

play for children in Institutions.

FOREWORD

DURING the past two years it has been my privilege to visit a large number of institutions for the purpose of studying and evaluating the use made in them of play and recreation. This study has taken me into nine states and has included visits to nearly thirty typical children's institutions which provide either custodial or correctional care. In every instance I found that play was being recognized as a valuable aid in understanding the children and in giving them such training as would fit them for the enjoyment of life and for the best contribution they may make to society.

Recently I was asked by the secretary of the State Board of Charities of New York to present the subject of play for children in institutions at a series of five district conferences held in different sections of the state. They were attended by superintendents, officers, staff workers, and board members from 125 institutions that care for a total number of 25,000 children. The material here presented is the result of these conferences and of the discussions and correspondence growing out of them.

PLAY FOR CHILDREN IN INSTITUTIONS

FUNCTION OF PLAY

A GREAT deal of careful thought has been given to the formulation of an accurate definition of play. While it is not necessary to attempt such a definition here, we should emphasize the fact that play has a much wider content than is generally assumed. Moreover, we must make a distinction which is not always made in popular language. The term may mean purely physical exercise, or it may mean any activity where the emphasis is laid upon the joy of the doing more than upon the object sought. In this sense play readily becomes an integral part of many of our tasks, and in institutional life the play spirit may be manifested almost as fully in educational, dramatic, and the handicraft occupations as it is in the games and athletics which are more often recognized as exhibitions of it. Play, conceived of in this broad way, may cross-section the entire life of an institution. It may minister to the development of the personality as well as to the physique of the child, and may yield him valuable training both of body and of mind.

“Play is the serious business of childhood.” Those who have studied children carefully and have had the most experience with them, tell us that their desire to play is as natural as is their longing for food. They seek the latter in response to the demands of growing bodies as they seek the former in response to those instinctive impulses that shape mentality and character.

In the matter of clothing, shelter, and food the children in many institutions receive somewhat better care than those in the so-called average family, and the chance given them to become sound in body and clear in intellect is at least as favorable as if they enjoyed the ordinary lot. It is in the fostering of initiative and individuality that the institution fails. The institutional child is too greatly subjected to the adult point of view. Recognition of his personal need is lost sight of in a régime suited for large groups. Cultivation of the play spirit, with fuller understanding

of and sympathy for children with their different temperaments, their need of spontaneous gaiety, their chafing under rules and restrictions, may greatly help to overcome this handicap and to expand their powers by means of those age-old instincts best manifested in play.

VALUE OF PLAY

Good Times. If you should ask a child why he plays he would reply, "Because it is fun." There is profound wisdom in this instinctive appreciation of the fact that play is its own justification. We are learning that character is influenced by those experiences which bring us a large element of pleasure or of pain. Psychologists point out the stabilizing force in life of the experiences that we enjoy. The child whose mind is filled with the memory of happy hours in a wholesome environment has a much better chance of becoming a normal adult and a good citizen than the one who broods over the injustice of an unhappy childhood.

The careful study of cases of anti-social conduct in adults has revealed the underlying cause to be in many instances a burning sense of injustice implanted in the mind during childhood. Because as a child he was denied play and the opportunity of happy self-expression which were his right, the man finds his life embittered, and his thwarted emotions reveal themselves in unwholesome ways. Carleton Parker, in his attempt to get at the fundamental causes of unrest and disloyalty to the government among the spruce workers in the Northwest in 1917, discovered unhappy memories entering in a momentous way into the mental states of those who were making the trouble.¹

Under ordinary circumstances we can bestow upon our wards many of the so-called good things of life, some of which are of very transient value; but if we give to them a happy childhood we have provided them with remembrances that can never be lost, and have assured to them one of the foundations upon which stability of character may be built.

Physical Training. While we have long emphasized the use of play in physical development and in the formation of good health habits, the fact that its value for these purposes is in direct ratio to its pleasure content has not until recently been generally con-

¹ Parker, Carleton: *The Casual Laborer and Other Essays*. Harcourt-Brace, 1920.

ceded. Habits that persist are those that are associated with enjoyment, and even physical values are found not alone in the muscular exertion of the body but in the pleasure received.

Care, therefore, must be taken to give formal physical training its full play content. "Exercises" may become as great a mental strain as arithmetic or geography, and may promote self-consciousness and an unnatural focus of the attention. While gymnastics and calisthenics, properly used, have an important place, too often they are the refuge of the inefficient leader whose laziness or lack of resources causes him to give them an undue position in his program.

There are many children, especially those of retarded mentality, whose bodily processes are torpid; their nerve tone is low, the circulation of the blood is sluggish, hands and feet are cold, and muscles flabby. These are the children who are reluctant to "get into the game," the youthful prototypes of the modern bleacherite, all of whose play is vicariously performed. It is a real problem of leadership to secure the active participation of such children, yet where it is secured, beneficial results may be confidently expected. With those of the lowest mentality simple marching exercises in vigorous tempo have proved helpful, and for the child who constantly tends to drop out of the game and merely to sit and look on, there must be a considerable amount of physical drill of the formal type.

Calisthenics and military drill, however, as we have said, have no recreational value unless we introduce into them the spirit of play. If we do this and give them real zest, under vital leadership, they may with all classes of children be the means of education in the habit of prompt and accurate response as well as in social solidarity and teamwork; and far from being resources for the inefficient, may provide opportunity for a high degree of leadership. Music, on account of its stimulating effect, should always accompany formal exercise and calisthenics.

At a certain reformatory which cared for several hundred young men, military drill was adopted with a great deal of enthusiasm and much was expected from it. For years it was almost a fetish, and the monotony of it became so deadly that only with the utmost reluctance were the exercises performed. A new drill-master introduced competitive drill and planned his instruction to culminate in a field day at which the governor of the state with

his military aides and a number of regular army officers were to be present as judges. For several months prior to this event and in preparation for it a new spirit animated the men. Upon the appointed day, after all the maneuvers had been performed with soldier-like precision, members of Company D were judged to be the winners and the ungrudging praise and congratulations of all the inmates were extended to them. Upon announcement that the affair would be repeated the following year the interest and enthusiasm in the training were carried over and still persist.

Some remarkable results have been obtained in using formal drill for developing the ability of children as leaders. It is here that the student leadership movement finds one of its best opportunities. Two types should be sought as leaders: first, the diffident, bashful boy who can be given self-confidence and a sense of his own power by encouraging him to lead; and second, the boastful and fault-finding boy who needs responsibility and the discipline of making good before his fellows to cure him of his disagreeable traits.

A second use of play as physical training is found in its value for relaxation. Adults very often fail to recognize the intense nerve strain to which children are subjected when a given task or study is required of them. In maturity, after one has become thoroughly accustomed to the close co-ordinations exacted by the small muscle movements, a man or woman can accomplish certain processes without the strain which accompanies the same performance by a child. For example, an adult can write for an hour or so without any great fatigue, but one has but to observe a group of small children who are learning to write and notice the cramped fingers, and after a short time the drawn faces, to realize that here is real tension. There are many of these strains, not only in school work but in the other tasks assigned to children.

No relief for cramped muscles or taut nerves equals a short, vigorous play period. Happily there are available today some excellent types of physical exercise designed for the purpose of relaxation. They are known as "relief drills," and in the books on physical education prepared for schools they are discussed at great length.¹ These drills, which occupy but a few minutes, vary

¹ Many of the state departments of education are now publishing excellent material for the stimulation of play and physical education. An appeal to your own state authorities will doubtless bring you all the help you need on the problem.

all the way from breathing exercises and formal calisthenics to motions based upon ideas of free play. Thoroughly practical even in the crowded quarters of a school room, they should be used regularly by those in charge of children, not only at stated intervals but whenever the observant leader discovers that tension is becoming marked. This strain may manifest itself in fidgets, lack of concentration, or in open violation of rules. It is important to prevent it by regular "relief drills," but if it does occur, the correct remedy should be quickly applied.

The third phase of the physical training side of play is found in its establishment of habits of exercise. Our constant tendency is to give way to physical laziness. Many attempts have been made to counteract this tendency by all kinds of systems of exercises. The only solution of the problem will be found in the establishment in early life of habits of physical exertion associated with pleasure. Because the mind unconsciously rejects and quickly forgets those things that are lacking in pleasure content, and does remember and practise those associated with delight, we may through play give to children healthful habits that will persist.

Social Training. We have been very slow to perceive how dependent the child is upon his play for an understanding of the fundamental social-moral concepts of life. The individual, unaided by his fellows, may discover many concepts, but his social ideals come to him almost entirely through his companions.

We need but mention certain of these great ideals to observe how they are taught through play. An understanding of teamwork, of self-control, and of the purpose of law and authority comes to the child best not from any abstract instruction, but as a result of association with his fellows upon the recreation field. No director can teach a boy the principles of fair play half so well as can his companions, who are ever on the alert to see whether or not actions are "square." No adult can give a girl half so vivid a conception of loyalty as can the members of a group the successful holding together of which in a critical situation depends, perhaps, upon her forgiving a personal slight or subordinating her own wishes and standing loyal to the group. No censure by an adult means nearly so much to a young person as does the sneer of his comrades when by an underhand action he has sacrificed the advantage which would otherwise have belonged to his team. The very spirit of democratic government is found in the

self-imposed rules of a group of boys or girls who participate in a game. Grievous as the fact is, many a young man has learned, for the first time, respect for law and the necessity for obedience when, as an inmate of a penal institution, he has taken part in a game which he himself helped to organize and to whose rules he bound himself when he became a member of the team.

Children at play readily build up a definite set of rules and traditions. When new games are undertaken they agree upon self-imposed regulations or modifications to meet particular situations. Once agreed upon, these become absolutely binding. Attempt to evade a rule so accepted and see how quickly you are called to time. The spirit of such self-regulated play we take over into our daily life; and when of an act an American says, "It isn't playing the game," or an Englishman, "That's not cricket," each in his own way testifies to the strength of the motive of social control built up for us by our games.

This shows how necessary it is to note the social aspects of play. A leader should be far more alert to emphasize these great social motives and values than simply to produce capable performers. Moreover, he should share his responsibility to keep the banner of fair play flying with his charges. No competitive game should be allowed to go ahead without a referee. This official should sometimes be one of the boys or girls, to whose decisions unquestioned obedience should be accorded unless ignorance of the rules or of the spirit of the game is displayed.

Institutional Discipline. If discipline in theory or in practice is a matter of arbitrary rule, then even play can help but little to solve the problem of good conduct. If, however, we believe in that type of control that is based upon loyalty, upon adherence to a régime democratically conceived and humanely administered, we should not fail voluntarily to place ourselves under its laws. Such a system as this should be the basis of all institutional codes. Among its principles is a broad sympathy with childhood, with its emotions and desires. Once the child is convinced that this sympathetic attitude is maintained by those in positions of responsibility, disciplinary problems are rendered less acute.

Far too often we expect of children a rigid adherence to a routine that would be very trying even to adults. When we watch children at play and see the amount of physical energy they crowd into a brief space of time, we realize how unfair it is to place them

in any circumstances where for long periods this freedom of body and imagination is inhibited.

The superintendent of a children's institution in one of the southern states, on a certain occasion when he returned after an absence, found so much restlessness and disorder that he wondered what could have happened to children ordinarily so contented and well-behaved. No one of his subordinates was able to explain the situation to him until the fact was mentioned that for three days it had been raining and the children had been largely confined indoors. They had no gymnasium or large assembly hall and so were suffering from lack of exercise and cramped motor muscles.

Play furnishes an outlet for the enormous surplus energy of childhood. Examination of a large number of disciplinary problems shows us that behind the misdeeds and infraction of rules there is very rarely any deliberate intent toward wrongdoing. The child has been denied his safety-valve.

For Educational Purposes. In dealing with children, the arousing of interest and the fixing of attention are two basic educational problems; play helps to solve both. Just as the child may work hard at his play, so he may find great zest in his work if interest is aroused and attention fixed.¹ Work is too often allowed to become mere drudgery. While one of the great lessons to teach children is that of serious application to all tasks assigned to them and of persistent effort to finish whatever has been undertaken, the introduction of a play spirit into our work often makes tasks easier and transforms into interesting occupation what would otherwise be distasteful. Shakespeare's schoolboy "creeping like a snail unwillingly to school" is seldom found in the classes of teachers who know and practise this theory.

Leisure Resources. The value of the right use of leisure cannot

¹ A remarkable contribution to this subject is made by a recent book entitled, *The Play Way*, by H. Caldwell Cook. This book is based upon the work of the author at the Perse School, Cambridge, and contains a wealth of suggestive material. It should be carefully read by all who are interested in the broader aspects of education. F. A. Stokes Co., 1919.

No single educational experiment in America has had more publicity or provoked more discussion than that carried on at Gary, Indiana, during the past decade. The "Gary plan," with its combination of study, work, play, is worthy of consideration by all institutional educators. The investigation made by the General Education Board in 1918 renders available a careful estimate of this significant undertaking. *The Gary Schools—A General Account.* Flexner and Bachman, General Education Board, 61 Broadway, New York City, 1918.

be overemphasized. In the training programs of our institutions we are apt to think most of instruction which is useful, and it is not fair to children to send them out without ability which has practical value. In our emphasis upon vocational and technical training, however, we have sometimes lost sight of the fact that we must also think of that part of life which is not devoted to the business of earning a living. Vocational training may have value for the enrichment of life and to help boys and girls find themselves, as well as to increase earning capacity, but even so it cannot fill the entire need.

How considerably the use of leisure has to do with the destinies of boys and girls has been demonstrated by the cases of those whose failures in life bring them into the courts. Several careful studies based on thousands of cases have shown that misuse of leisure is one of the most common causes of juvenile delinquency.

Another aspect of the question is suggested by Arthur Pound in *The Iron Man*.¹ The author is a newspaper man who brings to the discussion of his topic a practical point of view gained by years of experience in three manufacturing centers. After calling attention to the wide interest in the subject of vocational education during the past few years, he cites the testimony of the automobile manufacturers of Flint, Michigan, to the effect that for the vast majority of their thousands of employes only a few weeks of training is needed to make of the average worker a competent unit in an industrial organization in which automatic machinery is taking a larger and larger place. He points out that after such training a person of ordinary ability can earn a living wage with from forty to forty-five hours of labor per week, and suggests that if this statement be true today for a part of our industrial army, and destined, with the further development of labor-saving machinery, to become true for an increasing number, our concern must be not only to train for work but also for leisure, to train not only for the ability to earn but also for the ability to live.

Many boys and girls because of the play life developed in our institutions have gone out from them better equipped for the business of living and with more varied resources for leisure than children brought up in normal homes. Others, unhappily, have found themselves provided only with a knowledge of the group games and activities that fit institutional environment. To train

¹ Atlantic Monthly Press, 1922.

children to live comfortably in an institutional régime should not be the object of their sojourn there, but to teach them how they may become the directors of their own acts when they are outside institution walls. To this end superintendents should foster all sorts of individual endeavors, interests, and capacities in their wards.

Personal Development. Great as may be the importance of play from the practical standpoints of health and work from which it has just been considered, when we approach it on the side of personal development we come to the real heart of the matter. If we are to consider play as a means only of providing good times for children or of solving problems of institutional discipline and training, we have failed to catch its full significance. The child has a right to play because it is only through it that his soul can unfold. Through it alone can he find an adequate outlet for his emotions.

Just as the child has instinctive desires for food, shelter, and motion, whose satisfaction will prove the determining factors in his physical growth, so he has other instincts, such as that of rhythm, imitation, construction, conflict, loyalty; through the guidance of these instincts we are able to train him in good habits.

There is, however, danger in laying too great an emphasis upon the instinctive reactions lest we create the impression that human evolution is dependent upon forces beyond our control and accept a too purely materialistic view of life. The truer view would be to recognize that they are not the only factors in behavior. Human instincts do not act blindly. While pointing the way, they do not forbid reason to choose the path.

Recognition of his instinctive emotions provides a positive approach to the child. Failing here, the adult often finds himself in conflict with childhood. To anyone who has given careful thought to the subject or who has dealt with children, there is no need to emphasize the value of a positive hospitable approach rather than a negative and prohibitive one.

While from the standpoint of character building we are concerned with the beneficent use of these great instinctive and emotional reactions, we must take into account the abnormalities that are the result of their being thwarted and balked. Conditions for which we may not be in the least responsible, but which we must heed in dealing with problems of conduct and discipline, contrib-

ute to all sorts of maladjustment and anti-social conduct in our children. If, for instance, we have diagnosed a difficulty as a case of thwarted or balked emotions, there is but one remedy, to sublimate the condition that produced the trouble by giving the emotions a legitimate and vigorous outlet. No other means provides so practical an outlet, stands so ready to our hand as play. Even the adult (the fact is being demonstrated in many places) whose life has been hemmed in by inhibitions and who has become utterly abnormal, can often be won back to a wholesome existence through play activities. With children the plan is much easier of operation.

Psychiatrists are calling attention to the large amount of *dementia præcox* that prevails—apparently a result of the strain of modern life. Adolph Meyer pointed out some years ago that in the great majority of cases this most common type of insanity is due to the patient's "shut-in" personality. Even a superficial study of the problem of mental defectives will give us food for serious thought on this subject of the suppressed self and convince us that we are not doing our full duty to the children in our institutions unless we give them some legitimate means of emotional expression and positive resources against the demoralization of balked desires. This is simply an abstract statement of some very practical truths that have been known and applied for a great many years by workers with children.

We see the principle in active use constantly on a play field. The craving of a boy to gain the approbation and acclaim of his fellows makes him a difficult disciplinary problem until his leader discovers his ability as a baseball player. His particular need of self-expression, for action that will win applause, is thus satisfied. Far too often we deny such an outlet. Even in the school room we try to fill the child's mind instead of teaching it to grow and expand in power; we give children automatic toys to play with instead of appealing to their instinct to make things; we give them music or motion pictures containing great emotional stimuli while neglecting to provide an abundance of games and dramatic and musical performances in which, by participation, they can find an emotional outlet. Life is manifested in expression, and play as one of its modes may be a means to "life more abundant," which should be the goal of every institution caring for children.

REQUISITES FOR PLAY

The Spirit of Play. Play cannot be introduced into an institution as one would establish a dental department by providing definite items of equipment, setting apart certain hours for it, and finding a competent person to take charge. Necessary as equipment and leadership are, the spirit of play must permeate the entire life of the institution and not simply occupy certain hours.

Leadership. If we are to give play its proper place in the institution, intelligent leadership must be provided. This should, in the majority of cases, be entrusted to a trained recreational director whose salary and position on the staff are on a par with the importance of the task. Above all things, he must be able to create an atmosphere of joyousness, and his work should be constantly checked up by its effect upon his charges.

Far too often those who have had excellent training become mere directors of the drillmaster type. Such persons have clearly lost sight of Froebel's injunction, "Let us play with our children." There is a constant danger, unless the leadership is of high quality, that the play hour will fall into a period of formal "exercises."

If, however, an institution is unable to provide a special director, until it can do so it should seek out the leadership that may be found within its staff, and should use its play space and equipment facilities to the utmost. But many institutions, even while deploring the fact that they have no funds for the employment of specialists, make no effort to avail themselves of the talent that they possess. The best way to assure progress is to begin. A person of intelligence who has real sympathy with child life can, if he is provided with the literature on the subject, master a sufficient repertoire of games to establish some kind of beneficial recreational period. Such a beginning would do more than any amount of abstract reasoning to "sell" the idea of play to a governing board and to convince contributing friends that it belongs in a régime of health and education.

Space and Equipment. It is not possible to state in a categorical way the amount of space either indoors or out-of-doors which should be provided for each child in order that he may have room to play. Definite school standards have been worked out at various times ranging from 10 to 75 square feet per child. A brief computation will show that even the highest figure will allow all

too little area for a real playground. Even indoors it would be none too much.

An institution for children constitutes the home in which they live through the days and months and years of their stay. Not only the needs of their leisure or school time must be cared for, but those of the entire twenty-four hours. Many institutions, in their effort to give a more healthful home life, are seeking the open country, away from crowded quarters and the noise of the city. These can establish well-planned playgrounds. But every institution, regardless of its location, should find space somewhere for such active sports as baseball and football, and if possible should organize long hikes, even overnight camping parties. Such excursions will be a distinct gain for the children as well as for the institution.

In equipping an indoor room or gymnasium, enough area must be left for play. The tendency is to provide only a minimum of equipment. The best gymnasium for children contains ropes and rings, horizontal and parallel bars, a few mats, a springboard, and a vaulting horse only. All this apparatus should be so arranged that it can be pulled up or pushed back against the wall and into corners, leaving practically the entire floor free. Here, again, as in the problem of leadership, to make a beginning with the space that is available is important. In one institution an excellent program is being carried on in a second-story room from which benches, desks, and chairs were removed. The only equipment is a piano in one corner and two mats about four by six feet. Under intelligent leadership this room is giving exercise and play to about 200 children, and is one of the best arguments in the campaign now under way for a modern gymnasium for that institution.

In the matter of outdoor equipment no great financial outlay is necessary. Specialists on playgrounds and athletic fields are generally glad to give advice, and they should be consulted provided one is sure that they are not primarily concerned in selling a lot of apparatus. Swings, slides, teeters, are good, and sand-boxes indispensable.¹

Time for Play. The question is often asked, "How much time should be allowed for play?" The temptation is to answer, "The

¹ The little handbook, *Layout and Equipment of Playgrounds*, issued by Community Service, Inc., 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City, is thoroughly practical and gives all needed information.

more the better." However, a superintendent responsible for an institutional schedule will want something more definite. The answer will depend greatly upon one's conception of play and the type of activity engaged in. For purposeful, directed play there cannot be too much time. In many modern schools conducted on the "platoon system," one-third of the school hours of the children is devoted to supervised play. Of undirected, unplanned leisure that so readily tends to aimless dawdling by the lazy and to mischief by the energetic, there should be very little. No day should pass in which each child has not spent some time in vigorous play. In the best type of institution, the hours set apart for it have been used as a means of teaching play and standardizing its use rather than in making it serve as the entire recreational life of the children.

ADAPTATION OF PLAY

Upon the proper adaptation of a play program to age periods largely depends the success or failure of the whole plan. It has been discovered by students of child life that a number of rather well-defined age-interest groups correspond to the physical and social development of children. There are also instinctive reactions of childhood whose recognition may serve as a guide for play activities. As these reactions do not all occur with equal strength or in simultaneous cycles in each child, play must be adapted to the stage of his capacity.

Certain interests, such as rhythm, conflict and pursuit, hiding and seeking, may persist; others, such as collecting, curiosity, self-adornment, imitation, may prove transient. When games involving the former are discovered by practical experiment, they may be used for groups of children of varying age. An attempt to use games based upon transient interests will often prove a failure with the age-group who have outgrown them, while they are a pronounced success with the proper one.

Age-Interest Groups. There is not entire unanimity on the subject of grouping children on the basis of their age-interests, nor are the lines of division precise. Probably hard and fast ones cannot be drawn, but in general we may expect, between infancy and adult life, to discover five rather well-defined age periods. The first, from four to six years; the second, from seven to nine; the third, from ten to twelve; the fourth, from thirteen to fifteen; and the fifth, from fifteen to seventeen.

Our chief concern in institutions will be with the three middle period groups; although it is well for us to know the characteristics of the other two and to understand those types of recreation which appeal most strongly and are best suited to them.

In presenting this discussion of the various age-interest groups it has not seemed wise to attempt under each group to give long lists of games. In the bibliography will be found many helpful suggestions.¹ A little experience will soon disclose what types best fit the interest of a particular group. Only by constantly trying out games judiciously selected from the hundreds described in the books mentioned can a well-rounded play program be devised and adapted to all the individuals in a group. Much will depend upon their previous environment and experiences; neither can there be a too rigid grouping. When the numbers of children are large, age limits may be more closely defined.

With very young children the interests of boys and girls are almost identical; their play time and spaces can be in common. So also with children of seven or eight years and somewhat younger. With older groups much better results will be obtained if the play spaces can be separated. In late adolescence, certain social recreation should be definitely planned for the joint participation of boys and girls.

1. The first, or kindergarten group, has been so thoroughly studied that it requires little attention here. It is the period during which physical growth and sense perception are developed by experimentation and imitation. The feeling for rhythm appears very early and is the basis of many of the games used for this group. The best are those that exercise the big muscles, give the largest opportunity for self-expression, and through rhythm and imitation teach the child his own ability and something of his relation to the world about him.

2. The interests of the second period are not essentially different from those of the kindergarten child, except that their range is widened and his capability is increased. Dramatic plays have begun to supplant those of a more purely imitative type. The games of this period are not yet highly organized, since the child does not grasp the importance of definite rules so fully as he will later. Even more than in the previous period should the big muscles be employed in order to balance the efforts toward

¹ See Appendix, p. 42.

co-ordination which the small muscles are making. The imagination is unfolding fast. Many children during this phase become "little liars," in the words of adults who do not realize that the child has not yet learned the distinction between memory and imagination, and that fact and fancy are not yet separated.

3. The predominant trait of the child in the third period is his individualism. He is likely to be boastful and extravagant in statement. This has been called the "big Injun" age. During it many difficult disciplinary problems arise; an intolerance of restraint that leads to infraction of rules. As in the previous period, children are often misunderstood on account of their "lies"; in this they distress adults by their cruelty. Here again there is no essential moral content in their conduct. What appears as cruelty is simply experimentation or the self-expression of an egotistical personality which has not yet learned an appreciation of the rights of others; nor of suffering, not having suffered. Tendencies of this sort must be corrected, but always with the understanding that the phase is a part of the child's development and the acts unmoral rather than immoral. His games will be perhaps greater in number and variety than in any other period of his life. They will be boisterous, require skill, and be pursued with an intense stickling for the absolute letter of the rule. There will be little co-operation or teamwork. A team most often will be only a number of stars who have no idea of self-sacrifice, each seeking to shine as an individual rather than to be of service to the group. At about this age the child becomes much interested in self-testing. He wants to find out whether he can throw as far or run as fast as his fellows, and is always eager to excel in any "stunt" that will give him a standard for the measurement of his ability.¹ Nearly all the plays of the previous period will survive and continue to hold the child's interest, while a whole new range of impulses is likely to be the basis of his activities, involving the hunting and fighting as well as the constructive and acquisitive instincts.

4. During adolescence we find spiritual and social changes just as marked as are the great physical changes taking place at this

¹ During the past ten years a number of standardized tests have been devised to meet this desire of boys and girls. Probably the best known of these is that adopted by the Playground and Recreation Association of America, which is given in the Appendix. The tests are arranged in successively difficult grades and will often hold the interest of boys and girls for several years.

time. In the words of G. Stanley Hall, "This is the richest stage of all their life, especially in the feelings, which are the voice of extinct generations—the intellect is a more personal acquisition."¹ The period is marked by reticence and sensitiveness; great emotional instability, frequent laziness, awkwardness and self-consciousness may all be pronounced; self-assertiveness and egotism may alternate with bashfulness; a tendency to "show off," with an unwillingness to do or say anything that will attract attention. In adolescence the great social instincts arise. The boy develops loyalty to his pal and to his gang, and the girl to her intimate friends and to her own clique. The interest in competitive games is even more marked than it was earlier, and the ability to do teamwork appears in great strength. This is the period when games mean the most in their broad social content; when they develop not only endurance, muscular strength and skill, and bodily and mental poise, but such moral and social qualities as courage, self-control, self-subordination, co-operation under leadership, and disciplined initiative.

5. In the fifth period, the post-adolescent, we find more stability of emotions and habits. There is likely to be a feeling of confidence and friendly relations with elders, with greater willingness to accept suggestions and leadership. The instincts of loyalty and sex predominate. The influence gained by adults on the playfields, and the principles learned by the children in their games, if retained, will carry young people through this very difficult time and lead to the stabilizing of their character for life.

The Instinctive Interests. It is impossible in so brief a space as this paper affords to enter upon an extended discussion of the instincts or of the psychology of habit. No attempt can be made to treat the subject in detail, but a brief consideration of certain of these instinctive or impulsive emotions of childhood and their relation to play life will be of value.²

¹ "Flapper Americana Novissima," *Atlantic Monthly*, June, 1922.

² In this discussion Dewey's terminology and point of view are followed: "The use of the words instinct and impulse as practical equivalents is intentional, even though it may grieve critical readers. The word instinct taken alone is still too laden with the older notion that an instinct is always definitely organized and adapted—which for the most part is just what it is not in human beings. The word impulse suggests something primitive, yet loose, undirected, initial. Man can progress as beasts cannot, precisely because he has so many 'instincts' that they cut across one another, so that most serviceable actions must be learned." Dewey, John: *Human Nature and Conduct*, p. 105. New York, Henry Holt & Company, 1922.

One of the most fundamental instincts which emerges early and persists, as has been noted, is that of rhythm. It occupies a large part in the development of young children, as is shown in their aptitude, beginning even in infancy, for rhythmic play and games. There is an almost unlimited amount of material available for rhythmic play,¹ but notice should be directed to the use that may be made of folk dances. Many people refuse to attempt folk dancing because of the seeming difficulty of the task and their inability to secure specialists to teach it. The books on this subject mentioned in the bibliography contain such concise and practical directions that anyone with average ability can work out a whole repertoire of folk dances, beginning in the kindergarten grade and continuing them on into adolescence. Miss Burchenal's two volumes, *Folk Dances and Singing Games and Dances of the People*, represent the folk dance movement of the last two decades in America and contain material culled from the best the nations of the world afford. As most of the dances are arranged in progressive order, no one with any musical sense should hesitate to use them. They are vigorous, wholesome, and above all their strong association of music with rhythmic motion makes a tremendous appeal to children. No child should be denied the opportunity to participate in them.

Imitativeness, or the dramatic impulse, arises very early in life. It is the basis of nearly all our educational equipment. All capable teachers employ it, and one has only to grasp a small part of its significance to perceive its value to them. The dramatizing of educational tasks is having a recognized place in modern pedagogical methods.²

It should be noted that this dramatic and mimetic instinct often holds for us the key to juvenile misconduct. For example, an officer in an institution for delinquent girls undertook a careful study of its most difficult disciplinary case. After weeks of painstaking endeavor the confidence of the child was gained. "I am the worst girl in the institution," she declared proudly. "For two years I have made more trouble than any other girl here." This statement, in the light of a number of conversations with her, led

¹ A section of the Bibliography—see Appendix, p. 43—is devoted to suggestions on this type of play.

² A recent volume by Alice C. Sies discusses this phase of the subject very thoroughly: *Spontaneous and Supervised Play in Childhood*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1922.

to the conclusion that she had been unable to dramatize her personality in any way except through misconduct. She could not sing, her memory was so poor that she could take no part in the school dramatics, and after trying in a number of ways to gain her share of attention she had fallen back upon the expedient of being "the worst girl in the institution." By studying her from this angle the plan was tried of giving her certain tasks of a public nature, such as distributing and collecting books and acting as monitor in the hall, thus allowing her occasions in which to stand in the spotlight of her small world. She then ceased to be a disciplinary problem.

In another institution at one of the exhibitions a small colored girl of twelve, of greatly retarded mentality, recited "Little Orphan Annie" in an atrocious manner, with apparently little recognition of the rhyme or meaning of the stanzas. As she took her seat amidst the good-humored storm of applause from the 300 other girls who understood her need of approbation, the superintendent said to the writer, "Lizzie behaves perfectly if we let her speak a piece once a month."

The love of "dressing up" in all sorts of fantastic costumes and the burlesquing which children take to so readily, testify to the strength of this mimetic trait and show something of the use which may be made of it in an educational way through historical festivals and pageants.¹

In connection with the discussion of dramatics the question constantly arises as to what use shall be made of exhibitions and whether or not they ever have a legitimate part in the life of the child. The answer to the question is found in a discussion of motives. Play should never be exploited. When it is engaged in for exhibition purposes with the spectator in mind it soon ceases to be spontaneous in spirit. But if the interest and welfare of the child are kept uppermost and the primary thought is his enjoyment and good, then exhibitions are not only wholesome,

¹ A practical suggestion will be of value here. No one who is interested in giving dramatic representations can afford to be ignorant of the many and delightful uses to which crêpe paper can be put. The Dennison Manufacturing Company, with headquarters at Twenty-sixth Street and Fifth Avenue, New York City, maintains a Service Department and has expressed its desire to help institutional people with all sorts of suggestions and ideas. This department will furnish working plans for the costuming of plays, for stage decorations and settings, and will give practical directions in response to definite inquiries. Institutional people should take advantage of this experienced service.

but are perfectly normal and give point and meaning to activities. Especially in those types of physical exercises which require drill and routine, deadly monotony may be avoided by making perfection of achievement an objective with an exhibition in view. Children enjoy a public performance. A striking illustration is afforded by the interest which blind children take in the costuming of the plays they give. At an institution for the blind, "Midsummer Night's Dream" was produced, and while none of the performers was able to see the gorgeous costumes of tissue paper with which they were all adorned, their dramatic sense of being properly arrayed for their parts gave them as much pleasure in their gay attire as children of normal vision would have had. The outstanding fact was that this was a public exhibition to which their friends were invited, and the whole performance would have lost much of its point for the children had it not been properly staged and costumed.

Almost all children show considerable constructive ability. The instinct to make things is not only possessed by the normal child but its use often helps one to understand and train the sub-normal. The following comes from a boys' school in New Jersey: "Study and investigation from a psychological point of view led the administration to the conclusion that, while the academic school had its place in our educational program, it did not meet the needs of a very large majority of our particular types of boys, 75 per cent of whom are found to labor under a verbal or literacy handicap. This type of boy is able to do a thing manually or mechanically as well as any average normal boy, but when it comes to abstract written subject matter, he has a very limited capacity of understanding. In a regular public school he would be on an average of three years retarded, or, in other words, a boy of twelve years of age, instead of being in the sixth grade would be in the third grade. To meet this situation the administration in September, 1922, opened a school which constitutes a decided departure in education and which is styled the School of Manual Education."¹

No argument is needed to prove the value of such a school. Nevertheless a word of warning should be spoken. There is likely

¹ Tinsley, John A., in *The Advance* (a monthly journal published by the New Jersey State Home for Boys, Jamesburg, N. J.), Vol. XXXVIII, No. 2, February, 1923, p. 3.

to be a constant danger lest an institution that specializes in "manual education" place too high a value upon the product of its work and lest officers think in terms of shoes, or chairs, or potatoes, rather than of children. Only when the handcraft or agricultural occupations retain a large educational content do they have a true value in child training.

Adults are often seriously concerned over the destructiveness of children and wonder why they at times show so slight a regard for property. The writer believes that with the help of a little psychology it should be possible so to develop the child's love of making and building things that he would become a guardian of property rather than a breaker and destroyer of it. In speaking on the subject to a group of institutional people recently, he propounded the theory that if a number of boys and girls were made members of an "honor squad" who, for instance, should hold themselves responsible for replacing all broken glass, in time the sport of smashing windows would cease, especially if the honor squad should include a fairly large number of the inmates, and that a child who has been allowed to set and putty many panes of glass will not be prone to break them. At the end of the address a young woman in the audience stated that some eight or ten years ago Dr. Reeder had tried out exactly such a plan at Hastings-on-Hudson, and the breaking of window panes was practically eliminated.

The boy or girl who has made an article which is the expression of his own spontaneous interest will not only refrain from marring it himself, but will stand guard over the box or boat he has fashioned to see that no one else harms it. It would seem that in the thwarting and neglect of this instinct to make things, and consequently to preserve them, we have the answer to some of the vandalism and destructiveness that is disfiguring and ruining our cities where so many people live who as children were denied the chance to construct things that interested them.

The hunting instinct is very marked in large numbers of boys and girls, and many of the difficulties which they experience in adjusting themselves to modern life arise from lack of opportunity for its expression. As an economic factor its usefulness has passed, but we carry over from our ancestors, some of them not so remote, a marked survival of it. It forms, together with the fighting instinct, the basic principle of a great majority of our

games—not only modern games but those that come down to us from past centuries.

It was this hunting instinct which, based upon the necessity for food, produced the pioneer. When on his journey through the wilderness of Kentucky Daniel Boone carved upon a tree, "D. Boone ciled a bar in this tree," he unconsciously erected a monument by which succeeding ages should learn not only that a mighty hunter had passed that way, but that a pioneer, an explorer, and an empire builder had braved those wilds. What chance do our large cities offer a boy to kill a bear and carve his name upon a tree? And yet in those who are fit for leadership the instinct to overcome obstacles, to brave the unknown, survives. It surges up and drives them forth, far too often under the restraints of our civilization, to predatory and unsocial conduct.

To be in the neighborhood of the State Home for Boys at Jamesburg, New Jersey, on a Saturday morning and watch the troop of eager khaki-clad lads start off for the woods on an all-day hike, their food in their knapsacks to be cooked over a campfire, is to realize how keen this exploring instinct is. Follow them all day and see them track each other through the woods and study its lore as only boys under alert and intelligent leadership can, and then at twilight come trailing in physically tired but with their faces alight. This is to witness an exhibition of the exploring instinct fulfilled. Or if we could be transported to the hills of North Carolina we might learn how the pioneer instinct in the girl is satisfied by Miss McNaughton of Samarcand, who writes: "We have all-night camping trips, leaving in the forenoon and returning about seven the next evening. The girls make their beds of pine straw covered by blankets; cook their bacon on the end of a stick and bake potatoes in the sand. We have moonlight swimming parties in the lake and roast marshmallows and 'wieners' on the shore. The girls learn how to establish a camp, how to keep it, and in what condition to leave it." Training? Education? Yes, and if you look at these boys and girls with understanding eyes as they come in from the Jersey woods or the Carolina pines, you will know that many of them have found in the forest the satisfaction of an emotion that is more vital than an appeal to their reason or their intellect. They not only learned something about the great laws of wood life, but

they felt the thrill that comes with the gratifying of an instinct as primitive and as masterful as that which sent "Buck," the product of civilization in London's *Call of the Wild*, on his tireless trek across the leagues of Arctic snow in response to the call of his long-buried past.

An even larger element in play than that of hunting and exploring and the basis for a great number of games is the instinct of conflict—the fighting instinct. To understand how elemental it is, study the undirected "puppy play" of a group of very young children. As soon as the first shyness has worn off, one of them will "start something" by pushing or striking one of his mates and then taking to his heels to invite pursuit. As soon as he is caught conflict begins. Here we have the attacking and defensive instinct. An analysis of much of the "horseplay" of the men in the draft army, before they had been given the training which provided them with play resources, was of exactly this same type.

In the universality and the strength of the fighting instinct lie one of our best opportunities for social instruction. Untrained it produces two institutional types, the "brawler" and the "quitter." Through the discipline that makes a good fighter we may educate the former to an understanding of teamwork, to an ability to carry on according to the rules with respect for the rights of others; while in the latter we may foster the spirit of pluck which eliminates the "yellow streak."

In our institutions the second type is the greater problem. In a certain institution for delinquent girls I was given 30 between the ages of sixteen and eighteen to instruct in games. The first apparent fact was their utter lack of any play experience. They played about as a group of eight- or nine-year-old boys would, but knew almost no games except those of a purely individualistic character—running, jumping, leapfrog, tag. As fast, however, as they learned others they played them with enthusiasm. They proved to be that delight of a play leader—real "tomboys." In a second visit to the institution I divided them into groups for relay races—real team games. They immediately showed that they had no staying qualities. As long as a side was ahead and everything going well its members were enthusiastic. As soon as it got behind, the entire group simply "quit cold"; the game fell flat. Time after time this occurred. Not only was this experience met in this institution but in others.

Quitters not only affect their mates but spectators. At a football game, if the opponents of an institutional team score first, the enthusiasm often dies, cheering ceases, and it is almost impossible to rally the drooping spirits. Is there something inherent in institutional life which by taking away many of the normal incentives to constancy and purpose promotes this yellow streak? Is there not a challenge here? How can we meet it except in training through games? I cannot imagine the finest talk in the world on the subject of moral stability having as vital an effect on a boy or girl as the example and tradition which demands that an individual "stick" clear through the nine innings of a baseball game when the team is being beaten in every inning.

In the case of the girl, to nourish the fighting instinct is even more important than with the boy, because we have been so remiss in providing any robust, virile training for her. Within the last quarter century a veritable revolution has been under way. Women had always lived a sheltered, almost cloistered life. From infancy their education had been in the gentler arts and virtues; conflict and adventure were "unladylike." With no modification of this age-long tendency hundreds of thousands of girls were suddenly thrust out to gain a livelihood into the thick of a competitive civilization in which only the fighter can survive. The effect upon many people who ought to be able to see more than mere surface indications is that of a profound and gloomy pessimism over the vagaries of the so-called "flapper."

It was inevitable that there should be a great many disquieting features in this sudden new economic and social status of the immature girl; but if one is able to see only the oddities of dress and manner, the superficial tokens of the aroused fighting and self-maintaining spirit of our modern girl, sometimes the family breadwinner, who is showing such wonderful powers of adaptation and ability to look out for herself, the observer lacks insight into character and knowledge of the evolution of the race. He should feel satisfaction at the triumph of native capacity in a situation for which no adequate preparation had been given, rather than one of unhappiness over the less pleasing aspects in the process of readjustment.

Flapperism is but the explosive reaction of inhibited instincts under the stimulus of a novel economic and social stress. This is proved by the fact that a new type of patient has appeared in

our hospitals for the mentally sick. She is the "pathological flapper." Her malady is a manifest protest against all restraint and authority. She has passed through the various phases of truancy and incorrigibility into a condition so definitely psychopathic that only the institution can care for her.

Whether the condition be one of revolt from the conventional standards that have hitherto governed the personal bearing and social ideals of women or a more decidedly marked psychosis, the implication is the same. Girls whose new responsibilities in our civilization place them in such active competition with their fellows and call upon them to do many things so little different from those expected of boys and men, must be taught, just as boys from time immemorial have been, to protect and defend themselves from attack and exploitation. In the vigorous, adventurous team games will be found a real preparation for life in a highly complicated civilization in which the old restraints and supports of the historic sheltered environment for women are gone.

The instinct of sex too must be taken into account. The problem is one often greatly accentuated in an institution. There should be definite instruction on the subject and a frank facing of it, but the best protection against morbid thoughts about it is wholesome companionship between boys and girls, together with a great deal of vigorous physical activity. Where a number of older boys and girls are inmates of the same institution, certain forms of play can be enjoyed together. The pleasure of holidays or festivals is always increased if participated in by both the boys and girls in an institution.¹

We should also give great attention to the instinct of belonging, for instance, to a club or a gang, or a school. One of the passions of normal adolescence is to join something. The existence of many of our juvenile institutions demonstrates the bitter harvest we are reaping from the neglect to recognize a boy's need of fellowship. There is a story repeated many times in every institution for delinquents. A boy is brought in for his first interview. "Tell me about it, John," says the superintendent. "Aw, I got to running around with a gang of fellows and . . ." And then what

¹ The little booklet, *Comrades in Play*, issued by Community Service, Inc., 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City, gives some practical suggestions based upon wartime experiences in bringing together large numbers of men and girls for wholesome types of good times.

did not happen? Misdirected loyalty or lack of loyalty led to the disaster. There may be as many variations of the story as there are boys and girls in the institution. Out of our instinct of belonging (some of the psychologists say that our "herd-complex" with the "ego-complex" and the "sex-complex" make up the instinctive and emotional background of all behavior) arise those habits of thought and action which lead us to do the thing that is expected of us or to refrain from that which is not approved by our associates.

The school, the team, the family, the friend, or the pal may become the object of loyalty, and the habit once established, loyalty to ideals and moral principles becomes the more readily a matter of conduct. Since youth is the period in which great loyalties arise, socialized play becomes one of the best means for promoting them. Team games are of greater value to the boy or girl than purely individual contests. Both give recognition to personal ability and achievement; the former because they are an asset to group unity; the latter because they are creditable to the performer. Track and field athletics have been conducted almost entirely in a way that has developed "star" performers. Of recent years this tendency to exalt the achievement of one person is being combatted by the promotion of Mass Athletics, where the ideal sought is to secure a large number of contestants the averaged records of whom constitute the record of the group. The Mass Pentathlon, described in the Appendix, has promoted general participation as well as team loyalty.

No finer instruments for the expression of the instinct of loyalty have ever been devised than some of our organizations designed to give boys and girls ethical and associational training at the same time that they teach certain craft knowledge and woodlore. The Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, the Camp Fire Girls, and Woodcraft Leagues are finding places of great usefulness in our modern life and are being adapted very effectively in many institutions.¹ They provide most wholesome recreational activities and valuable training. Through them we may give our children greater capacity for that loyalty, teamwork, self-reliance, and idealism which are essential to happy, efficient living.

¹ Boy Scouts of America, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York City; Boy Rangers of America (for boys under twelve years of age), 10 West Twenty-third Street, New York City; Girl Scouts, Inc., 189 Lexington Avenue, New York City; Camp Fire Girls, 31 East Seventeenth Street, New York City; Woodcraft League of America, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City.

The instinct of nurturing is highly marked in the vast majority of children. It is most often seen in the doll play of girls and with boys in the care of animals. It can be best cultivated in a normal home, since in an institution it is impossible to have enough dogs and cats or birds to provide a pet for each child or group of children. Nevertheless, the instinct must somehow be preserved. Even in the old type of institution which still exists and which has been made familiar to us by the motion picture, where the older children are burdened with the care of the younger there is likely to be a lack of babies—fortunately for the babies, however much their presence may be missed by the older children. And if they were numerous the drudgery involved in their care in such a type of institutional life would do much to stifle any spontaneous expression of the nurturing instinct in their small foster mothers.

In many instances nurturing is taught in gardening, both in the care of flowers and vegetables and in that of trees. One institution has been able to create a great deal of pride in the grove of pines it is cultivating, which the boys watch very carefully. We should not lose sight of the fact that to one with imagination a tree may have a personality almost vivid, and to watch it grow year by year can be full of deep interest. If we produce vegetables for use, flowers for decorations, or trees for lumber only, we are missing our real kinship with nature. Not in materialistic use, but in our love for and our care of them lies the bond. Even a child can be helped to feel something of what Joyce Kilmer has expressed in his poem, entitled "Trees":

"I think that I shall never see
A poem lovely as a tree.
A tree whose hungry mouth is prest
Against the earth's sweet flowing breast;
A tree that looks at God all day,
And lifts her leafy arms to pray;
A tree that may in Summer wear
A nest of robins in her hair;
Upon whose bosom snow has lain;
Who intimately lives with rain.
Poems are made by fools like me,
But only God can make a tree."¹

If the idea is grasped that a tree has a sentient life of its own, precious to its Maker, the real underlying thought of the nurture

¹ Kilmer, Joyce, in *Trees and Other Poems*. George H. Doran Co., 1914.

of even a growing plant as a "partnership with God" may be of tremendous force in the life of the child.

SUMMARY

Undoubtedly there is a growing tendency away from the care of normal children in institutions, yet it is probable that for many years to come thousands of such boys and girls will be found within their walls. We have tried to express our belief that play has demonstrated its value for both social and individual training, that the need of space, equipment, and leadership does not raise an insurmountable problem for superintendents and teachers, and that the adaptation of activities to the interests and abilities of the child is not a matter of abstract theory but one of very practical import. If these assumptions are correct it is apparent that we should give serious consideration to the planning of recreational activities for those who at best are denied many of the pleasures of their youth and the opportunities for emotional unfolding that so enrich the lives of boys and girls in a normal home environment.

For the defective or abnormal child the institution offers certain facilities and care that cannot be so well provided elsewhere. An increasing recognition of this fact is accompanied by concerted attempts to secure the earliest possible diagnosis of remediable defects of all sorts. Schools, clinics, and all of our educational and social agencies are becoming more and more vigilant to disclose conditions which can be corrected only by the highly specialized equipment and personnel of the institution. While in many such cases care will be temporary, we may confidently expect steady augmentation in the numbers of children for whom it will be necessary.

To them, all that has been said as to the usefulness of play applies with even greater force than it does to normal children. Whether their infirmity be one of mind or of body they retain all the child's love of play accompanied in the great majority of cases by a sense of personal insufficiency and loss. This is the basis for the psychologist's "inferiority complex," that handicap of our own creation whereby the stifling of ambition and the limitation of initiative may become much more serious than the mere physical or mental lack for which nature or accident is responsible. The first great battle on the road back to health of mind or body

must be fought to regain self-confidence and capability, and play offers a fair field for the struggle which alert leaders are not failing to use.

The superintendent of an institution for the blind is teaching his boys on the football field that they need not go through life either asking or receiving any concessions because they are blind. A home for crippled children is enabling its wards to play very much as other children do because much careful thought has been given the adaptation of their equipment for play.

At the Training School at Vineland, New Jersey, the story is told of a lad of sixteen with very low mentality who was brought there by his parents, people of wealth and culture. He fitted into the régime readily and proved a good patient. When he had been there for some months his father visited the institution. At the office he received a very favorable report from the superintendent, but requested the privilege of seeing the boy at his work. Unannounced he went to the dairy and found his son busy scouring aluminum pans and buckets. His father asked him if he wanted to go home, and receiving an emphatic negative, inquired why he liked the school. The boy replied, "I have a fine job here. Don't you think my pans look bright and my room is all in good order?" "Yes," said the father, "I do, but do you work all the time?" "Oh, no," the boy answered, "we play a lot, and I have lots of boys my own size to play with and we have fun all the time."

When alone with the superintendent the father stated that he had spent thousands of dollars and infinite pains upon his son but had never seen him happy before. "Now," said he, "he is happy. He has found work that to him is interesting, companions that are congenial, and has fun all the time. For the first time in years I am content. I want my boy to stay here."

This story is in its essentials being repeated wherever progressive men and women are using interesting work and inspiring play as a means of training those who live in perpetual childhood.

Whatever the type of the institution that cares for children, it cannot afford to neglect play. Nor can it secure the best returns from a recreational program if a place of no importance is assigned to it. The superficial observer of childhood who remarks "just play" when he sees games in progress, reveals the attitude of one who would provide for recreation after all the more important

matters of food and shelter have been attended to; but those who know children, who sympathetically see life through their eyes, and especially that great company of workers in institutions who so take the place of parents and teachers to thousands of their wards that these latter recognize them as friends, use play as one of the most important factors in the institutional program.

APPENDIX

ATHLETIC BADGE TESTS

THE Playground and Recreation Association of America has for a number of years promoted the nation-wide use of a set of standards for testing the athletic ability of boys and girls. These tests have been used and the badges won by thousands. They should be of great value for institutional use.¹

The standards for these tests are as follows:

I. THE ATHLETIC BADGE TEST FOR BOYS²

First Test:

1. Pull-up (Chinning) 4 times
or Rope Climb (using both hands and legs) 12 feet
2. Standing Broad Jump 5 feet, 9 inches
3. 60 Yard Dash 9 seconds
or 50 Yard Dash 8 seconds
4. Baseball Throw (accuracy) 3 strikes out of 6 throws
at 40 feet
or Baseball Throw (distance) 130 feet

Second Test:

1. Pull-up (Chinning) 6 times
or Rope Climb (using both hands and legs) 16 feet
2. Standing Broad Jump 6 feet, 6 inches
or Running Broad Jump 12 feet
3. 60 Yard Dash 8 seconds
or 100 Yard Dash 13 $\frac{3}{4}$ seconds
4. Baseball Throw (accuracy) 3 strikes out of 5 throws
at 45 feet
or Baseball Throw (distance) 195 feet

Third Test:

1. Pull-up (Chinning) 9 times
or Rope Climb (using hands only) 16 feet
2. Running High Jump 4 feet, 4 inches
or Running Broad Jump 14 feet
3. 220 Yard Run 28 seconds
or 100 Yard Dash 12 $\frac{3}{4}$ seconds
4. Baseball Throw (accuracy) 3 strikes out of 5 throws
at 50 feet
or Baseball Throw (distance) 220 feet
or 8 Pound Shot-Put 28 feet

¹ For all details, rules, certificates, and requisition blanks write to the Playground and Recreation Association of America, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

The Athletic Badge Test for Boys, publication No. 105, \$0.05.

Athletic Badge Test for Girls, publication No. 121, \$0.05.

² Standards revised March, 1922.

It has been found that boys of twelve years of age should be able to qualify for the badge under the first test, elementary school boys of thirteen years and over for the second test, and high school boys for the third test. It does not seem, however, that the different standards should be limited to these age groups. Accordingly no age or even weight limit is fixed. Any boy may enter any test at any time.

2. THE ATHLETIC BADGE TEST FOR GIRLS¹

First Test:

- | | | |
|----|--|---|
| 1. | Balancing (1 deep knee bend) | 24 feet, 2 trials |
| 2. | { Either
Potato Race | 22 seconds |
| | { or
All-up Indian Club Race | 30 seconds |
| 3. | { or
50 Yard Dash | 8 seconds |
| | { Either
Basketball Throw (distance) | 35 feet |
| 4. | { or
12 Inch Indoor Baseball Throw (accuracy) . . | 2 strikes out of 5 throws
at 25 feet |
| | { Either
Volley-ball Serve | 2 out of 5 |
| | { or
Tennis Serve | 3 out of 6 |
| | { or
Basketball Goal Throw (10 foot line) | 2 out of 5 |
| | { or
12 Inch Indoor Baseball Throw and Catch . . | 3 errors allowed |

Second Test:

- | | | |
|----|--|---|
| 1. | Balancing (book on head—1 deep knee bend) . . | 24 feet, 2 trials |
| 2. | { Either
Potato Race | 20 seconds |
| | { or
All-up Indian Club Race | 28 seconds |
| 3. | { or
Run and Catch | 19 seconds |
| | { or
50 Yard Dash | 7½ seconds |
| 3. | { Either
Basketball Throw (distance) | 45 feet |
| | { or
12 Inch Indoor Baseball Throw (accuracy) . . | 3 strikes out of 6 throws
at 30 feet |
| 4. | { Either
Volley-ball Serve | 3 out of 6 |
| | { or
Tennis Serve | 3 out of 5 |
| | { or
Basketball Goal Throw (12 foot line) | 3 out of 6 |
| | { or
12 Inch Indoor Baseball Throw and Catch . . | 2 errors allowed |

¹ Standards revised April, 1922.

Third Test:

1. Balancing (book on head—3 deep knee bends). 24 feet, 2 trials
2. {
 Either
 Potato Race 18 seconds
 or
 Run and Catch 17 seconds
 or
 50 Yard Dash 7½ seconds
3. {
 Either
 Basketball Throw (distance) 55 feet
 or
 12 Inch Indoor Baseball Throw (accuracy). 3 strikes out of 5 throws
 at 36 feet
4. {
 Either
 Volley-ball Serve 3 out of 5
 or
 Tennis Serve 3 out of 4
 or
 Basketball Goal Throw (15 foot line) 3 out of 5
 or
 12 Inch Indoor Baseball Throw and Catch . . . 1 error allowed

There are no height, weight, or age limits in the Athletic Badge Tests for Girls but an attempt has been made to provide tests of progressive difficulty. Certain options have been provided to make the tests adaptable to local conditions and to allow a choice of those activities most interesting to the girls in any locality. To win a badge in any test a girl must qualify in one event in each of the four groups in that test.

MASS PENTATHLON

The ancient Greeks chose five varied exercises by which to measure the speed, strength, and skill of an athlete. This idea of five separate events to test all-round physical ability is the basis of the modern Mass Pentathlon.

The events used are those suggested in the standard Badge Tests of the Playground and Recreation Association of America. Five must be chosen which lend themselves to mass competition. For example, a standing broad jump should be used in preference to the running broad jump because a number of people can engage in it at the same time. The chance for several contestants to take part applies to other events or their adaptation.

Competition must be entirely in teams. A team of ten is the best, although larger or smaller groups may take part and the records be secured by dividing the total performance by the total number competing. Events may be varied to suit local conditions. The following are suggested:

EVENTS FOR BOYS

Standing Broad Jump. In the standing broad jump the feet of the competitor may be placed in any position, but shall leave the ground once only in making an attempt to jump. A competitor may rock backward and

forward, lifting heels and toes alternately from the ground, but may not lift either foot clear of the ground nor slide either foot along the ground in any direction.

The boy who is to start off stands behind the mark and jumps. Where he breaks ground a line is placed which number two must toe for his jump. Each competitor in turn makes his jump under the same conditions, and the total distance divided by the number of competitors is the team record. If, upon landing, a competitor falls or steps back, the mark closest to the starting line is taken (A.A.U. rule). Stepping over the line at the start of the jump requires another jump, but no greater distance will be allowed on the second jump than that achieved on the first one.

Shuttle Relay Race. For grammar school boys each boy should run 60 yards; for high school boys and adults, 100 yards. Draw two parallel lines 60 or 100 yards apart as the case may be. Number the boys in each team and place odd numbers in single file behind one line facing the even numbers, similarly placed behind the other line. Number one, when the starting signal is given, carries a handkerchief, flag, or baton to number two, who must receive it standing behind his starting line. He in turn carries it back over the same course to number three, and so on until all the members of the team have run the course. Should a starter advance in front of his line to receive the baton, his team is disqualified in competition or must start the race over if the contest is against time. It is best if possible to run this race in competition, having all the teams start at once in parallel lanes. However, unless the track is very wide and chalked lanes are prepared in advance, this plan is practical for only about five or six teams. The time of each team should if possible be taken as a matter of record, a stop-watch being used.

Chinning the Bar. Have the bar high enough so that the tallest boy can, when hanging by his hands, stretch out his legs without curling them up. If a standard gymnasium bar is not obtainable, see that the bar is not larger than a $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch water pipe. Each competitor must let his body hang clear while his arms are stretched and bring his chin up fully to the top of the bar. The total number of complete "chins" of the entire team, divided by the number of boys in the team, is the record.

Baseball Throw for Teamwork. Divide the team into two equal groups and station one-half of them along the base line from home plate to third base, and the other half along the base line from first base to second base. In a team of ten boys number one would be on home plate, and boys three, five, and seven at equal intervals between home and third bases. Number nine should be on third base, while two would be on first base, numbers four, six, and eight at equal intervals along the line to second base, and ten on second base. When the signal is given one throws to two, two to three, and so on until ten, receiving the ball at second base, throws it home to number one and the time is then taken when number one stands on

home plate with the ball. Every competitor must throw the ball from behind the base line. If he goes in front of the line for a "pick-up" or grounder, he must return behind the line before making the throw. A "back-up" should stand behind each player who is to receive the throws, but if the ball gets through to a backer it must be passed to the person whose turn it is to throw and he must throw from his place behind the base line. In case of any violation of these rules the performance should be stopped at once with whistle or gun and started over. For high school boys or adults use the regular diamond. For grammar school boys use the official boys' diamond, 82 feet between bases.

Baseball Throw for Accuracy. Provide an official League ball, and a target 15 inches wide by 30 inches long made of canvas with wood strips top and bottom. Suspend this target two or three feet in front of a backstop or mat, with the lower edge 24 inches from the ground. Care must be taken to see that the target is hit on the throw and not on the rebound. Moreover, the ball must be thrown and not lobbed or tossed. In making the throw the boy shall stand facing the target, 50 feet from it. In delivering the ball he may step forward with either foot, but the other foot must be upon the line when the ball leaves his hand. Each contestant may take one, two, or three throws, as decided, the latter being preferable if the groups are not too large. Any throw which moves the target is a "strike," and the total number of such strikes is the team record.

Shot-put. This event is rather technical and has little use in actual games of free play. When it is substituted for one of the other "throwing" events the following rules apply:

Use the eight-pound shot for grammar school boys, the 12-pound for high school boys, and the 16-pound for adults. Boy number one of the team makes his put from a circle 7 feet in diameter, a line being drawn where the shot breaks earth, and seven feet back of this a second line. Boy number two must put from between these two lines, the regular A.A.U. rules governing the performance in every other way. Should a competitor step over the line or put his hands on the ground outside the line in the act of making his put, he must repeat his put, provided, however, that if his second attempt shall reach further than his first, the shorter put of the two be taken as his mark. (The idea here is that each competitor has just one try and should not be allowed to better his mark with a second try.) Number three, four, and so on through the team put the shot in the same way, and the total distance divided by the number of competitors is the team record. For instance, if ten boys put the shot a total of 286 feet the team record would be 28.6 feet.

EVENTS FOR GIRLS

Basketball Throw for Distance. Conducted the same as the shot-put for boys, except that the thrower must stand up to the line and throw with-

out any run. Any type of throw may be used, one arm or both, side arm or overhand. (With older girls a two-arm "push-shot" may be used if the available space is small.) Scoring same as for broad jump.

Indoor Baseball Throws. Same as for the boys' events both for teamwork and accuracy, except that an indoor or playground diamond may be used with the bases 30 or 36 feet apart, according to size of girls. Either the 12-inch or 14-inch indoor ball may be used, the former being generally preferred.

Shuttle Relay with Basketball Pass. Thirty-yard course with a tennis net stretched across the middle of the course, top of net 10 feet from the ground. Station runners as in boys' shuttle relay. Each runner must pass the ball over the net as she runs under it, and may catch it on the other side on the fly or on the bounce. Runners may receive the ball either passed to them or thrown to them by preceding runner, but must receive it behind the starting line. Run the race in active competition. Five or six teams can use a 36-foot net.

Potato Race. Potatoes of uniform size or bean-bags may be used. Otherwise secure two wooden cubes measuring two and one-half inches. Five yards in front of the starting line mark a square upon the ground measuring 12 inches in outside dimensions; five yards farther on mark a six-inch circle, and five yards farther a second six-inch circle. Place a potato, bag, or block in each of the six-inch circles. At the word of command, contestant runs and gets nearer potato and places it in the square, goes and gets farther potato, touches square with it, and replaces it in farther circle; then goes back and gets the first potato and places it in nearer circle and herself returns to starting line. Total distance is 70 yards. The potatoes may not be dropped or thrown, but in every case must be placed. One try only is allowed, but the event must be run again if either of the potatoes is placed outside the circle, on the line being allowed if the potato is more in than out.

All-up Indian Club Race. The All-up Indian Club Race goes well in the gymnasium, but is less satisfactory than the potato race for outdoor performance. For it draw two circles whose circumferences touch, each three feet in diameter. In one of the circles place three Indian clubs, taking care to use only clubs that have good bases and stand easily. At a point 30 feet distant from a line passed through the center of the circles, and parallel to it, draw a line to be used as a starting line. On signal the girl runs from the starting line, transfers the three clubs, one after the other, to the vacant circle so that they remain standing, and runs back to the starting line. The girl makes three such trips, finishing at the starting line. The girl is permitted to use but one hand in transferring the clubs. The surface within the circles should be smooth and level. A wide board may be placed in the space when the test is made out-of-doors. Total distance is 60 yards.

Balancing Beam. Use regular balancing beam or a two-inch by six-

inch timber 12 feet long set on edge on the ground and braced with pins securely driven into the earth on both sides at each end. Use the first, second, or third test according to the experience and ability of the group.

First Test. Each girl steps on to the beam at the center, walks forward to the end, and without turning walks backward to center; she then makes a half turn, and balancing on toes, holding head up and body erect, makes a deep knee bend, coming to full squat on heels; rising she completes turn, walks forward to the end of beam, makes full turn, and walks to center of beam to starting point.

Second Test. This is the same as the first except that she must throughout the test balance a book upon her head. For the sake of uniformity this book should be a 12mo (five by seven), weighing from three-quarters of a pound to one pound. The person giving the test should see that the girl's hair is not so arranged as to assist in supporting the book or making the balancing easier.

Third Test. This test is the same as the second, with book on the head, except that the girl must keep her hands on her hips throughout the test and must make three deep knee bends in succession in place of one.

Each time a competitor steps off the beam deduct one point from team score. If 10 girls step off 11 times, team score is 89. No limit as to time is set for this event, but do not let it drag. No girl may lose more than 10 points for her team, even though she steps off more than that number of times. For complete failure or quitting deduct 10 points.

ARRANGEMENT OF TEAMS

The planning of the teams will depend almost entirely upon local conditions, but a few points are pertinent and apply generally. A team should represent some group or organization. If schools are competing, have a selected team represent the school or have several teams; a team of boys, for instance, weighing under 80 pounds, one weighing under 100, as well as an unlimited class. These classifications will apply to the girls as well. Where competition is within the school, divide the school into groups—the reds, whites, and blues to designate groups—taking care that those of known athletic ability are rather equally divided among the teams so as to make the competition fairly even. It is always a good plan in school competition to have the girls share the responsibility for success or failure with the boys. For example, in a school of about 250 students the following plan is advised and works well: Classify the entire student body into midgets and unlimited class. This is done by finding the median line of weight from the individual physical examination cards of the scholars. Having found the median line, all those above that line fall into the unlimited class, all those below into the midgets. Next, divide the entire student body into the groups suggested above. There will then be four teams of reds, the same

of whites and blues, etc. consisting of 40; 10 unlimited boys, 10 mid-get boys, 10 unlimited girls, and 10 midge girls. The team record is compiled from the results in all four classes, and boys and girls, midgets and unlimited, win or lose together. In exhibitions or meets this arrangement gives an excellent opportunity for the display of colors, with organized cheering or rooting.

SCORING

For careful scoring it is very helpful to have a blackboard or large sheet of paper well placed so that it can be seen, and have the official scorer post the records and standings as the events are run off. This will add greatly to interest and sustain enthusiasm. When less than five teams are competing, score 5 points for the winning team, 3 for second, and 1 for third place in every event. When five or more teams are entered, score the first five places, 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1. The team, or group of teams when there are various classes, winning the most points is winner of the meet. In cases of a tie, some event should be repeated in which the two teams have made the same record, or two events used to decide the tie.

It is strongly advised that no individual awards or medals be given members of the winning teams. A banner for the cottage, the school, or institution represented is just as acceptable and has a much better effect in teaching teamwork and solidarity.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following selected bibliography of books and pamphlets on recreation has been carefully compiled with a view to recommending only the most tested and practical material on the subjects covered, with as little duplication as possible.

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Bancroft, J. H. Games for the Playground, Home, School, and Gymnasium. 456 p. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1922. \$2.40.

An encyclopedia of games; a standard work with unlimited material.

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Exceptionally good collection of mass games. Based on the recreational activities in the army, the suggestions are especially practical for boys.

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Bancroft, J. H., and Pulvermacher, W. D. Handbook of Athletic Games. 627 p. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1916. \$2.40.

The rules and many helpful suggestions for playing fifteen popular games—baseball, basketball, soccer, etc. Should be in every institution's library.

Spalding's Athletic Library. New York, American Sports Publishing Company, paper. \$0.10 each.

The Library consists of handbooks on all the standard sports, giving the rules of the games, etc. Can be obtained at any local Spalding agency, as well as from the publishers.