SOCIOLOGY AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

by

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Introduction.

A characteristic feature of text-books on the sociology of education is the use of terms which have been defined and agreed. Whilst the primary aim of this paper is to attempt to trace connections between the sociology of education and the field of physical education, every effort will also be made to define key words as they arise. The paper will then attempt to highlight the need for an agreed sociology of leisure, with particular emphasis on recreation.

PART 1.

Sociology of Education.

Sociology is the study of society, or more precisely the study of human relationships within society. It forms only part of the field of the social sciences which also includes psychology, economics, anthropology and other aspects of human activity. The sociology of education is the study of the relationship of education to society.

Already certain words have been used which require further examination, such as 'education' and 'society.' Ottoway has said that ¹ 'the educator, in accordance with the aims he accepts, attempts to develop the personality of the child, and to prepare him for membership of his society.' 'Personality' implies some knowledge of the nature of children and in this aspect the educator leans on the findings of educational psychologists. The 'aims' of education constitute one of the fields of study of educational philosophers and must be a prior consideration in curriculum selection. It is in preparing a child for 'membership of his society' that the educational sociologist is called upon. The importance of this task is underlined by Jean Floud ² 'Education is no longer as it was in Durkheim's day and even still largely in Mannheim's day, a simple corollary of class or status position. It is increasingly a determinant of it, and therewith of a wide range of an individual's so called 'life-chances' which were formerly much more exclusively dependent on his birth or his wealth.' Thus in the sociology of education, evidence must be drawn from philosophers, psychologists and sociologists.

Recent reports have stressed that to be effective, educators must take into account not only the ³ 'age aptitudes and abilities of children' but also the limitations of home backgrounds. Education which is effective for the middle class son of an intelligent bank manager living in an expensive suburb will not necessarily be effective for the boy from a crowded home in a slum area. Education will vary according to the social and economic background of the pupils and unless teachers are aware of this factor conflict may arise out of the difference between their own values and those of the pupils. The study of education and society must also take into account the far reaching effects of historical social upheavals such as the Industrial Revolution, two major World Wars and the Depression. Even a cursory glance at the pattern of education in 1900 and in 1965 will demonstrate that education varies from era to era. Changes in society are normally reflected in changes in education. The inter-relationship of these changes in society and education forms much of the field of the sociology of education.

Before proceeding to a consideration of these facts as they affect physical education it is necessary to provide a definition of the word 'society.' One can opt to join the Royal Scottish Country Dance Society or a Debating Society, but there is no element of choice in being born into the society known as Scotland. Society (i) may be defined as a 'group of people drawn together into voluntary membership of a society through mutual interest in a particular activity.' Society (ii) might be considered 'a community of people living within certain defined geographical limits.' It is obviously the latter group which, when related to education, forms the basis of study of life, or culture of people living in a society and the roles which pupils would be expected to fulfil as members of the society.

Welfare and Physical Education.

During the last century there have been changes in society in Scotland which are quite revolutionary. The following table ⁴ indicates the growth of the population, which has more than doubled since 1850, and the movement of population from the Highlands into the industrial central belt stretching from the Clyde in the West to Edinburgh in the East. Fortunately the way of life of Highlanders and Lowlanders alike are well documented and it is easy to discover how physical education has emerged in Scotland. Since this paper is not essentially concerned with the history of physical education, one or two examples will suffice to show how changes in physical education have followed from movements in society.

TABLE 1
Distribution of Population, 1755 - 1951

Enumerated in	1755		1801		1851		1901		1951	
	Nos.	%	Nos.	%	Nos.	%	Nos.	%	Nos.	%
Crofting Counties . . .	255,513	20.2	302,817	18.9	395,540	13.7	352,371	7.9	285,786	5.6
Argyll & Inverness . . .	125,849	10.0	153,949	9.6	185,798	6.4	163,746	3.7	148,291	2.9
Remaining Counties . . .	129,664	10.2	148,868	9.3	209,742	7.3	188,625	4.2	137,495	2.7
North-East	214,001	16.9	220,712	13.7	349,716	12.1	460,941	10.3	462,496	9.1
Aberdeen & Kincardine . .	139,225	11.0	147,414	9.1	246,630	8.5	345,362	7.7	355,411	7.0
Remaining Counties . . .	74,776	5.9	73,298	4.6	103,086	3.6	115,579	2.6	107,085	2.1
NORTH	469,514	37.1	523,529	32.6	745,256	25.8	813,312	18.2	748,282	14.7
Angus & Perth	188,999	15.0	224,636	14.0	329,924	11.4	407,365	9.1	402,905	7.9
Fife and Kinross	86,459	6.8	100,468	6.2	162,470	5.6	225,818	5.0	314,196	6.2
Stirling & Clackmannan . .	46,017	3.6	61,683	3.8	109,188	3.8	174,320	3.9	225,059	4.4
Lothians	136,950	10.8	170,427	10.6	325,956	11.3	593,172	13.3	706,570	13.8
FORTH-TAY	458,425	36.2	557,214	34.6	927,538	32.1	1,400,675	31.3	1,648,730	32.3
Clyde	122,228	9.7	246,903	15.3	736,363	25.5	1,722,172	38.5	2,103,292	41.3
Ayr and Bute	66,134	5.2	95,998	6.0	206,466	7.1	273,255	6.1	340,520	6.7
GREATER CLYDE	188,362	14.9	342,901	21.3	942,829	32.6	1,995,427	44.6	2,443,812	48.0
Central	646,787	51.1	900,115	55.9	1,870,367	64.7	3,396,102	75.9	4,092,542	80.3
Solway	77,459	6.1	106,726	6.6	164,633	5.7	144,639	3.2	148,005	2.9
Tweed	71,620	5.7	78,050	4.9	108,486	3.8	118,050	2.7	107,586	2.1
SOUTH	149,079	11.8	184,776	11.5	273,119	9.5	262,689	5.9	255,591	5.0
SCOTLAND	1,265,380	100.0	1,608,420	100.0	2,888,742	100.0	4,472,103	100.0	5,096,415	100.0

Before the need for physical education for the great majority of the population could be felt, a half century of reform in social welfare was necessary. When physical education in schools did emerge it was part of this 'welfare movement' with heavy medical overtones and it was not until the mid-nineteen-thirties that the purely educational value of physical education assumed dominance over the medical.

In ⁵ 'Scottish Social Welfare, 1864 - 1914 a graphic picture has been painted of the kind of societies which were produced in rural and urban areas as a result of massive population migrations and Professor Ferguson has been at pains to establish the low value given to life in slum areas of large cities. Within this framework it was possible to enact, but difficult to realise a humanitarian form of popular education. Of poverty, malnutrition, infection and housing, he had much to say, but one example may serve to illustrate the horror of living conditions in a city. 'There they die and their little bodies are laid on a table or on a dresser so as to be somewhat out of the way of their brothers and sisters who play and sleep and eat in their ghastly company. From beginning to rapid ending the lives of these children are short parts in a continuous tragedy. A large proportion enter life by the side door of illegitimacy. One in every five of all who are born there never see the end of their first year. Of those who so prematurely die, a third have never been seen in their sickness by any doctor.'

Small wonder then that when a ⁶ Royal Commission on Physical Training (Scotland) was appointed in 1902 its terms of reference should link physical training and welfare, thus: 'To enquire into the opportunities for physical training now available in the State-aided schools and other educational institutions of Scotland; and to suggest means by which such training may be made to conduce to the welfare of the pupils.' It is a matter of history that following publication of the Report of the Commissioners in 1903 a further Report ⁷ was required to consider what measures might be taken to offset physical deterioration, and that the Education (Scotland) Act of 1908 made compulsory, medical examination of all schools pupils. It was on this basis that the School Medical Service was eventually established and in this manner that a remedial or therapeutic emphasis was given to physical exercise. It is no surprise to note that shortly after Dunfermline of Hygiene and Physical Training was opened in 1905, the duties of Principal were combined with those of Medical Officer. ⁸

Recreation and Physical Education.

Early recognition had been given to a problem which arose from uncontrolled expansion of urban areas. In 1912 ⁹ a Departmental

Committee on Playground of Elementary Schools had laid down precise standards of playground accommodation, but the demands for factory space made the task of local education committees a difficult one. However, it was not until 1930 that the Board of Education came out in favour of organised games to the extent of laying down that 'New schools whenever practicable should be provided with playing fields in addition to the usual playgrounds.' This suggestion was made perhaps under the pressure of the activity of a great movement which began in 1925 with the formation of the National Playing Fields Association. This marked the beginning of a new era in physical education and the revised syllabus of physical training for schools published in 1933¹⁰ reflected the increased importance given to organised games. Considerable weight was given to the movement by the massive grants made available by the Carnegie U.K. Trust.

The third and last example of how changes in society have helped to mould the shape of physical education is the powerful effects of the Central Council of Physical Recreation, and its now very mature offspring, Scottish Council of Physical Recreation. Quite simply, in the new wave of affluence for what was previously called the 'working-classes' which has been a mark of the post 1945 era, the Council have brought into the lives of ordinary people, activities which had previously been the exclusive province of the wealthier section of the community. It is now a common-place event in a schoolboy's life to ski, sail and pony-treck. All of this would have been quite impossible in the thirties, not only because of the economic implications, but also because of the rigidity of class barriers and of the activities which were permissible if one was to fulfil ones role in society.

Conclusion.

From these few examples it may be claimed that changes in educational practice have resulted from changes in society. If this is accepted and if some lesson is to be learned from such a conclusion, it might be that physical educationists should give careful attention to the work done in the field of sociology. It might also appear that if a physical educationist is to comprehend the origins of this subject, he must consider social history in addition to Education and Psychology.

PART 11.

Sociology of Leisure.

A welcome feature of recent Government Reports such as Crowther, Newsom and Robbins, has been the considerable amount of sociological information provided in support of recommendations.¹¹ The Crowther Report "15 to 18"

ran to two volumes and this was surpassed by the Robbins Report "Higher Education", which, including the Report and Appendices, covered six volumes. Another pleasing aspect of these Reports is their 'readability,' The statistics included in the Newsom Report, were condensed into a fascinating set of ¹² profiles of imaginary boys and girls who may be taken to represent the upper, middle and lower reaches of the modern school population at the age of fourteen.

The picture is quite different when one turns to consideration of the post-school adolescent and the adult world of leisure. Almost alone in this field is the Albemarle Report ¹³ "Youth Service in England and Wales" which was published in 1960. Patterns of leisure are difficult to establish in a group in which only one in every three has any contact with a youth organisation. National Service used to provide an opportunity to regain contact with a large number of young men and women who had left school at the age of fifteen, but one is now dependent on the results of smaller studies. In this field the financial spending power of the teenagers and young adults is a target for consumer research, and British Travel Association has pioneered this field. ¹⁴ Lickorish has reported an estimated figure of £2,500 million or approximately 9% of the national income as total recreational spending.

This is a field which is ripe for research. The Trades Unions are working towards a shorter working week and a corresponding increase in the time available for leisure. What people do in their spare time and why they do it appears as a void in which commercial interests are the motive forces. Ten pin bowling, bingo and more recently ski-ing are a few of the enterprises which have attracted a considerable following in recent years, just as cinema audiences, association football and cricket attendances have fallen away. A study of the inter-relationships of work and leisure and the patterns of behaviour emerging in different groups would form a study which might be termed the sociology of leisure.

Giddens has contributed an interesting article in this field, entitled ¹⁵ 'Notes on the Concepts of Play and Leisure.' He summarises the main theories of play as they affect children drawing from the findings of 19th century educational philosophers and early 20th century psychologists. Broadly, these theories have been referred to as '(i) the surplus energy theory; (ii) the recreation theory; (iii) recapitulation theory; and (iv) the instinct practice theory:' for the purposes of this paper it is sufficient to abstract certain features of play which appear to be common to children and adults and to consider whether they help to provide an understanding of leisure activities of adults. Play must be non-productive - i.e., not related to economic gain or survival; it may allow the individual the opportunity to express himself in a way which is not possible in formal situations such as the classroom or the factory; (self expression) it may allow for release of tensions which have accumulated in these formal situations; (catharsis). If these two functions of play, self-expression and catharsis supply needs in

adults at leisure they may usefully be incorporated in a definition of recreation.

Leisure has been defined in many ways, but almost universally in some relationship to work. e.g., Giddens 'The main approach to the study of play in sociology has been in terms of a polar contrast with work'. Yukio has suggested the following definition of recreation ¹⁶'Recreation is an act or experience, selected by the individual during his leisure time, to meet a personal want or desire, primarily for his own satisfaction. But this definition would not appear to include the cathartic element which has been posited as a function of play. The truth would appear to be that the literature on this subject is scanty and that there have been few major attempts to survey the leisure activities of different groups in society.

This is in striking contrast to American approach to this question. ¹⁷ Cullingworth has summarised the conclusions of the ¹⁸ Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, one of which was that \$500 million should be set aside by the Government for land appropriation. The country should be seen as being composed of various areas considered in relationship to large cities. These areas were described as follows:-

1. High Density Recreation Areas - close to cities, maximum accessibility; beaches, swimming baths, playing fields; hotels.
2. General Outdoor Recreation Areas - containing a very wide variety of activities for holiday makers; camping, fishing, water sports; camping and caravan parks, ski-resorts; hunting lodges.
3. Natural Environment Areas - emphasis on natural, rather than man-made facilities; basic camping facilities.
4. Unique Natural Areas - natural resources of outstanding scenic splendour; access and preservation of beauty.
5. Primitive Areas - wild, mountainous country; minimum transport facilities; isolation.
6. Historic and Cultural sites - access for transport and emphasis on conservation.

With planning of this magnitude, areas such as Glencoe and the Cairngorms

would be protected whilst offering maximum access. This is a field of Government action, but the need for this action must first be highlighted by educationists and sociologists. The first step is to define terms and instigate surveys of how groups within society use their leisure. From these initial surveys major planning must be accompanied by the provision of finance and facilities.

Conclusion: If the arguments advanced in this paper are sound, the motives underlying sport and leisure require investigation. Contributions may be expected from sociologists, but the B. A. S. M. might usefully attempt to instigate such inquiries.

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4. The Movement of People in Scotland, 1851 - 1951. R.H. Osborne. Scottish Studies Vol. 2, Part 1, 1958.
5. Scottish Social Welfare 1864 - 1914, T. Ferguson. E. & S. Livingstone, 1958.
6. Royal Commission on Physical Training (Scotland) 1903, H. M. S. O.
7. Inter Departmental Commission on Physical Deterioration 1904, H. M. S. O.
8. In 1911, Dr. Lewis D. Cruikshank was appointed Administrative Medical Officer and Principal of the College. When Dr. Cruikshank became Medical Officer and Chief Inspector of P. T. to the Scottish Education Department in 1912, he was succeeded by Dr. Alistair MacKenzie. Dr. MacKenzie retained this post until the new students moved to Jordanhill in 1931.
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