THE TEACHING OF GAMES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

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"Play is not trivial; it is highly serious and of deep significance. Cultivate and foster it, O mother; protect and guide it, O father! To the calm, keen vision of one who truly knows human nature, the spontaneous play of the child discloses the future inner life of the man."

- Froebel's appeal to fathers and mothers

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CHAPTER I

HISTORY OF PLAY INSTRUCTION

It is probable that play has always existed in some form. We have positive proof of the existence of play among the children of the early Egyptians and Babylonians. (17 p.9)* Excavations into the ruins of these two countries reveal toys of many kinds - tops, dolls, rattles, etc. The early Chinese, Koreans, Peruvians, and other ancient races have also left proof of the early existence of play. (6 p.1) Drawings and crude sculptures of this ancient period depict boating, hunting, and festival scenes. Regarding the play instraction given during this period we are told that, "In general play among the primitive peoples takes the form of exercise that is expressed spontaneously with little or no preparation or organization." (6 p. 3)

Plays and games occupied a prominent place in the national life of Greece during its world supremacy (550 BC-400BC). This prominence given to games has been equalled at no time in the world's history except within the last ten years. (6 p. 12) Greece was made up of a number

*NOTE (17 p 9) All references are shown in this manner. The first number denotes the reference as numbered in the bibliography. The second number denotes the page. Thus (17 p. 9) informs us that the reference is taken from the ninth page of the book, "Greek Athletic Sports and Festivals".

independent states, customs differed greatly throughout the country, and education in Greece was open to free citizens only or approximately one-fourth of the population. These three characteristics affected Greek life immensely and led to varied systems of education and training within the nation. (31 p. 3) Sparta and Athens, the foremost states, may be studied to show the contribution of Greece to the modern world in play as well as in general education.

Sparta was surrounded by unfriendly neighbors and it followed that the education of Sparta was largely of a military nature. (28 p. 228) Individuals were educated with the aim of preparing them to aid Sparta in future wars. The general aim in education was to develop a hardy spirit in a hardy body. (31p. 19)

Knowing that healthy mothers would aid greatly in developing strong, active, and hardy men, girls in Sparta were given a course in gymnastic exercise, prescribed by the state. (28 p. 18) This course is known to have included running, jumping, dancing, swimming, throwing the spear and discus, and even wrestling - all being exercises now included in a modern physical education program under the caption plays and games. (28 p. 224)

The training of the infant up to and including the sixth year was entirely given over to the mother. That part of the infant training that had to do with health and physical development of the body was considered the duty of first importance to the women of Sparta. (28 p. 224)

Beginning with the seventh year and continuing to the eighteenth year the cost of education was public. The older boys directed the play of the younger ones and were responsible to the paedonomus, schoolmaster, for work done (31 p. 19) It was an organized and graduated play system regulated by law. (28 p. 232) Quoting Laurie, "The little boys began with running and leaping. At the same time they practiced playing at ball to strengthen their arms. In the advanced classes the principal exercises were wrestling, throwing the quoit, and hurling the spear -----." (28 p. 230)

After leaving the school the student continued organized training for a period of twelve years. During this time he was required to take a given course in physical training of games. (28 p. 239)

Even following this twelve year training period, these full grown men were at times required to be present during the exercises of the young boys and to teach them at games. (28 p. 240)

In conclusion, Spartan play is commendable for the following reasons:

1 - It was school room organization and administration of play - considered ideal at the present time.

2 - Play was supervised at public expense.

3 - An effort was made to teach play. Whether this teaching was limited to the teaching of rules or included instruction in technique could not be ascertained by the writer.

4 - Knowledge by the state that play can be put to a useful purpose by the state.

5 - Play was progressive. The young child was taught simple forms of motor coordination while the older boys were given more advanced instruction.

6 - Interest was shown in play education for women.

From a play standpoint, however, many of these good points are lost sight of because of the one-sidedness of purpose, the development of the soldier rather than the individual.

Athenian education aimed at the development of the individual. The people believed in play from an educational standpoint. (13 p. 2)

Infant play at Athens was given to both boys and girls alike. (31 p. 20) It resembled somewhat the play of our modern kindergarten. (6 p. 120) After the infant stage girls were given little or no play education (6 p.13)

There was no state system of education at Athens. The education of the child was left to the parents with only two exceptions. By law it was required that instruction should be given in gymnastics and music. (28 p. 253) There were no public schools but private schools requiring tuition. However, public opinion aimed at the parent required education facilities be given to all eligibles (28 p. 254)

Gymnastic instruction was begun about the eighth year under the gymnastic master. He gave the class instruction. Games developing spirit or pluck and intelligence

were generally favored. The games were graduated from the easy to the more difficult and aimed at general bodily development. (28 p. 266). Swimming, boxing, ball games, and dances were common types of play. (44 p. 2) There was but little technical instruction during this age period, the games being little more than orderly contests in the different athletic events. (32 p. 8)

At the age of eighteen the Athenian youth entered upon his ephebic or military training, state supported and controlled. An insight into the instruction given in play during this period is well described by Lucian, "We teach them likewise to run races, which makes them swift of foot and prevents their being out of breath; ---; we exercise them likewise in leaping over ditches with leaden weights in their hands, and teach them to throw darts at a great distance ----". (28 p. 273)

The Athletic contests, known as the Olympic Games, give to the modern world information regarding the mammoth games program developed at Athens. State wide interest was shown by the general public in these games and cities publicly honored the olympic victors. (17 pp. 5-7) This state wide popularity of the victorious athlete led to general athletic training among the young men. (17 p. 2)

The present - day importance attached to play in education is shown in the writings of the leading Athenian philosophers. Plato says, "Education should begin with the right direction of children's sports. The plays of childhood have a great deal to do with the maintenance or non

maintenance of law". In the words of Aristotle, "It is also very necessary that children should have some amusing employment." Pericles writes, "We have our regular games to provide our weary spirits many relaxations from toil". (6 p. 14)

A summary of the play life of Athens should make mention of the following important facts:

1- The use of play in the general education of the individual in contrast with its use as a military instrument in Sparta.

2- Selection of games requiring intelligence to play and calculated to develop pluck and spirit.

3- The development of bodily health and good carriage thru a graduated system of games.

To the Roman, athletics meant nothing but military training. (28 p. 322) Instead, then, of the play movement gaining in popularity during Roman supremacy, it lost much of the very favorable position that it had held during the previous period of Athenian leadership. (17 p. 175)

Following the breakup of the Roman Empire (486 A.D.), education was entirely a religious education, carried on chiefly by the church, and with the lone purpose to prepare for life after death. The body and soul were in continual warfare. (32 p. 10) Not only was there no play instruction but all play was condemned with the thought that it "turns the mind from God and eternal life". (6 p. 15)

Beginning in the eleventh century and continuing through the eighteenth century a number of influences brought about a changed attitude toward play in education. Among

other influences we find, as during the period of Athenian supremacy, many of the foremost educators of this period advocating play as a necessary part of education. Vitterino (1378-1446) in Italy (31 p. 49), Rabelais, 1490-1553) and Montaigne (1533-1592) in France, Mulcaster (1530-1611) and Lock (1632-1704) in England, and Martin Luther (1483-1546) and Comenius (1592-1671) in Germany, (26 pp. 28-36) considered the combination of mental and physical training necessary. The above mentioned writers vary as to the amount of instruction that should be given in play. Some authors limit instruction to, "Allowing children freedom to play"; others, notably Locke, provide for a regular time allowance for play, for which Masters must be had. (31 p. 60) On the practical side, Vitterino, in his school, combined mental with physical training. Both were required of every pupil. "His staff of assistants included special teachers of dancing, riding, fencing, and swimming -------", says Leonard. (31 p.50) From the writings of Mulcaster we are led to believe that he, Mulcaster, combined physical with mental training in the school of which he was Master, the Merchant, Tailor's School of London. (31 p. 56) With the exception of these two schools, it is doubtful if plays and games were included in actual school programs until the latter part of the eighteenth century.

Germany. The first modern school to give physical training a place in the daily school program was the Philanthropinum, opened by Basedow at Dessau, in the German Duchy of Anhalt in 1774. (31 p. 68) The physical training

given was athletic in character and was in charge of a teacher. Free instruction was given to the pupils in dancing, fencing, riding, and vaulting. Later the program was enlarged to include a number of Greek athletic events and many games of ball, all of which were under the oversight of a teacher. (31 p.16) The life of the school was a short one. However, it attracted wide attention and is important in view of the large number of institutions that followed with similar curricula and organization. (6 p.70)

Following Basedow we have a number of educational leaders in Germany favoring gymnastics in a school program. Salzmann, Guts Muths, Father Jahn, and Adolph Spiess are numbered among other educational leaders who were favorable to gymnastics as a part of the regular school work. Formal gymnastics became popular in Germany, the program consisting chiefly in apparatus work and, as such, it had only a limited connection with play and games. (31 pp.70-119) Instruction was given but it was largely instruction in heavy and light apparatus work. In the year 1882, a play period was established in the schools of Germany and, in 1890, a course was established for the training of teachers in play. (31 p.140) At present (1924) the children find a great variety of games introduced into their physical education work, the play periods are supervised by teachers, but the major portion of the time allotted to physical education is given over to apparatus work. (31 pp.136-139)

England. Today, England, has probably the most extensive play system in the world. This system is the result

of gradual development. Along with the growth of interest in games has come a growth of interest and participation by the school masters. At first games were merely tolerated. Later, about 1825 the teachers became interested and began playing with the pupils. Beginning about 1840, school executives thruout the country began to see the value of games in a school program and have gradually come to make them a required part of the school curriculum. (6 p.20)

As early as 1885 we see a very far reaching and extensive system of tournaments and athletic meets thruout England that were not unlike in magnitude the present extensive athletic organization in the United States. (43 pp. 517-549) It was a program of sufficient size to have required special organization and nation wide interest.

At present in England, sports and competitive games are very generally used in physical education work. The teachers and pupils mix together on the playfield and as a result we see a very high type of play. (6.p.21) We see less emphasis placed upon winning; it is a system that promotes play for recreation. Again, the English people continue play and games thruout life. Both of these are ideals toward which we should work in our American program.

Sweden. Physical Education work in Sweden has taken the form of artificial movements of muscles thru a graduated series of muscular movements. (44 p.4) Play has been sadly neglected. Altho a small part of the day is given over to games and dances, the teacher training classes in physical education are devoted to preparation for teaching the "Swedish

System", or system of artificial movements. (6 p.23)

France. With few exceptions no progressive steps were taken for physical education and play in France until after the world war. (6 p.23) Due largely to contact with the English and American armies during the war, the French caught the spirit of play and present indications point to a successful future development of play in France. (6 p.23)

The United States. Histories of Physical Education in the United States inform us that the early physical education work carried on in this country was largely influenced by the popular gymnastics of Germany and the so-called "Swedish System" originating in Sweden. It was not until the beginning of the twentieth century that influences began to bring play to the front in physical activity work. (6 p.25) And it was not until 1906 when the Playground and Recreation Association of America was formed that we see a real impetus in the play ground movement. Play in the schools of this country followed closely with the organization of the municipal playfields. When play was first introduced into the schools, the practice was followed of dividing the time allotment given physical education between games and formal gymnastics. This division of time allotment has changed until, in recent years, the popular movement is to do away entirely with formal gymnastics and to use games and athletic tests as the content in this branch of school work.

The great impetus given to games during recent years and the knowledge that play, to be educational, must be taught and supervised, has led to a demand for teachers of

play and a resulting demand for college courses for teacher training in play. Many states have recently passed physical education laws requiring play instruction by trained teachers. The play movement has changed according to Rainwater; "From provision for little children to that of all people; from facilities operated during the summer only to those maintained thruout the year; from out-door equipment and activities only to both outdoor and indoor facilities and events; from congested urban districts to both urban and rural communities; from philanthropic to community support and control; from free play and miscellaneous events to directed play with organized activities and correlated schedules; from a simple to a complex field of activities including manual, physical, aesthetic, social, and civic projects; from the provision of facilities to the definition of standards for the use of leisure time; and from individual interests to group and community activities." (41 p.192)

CHAPTER II

THEORIES OF PLAY

Why do children play? From a pedagogical standpoint, this is an important problem. It is felt that a knowledge of this problem is of importance to play leaders in that it will aid the play instructor:

A - In selection of games for children

B - In handling the pupils

C - Toward a better understanding of the general activities of the pupils and, by so doing, it will create a more friendly feeling between teacher and pupils.

At the present time there is no accepted answer to the question of why children play. Various theories have been advanced to explain the phenomena of play.

I. SURPLUS ENERGY THEORY. The higher forms of life, man and animal, are endowed with more energy than is required in the struggle for existence. They work off their surplus energy by means of play. (20 p.362)

A great amount of support has been given to this theory. Likewise, it has been criticised. We are reminded that play is sometimes engaged in by creatures when they are so tired as to preclude the possibility of there being much surplus energy stored up and in the solution of this phase of play, the theory is wanting. Present day belief is that surplus energy is a favorable, but not indispensable, condition of play. (20 p.364)

II. RECREATION THEORY. Play is indulged in when the body is tired for the purpose of relaxation. The change from one form

of activity to another rests that portion of the body that has been active. (20 p.364)

The following example is given to show the working out of this theory. The professional man, exhausted from continued mental exertion, turns to golf. He thus tones up his relaxed mental powers and, at the same time, gets rid of a surplus of physical energy, stored up while at work at his desk. The recreation theory, however, does not explain why play continues long after the period of rest and until complete exhaustion is shown. (20 p.366) Kraepelin attempts to explain this continued activity with the statement that active recreation conquers the feeling of exhaustion or fatigue rather than fatigue itself. (20 p.365) A second explanation of continued activity is called circular reaction, "that self-imitation which is the resultant of one's own activities finds ever anew the model for successive acts and the stimulus to renewed repetition." (20 p.369)

III. BIOLOGICAL THEORY. Darwin tells us that play is biological, that our ancestors ran, fought, hunted, etc., and accordingly in us are the impulses toward hunting, running, fighting and other games. (20 p.370) His theory has been frequently disputed, the dispute arising from the question of inheritance of acquired characteristics. The Biological theory has been amended by Baldwin by what is called "organic selection" and by Weismann by his "germicidal selection" theory. Baldwin tells us that the inheritance of acquired accommodations is unnecessary, their task being sufficiently accomplished if they keep the creature afloat in its natural environment until selection has time through favoring acci-

dental variations tending in the same direction to build up hereditary adaptions. (20 p.372) Weismann extends the selective principle to the germ substance, the elements of which already represent the respective parts of the future individual. "Each determinant struggles for sustenance against its neighbors, so producing a sort of germicidal selection, in that the stronger among them has its development furthered at the expense of the weaker, transmits the force so acquired to off spring, furnishes them in the very beginning of their career with a favorable footing in the struggle for life, and insures further progress in the same direction." (20 p.373)

IV. PSYCHOANALYTICAL THEORY. The psychoanalyist tells us that the early play of the child is not an end in itself, but a means to an end; that "play is directed toward the gratification of the instincts of self-assertion and of possession, in a manner that is undisguisedly egoistic". (18 p.84) All the successful toys of a child are but means of successful self-assertion or possession. Tops, dolls, jumping ropes, balls, and building blocks are all concerned with opportunities for mastery, either mastery of themselves or of other things by themselves. (18 p.81)

If then, play is to be of value in preparing the child for his place in society, the play must be directed from the egoistic to the altruistic interests of the child. (18 p.84) It will be discussed later, but it should be mentioned here that this is one of the major responsibilities of the play teacher, i.e. socialization thru play.

V. THE INSTINCT THEORY. All living things have an instinctive tendency to be active, to exercise all their powers and faculties. "As the child's powers develop, one by one, there arises along with each budding ability an instinctive desire to use that ability and a satisfaction in exercising it. For example, the ability to grasp with the hand develops very early in the child, and as soon as the ability appears he begins instinctively to practice opening and closing his fingers over and over again for hundreds of times. The same is true of walking, talking, climbing, and scores of other abilities. The practice helps in developing the ability - in fact, is necessary to it. As soon as he has acquired certain simple abilities he begins to combine them into more complex performances, all the time being urged on by an instinctive desire to do things and a satisfaction in doing them." (6 p.185) According to the instinct theory this is the origin and beginning of plays. In the "Theory of Organized Play" by Bowen and Mitchell we are told that, "Inherited instincts have a large part in play; an instinctive tendency to be active is the beginning of play and accounts for its persistence through life."

VI THEORY OF GROOS. Groos gave to play an important part in education when he said, "Animals cannot be said to play because they are young and frolicsome, but rather they have a period of youth in order that they may play." (20 p. 186) In other words Groos considered play as a preparation for adult life. This may be true to some extent in the case of the small pup who plays at fighting as preparation for adult

protection. It may, likewise be true in the case of other wild animals. The play instincts of the child, however, lead the child to practice running, jumping, climbing, throwing, swimming, fishing, and hunting which were abandoned.as a necessary part of adult life many, many years ago.

VII INHERITANCE THEORY. G. Stanley Halls says, "I regard play as the motor habits and spirit of the past persisting in the present, as rudimentary functions akin to rudimentary organs. In play every mood and movement is instinct with heredity. We repeat the activities of our ancestors, back we know not how far, and repeat their work, stage by stage." The inheritance theory, like the instinct theory, accounts for play by instinct. The inheritance theory goes further and accounts for the instincts by inheritance. This inheritance is primarily from our far off ancestors, not our near ancestors.

VIII PSYCHOLOGICAL STANDPOINT. Wundt attempts a psychological explanation of play. He says that an animal can play only when certain memories which are accompanied by pleasurable feelings are revived, yet under aspects so transformed that all painful effects vanish and only pleasurable ones remain; the simple and spontaneous play of animals being, so to speak, association plays."

IX ~~VII.~~ CONCLUSION. No effort will be made here to determine which one or combination of the above theories is responsible for the ancient and continued interest and participation in play and games. Authorities have differed since the earliest efforts to explain the phenomena of play. The Psychonalytical, the inheritance, and the instinct theories are probably more widely discussed at the present time. It

remains for the future to determine an accepted analysis of the problem.

CHAPTER III

SELECTION OF GAMES

The selection of games for pupils to play is of importance to the teacher who desires to make of a play program a real unit in the plan of education. Play leaders have failed thru poor selection of games; failed in the opinion of the pupil as well as supervisor. The following is not a selected list of suitable games. Rather it is the collection of fundamental principles governing the selection of games with the thought that the teacher, guided by the principles can put any game to the test and determine its usefulness.

I. The first game selected should be one that is known to the children. (34 P.146) This will eliminate the necessity of teaching rules and the instructor can immediately begin supervision and technical play instruction, (a) showing the players how they can improve upon the methods they have been using, (b) teaching sportsmanship and fair play in conditions, and (c) adapting the game to conditions that will make the game a more interesting one to the children. Further, thru the selection of a known game at this time the children will be given a correct attitude toward the work. It will be considered as play, not work.

II. New games should be selected from time to time at irregular intervals, not too frequently. (27 p. 77) The inexperienced teacher often makes the mistake of trying to teach a new game during each class period. As a result the children do not know any game sufficiently well to play during that afterschool or unsupervised play period. One

reason for the present day emphasis on play as a method in physical education is that the maximum time allotment possible for physical education within school hours is insufficient. The time required each day to gain the essential mental, moral, and physical results possible from exercise varies according to the age of the group. During the elementary school years between four and five hours are needed daily for this big-muscle activity. (23 p. 56) The teacher's duty, then, is to make a careful selection of a few games for school use. And the major time should be spent in thoroughly teaching those few games rather than in making a complete selection.

III. Continue to use a game as long as it proves interesting, and quit a game at once, when it becomes uninteresting to the children. (2 p. 252) An important and significant test of any game must be: (a) a test of interest on the part of the pupils, and (b) a desire on the part of the pupils to participate. (34 p. 148) It is a simple test and one easily used by the instructor. A game passing the two tests should be continued, a game failing to pass one or both should be discontinued.

IV. Return to old games thruout the year at intervals. (34 p. 146) The small boy tires of swimming and baseball during the summer months and longs for the winter season with its skating and sleighing. We often hear the same boy express a desire during the latter part of the following cold season for hot weather, swimming, and baseball. In much the same way children tire of all games. After a period of disuse, however, the game can usually be renewed with initial interest and enthusiasm displayed by the players.

V. Permit the children all possible freedom in selecting the games they want to play. The teacher should suggest, not dictate. (3 p. 28) Interest on the part of the children is frequently lost by the dictatorial manner of the teacher. The teacher has an outlined program and in her mechanical administration of the program, that fundamental principle, child's interest, is forgotten. In case of dispute as to the game to be played, the teacher, should, if possible, divide the class into play groups, thus permitting everyone to play the game he desires. This is one possible method of selection of play groups. (See chapter on Group Play.)

VI. First games selected should be those requiring but little, if any, special skill. The interest will be more general. (3 p. 28) The teacher will find that a large number of the pupils have had little or no physical training preliminary to present class attendance. As a result, neuromuscular control among this number will be limited. It will be characteristic of this part of the class that they are unable to do things of a physical activities nature. To the older elementary school children, this lack of ability is embarrassing and, if required to attempt feats requiring special skill, interest in the game will diminish for them. Select then for the first games those requiring but little special skill. Secure a general interest on the part of the pupils. Afterward, as the pupils become more skillful as a result of preliminary games, select games requiring increased skill.

VII. Games should be selected with respect to age. (5 p. 205) They should be selected according to the principle

of progression in age incentive, capacities, and needs. (23 p. 64) Some games can be played by children of all ages but, in general, we see every game adapted to one rather distinct age period. There has been no accepted agreement as to the number of distinct periods of growth and the time of their appearance. (6 p. 248) The periods shade into one another and overlap. (40 p. 334) (26 p. 65) (16 p. 51) (33 p. 73) (29 p. 62) (10 p. 59) (22 p. 137) Authorities are somewhat agreed, however, on the following general classification for school use.

Period One. Birth till close of eighth year. Characteristic of period is the great increase in size and architectural completeness of the brain. Imitation is a prominent factor at this time.

Game selection should be of the simple game type, requiring very simple coordinations and devoted to the development of such fundamental movements as those used in running, walking, and simple bendings of the body rather than to the acquisition of highly coordinated movements. (40 p. 334) A suggested list of games would include simple singing games, dramatic games, simple tag games, and games requiring imitation of the teacher's actions by the children. (5 p. 1)

Period Two. Ninth year to sixteenth year inclusive. Characteristic of the period is the rapid growth in height and weight. It is fundamentally the growth of muscles that accounts for the increase in weight. The power of coordinating movements is much greater than that shown in the first period. (40 p. 334) The first half of this period,

nine to twelve years, is commonly called the Big Injun age or age of self-assertion. (10 p. 59) The last half of the period, ages twelve to sixteen, is known as the age of loyalty and cooperation. (10 p. 60) A program for the period would include, for the first half of the period, individual competitions, combat exercises, competitive games, and stunts. During the second half of the period team games requiring cooperation, and popular adult games should be selected. It is important that children are given a start in popular adult games before they acquire a feeling of self-consciousness. Otherwise it is doubtful if they will ever become actively interested in those great adult recreative games of which tennis, hand ball, and golf are excellent examples. Thruout the period the games should be more varied, complicated, and difficult than in the previous period.

Period Three. Seventeenth to twenty-first year inclusive. It is a period characterized by mental and moral development. Games should be directed toward increasing and perfecting the control of the nervous system over the muscular movements. (40 p. 335) (1) Dancing, to teach gracefulness and proper coordination, is fine exercise for this period. In addition the program should include those games and athletic events involving extreme neuro-muscular control, boxing, baseball, basketball, etc.

VIII. Select games with respect to sex. (11 p.9) The Playground and Recreation Association of America would permit girls and boys to play together up to and including the tenth year. (11 p. 10) It is recommended that from the time

of puberty onward, girls and boys should be separated for play. (6 p.254) Baseball, football, and hockey are among the more interesting activities for boys. "The less strenuous team games should be used in moderation for girls, e.g., captain ball, newcomb, volley ball, playground ball, tennis, tether ball, and modified basketball and track and field sports." (11 p.19)

IX. Games should be selected with respect to the physical condition of the players. (9 p.7) It should be remembered that weak children are more frequently hurt by too little exercise than by too much. Assign children with weak hearts, or who are otherwise organically disqualified, to quiet games. Thru the use of quiet games children can, at least, secure the social and moral values of play. It is not necessary to excuse anyone entirely from participation. A list of passive group games would include horseshoe pitching, archery, quoits, croquet, ringtoss, and other games too numerous to mention.

X. Select games that fit into local conditions. (23 p.68) In rural districts such games as "The Farmer in the Dell", "Potato Race", and other similar contests are said to have a special appeal to the rural school child. (34 p. 148) The selection may differ strikingly in a school on the seashore and one on the inland, in winter and summer, in a hot and a cold climate, and on the plains and in mountainous country. (23 p.68)

XI. Select games that are reasonably safe for all children.(13 p.36) Games may be unsafe due to two dis-

tinct causes: First, the game may be unsafe due to the nature of the game itself. Examples may be given of this cause in the cases of basketball and long-distance running with accompanying over exertion and heart strain. Improperly supervised swimming and apparatus work are additional illustrations of this class of undesirable play. Second, A game may be undesirable due to lack of proper equipment. Hat-ball should never be played except with a soft ball or bean bag.

XII. It is important that the games selected are adaptable to the play grounds. (14 p.196) It would be unwise to play hard baseball on a small school yard when other games are in progress in the same limited play space. The game would not only require an unfair amount of the limited space but, in addition, the children participating in the other games would be unnecessarily liable to injury.

XIII. Select games adaptable to the number of children to play. (14 p.196) Some games require a definite number of players and are made uninteresting when the number of participants is increased or decreased to any marked degree.

XIV. It is advisable to select some games that will carry on into adult life for the purpose of recreation. (9 p.25) The most serious criticism of our present-day games program in the United States is that it is a child program and that it does not provide for adult recreation. Further, that most of the more popular games require a large number of players and, in addition, require a training period.

These two factors make improbable any adult program. Add to this criticism the fact that, as a general rule, adults are too self-conscious to begin practice in any unpracticed sport and you have a serious problem in provision for adult recreation. It must be solved by teaching to the school children those individual games requiring no training and worthy of holding interest in adult life. Rowing, tennis, hiking, swimming, hand ball, and golf should at all possible times be included to make use of crude implements and inadequate facilities.

XV. From a physical education standpoint, it is fundamental that games must be selected that have a HEALTH value. (44 p.112) Games selected must (A) be active, big muscle games, (B) requiring active participation, (C) by all individuals, (D) at frequent intervals.

A. Active Big-Muscle Games. The games should include the movements required in running, jumping, throwing, and climbing rather than small muscle activities of which finger or wrist movement are illustrations.

B. Requiring Active Participation. Participation should not be determined thru choice by the child. Games in which each child "takes his turn" in participation will provide for a more efficient physical training program for the school as a whole than games in which participation is left entirely to the choice of the players.

C. By all Individuals. It is important that all pupils take part in a game.

D. At Frequent Intervals. A great number of

games provide for only a limited amount of participation and at very infrequent intervals. This type game will never be successful from a physical education standpoint unless changed to require more frequent and more adequate participation by all players.

In selecting games to be included in a Manual of "Indoor and Outdoor Gymnastic Games", Mr. A. M. Chesley asked the following health questions concerning all the games. "Do they involve frequent contractions of the great muscular groups of the body? Do they demand moderate or excessive efforts? Is the effect upon the heart and circulation good or bad? Is the effect upon the position of the chest such as to interfere with respiration? Is the exercise intermittent, so as to allow the muscles to recover their tone, and not be overcome by the toxins of fatigue? Is there danger of competition such that excessive expenditure of energy will be involved, or that emotions will be unduly excited? Is the muscular exercise so localized as to render development uneven?" (21 p.7)

It is certain that with a games program recommended today as a content of physical education, more attention will be given to the selection from a health standpoint. I believe the above considerations adequate in testing a game for this important requirement.

CHAPTER IV.

TEACHING A GAME

There are three phases to the teachong of any game.

I. The Teaching of the Rules and Method of Procedure Governing the Game.

II. Technical Instruction.

III. Supervision.

I. The Teaching of the Rules and Method of Procedure Governing the Game.

The teaching of a new game to a group of children often fails. Evidence of this failure is shown in several ways: A-Inability of the children to play the game; B-Inaccuracy on the part of the children in carrying out the rules of the game; and, C-No desire shown by the children to play the game. While any of these evidences may be due to some other cause, we may say that they are indications of poor instruction. The following rules governing the teaching of rules and regulations of a game are given in an effort to methodize the teaching and to aid the elementary school teacher in this phase of play instruction.

A. - Teach one game at a time and teach it thoroughly. Too many games at one time may mean that none of them are known thoroughly or played well. (5 p.204) The teacher should continue to teach one game until the children are able to play successfully that game during unsupervised play periods. This is the test of thorough instruction.

From the standpoint of time allotment to physical education within the school hours and the developmental needs of the children, it is essential that games shall be taught so thoroughly that they can be played by the children after school hours. (23 p.56)

B. - In games requiring excessive explanation teach part of a game at one time. (23 p.78) Football might be taken as a well known game that should be governed by this rule. It is common procedure to teach kicking, passing, open field running, and mass play at different times and to follow the instruction period with a practice period in each case before attempting instruction in one of the other units. While football is commonly thought of as a game for older pupils, the separate parts of the game might well be taught during the age period 9-12 years. There are many of the informal group games that, likewise, are most successful when taught part of the game at a time.

C. - As is the case in most activities of a physical education program, games can generally best be taught by following the three orders: 1- Verbal explanation, 2- Illustration, and 3- Execution.

1- Verbal Explanation. While verbal explanation is frequently insufficient in itself in teaching a new game, it is of great help and, when followed by illustrations, should prove adequate. The following order is suggested in verbal explanation. Memorizing of this order and following it will insure to the teacher that no important parts of the explanation are omitted and that the burden of preparation is greatly

reduced. The suggested order is: a- Tell the class the name of the game; (5 p.204) b- If possible, give a general classification of the game, naming it as a ball game, a tag game, a stunt, etc; c- Describe the formation that the class should take to play the game; d- State the object of the game; e- Describe the method of procedure; f- Give rules and regulations governing play. I will give an explanation of a game in an effort to make clear the above suggested order. "The name of this game is "Hey Bill" (a-give name). It is a tag game (b-general classification). The class will take its place on the playground with equal numbers at opposite ends of the play field. The person who is "It" will stand in the center of the field (c-class formation). The object of the game is to keep from being tagged as long as possible (d-statement of object). "It" calls out "Hey Bill, come over the hill" and all pupils are required to run across the playground. "It" can tag anyone while in the act of crossing the field. This is repeated until all players have been caught. When tagged, a child becomes "It" and must help the original "It" catch the other runners. The last child caught wins the game. The first child caught becomes "It" the next game. (e-Method of Procedure). Everyone must stay within certain fixed boundaries. Everyone must participate at every call from "It". A person is ruled as caught when he fails to abide by the rules" (f-Rules governing play).

2- Illustration. Following the verbal explanation, the instructor should illustrate the game to the class. Three methods are commonly used in demonstrating the game:

(a) Individual demonstration by instructor; (b) Blackboard illustration; and (c) slow execution of the game by a small number of players. The game will usually determine the method of illustration best suited for the game in question.

(a) Individual demonstration by Instructor. In many games, particularly the stunt games, individual competitions, imitative games and simple singing games, a very satisfactory illustration can be given by the instructor without help.

(b) Blackboard illustration. A blackboard illustration, given in the schoolroom before the children take their places to play, is often good explanation. (34 p.148) The playfield can easily be shown upon the blackboard, the class formation shown by drawing small circles to represent players and the activity of the players shown by markings of chalk. Likewise violations of the rules can easily be explained.

(c) Slow Execution of the Game by a Small Number of Players. After the verbal explanation has been given, have several of the players go thru the game slowly. This is an excellent method of illustration. (34 p. 148) While the pupils are going thru the game slowly, the teacher should direct their movements to illustrate the possibilities and rules of the game. Action may be halted at any moment during this illustration for the purpose of further explanation.

3- Execution. After the pupils have had the game explained and illustrated to them, they should be sent to their places and play should start.

D.- It is well to give a full explanation of the game to the children in the school room before they take their places

to play. (34 p. 148) Dicipline will be more general. As a rule the children will welcome the change from academic work and, as a result, attention by the children will be better. After dismissal from the classroom, the players will scatter to all ends of the play field, they will be interested in many different things, and it will be difficult for the teacher to secure attention. State physical education laws at present set aside a portion of the day for physical education work. The time allotted within school hours should be regarded as instructional or teaching periods (23 p. 74). It is during this time allotment that instruction, including both verbal explanation and illustration, should be given.

On the playground, a game can best be taught by halting the play group after a march and the explanation given while the children are in marching formation and at the position of attention (3 p. 27). This is another method only of securing attention and that artificial discipline characteristic of military formations.

E.- Teaching should be short and to the point. (1 p.50) Make the rules simple and clear. This implies previous preparation on the part of the teacher in order that she may have the game well in hand before teaching it to the children. (9 p.25) No time should be wasted during the teaching period in giving personal experience and a definite short explanation should have been previously prepared by the teacher.

F.- Teach the game to the children only after you have learned the rules thoroughly yourself. (9 p.25) As in the last mentioned rule, this implies previous preparation by the

teacher. In spite of the fact that many play leaders or instructors consider themselves adequately prepared to teach a game after having read the game through once, this is not sufficient preparation. The teacher 1-must be able to picture the game as played before attempting to teach same, 2-must know all rules thoroughly and the application of them to the game, 3-must translate the rules into simple and clear language, compatible with the understanding of the age group to which the game is to be taught, and 4-should determine if all possible chances for dispute are provided for in the rules. If not, the teacher should make rules governing questionable cases. (It should be remembered that all books do not give a thorough and adequate explanation of games.)

G.- Do not proceed to play a game until the majority of your group understand the rules of the game. (5 p.204) It is not advisable to teach and play a game at the same time. (3 p.27) Disputes will continually arise concerning application of rules and method of procedure. It will be found that an unnecessary amount of time will be wasted settling such disputes and the teacher will often be accused of partiality in decisions. Again, and as a result of the aforementioned, the children will lose interest in the game and become inattentative. Experience teaches us that attention to this rule will result in a saving of time, lack of confusion, and increase in efficiency of game organization.

H.- (Exception to G) In case of disorderly conduct or as a means of securing attention, start playing a new game, then halt and teach the game. (3 p.27)

II. Technical Instruction. I have used this term

to denote instruction in the proper method of performing any act. There is a right and a wrong way of doing practically everything of a physical activities nature, a right and a wrong way of throwing, jumping, climbing, and running. This instruction is commonly known as coaching. But coaching in any game includes the teaching of rules, method of procedure, and supervision, as well as the teaching of methods. Technical instruction, then, is used here to denote the teaching of methods of doing some activity connected with a game.

A very excellent contribution on this subject has been furnished by Dr. A. T. Smith (21 pp.131-138) In speaking of distinctions of method, Dr. Smith classifies subjects into three divisions:

A.- Truths. "Those subjects in which the dominant aim is the understanding of a body of truths".

B.- Facts. "Those subjects in which the dominant aim is the impressing of a set of facts (individual notions)."

C.- Arts. "Those subjects in which the dominant aim is the development of a certain form of skill (power of doing)."

In his classification of Arts, Dr. Smith includes oral reading, writing, drawing, vocal music, manual training, and gymnastics. As the technical instruction in games has clearly the same dominant aim it should be included in the same classification. In speaking of the method used in teaching the Arts, Dr. Smith says, "1.- To master the arts, the one thing needful is that the learner shall perform in which he is expected to grow skillful. It is true that he should have in mind a definite idea of what is to be done before he under-

takes the doing, but the possession of this idea will never produce the desired skill. This will come only as the result of persistent doing, and it will come the more surely and swiftly if the thing is performed thoughtfully. No amount of reasoning will avail here; it is not the thinking that we wish to influence; but rather the habits of bodily activity. Teaching in this domain consists in training the muscles and in habituating them to certain lines of action. The presence of an idea is to be followed by the untrammeled performance of a muscular movement. "2.- Since there are right ways and wrong ways of performing all the arts, and since the determination of the right is not a matter that can generally be left to the reason of the learner, it becomes imperative that the teacher should set before him proper models to be followed. Some of these may be taken from books, but most of them must be obtained from the habitual activities of the teacher. It is granted that a teacher may develop in pupils more skill in a given art than he himself possesses, but he must be able to show them how properly to set about the performance of the act, and he must know enough of the matter to be able to furnish them with intelligent criticism as they progress. His efficiency as a teacher will also be greatly increased if, by his superior skill, he can lead and stimulate them to more earnest endeavor. The one danger to be guarded against is that of doing for the child what he should always do for himself. It is a mistake to regard an excellent product, which is the outcome of the combined efforts of pupil and teacher, as a sign of excellent teaching. "3.- Since the arts are to be acquired thru per-

formance on the part of the learner, the models should seldom be presented to him ready-made. This is uniformly true until the learner understands how to proceed, because the process, rather than the objective product, is at this stage the thing of chief moment. When a task is set for a child in writing, drawing, gymnastics, etc., it should be set for him in his presence so that he may see how the required act is performed. As he advances in the art, and comes to know much of the rationale of it, he may be given ready-made lessions to perform, because now he knows as well as the teacher how to proceed, and the only thing he needs is to proceed in that manner often enough and carefully enough to establish within his muscles the requisite skill in execution. A teacher's only service now, aside from the task of stimulating the learned to action, is that of an intelligent critic." (21 pp.131-138)

In conclusion, we can say that the teacher's part in technical instruction is: A-to instill in the mind of the learner the thing to be done, the how of doing it; B-to set before the learner proper models to be followed of which illustration by the teacher in the presence of the learner is best; C-to furnish the learner with intelligent criticism; and D-to lead and stimulate the learner to earnest effort. In turn the learner should, A- have in mind the definite thing to be done; B- persist in trying to do the required act; and C- at all times keep in mind the what and how of the required act.

III. Supervision. Play teachers, in general, fail to realize their duties and responsibilities during the

period of active participation by the children in the games program. It is during this play period that we most frequently see the play instructors visiting with friends or merely taking the part of a spectator at a performance. The instructor must realize that this supervisory period is ripe with teaching possibilities. At this time the teacher may become worthless or she may be an active, positive force; creating and increasing the interest of the children in the games; directing the actions of the children toward standard moral conduct; and producing an efficient games program. Moral instruction will be taken up at a later time. The following suggestions are given with the aim in view to aid the play teacher in increasing and creating interest on the part of the children in the work, and to give to the play period a greater physical education value.

A.- See that the selfish or most capable do not have a lion's share of the game. (23 p.91) A child with special skill in volley ball will quite generally monopolize the play. He will go to all parts of his playing court to make a play and, by so doing, he limits the participation of the other players to an inadequate amount. The result is two fold: There will be a lack of interest on the part of the other players, due to infrequent participation, and, from a health standpoint, the game will not be a satisfactory one for the same reason, - infrequency of participation by <u>all</u> individuals at frequent intervals. These cases of supervision are usually handled in one of the following methods: 1-provision is made for taking turns in play; 2-the playfield is

divided into zones with each child given the responsibility for one zone and limited in his activity to that zone; 3-disapproval shown by the teacher toward such conduct.

B.- Timid pupils should be encouraged to participate. Successful participation by this pupil should be praised by the teacher. (44 p.112) On all play fields there will be found a small number of children who are timid and who do not readily participate with the school group in play. The cause for the timidity might be due to lack of ability in physical activities, a physical defect either organic or mechanical, or fear of injury. Regardless of cause, it is this child who is most in need of physical exercise. We have been told that games should be selected that are safe for the children and that we should begin a games program by selecting games requiring little or no special skill. With this the teacher should encourage participation and should praise the successful efforts of the passive individual. Praise should be limited to this class, however. By encouragement and praise the timid pupils will gradually develop into normal children, having an interest and ability in physical activities and a desire to participate. It is important that the play teacher disapprove of discourteous remarks aimed at the timid pupils by the more active and aggressive children.

C.- Young players need assistance in judgment and reason. (34 p.150) In the well-known game of prisoners base, the younger children will not know when to give dares and take risks. This is one duty of the teacher. She should help the young child to judge when and how to act.

D.- In chasing games, unexpected turns and dodges will make for interest. (2 p.30) Too often tag games revert into the ability to out run an opponent. They become games of endurance. Lack of interest is shown by the pupils between times of participation. This interest can be revived by the teacher by encouraging unexpected turns and dodges in preference to making the game a test of endurance. Tag games can be made into dodging, turning games by limiting boundaries for play. By experimenting, the teacher can determine the boundary best suited to the number playing and to the game.

E.- The success of a number of games depends upon the size, location, distance, apart, or height of the bases, goal lines, prisons, nets, and play areas (5 p.107). During the play hour the teacher should be on the look-out for opportunities to make games more interesting by changing the size, location, distance apart, or height of the bases, goal lines, prisons, nets, or play areas. As an illustration, it will be found that the success of "Prison Base" depends much upon the size of bases and prisons, their location and distance apart.

F.- The teacher should encourage all pupils to be alert. It is important that each child knows his turn, and is quick to play. Interest will not lag and more exercise will be secured during a given period. (34 p.150)

CHAPTER V.

ADAPTING GAMES TO LARGE NUMBERS

We have been told that games should be selected (1) that require active participation by all individuals at frequent intervals and (2) that are adaptable to the number of children to play. It is a common sight, on both school grounds and playfields, to see supervised and unsupervised games in which participation is required of any individual not more frequently than twice each hour. Further, that each participation consists of an amount of exercise equal to no more than that required in running twenty yards. It is easy to see that this is not a satisfactory amount of physical activity for the elementary school child.

While some games require a definite number of players and are made uninteresting and unsatisfactory by any increase or decrease in the number of participants, a very large number of elementary school games can be organized in such a way as to adapt them to the number of children to play.

The purpose of adapting games to large numbers is (1) to increase the frequency of participation and (2) to provide more active participation by each player. The result of increase in frequency of participation will be an increase in interest on the part of the players. A more active participation will increase the efficiency of many games from a health standpoint. This is one of the major problems of play instruction. Four methods are given for adapting games to large numbers.

First Method. By increasing the number of runners, or chasers, or both. This method is commonly used in many of

our well known tag games. (34 p.149) The following indoor game in explained in an effort to clearly illustrate the first method of adapting games. It is only one of many games that can be so adapted.

Squirrel and Nut. "Players all seated but one, heads on desks and eyes covered, one hand open on desk with palm up. The odd player is a squirrel and passes up and down between the rows and puts a nut in some players hand. This one rises and chases the squirrel. If the squirrel is caught before he can reach his own seat, another squirrel is chosen. If the squirrel is not caught he can be squirrel again." (5 p.87)

In this game it is possible to have two squirrels, both operating at the same time. In all other respects the game is similar to the game as explained. By using two squirrels, participation should be twice as frequent as in the original game. Again, interest should be greatly increased because the players seated with heads on desks, and eyes covered, will be required to listen for the footsteps of an additional squirrel.

Second Method. By increasing the equipment necessary for the game. (34 p.149) Many of our ball games will allow for such adaptation. From the great number of such games, circle ball is taken as an illustration.

Circle Ball. "Players in a circle, standing about three feet apart. Have them pass a soft ball or bean bag around the circle. When they are good at regular passing,

have them pass irregularly or across in any direction. Sometimes, but not always, have those who miss go out of the game. Encourage alertness and quickness to see the ball and catch it." (5 p.3)

The game called "Object Passing" is like "Circle Ball", except that two or three balls are passed from player to player. (5 p.4) We secure more frequent participation in this game, as in many others, thru the use of additional equipment.

Third Method. By division of the class into groups, each group a distinct unit in itself, and each group playing the game apart from the others. (1 p.52) This method is probably the most commonly used and is most practical for all games. However, it should be remembered that, for the sake of unity and discipline, it is at times advisable to unite all players into one game. (34 p.148) At these times group play is found wanting and one of the other methods of adapting games to large numbers must be used. Both of the games previously explained in this Chapter could be so adapted. The following additional game can, likewise, be so supervised.

Good Morning. "Players in a circle. One player goes around outside of the circle and taps another player on the back. They run around opposite ways and on meeting on the other side of the circle, they must stop and shake hands and bow and say, "Good Morning" three times and then go on in the same direction as before. The one reaching the vacant place last must start a new game." (5 p.80)

Instead of a large class forming one circle for this game, the teacher should have them form two or more circles at

different parts of the playfield. Each circle will play the game apart from any other circle. The frequency of participation will be doubled, trebled, or more, dependent upon the number of circles formed.

Fourth Method. In circle games, by running two concentric circles. (34 p.149) In many elementary singing games a large circle is often followed by irregular rhythm, lack of participation by the children, and a general appearance of poor supervision. By forming the class into two concentric circles, the children are brought more closely together, rhythm in singing will be much better, there will be a more general participation by all individuals, and the game will have the appearance of a more thorough supervision.

Did you ever See a Lassie. "A single circle, all facing left with hands joined. A leader stands within the ring. As the song is sung the players walk forward around the circle. At one part of the song the leader demonstrates some movement which the other imitate. The leader then chooses another person to succeed him in the ring and joins the circle." (35 p.109)

In this game two concentric circles could well be used with the attending advantages.

CHAPTER VI.

GROUP PLAY

Definition. The division of a large number of players into smaller squads or groups, each squad a distinct unit in itself and each playing a game apart from the others is called group play. It is not necessary that all groups play the same game. (35 p.36)

Advantages. The advantages are many.

I.- It will make the development of the leadership more general. The groups are complete units. Each group is under the leadership of a student leader. The more groups the more student leaders and, therefore, the greater opportunity to develop leadership.

II.- It will make for a more efficient administration of play for a large number of children. One teacher cannot effectively teach and administer a games' program to a large number of children. With the aid of group leaders, the efficiency of instruction and organization should greatly increase. For a small number of children, group play is often impractical and, at times, unnecessary.

III.- It will allow for a more varied choice of games by the children. It will be found that all children are not interested in the same game. By having each group play a different game and with freedom of choice by the players, each child may select whatever game he likes best.

IV.- It is one possible method of adapting games to large numbers.*

*NOTE: See Chapter "Adapting Games to Large Numbers".

V.- It can be used to adapt games to age, sex, and physical condition. One group will play passive games for the weak, one will play games with simple rules for the very young children, etc.

Organization. The organization of group play consists of five definite steps.

1.- Division of the class into groups. This division may well extend over a long period of time. (23 p. 80) It is suggested that group personnel be changed at least twice during the school year. However, the teacher should not hesitate to regroup whenever it is indicated that the group selection is unwise. In cases of marked difference of ability within a group, a lack of interest will frequently arise. In such cases, it is possible to revive interest by regrouping. (34 p.148)

The size of the group should depend largely upon the game to be played. As a general rule groups consisting of from six to sixteen players are best. (23 p.80). Lack of interest by the children is often caused by infrequency of participation by each player. This is an indication that the group is too large. (3 p.28)

The division into groups may be made by the teacher upon the basis of (a) age, (b) weight, (c) height, (d) sex, (e) physical condition, (f) capacities, (g) child's interests, and (h) experience. (23 pp.79-80) The size and nature of the class will often make impractical and unnecessary some of these requirements. But there will always remain others, upon which your group selection can be made. All grouping, except on the basis of physical condition, can be

determined by any teacher of only limited experience. The grouping by physical condition can be made only after a thorough physical examination has been made by a competent physician and examiner.

II.- Selection of Group Leaders. While the Detroit system allows for selection by the pupils, (37 p.62) it is not generally considered best. (3 p.29) Proper selection is an important item in the administration of group play. Selection by the children is most often made on the basis of personality or popularity. Both are very helpful to the student leader but should never become the sole basis for selection. Students better qualified for duty may be selected by the teacher. The following suggestions for the selection of group leaders by the teacher should add to the success of the organization.

A.- Older children often make the best group leaders. (34 p.149) They have had the advantage of experience and, if mentally normal, are more generally respected by the other pupils.

B.- Begin by using the most promising children for leaders. (34 p.149) After several days of play and play supervision by the teacher, the teacher will know those children who lead and those who follow. The natural leaders with athletic ability and high mentality will, as a general rule, be found to be most capable leaders.

C.- Excellent leaders are often found among the disorderly children. (3 p.28) Here is your opportunity to direct surplus energy and at the same time to provide for leadership.

D.- Stimulate competition for the honor of being a leader. (3 p.28) It is a question of attitude on the part of the children. If you, as a teacher, consider it an honor to be a leader, the children will. On the other hand, if you give the impression that it is work, it will be so considered by the children. With this desired attitude on the part of the pupils, there will be a greater effort by the pupils to excel in game leadership with a resulting (a) development of the social quality of leadership by the pupils and (b) more efficient play administration.

Group leaders should be selected for a short period of time, possibly for two weeks. The leadership will not, then, become monotonous and tiresome to the children, competition can more easily be stimulated, and all mentally and physically normal children will be given an opportunity to lead play. This opportunity for all children to direct play will provide for a general opportunity to develop that great social aspect of play - leadership.

III.- Instruction of group leaders by teacher. The success of group leadership is dependent upon you as a teacher. (34 p.149) At called meeting of play leaders thruout the year, you instruct the leaders as to their work. In turn, the leaders take direct charge of groups, following out your instructions. These instructions to the group leaders must be definite, simple, and thorough. The teaching of leaders should include: (a) instruction in object, procedure, rules,

method of organization, and technique of the game; (b) method of securing floor formation; and (c) points of moral and social instruction to be emphasized in the play period.

IV.- Teaching and Supervision of Group by Group Leader. Following instruction by teacher of the group leader, the group leader takes direct charge of the play instruction of the group on the playfield. Inefficient leadership by the group leader is an indication of poor instruction by the teacher of the leader (34 p.149)

V.- General Supervision by the Teacher. During the play periods, the teacher must be on the playground, suggesting, helping, and grading the ability of the play leaders. Approximately an equal amount of time should be devoted to each play group. It should be remembered in physical education work, that the best teacher is often that teacher who apparently is doing the least amount of work during the play period or contest. This implies previous, thorough organization and instruction by the teacher. (19 Lecture #4).

CHAPTER VII

PLAYGROUND DISCIPLINE

To my mind the method of discipline used in the primary grades should differ from the method of the upper grammar grades. In the primary grades it may be necessary to have discipline thru the teacher. There is an opportunity in the games program of the grammar grades for socialization of the pupil. Here the problem of discipline can partially be placed in the hands of the school group. (14 p. 280) Let the teacher secure the interest of these older elementary school children in the playground and they will cooperate for discipline. (14 p. 280) They will want to play. They will want the leadership, friendship, and help of the play leader. And anything detracting from play or disapproved of by the play teacher will be prohibited by the children thru student opinion.

What is the method in discipline to be used by the teacher in the primary grades? To my mind the best method is that of preventive discipline - keep the children so busy and happy in play that the question of discipline will not arise. (14 p. 279) This is done by selecting games that the children want to play and that provide for participation by all individuals at frequent intervals. While the period of supervision is going on, much can be done by the teacher to increase the interest of the children in the games. Then if the teacher has control over her voice and actions, if she is happy and friendly with the children, and if, during the first few days, she is strict in her discipline, the question of discipline will not arise.

In the grammar grades, I would have the pupils

organize a student court to dispose of the more serious disciplinary matters of the playground. Questions of moral conduct might well be disposed of thru this same student court. If the teacher continues to keep the children busy and happy in play, she will find that her chief duty in directing the work of the student court will be to prohibit the penalty required of the wrong doer from being too severe.

The following general rules applicable to all play discipline will be found to be helpful to the teacher during the play time.

I.- Do not make the games too serious (1 p. 54) With the knowledge that the games are a part of the school curriculum, the content of physical education, the teacher is apt to require of the children that artificial discipline of the classroom. This artificial discipline is a mistake both on the playfield and in the schoolroom. Get joy, laughter, and happiness out of the games at all possible times. Happiness should be considered as a necessary part of any health, physical education, or schoolroom program.

II.- The teacher should play. Her dignity will not suffer and it is one of the few means at the disposal of the teacher to reach the heart of the pupils and to secure their love and admiration. With this love by the pupils, the instructor can laugh at the problem of discipline. That teacher whose dignity is hurt by playing with the children should carefully examine her conduct. Self introspection by this teacher will probably explain the loss of dignity. However, the teacher should remember that her first function is

to teach and direct the play of the pupils. (2 p. 239)

III.- The teacher should dress for play. (44 p. 159) She will feel more free to actively engage in play and appropriate play clothing will be noticed and approved by the pupils.

IV.- Children should be encouraged to dress for play. (1 p. 54) Adolescent children and even younger girls will hesitate to freely participate in a game unless dressed for the game. "I just cleaned up" and, "I don't want to get dirty" are well known expressions of this group. Unless we can get them to put on old clothes for play, the effectiveness of the play period will be partly lost. In the case of the younger children, the mothers will appreciate such an effort by the teacher and will more heartily endorse the work.

V.- In general school work we are told that the teacher often gets into difficulty in carrying out discipline because she is too changeable in opinions. She should be slower to decide and then stick to decisions. The same is very largely true in playground work. The play teacher must not be afraid to make a necessary decision. (34 p. 151) She should make a decision on the basis of fairness to all children and must disregard personal likes and dislikes. That play leader who asks herself the question, "What is the fair and honest decision in the case?", and who makes all her decisions on this basis, will seldom find herself in serious difficulty. Play teachers too often make decisions without thinking and allow personal prejudices to enter into the decision.

VI.- The teacher should know the common types of punishment used by the play leader and the relative

value of each type.

A.- Expressed disapproval by the teacher ranging from mild disappointment to complete dissatisfaction. This method is effective in the primary grades during the play period.

B.- Disapproval by the students. If directed it is a satisfactory and an effective method on the playfield. It is especially good in the upper grammar grades.

C.- Disorderly children are at times required to pay a forfeit, to repair play equipment, remove waste paper from the playground, etc.

D.- It is often possible to make the unruly child play under a handicap.

E.- Dismissal from the game is a possible method but should be used only in extreme cases.

VII.- The teacher should not coddle children with an injury. She should care for injured children, giving first aid and all necessary help. But thruout the treatment, a stoic attitude is best. (30 p. 30) The pupil should be led, through directed practice, to endure bravely, "The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune". Failure to fondle the injured child should lead to physical control and physical control will affect mental control.

CHAPTER VIII

MORAL INSTRUCTION IN THE GAMES PROGRAM

The child is sure to get a moral training of some kind in any activity. This is most certainly true of a games program. (38 p. 60) The question is not, then, if he shall require moral training but instead, what kind of moral training shall the child receive? Shall it be effortless and incidental or shall it be positive and purposeful?

"The value of any activity in moral training is dependent upon instinct mechanisms and what emotions the activity exercises and the opportunity it gives the group leader to direct the reponse tendencies toward moral growth." (23 p.87) The development of the spirit of fair play on the school playfields is one of the schools greatest opportunities to teach morality. (24 p. 147) In speaking of a games program Hetherington tells us that, "The activities are the spontaneous exercise of the most fundamental instincts and emotions in human nature; that the activities express fundamental character traits and thus develop them; that the development is inherent in the nature of the activities; that the form of expression determines the quality of the character traits developed; and that the quality of the expression can be determined by leadership." (23 p. 88) Our problem of moral training thru games is a problem of directing the quality of expression, of guiding the form of expression to high moral standards, and of establishing the capacity for self direction according to these standards.

Play instruction has been said to consist of three different phases: (1) teaching of rules, method of procedure,

object of game, etc; (2) technical instruction or instruction in motor technique and; (3) supervision. Is is during the period of supervision that the teacher has the best opportunity to give instruction in morals.

What is the content during the period of supervision that provides for an opportunity to develop morals? The content may be suggested by enumerating the "Fourteen Points in Good Sportsmanship" as given in the constitution and by-laws of the New York State Association of Public High School Basketball Leagues. (12 p. 13).

"Fourteen Points in Good Sportsmanship"

Does----------A Good Sport ----------Does Not		
1.	Plays fair at all times.	Does not cheat
2.	Plays hard to the end.	Does not quit. Is not "Yellow"
3.	Keeps his head.	Does not lose his temper, though wronged.
4.	Plays for joy of playing and success of team.	Does not play for money, or other reward.
5.	Is a good team worker.	Does not play to grandstand.
6.	Keeps training rules.	Does not abuse his body.
7.	Obeys orders of coach or captain.	Does not shirk.
8.	Does his best in all school work.	Does not neglect his studies
9.	Backs his team in every honest way - but -	Does not bet - betting is not necessary to show loyalty.
10.	Always gives his opponent a square deal.	Does not take any technical advantage. Treats visiting players as guests.
11.	Is respectful to officials. Accepts adverse decisions graciously.	Never blames officials for defect. Does not "crab". Does not "kick".
	Expects officials to enforce rules.	Does not complain.

When He Loses

12.	Congratulates the winner. Gives his opponent full credit under most trying circumstances. Learns to correct his faults through his failures.	Does not show his disappointment. Is not a "sore-head". Does not "alibi". Does not make excuses.

When He Wins.

13.	Is generous. Is modest.	Does not boast. Does not crow.
	Is considerate.	Does not rub-it-in.

At All times

14.	Is true to his highest ideals.	Does nothing unworthy of a gentleman and a 100% American.

Most certainly everyone of the above mentioned points in good sportsmanship involve moral questions. They may well be taken as a guide in content for moral training in the informal games of the primary grades as well as the highly organized interschool games so popular with high school and college students.

The subject of methods of moral instruction in games could in itself, furnish material for a large volume. An effort to dispose of this subject in a chapter would be giving evidence of inability to discuss the subject at all. The following discussion of methods, therefore, will be limited to the more important fundamental principles governing moral instruction. The more important factors at the disposal of the play leader for moral instruction may be summed up as follows:

A.- Disregarding method in teaching morals, it should be remembered that play, itself, is a moralizing agency. (24 p. 145) It occupies the idle hours of the children

in clean amusement and it gets rid of a surplus of physical energy in constructive activity. It has been shown that a constructive play program in any city is followed by a decrease in juvenile delinquency. This results to some degree regardless of a definite effort for moral instruction. (30 p. 34) By occupying the idle hours of the children and by providing for an outlet to surplus energy, a games program acts as a preventative agency to crime and delinquency. Froebel tells us that "Activity and joy are very important elements in true religion". (24 p. 148)

B.- The most powerful force for righteousness in any school is the teacher. (7 p. 94) The conduct of the teacher is contagious. To make moral instruction possible, the teacher must be moral. With this the teacher should be big, bounteous, unconventional, and natural (36 p. 47) If the teacher practises moral conduct, if she plays fair, does not take unfair advantage, always gives opponents a square deal, does not lose her temper, etc., the children will be found, in a general sense, to do likewise. The opposite of this is true, also. In view of this it is not surprising that the interested father and mother are desirous that their boy shall be under the leadership of both an athletic coach and a moral person. Not only should the personal conduct of the teacher be moral, but also she should be an active force for righteousness, endeavoring at all times to instill ideals of conduct into the actions of the children. Personal suggestion and constructive criticism of conduct are important means to be used by the instructor during the play period in guiding the response tendencies of the children.

C.- The teacher should know the sources of immoral conduct and how to deal with the different cases. Wrong acts arise from three sources: ignorance, - lack of knowledge as to what is right; thoughtlessness or carelessness, - not knowing or caring what the efficient means of securing good results are; and action contrary to knowledge, - Not knowing the terrible results of such action." (7 p. 42) Regardless of source the child should be punished to the extent that he should be made to be sorry for the immoral act and should desire to avoid repetition of the act. In bringing about this result the teachers function is to help and act as counselor to the child. Destructive criticism of the past act and aimed at the culprit, does but little good; helping the student in paying the forfeit for his wrong act and showing the student how to avoid a repetition of the act is more appreciated by the student and more helpful in securing moral conduct by that student in future cases. (7 p. 45)

Acts due to ignorance are not always immoral and are generally easily handled. In the primary grades, mere disapproval by the teacher will generally lead to accepted conduct in the future. In the grammar grades, the disapproval by the children will be a sufficient rebuke to the offender. (7 p.46)

In dealing with wrong acts due to thoughtlessness or carelessness, the child must be led by the teacher thru proper motives to positive, definite, and controlled action. (7 p. 46)

Action contrary to knowledge shows in the wrong doer an immoral state of mind and an immoral character. The

child needs intensive moral training. He must admit of the wrong done, realize the undesirableness of the deed, and make amends, as far as possible, both to himself and to his school and to society. The teachers work here is to help the child thru all the stages.

Let us take a special case of a wrong act and, from a teacher's standpoint, deal with the act as she would in each case, (1) due to ignorance, (2) thoughtlessness, (3) or action contrary to knowledge. A good test case shows itself in the game of golf in which all participants are expected to remain quiet while the opponent is in action. Talking or boisterous conduct of any kind is said to rattle a player and to make good play impossible. Such action would be considered as immoral in that it would be taking unfair advantage in order to win. Continued action of this kind would carry over into adult life and it would often show itself in the every day activities of the adult, that desire to win at all costs. The action might be due to ignorance, thoughtlessness or carelessness, or it might be action contrary to knowledge. In the first case the wrong doer would be ignorant of the fact (2) that it is unfair to rattle an opponent or (b) that talking would make good play impossible. Disapproval shown by the other players, spectators, or teacher will, as a general rule, suffice to accepted future conduct. In the second case the child would have done the act carelessly or without thinking. The teacher should call attention to the wrong doer of his immoral act, express regret and disappointment of such action, impress upon the child's mind standards of conduct to guide future cases,

try to impress upon the child the common result of such continued immoral action, should give the child opportunity for practise in moral behavior under supervision, and should praise these acts of moral conduct by the child. In short, the teacher should lead and inspire the child to definite and controlled moral action. In dealing with the child who has acted contrary to knowledge, we are dealing with a child who knows he has committed an unmoral act. It is the most serious of the three sources from which wrong acts arise. Of his own will he must be led to admit of the wrong done, he must be shown the undesirableness of the deed, and he must make amends. To make amends, the teacher as counselor, might suggest that the wrong doer voluntarily apologize to the former opponent, voluntarily forfeit the former game to the opponent, and voluntarily ask of the former opponent an opportunity to play against him once more with fair play and moral conduct by the wrong doer guaranteed. The work of the teacher here is to help the child thru all the atages.

D.- The elementary school teacher should know the first two stages of development of the child.

1.- Preadolesence or non-moral stage (approximately birth to twelve years). A sound choice of morals is not possible at this time, particularly during the early years of the period. Explanation is not necessary during this period. The teacher should give a reasonable command and see that it is carried out by the pupil. Now is the time to develop blind moral habits during the play period---respect for officials, obedience to orders of coach or captain, credit to successful opponents, etc. The teacher should suppress the wrong instincts

and lead the right instincts into habitual actions. (25 p.9)

2.- Period of puberty or transition (average from twelfth to fourteenth year). Thru gradual development individual choice has come to play a part. Here the moral life of responsibility begins. If formerly taught to have clean, blind, moral habits, the way will be easier. Individuality and personality must be taught.

What the children of the primary grades need is, "right habits, not an understanding of them; they need to become good citizens rather than acquire a critical acquaintance with goodness". (36 p. 28). To instill into the children these right habits of conduct, the following general laws of the psychology of mental development are given:

a- A habit to be made lasting should be followed by satisfactory results. To make the blind moral actions of the children into habits, the teacher might express her delight. To the child in the primary grades, this would be adequate satisfaction.

b- A habit not to be made lasting should not be followed by satisfactory results. Disapproval by the teacher in the primary grades and by the other children in the grammar grades would, as a general rule, be all that is necessary.

c- Thinking on moral questions follows the same rule as thinking on unmoral questions. It would be well to lead the children of the grammar grades into discussion of the value of definite cases of moral conduct.

d- Individual differences make is possible for some children to be more moral than others. In dealing

with the wrong doer, the teacher should ever bear this in mind.

E.- The surroundings should be made as perfect as possible. Everything about the child is food by which he grows. The play grounds should be kept in good shape, clean and free of waste materials. The playgrounds should be supervised to do away with volgarity. Flowers and pleasing surroundings aid to the right kind of emotions. (25 p. 93)

F.- The organization and leadership of moral training should be practical. The children will supply the drive of this organization if properly directed. (23 p.97)

1- The organization of games must be made from the standpoint of their values for moral training as well as motor and nervous training.

2- These character traits as expressed in the "Fourteen Points of Good Sportsmanship" can be scored in a point system. This scoring makes the judgment of moral traits concrete. This might be done by charting the daily moral acts of all students, by taking monthly total of the results, and by showing on the card the relative ranking of the pupils on the basis of grand totals for the month. The work should be done by the students. The teacher should supervise and direct the scoring. The following is given as a suggested score card.

SUGGESTED SCORE CARD MORAL CONDUCT. ELEMENTARY GRADES.

NAME	STANDING LAST MONTH	JANUARY	TOTAL FOR MONTH	STANDING FOR MONTH

ON THE BASIS OF
FOURTEEN POINTS OF GOOD SPORTSMANSHIP

1. .....
2. .....
3. .....
4. .....
5. .....
6. .....
7. .....
8. .....
9. .....
10. .....
11. .....
12. .....
13. .....
14. .....

3.- There should be technical teaching

and supervision of character. Standards should be set up and maintained. Many of the moral situations need interpretation by the teacher. An act considered as honest and fair in one sport is oftentimes considered as dishonest and unsportsmanlike in another game. An effort to "rattle" a pitcher in a baseball game is considered as a fair means of winning that game. This same effort would be considered dishonest in the game of golf. The situations, as they arise, need interpretation by the teacher. Again acts must be judged by the teacher in the heat of the activity. This judgment by the teacher must gradually be turned over to the pupils for self direction.

4.- Class discussion of moral issues is advisable. The activities on the playground give many definite concrete cases of moral action. During the class discussion these definite judgment may earily be built into a general rule.

G.- Encourage moral decisions by the class during play. This is self directed conduct. "Poor sport, "Let's play fair", etc., are common expressions by the children on the play field. The expressions show a self judging ability by the children that should be led and directed.

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