as a school problem, but in relation to the community, and then goes on to point out that the program should include more individual activities and the encouragement of hobbies of all kinds, not just physical ones. This means, she says, a broader program for us than we have to date ever visioned or planned for.

Plant (207), writing from a mental hygiene point of view, contends that certain physical education leaders believing that they had a perfect program of physical exercises, imposed these upon the group forgetting entirely that within this group there were tremendous ranges of individual differences. This, he finds, is not recreation because recreation is not imitation, not accomplishment, but depends upon the spirit in which it is done. This kind of physical education with its primary interest in perfection he says has nothing whatsoever to do with recreation. It may come from any form of activity that is carried out with a recreation attitude.

Matthias (146:18) believes that bodily exercises carried on without any feeling of joy are detrimental; and that only activities accompanied

with a feeling of elation are valuable. He goes as far as to state that even the feeling of joy alone will result in the same physiological reaction in the body as engaging in pleasurable activity.

On the other hand, Sharman (240:24) criticizes these people who would deny the value of physical education when he says that the core of all recreation programs is made up of physical activities and that the vast majority of people are really not interested in the music, art, literature and handicraft phases. McCloy (159-303) and Rogers (222:140) incline toward the belief that physical education has as its central most inclusive aim the development of strength and control of the body.

SECURITY OF POSITIONS AND LOW SALARIES A PROBLEM

LaPorte (130:21) shows that although we are trying to raise the standards of recreation leaders, that we are really not facing the problem, because (1) there are few, if any, positions for the graduates, and that (2) actual salaries paid are so low that there is a constant turnover of recreation leaders into the higher paid field of education. This comment is quite pertinent when one considers the fact that many schools under the impetus of stimulation offered by the W.P.A. program, plus the recent literature appearing on recreation, have instigated courses on training recreational leaders.

Two combination conferences, one at Minneapolis (288) and the other at North Carolina (304), discussed the new leisure, the number of leaders needed for it, how to train them and related topics.

Wood (281:99) states that although theoretical study is good, that it is only as the student in a teacher training institution really puts things into practice that theory becomes of any value. In a course which they take a student not only analyzes personalities of others but in addition tries to improve his own personality and ability to influence people.

Steiner (247:281) mentions that the real problem for education in training for recreation leadership is the promotion of the physical and mental health of the leader, for it is useless to talk of developing leisure-time interests in children if teachers themselves are unable or unwilling to participate in artistic and recreational pursuits which make them better functioning beings. See also (87).

TEACHERS, TEACHER TRAINING AND LEADERSHIP TRAINING

Hupp (114) found that alumni who participated in college activities tended to participate in community activities.

Allard (5) in analyzing the leisure-time activities of 486 teachers found that the ten most popular activities were indoor, individual, quiet or passive, and that group participation, creative and physical activities were almost entirely lacking. Sports and outdoor activities, except for walking, were engaged in by relatively few teachers. The teachers did not participate in creative and physical activities because they did not have sufficient skill or did not learn them. Her conclusions are that universities

and colleges offering degrees in education could well introduce more credit and recognition for work in music, dramatics and the arts to obtain a cultural readiness for enriched living, as well as for improved teaching. She found the results of her study similar to other studies of teachers.

O'Neal (197) found that teachers did not play outdoor games and that they attended the movies more than symphonies and legitimate theatres, read the best sellers in books, preferred large circulation magazines, lived sedentary lives, and spent much time in watching others perform in play.

Brown (34:76) found that men students in physical education made an extremely low score in aesthetic appreciation. Hamblen (101) found that women students, while desiring to participate in big muscle activities, did not have the time so they participated in activities in which they were spectators, where they were entertained, and where there was little necessity for effort, or creative work on their part.

Moffett (153) in a study of a thousand teachers-college students found that the average student in his leisure time reads, listens to the radio, or sings and plays some musical instrument. The contacts with art, music and literature are limited. The student's standards reflect those of the mass of people previously associated with in home and community, rather than those generally held best during high school or college periods. They do not practice any form of physical activity regularly. She found that the student tends to depend upon commercialized agencies, such as the motion picture, for vicarious experiences in traveling and to gain social ideals and standards. The extra-curricular program, as now administered, does not contribute materially to the personal or professional development of the average teachers-college student.

Another comprehensive survey (189:91) found that the number of students that participated in extra-curricular activities was considerably smaller than the number who should have participated, and that teachers in the United States were, as a rule, deficient in contact with special fields of art and music, of reading interests and habits, and in their participation while in college in the extra-curricular activities. This failure seemed to be due to a lack of guidance on the part of the instructors.

McDonald (160:115) found that the most prevalent type of disorder among teachers was due to the sedentary nature of their occupation. He also drew the conclusion that teachers could only be stimulated to better recreational habits through a definitely organized plan, but that at present school administrators are doing little to foster or encourage such a program.

The Carnegie Foundation (43:39) in a study of Pennsylvania colleges found prospective teachers of physical education were incredibly low in average total achievement scores.

Duggan (72) found that major students in physical education were in general poorly informed in current activities, fine arts, literature, history and civics.

PERSONNEL

The W.P.A. recreation division, probably because of the nature of the relief program, instigated its own training using a variety of informal methods. Over two thousand of these people (287:17) have left, finding better employment outside of the W.P.A. A survey of their in-service personnel (290) covering some 26,000 individuals showed that 41.6 per cent had some college education and 84 per cent some high school education, while 1,500 workers had one or more years of graduate study. Most of these people were professional and technical workers, including playground and recreation workers. Musicians, artists, teachers and students ranked high. Their training program consisted of instruction on the project and brief periodic training at various institutes (287:13-17).

Petrowski (204) made a study of sample job descriptions in the field of non-commercial recreation. This covers all types and lists the general qualifications, special qualifications and the work they have to do while employed.

The National Recreation Association in one of its publications (184) listed various qualifications for recreation positions and listed the types of positions and desirable salaries for them. At one time the National Recreation Association conducted an advanced school for specialized training in this field. Now they hold institutes for recreation leaders at various places in the country.

Volunteer leadership has come to the fore and examples and a general discussion of this type of service is in a National Recreation Association publication (186). They also have issued a mimeographed form (183) covering publicity methods. See also (89).

LIST OF ORGANIZATIONS CONCERNED WITH RECREATION

An excellent list of organizations concerned with leisure time may be found in a yearbook (8:310 ff).

VIII. PERSONAL HEALTH AND RECREATION

INDIVIDUAL ADJUSTMENT

Ogburn (196) and Gloss (90) remind us that the field of recreation may serve as a substitute in allowing the individual to satisfy set psychological patterns in a manner which are not harmful. In other words, people may adjust themselves more readily to society by not tearing themselves to pieces trying to get the impossible. Many people cannot achieve some of the goals to which our culture has given prestige but people can play at these things. Thus, there are many possibilities in the uses of recreation as an instrument of adjustment.

PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Link (140) in a study of twenty thousand young people in the United States drew the conclusions that games and amusements were a major influence in developing personality and he found that those which contributed most were those involving activity and physical exercise. Further that concentration on one or two sports was less helpful in developing personality than participation in five or six. The most popular indoor amusements of listening to the radio and going to the movies, were among the least beneficial. He drew the conclusion that the distinguishing fact about the amusements which contribute most to personality were those that involved action, other people, conversation, exchange of ideas and sometimes an expression of temper.

INTEGRATING EFFECT

Plant (206:296) believes that play has a definite integrating effect because we do what we wish and let our whole force or personality go into it instead of splitting it up. He criticizes physical education systems on the basis that a perfectionalist superimposed system neglects the total personality. It is again significant to recognize the contribution which Matthias (146:18) made in stating that activities which carry a sense of joy were of value.

Very little has been done to prove that individuals recognize the effect of various types of recreation upon them. However, Beauchamp (20:99) in investigating the effect of movies upon adolescent youth found that at least 70 per cent of the children were conscious of being influenced to some extent by moving pictures.

THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE CULTURE

To set the individual off from the culture in which he exists is artificial, for the individual is molded by the culture and the social and the inter-penetrating response of other individuals. Sound individuals come from a sound society and a sound society in turn is dependent upon the sound individual. Mursell (158) discusses recreation as an agency for adjusting the individual to society. Plant (207:7) carries this further, implying that recreation as a force for stabilizing society will achieve its maximum efficiency when it extends the rhythm of the individual; that is, when it gives satisfaction to the choice of the individual of activities which help him to know himself better, to live with himself and to seek to further growth.

NORMAL PLAY GROWTH

Young (295:255-261) shows that the play life of the growing individual is related to the whole necessity of the individual becoming a social being. The first play life of the child is individualistic; next, social contacts are begun in which he takes part in a group. These group activities are drawn together more closely with the pre-adolescent and adolescent team games.

McCurdy (161) found that even toys had considerable influence upon the social play of children. He concluded that an inner feeling of security, unselfishness and cooperativeness come from early popularity and acceptability of children with each other.

Cockrell (52:48) in an observational study of pre-school children found that depriving children of play materials forces them to attend to themselves. Shikles (242) did not find any significant relationship between intelligence, participation in group play or non-participation in group play.

Hunt (113:55) in a philosophical interpretation asks that the child and the teacher realize that the end purpose of play be not the simple acquiring of skills, but a changed behavior in regard to cooperation.

GREATER VALUES WHEN SOCIALLY USEFUL

Davis (67:188) voices much the same idea when he asks that the child's play be on the useful side of life; that is, a constructive and creative activity in which enthusiasm and zest are given adequate range. Burnham (38) in a principle of mental health reminds us that complete absorption in a task is a sign of integration, that the more that this task is for common good, the higher the integration.

Lawrence (131:3) in considering criteria for the evaluation of recreation finds the greatest happiness in play comes as a result of finding something worthwhile, as well as something which can be shared with others.

Witty (280:50) did not find a wide variety of social contacts necessary for individuals to develop wholesomely. He found that the growing child was influenced most by the kind of social contacts made and not necessarily the number.

Watson (268:408) reminds us that teachers who seem to get good results in athletics may be getting abominable results in personality outcomes.

A number of articles¹, (of which these few are representative) have been written upon the positive effect of recreation in reducing juvenile delinquency. However, one (178:530) at least has a directly opposite finding. This study of a boys' club showed that the club had failed to prevent delinquency among its members. See Neumeyer (191:202).

RECREATION THERAPY

Several writers² point to the fact that recreation is an extremely useful technique in handling ordinary maladjustments, and in speeding up therapy of institutionalized mentally ill patients. It would seem that it

¹ 13, 69:25, 125:57, 243:30.

² 14:1, 7:279, 66, 82:43, 132.

is an excellent instrument for redirecting energies functioning in a disintegrating manner into creative and satisfying channels.

Collier (54:111-115) in a study of pre-psychotics found that the pre-dementia praecox individual withdraws from the realities of life into a phantasy world of abstractions and participates less in activities which involve association with a group of people. Many of them were unhappy because they did not know what to do in their spare time. One form of social relationship which they are most apt to avoid is that of one person of the opposite sex. There was a lack of response to aesthetic experiences, such as the beauties of nature, of art, music or people and animals.

THE ROLE OF AESTHETIC EXPERIENCES

Lindeman (138) says that a democracy is not safe if it separates the large mass of people from beauty, for (1) artists lose touch with the people as a source of his inspiration, (2) the people become the victims of commercialized vulgarity, and (3) art becomes no longer a valid motive of communication, but only a form of amusement.

Rugg (225:440) believes the art experiences, that is, the creative act, to be psychologically the power that will develop sound individuals in a sound society. He stresses the fact that appreciation is not a matter of seeing but a matter of dynamic participating in activities of a creative nature. For examples of Creative Arts in Schools see (213), (305).

Jacks (118:50) believes that the love of beauty cannot be communicated through lectures, but demands personal participation. Russell (229:-290) believes that each person can build up a personal religion through being a creator in some media. Prescott (211:288-289) suggests that the most needed line of research and experimentation in education is in the field of aesthetic experiences, and Sapir (232:241) goes so far as to suggest that a psychosis may develop from the too great individual resistance against an impoverished cultural environment.

Lies (137:46), Shelly (241:530) and a committee (61) all ask that directors of physical education utilize to a much greater extent the educational possibilities of allowing children to invent new games and activities, rather than to give them continuously those with set rules.

COMPETITION AND COOPERATION

Many writers in the field have argued for the values inherent in competitive situations. Neumeyer (191:166) believes that if controlled, they have excellent possibilities.

Crews (62) finds both competition and cooperation persistent and necessary to society, but that through the medium of recreation undesirable elements of competition may be redirected.

Vaughn and Diserens (263) found that (1) individuals react differently to various types of competitive situations, and that (2) they excel under conditions which promise success, and (3) that competition requiring complex mental processes, such as school subjects and other activities involving thinking, were disruptive. They also found that simple motor activities involving competition were very much less disruptive.

In this sense, play and games involving competition would be less disruptive than activities involving keen competition for artificial grades, tests and scores.

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