

THE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE PHYSICAL  
EDUCATION PROGRAM FOR MEN IN THE  
COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES OF  
THE UNITED STATES  
OF AMERICA

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study was to compile an account of the growth and development of physical education for men in the colleges and universities in the United States. The plan was to organize the historical literature and the material obtained from the investigation in such a way as to make it of value to the institutions of higher learning in the further development of their physical education programs.

#### Sources of the Data and Procedure

The materials used were from two sources: (1) books, pamphlets, and magazine articles; and (2) personal interviews with leaders in the field.

The influence of foreign leaders upon the physical education programs in the colleges and universities of the United States was summarized.

A survey was made of the upward and downward trends in the early development of physical education in the colleges and universities of the United States.

The revival of physical education prior to and following

the Civil War was traced through: (1) the organization of the Turnvereins, play and social groups formed by German immigrants; (2) the development of physical training by college administrations as they were influenced by the men returning from war to their respective colleges; and (3) the introduction of informal and post-war courses of physical education in the colleges.

The history of the development of athletics from their inconspicuous beginnings to the present developed programs has been followed in the study.

The survey of the available literature dealing with the various aspects of the subject was found to be very extensive. In many cases the titles were misleading and the articles themselves gave only critical viewpoints with no helpful suggestions as to the development of the topic under discussion. Because of this, some material that might have been of value had to be omitted from the study.

Probably the greatest field in our educational process is the health and physical education program. This belief has prompted the writer to write this thesis on this subject, and he hopes that the future may in some way profit from the findings of his efforts.

No attempt was made to cover the entire field of the history of physical education but, rather, to limit

it to actual practice in activity courses during the history of the work in the schools of higher learning. It was anticipated that the summary of the historical facts and the results of the present study will be of aid to the leaders in avoiding past and present difficulties in the future development of physical education.

The extensive reading of the development of the subject cannot help prompting one to pay tribute to the early leaders of physical education, since they carried on, at times, against what appeared to be insurmountable obstacles.

Acknowledgment for valuable assistance in obtaining material is made to the library staff of the North Texas State Teachers College. Grateful acknowledgment is given to Mrs. Pearl McCracken, Librarian, for her co-operation in obtaining materials from The University of Texas library. The writer is very grateful to the Extension Loan Library of The University of Texas, and to the State Library, Austin, Texas, for lending him valuable material.

The writer wishes to express his thanks to Dr. G. A. Odam, Director of the Department of Education of the North Texas State Teachers College, for his co-operation in the construction of this thesis.

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pertinent suggestions in the planning of this study, and her inspiration in carrying it forward.

## CHAPTER II

### FOREIGN INFLUENCES ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

The early development of physical education in the United States finds its immediate roots in the foreign fields of Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and Switzerland. The Germans led the field in the first modern movement for popular gymnastics in physical education.

Down through the ages man has considered physical perfection as a desirable end in itself.

Man's earliest endeavor to perfect the body, discipline the mind and mold the character of the young by means of selected forms of physical activity and special regimen could doubtless be traced back to the prehistoric age.<sup>1</sup>

However, it remained for Johann Basedow (1723-1790), the first of the philanthropists, to make the first hopeful modern experiment in combining physical and mental education in the general training of youth.

Basedow, in 1774, was instrumental in founding an institution at Dessau, Germany (Prussia), "which was called the Philanthropinum, for the purpose of realizing Rousseau's method of nature or to to conduct education so that the

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<sup>1</sup>F. E. Leonard, History of Physical Education, p. 17.

training of the mind and body shall serve to assist each other."<sup>2</sup> The Philanthropinum won the favorable comment of the greatest men of the time and became the model for many similar schools.

Basedow's immediate disciples and imitators were Campe, Salzmann, and Guts Muth, all of whom labored to extend and perfect the Dessau system of physical training, in which manual training was given a place.

Pestalozzi and Fellenberg in Switzerland, Machtegall in Denmark, Ling in Sweden, and "Father Jahn" and Spiess in Germany, may also be classed as followers of Basedow. All of these men were philanthropists who did much in facilitating the growth and development of physical education.

Johann Simon, teaching in the Philanthropinum at Dessau, was the first teacher and instructor of the new physical education movement. It was through his efforts and the study of the gymnastics of ancient Greece that the so-called Dessau Pentathlon came into being. This consisted of running, jumping, climbing, balancing, and carrying heavy weights. Simon, in his training, spent one hour in the morning and two hours in the late afternoon directing the entire school in a great variety of games, exercises, and manual labor. Basedow's

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<sup>2</sup>E. M. Hartwell, "Educational Report on Physical Training," United States Educational Report, (1897-1898), p. 522.

belief, "that normal physical growth is more important in early years than mental training and that there are intellectual and moral values derived from the playing of games,"<sup>3</sup> was put into practice by the instructors at the Philanthropinum.

Institutions were started in other localities on the Dessau plan but they failed to make a success of the work; and it remained for Christian Gotthilf Salzmann (1744-1811), a true disciple of Basedow, to venture forth as a founder. He established the Schnepfenthal Educational Institute at Gotha, in 1784. This philanthropinistic school long outlived its parent school at Dessau and has survived to the present day.

Salzmann, in 1776, brought in Johann Christoph Friedrich Guts Muth (1759-1839), as an instructor of physical training. Guts Muth, one of the founders of modern physical education and the grandfather of German gymnastics, directed the work at Schnepfenthal for nearly fifty years. Guts Muth's pre-eminence among the pioneers in the work did not rest upon his priority of time as an instructor. It was due to his long period of service and to the character and results of his teaching. The series of volumes from his pen formed what has been called the first normal school of physical training

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<sup>3</sup>E. A. Rice, A Brief History of Physical Education, p. 9.

for other teachers.<sup>4</sup>

The influence of Guts Muth was immediate and far reaching, for no one had handled the subject more intelligently either in practice or in theory.

He divided the 'pedagogical physical exercises' into three departments: gymnastic exercises; manual training; and youthful plays; reasoning that a genuine theory of gymnastics should be based upon physiological principles, and that the practice of every single movement should be governed by a consideration of the single peculiarities of the body.<sup>5</sup>

The work of Guts Muth consisted of exercises in marching, balancing, jumping, vaulting, carrying weights, throwing, foot races, climbing, skating, coasting, walking, hanging and traveling on the under side of a horizontal beam, jumping rope, and a few of the free simple exercises for indoor work. He kept an accurate record of each pupil's performance in order to note his needs in progress.

Inspired by the examples and results obtained by Guts Muth, many private as well as a few public school teachers introduced gymnastics into their schools.

The first public gymnastics ground (turnplatz),<sup>6</sup> was established in the summer of 1809 at Braunsberg, in Prussia, under the auspices of a secret association formed under the name of "The Moral and Scientific Union," the so-called

<sup>4</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 71.

<sup>5</sup>Hartwell, op. cit., p. 524.

<sup>6</sup>Hartwell, op. cit., p. 524.

'Tugenbund', for the purpose of arousing national feeling and throwing off the French yoke. The work was based on the principles of Guts Muth.

The popularity of gymnastics in Germany, under the name of 'Turnen'<sup>7</sup> continued to grow into a great institution and was a potent factor in the national development under the fiery and aggressive leadership of Friedrich Ludwig Jahn, known as the father of popular gymnastics in Germany. His idea to make bodily training a force in national regeneration and education led him to dream, write, and labor for a free and united Germany.

Jahn carried forward his ideas by opening his first Turnplatz in June, 1811, at Hasenheide (Harewood), a pine forest on the outskirts of Berlin. From the very first, vigorous and contentious games were assigned to the leading work.

Devices were adopted to awaken the community to interest and national feeling. A special costume or uniform, consisting of long trousers and a short jacket of gray unbleached linen, was adopted. "Enemies of the turners referred to them as the 'unbleached rascals', due to dress."<sup>8</sup> Jahn's ability to vary his exercises and to make each very interesting aided him in his success in handling his students for their best

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<sup>7</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 89.

<sup>8</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 89.

development. It was not Jahn's nature to be systematic, and such a thing as a formal school of gymnastics was foreign to his purpose. The essential thing was the active, wholesome, common life in the open air, and especially the games, which trained the boys to work together harmoniously and, at the same time, to kindle within them a great public spirit.

Jahn's work at Hasenheide was an incentive to the men that were to bring the physical education movement and program to the United States. Charles Beck and Francis Lieber were students of Jahn, while Charles Follen was a reader and follower of Jahn's book of rules.

Charles Theodore Christian Follen (1796-1840), was a student filled with ideas of moral and social reform for his fatherland, Germany. In 1816, Follen organized a group of staunch believers and followers into a gymnastic society known as the 'Giessen Blacks'. Their purpose was to develop themselves physically and in turn to organize a country united into one Christian brotherhood. Follen, an excellent gymnast, skillful with the broadsword as well as a powerful swimmer, proved to be a worthy leader for the group. The liberal tendencies and radical views of the group led the government to look upon them with suspicion. In the fall of 1824, when Follen learned of the government's intentions to send him to prison, he moved to Switzerland. One month later, he sailed for the United States in order to escape the constant threat

of arrest under the reactionary policy adopted by the Holy Alliance.<sup>9</sup>

Charles Beck (1798-1866), another excellent German scholar, followed the footsteps of Follen. He, too, was an active member of the movement for a true Christian association of students. He found that his republican sentiments stood in the way of a successful career in the 'fatherland' and he, too, moved to Switzerland. While there, Beck taught Latin and kept up his good work in physical training by teaching Jahn's system during his spare time. Realizing the constant threat of arrest, he sailed for America with Follen.<sup>10</sup>

Francis Lieber (1800-1872), was the third German refugee who assisted in the first introduction of the Jahn system in America. He was the most ardent and tireless of Jahn's pupils, accompanying him on all long excursions. His career in Germany was doomed, as had been Follen's and Beck's, for in July, 1819, a few days after his friend and leader, Jahn, had been arrested for revolutionary plots, he, too, was thrown into prison for four months and held as a suspect. Lieber, on his release from prison, finished his studies and received his Doctor's degree from Jena University in 1820. A year later, he became a soldier of fortune with a band of Philhellens who were headed for war in Greece. He returned to

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<sup>9</sup>F. E. Leonard, Pioneers of Modern Physical Training, p. 63.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid., p. 71.



Germany in 1823, having experienced terrible suffering in his wanderings in foreign lands. At home again he found that every movement he made was watched by the police, and he realized that his chances for success were nil. In May, 1826, Lieber sailed for England. When he reached London, he set to work to support himself by teaching German and Latin. In his spare time he fostered physical play for children of his neighborhood. He did not remain in London a year, for early in the spring of 1827, Lieber accepted an invitation to become Follen's successor at the Boston gymnasium. He was glad of this chance, for he had been a dreamer of his success and livelihood in the United States.<sup>11</sup>

In Denmark, Franz Nachteggall (1777-1847), was the leader and director of the physical education movement for more than forty years. Denmark was the first European country to introduce physical work into its colleges and universities. "On November 5, 1799, having definitely decided to give himself wholly to the new calling, Nachteggall opened a private outdoor gymnasium in the yard of number 45 Ostergade. This was the first institution in modern times devoted exclusively to physical training."<sup>12</sup> This institution is given credit for developing the first teacher training program of physical education by offering systematic instruction in theory and

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<sup>11</sup>Ibid., pp. 26-30.

<sup>12</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 179.

method.

Nachtegall was a believer in the splendid work of Guts Muth, reading his writings and carrying out their instructions to the letter. He opened outdoor gymnasiums, taught in private schools, universities, military institutions, and closed his great life as a director of gymnastics in Denmark. Though not an inventor of a system of his own, he was a good teacher and organizer of types of exercises. He followed devotedly the manuals of Dessau, Schnepfenthal, and Guts Muth.

Swedish gymnastics may rightfully be attributed to the work of Pehr Henrik Ling (1776-1839). He was a student of linguistic studies and old Norse mythology, but found time while attending school at Copenhagen, Denmark, to take up the art of fencing and become a past master of the subject. He also attended Nachtegall's new private gymnasium and learned the German gymnastics of Guts Muth.<sup>13</sup>

There is a story that Ling had suffered from gout in the arm, as one result of the privations to which he was constantly subjected, and finding the ease much relieved by his fencing, was thus led to study the effects of exercise in general.<sup>14</sup>

Ling, on his return home, became fencing master at the University of Lund. While there, he applied himself to the study of anatomy and physiology, working out his original

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<sup>13</sup>Ibid., pp. 26-30.

<sup>14</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 149.

systems of bayonet fencing and gymnastics. Ling, as many other leaders in the physical education movement, was an intense patriot, eager to see his countrymen strong in body and soul and thus prepared to thwart the foe. This eagerness was his inspiration in all his writings and gymnastic work. The system of physical education that he worked out was unlike any that had been devised in any other country.

It was based on the physiological considerations that gymnastics for the weak were as important as gymnastics for the strong; for that exercise must be prescribed for the individual rather than the group; that a system of gymnastics must be based upon an accurate knowledge of the effect of the various exercises on the human organism; that teachers and instructors must know the purpose and effect of every exercise; that the aim must be physical harmony and perfection; the oneness of the human organism; and the harmony between the mind and the body.<sup>15</sup>

The Swedish work of today, though modified, has so closely followed the lines worked out by Ling that his name is still rightly given to the course. Followers of Ling have made it a point to carry forward Ling's great service of bringing correctives into gymnastics in his attempt to give it a scientific basis by changing and developing gymnastics with each and every advance made in the field of political sciences.<sup>16</sup>

Claes Julius Enebuske was one of the first men to introduce the Swedish system of gymnastics into America. Enebuske

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<sup>15</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 119.

<sup>16</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 134.

was born in Ystad, southern Sweden, May 6, 1855. After graduating from the University of Lund with a Ph. D. degree in 1886, he came to New York City in 1877. His chief work was done at the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics, where he succeeded Posse early in 1890.

In Switzerland the names of Pestalozzi, Dalcrose, and Ollias lead the march of progress of physical education. Pestalozzi organized his famous school and developed his important theories of physical work; Dalcrose originated his system of eurythmics; and Ollias began his career in the Swiss army and later carried his results and experiences with physical education to France and England. The Swiss system, though borrowed from the Germans, was made a successful piece of work. This country led all European nations for many decades in membership in gymnastic societies.<sup>16</sup>

The foreign development of physical education, from the beginning of the modern gymnastics in Germany down to the time of its first influence and entrance into the United States in 1825, has been due mostly to the cause of true patriotism. These early instructors of physical education had a desire to build up strong physical bodies which would eventually lead to a strong, independent nation that could compete physically, as well as mentally, against any

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<sup>16</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 134.

other nation in time of stress.

Several types or methods of physical education have developed during the latter part of the eighteenth century, but Guts Muth's and Jahn's systems have dominated the early history of physical education. Ling's Swedish methods found favor in his country but did not spread to other nations until late in the nineteenth century.

## CHAPTER III

### EARLY HISTORY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

The early history of physical education in the schools and colleges of the United States of America, or the period in which recognition of the physical work began to manifest itself, did not close until the first quarter of the nineteenth century. This spirit corresponds, in point of time, roughly, with the period of preliminary experiments in Europe.<sup>1</sup>

The colonists were too busily engaged in war and politics, during the early periods of their development, to pay much attention to matters pertaining to educational reform. However, they brought to America the civilization of the countries from which they came. None brought a system of physical education, since, up to this time, no such system had been organized in Europe. That feature of education did not warrant immediate development as the population was 95 per cent rural at this period. Leisure time was limited; therefore, there was no need for organized play.

Twain has well said, in his English notes: 'In every age, under every civilization, a people is always

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<sup>1</sup>E. M. Hartwell, op. cit., p. 564.

itself; . . . the five or six great instincts which it possesses in its forests follow it in its palaces and offices. Of these great instincts, the play instinct is one of the most ineradicable. To this instinct of the barbarian and the child, as to the original germ, we may trace more or less directly every national or tribal custom or system of bodily training.<sup>2</sup>

These early conditions did not destroy the play instinct, however, and the colonists engaged in the games and sports of the mother country as frequently as the new conditions permitted.<sup>3</sup>

The young people of the New England colonies enjoyed the plays and games of England. The younger children were fond of playing ring, prisoner's base, top spinning, hop-scotch, various tag games, and ball. The older children were amused with chuck farthing, kite flying, dancing around the May-pole, marbles, fishing and shuttle cock. The young men found interest in shovel-board, kicking a football, and other ball matches and games. The grown folks loved to play cards and at times they joined in with the children in play.<sup>4</sup>

The Dutch in New York formed a contrast to the Puritans, as games and sports were enjoyed by all. The most popular outdoor sport was bowling. Skating and coasting proved to be the most popular winter sport. Hunting and fishing

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<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 515.

<sup>3</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 145.

<sup>4</sup>Alice Morse Earle, Child Life in Colonial Days, pp. 350-358.

yielded much pleasure and not a little profit. Backgammon, track, and hiking offered amusement and recreation for many.

In Virginia, as in the other colonies, the games of the mother country found their place. Nearly all the British sports flourished. Fairs and picnics were occasions for athletic competition and games. The main attractions were foot races, jumping, boxing, wrestling, cockfights, and horse racing. Such meets were crude but enjoyable and were engaged in without training.

Toward the latter part of the colonial period the boys and young men of all English settlements were playing football, cricket, fives, rounders, and other games. The village commons or greens served as the first municipal playground in America.<sup>5</sup> The children of that day had much greater variety of games than are being played at the present time. Hoops, hop-scotch, marbles, and tops were enjoyed then as now.

The three R's comprised the curriculum of the elementary schools with no place given to play or recreation to say nothing of scientific body training. There being no science of education in these schools, the teachers were hired to keep school, with play and its possibilities for value in education not understood.

Secondary education was provided by the grammar schools located in the large towns, and was supported by tuition and

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<sup>5</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 146.



subsidies from the local government. The aim of the grammar school was not to fit the student for immediate participation in society, but to prepare him for college; thus, the scholars learned Latin, Greek, and Hebrew. The current educational method, spirit, and aim made the subject matter foreign to society and hostile to the idea of physical education or even play.

Although the schools were against play or recreation and the school hours were long and tedious, the boys found time for their fun in games and sports of the times. They were not to be denied their daily exercise and play instinct.<sup>6</sup>

There was one notable exception to the usual type of grammar school. The Dummer School at Bayfield, Massachusetts, was under the direction of the famous Master Samual Moody. This great leader of boys had modern ideas on the necessity of play and recreation. He encouraged sports and participated in them himself. His school belonged to the period of the academies and was incorporated as such in 1782.

The history of the American academies began with the national history of the United States, and the early history of physical education in the United States began with the academies; thus, the academies played a most important part in the growth of education and physical education. The aim of the academies was the preparation of the pupils for life

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<sup>6</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 148.

and for social participation, all of which demanded hygiene and physical education. The theories of Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Fellenberg, that educational values were found in play and manual labor, were penetrating the field of education in the academies. By 1830, when the academy movement had reached its zenith there were about eight hundred institutions throughout the country.

The thought and advice of such prominent colonial leaders as Benjamin Franklin and Noah Webster for a physical program in the educational development of America were given consideration, but the active work was slow.

Franklin was one of the earliest supporters of the physical educational phase of education in the United States. 'Prepare youth for society, by having a school with a healthful situation': . . . games, races, wrestling and swimming.<sup>7</sup>

Webster, the founder of the dictionary, was the American of note to propose the institution of the college course of physical education. Though of rudimentary nature, his idea was a keynote for future development. . . . He says 'it should be the business of young persons to assist nature and strengthen the growing frame by athletic exercises. . . . A fencing school is, perhaps, as necessary an institution in a college as a professorship of mathematics.'<sup>8</sup>

None of the academy faculties had any idea of the real scope and significance of the science of physical education; few leaders took seriously the thought that trained leaders should be employed to teach hygiene and bodily development.

<sup>7</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 149.

<sup>8</sup>Hartwell, op. cit., p. 553.

The conception of the time was, that the place for exercise and games was after school hours, that teachers were unnecessary, that the play instinct was a sufficient urge and guide.

There is no ground for wonder that physical education has so slowly won its way to recognition as a necessary part to all education, and when one considers the fact that the oldest American schools and colleges, like their early English models, were established primarily to recruit with learned men the ranks of the clergy. The means afforded students for recreation, in the early days, were decidedly scarce. At Harvard, the freshmen were required to furnish bats, balls, and foot-balls for the use of the students.<sup>9</sup>

It was not until after the War of 1812 that conditions changed and physical education became a part of the curriculum of West Point Military Academy. Under the direction of Captain Alden Partridge, one of the early superintendents of West Point the work progressed rapidly. Captain Partridge was an agitator for reform of the higher educational institutions of the nation. He resigned from West Point in 1808, in order to give his full time to his beliefs.

Captain Partridge organized six military academies during the next few years and claimed great success in "connecting mental improvement with a regular course of bodily exercises and the full development of physical powers, the whole conducted under a military system of discipline."<sup>10</sup> His system was ignored and opposed by leading educators of

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<sup>9</sup>Z. M. Hartwell, "Physical Training in American Colleges and Universities," Circulars of Information No. 5, p. 15.

<sup>10</sup>Rice, op. cit., pp. 151-152.

the country as not being in harmony with American educational ideals.

In the face of this opposition, George Bancroft and Joseph G. Cogswell, organized an academy, the Round Hill School, at North Hampton, Massachusetts, in 1823. These two men had studied some of the French and German educational theories and they were fully impressed with the results. They were confident that the same returns could be accomplished in the education of American youth as was enjoyed in foreign countries. In the work at Round Hill, they embodied the best of the foreign theories. In addition to the academic work, the school offered industrial training and gave unusual attention to play, recreation, gymnastic exercises, and health. The gymnasium, under the leadership of Dr. Charles Beck, who was a former pupil and friend of Jahn, the great German gymnast, was established in 1825.

This was the first attempt "in the new country to connect gymnastics with a purely literary establishment."<sup>12</sup> With all these new innovations incorporated into the curriculum, the institution became one of the most discussed and most influential of the times.

The future advancement of physical education in the

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<sup>11</sup>2. M. Hartwell, "Physical Training in American Colleges and Universities," Circulars of Information, No. 5, p. 22.

<sup>12</sup>Hartwell, op. cit., p. 554.

higher institutions of learning in America was in the hands of Charles Follen, one of the three German refugees who had come to America when his cherished liberal opinions were threatening his freedom in the fatherland.

Follen, on his arrival in New York, in December, 1834, wrote to General Lafayette of France, who was then revisiting the United States.<sup>13</sup> Lafayette suggested that Follen go to Philadelphia and engage in the study of English. Letters from Lafayette secured for Follen a kind reception and introduction to agreeable and influential men in Philadelphia. Among these men was Duponceau, a prominent lawyer of French descent and a close friend of Lafayette for more than fifty years. Another was George Ticknor, professor of French and Spanish languages and literature and of belles-lettres at Harvard University, 1789-1835, who became an ardent admirer after reading Lafayette's letters of introduction. In these two men Follen found substantial friendship and backing for his career in America.<sup>14</sup>

In November, 1835, owing to the efforts of Ticknor, Duponceau and others, Harvard University offered Follen the position of instructor of German, at a salary of \$500.00. This was the first time that this subject had been included in the curriculum. He accepted the position and by Christmas

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<sup>13</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 232.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 232.

was busy with his work at Cambridge.

Dr. Follen, two months after his arrival at Harvard, in March, 1826, started the first American college gymnasium in one of Harvard's unoccupied common halls.<sup>15</sup> Later in the same season a variety of gymnastic appliances were put in the playground, known as the delta.

Anyone familiar with the appearance of a German Turnplatz of the Jahn type will readily understand . . . Thomas Wentworth Higginson in his chapter on 'The Gymnasium, and Gymnastics in Harvard College' . . . . One of my most impressive early reminiscences is of a certain moment when I looked out timidly from my father's gateway, on what is now Kirkland Street, in Cambridge, and saw the forms of young men climbing, swinging, and twirling aloft in the open playground opposite. It was a triangular field then, called 'the delta', where the great Memorial Hall now stands. The apparatus consisted of high uprights and crossbars, with ladders and swinging ropes, and complications of wood and cordage, whose details are vanished from my memory. . . . This early recollection must date back as far as 1830.<sup>16</sup>

The forward movement at Harvard was due to Dr. Follen's personal efforts backed by an appeal from medical professors of the college strongly recommending the practice of gymnastics.

Says Rev. Dr. Casnau Palfrey in the Harvard Register: 'A meeting of all classes was held in the college chapel, such a meeting as I do not remember hearing of any other occasion, at which a response was made to this appeal, and resolutions passed expressing our readiness to follow the suggestions made in it. . . . But, Dr. Follen did not confine his operations to these two localities, the hall and the playground. One day

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<sup>15</sup>Hartwell, op. cit., p. 554.

<sup>16</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 236.

he was to be seen issuing from the college yard at a dog-trot, with all the college at his heels, in single file and arms akimbo, making a train a mile long, bound for the town of Prospect Hill. That procession was stopped by a farmer who threatened prosecution for damages.<sup>17</sup>

Follen's work as superintendent of gymnastics at Harvard led to the opening of the first public open-air gymnasium,<sup>18</sup> or turnplatz, in Washington Gardens, opposite the commons, in the City of Boston in September, 1826.

Prominent citizens of Boston began agitation for a public gymnasium. The Board of Aldermen of Boston donated a piece of land. Money was raised by public subscription to provide apparatus and salary for the superintendent.<sup>19</sup>

He was put in charge of this project with George F. Turner, one of his students at Harvard, as his assistant.<sup>20</sup> The progress made was noteworthy, but as soon as the novelty of the work wore off, the attendance dropped.

The American Journal of Education for October and November, 1826, mentions 'the large number of pupils of various ages, and the highest gratifications it seems to afford. A month's opportunity of observing its progress and participating in its exercises enables us now to say that thus far it gives the utmost satisfaction to those who made the experiment of taking the course of lessons. The physical efforts of the gymnastic exercise, on pupils of different ages--from ten to fifty--are surprising. Many have doubled their vigor. . . . Pupils belong to great diversity of situations in life--

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<sup>17</sup>E. M. Hartwell, "Physical Training in American Colleges and Universities," Circular of Information, No. 5, p. 23.

<sup>18</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 237.

<sup>19</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 154.

<sup>20</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 237.

physicians, lawyers and clergymen are intermixed with young men from the counter and counting house, and with boys from the public schools.<sup>21</sup>

It is said that the attendance at Boston Gymnasium rose to four hundred the first year, and dwindled to four in the course of the second year.<sup>22</sup>

Follen seemed to have known, even in the midst of this apparent success, that gymnastics were not resting on solid foundations in America and that it would soon prove to be only a passing fad. Thus, he resigned his position in June, 1827, and the next year he had no connection with gymnastic instruction at Harvard, or in Boston. However, he remained at the University as Instructor of German Ethics and History until 1835.

Follen had decided to prepare himself for the ministry with the assistance of that distinguished Unitarian clergyman, Dr. William Ellery Channing. Following his work at Harvard, he took up his study in earnest. His success was cut short by his untimely death on January 13, 1840, in a ship fire at sea. Charles Sumner, who had been his pupil, wrote to a friend, 'Dr. Follen is gone; able, virtuous, learned, good, with a heart throbbing to all that is honest and humane.'<sup>23</sup>

Dr. Francis Lieber, the third of the German gymnastic refugees, arrived in America in June, 1827. He had accepted the invitation to become the successor of Follen as instructor in gymnastics at the Boston Gymnasium. Lieber brought with him two wonderful certificates of recommendations; one from 'Father Jahn', his teacher who was the leader of gymnastics

<sup>21</sup>Ibid., p. 238.

<sup>22</sup>Hartwell, op. cit., p. 554.

<sup>23</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 243.



in Germany and the idol in the fatherland. The second was from Major General Pfuell, who had invented the new method of teaching swimming.

An attempt was made to secure the services of no less a person than Friedrich Ludwig Jahn, himself. Dr. Warren tells us that . . . 'Mr. Jahn was so situated that he could not, without obtaining more means than were at our disposition, be led to abandon his own country.'<sup>24</sup>

Jahn said, 'Francis Lieber is of good moral character, ingenious and clever, a good leader and teacher of gymnastics, beloved by the young scholars, esteemed and respected by those of the same or more advanced age than himself.'<sup>25</sup>

Lieber and his swimming school, the first to be established in America, was a successful venture; but the popularity of the gymnasium waned, and no talent could keep it alive. The work of Lieber in physical education and swimming lasted through the first season. He then turned with great energy to his literary labors and the teaching of history until his death, October 2, 1872.<sup>26</sup>

The gymnastic methods at Round Hill, Harvard, and Boston gymnasia became the models for similar schools. During this period of the early and rapid growth in gymnastics, some fifteen secondary schools and colleges organized out-door facilities with now and then a room set aside for indoor work.<sup>27</sup>

In September, 1826, the corporation of Yale voted an

<sup>24</sup>Ibid., p. 238.

<sup>25</sup>Ibid., p. 240.

<sup>26</sup>Ibid., p. 243.

<sup>27</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 156.

appropriation of three hundred dollars to erect a gymnasium. One of the stipulations stated that the faculty could spend this money at their own discretion for the clearing and preparing of the college grounds (on the college green). The appropriation called also for the erection of apparatus for gymnastic exercises with a view to the promotion of the health of the students.<sup>28</sup>

With Harvard and Yale leading the way, the faculty at Amherst finally gave their consent to the establishment of an outdoor gymnasium in 1839. The apparatus consisted of "a few horses and parallel bars, with one or two swings, . . . but even these belonged to a society of students who guarded their property with jealous care."<sup>29</sup>

There were other leading colleges, such as Williams, Brown, and Charleston that experimented with the new movement of physical education, but the meager and chaotic character of the educational annals handicapped a report of their work.

The experience of Charleston (S. C.) College, as stated in 1830, was typical: "A system of bodily exercises were adopted three or four years ago, and suitable apparatus was constructed; but it was not found useful, and the apparatus has been destroyed."<sup>30</sup>

In 1830, following a three or four year flourish,

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<sup>28</sup>E. M. Hartwell, "Physical Training in American Colleges and Universities," Circulars of Information, No. 5, p. 24.

<sup>29</sup>Ibid., p. 24.

<sup>30</sup>Ibid., p. 24.

gymnastic exercises were on a decline in the schools of the United States.<sup>31</sup> The decline of health advancement at this time and the slow and retarded development of physical education as a branch of American Education was due to the following facts:

That in the case of early gymnasiums the appliances were rarely protected from the weather; that competent native teachers did not exist; that funds were too low to attract experienced teachers from abroad, and that the prepossessions of the teaching class and boards of trusts were in general such as to render them indifferent and adverse to the maintenance of a genuine and thorough going system of bodily training.<sup>32</sup>

Dr. John Collings Warren, tenacious believer of his high opinion of gymnastics and one who aided materially the establishing and opening of gymnasiums at Harvard and Boston, says reluctantly,

The establishment of gymnasia throughout the country promised, at one period, the opening of a new era of physical education. The exercises were pursued with ardor, so long as their novelty lasted; but, owing to not understanding their importance, or some defect in the institutions which adopted them, they have gradually been neglected and forgotten. . . . The benefits which resulted from these instructions, with my personal knowledge and experience, far transcended the most sanguine expectations. The extravagant expectations that prevailed in America . . . of gymnastics most have been followed by disappointments, even under favorable conditions. But in the absence of all that was necessary . . . utter failure was unavoidable.<sup>33</sup>

<sup>31</sup>E. M. Hartwell, op. cit., No. 5, p. 25.

<sup>32</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 156.

<sup>33</sup>J. C. Boykin, "Physical Training," Report of the United States Educational Bureau, 1891-1892, Vol. I, p. 505.

What might have been the result in the development of physical education if Drs. Beck, Follen, and Lieber had not quit the field is vain to surmise since even they were controlled by a few radical and aesthetic notions rather than by scientific knowledge of laws of bodily health and development.<sup>34</sup>

The decline of physical education during the third decade of the nineteenth century was due to (1) the lack of proper physiological knowledge; (2) the lack of interest in the community; and (3) the attempt to unite physical exercise with manual labor. "Exercise to be of proper advantage to the student must be enjoyed. Most students, like other people, are so made that work is not enjoyed."<sup>35</sup> In many colleges, attempts were made to give the students money, recreation, and sport through labor on the farm or at the bench. The move was honest and sincere, but it failed because it was not based upon physiological laws.

With one exception, physical education for men in the colleges of America faded out from 1830 to 1860. During the intervening years, we find here and there a handful of enthusiastic and athletically inclined students, who would patronize some private venture of an athlete or pugilist; but there was no well considered and sustained attempt by

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<sup>34</sup>Hartwell, op. cit., Circulars of Information, No. 5, p.25.

<sup>35</sup>Charles F. Thwing, "A History of Higher Education in America," p. 384.

authorities of any college to provide its students either with instruction in gymnastics or adequate facilities for athletic sports.<sup>36</sup>

Possibly the University of Virginia presents an exception, inasmuch as there was a large out-of-doors gymnasium maintained on the grounds of that institution from 1852 to the outbreak of the Civil War. A competent gymnast and sword master, a Frenchman, had it in charge; but in order to support himself, he had to eke out the small sum received from the students by cultivating the kitchen-garden, and keeping a Russian bath-house.<sup>37</sup>

We may give one important credit to the early period. It was the 'beginning to commence,' for the thinking powers of the educators were stirred and increasingly enlivened as to the importance of physical education in American education. Even though faded, the imprint was left, and it was only a question of time until some leader would bring forward some system that would meet the conditions and needs of the time.

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<sup>36</sup>E. M. Hartwell, op. cit., Circulars of Information, No. 5, p. 26.

<sup>37</sup>Ibid., p. 26.

## CHAPTER IV

### THE REVIVAL OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION PRIOR TO FOLLOWING THE CIVIL WAR

The revival of physical education as a unit of college education followed a twenty year lapse and a struggle for existence. During the third and fourth decades of the nineteenth century, four different systems of physical education had been brought forward for trial in the United States.

"The drill and discipline of the military academy, the Jahn gymnastics, manual labor, and calisthenics were the four systems of this period."<sup>1</sup> The claims of each were pressed by enthusiastic advocates, but for many reasons not one was generally adopted, or won for itself more than a trial.

The reports of committees that had been appointed to make a study of a system of gymnastics for American education gave a needed impetus to the cause of physical education. Eventually the educators of the time were made to realize the value and necessity of exercise by these reports and by speeches made at educational meetings.

This conviction of the educators was not realized immediately. The practices of the various theories of physical

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<sup>1</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 251.

education had to wait because the entire educational system was taking on much of its present form. The problems in this field, pressing for immediate attention, consumed time and energy. Horace Mann brought forward the theory "that education for healthful living was necessary for complete education."<sup>2</sup>

In the early part of the fifth decade physical education made its 'come back,' with the German system of gymnastics again taking the lead. Revolutionary movements in Germany, in 1848, caused thousands of the best German citizens to migrate to the United States. Wherever they settled they organized their great gymnastic societies, known as Turnverein. Their aims were to promote physical education, intellectual enlightenment, and social education among the members.<sup>3</sup>

The advancement of the Turnverein gave encouragement to the smaller groups of physical education enthusiasts in the United States. Their cause, on the brink of recognition, was aided materially by (1) the great increase in the amount of literature on the subject of physical education; (2) the organization of student gymnastic and athletic clubs at Princeton and the University of Virginia; (3) the increased addition of collegians and others in rowing and ball games;

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<sup>2</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 160.

<sup>3</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 255.

(4) the efforts to secure funds for college gymnasiums; (5) the instant popularity of the Tom Brown books; (6) the interests that were developed by the lectures and exhibitions on 'physical culture'; and (7) the work of Dio Lewis with his 'new gymnastics for men, women, and children.'<sup>4</sup>

Dio Lewis, "so hale and hearty, so profoundly confident in the omnipotence of his own methods and the uselessness of all others,"<sup>5</sup> gave the gymnastic movement in the United States a greater boost than any other person previously had accomplished. This, in itself, would have been sufficient to have earned for him the gratitude of all people interested in physical education. But, in addition to this, he awakened the American public to appreciate the fact that mere development of huge muscles was not the true idea of recreational exercise. He lifted the gymnasium above the low plane it had occupied in the public mind as the resort of prize fighters and bullies. He carried his new work into the classroom to an extent never attempted before and into the home life of individuals for the first time.<sup>6</sup>

Lewis's so-called system was not the type to survive for many years after the loss of the leadership of its energetic founder. However, it created a wave of popular interest that spread his contagious enthusiasm for physical

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<sup>4</sup>Hartwell, op. cit., p. 556.    <sup>4</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 259.

<sup>5</sup>Hartwell, op. cit., p. 556.    <sup>6</sup>Ibid., p. 556.



education to all parts of the country. His great skill in securing the aid and backing of educational leaders and notables contributed materially toward making him the most conspicuous luminary, for a time, in the field of physical education. Hartwell says of Lewis:

He was by nature an enthusiast, a radical, and a free lance. He was unconventional, sympathetic, plausible, oracular, and self sufficient; and the time was ripe for a gymnasiarch of that sort. In short, he was a revivalist and agitator and not a scientist in any proper sense. His originality has been much over-rated--very few of his 'inventions,' either in the line of apparatus or of methods of teaching, being really new.<sup>7</sup>

Harvard University, the first institution of its kind to take up gymnastics in the United States, kindled the fires for the revival of physical education, in the colleges, by building the first college gymnasium in 1859.<sup>8</sup> Yale and Amherst followed the movement with new gymnasiums for the advancement of health for their students. The examples set by these three colleges were not followed to any great extent by other schools until the close of the Civil War.

The check of the war, on the progress of the revival of physical education, was immediately overcome in 1865 by the return of the men students to the colleges. These men were full of vim and vigor and had, fresh in mind, the value of strenuous physical training methods of the army. The importance of physical fitness had been proved to these men,

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<sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 558.

<sup>8</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 268.

and they were determined to exert their best influence for the furthering of physical education in the colleges.

The college administrators were called upon to supply gymnasiums, equipment, and instruction in their physical programs. Some twenty colleges and universities felt the urge and made an honest attempt by providing buildings and equipment during the period from 1865 to 1881.<sup>9</sup>

The methods of instruction, in the majority of the cases where attempted, were spasmodic, unintelligent, and half-hearted, due to the lack of competent leaders in the field.

The efforts to institute complete departments of physical education in the superior schools during this period were severely handicapped by ill-advised expenditures upon buildings, vague aims, and inadequate organization. Amherst College was one exception to the existing condition. President Stearns of Amherst had emphasized in 1854 the need of efficiency in body training; encouragement, rather than repression of physical exercise; faculty regulation and control of the physical activities of the students; and the need of a professorship extending over the entire physical education department.<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>E. M. Hartwell, "Physical Training in American Colleges and Universities," Circulars of Information, No. 5, p. 39.

<sup>10</sup>J. H. McCurdy, "Essential Factors in the Control of Intercollegiate Athletics," American Physical Education Review, XV, p. 111.

**President Stearns wanted:**

A man of cultivated tastes and manners, a man of honorable sentiments and correct principles, having high aims and a Christian spirit. Such a man, with such a work would be an incalculable advantage to the college and to mankind.<sup>11</sup>

Honors must, therefore, go to Amherst for consistently controlling the physical activities of her students since August 6, 1860.<sup>12</sup> President Stearns's plans were all given close consideration and scrutiny before being put into use. Then under the direction of the carefully selected leader, Dr. Edward Hitchcock, the Amherst plan was carried out to the letter.

President Eliot, of Harvard, said, "It is to Amherst that colleges of the country are indebted for a demonstration of the proper mode of organizing the department of physical training."<sup>13</sup>

Dr. Edward Hitchcock, due to his keen attitude and thought for physical development, held the professorship of hygiene and physical education at Amherst College for fifty years. The plan followed in the school during this period included measurements, health supervision, and regular exercise for the students. One of Dr. Hitchcock's first studies at Amherst was an anthropometric observation of his

<sup>11</sup>Ibid., p. 11.

<sup>12</sup>Ibid., p. 111.

<sup>15</sup>F. E. Leonard, Pioneers of Modern Physical Training, p. 89.

<sup>13</sup>E. M. Hartwell, Circulars of Information, No. 5, p. 30.

students. This gave the students a yearly comparison of themselves and helped to ascertain the data or constants of the typical man, and especially the college man. The results seemed to show a difference in physical characteristics between those pursuing a scholarly life and others with unlike occupations. Hitchcock proved that growth could be accelerated by exercise; that the sick rate among the students could be decreased during the college year, and that regular exercise could be made progressive and attractive.

The features of the Amherst plan under Hitchcock's direction were: . . . the department was not created nor developed for the purpose of special attention to the muscular system; the object was to keep the bodily health up to normal standard, so the mind could accomplish the most work and to preserve the bodily powers in full activity for the daily duties of college life and the labor of a long life; that the exercises should be enjoyed mentally as well as physically, and were not to be made tedious nor mechanical; and the essential feature required each student to appear at the gymnasium at a stated hour, four days a week, to perform his part in the systematic and methodical light gymnastic exercises timed to music.<sup>14</sup>

The observation and tables of measurement made by Hitchcock have been the tree from which all subsequent branches have developed.

Many twisted facts have been published in physical education in order to justify some preconceived ideas but Hitchcock devoted his life's work to accurate and truthful findings.

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<sup>14</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 273.

The indifferent results of physical education in its initial appearance in the colleges of America made it obvious to the leaders that the results had not met their expectations. In order to facilitate the system of revival, or to perpetuate a better program, some provision for teacher training had to be made in this field.

The first attempt to establish a normal school of gymnastics was undertaken by the National Organization of Turners in 1861. They opened their school at Rochester, New York, and though its career was cut short by the Civil War, its roots of value carried over to the period of Lewis's supremacy.

Dio Lewis, late in 1861, established the Normal Institute of Physical Education in Boston. This was the first school to graduate a class of teachers who were fairly well prepared to go into the field and teach gymnastics. The curriculum consisted of anatomy, physiology, hygiene, gymnastics, and elocution. There were two ten-week terms each year. The second term added instruction in the Swedish movement, cure and a general study of Ling's system. By 1868, some 250 teachers had graduated and were out in the field practicing the theories of physical education.<sup>15</sup>

In November, 1866, the North American "Turnerbund,"

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<sup>15</sup>Rice, *op. cit.*, pp. 191-194. <sup>15</sup>R. Tait McKensie, "Pioneers in Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. II, p. 6.

opened its second school. This school, due to its many locations, might well be called "the traveler." It started in New York, moved to Chicago, then was taken back to New York in the space of four years' time. In 1875, the school was moved to Milwaukee, Wisconsin, where it remained thirteen years, in which these ten courses were completed. The required work included systematic instruction in the following subjects:

Practical gymnastics, gymnastic nomenclature, the value and uses of the different pieces of apparatus, the preparation on series of graded lessons in gymnastics, the history and literature of physical training, including systems and methods, with special attention with the preceding course, the essentials of anatomy and physiology; hygiene, medical gymnastics, and first-aid; the principles of education, and practical hints derived from them; the German and English languages and literature; simple popular and Turner songs; foil, sabre, and bayonet fencing; and swimming.<sup>16</sup>

In 1889, the school was moved to Indianapolis, Indiana. After two years' time, it was returned to Milwaukee where it remained until 1907. This school, the Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union, is operating today in Indianapolis.

Dr. Dudley Allen Sargent, as Director of Hemenway Gymnasium at Harvard University Summer School of 1887, made one of his greatest contributions to the field of physical education by establishing a five weeks' course for the training of teachers in physical work. This summer course is the first record of a college or university offering instruction

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<sup>16</sup>Leonard, op. cit., pp. 309 and 353. <sup>16</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 264.

to teachers of physical education. Sargent, over a period of thirty-three years, directed 4466 persons in his summer classes of work.

The "Brooklyn-Anderson-New Haven Normal School" of Gymnastics and Chautaugua (summer) School of Physical Education made their appearances about the same time as the Harvard school. The numerous names given to the school were an outgrowth of the people in charge and the cities in which it was located. The school offered ten months' instruction in the theory and practice of gymnastics.

The Young Men's Christian Association College at Springfield, Massachusetts, organized their department for physical training in the summer of 1887.

The immediate purpose of this course was the training of teachers to direct activities that would lead to better "health control of the neuro-muscular apparatus, self-control, respects for the rights of others, clean living, and morality."<sup>17</sup>

In 1889, Mrs. Mary Hemenway donated the money for the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics. She employed Baron Nils Posse, an ardent follower of Ling's Swedish gymnastics, as the teacher and head of the school. Posse brought the Swedish educational gymnastics forward with such clearness and accuracy that they attracted general attention in the United States.

In 1890, Posse organized his own school, the Posse Normal

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<sup>17</sup>Leonard, op. cit., pp. 309 and 352.<sup>17</sup>Rice, op. cit., p.264.

School of Gymnastics. This school became the center of Swedish gymnastics in this country and continues to operate in Boston as the Posee-Nissen School of Physical Education. Several private normal schools have been organized since 1890, and along with the other institutions they have been able to educate teachers who are trained in physical education methods.

In 1914, there were fourteen schools of higher learning offering courses that lead to titles and degrees in physical education. With the wide acceptance of the program of physical education, this number has been increased to more than one hundred schools preparing teachers for the general physical education field.

During the early periods, courses of study required from two to ten months' work, in order to receive a degree. In the nineties, the period of training required two years of resident study or its equivalent. Since 1900, the third and fourth years have been added and many of the colleges and universities now offer work for higher degrees in physical education.<sup>18</sup>

The revival of physical education in the colleges and universities prior to and following the Civil War, proved to be an uphill struggle. The erratic system of physical education during this period handicapped the progress. The

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<sup>18</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 356.<sup>18</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 267.



educational leaders know of the need for a recreational program, but due to the uncertainty of the new devices placed before them by lobbyists and radicals, they moved forward cautiously. A few of the leaders, true to their beliefs, advanced and proved step by step their points of value in order to place physical education successfully in the college curriculum.

## CHAPTER V

### THE INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETIC MOVEMENT

The play instinct which is as old as the world and the desire of individuals, with a display of their physical and athletic prowess, to distinguish themselves in the eyes of their fellowmen were the principal factors in development of the intercollegiate athletic movement in the United States.

The plays and games of college students in America developed along with the colleges. These games soon proved to be troublesome to the early college authorities. In 1761 the trustees of Princeton laid down a law that ball playing was strictly prohibited against the president's house, and in 1787 the Princeton faculty objected to a game played with balls and sticks in the back common of the college.<sup>1</sup> It was not until 1843 that the colleges had any signs of an athletic organization. At that time, seven students at Yale formed an athletic rowing club which was to become the leader of all intercollegiate groups in American schools of higher learning.<sup>2</sup>

In 1844 another group of Yale students organized a boat

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<sup>1</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 217.

<sup>2</sup>Frank G. Menke, All Sports Record Book, p. 293.

club, in which they used a cumbersome 'lapstreak gig' as their boat. Two athletic groups on the same school campus, each with worthy ability, called for a contest. The gig crew challenged the canoe shell to a race. Much to the chagrin of the challengers, they were defeated by half a mile.<sup>3</sup>

In 1845, not to be outclassed by Yale, Harvard formed student rowing clubs and each year held their interclass and intergroup contests.

The character of these early contests may be inferred from a remark made by one of the Harvard crew that they had rowed only a few times before the actual contest for fear of blistering their hands. The chief idea of training was avoiding sweets on the actual day of the race.<sup>4</sup>

The popularity of rowing clubs and the desire to prove their superiority against an opponent of another college resulted in the first intercollegiate contest. Harvard defeated Yale, "in a terrid race of two eight-oared barges over a two-mile course on Lake Winnepesaukee, August 3, 1852."<sup>5</sup> This proved to be the incentive for rowing races; for, in 1858, an intercollegiate 'free-for-all' regatta between Yale, Brown, Trinity, and Harvard was held. Harvard won the race on the basis of time allowance. Yale, the most versatile opponent, did not compete due to the drowning of one of the

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<sup>3</sup>Ibid, p. 293.

<sup>4</sup>Twing, op. cit., p. 385.

<sup>5</sup>Menke, op. cit., p. 293.

members of its crew.<sup>6</sup> The next two years the leading universities that had facilities for rowing organized crews for individual sport as well as for competitive contests.

The Civil War acted as a damper on further regattas and none were successfully attempted until 1865. The renewed interest found Yale defeating Harvard, "In the fastest time ever made in America in a three mile race and return."<sup>7</sup> In 1869, the first friendly international contest between the United States and England took place with a Harvard crew going abroad to row Oxford from Putners to Mortlake.<sup>8</sup>

The first "Rowing Association of American Colleges," was organized in 1871, when representatives of Amherst, Bowdoin, Brown, and Harvard met and drew up plans for an annual regatta.<sup>9</sup> The race this year was an open affair and an outside group, Massachusetts Agricultural College, won a surprising victory. The next four years found new crews joining in the battle for honors with Amherst. They were Yale, Columbia, and Cornell winning the championship in the respective years.

Harvard and Yale withdrew from the association in the late seventies to organize their own annual regatta. This move split the group and left the remainder of the crews to race informally among themselves for a few years. Later,

<sup>6</sup>Thwing, op. cit., p. 385.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 385.

<sup>8</sup>Thwing, op. cit., p. 385.

<sup>9</sup>Menke, op. cit., p. 294.

they formed the Intercollegiate Association that has survived to the present day.<sup>10</sup>

The question of professionalism was first brought to light in this country in the sport of rowing. It was unfair to allow the experienced seaman to row against the amateur. They immediately defined the professional and amateur and since that time lessened the taint of professionalism in rowing.<sup>11</sup>

Rowing had become firmly established in the historical American colleges by 1875 and it continued to hold a place with the leading intercollegiate sports.

Baseball, the second sport to find its place in the intercollegiate movement, was introduced from the general community, by Princeton, in 1858 into the colleges of America. The following year, Yale, Amherst, and Williams organized teams.<sup>12</sup>

Abner Doubleday, who is called the "Father of Baseball, introduced the square (diamond) and originated the game of baseball in 1839. The first team organized in the United States was the Knickerbocker Club of New York. The club started in 1845. The drafted meager rules states: a team must score 21 aces, (runs today) to win; no set number of hands (innings today), except each team must play the same number of hands (innings); ball to weigh three ounces; pitching distance was 45 feet; and home plate was to cover one square foot and had to be flat.<sup>13</sup>

The first intercollegiate baseball game was played

<sup>10</sup>Ibid., p. 294.

<sup>11</sup>Menke, op. cit., p. 294.

<sup>12</sup>Thwing, op. cit., p. 294.

<sup>13</sup>Menke, op. cit., p. 385.

between Amherst and Williams at Pittsfield, Massachusetts,  
July 1, 1859.

The victorious Amherst players had made a beginning in those careful rules which have taken the game from the region of sport and carried it into the region of exact and laborous discipline, while the Berkshire (Williams) players showed alertness and skill which may be acquired under moderate practice.<sup>14</sup>

During the Civil War period, baseball was developing at Harvard, Brown, and Bowdoin. Immediately following the war, interest spread rapidly but the rise of baseball in the favor of the community has been greater than its advancement in undergraduate opinion. It is the great American game to the public, as football has become the great American game to the college.<sup>15</sup>

The kicking and catching of a ball has been one of the happiest sports of all times and from this type of exercise or game we have the growth of interclass, intramural, and intercollegiate football in the colleges of America.

In the year 1840, an annual game of football was attempted between the freshmen and sophomore teams at Yale.<sup>16</sup> This game, lacking in rules, became such a rough and tumble contest of individual strength and skill that the annual class rush was substituted for it. However, there are traces

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<sup>14</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 218.

<sup>15</sup>Thwing, op. cit., p. 396.

<sup>16</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 219.

of intramural football, in its early form, found at Princeton, Harvard, Dartmouth, Rutgers, Brown, and Amherst.

The development of the game "football," must rightfully be credited to the work of Princeton and Rutgers. They decided, in 1865, that a great game could be devised from the kicking of a football. The trend followed the English game of association football which contained rules for only kicking the ball. Throwing and running with the ball were prohibited. The rules provided for twenty-five men on each side and the game consisted of six goals. The ball could be kicked through the goal only for a score and the general game was quite similar to soccer.<sup>17</sup>

The next three years were experimental with the new game and the changing of the rules was common. However, in 1869, Princeton challenged Rutgers to the first inter-collegiate football game. This first contest was held at New Brunswick, New Jersey, on November 13, 1869, and was won by Rutgers, 6 to 4. In a second game played, November 20, 1869, Princeton turned the tables and won decisively, 6 to 0.<sup>18</sup>

In 1873, representatives of Princeton, Rutgers, Columbia, and Yale met in New York City to revise and formulate rules governing the association football they were playing. The rules were not changed to any great extent

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<sup>17</sup>Menke, *op. cit.*, p. 150.

<sup>18</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 150.

but the men discussed each rule in full detail in order to have the same interpretation. As a result of the interest aroused at this meeting, other colleges (near and far) began to organize association football teams.<sup>19</sup>

The attempt of Cornell and Michigan Universities to hold the first intercollegiate, intercollegiate football game in November, 1873, in the city of Cleveland, was nipped in the bud by President White of Cornell who said to his team, "I will not permit 30 men to travel 400 miles merely to agitate a bag of wind."<sup>20</sup>

The organization of Harvard's Association football team in 1874, proved to be the turning point in the history of football in the United States. Almost immediately, the crimson team was challenged by McGill University of Montreal, Canada, to a game of Rugby Football.<sup>21</sup> The Harvard players accepted the challenge and prepared themselves for the new type of football game. On May 15, 1874, McGill and Harvard met at Cambridge, Massachusetts, in the first game of Rugby football to be played in this country. Although the game ended in a tie, the Harvard players were completely "sold" on the new type of game. The next year the Harvard boys "sold" the new game to the Yale team by giving them a sound beating.

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<sup>19</sup>Menke, op. cit., p. 151.    <sup>20</sup>Menke, op. cit., p. 150.

<sup>21</sup>Ibid., op. cit., p. 151.



At a meeting of football representatives in Springfield, Massachusetts, November 26, 1876, Yale took the initiative stand that "Rugby should be the American game rather than Association Football."<sup>22</sup>

With the strong backing of the Harvard orators, Yale succeeded in swinging the other schools into line for the proposed change. The representatives immediately organized the first American intercollegiate football association with Princeton, Rutgers, Columbia, Harvard, and Yale as members. The new association decided that the rules of English Rugby were, in general, what the American game of football would need.<sup>23</sup>

One change was made in the Rugby rules to satisfy Princeton-Rutgers-Columbia combination. In England scoring was only by goals. In the American rules--carrying the ball over the goal line credited the team with a touchdown. If a team kicked a goal from the field it was superior to four touchdowns.<sup>24</sup>

The next few years found the game progressing, as was expected, although a few changes were made in the rules of the game to benefit the teams.<sup>25</sup> Thus, the great American game of the colleges (football) won its way into the intercollegiate athletic movement.

Track and field athletics were the last of the early American sports to play a part in the intercollegiate

<sup>22</sup>Rice, *op. cit.*, p. 219.

<sup>23</sup>Rice, *op. cit.*, p. 219.

<sup>24</sup>Wenke, *op. cit.*, p. 151.

<sup>25</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 151

athletic movement. These sports can be traced back to three main influences: namely, the Caledonian Games of the immigrants from Scotland; the example of the English Universities of Oxford and Cambridge; and the contest organized as an aftermath to the regatta at Saratoga in 1874.<sup>26</sup> Columbia University, in 1869, formed the first collegiate athletic association interested in track and field events. They held their first meet in June of that year. The initiative for such an organization came in a letter from George Rives, one of their graduates who was studying in England and had witnessed the annual meet between Oxford and Cambridge, in 1868.<sup>27</sup> The Yale students, who were always alert for new ideas, organized their association, in 1872, with the first field day held on May second of that year. The next year, Princeton formed an athletic club under the splendid leadership of George Goldie, a life long member of the Caledonian Club of New York City.<sup>28</sup>

The first intercollegiate meet followed the rowing contest at Saratoga, in 1874. There were five events with Columbia, Cornell, Harvard, Wesleyan, Williams, Princeton, and Yale competing for honors. In a similar contest in 1876, Amherst, Union, Pennsylvania, and Dartmouth had

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<sup>26</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 278.

<sup>26</sup>Menke, op. cit., p. 339.

<sup>27</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 278.

<sup>28</sup>Ibid., p. 278.

joined the former group.<sup>29</sup> At this time the schools organized the Intercollegiate Athletic Association. The new association aided the development of track and field sports.

With due credit to the athletic movement, we find that the "nascent interest in gymnastics and athletic forms of exercise,"<sup>30</sup> during the revival of physical education immediately before and following the Civil War, was far more potent in the department of intercollegiate athletic contest than in general physical drill.

The undergraduate had taken the initial step in the development of an athletic program and had directed it through the early stages. They received from the faculties and administrators only limitations and restrictions, rather than direction and aid in management.

The intercollegiate athletic movement in the colleges had its place within the field of physical education due to the play spirit and determination of the early students. They made the decision to do something in the way of recreation that gave them the thrills of proving themselves superior to others, rather than do the tedious drills of light and heavy gymnastics.

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<sup>29</sup>Menke, *op. cit.*, p. 339.

<sup>30</sup>Paul Monroe, "Physical Education in Colleges and Universities," A Cyclopedia of Education, IV, 709.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE MODERN TREND OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION, ATHLETICS AND THE HEALTH PROGRAM

#### Part I--Physical Education

The modern trend of physical education, athletics, and health in the colleges of the United States has followed the trial and error method. The early failures to gain recognition, the vague and diverse aims of many leaders, the lack of proper facilities, and the evils in the control and direction of intercollegiate athletics called for patience and determination in developing a future for the physical program.

The leaders in physical education prayed for "a healthy mind in a healthy body, and a brave soul unscared by death."<sup>1</sup> The continued opposition was met with the powerful lines of Montaigne, "It is not a soul, it is not a body that we are training up, but a man, and we ought not to divide him."<sup>2</sup> The watchword to all educators was to produce a whole man by training the mind and training the body as one unit.

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<sup>1</sup>Hartwell, *op. cit.*, p. 488. Requoted from the time worn line of Juvenal, "men's sana in corpore sano."

<sup>2</sup>Carl Ziegler, "The Modern Trend of Physical Education," *Mind and Body*, Vol. XX, p. 325.

It is true that most of the adverse conditions in the field were due to the unruly student control of intercollegiate athletics. However, the results for the period of 1880-1890 were slow but pleasing. The negative discussion of the superficial aspects (the minor calisthenic movements) of physical education continued but was not enlarged upon by the churches, by the medical profession, and by the educational journals. There were evidences of the work extending to all parts of the United States in an increasing variety of forms. A better attitude was developing toward the scientific, historical, and pedagogical bearings of the subject. One of the most favorable signs of the times was the conviction of the teachers and leaders of physical education that they should be carefully and thoroughly trained for the work.<sup>3</sup>

The inadequacy of the early gymnasiums to afford proper facilities for the indoor training of crews, teams, and champion athletes brought on a new era of gymnasium building. Harvard again took the lead with the erection, in 1879, of the magnificent new Homeway Gymnasium.

Mr. Augustus Hemenway, of Boston, a graduate of Harvard in 1876, had given the sum of \$115,000 for the erection of a gymnasium. This amount did not cover the actual cost of the building and equipment, but it gave it a huge boost.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>3</sup>Ziegler, *op. cit.*, p. 325.

<sup>4</sup>Hartwell, *op. cit.*, p. 55.

This structure, its fittings, and its methods of instruction and administration served as a model for most of the gymnasiums built during this period.

The administrative authorities of Harvard, profiting by valuable and successful experiences of Amherst, were looking for a man who was able to insure them a worthwhile department. They secured the services of Dr. Dudley Allen Sargent as assistant professor of physical training and director of the Hemenway Gymnasium.

The appointment as assistant professor was for the usual term of five years. After that period, and until his retirement in September, 1919, his title was simply, 'Director of the Hemenway Gymnasium.' Sargent, due to his efforts to bring intercollegiate athletics under the personal direction of his own department resulted in his losing the title of Assistant Professor, in 1885.<sup>5</sup>

Sargent, a past master in the field of physical development, set up at Harvard his own types of apparatus, equipment, and the so-called "Sargent System" of developing gymnastics. He arranged his work so that each student, upon entering the university, had an examination which included: measurement of physical proportions, testing his individual strength, examining the heart and lungs, and solicited information regarding the general health and inherited tendencies. With these findings before him, Sargent made out a special prescription for the examined student, with specifications of the movements and apparatus he was to use. After

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<sup>5</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 281.

three to six months on the prescription, the student was re-examined and the results were ascertained so that the director could make more assignments.

Sargent, with his great stimulating and molding influence on physical education, demonstrated that gymnastics and general athletic exercise for college men could be controlled and directed in the interest of healthful growth and normal development.<sup>6</sup>

Following the footsteps of Harvard, several of the leading colleges built gymnasiums during the next five years. "Lehigh, Cornell, Tufts, Wooster, Johns Hopkins, Amherst, Dickinson, Lafayette, and Minnesota were the leading schools."<sup>7</sup> All of the schools, except Amherst and Harvard, were slow to advance in their methods of gymnastic instruction. The development of their physical education departments were hindered by (1) the obvious influences of muscular exercises; (2) the energy exerted in the acquisition of mere appliances; and (3) the failure of his authorities to realize that physical education had a history and could be organized as a department. In other words, the schools failed to develop the science and art of physical work.<sup>8</sup>

Physical education leaders continued to make progress each year in their attempts to get a foothold in the college

<sup>6</sup>Hartwell, op. cit., p. 558.

<sup>6</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 283.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 284.

<sup>8</sup>Hartwell, op. cit., p. 558.

curriculum. They realized the shortcomings of their cause if they failed to sell the value of physical work to the schools of higher learning.

During the early nineties, the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education was organized. The objectives of this association were clearly stated by Mr. Hartwell:

The objectives of this association are to awaken a wider and more intelligent interest in physical education; to acquire and disseminate knowledge concerning it; and to labor for the improvement and extensions of gymnastics, games, and athletic pastimes in the education of children and youth.<sup>9</sup>

Annual meetings were held by the group and leading educators of the colleges and universities were invited as guests and speakers. This enabled the physical education leaders to gain the viewpoints and opinions of the college authorities, and at the same time to advance a word for their cause.<sup>10</sup>

The association had to combat the effects of the disheartening failures of the earlier attempts made in America, the necessity of competition on unequal terms with other schemes of educational reforms, and the vague and diverse aims and uncritical and ignorant methods of the many advocates and exponents of physical education. At the same time, the growing appreciation in the mind of the public,

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<sup>9</sup>E. M. Hartwell, "President's Address," American Physical Education Review, Vol. IV, p. 208.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid., p. 209.



the steady increase in the number of gymnasiums, and the demand of educational leaders for better methods and results in the conduct and control of physical education in the colleges gave encouragement for progress.<sup>11</sup>

The time for advancement was at hand but the systems were lacking in organization. They were, primarily, structurally minded and thought only in terms of anatomy and muscular physique, forgetting the functional relationship to education in general. The difficulties were, in many ways, due to disagreement, criticism, and conflicting claims of would-be leaders. In other words, these leaders offered free service to the colleges for varying lengths of time in order to demonstrate their favorite systems with the understanding that they were to be employed if the plan proved successful. In some cases the plan worked but in the greater number of cases they failed. Because of this failure the leaders of educational institutions became wary of physical education in general. This lessened and delayed the chances for full recognition.<sup>12</sup>

In the faces of all the problems and opposition, physical education, by a slow process of elimination of objectionable

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<sup>11</sup>Ibid., p. 209.

<sup>12</sup>Raymond A. Kent, Higher Education in America, p. 563. See also G. W. Fritz, "Conditions and Needs of Physical Education," American Physical Education Review, Vol. IV, p. 339.

features, finally won its way into colleges. See Table 1 for data.

TABLE 1  
INTRODUCTION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR MEN BY STATES

State	Year Physical Education Was First Prescribed	
	Colleges and Universities	Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools
1. Alabama	1893	1900
2. Arizona	—	1925
3. Arkansas	1897	1929
4. California	1888	1917
5. Colorado	1892	1909
6. Connecticut	1913	—
7. Delaware	—	—
8. District of Columbia	—	—
9. Florida	1906	—
10. Georgia	—	1925
11. Idaho	—	—
12. Illinois	1875	1890
13. Indiana	1924	1870
14. Iowa	1900	1900
15. Kansas	1894	1909
16. Kentucky	1896	1819
17. Louisiana	—	—
18. Maine	—	—
19. Maryland	1865	—
20. Massachusetts	1886	1912
21. Michigan	1897	1900
22. Minnesota	1893	1890
23. Mississippi	—	1927
24. Missouri	1893	—
25. Montana	1897	—
26. Nebraska	1923	1915
27. Nevada	1920	—
28. New Hampshire	1865	—
29. New Jersey	1859	—
30. New Mexico	—	1920

TABLE 1--Continued

State	Year Physical Education Was First Prescribed	
	Colleges and Universities	Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools
31. New York	1816	--
32. North Carolina	1899	--
33. North Dakota	1903	1918
34. Ohio	1888	--
35. Oklahoma	1900	1904
36. Oregon	1893	1893
37. Pennsylvania	1890	1879
38. Rhode Island	1891	--
39. South Carolina	--	--
40. South Dakota	1891	--
41. Tennessee	1872	1912
42. Texas	1904	1909
43. Utah	1902	--
44. Vermont	1890	--
45. Virginia	--	--
46. Washington	1918	--
47. West Virginia	1921	--
48. Wisconsin	1897	1896
49. Wyoming	1894	--

As shown in Table 1, the close of the nineteenth century and the early years of the twentieth found the colleges and universities realizing the need for a definite physical education program for their students. While the range of years for the establishment of physical education was from 1816 to 1928, most of the institutions prescribed the work between 1890 and 1905. In comparison the teachers colleges and normal schools developed their program to a large extent between the years of 1910 and 1925, a period in which

a majority of the teachers colleges and normal schools of the United States inaugurated physical work as a part of the curriculum.

TABLE 3  
DATES PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR MEN  
WAS FIRST PRESCRIBED

Dates	Colleges and Universities	Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools
1930-1933	—	2
1925-1929	4	5
1920-1924	8	8
1915-1919	5	10
1910-1914	8	6
1905-1909	6	4
1900-1904	10	5
1895-1899	11	2
1890-1894	17	3
1885-1889	4	0
1880-1884	0	0
1875-1879	1	1
1870-1874	1	1
1865-1869	2	0
1860-1864	0	0
1855-1859	0	1
Before 1855	1	0
<b>Totals</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>48</b>

As indicated in Table 1, and illustrated in Table 3 and Figure 1, most of the colleges and universities prescribed work in their curriculum between the years 1890 and 1905. In comparison, the teachers colleges and normal

**DATES PHYSICAL EDUCATION PRESCRIBED FOR MEN**

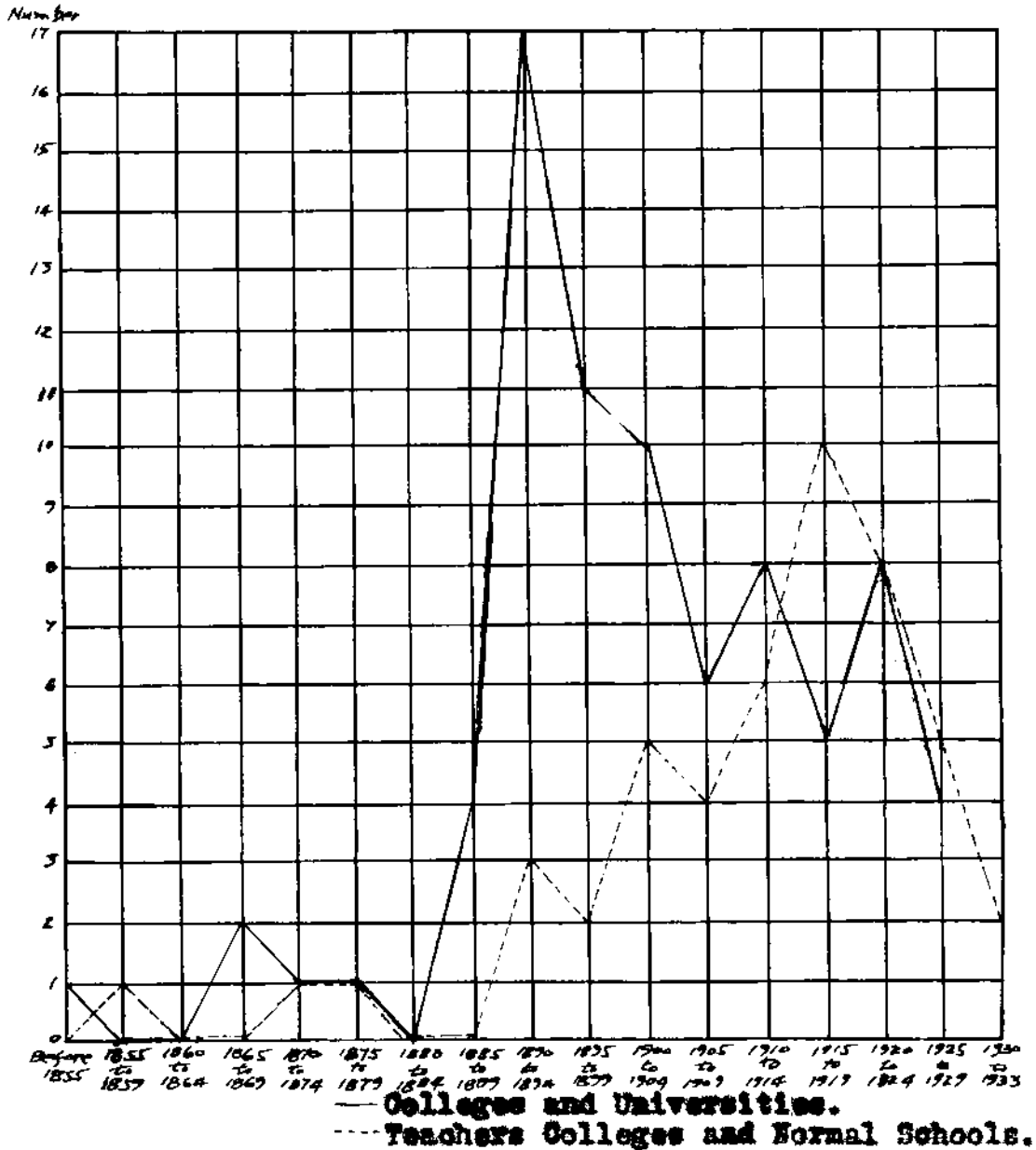


Fig1. A comparison of the growth and development of the normal colleges and the colleges and universities as shown in 77 colleges and universities located in 39 states and the District of Columbia and in 54 teachers colleges and normal schools located in 25 states.

schools developed their program largely between the years 1910 and 1935. Tables 1 and 3 and Figure 1 show definite facts regarding the rise of physical education in the colleges, universities and teachers colleges for men.

In 1910, there were 114 colleges and universities that had gymnasiums. Of these, 11 were giving regular instruction in gymnastics. In 75 per cent of these schools the physical instructor was a member of the regular faculty. The work was prescribed in 87 per cent of the schools. Thus, the growth of physical education in the colleges during the first decade of the twentieth century was rapid.<sup>13</sup>

The uphill pull had been steep and difficult, but with the divide crossed, the old timers called upon the young leaders to carry the good work forward. Dr. Meylan's report of 1916 shows that the progress, well-started, continued to advance. There were 240 of the leading schools of higher learning with departments of physical education. The activities, administered by the departments, recorded the following: 100 per cent in the gymnasium, ninety-nine per cent in the gymnastics and athletics, eighty-one per cent in the instruction in hygiene, eighty per cent in business administration of intercollegiate athletics, eighty-seven per cent in the care of students' health, and seventy-five per cent

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<sup>13</sup>G. L. Meylan, "Status of Physical Education in American Colleges," American Physical Education Review, XVII, 79.

in the sanitation of the college community. In ninety per cent of the schools the department heads were members of the faculty. Eighty-three per cent of the schools had prescribed courses, fifty-five per cent had elective courses, and four per cent had neither type. Positive credit, as in other courses, was given by sixty-six per cent of the schools. Medical examinations were required by sixty per cent of those reporting, and ninety per cent of these required follow-up examinations.<sup>14</sup>

Physical education had made great advancement prior to the entrance of the United States into the World War, but the young men entering the service were lacking in the best of physical development. However, the college men were found, on the average, to be in better condition than the men from other walks of life.

War, as in the past, played a big part in furthering the progress of physical education in America. The men, returning to school in 1919, were keyed for more advanced work and met the requirements of the departments with greater enthusiasm. They proved their interest in the work by carrying on their own modest recreation and physical development after leaving college. After all, this in itself is the desire of the leaders to prepare the young men to be of future service to themselves by using knowledge learned in

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<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 79.

school for their personal betterment in facing the trials of the world.

Dr. George Meylan, in his final study of existing conditions and development of the physical side of college life for men, found the reports of 1921 more gratifying. A larger number of colleges reported carefully and with new interest their progress. The important findings were as follows: there were 270 gymnasiums in 209 schools; instruction in gymnastics and athletics were given in 203 schools; 182 schools offered work to 89,199 men students; 128 schools enrolled 43,350 men in their prescribed courses, and 60 had 5,913 in the elective courses; the work was prescribed in the 180 schools and elective in 85; there were three and eight-tenths per cent instructors in each college for carrying on the physical education work; and the annual budget for 126 colleges averaged \$8,356. The results showed that the wide-spread interest called for new fields in the work to be developed, and there has been a general expansion of the departments within their own institutions.<sup>15</sup>

The great interest in the physical education movement in the colleges found some disfavor in the eyes of those interested in the preservation and promotion of sound bodies for all. The opposition claimed that the marvelous facilities

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<sup>15</sup>Rice, *op. cit.*, pp. 191-194.<sup>15</sup>R. Tait McKenzie, "Pioneers in Physical Education," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. II, p. 6.

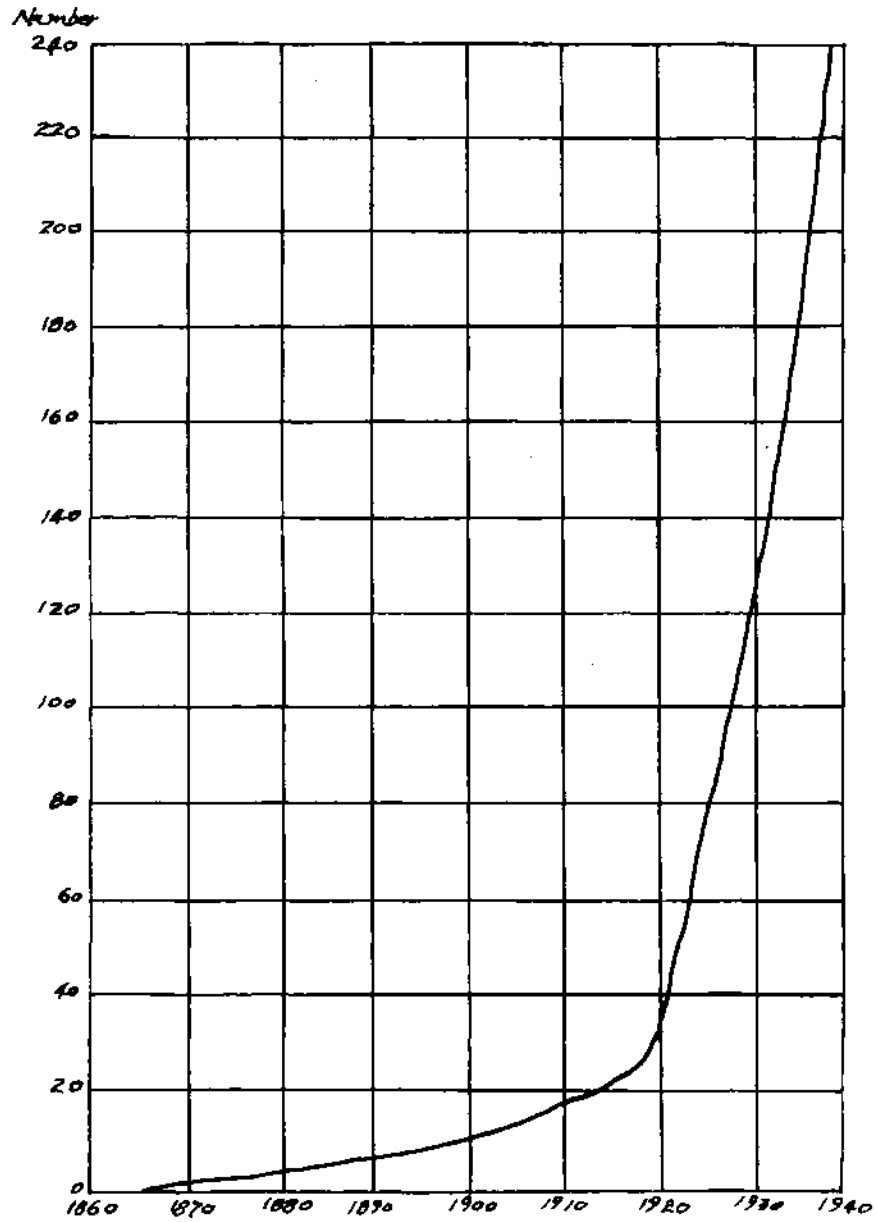


and training in the schools were being given to the few students that were favorable material for athletic teams. However, the study made of the status of physical education by Marie M. Ready, in 1927, gives a report of the progress being made for the care and direction of health and recreation for all students. In seventy per cent of the institutions medical examinations were required upon entrance. Forty-five per cent had the follow-up systems and kept a continuous record of the students' health during the entire college course. The new organization of the students' health service was playing its planned part and was aiding in safeguarding the health of the students. Hygiene was considered an important course. Though lacking a standard policy for giving the work, a large number of institutions were using a required study. Practically every undergraduate course leading to a bachelor's degree required physical education credit.

The general outlook for the work in the colleges and universities was exceedingly bright. The schools had provided well organized, educational, healthful, and recreational physical activities for their students. The great amount of outdoor equipment pictured the stress put upon playground activities.<sup>16</sup> Figure 2 shows how physical education has gained in popularity as a part of the regular

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<sup>16</sup>Leonard, op. cit., p. 300.



**Fig. 3—Growth of Physical Education in American Colleges and Universities**

curriculum in colleges and universities from 1885 to the present date.

The present system of physical education in the United States may be called American but in reality it is a conglomeration of all the leading systems of the world. The leaders in the United States have combined the systematized athletics of England with the systematized learning and gymnastics of Germany for the typical American course. The followers of Ling and Pössi still hold to the Swedish play and medical gymnastics. The Danish system is being given a trial in some of the schools. However, the various types are over-shadowed by the American arrangement of taking the mental concentration out of the formal gymnastics and putting in mental recreation of plays and games. This plan has built up a psychological theory that is sound.

Physical education, during the early years that schools were established in America, found no place in the curriculum. In fact, it was not until well in the nineteenth century that physical education received much prominence, along with other subjects, when schools were first established. These facts are shown in Table 3.

Physical education, during the last few years, has maintained an organic relationship with the educational program. "The four square neuromuscular plan, not only aids education in fulfilling the physical, mental, social

TABLE 3

DATES COLLEGES FOUNDED AND PHYSICAL  
EDUCATION FIRST MENTIONED

College	Date Founded	Date Physical Edu- cation First Mentioned
Harvard College	1636	1825
William and Mary	1660	1830
Yale	1701	1826
Princeton (College of N. J.)	1746	1833
University of Pennsylvania	1746	1830
Columbia (King's College)	1746	1830
Dartmouth College	1770	1836
U. of North Carolina	1789	1836
U. of Maryland	1784	1840
Ohio University	1802	—
Jefferson College	1802	1840
Washington College	1806	1838
Hanover and Wabash (Ind.)	1832	1862
Illinois University	1829	1865
Alabama University	1831	1836
Iowa Western University	1848	1865
U. of Minnesota	1868	1868
Kansas University	1865	1865
U. of Nebraska	1865	1868
Doane College (Neb.)	1873	1873
U. of Colorado	1874	1874

and ethical care of the student's four years in college, but sends him home with a knowledge for a lifetime of recreation.<sup>17</sup>

Part 2--Athletics

The common attitude of the early college authorities

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<sup>17</sup>R. A. Kent, Forrest G. Allen, *op. cit.*, p. 569.

toward athletics, that they were an evil that had to be tolerated, and at times restricted, has come down through the history of American athletics.

The four sports, rowing, baseball, football, track and field, that took the lead in the intercollegiate athletic movement, continued to progress.

Rowing history has been one of moderate growth with keen interest for the annual regattas in the East and Far West. It has found a place of great renown in the Olympic International games.

Baseball, the great American game to the public, had at one time a normal growth in collegiate circles, but the inability of the game to pay expenses the last few years has caused the college directors much consternation. In some schools baseball has been dropped, and full time given to track, while many other schools are only luke-warm for the continuation of the game. The professional problem has always been a "Bugaboo" to the college players and officials. Without a doubt, this idea of professional teams taking the players out of colleges before they were graduated has had some bearing on the gradual decline of the sport in schools of higher learning.<sup>18</sup>

Track and field events, as activities for individuals, have contributed the greatest practical means toward growth

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<sup>18</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 185.

in comparison with other intercollegiate sports. Gaining a strong foothold in the eighties, these sports have progressed in America at a rapid rate. The renewal of international contests in Athens, in 1896, found an American track team composed of American athletes at large, including former and immediate college men, leading the stars and stripes to a well earned victory.<sup>19</sup> The interest and splendid organization in track has continued to hold the sport in its successful position.<sup>20</sup>

Football, which is the most popular, most opposed, and most condemned sport in the colleges, has had more ups and downs in its history than all the other intercollegiate activities. Brought in and managed by the students back in the early seventies, it grew into popularity as the sport of sports in the colleges. The lack of proper control caused the pitfalls it has experienced, and at the same time handicapped the development of other sports as well as the general physical education program in the colleges.

Following the organization of the football association in 1875, the game seemed to be making some progress. But, only too soon, the students, with their poor management, brought the game into bad standing because of their over-anxious methods of procuring highly paid coaches and dragging

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<sup>19</sup>Menke, op. cit., p. 258.

<sup>20</sup>Menke, op. cit., p. 258.

in professionals as players.

The attempt of the committee at Harvard, in 1883, to bring the colleges under a "joint-control athletic group," composed of faculty members and students of the individual schools, failed. This failure of joint regulation was a serious blow to intercollegiate sports.<sup>21</sup>

In 1884, a committee made up of students and interested faculty, representing twenty-two of the leading institutions, held a meeting.

They attempted to secure the agreement of the college authorities to the following propositions: that athletic and gymnastic instructors shall be appointed by the faculty and not by the students; that college teams must be confined to games with college teams; that standing committees of college representatives shall pass on the rules and regulations for conducting the contests; that no student may play on a team more than four years; and that games shall be held on college grounds only.<sup>22</sup>

This was a positive move, but since the principles were not generally accepted, the treacherous footing of athletics continued.

The Harvard faculty gave football its first serious setback by prohibiting the game at Harvard for the season of 1885. The report was "that the game of football as at present played by college teams is demoralizing to the player and spectators and extremely dangerous."<sup>23</sup> This drastic

<sup>21</sup>McCurdy, op. cit., p. 115.

<sup>22</sup>Rice, op. cit., p. 220.

<sup>23</sup>Ibid., p. 220.

move of Harvard was met by rule changes in football in an attempt to eliminate some of the objectionable features of the game.

The intercollegiate football committee met in New York City, in March, 1888, and made rules that were to change the complexion of the game during the next five years. The radical changes made were: tackling was extended to the knees; forwards were prohibited from blocking with extended arms; and the snapper back could not run forward with the ball until it had touched a third player.<sup>24</sup>

The changes introduced in American football, by W. A. Brooks of Harvard, S. Harvey of Pennsylvania, F. D. Beattys of Wesleyan, R. M. Hodge of Princeton, and Walter Camp of Yale, at the 1888 meeting were running a wholly unforeseen course in bringing on a veritable revolution. Due to these changes, the famous, forceful, fearful wedges, and the momentum mass of Princeton and Harvard; the introduction of heavy interferences into the offense by Yale; and the unbalanced backfield formations were the sensational maneuvers that developed in football.<sup>25</sup>

In 1893, the opposition to the momentum mass plays at Harvard, and the undergraduate rivalry between Princeton and

<sup>24</sup>Menke, op. cit., p. 152.

<sup>25</sup>Parke H. Davis, "Tribute to Knute Rockne," Notre Dame Book of Tributs, pp. 334-335.



Yale became so bitter that it split up the old intercollegiate football association. This divided football into two separate organizations with two sets of rules. One group favored the rules permitting mass plays or the "flying-wedge," while the other pointed out the danger of this style of play and, to eliminate these evils, stood for the open game.

The next twelve years found football, with all the glaring abuses, pulling itself and athletics in general, to destruction. Conditions became so acute in 1905, that a football convention was called. The delegates from sixty-eight colleges appointed a committee to formulate rules and correct the evils.<sup>26</sup>

Woodrow Wilson, Princeton's first football coach, while faculty chairman on sports, forced into existence a rule that only under-graduates should play on representative intercollegiate athletic teams, a principle that is commonplace today, but at the time, novel, radical and revolutionary.<sup>27</sup>

In December, 1905, the new and old rules committee met. They made definite and precise rules of play with orders to officials to enforce them. To make sure that their work was successful, the committee organized the first Intercollegiate Athletic Association in the United States. This was to be "an educating and supporting body for the betterment of intercollegiate athletics,"<sup>28</sup> with the power to make rules and

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<sup>26</sup>Ibid., p. 5.

<sup>27</sup>Ibid., p. 5.

<sup>28</sup>D. A. Sargent, "History of Administration of Inter-Collegiate Athletics," American Physical Education Review, IV, 260.

regulations for all major sports played by the colleges. The association, later to become the National Collegiate Athletic Association, has been the sustaining guidance and power behind the athletic throne since that time.

The severe criticisms and threatened abolishment of football continues year in and year out. The ability of the rules committee to eliminate the more dangerous aspects of the game, and to promote enormous financial returns makes it possible for football to be the most popular intercollegiate sport.<sup>29</sup>

The development of the four historical branches of athletics in the colleges of America has, without a doubt, been the backbone for many other interclass, intramural, and intercollegiate sports that are played today.

The most familiar of the new group, basket-ball, is the popular indoor court game. Dr. James A. Naismith, while a teacher and student at Springfield, Massachusetts' Young Men's Christian Association College, originated the game in 1891-1892.<sup>30</sup> The new sport gained popular recognition throughout the United States. The last few years have seen the game extended across the seven seas to find a game welcome in many foreign lands.

There is some thought that basket-ball existed in ancient times, since in some Maya ruins, they have found arenas with modest sized courts. At each end of the

<sup>29</sup>Ibid., p. 222.

<sup>30</sup>Menke, op. cit., p. 67.

court, rather high up, a hoop, much like ours today, was fastened.<sup>31</sup>

Millions of boys in the United States took part in basket-ball each year. The intercollegiate conferences have brought basket-ball forward as one of the major sports.

Tennis has found a favorable position in the college physical education program. From its early development in the United States, in the early seventies, it has spread as a recreational sport for all. Since 1900 it has developed as a great intercollegiate sport, and today holds an important place.

LaCrosse, taken from the old Indian war-like game of "baggataway," has found favor as an intercollegiate sport in eastern colleges. The "Big Three," Harvard, Yale and Princeton, were pioneer schools that developed teams as early as 1881. Since the organization of the United States Intercollegiate LaCrosse Association in 1923, the interest has been even greater.<sup>32</sup>

The other intercollegiate games that have won a place in the program are: boxing, fencing, golf, gyanastics, polo, rifle-shooting, skiing, and wrestling. While in the intramural program, we find the following sports: badminton, bowling, handball, horse-shoes, hockey (field and ice), Rugby, softball, soccer, speedball, squash, and volley ball.

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<sup>31</sup>Ibid., p. 69.

<sup>32</sup>Ibid., p. 317 and p. 340.

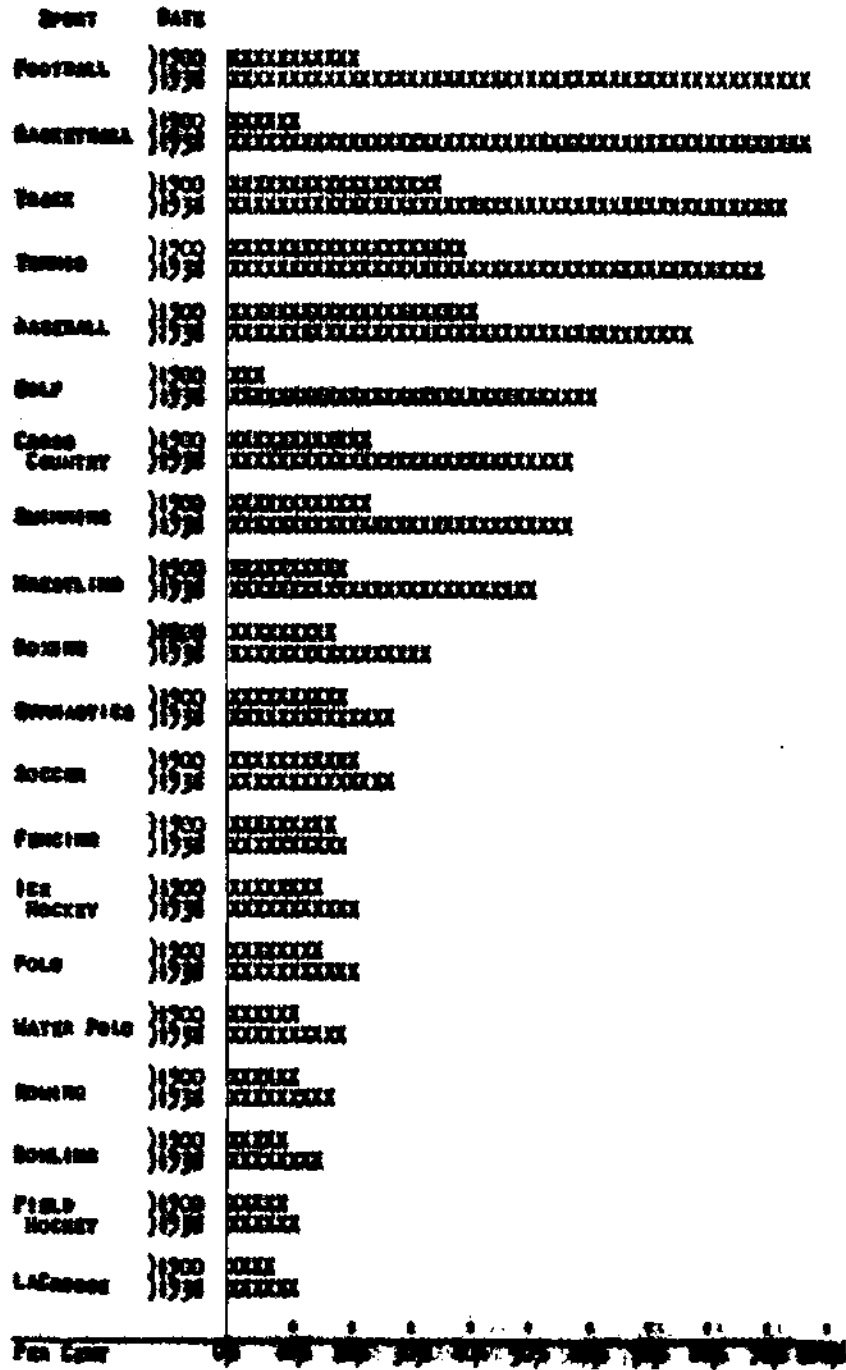


FIG. 3.—A COMPARISON OF INTERNATIONAL ATHLETIC SPORTS IN 1900 AND 1936

Intercollegiate athletics, during the last twenty-five years, have made an enormous growth. A survey in 1909 gave the following statistics: eighty per cent of the colleges gave regular instruction in athletics. The work was prescribed in twenty-two per cent of the schools, and twenty-five per cent gave positive credit for it. The instructors' salaries were paid by the budget by thirty-two schools, by the students in thirty-four schools, and by the school and students in thirty-nine. Only four of the colleges attempted to control athletics, while 104 made no effort whatever. The rules governing amateur standing and eligibility of athletes were enforced in better than eighty-five per cent of the colleges.<sup>33</sup>

In Dr. Meylan's report of 1916 the athletic situation in colleges found ninety-three per cent of the schools participating in intercollegiate athletics. The teams were governed by the faculties of the colleges in thirteen per cent of the schools, while forty-eight per cent were ruled by the college students, and thirty-two per cent were under the jurisdiction of the alumni. The salaries of the coaches were paid by the colleges in fifty-eight per cent of the cases, by the athletic association in thirty per cent, and by both in twelve per cent. One hundred and

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<sup>33</sup>G. L. Meylan, "The Status of Physical Education in American Colleges," American Physical Education Review, XVII, p. 80.

seventy of the colleges, or eighty-five per cent, favored the plan to have all intercollegiate athletics controlled by the college authorities.

The growth continued, and in the next five years we find from the report of Dr. Meylan's committee that 203 of the colleges were taking part in athletics. Forty of these were governing the activities, six were managed by the students, 108 by the college and students, and sixty-two by the college, students, and alumni. Coaches were hired, paid, and fired by the colleges in 159 schools, by the athletic association in forty-seven schools, and by the college and athletic association in twenty schools. One hundred and fifty-eight (93%) institutions favored college control as advocated by the National Collegiate Athletic Association.<sup>34</sup>

Athletics continued to progress because of the outdoor activity and the increasing interest in the great movement, "Athletics for all." The report of Marie Ready in 1927 shows the rapid and enthusiastic growth of intramural athletics, the importance of having all athletic games under careful supervision, and the strong tendency among the colleges to abolish the old method of joint control by faculty, president, students, and alumni over athletics. The new thought called for the control of all athletics by the

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<sup>34</sup>G. L. Meylan, "Report of the Committee on Status of Physical Education in American Colleges," American Physical Education Review, XXV. 185 (1916), XXVI, 375.

department of physical education.<sup>35</sup>

The modern trend of physical education and athletics in the colleges has been handicapped by inadequate knowledge and firm control. Under the leadership of such men as: Hitchcock, Sargent, Arnold, Gulick, Hartwell, Meylan, and McKenzie, physical education advanced, in spite of the erratic systems and lack of co-operation in the field. In the early nineties, there was organized the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education. With the support of the Association, physical education work gradually gained recognition. By the end of the first decade in the twentieth century, it held a favorable position in the collegiate program. In 1927, the physical education courses for college men were numerous. The expansion, within its own field, found hygiene, first aid, and health education, in general, playing an important part with the formal work and the new 'play for all' movement.

Running wild, and in a parallel course to physical education, intercollegiate athletics with all the evils of the sporting world was pulling, tugging, and ruining their advances in the educational field. The unwieldy student control and the tactics of managing the sports continued until 1905. At that time, the organization of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association brought to light possibilities for

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<sup>35</sup>Ready, op. cit., p. 41





structure of the human body. Anatomy, generally associated with physiology, continued to be taught in many schools as a branch of science. However, in 1847, a committee was appointed "to report upon the expediency of introducing the study of physiology into all schools, and the most expedient mode and means therefor."<sup>37</sup> The school committee accepted a favorable report and instruction in physiology, as a separate subject, began the following year. The selection of the first physiology text books would make an interesting contrast with our modern books in health education. John Gasco's "First Lessons in Human Physiology" was selected for most of the schools for boys.<sup>38</sup>

The subject of hygiene forged to the front in 1850 when the legislature of Massachusetts, at the suggestion of Horace Mann, authorized hygiene as well as physiology to be taught. Teacher training also started with the law which required all teachers to be examined thereon. The growing emphasis in hygiene, and the welfare of the pupil gave rise, some time later, to the formation of an unofficial organization called the Massachusetts Emergency and Hygiene Association. One of the first ventures was a series of five lectures to all teachers to be held at Boston Normal School on (1) heating

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<sup>37</sup>John P. Sullivan, "Milestones of Progress," Journal of Health and Physical Education, Vol. VII, p. 475, October, 1936.

<sup>38</sup>Ibid, p. 475.

and ventilation, (2) epidemics and disinfection, (3) drainage, (4) care of eyes and (5) the nervous system.<sup>39</sup>

Health instruction, although started over a century ago, had many handicaps to retard its progress. The early anatomy teaching was purely discretionary with the masters, or was considered as a part of a larger field of study. Even the early laws were permissive in nature, and it was not until 1885 that physiology and hygiene teaching were made compulsory in many schools.

We have passed through several stages of development with reference to our conception of school health work. The first important change in textbooks and in courses of study in health was in the direction of less attention to such subjects as: sanitation, hygiene, proper diet, the importance of plenty of sleep, fresh air, and mental and emotional health. There were two important reasons for this change in emphasis in health instruction. First, educators began to realize the layman does not need the same kind of information as is needed in the training of a specialist. Second, people became conscious of the tremendous importance to health of such matters as sanitary and hygienic conditions; so, the new emphasis was placed upon simple rules and knowledge that would function in the lives of most people. The most important change in emphasis has been in the

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<sup>39</sup>Ibid., p. 475.

direction of the teaching of health habits. Today, health education is largely a matter of providing and maintaining health by practicing the simple rules and habits of exercise, sanitation, and hygiene.

## CHAPTER VII

### GENERAL SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### A. General Summary

An effort has been made in this study to summarize the growth and development of the physical education program for men in the colleges and universities of the United States. Methods used in making this survey were by references to the compiled historical data and by personal interviews with leaders.

In the survey made of available literature dealing with the subject, it was found that material was inexhaustible in the amount previously written on the various aspects of the subject. Thus, the early chapters of this study are a summary of the important developments as they pertained to the subject. It was found that the foreign influence on the development of physical education in the colleges of the United States was vital. The desire of the foreign leaders of the physical movement in their own countries was to build strong minds and bodies through organized exercise that they might have a strong independent nation able to defend itself mentally and physically.

It is to Charles Follen, one of these foreign enthusiasts, that the colleges of the United States owe much credit for

the initial physical education class at Harvard in 1825. This beginning, with great interest for something new and different, was short lived, due to: (1) the lack of proper physiological knowledge; (2) lack of interest in the community; and (3) the attempt to unite physical exercise with manual labor. However, the imprint was left, and it was only a question of time until leaders in physical education would bring forward systems that would be accepted by the institutions of higher learning.

All through history, war has reacted favorably for the physical development of men. Such was the case following the Civil War. When physical education made its second appearance in colleges, the educational leaders realized the need of healthy bodies, but were slow to accept the erratic program because of its uncertainties. The true leaders for the cause of physical education advanced cautiously because it was necessary for them to have results in order to prove their points.

In a parallel line to physical education following the Civil War, the early intercollegiate athletic movement came with students at the helm. The determining factor for the progress of athletics was the students' desire to do something in the way of recreation that gave them the thrill of proving themselves superior to others. The history of athletics has passed through years of limitations and restrictions,

inadequate rules of play and lack of definite organization, to its present status of directed activity.

#### B. Results and Conclusions

The growth, development, and present day conditions of physical education and athletics found in the survey of literature, gave the following general conclusions:

1. That the growth has been one of trial and error.
  - a. The initial movement with its immediate success and rapid declination proved to be a foundation for the future.
  - b. Erratic procedures have been stepping stones as well as handicaps in the forward movement.
  - c. The determination of the leaders for success in both fields promoted the program.
2. That the continued progress has been due to:
  - a. The college administrations recognizing the work as part of their educational system by:
    - (1) Employing men with educational backgrounds as members of their faculties to direct the work.
    - (2) Employing physicians in the departments to care for the health of men students.
    - (3) Prescribing the work as a part of their college curriculums.
    - (4) Appointing boards of control and committees

to aid in governing the work.

(5) Financial support.

b. The tendency toward unification of physical education and athletic departments, due to:

(1) The general training of leaders in all phases of health education.

(2) The building of facilities capable of meeting the broad demands of the subject.

C. Recommendations

This study has been a general summarizing of the growth and development of physical education for men in the colleges and universities of the United States. Further investigation would be desirable along the following:

(1) Analysis of theory and practice of individual sports and class activities designed to determine the general benefits, cost, and qualifications of those in charge.

(2) Analysis in courses in health development offered in the educational program.

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