

The Heritage of Physical Education, Sport, and Fitness in the United States

Physical education must have an aim as broad as education itself and as noble and inspiring as human life. The great thought in physical education is not the education of the physical nature, but the relation of physical training to complete education, and then the effort to make the physical contribute its full share to the life of the individual, in environment, training, and culture.

Dr. Thomas Wood, 1893, speaking to the International Congress on Education at the Chicago World's Fair

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

- To discuss the influence of Greece and Rome
- To describe the cultural influences, including formal gymnastic systems and national sport forms, on the emergence of sport and physical education
- To discuss the birth of the physical-education profession and the institutionalization of sport
- To describe the emergence of the new physical education and the contributions of its early leaders
- To discuss the emergence of a national sport culture
- To describe the umbrella profession of physical education
- To describe the emergence of professional sport and changes in recreational sport
- To analyze the fitness crisis of the mid-1950s and the fitness renaissance of the mid-1980s–1990s
- To describe the academic discipline of kinesiology and the development of research disciplines

THE EMERGENCE OF A PROFESSION: 1885–1930

This chapter introduces the development of sport, fitness, and physical education in the United States. Chapter 3 reviews the major philosophical positions that influenced that development. America was settled primarily by European explorers and immigrants. Thus, early ideas about sport, fitness, and physical education were greatly influenced by the beliefs and perspectives that these newcomers to America brought with them. European culture and philosophy were much influenced by two great early civilizations—those of Greece and Rome. The major period of Greek influence occurred from about 500 BCE to 300 BCE, whereas the Roman Empire flourished primarily from 300 BCE to 476 CE.

Early Influences in Physical Education and Sport

The Greek Influence Greek culture had a major focus on physical development and sport. The two key elements of the education of Greek boys were “gymnastics” and “music.” Gymnastics included a wide range of physical activities and sports. *Music* was the term used for all the other academic subjects. Only Greek male citizens were given the opportunity to be educated. Women were generally not educated and were permitted only modest involvement in physical activity and sport. All teachers were male. Education took place in temples; in the *gymnasium*, which was usually an outdoor facility for physical training and bathing; and in the *Palaestrae*, which was a center for boxing and wrestling that also included changing rooms and bathing rooms. Physical prowess and beautiful physical form were much sought after and admired in early Greek culture, especially in the city-state of Athens.

Greek boys were encouraged to become athletes and to compete in the large number of “games” that made up the Greek sporting calendar. The Panhellenic Games consisted of the Olympic Games held at Olympia to honor the god Zeus; the Pythian Games held at Delphi, the sacred site of the god

Apollo; the Isthmian Games held in Corinth to honor Poseidon, the sea god; and the Nemean Games held in Nemea to honor Zeus (Mechikoff & Estes, 2006). Contrary to popular belief, Greek athletes were not amateurs. Riches were bestowed upon winners in all these contests. Physical training and sport were also very much related to the need for all Greek men to fight in combat in the many small wars that erupted between Greek city-states and with other powers.

The two primary city-states of Greece were Athens and Sparta. The culture of Athens was home to Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, and Aristophanes and is credited with much of the development of drama, philosophy, and the spirit of democracy, although women, children, and slaves were considered inferior and were excluded from government. Sparta was the major military power whose goal was to rule all of Greece (Mechikoff & Estes, 2006). In Sparta all babies were examined by a council of elders and only the strongest and healthiest were allowed to live. Spartan boys left home at the age of 7 to be in the military where they were obligated to stay until age 50. Physical training and sports programs were taken very seriously in Sparta, all under the control of the military. Discipline, obedience, indifference to pain, and obsession with victory in competition were the primary values of the education system.

The Roman Influence The Roman Empire was built through wars whereby emerging civilizations were conquered and put under control of Roman leaders. Unlike the Greeks, who thought that other civilizations were barbaric and had nothing to offer Greek civilization, the Romans were quite willing to adopt practices of those they conquered if they appeared to be more useful than Roman practices. Whereas Greek city-states *created* philosophy, music, art, and drama, the Romans typically *adopted* cultural practices of those they conquered.

Military training was very important to Roman life. The education of boys was strongly slanted toward developing the obedience, discipline, and physical prowess to be a soldier. Skills such as

running, jumping, swimming, wrestling, horsemanship, boxing, fencing, and archery were all taught both as appropriate healthy exercise and as military preparation.

Most sporting events in the Roman Empire were dedicated to the gods worshipped by the Romans, just as the Greeks dedicated their games to their own gods. Running events, wrestling, ball games, and equestrian events were common. Many sporting events grew into major entertainments that became both spectacular and bloody. Chariot races and gladiatorial contests were often held in large facilities, the two most famous being the Circus Maximus and the Colosseum, both in Rome. Both women and men attended, and much betting took place prior to the contests.

Women were not as marginalized in the Roman Empire as they were in Greek city-states. Some sporting events were organized for young women. Participation in swimming, dancing, and light exercise was common, especially among the privileged classes. The fall of the Roman Empire in 476 CE ushered in a period of 1,000 years known as the Dark Ages, in which physical activity, sport, and fitness diminished in importance amid political and economic chaos.

The Birth of a Profession In 1885 William G. Anderson, who was to become the first secretary of what we now know as the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (AAHPERD), was deeply concerned about his own lack of training and preparation to be a professional physical educator (Lee & Bennett, 1985a). Anderson, who was then 25 years old, had graduated from medical school and was employed at Adelphi Academy in Brooklyn as an instructor of physical training. His only real experience in his field, however, had been as a young participant at the German *Turnverein* (a social, gymnastics, and sports club) in Quincy, Illinois.

In 1885 there were no institutions that prepared people to be what was then called a “gymnastics teacher.” To become an instructor in physical training, apparently, a person needed only some knowledge of medicine and some experience in

gymnastics (a kind of gymnastics very different from what we now know as Olympic gymnastics). There were no professional organizations to bring together people who had common interests. There were few texts available to help people acquire understanding of the field. There were no professional journals. In fact, there was no profession.

Anderson, as his life’s work makes clear, was a leader. He wanted to create a forum within which people interested in physical training, physical education, and the various gymnastic systems could discuss with, debate with, and learn from one another. To that end, Anderson invited a group of people interested in these fields to meet at Adelphi Academy on November 27, 1885. Among those attending were local clergy, school principals, members of the news media, college presidents, and, of course, physical-training instructors (Lee & Bennett, 1985a). Sixty interested people gathered for that historic meeting.

On that day, the participants decided to form an organization, the Association for the Advancement of Physical Education. Dr. Edward Hitchcock, who had founded the first college department of physical education at Amherst College 24 years earlier and was still its head, was elected to be the first president. The director of the gymnasium at Harvard College, Dr. Dudley Sargent, was a vice president. The young Dr. Anderson earned the privilege of being the association’s first secretary. Forty-nine of the sixty assembled participants took membership in the new organization. The distribution of their interests and affiliations is testimony to the breadth of interest in physical education at that time: Eleven were college teachers, thirteen were academy–seminary teachers (secondary level), three were practicing physicians, six were active in the early YMCA movement, and two were ministers.

That meeting marked the birth of a profession.

The Scene Before 1885

The second half of the nineteenth century marked the evolution of the United States from a predominantly rural, colonial, and frontier nation to a more urban and industrialized nation. Sport, fitness, and physical education were certainly not unknown

before 1885. In 1791 the first private swimming pool was built in Philadelphia. In 1820 the first college gymnasium was built at Harvard College. The first competitive football game was played in 1827. John Warren, a professor of anatomy and physiology at Harvard, published the first theoretical treatise on physical education in 1831; in the same year, Catherine Beecher published a book titled *A Course in Calisthenics for Young Ladies*.

Although there was virtually no physical education in schools before 1885, the idea of free, universal, public education was growing in the United States. In 1839 the first teacher-training school was founded in Lexington, Massachusetts. The idea that physical training (or physical education, as it was soon to be called) was to be a part of the school curriculum also took hold during that period. In 1866 the first state legislation requiring physical education in schools was passed in California.

The American Civil War was largely responsible for many of the subsequent developments, particularly in the field of sport. Many historians refer to that period as the transition time between local games and institutionalized sport (Spears & Swanson, 1978). The post-Civil War era saw an extraordinary development of organized sport. Baseball was first played as an intercollegiate game in 1859; the first intercollegiate football game was played a decade later. Tennis was introduced into the United States by Mary Outerbridge in 1874. The National Bowling Congress was formed in 1875, and badminton was first played in the United States in 1878. In 1879 the National Archery Association and the National Association of Amateur Athletics were formed.

Development during that pre-1885 period was not confined to schools and colleges. The YMCA movement had begun in England in 1844 and was devoted to character education and physical activity. In 1851 the first American YMCA was formed in Boston. The YMCA movement was so successful that it created the need in 1883 for the development of the International Training School of the YMCA in Massachusetts, later to become Springfield College. Springfield College has a long and noble history of

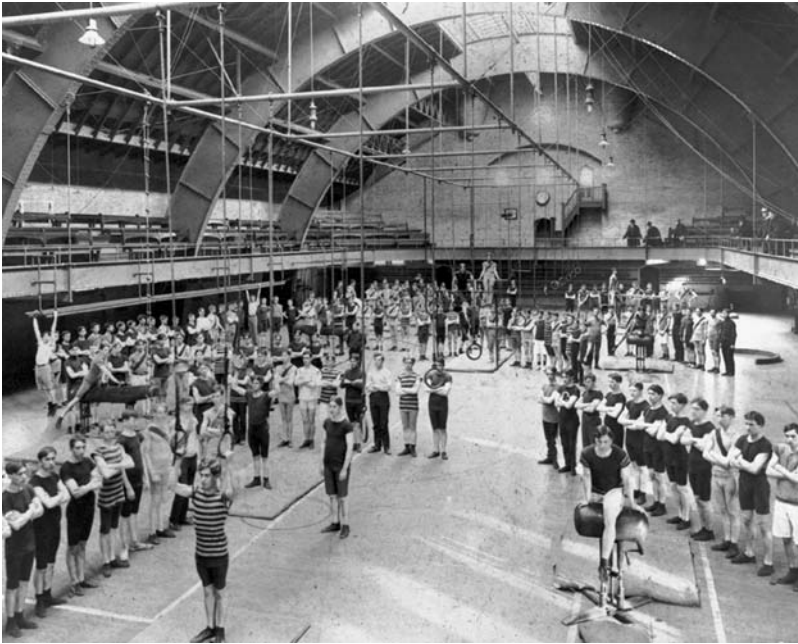
contributions to the development of sport, fitness, and physical education. In Cincinnati, in 1848, German immigrants formed the first Turnverein, a forerunner of a movement that was to be widespread for the next half-century in cities where there was a significant population of German descent.

Those events portended what, in the first half of the twentieth century, would blossom into the profession of physical education—encompassing during that later period not only sport, fitness, and physical education but also recreation, the playground movement, dance, and outdoor education. Although there was no such overarching profession in the pre-1885 period, the roots of its eventual development are clear.

In 1825 Charles Beck became the first recognized teacher of physical education in the United States. He developed a program of German gymnastics at the Round Hill School in Northampton, Massachusetts. Just 1 year later, another advocate of the German system, Charles Follen, started a gymnastics program at Harvard College. In 1837 Catherine Beecher founded the Western Female Institute, where her own Beecher system of calisthenics was an integral part of the curriculum. In the same year, the Mt. Holyoke Female Seminary offered a course in physical education to its students (Leonard & Affleck, 1947).

As Chapter 3 shows, a dominant philosophical movement of the first part of the nineteenth century was *muscular Christianity*, a philosophy that made exercise and fitness (if not yet sport) compatible with the Christian life. It was this philosophical movement that allowed a still-conservative nation to move gradually away from the Puritan prohibitions against play and exercise.

As religious prohibitions began to loosen, the idea that exercise and fitness were educationally important began to become accepted. (In contrast, recognition of the educational value of sport is much more a twentieth-century phenomenon.) That philosophical shift allowed physical education to become part of the school and college curriculum. In 1861 Edward Hitchcock became the director of the department of hygiene and physical culture at



An early twentieth-century physical-education class for college men.

Amherst College, marking the first such organizational arrangement in the United States. In 1879 Dudley Sargent was appointed assistant professor of physical training and director of the Hemenway Gymnasium at Harvard College. Hitchcock and Sargent were among the most important early leaders in physical education, and their emphasis on scientific approaches provided fundamental direction for the emerging field.

The attitudes and institutions developed before 1885 would later allow the full development of sport, fitness, and physical education (Lucas & Smith, 1978). The young nation was still conservative. Work was valued and there were still many formal and informal prohibitions against play. In schools, programs of manual labor were more common than were those of physical education. Sport was developing, even in colleges, but that was at the demand of students rather than of people in charge of the curriculum.

Those ideas, events, and people were, therefore, forerunners of the great expansion of sport, fitness, and physical education. They certainly did not constitute *physical education* in the sense that we

now know it. It is difficult to label each of these movements and the ideas that undergirded them; the terms *physical training*, *physical culture*, *gymnastics*, *sports*, and *play* were all used at one time or another. The term *physical education*, however, as an umbrella concept under which all the others might be understood, was not appropriate to those times.

First, physical education, as we know it, largely had its origin in the United States. Second, although the name “physical education” appears in the literature before 1900, physical education is by and large a twentieth century phenomenon. (Bookwalter & VanderZwaag, 1969, p. 44)

Although the pious, hardworking Puritan is a common stereotype of early Americans, by the 1800s Americans certainly had sporting interests. For example, in 1862 (during the Civil War), more than 40,000 spectators watched a baseball game involving a New York regiment. In 1844 more than 35,000 spectators gathered at a racetrack in New York to watch a 10-mile footrace among professional runners. Horse racing, boxing, distance running, and rowing were

popular spectator sports in the pre-1885 period (Lucas & Smith, 1978). People also participated in a variety of local sports and games, many of which later became standardized as national sports.

The Context for the Emergence of a Profession

The attempt to analyze the emergence of the sport, fitness, and physical-education professions from 1885 into the twentieth century has to be understood in the context of the general culture. To know why things happened as they did and why some directions rather than others were taken, we first have to understand the background of the culture within which sport, fitness, and physical education began to emerge toward the end of the nineteenth century and to grow into the umbrella profession of physical education in the first half of the twentieth century (see Focus On Box 2.1).

To understand that background, it is important to consider the major cultural developments that greatly influenced the emergence of the sport, fitness, and physical-education professions:

1. *Decline of religious opposition to sport and exercise.* The early development of physical education and leisure pursuits had been seriously hindered by religious sanctions. In the nineteenth century, however, religion and sport reached an accommodation in the philosophy of muscular Christianity, the idea that the body and physical pursuits were not antithetical to a good, Christian life.

2. *Immigration.* Between 1820 and 1880, 10 million immigrants came to America. From 1880 to 1890, 9 million more came! Immigrants brought with them new games and new attitudes, greatly enriching the sport and fitness culture of their new country. They settled mainly in cities and, with the rise of professional sport in large

FOCUS ON

CHRONOLOGY AT A GLANCE—The Emergence of a Profession

2.1

Western frontier expansion	1825	Charles Beck hired as first teacher of physical education in United States
	1827	First competitive football game played
	1827	First public swimming pool opened, in Boston
Era of muscular Christianity	1834	First rules of baseball published
	1837	Western Female Institute founded by Catherine Beecher
	1848	First Turnverein formed, in Cincinnati
	1851	First YMCA formed, in Boston
American Civil War	1861	Hitchcock appointed director of hygiene and physical culture at Amherst
	1861	Boston Normal Institute for Physical Education founded by Dio Lewis
	1866	First state legislation requiring physical education passed, in California
Expansion of Industrial Revolution	1874	Tennis introduced in United States
	1879	Sargent appointed assistant professor of physical training at Harvard
	1883	YMCA Training School started at Springfield, Massachusetts
	1883	Swedish gymnastics introduced to United States by Nissen
	1885	Adelphi Conference held; Association for Advancement of Physical Education formed

(continued)

FOCUS ON **CHRONOLOGY AT A GLANCE—The Emergence of a Profession (continued)**

2.1

Free, universal education	1885	Professional physical education program at Oberlin started by Delphine Hanna
	1887	Softball invented in Chicago
	1889	Boston Physical Training Conference held
	1890	Hartwell named supervisor of physical education for Boston
Urbanization	1891	Physical education recognized as curricular field by National Education Association
	1893	Department of physical education and hygiene formed in NEA
Substantial immigration	1895	First public golf course built
	1896	Olympic Games revived in Athens, Greece
	1896	Volleyball invented in Holyoke, Massachusetts
	1897	Society of College Gymnasium Directors formed
Expansion of public schooling	1901	First master's-degree program in physical education started at Teachers College
	1903	Gulick appointed director of physical education for New York schools
	1903	Delphine Hanna appointed first female full professor of physical education
	1905	National College Athletic Association formed
	1906	Playground Association of America formed
	1908	First high-school swimming pool built, in Detroit
	1909	National Association of Physical Education for College Women initiated
	1910	Four objectives of physical education identified by Hetherington
	1911	National Park Service formed
	1913	Intramural programs established by Michigan State and Ohio State
	World War I	1916
Roaring Twenties	1924	Doctoral programs in physical education first offered by Teachers College and New York University
	1926	First dance major formed at University of Wisconsin
	1927	<i>The New Physical Education</i> published by Wood and Cassidy
Stock market crash	1930	<i>Research Quarterly</i> first published by Education Association
	1930	National Recreation Association formed

cities, found common loyalties with other immigrant groups and with groups already established in this country.

3. *Industrialization.* The American Civil War greatly intensified the move toward industrialization. Industrialization produced wealth—and some of that wealth helped to develop sport, fitness, and physical education. Industrialization created technologies for the development of facilities and equipment.

4. *Urbanization.* As immigrants poured into the country and industries developed in and around major cities, the population of America inevitably shifted from predominantly rural to predominantly urban. Whereas hunting, fishing, and other outdoor activities might sustain the leisure needs of a rural population, new activities had to be developed to meet the leisure needs of an urban population. Concentrated populations in cities and the wealth produced by industrialization were also necessary for the development of professional sport (Lucas & Smith, 1978).

5. *Transportation and communication.* The developing technologies in transportation and communication were especially important to the development and spread of sport. In 1830 only 23 miles of rail track existed in America; by 1880 there were 90,000 miles of track! The telegraph, invented in the 1840s, allowed instant communication of sport results. City newspapers became sufficiently sophisticated to have separate pages, or even sections, devoted to sport. In the twentieth century, the development of radio and television was to have an even larger influence on sport and fitness.

6. *Education.* So much of the development of sport, fitness, and physical education has occurred in schools that the development and extension of education was a fundamental influence. In 1862 the Morrill Land Grant Act created institutions of higher education, which provided greater access to university education; those same land-grant institutions would become leaders in the development of sport and physical education in the twentieth

century. The American ideal of free, universal education began to become a reality in the middle to late nineteenth century. The courts decided that tax dollars could be used to support secondary education and paved the way for the model of the American comprehensive high school. Compulsory-attendance laws and emerging child-labor laws put more children into school and kept them there longer.

7. *Intellectual climate.* The nineteenth century is well known as one of the most active eras in history for the development of *ideas*. Charles Darwin challenged accepted theories of human life with his concept of evolution. Sigmund Freud challenged prevailing notions about human psychology and created the profession of psychiatry. Jean-Jacques Rousseau introduced new visions of the education of children. Karl Marx wrote *Das Kapital* and created the intellectual foundation for socialist and communist societies. Much of what we know now as modern science originated in the nineteenth century.

Those influences were crucial to the emergence of sport, fitness, and physical education toward the end of the nineteenth century. Together, those early influences created a context for fantastic development in how people played and watched sport, in how they viewed physical activity, and in what sport and fitness programs were available. We now turn to that development.

The Battle of the Systems

The period from 1885 to 1900 was marked by a competition among several approaches to what was then called gymnastics (which we now call physical education). That competition was for new converts to the systems and for places in school and college curricula. For that reason, at least for physical education, this period is most often referred to as “the battle of the systems” (Weston, 1962).

Almost all the early programs of physical education in America were gymnastic systems imported from Europe. Most of these gymnastic systems



An early twentieth-century rhythmic gymnastics class for college women.

were described as *formal* approaches to exercise, meaning that the movements were prescribed and were done in unison by a group of students.

To understand the various gymnastic systems and why they were so popular as early forms of physical education, you must be aware of two elements of the cultures within which they were practiced and debated. First, Europe at that time was a hotbed of nationalism. This fervor was accompanied by a strong military spirit. Loyalty to a particular system was not just allegiance to a particular approach to what was then called gymnastics; it was also a way to show pride in your country.

Second, a dominant psychological theory of that day, known as *faculty psychology*, held that the mind could be trained by precise, repetitive practice. Thus, gymnastic systems were thought to have cognitive benefits similar to those derived from practicing the conjugation of Latin verbs—each helped to “train the mind.” A brief overview of the most prominent systems is provided in Focus On Box 2.2.



Even in competition, activity costumes for women reflected nineteenth-century views of women.

The Boston Conference in 1889 In 1889 Mary Hemenway financed a conference to promote Swedish gymnastics. The **Boston conference** was organized by Amy Morris Homans and was presided over by the U.S. commissioner of education, William Harris. The theme of the conference was an evaluation of the various physical exercise programs then in use, giving to the conference and to the era it represented the “battle of the systems” label.

A list of featured speakers at the conference now appears as a who’s who of the fledgling profession of physical education: Hitchcock, Sargent, Hartwell, Anderson, and Posse. Also delivering papers at the conference were prominent American figures such as Henrich Metzner of the New York Turnverein and international figures such as Baron Pierre de Coubertin of France, who was soon to revive the Olympic Games (Lee & Bennett, 1985a).

That conference is considered by most historians to be pivotal in the development of American physical education. It brought together important persons in a context in which each was called to examine and evaluate current activities in physical education. Although each no doubt tried to promote

FOCUS ON — Gymnastic Systems**2.2*****The German System***

Main proponent: Friedrich Ludwig Jahn

Purpose: Build a strong, unified Germany by balancing academic and physical education

Activities: Jumping, running, throwing, climbing, vaulting, simple games of running and dodging

Apparatus: Horizontal bars, balance beams, vertical ropes, ladders, vaulting horses, parallel bars, running tracks, jumping pits

Brought to America by Jahn students Charles Beck, Charles Follen, and Francis Leiber

First American application: Round Hill School in Northampton, Massachusetts, and Harvard College

By 1890 with massive German immigration there were 300 Turnvereins (exercise, sport, and social clubs) with more than 40,000 members, mostly in the Midwest.

The Swedish System

Main proponent: Per Henrik Ling

Purpose: Regain vigor and national pride and renew spirit of Norse history with a scientific–therapeutic system of gymnastics

Activities: Swinging, climbing, vaulting, resistance exercises, passive therapeutic manipulation

Apparatus: Swinging ladders, rings, vaulting bars, stall bars

Brought to America by Hartwig Nissen, a Swedish diplomat who later built a gymnastics equipment manufacturing company doing business worldwide. Boston philanthropist Mary Hemenway gave funds to build Hemenway Gymnasium at Harvard College and invited Baron Nils Posse, a graduate of Ling's Royal Institute of Gymnastics, to introduce his system. Posse founded the Posse Normal School of Gymnastics, which provided a 2-year teacher-training program. Incorporated into the Boston school system in 1890 through Amy Morris Homans with Edward Hartwell as first director of physical training for the district.

The Beecher System

Main proponent: Catherine Beecher, director, Hartford Seminary for Girls and founder of Western Female Institute

Purpose: Develop a system of “appropriate” female activities

Activities: Archery, swimming, horseback riding, calisthenics done to music, calisthenics using light weights

Apparatus: lights weights, wands

Beecher created a system of 26 lessons in physiology and 2 in calisthenics with light exercise, all designed to correspond to the assumption prevalent at the time—that programs for men were too vigorous for women and required too much strength.

The Dio Lewis System

Main proponent: Dioclesian Lewis

Purpose: First effort to develop an American system based on grace of Beecher system and scientific nature of the Ling system

Activities: Exercise routines vigorous enough to raise heart rate but not as vigorous as prescribed in the German system; routines accompanied by music; social games and dance routines also

Apparatus: Beanbags, wands, dumbbells, clubs, hand rings

The Lewis system was adopted by progressive schools. In 1860 Lewis founded the Boston Normal Institute for Physical Education and in 1861 published the *Gymnastics Monthly and Journal of Physical Culture*, which can be considered the first American physical education journal (Weston, 1962)

The Hitchcock System

Main proponent: Edward Hitchcock, in 1861 appointed director of Hygiene and Physical Culture at Amherst College

Purpose: Physical development with measurement of bodily development baseline and progress over time.

Activities: Marching, unison calisthenics, exercises, some sports and games

Apparatus: Horizontal and rack bars, ladders, weights, rings, Indian clubs, ropes, vaulting horses

(continued)

FOCUS ON — Gymnastic Systems (continued)**2.2**

Hitchcock created the first truly American program with an emphasis on its scientific base and consistent measurement. This provided a model that would be emulated in the twentieth century.

The Sargent System

Main proponent: Dudley A. Sargent, appointed to faculty of physical training and named director of the Hemenway Gymnasium at Harvard University in 1879.

Purpose: Amalgamated other systems into a scientifically defensible, comprehensive program of physical education

Activities: Calisthenics, German- and Swedish-style exercises, and specialized machine exercise

Apparatus: Bars, rings, vaulting horses, ropes, ladders, parallel bars, specialized exercise machines

Space: Gymnasium

her or his own system, it is also clear that the door had been opened to the larger question: To what purposes should physical education be devoted, and by what means might such purposes be achieved?

Sport was not a major topic at the conference. Sports and games were not fundamental to any of the systems and, at that time, had no place in physical education. If we look at what was happening with sport in the larger culture during the same period, however, we can easily see that the days during which physical education was defined as gymnastics were numbered.

The Emergence of Organized Sport

If the late nineteenth century is interesting for its early development of gymnastic-oriented physical-education programs, it is even more remarkable when viewed as a period of development in sport. During the post-Civil War period, sport grew up: It changed from loosely organized games having many local variations to standardized sports with widely recognized rules and national overseeing bodies. The standardization of sport could not have happened, of course, except in an increasingly industrialized, urbanized culture in which increasing wealth, transportation, and communication and an emerging middle class provided the framework for such developments.

When a sport becomes *standardized* (or *institutionalized*), rules governing its conduct become standard, bodies are formed to enforce those rules, standards of competition are set, the sport is promoted for both participants and spectators, championships are formed, records are kept, and traditions and rituals are developed and shared by people who participate and watch. What a remarkable period of history that was for sport! Sports that can be described as having “come of age” during the period were the following (Lucas & Smith, 1978):

archery	pedestrianism
baseball	polo
bicycling	roller skating
billiards	rowing
bowling	rugby
boxing	sailing
canoeing	shooting
cricket	skiing
croquet	soccer
cross-country running	swimming
curling	tennis
fencing	track and field
football	trapshooting
golf	trotting
gymnastics	volleyball
handball	water polo
ice hockey	wrestling
lacrosse	yachting

Baseball was probably our first truly national sport, having been spread widely by soldiers during the Civil War and having achieved professional success with its attendant organizational apparatus. Although many players were paid and teams competed for money in the very early days of baseball, and especially right after the Civil War, it was the Cincinnati Red Stockings of 1868 who provided the model that was to be emulated not only in baseball but in other sports as well. An entrepreneurial lawyer, Aaron Champion, hired an outstanding manager, Harry Wright, who then put together the best and most complete team of professionals that he could hire. The team was undefeated for more than a year, during which time they played before an estimated 200,000 spectators (Lucas & Smith, 1978).

Many of those developing sports, of course, had their roots in other countries. Some, like golf and tennis, were played in the United States as much as they were played in Europe. Other American sports, such as baseball and football, had origins in European games but had been modified substantially so as to become unique sports rather than variations of sports practiced elsewhere. Still other sports that came a bit later were derived from American sports that had origins in other countries. Softball, for example, which was invented in Chicago in 1887, was a variation of baseball, modified for use in smaller places and with less equipment. Basketball, on the other hand, which was invented by James Naismith in the YMCA school at Springfield, Massachusetts, in 1891, was strictly American and was created to meet the need for an indoor sport of skill and activity in the winter months. Likewise, volleyball, which was invented by William Morgan at the YMCA in Holyoke, Massachusetts, in 1896, is a particularly American sport that has since spread throughout the world.

Women were involved in this sport expansion from the beginning. For example, in the same winter that Naismith invented basketball, Senda Berenson adapted the game for her students at Smith College, a nearby institution. By 1899 a



Smith College women's basketball in 1904. Senda Berenson tosses up the ball.

committee had formalized a set of women's basketball rules, and the game was being played widely by women (Spears & Swanson, 1978). Volleyball, too, was played by women from the outset.

The revival of the Olympic Games in Athens in 1896 provided a fitting climax to a half-century in which sport had begun to assume the central role it would occupy in the cultures of developed countries for much of the twentieth century. The strongest impetus for reviving the games came from Baron Pierre de Coubertin, who greatly admired the moral and spiritual strength of ancient Greek culture as embodied in the early Olympic Games. Along with the revival of the games as a major sporting event, de Coubertin articulated the philosophy of "olympism," an educational program of peace and cultural understanding that sought to unite the modern world.

Sport on the College Campus Perhaps the unique feature of the development of sport in America is the phenomenal way in which sport grew on college campuses and came to be an integral part of college and university life. In 1850 there was very little sport participation of any kind on American college campuses, and nowhere did intercollegiate sport exist. Yet, by the turn of the century, sport had assumed a critical social function on most campuses, and intercollegiate competition had begun to move to the central position it was to occupy in the general sporting scene in the twentieth century (Lucas & Smith, 1978).

A brief chronology of growth-period events:

- 1852 First collegiate competition—a crew race between Yale and Harvard
- 1859 First intercollegiate baseball game—Amherst versus Williams
- 1869 First intercollegiate football game—Rutgers versus Princeton
- 1873 First track-and-field competition as part of Saratoga regatta
- 1875 Intercollegiate Association of Amateur Athletes of America formed
- 1883 Intercollegiate Lawn Tennis Association formed
- 1890 First intercollegiate cross-country running meet—Cornell versus Penn
First women's tennis club at University of California
- 1891 Basketball invented at Springfield College
- 1892 University of California's women's basketball team formed
- 1895 First intercollegiate hockey competition at Johns Hopkins
- 1895 Intercollegiate Conference of Faculty Representatives formed (later became the Big Ten Conference)
- 1896 First intercollegiate swim meet (Columbia, Penn, Yale)



Intercollegiate football was a big spectator sport in the 1920s.

By the turn of the century, most universities had athletic associations that arranged schedules, purchased supplies, and generally began to offer the array of services now commonly found in athletic departments in universities. What is perhaps most remarkable about all of this rapid development is that it occurred largely through the efforts of students and, at the outset at least, despite the often serious opposition of administration and faculty. Still, as schedules grew more ambitious, travel became more costly, training tables began to become popular, and equipment became indispensable, it was clear that financial support was necessary. Although the student-organized athletic associations could handle those problems at the beginning, the problems soon became sufficiently complex that faculty and administrative intervention not only was necessary but also seemed to be the only way to solidify the venture and ensure its future success.

Thus, while early pioneers in physical education promoted gymnastic systems in school programs and began to develop college departments emphasizing scientific measurement and prescriptive exercise, the students were busy bringing organized sport into the life of the college

and university, particularly for male students. The control over schedules and team membership was vested in the team captain, a student whose many roles included those now played by athletic directors and coaches. The truth is that the abuses in intercollegiate sport for males toward the end of the nineteenth century were so widespread that only faculty intervention and control could save the system. Intercollegiate sports for women, on the other hand, were controlled by faculty from the outset, accounting perhaps for both slower growth and fewer abuses in women's sports.

Faculty Control and the Beginning of a National Intercollegiate System

As we have noted, sport was not officially welcomed on campus with open arms. Many faculty and administrators were against it, especially in the early days. However, it became so popular among students and so integral to campus life that an accommodation had to be reached. In many cases, **intercollegiate sport** was replete with bad practices and serious abuses—some of which make current abuses look minor in comparison.

Lucas and Smith (1978) attribute the early abuses to two separate threads in the fabric of American society in the nineteenth century: the existence of the Puritan work ethic and the lack of a substantial “gentleman” class. The work ethic was straightforward. If there is a job to do (win the game), then you do everything you can to get the job done. The lack of a gentleman class meant that there were few restraining influences on that work ethic. Rather than “win within the rules,” the practice often became “win at all costs.” Although sport was well on its way toward standardization, with subsequent enforcement of rules and procedures that would provide a restraining influence, it had not yet matured to the point where the restraining influences provided by sport organizations (conferences, associations, and so on) were effective. In England, from which many of our sport practices derived, the desire to win was

restrained by a sense of honor, fair play, and respect for rules that was taught to young British gentlemen in their schools. In England also, the work ethic among the sporting classes was entirely different from that in America.

The major abuses had to do with eligibility (there were no rules about it) and with how athletes were treated by their universities.

One outstanding example was the captain of Yale's football team, James Hogan, who was twenty-seven years old at the turn of the century when he began his intercollegiate career. He occupied a suite of rooms at Yale's most luxurious dormitory and was given his meals at the University Club. His tuition was paid and he was given a \$100 a year scholarship. He and two others were additionally given the privilege of selling game programs from which they received the entire profit. Furthermore, Hogan was an appointed agent for the American Tobacco Company and received a commission on every package of cigarettes sold in New Haven. If that wasn't enough for this “amateur” collegian, Hogan was given a ten-day vacation trip to Cuba during the school term after the football season was successfully completed. (Lucas & Smith, 1978, pp. 212–213)

Athletes often competed for different colleges or universities within the same season. Many intercollegiate athletes were paid, and many were for hire, often being enrolled as “special” students for a short time while they competed. Intercollegiate sport became so popular on campus, thus encouraging even greater abuses, that it threatened the real purpose of university education.

The beginning of faculty control was an important step in the continued development of intercollegiate sport. Because it was brought under the normal institutional control of faculty, sport was accepted as an appropriate and useful aspect of university life and as a contributor to the overall goals of a university education. The first faculty athletic committee was formed at Harvard in 1882. By 1888 the composition of this committee had changed to include representatives of alumni and students, and the committee's authority had been extended

considerably. This pattern was gradually adopted by most universities.

The next important step in extending faculty control was the formation of associations of universities—what we now know as *athletic conferences*. In 1895 the Intercollegiate Conference of Faculty Representatives was formed, which immediately established eligibility requirements for entering students, for continued participation, and for transfer students. It also placed severe limitations on athletic aid and on how coaches were hired and retained. That conference, later to be known as the Western Conference or Big Ten, became the model through which other institutions, in other parts of the country, joined together to exert institutional control over intercollegiate athletics and, in so doing, ensured a continued role for sport in university life.

Intercollegiate sport for women was always under better control. On many campuses, women's athletic associations were formed; in 1917 Blanche Trilling of the University of Wisconsin organized a meeting through which the Athletic Conference of American College Women was formed (Spears & Swanson, 1978). However, the explosion in collegiate sport for women was to come more than a half-century later, with the advent of Title IX (see later in this chapter and Chapter 5).

The New Physical Education

In 1893 an International Congress on Education was held in conjunction with the Chicago World's Fair (Lee & Bennett, 1985a). Because the National Education Association (NEA) had 2 years earlier recognized physical education as a curricular field, a physical-education section of the congress was organized. That enabled physical educators from Europe and North America to meet for the first time as specialists in a fully recognized school subject. From that time on, the physical-education profession began to view education rather than medicine as its parent field. At that symbolically meaningful conference, a 28-year-old physical

educator from Stanford University, Thomas Wood, presented to the audience a view for a *new physical education*:

Physical education must have an aim as broad as education itself and as noble and inspiring as human life. The great thought in physical education is not the education of the physical nature, but the relation of physical training to complete education, and then the effort to make the physical contribute its full share to the life of the individual, in environment, training, and culture. (Lee & Bennett, 1985a, p. 22)

That conference symbolized the end of the era in which gymnastics dominated the physical-education curriculum, and it marked the beginning of the modern era of physical education. Wood's ideas about a physical education that had broad goals and contributed to a student's complete education were to become the dominant theme in physical education in the twentieth century—and they still dominate today. One of Wood's best students at Stanford was Clark Hetherington, who was to become a major force in the new American physical education, as was Luther Halsey Gulick, then director of the YMCA training school at Springfield. In 1927 Wood and Rosiland Cassidy, another great pioneer, published *The New Physical Education*, a landmark text.

The **new physical education** was to be embraced by many people but was articulated most clearly by four leaders—Wood, Cassidy, Hetherington, and Gulick. Wood went on to head the department of physical education at Teachers College, Columbia University, which became the great early training ground for leadership in physical education, marking the transition from medicine to education for advanced training in the field. Cassidy earned her doctorate at Columbia and became a major leader through her work at the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA), later becoming a pioneer thinker in the field of human movement. Hetherington had a distinguished career at



An early-twentieth-century gymnastics class at a school for black girls.

several major universities, later becoming supervisor for physical education for the State of California. Gulick went from Springfield to become director of physical training for the New York City schools and was a major figure in the development of the playground movement.

The development of the new physical education was not the result of the influence of ideas alone. It is important to remember that the intellectual leaders in psychology, education, and physical education in the early part of the twentieth century were a small group of people who had frequent personal contact with one another. Wood went to Teachers College at Columbia University. The great psychologist Thorndike was also on the faculty there, as was John Dewey, America's greatest philosopher-educator. Hetherington was brought to Teachers College by Wood. Cassidy took her degree there also. Hetherington had studied under Hall, who was a close associate of both Thorndike

and Dewey. These people knew one another well and interacted both formally and informally—and this important intellectual circle lay the philosophical and programmatic foundation for the future of American physical education in the early years of the twentieth century.

The Spreading of the Physical-Education Umbrella

In the years between the turn of the century and World War I, the character of American physical education took shape. An umbrella profession—physical education—was created; it embraced a number of growing movements, including dance, YMCA/YWCA, playgrounds, recreation, outdoor education, sport, fitness, health education, and intramurals. It was during this period, as the umbrella profession formed, that much of the early organizational work in those separate yet related fields took place (see Focus On Box 2.3).

Dance, especially folk dance, became popular in school physical-education programs in the early years of the twentieth century. Together with the growing recognition of sport and games as curricular areas in physical education, dance helped push gymnastics out of the center of the curriculum. In 1916 the American Folk Dance Society formed.

The playground and camping movements grew out of a genuine social concern with the welfare of children, influenced strongly by the same philosophical and psychological theories that came together in the progressive-education movement. The Playground Association of America was founded in 1906 to guide that movement.

The Industrial Revolution of the nineteenth century had created a national concern about health, especially about the health of children. The emerging school health, health-education, and health-sciences professions were strongly backed by medical societies. In 1903 New Jersey passed legislation making a health examination compulsory for all schoolchildren.

Although this period was characterized primarily by the inclusion of sports and games in the school

FOCUS ON — Professional Organization Evolution Toward AAHPERD 2.3

- 1903—Association for the Advancement of Physical Education (AAPE) becomes the American Physical Education Association (APEA).
- 1937—APEA becomes the American Association for Health and Physical Education (AAHPE).
- 1938—The growing field of recreation is added to AAHPE, which becomes AAHPER.
- 1974—The emergence of district associations and the change from older divisions into national associations (such as the National Association for Sport and Physical Education—NASPE) causes AAHPER to become an alliance of associations, named the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation
- 1979—The current name is created through the formal addition of dance: AAHPER becomes AAHPERD.

curriculum and by the development of a national sport culture, fitness was not neglected. In 1902 Dudley Sargent developed his widely used Universal Test for Strength, Speed, and Endurance. In 1910 James McCurdy set up standards for measuring blood pressure and heart rate. In 1915 William Bowen published his influential *Applied Anatomy and Kinesiology*.

Intramurals became important, particularly as a way of allowing guided sport competition in colleges and universities. In 1913 Michigan State and Ohio State appointed intramural directors, the first such positions recognized. By 1916 a survey indicated that 140 institutions had intramural programs (Weston, 1962). This development at the college level influenced the beginning of intramural programs in high schools a decade later; by 1930 such programs were national in scope.

The recreation movement began to form from a number of sources, including the YMCA/YWCA, the playground movement, camping, and parks. In the days when America was predominantly rural, there was little need for formal recreation organizations. As America became more urban, however, the need for formal recreation grew. The National Park Service was formed in 1911; by 1930 the National Recreation Association had formed from the Playground and Recreation Association.

During this period, America also was building a national sport culture. In 1911, 80,000 spectators watched the first Indianapolis 500 race. A championship boxing match between Jim Jeffries and Jack Johnson was a worldwide spectator event. In 1903 the first World Series was played. In 1905 the National Collegiate Athletic Association was founded. Ty Cobb in baseball and Jim Thorpe in football became national heroes of immense popularity.

In physical education, this period marked the transition from a gymnastics-oriented curriculum to one in which dance and sport began to share more equally. Physical education became associated with education rather than with medicine. Just after 1900, several universities—including Nebraska, Oberlin, California, and Missouri—offered professional preparation courses in physical education, expanding on the pioneer program begun in 1885 by Delphine Hanna at Oberlin College. In 1901 Teachers College offered the first master's degree in physical education. In 1905, at the University of Illinois, the first department of professional preparation in physical education was formed. By 1924 there was sufficient interest and need that both Teachers College and New York University began to offer doctoral programs in physical education.

Another important element in the maturation of the health, physical-education, and recreation

professions was the creation of an academy of national leaders. In 1904 Luther Halsey Gulick created the Academy of Physical Education, whose membership was open only to those elected by fellows. That led in 1926 to the formation of the American Academy of Physical Education (AAPE), whose first elected members were Clark Hetherington, R. Tait McKenzie, Thomas Story, William Burdick, and Jay B. Nash. The purpose of AAPE was to create a forum of national leaders who could address major issues in annual meetings. The “Academy,” as it came to be known, soon published the proceedings of its annual meetings as *The Academy Papers*.

The Golden Age: Post–World War I

The era between World War I and the beginning of the Great Depression in the early 1930s was a particularly interesting time in American history; it was an active period for the sport, fitness, and physical-education professions, too. America ended the war as an international power of the first order. The giant American industrial economy had moved into high gear. A middle class was emerging. People had money and wanted diversions. National interest in sports grew at all levels. The radio and the automobile had come within the means of many people—and each was important to the growth of sport, as the telegraph and the railroad had been in the mid-nineteenth century.

This was the era of Bobby Jones in golf, Babe Ruth and Lou Gehrig in baseball, Jack Dempsey in boxing, Man O’War the racehorse, Red Grange in football, Gertrude Ederle and Johnny Weismuller in swimming, Bill Tilden and Helen Wills Moody in tennis, and Charlie Paddock and Mildred “Babe” Didrikson Zaharias in track and field. It was an era of heroes and heroines, of huge crowds (120,000 watched a high school football championship in Chicago), and of previously unparalleled media interest.

Except for media coverage of then hugely popular boxing matches, African American athletes were

largely invisible in the majority-controlled media. These athletes were not allowed to participate in most professional and intercollegiate sports, but in sports such as baseball, Negro professional leagues developed and drew many fans, despite media neglect. Institutions of higher education for African American students, particularly in the South, developed intercollegiate sports programs of their own and organized into distinct leagues.

Education of or Education Through the Physical?

As physical education made rapid gains in the post–World War I era, the major philosophical dispute among physical education professionals was “Should physical education be an education *of* the physical or an education *through* the physical?” The “of the physical” supporters, led by C. H. McCloy, argued that the main emphasis should be the development of the body and its systems for both health and skill. The “through the physical” supporters, led by Jesse Feiring Williams, argued that the mind and body were a unity and that physical education contributed to mental, emotional, and social development as well as physical development.

The new physical education, first advocated by Wood and later articulated most clearly by Hetherington, was the precursor to the *education through the physical* approach. These ideas were stated cogently in Hetherington’s 1910 paper, “Fundamental Education”:

This paper aims to describe the function and place of general neuromuscular activities, primarily general play activities, in the educational process. We use the term *general play* to include play, games, athletics, dancing, the play side of gymnastics, and all play activities in which large muscles are used more or less vigorously. . . . To present the thesis four phases of the educational process will be considered: organic education, psychomotor education, character education, and intellectual education. (p. 630)



A women's tennis class, 1932.

Hetherington's four objectives for physical education (organic, psychomotor, character, and intellectual) were to be adopted with only slight variations in language and concept by virtually every important American physical-education spokesperson for 50 years (Siedentop, 1980).

The leadership of the new physical education began to pass in this era from the Wood–Cassidy–Hetherington–Gulick generation to the generation of physical educators trained by those pioneers, most notably to Jesse Feiring Williams and Jay B. Nash. Williams took his M.D. degree at Columbia in 1915 and joined the physical-education faculty at Teachers College in 1919, where he became an articulate and prolific writer. Jay B. Nash took his Ph.D. degree in physical education from New York University in 1929, where he already was a faculty member. Williams became the primary interpreter of Wood, whereas Nash became the main disciple of Hetherington. Both were dynamic and inspiring leaders, and it was through their teaching and writing that the modern curriculum in physical education was developed.

The notion of **education through the physical** became the modern interpretation of Wood's *new physical education*. This view was consistently challenged by C. H. McCloy, who argued that, of course, physical education could contribute to social and mental development but that its main emphasis and primary responsibility were to develop students physically and to make them more skilled. McCloy and those who supported the education of the physical perspective can be seen today as early advocates for what over time have become regular calls for a stronger emphasis on physical fitness and for the enormous importance now attached to regular physical activity as a contributor to health. In that sense, the battle still goes on within physical education.

The Beginnings of a Science of Physical Education The early contributions of Hitchcock and Sargent had established the American gymnastic systems on a more scientific basis than that of their European counterparts. Emphasis on measurement and prescriptive exercises based on test data were

unique features of those systems. Thus, as an American physical-education profession developed in the late nineteenth century, a scientific emphasis was ever present.

As sports, games, and dance began to move gymnastics out of the center of the curriculum and as the new physical-education philosophy gained strength, the scientific emphasis so notable early in the profession seemed to become less important. In fact, it was just temporarily overshadowed by the rhetoric and program changes that accompanied the new physical education.

The Sargent tests, McCurdy measurement innovations, and McCloy classification index provided continuing evidence of the scientific direction of the profession, firmly rooted in its medical ancestry. In 1921 Sargent developed his Sargent Jump Test, which is still used. The beginning of doctoral programs in 1924 provided a strong impetus for the research movement within the profession as doctoral candidates were trained in research methods and began to complete doctoral dissertations. In 1927 the Brace Motor Ability Test was developed, followed 2 years later by the Cozens' Tests for General Athletic Ability. In 1930 the APEA formally recognized this important emphasis within the profession by publishing the *Research Quarterly*.

This beginning of a research focus within the sport, fitness, and physical-education professions was vital for their increasing acceptance in university programs and as an important educational subject matter. It foreshadowed a period when the kinesiology scientific subdisciplines would emerge to stand on their own.

Access and Equity This era of expansion, in which our professions were born, needs also to be viewed realistically in the context of the inequalitarian nature of the times. Remember, most of the history reviewed in this chapter occurred *before* women were allowed to vote and *well before* blacks were granted their full constitutional rights. Women such as Delphine Hanna, Ethel

Perrin, Jessie Bancroft, Amy Morris Homans, Elizabeth Burchenal, and Blanche Trilling were important and courageous pioneers, their advocacy of women in sport, fitness, and physical education made more difficult by the narrow and stereotyped views of femininity in those days. Their names appear less often in this history not because their roles were less important but because the power structures of almost all organizations were dominated by men.

Delphine Hanna, for example, is one of the remarkable figures in the history of American physical education. She graduated from Brockport State Normal School in New York in 1874, earned an M.D. degree at the University of Michigan and then a Bachelor of Arts degree from Cornell University. She taught in public schools, where she became concerned about the health and physical status of children. She completed a course at the Sargent Normal School of Physical Training in 1885 and then took a position at Oberlin College in Ohio where she developed the nation's first teacher-preparation program in physical education. Among her students at Oberlin were Luther Halsey Gulick, Thomas Wood, and Fred Leonard, all of whom went on to important positions of leadership and influence. In 1903 she became the first woman to be appointed a full professor of physical education.

Nor is there much mention in this history of black people. To be sure, black institutions, such as Hampton Institute and Howard University, pioneered sport and physical education for black students. To their credit, some notable institutions in the history of physical education and sport—such as Oberlin College, Springfield College, and the Sargent School for Women—admitted black students (Zeigler, 1962). In this period of emergence and growth, however, access and *equity* remained restricted to and dominated by white males.

That is where physical education stood as the era of affluence known as the Roaring Twenties ended and America plunged into the Great Depression of the 1930s.

FOCUS ON CHRONOLOGY AT A GLANCE—Consolidation and Specialization

2.4

	1929	<i>Carnegie Report</i> published
	1930	<i>Journal of Health and Physical Education</i> first published
Great Depression	1935	NEA national study on teacher education in PE College Physical Education Association formed
	1937	AAHPE added as a department of NEA
	1938	La Porte curriculum guide first published
World War II	1943	<i>The Physical Educator</i> published
	1948	National conference on professional preparation
G.I. Bill	1950	National Intramural Association formed
	1951	National Athletic Trainers Association formed
Baby boomers	1953	Kraus–Hirschland fitness reports published in <i>JOHPER</i>
	1954	American College of Sports Medicine founded
<i>Sputnik</i>	1956	President’s Council on Youth Fitness established
	1959	Operation Fitness started by AAHPER
	1960	President Kennedy’s “soft American” article published
Civil rights	1961	President’s Fitness Council’s “blue book” published
	1963	<i>Quest</i> published
Environmental movement	1964	Henry’s “academic discipline” article published
	1965	Dance added as a division of AAHPER
Women’s rights	1972	Title IX passed AAHPERD’s <i>Tones of Theory</i> published
	1975	Public Law 94-142 passed

CONSOLIDATION AND SPECIALIZATION: 1930–PRESENT

By 1930, at the end of the emergence era, sport, fitness, and physical education had begun to consolidate under the umbrella profession called “physical education.”

The signs of approaching maturity for that umbrella profession were everywhere (see Focus On Box 2.4). In 1930 the APEA was on firm footing as *the* organization providing an umbrella under which physical educators, sport administrators,

health educators, recreationists, and fitness experts found common ground and support. The APEA had just started two professional journals, the *Research Quarterly* and the *Journal of Health and Physical Education*. The organization also elected its first woman president, Mabel Lee of the University of Nebraska (Lee & Bennett, 1985b).

The battle between gymnastic systems and the new physical education had been clearly won by the adherents of “education through the physical,” and physical education became firmly established within education rather than within medicine. Many states passed legislation requiring health and

physical-education instruction in schools. Research on fitness and performance testing was being established within the profession. Sport was immensely popular within the culture, and there was a general perception that physical education was a vital aspect of the school curriculum.

The Cultural Context: 1930–1940

The years between 1930 and 1945 marked an important transitional period in American history. The Great Depression following the stock market collapse of 1929 shook the foundations of American society as well as the assumptions of free enterprise and rugged individualism on which the society had grown and prospered—businesses failed, savings were lost, banks closed, and unemployment rates reached intolerably high levels.

In the face of those economic and social threats, the nation elected Franklin D. Roosevelt as president in 1932 (and again in 1936, 1940, and 1944). President Roosevelt presided over a recovery era in which major changes were made in the social and economic systems within the nation. For example, the Social Security Act of 1935 created a national pension system as well as unemployment insurance and certain health benefits. The Wagner Act of 1935 encouraged the organization of labor, and unions grew in strength, securing wage and benefit improvements for workers. To pay for all these government programs, legislators developed new tax programs.

The Great Depression produced not only changes in the foundational structures of the government but also programs designed to provide immediate relief from the suffering brought about by the economic collapse. The Civilian Conservation Corps (the CCC), the Works Progress Administration (WPA), and the National Youth Administration (NYA) were three programs, among many, that had a direct effect on the sport, fitness, and physical-education professions.

World War I, the Russian Revolution of 1917, and the Great Depression produced worldwide problems that were to manifest themselves again in international conflict by the middle to late 1930s, as Germany and Italy went to war to expand

their territories and influence. By 1940 it was clear that the war would involve more than continental Europe; by 1941, with the declaration of war against Japan by the United States after the Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbor, World War II had begun, and the era of the Great Depression had ended.

Other factors of major importance in understanding the continued evolution of the sport, fitness, and physical-education professions were the development of the automobile as a primary means of transportation, the widespread influence of the radio, and the beginnings of television. It also became clear that the airplane would soon further revolutionize the concept of travel and distance. Urbanization continued, and the emerging middle class grew.

Sport, Fitness, and Physical Education: The Depression Years

The decade of 1930–1940 saw major changes in sport and physical education. The economic collapse and the resulting widespread unemployment created substantial problems for the programs of sport and physical education that had developed so vigorously after World War I. These difficulties, however, led to new efforts and programs as the nation attempted to regain its economic and social balance. What follows are snapshots of the important developments of that decade.

Developments in Sport The Carnegie Report in 1929 found widespread abuses in college sport, including use of professionals, eligibility violations, and compromises of academic rules (Spears & Swanson, 1978). With the negative publicity and general economic collapse, many sport programs in higher education were severely cut back.

Spectator sport fared poorly during the Depression because few could afford the price of admission. This precipitated a major shift to participatory sport, mostly at the local level. Youth sport, family sport, and informal kinds of participation increased substantially.

Softball exemplified this shift from spectating to participating. Invented in Chicago in 1877, softball required less space and less equipment than

baseball. In the 1930s, softball became America's most popular recreational sport. By 1940, at the end of the Depression, there were more than 300,000 organized softball clubs, and the Amateur Softball Association had more than 3 million affiliated players (Gerber, 1974).

The shift to participation democratized sport participation during the Depression. Citizens at all socioeconomic levels began to participate in games and activities historically available only to a privileged class (Dulles, 1940).

Federal and Private-Sector Interventions

Ten federal agencies developed sport and recreation programs that had an immediate influence on participation as well as longer-term effects.

The National Youth Administration supplied part-time work for high school students, keeping them in school. Many of the projects students worked on were athletic and recreation facilities.

The CCC opened camps for men aged 18–25 whose families were on relief. These camps, in different parts of the country, provided work in parks and with recreational and sport facilities. The men lived in military-style barracks and engaged in well-organized intramural sports programs.

The WPA had the most visible and lasting influence of all federal Depression programs. The WPA constructed gymnasiums, swimming pools, auditoriums, ski facilities, and stadiums. Many of these facilities still host high school and university sport events.

The Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, YMCA/YWCA, and Catholic Youth Organization all developed programs for youths, many of which were sport and recreation programs. This “youth sport movement,” which began in the Depression, took a major symbolic step forward when Little League Baseball was launched in Williamsport, Pennsylvania, foreshadowing the enormous growth in youth sport in the following decades.

Organizational Consolidation The umbrella profession of physical education weathered the Depression well. In 1930 the APEA had 5,700

members, but by 1940 when it had become AAHPPE, membership had reached 10,000.

In 1931 the National Education Association organized a committee to evaluate teacher education in physical education, leading to a national code of standards in 1935, which exerted influence over teacher preparation in physical education for years to come.

In 1937 the newly named AAHPPE (formerly APEA) became a department of the NEA, forming the organizational structure that would guide the profession for the next 30 years.

By 1938 a committee chaired by William Ralph La Porte had published *The Physical Education Curriculum*. The curriculum model proposed in this publication advocated a unit or block plan approach with activities lasting from 3 to 6 weeks. This quickly became the standard model for planning PE curricula.

Sport, Fitness, and Physical Education During the War Years

The war in Europe had begun in 1939, spreading over most of Europe by 1940. With the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, the United States was drawn into the conflict in 1941. More than 15 million people served in the American armed forces during World War II, including 216,000 women in newly created branches of the Army, Navy, and Coast Guard. The entire economic power of the United States turned toward the war effort and, in so doing, lifted itself out of the Depression.

The events associated with World War II had immediate and far-reaching effects on sport, fitness, and physical education. One of the most important was in the area of fitness, which had been the most important field in physical education during the nineteenth century, only to be gradually moved more to the periphery as the new physical education became popular in the early part of the twentieth century. Fitness was not a major issue in society during the Depression simply because basic needs such as food, shelter, and employment were dominant concerns. With the beginning of World War II, however, fitness became an issue immediately.

All the many women and men who were inducted into the armed forces underwent physical

tests and then basic training. A large number failed the tests, and many had trouble with the physical aspects of basic training. At the War Fitness Conference in 1943, the assertion was made that school physical education had been a complete failure and that the emphasis on sports and games had to be replaced with fitness programs. Although that did not happen completely, it was clear that an emphasis on fitness would reemerge in not only school programs but also society as a whole. Research on fitness and fitness testing was greatly accelerated, and new fitness programs were put into place (Weston, 1962).

Spectator sport continued in the holding pattern it had entered during the Depression. Many great athletes were in the armed services, travel restrictions were severe, and discretionary leisure money was often diverted to the war effort. Participant sport, on the other hand, continued the growth that it had begun during the Depression. The War Department had invested substantial monies in sport equipment and personnel to provide activities for service personnel. Coaches and athletes often found themselves called to duty as trainers, coaches, and sport administrators. War-training camps developed large sport facilities and encouraged active participation both among camp personnel and between camps. The so-called recreational sports—such as badminton, archery, shuffleboard, volleyball, and table tennis—were promoted as *rest and recovery* activities for service personnel on leave.

School programs of physical education were forced to emphasize fitness objectives and activities more clearly but also fought to hold on to the more balanced approach that reflected the then-30-year-old development of the new physical education. Regardless of the objectives emphasized, physical education was once again considered to be an important part of the school curriculum; it had outlived the “frill problem” it had encountered when school budgets had been cut so drastically during the Depression.

There is little doubt that a major influence of World War II on sport, fitness, and physical education was the beginning of research specialization—a

movement that would explode 20 years later as the kinesiology discipline movement. Before World War II, research activity in physical education was limited mostly to physical and motor testing. During World War II, the government funded a great deal of research that was to influence physical education (Weston, 1962). The obvious area was fitness where more had to be learned and testing and programming had to be improved. There were, however, other important areas. The beginnings of what we now call motor learning are clearly traceable to the war effort. Airplane gunners and aircraft lookouts needed to be trained. Those kinds of war skills were really motor skills and visual discrimination skills. The psychologists who studied them and produced both the knowledge and the programs for training were the first motor-learning specialists (see Chapter 15).

Adapted physical education also began as a major enterprise in World War II. Although rehabilitation had been a part of the American physical-education scene because of the influence of the Swedish gymnastic systems, the real impetus for the development of this specialization came during World War II as thousands of wounded soldiers needed both rehabilitation *and* activities in which they could experience satisfaction from leisure participation. Thus, the war years exerted great pressure for research in physical education and set the stage for the later period in which the specialized research fields would develop more fully into a discipline.

When the war ended in 1945, the nation settled back from the 15 years of turmoil and dislocation experienced in the Great Depression and the war. Service personnel came home with high hopes, new expectations, and the G.I. Bill, which could finance their college educations. Women, who had contributed significantly to the war effort both abroad and at home, had developed a new sense of what was possible for them and of what roles they could occupy in peacetime. The economy geared up to produce all of those things that had been put aside during the years of struggle. A boom time lay just ahead—and it was to be an important growth period for sport, fitness, and physical education.



Getting children to enjoy moderate to vigorous activity is a key goal for physical education.

Expansion and Growth in the Postwar Years

The decade following the end of World War II in 1945 changed the United States. Women and men who served in the armed forces came back to jobs and much greater opportunities in higher education. The economy was strong, and a nation that had postponed its desire for consumer goods spurred even further growth.

Developments in the General Culture

New housing was among the most wanted benefits of prosperity. Housing developments sprang up all over the country, especially around cities, giving rise to a new form of living, the “suburb.”

College and university enrollments soared as women and men took advantage of a grateful government’s programs, known collectively as the G.I. Bill, a major feature of which was support for higher-education tuition.

Many young couples who had postponed marriage and/or family because of the war began to start their families, producing what was perhaps the most significant aspect of that era—the “baby boom.” The number of children born in the postwar decade was startling, representing a major shift in the demographics of the American population. The *baby*

boomers changed the social fabric of the nation as they moved through childhood and into adolescence, and they would dominate the cultural and economic life of the nation for the next 50 years.

The Expansion of Sport Although the solid foundation of participation developed during the Depression and throughout the war continued, the postwar years saw a marked shift back to spectator sport.

In 1946 the National Football League had ten teams. By 1977 the league had expanded to twenty-eight teams. In Major League Baseball, there were sixteen teams after the war, but this grew to twenty-five teams by 1977. The National Basketball Association was just starting as a financially shaky organization after World War II, but by 1977 it had become a financially sound league of twenty-two teams.

Golf changed from a country-club sport of the wealthy and began its long evolution into a mass market for participants and a major media sport. A large number of golf courses were built, both private and public.

The Olympic Games began again in 1948. The modern Olympic Games, begun in the late nineteenth century, had grown in importance, reaching its greatest modern status with the 1936 Berlin

games, made famous in America by the stunning performances of the sprinter Jesse Owens. The wars in Europe and Asia caused cancellation of the next two games, but they resumed in London in 1948. These London games foreshadowed the enormous success the games were to have over the next half-century.

Intercollegiate sport also began its growth in numbers of sports and athletes and in the media coverage of collegiate sporting events. Teams began to play regionally and then nationally. Scholarships for athletes at larger universities became commonplace. More sports were added, and conference and national championships attracted widespread interest.

The baby-boom generation marked the emergence of sport for children and youth. Age-group competitions began to appear for not only baseball but also football, soccer, gymnastics, ice hockey, and tennis.

Toward the end of the postwar decade, it became obvious that the increasing attendance at sporting events, the widespread broadcasting of events on the radio, and the beginning of televised sport were ushering in an era when mass-media attention to sport of all kinds would become commonplace. Sport sections in newspapers increased in size. Sport magazines and books proliferated. Radio coverage increased, but it was soon clear that television would have the most profound effect on the growth of sport.

The Postwar Years in Physical Education

School programs of physical education, financially troubled during the Depression and World War II, participated in the economic comeback in the postwar decade. Physical-education programs generally followed the traditions of the *new physical education*. Activities taught in physical-education changed after the war as sports and games that became popular during World War II began to find their way into the curriculum, usually under the label of “lifetime sports.” Among these were golf, bowling, and tennis.

The number of journals increased, and the level of scientific work in areas such as kinesiology, biomechanics, and exercise physiology expanded.

Immediately after World War II, physical education focused more on lifetime sports, and less

attention was paid to fitness either in school or in the general culture.

This all changed in the mid-1950s. In December 1954, Hans Kraus, a physician, and Ruth Hirschland published in the *Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation* an article titled “Minimum Muscular Fitness Tests in School Children.” The article reported the results of a study comparing the performance of American and European children on tests of minimum muscular strength. The shocking results showed that 60 percent of the American children failed, compared with only 9 percent of the European children.

The results of the study led by Kraus were brought to the attention of President Eisenhower, who was an avid golfer and had been a leader of American forces in World War II. National newspapers and magazines picked up the story and made it into a national issue in which American youths were pictured as frail and soft. In 1956 a national conference on youth fitness was convened, which resulted in a presidential executive order to form the President’s Council on Youth Fitness. In 1958 the nation celebrated its first “Presidential Fitness Week.”

In 1960 newly elected President Kennedy published an article in *Sports Illustrated* titled “The Soft American.” He also appointed legendary Oklahoma football coach Bud Wilkinson to head the President’s Council on Youth Fitness. This flurry of activity and publicity around youth fitness resulted in strong pressures for school physical education programs to focus more on fitness.

The Mid-1950s and On: Forces That Shaped Our Current Culture

In the mid-1950s, events began to occur that would shape the social and cultural landscape in America for the remainder of the century. Those changes would be both tremendously exciting and very difficult. During the 1950s and 1960s, the baby boomers went through childhood and adolescence, changing our culture’s language, clothing styles, and musical tastes—creating social turmoil between the

generations that had not been seen before and has not been seen since.

In 1954 the Supreme Court upheld the decision in *Brown v. Board of Education* that eliminated the “separate but equal” ethic that had created segregated schools in America, a decision that ushered in the era referred to as the civil rights movement. In 1956 the civil rights movement gained momentum when Rosa Parks, a cleaning woman in Montgomery, Alabama, was arrested because she refused to give up her seat at the front of the bus when asked to do so by a white person. Her action led to a boycott of white-owned businesses in Montgomery. The boycott was led by a young black minister, Martin Luther King, Jr., and attracted national media attention.

In 1957 Russia launched the space satellite *Sputnik*. When Russia beat America into space, it startled both the education and scientific communities, who had assumed we were well ahead in such technological breakthroughs. The post-Sputnik era was known for concerns about American education, culminating 15 years later with the publication of *A Nation at Risk*, the report of the U.S. National Commission on Excellence in Education.

In 1962 Rachel Carson wrote *The Silent Spring*, warning Americans of the environmental dangers of pesticides and chemicals and setting off a major environmental movement. Certainly, the growth of wilderness sport and adventure education has direct ties to that movement. In 1965 an unknown named Ralph Nader wrote a book titled *Unsafe at Any Speed*, revealing the degree to which the auto industry neglected safety concerns in the production of cars. The book launched a consumer movement that eventually affected sport, fitness, and physical education through issues such as product liability, teacher or coach malpractice, and consumer participation in decisions about sport.

In 1972 Title IX of the Education Amendments passed the U.S. Congress, creating the framework within which girls and women might finally have equal access to sport, fitness, and physical-education opportunities. Title IX was one manifestation of

what became known as the women’s movement. In 1975 Congress passed Public Law 94-142, a far-reaching piece of legislation designed to ensure the rights of Americans with disabilities, particularly in education.

It was within this difficult and complex set of social events that sport, fitness, and physical education continued to develop into the current times. Much of what happened in those years in sport, fitness, and physical education forms the basis for the remainder of this text and, therefore, is reviewed only briefly here.

Sport in the Post-1950 Era The growth in sport in the postwar era was merely a prelude to the even more startling expansion in more recent times. America has become a great sporting nation! So much has happened within sport in recent years that it is difficult to catalog the main changes. Some trends do seem clear.

Title IX and the women’s movement provided the framework for an explosion in women’s sport, from youth sport all the way to the most elite levels of international sport. Not only do more women take part, but also the growth of women’s sport has helped us partially to reconceptualize the role of women in society.

The environmental movement provided the framework for engaging in sport outdoors, especially in wilderness areas. Sports such as cross-country skiing and backpacking have grown enormously. The civil rights movement provided the framework for further collapse of racial barriers in sport. University teams were integrated. Black and Hispanic players became great professionals in the newly integrated competitions.

Road racing has become a national participant sport as well as a spectator sport. More than 30,000 people run the 26.2-mile New York City Marathon; millions more watch it on television. Youth sport expanded to include many sports other than football, baseball, and basketball; in fact, youth soccer may now be the largest program for boys and girls. Sport training started to become more specialized and to begin earlier in children’s lives. Not too long



Commitment to environmental conservation and aerobic training come together in some outdoor recreational pursuits.

ago, most high-school athletes competed in a different sport each season, but now they tend to specialize, with year-round training and competition. Sport camps have developed for summer participation and have become highly specialized. The camps are seen by many parents and coaches as necessary adjuncts to year-round participation.

The money made by elite athletes has increased astronomically. Winner's purses for golf and tennis events are huge. Multimillion-dollar contracts are now commonplace. The sport-equipment business has expanded, along with the explosion in participation and spectating. Sport clothes have become fashionable, and athletes have major endorsement contracts with equipment and clothing companies.

The line separating the amateur from the professional has blurred considerably. Many sports

have moved to *open competition* in which there is no distinction (as in tennis, for example). Many amateurs (in track and field, for example) can make a good living while pursuing their sport on a full-time basis.

With the rapid growth and the economic overtones, sport has had more than its share of problems during the post-1950 era. Betting scandals, recruiting violations, point shaving, emotional trauma of young athletes, poor graduation rates for university athletes, and drug involvement have all created national concern. (Those issues and others are addressed in Chapter 6.)

The Fitness Renaissance and the Aerobics Era

Americans have been periodically concerned with physical fitness. Those concerns have typically been responded to but only briefly. Until recent times, there had been no abiding concern with fitness among the general population; then, however, fitness became very fashionable.

The media publicity in the late 1950s and early 1960s about the fitness of American children, along with a growing understanding of the relationships among various forms of fitness and health, laid the foundation for a continuing interest in fitness, both among professionals and, increasingly, among citizens. An additional powerful influence was that being fit became the “in” thing. The athletic look—slim, muscular, active—became the model to which many women and men aspired. Sport and fitness clothing became popular, not just for exercise purposes but also as standard casual wear. No longer were there taboos on going out for a jog or a bike ride. Indeed, such activity was applauded and supported.

When fitness became fashionable, the private sector became involved—it was clear that there was money to be made from catering to the fitness interests and needs of the society. Whereas several generations ago the thought of going to a gym for a workout was associated with dingy facilities and smelly locker rooms, to go to one of the fashionable spas or fitness centers today is

a social event. The facilities are bright, colorful, and clean. The workout is social as well as physical.

In 1968 Dr. Kenneth Cooper published a small, paperback book that would wield enormous influence over the fitness movement for a generation and give us a new term that would become commonplace in our language system—the book was simply titled *Aerobics*. By 1973, just 5 years later, the book had gone through its twentieth printing and the term **aerobics** had come to represent an entirely new approach to cardiovascular fitness. Aerobic exercise became the preferred approach to fitness training. Aerobics classes became popular. Aerobics shoes were marketed. Aerobics videos sold well.

Dr. Cooper went on to establish the Cooper Aerobics Institute in Texas (www.cooperinst.org). This center played an important role in the modern fitness movement in several ways. First, it became one of the key fitness-research centers in the world. The institute also paved the way for increasingly useful forms of fitness assessment to be applied in schools and elsewhere.

As America moved toward the beginning of a new century, increasingly clear scientific evidence showed the importance of fitness throughout the lifetime. AAHPERD adopted as its major goal for students to *adopt and value a physically active lifestyle*. Everybody now understands that a modest amount of regular aerobic work, along with core strength and flexibility, are important for older citizens as well as for children and youths. Indeed, the burgeoning fitness industry is now driven by catering to older adults (Lauer, 2006). The dilemma of our times is we now have an increased interest in health/fitness while experiencing an obesity epidemic among children, youth, and adults! It is also clear that people in lower socioeconomic brackets are most seriously affected, and that of course also means people of color and ethnic minorities because race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status in America are highly correlated.



Learning to cooperate to complete a task can be fun too.

School Physical Education Since the 1950s

The curriculum of physical education expanded greatly in the last half of the twentieth century. Lifetime sports (tennis, bowling, golf, and so on.) had joined the curriculum after World War II and during the 1950s were fully incorporated into existing philosophies and models. In later decades, the curriculum continued to expand, and a new curriculum philosophy challenged the primacy of the education-through-the-physical approach that had dominated since the early part of the century.

The curricular changes were interesting. They reflected a continuing trend for activities in school programs to be selected on the basis of what was popular in the larger culture. The academic reform movement that followed *Sputnik* in the early 1960s resulted in a countermovement in which competition was downplayed in favor of cooperation. Physical-education programs participated in this general trend by including activities such as new games and cooperative initiatives within its curricula.

The growth of scientific activity in what was coming to be called the “discipline of physical education” created a new emphasis on *knowing* as well as the more traditional emphasis on *doing*. In school programs, that trend was reflected in *foundations* courses. The courses typically used a

lecture–laboratory approach and often focused on fitness and on the scientific aspects of sports, such as sports biomechanics.

Adventure education made its way into the curriculum. Not only did physical education go off campus to take part in the natural environment, but also school facilities were modified so that adventure skills such as climbing and rappelling could be learned. After-school, weekend, and vacation trips to adventure sites became common.

The largest conceptual change in the post-1950 era was **movement education**, the first serious philosophical challenge to the new physical education since the latter's inception early in the century. Movement education developed in England in the 1930s and was transported and developed even further as a curricular philosophy and program in America. The goals and values of movement education had great philosophical appeal to many professionals and were widely proclaimed in the 1960s and 1970s. Even AAHPERD began to define its subject matter as “the art and science of human movement.” This approach has had a substantial influence on physical-education programs for young children but seems not to have been programmatically influential otherwise.

In the mid-1980s and early 1990s, several new approaches to physical education gained popularity in America and were exported to other countries. One was the *Social and Personal Responsibility* model (Hellison, 1984). Originally developed for application to work with troubled youth, this model was eventually mainstreamed in both elementary and secondary physical education. The major goal was to use an activity environment to help youngsters learn how to control themselves, be responsible for their own actions, and be supportive of others. A second approach was the *Sport Education* model (Siedentop, 1994; Siedentop, Hastie, & van der Mars, 2004), which offered a way of organizing students into small, mixed-ability teams who learned and competed in an activity season that was longer than typical physical-education units. This model, too, placed greater responsibility on students for their own behavior and for helping and

supporting their teammates. A third innovation was *Teaching Games for Understanding* (Almond, Bunker, & Thorpe, 1983), developed in Britain. The TGFU model started with helping students understand the tactical problems that one must solve to be successful in games and used this as a motivation for students to learn the skills necessary to play the games well. In the mid-1990s, TGFU spurred the development of what has been called the “tactical approach” to games teaching (Griffin, Mitchell, & Oslin, 1997). There is no doubt that the Sport Education, TGFU, and tactical models have led physical educators to a much stronger focus on tactical awareness in their teaching.

Title IX resulted in coeducational physical education beyond the elementary school, which in turn created new problems and opportunities for both curriculum planners and teachers as they tried to cope with an entirely new set of demands. The changes were also deeply felt in interscholastic sport programs where boys' teams and girls' teams now had to share their budgets and facilities more equitably.

The Academic-Discipline Movement

“I suggest that there is an increasing need for the organization and study of the academic discipline herein called physical education” (Henry, 1964, p. 32). Franklin Henry's now-famous statement appeared in a 1964 *JOHPER* article that was a milestone in the physical-education literature—the birth of the discipline movement. Henry outlined the relevant issues concerning the viability of physical education as an **academic discipline** and defined that discipline's parameters. The article also foreshadowed a major period of reconstruction for the umbrella profession under which the sport, fitness, and physical-education professionals had gathered early in the century and through which they had gained strength and legitimacy in the ensuing years.

Henry's call for an academic discipline of physical education can be seen as a logical outcome of the post-1950 reformist movement in education. Physical educators were forced to begin to redefine their field as an academic discipline rather than as an

applied, professional enterprise. It was within that political–intellectual climate that programs for human-movement studies, kinesiological studies, human ergonomics, and exercise science developed.

The most well-developed scientific area at the outset of the academic-discipline movement was **exercise physiology**. Research in this field had a long and honorable history within the profession, and productive relationships with other scientific disciplines had been established. In 1954 the American College of Sports Medicine (www.acsm.org) was founded by physiologists, physical educators, and physicians. Joseph B. Wolfe, a cardiologist, was elected as ACSM's first president. In 1969 ACSM began to publish *Medicine and Science in Sports*, which quickly came to be one of the most respected research journals in the field. In 1974 ACSM began to certify practitioners, and now there are six certification fields. (See Chapter 8 for full information on certifications.)

The **subdiscipline** areas to develop were **biomechanics, kinesiology, motor control, motor learning, sport psychology, sport sociology, sport history, and sport philosophy**. The North American Society for the Psychology of Sport and Physical Activity was founded in 1967 to provide a collegial group for the growing number of young professionals who saw themselves as either motor-learning or sport-psychology specialists and also to host the Second International Sport Psychology Congress after the Mexico City Olympics in 1968. Eventually, two journals were started to provide research outlets in those areas: the *Journal of Motor Behavior* (1968) and the *Journal of Sport Psychology* (1978).

The same pattern describes the development of sport history and sport philosophy in the early 1970s. The Philosophic Society for the Study of Sport was founded in 1972 at a regional meeting of the American Philosophical Association. In 1974 the first issue of the *Journal of the Philosophic Society for the Study of Sport* appeared. In 1973 the North American Society for Sport History was formed, an event soon followed by the appearance of the *Journal of Sport History*. Each of those scholarly associations was,

from the beginning, of interest to researchers from the older, parent disciplines—in these cases, philosophy and history.

The national umbrella association, AAHPERD, was quick to recognize the academic-discipline movement and to respond to it. In 1972 AAHPERD published its monograph *Tones of Theory* in which physical education was defined as the discipline of human movement and the emerging subdisciplines were accorded equal stature under the new, more academically oriented umbrella. AAHPERD also changed, in 1974, from an association to an alliance, a reorganization that gave greater visibility, self-determination, and autonomy to the seven member associations. The National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE), one of the largest of the associations, formed academies that strongly reflected the academic-discipline movement—for example, the Kinesiology Academy. Much of that organizational restructuring represented an effort to maintain an umbrella and to minimize the splintering that inevitably occurred as the subdisciplines formed their own groups and developed their own loyalties and traditions.

AAHPERD remains the primary professional and academic organization seeking to hold together and serve a very diverse group of professional and academic interests. Focus On Box 2.5 shows the mission, purposes, and organizational structure of the alliance.

The discipline movement had an immediate and strong effect on the physical-education curriculum at the university and college levels. As graduate programs developed in the areas of specialization (sport sociology, biomechanics, and so on), so did new undergraduate courses that reflected the knowledge being developed in the subdisciplines. Because, at the beginning of the academic-discipline movement, most undergraduates were preparing to become teachers, many of the new courses found their way into teacher-education programs. Thus, it became common for teacher-education programs to include courses in motor learning, sport psychology, sport sociology, and other academic discipline-oriented subjects.

FOCUS ON

The American Alliance for Health, Physical Education,
Recreation, and Dance

2.5

AAHPERD Mission Statement

AAHPERD's mission is to promote and support leadership, research, education, and best practices in the professions that support creative, healthy, and active lifestyles.

AAHPERD's national associations have the following purposes:

1. To develop and disseminate professional guidelines, standards, and ethics
2. To enhance professional practice by providing opportunities for professional growth and development
3. To advance the body of knowledge in the fields of study and in the professional practice of the fields by initiating, facilitating, and disseminating research
4. To facilitate and nurture communication and activities with other associations and other related professional groups
5. To serve as their own spokespersons
6. To promote public understanding and improve government relations in their fields of study
7. To engage in future planning . . .
8. To establish and fulfill other purposes which are consistent with the purposes of the Alliance

Alliance Associations

American Association for Physical Activity and Recreation

American Association for Health Education (AAHE)
National Dance Association (NDA)
National Association for Girls and Women in Sport (NAGWS)
National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE)
Research Consortium

Alliance Districts

Central District—Iowa, Minnesota, Colorado, Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Missouri, Wyoming

Eastern District—Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Maryland, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Vermont, Rhode Island, District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands

Midwest District—Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Indiana

Northwest District—Alaska, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Washington

Southern District—Georgia, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, Texas, Arkansas, Tennessee, Oklahoma, Alabama, Mississippi

Southwest District—Hawaii, California, New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, Utah, Guam

Inevitably, that produced a backlash from the leaders in physical education–teacher education. They argued that studying the discipline of physical education was perhaps important but did not replace the learning of sport skills and the acquisition of teaching skills. As teacher educators in physical education began to publish more research and to join together in their effort to make the teacher-education curriculum relevant to teaching physical education, they emerged as a specialized group themselves (concerned with *sport pedagogy*—see

Chapter 16), with a journal of their own, the *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*.

In the early 1990s, sport-sciences faculty members launched an initiative to change the name of university programs from “physical education” to “kinesiology,” thus reflecting the academic, rather than professional, focus of the programs (Newell, 1990b). The American Academy of Physical Education voted to call the discipline *kinesiology* and became the American Academy of Kinesiology and Physical Education (AAKPE). Many departments in

colleges and universities voted to become departments of kinesiology, and others became departments of sport science or exercise science.

Part 5 of this text examines in detail each of the contemporary scientific and scholarly disciplines in the fields of sport, fitness, and physical education; charts the history of their development; discusses their current status; and addresses career options and relevant issues.

SUMMARY

1. The sport, fitness, and physical-education professions were born in the United States at the Adelphi Conference in 1885.
2. The pre-Civil War era was a time of transition from local games to institutionalized sport. The war itself helped to spread and standardize many sport forms.
3. Many sports were introduced in America in the period between 1850 and 1900. Several important sports, such as basketball and softball, were invented in America during the same period.
4. The decline of religious opposition to sport, fitness, and physical education and the philosophy of muscular Christianity greatly accelerated the growth of those fields.
5. Immigration, industrialization, urbanization, and advances in transportation and communication created the context within which sport and physical education rapidly developed in the late nineteenth century.
6. Formal gymnastic systems developed in Europe were adopted in America and competed with American systems for dominance in school and university programs. The Boston Conference of 1889 debated the various systems.
7. By the turn of the century, sport was becoming highly institutionalized at both the professional and the amateur levels through organizations, governing bodies, and sport conferences.
8. Abuses and problems in college and university sport led to the beginnings of faculty control and the formation of sport conferences.
9. The new physical education was heralded by Thomas Wood and marked the transition from a medical approach to an educational approach, ending the domination of physical education by formal gymnastic systems.
10. From the turn of the century to World War I, an umbrella profession of physical education was created. Under it gathered professionals from physical education, health, recreation, dance, playgrounds, camping, and sport.
11. In the early twentieth century, a national sport culture emerged with widespread participation and spectating and the beginnings of national traditions, as well as sport heroes and heroines.
12. The era between World War I and the Great Depression was the golden age of sport, fitness, and physical education. Schooling developed nationally with physical education as an accepted subject, and sport continued its domination of American popular culture.
13. “Education through the physical” became the dominant philosophy for the umbrella profession, but “education of the physical” continued to have a strong voice within the profession.
14. A science of physical education began to develop, tracing its roots from the work of Hitchcock and Sargent.
15. Access and equity for women and blacks were not features of this era, even though pioneering work was accomplished by women leaders and black students had access in some institutions.
16. By 1930 at the close of the emergence era, the sport, fitness, and physical-education professions were firmly consolidated under the umbrella of APEA, sport had reached new heights of cultural popularity, and many universities had begun to offer graduate-level programs in physical education.
17. The cultural context of the consolidation and specialization era was dominated by the Great Depression, World War II, the postwar recovery, and the post-1950 social ferment. The

Great Depression caused the first serious financial problems for sport, fitness, and physical education since the turn of the twentieth century, forcing both government and private sectors to seek new ways to fund programs. Participation rates increased, however.

18. The organizations supporting sport, fitness, and physical education were forced to consolidate further, with the APEA affiliating with NEA and changing its name to AAHPPE.
19. World War II showed that fitness levels in the population were low, caused professional and other spectator sport to continue on hold, and further enhanced participation. Research specializations developed, greatly aided by the needs of the war effort.
20. Professional sport began to develop in the post-war years, becoming popular and taking on its modern forms. Recreational sports, such as golf, tennis, and bowling, also became popular. Youth sport, school sport, and intercollegiate sport also developed rapidly in the postwar years, assuming the central importance they now occupy in American culture.
21. In school physical education, lifetime sports became central to the curriculum. In the mid-1950s, the nation experienced a fitness crisis when American children were shown to perform less well than European children on so-called fitness tests.
22. The cultural context of the post-1950 years was dominated by consumerism, concern for ecology, the civil rights movement, and the Vietnam War, producing major changes in sport, fitness, and physical education, such as wilderness sports, Title IX, Public Law 94-142, and the racial integration of sports.
23. Sport in the post-*Sputnik* era became substantially more specialized and economically important, with the lines separating amateur from professional becoming less clear. A fitness renaissance occurred among middle- and upper-class adults. Women took part fully in the fitness movement for the first time.
24. In school physical education, the post-*Sputnik* years were dominated by curricular innovations such as movement education, adventure education, cooperative games, the discipline movement, and expanded opportunities for girls and for people with disabilities.
25. The academic-discipline movement in colleges and universities changed the nature of academic programs and created a series of subdisciplines focusing on specific academic areas of physical education.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What do the pictures and discussions of “gymnastics” classes tell you about the early models of physical education?
2. Why do you think that sport had such a difficult time becoming part of physical education during the “gymnastics era”?
3. How did you react to the stories of early abuses in collegiate sport? Were they worse than abuses today?
4. What type of philosophy would you say supported the physical education that you experienced in middle or high school?
5. How did the popular view of fitness change during the time period examined in this chapter?
6. What were the significant events between 1900 and World War I that influenced physical education?
7. How did the Great Depression affect the development of sport and physical education?
8. How did World War II change our views of fitness, sport, and physical education?
9. What factors seem to make fitness more or less important and/or popular among the American public?
10. How has the physical-education curriculum changed in the past 100 years?
11. What factors have made collegiate and professional sport so popular?